Navigating the River
He waka eke noa

Proceedings of the 2011 Annual International Conference of the Association of Tertiary Learning Advisors of Aotearoa/New Zealand (ATLAANZ)

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Editor
Mervyn Protheroe

Learning Commons
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Table of contents

Preface and acknowledgements iii
Foreword v
Editor’s introduction vi

Offshore – onshore: How international students’ expectations of the New Zealand academic environment compare to their lived experience 1
Cath Fraser and Pam Simpson

The Poutama tukutuku metaphor and how it adds value to the tertiary learning journey 16
Adele Holland and Mary Silvester

The pedagogy and practice of elearning: Looking back to redirect the flow 21
Susan Carter, Ashwini Datt, and Claire Donald

Avoiding plagiarism: Steering clear of the rocks 37
Deborah Laurs

Drifting with the current or steering our own course? EAP practitioners in New Zealand 49
Pat Strauss

WaiBoost: An intensive cohort programme for developing tertiary-level academic skills 58
E. Marcia Johnson, Andrea Haines and Christina Gera

Creating a place at the table or getting a seat on the boat: Reflections on a strategy to position Academic Language and Learning work in relation to national agendas 71
Bronwyn James

KEYS to Academic Writing Success: A six-stage process account 82
Quentin Allan

Navigating towards success: Supporting students on academic probation 107
Catherine Ross
Invisible Ties: Finding Learning as It Happens
Sean Sturm

Appendix 1: Statistics related to the proceedings
Preface and acknowledgements

The articles accepted for these conference proceedings were double blind refereed using at least two referees. Statistics regarding this process are included in the Appendix.

I would like to extend my thanks to the referees, who gave both their time and expertise to ensure that the review process occurred in a complete and timely fashion. Many authors, including those who decided not to continue to publication, expressed their appreciation for the time and effort put in on their behalf, and the resulting valuable feedback. The referees for this publication were:

Cath Fraser  Deborah Laurs  ‘Ema Wolfgang-Foliaki
Julie Batchelor  Xiadon Gao  Meegan Hall
Caitriona Cameron  Mary Roberts  Emmanuel Manalo

I would also like to thank the contributors, who not only completed research and presented at the conference, but took the time to submit and revise their papers in the light of the feedback that they received.

The ATLAANZ 2011 conference would not have occurred without the time and commitment of the other committee members, namely Elizabeth Merton, Tim Barrie and Mary Weddell. I will always be grateful for their hard work and perseverance in ensuring that conference milestones were achieved. Furthermore, I would like to thank Mere Toss Davidson without whose administrative skills, the conference organisation would not only have been more difficult but also the final result would not have been as good. I would like to thank her especially for her calm, solution based approach to the many problems that surfaced during the planning stages.

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I would like to thank Ako Aotearoa for their sponsorship of the conference. Their financial contribution greatly assisted the convenors in hosting the event.

Bernie Cooper, who was the Webperson for ATLAANZ during the planning stages of this conference, needs special mention. Without her skillful additions to the webpage, particularly the link to Paypal, delegates would have found not only paying conference fees more stressful, but also not had complete up-to-date, timely conference information.
I would also like to thank all the members of the ATLAANZ executive and the conference delegates who acted as session chairs to the various presentations. Specifically, I am indebted to Vanessa van der Ham for her diligent checking of the final proof of the proceedings before it was sent off for printing. Her input has resulted in a better final product.

Lastly, I would like to thank all of WelTec’s staff, who pulled together in the week prior to and during the conference to ensure the event was successful. Without everyone’s help this event would not have run as smoothly as it did.

Mervyn Protheroe
Learning Commons
WelTec
Foreword

In 2011 the theme for the ATLAANZ conference at Weltec in Petone was Navigating the River. In addition to its local geographical reference, this title was an appropriate metaphor for the experiences of Learning Centres and Tertiary Learning Advisors trying to keep afloat in the turbulence of organisational restructuring and diminishing budgets in 2011. We saw an alarming number of ATLAANZ members facing redundancy in that year, and I would like to thank all those whom we lost in this maelstrom for their years of tireless work for the Association. While it is certainly not plain sailing yet and pockets of instability still exist, I am hoping that we can look forward to a smoother journey ahead.

As usual, there were many excellent presentations at the conference, and this volume of the proceedings represents a sample of the outstanding work being done in our area of expertise. Besides thanking the contributors for the time and effort they have put into getting their papers ready for publication, and the referees who so willingly gave of their time to read and give feedback on the articles, I would particularly like to thank Mervyn Protheroe and his team at Petone for the many hours they have put in preparing these papers for publication. Their work has contributed to another valuable publication for our profession.

Ken Cage
ATLAANZ President
2012
Editor’s introduction

The 2011 ATLAANZ conference theme Navigating the River was chosen to enable Tertiary Learning Advisors to reflect on their students’ learning journeys, and the varyingly different effects that the flow of the river has on students as they progress down and sometime upstream. For some, the journey is smooth and steady, for others more like white water rafting. The three sub themes: ‘Navigating the rapids’; ‘Looking back up river’ and ‘Listening to the water’ were intended to help focus the presentations on working with youth, reflecting on successes and obstacles and listening to student voices. The papers in these proceedings reflect these goals.

Cath Fraser and Pam Simpson explore how international students’ expectations of studying in New Zealand gel with their actual experiences, and the implications these may have for Learning Advisors and student support services. Their findings highlight the difficulties international students experience when living and studying here.

Adele Holland and Mary Silvester reflect on how academic learning can best be fostered in an increasingly diverse and expanding tertiary environment. They document how they reconceptualised their learning development services through the lens of the Poutama tukutuku metaphor and explain how this reconceptualisation adds value to students’ tertiary learning journeys.

Susan Carter, Ashwini Datt, and Claire Donald report and critically reflect on the development of face to face teaching material into an online module for doctoral students. They outline the process of this development and report on the changing views of one of the authors regarding online media.

Deborah Laurs identifies and evaluates the typical range of responses to plagiarism, and the changing environment in which information is sourced. She describes plagiarism as a danger that lurks beneath the surface of the river and invites Learning Advisors and academics to consider the most effective ways of helping students avoid these potential dangers.

Pat Strauss explores the past and current situation with which English for academic purposes (EAP) practitioners were and are now presented. She argues that a reconsideration and renegotiation of the role of English in the academy is required if there is to be a real sense of inclusiveness for all tertiary students.

E. Marcia Johnson, Andrea Haines, and Christina Gera describe the successes and challenges of an intensive academic upskilling programme (WaiBoost) at the University of Waikato. Their research results indicate that WaiBoost intensive teaching and follow-up approaches are pedagogically effective. They conclude with recommendations for intensive upskilling programmes of a similar nature.
Bronwyn James, from an Australian context, considers collaboration events among higher education institutions in regards academic language and learning (ALL) educators and the relationship of their work to current national higher education agendas. She then reflexively and reflectively examines one such event.

Quentin Allen outlines the practical approach taken at Auckland University of Technology (AUT) to foster academic writing skills with first year students. The Keys to Academic Writing Success (KAWS) programme has received positive feedback from both staff and students, and Quentin clearly elucidates the processes that staff have put in place to improve student writing.

Catherine Ross describes a pilot programme put in place at the Open Polytechnic which targets students on academic probation. The programme, which uses positive psychology and a strengths approach, focuses on helping students clarify their study goals and determine how they might apply their strengths to the skills needed for successful study.

Sean Sturm eruditely explores how we can assess learning as it happens. He considers different forms of assessment, the move from transmission, through transaction to transformation and indicates what to assess using five learning attributes.
Offshore – onshore: How international students’ expectations of the New Zealand academic environment compare to their lived experience

Cath Fraser and Pam Simpson
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Abstract

The beginning of each semester in our institution is accompanied by an increasing number of international students arriving at the International Students Coordinator’s office feeling confused, puzzled or distressed with some aspect of their study experience. Often they want to change their programme, but this can be problematic on a number of fronts: seeking approval from Immigration, the administrative time required for re-processing applications, and possible negotiations with tutors and Group Leaders. In addition, programme spaces may not always be available two or three weeks into the course and, if they are, the student can really struggle to catch up. It is clearly important to ensure that students enrol in the right programmes the first time round and one purpose of the research project described in this paper was to identify the size and scope of this issue. Forty-two current and graduate international students responded to an online survey, with follow-up focus groups (10 current students) and interviews (9 graduates) to hear what they perceived as the key areas of mismatch between expectations prior to enrolment, and their actual experience. Findings showed more than 80% believed their programme was the right one for them in terms of level and content, slightly fewer (73%) as a career pathway. Overall students felt least prepared about work options during study, and permanent residency. Most felt somewhat prepared about programme level and content, and New Zealand culture. The majority felt well prepared about English language requirements, and information about our country. The paper discusses the implications of these results for Learning Advisors and student support services.

Introduction

Few, if any practitioners in any of our student support professions – academic and pastoral, health and counselling, library and registry - would want to be without our vibrant international student body, and the attendant social, cultural and economic advantages they bring to an institution. Yet many of us often do little more than pay lip service to truly understanding the factors that bring these students to our shores and those that contribute to, or inhibit their achievement. We can be all too prone to

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grumble about the challenges these students present for us, and too little aware of what is driving them. The research project reported in this paper was occasioned by just such a grumble, but resulted in considerable learning for the researchers themselves and the institution’s representatives on the frontline of student support.

The grumble in this case was an administrative one: the institute’s International Students Coordinator felt that there was an increasing tendency for students to enrol on one programme, but within days of arrival, or sometimes after a few weeks of attending class, to want to change to a different programme. Three cases in point from a single month were:

Student A from the Philippines had originally applied to a number of Australian universities but been advised that his English was not at a high enough level for direct entry. He was subsequently accepted by our institution for the NZ Diploma in Business, having been told by his agent that a completed qualification would offer a fast track to achieving residency, and that he could then relocate. However, NZ Immigration changed this policy over two years ago. The agent either was unaware of the change, or deliberately misinformed the student – or perhaps the application process was initiated while the earlier guidelines were in place. The outcome is that the student is withdrawing and we have had to refund the second semester’s fees (the NZ Diploma in Business is a semester-based course). This student had never particularly valued a New Zealand sub-degree qualification as an end in itself.

Student B has a degree from India in Early Childhood Education (ECE), but her agent told her that there was no future in this area (this student also wants to achieve residency) and advised her to study IT. Because of her degree she was admitted onto the Graduate Diploma in Computing – but without the necessary practical understanding, had to drop down to the Diploma. She has since become aware that ECE is on Immigration’s Wanted Skills list (and has been for at least the last three years, and is now going to withdraw, and will probably move onto another university’s Graduate Diploma in Teaching programme, as this is not available through our institution.

Student C lasted one semester before flying home. She has a physical disability, but her real difficulty has been with the academic demands of her programme and emotional/mental health issues. Her previous education history did not prepare her for the level of study required, and her home background had not prepared her for independent living - although her agent advised her family to send her here. Her only social support is from her friend and the friend’s flatmates – ironically the same agent has placed these students with PTEs in Auckland, although they are studying business and hospitality, both of which could have been done through our institution. Student C said she felt lonely and isolated, and dispirited at the difficulty in making connections with Kiwi classmates.
The main point of all three scenarios is that students felt they had had a false picture of what studying in New Zealand would entail. All three felt they would have done better with a different programme or a different location. In order for students to change or transfer their study programme, we need to apply to NZ Immigration, as the student’s visa is determined by their enrolment. Immigration has recently shifted to a far more rigid policy of insisting that students maintain their original course of study, so institutions now have less flexibility to accommodate these requests. Even where changes are approved, there is a considerable investment of time required, writing letters and re-processing applications and negotiating with faculty lecturers, tutors and administrative staff. Programme spaces may not always be available two or three weeks into the course, and if they are, the student can really struggle to catch up. It is clearly important to ensure that students enrol in the right programmes the first time round. A discussion about this issue between the authors of this paper led us to the question: How does the experience of tertiary study at our institution match international students’ expectations and affect the decisions they make about future directions?

Background / Literature Review

The internationalisation of our campuses

A prominent feature of higher education in New Zealand is the growing cultural diversity of the student population. The number of international students studying in our tertiary sector has increased dramatically in the last decade, as has the number of countries represented. Historically, bringing international students into our institutions was a part of the trade-aid approach to Third World development via the “Colombo Plan” in the early 1950s which New Zealand supported alongside other Commonwealth nations (Brebner, 2008). As numbers grew, government and educators began to recognise the importance of international students’ presence to broaden the worldview of local students and to contribute an alternative revenue stream, and this was officially reflected in reforms in the Education Act in 1989 promoting the sale of places in universities (International Division, 2006). By the 1990s, we had become increasingly dependent on full-fee paying international students; Brebner (2008) calls this “academic capitalism”, leading to our sometimes “feverish recruitment” of international students into New Zealand higher education (p. 2).

Today New Zealand is one of the five major host-countries in the English-speaking world, together with the United States, Canada, United Kingdom and Australia (Holloway, 2004) and export education is now our fourth largest export industry (Merwood, 2007). In 2010, latest enrolment figures across all education sectors show an increase of nearly 5% for the first eight months of this year, compared to last year, from 78,905 to 82,577 students (Terra Nova Consultancy, 2010). Tertiary Education Minister Steven Joyce (as cited in Terra Nova Consultancy, 2010), stated: “International education contributes at least $2.1 billion to our economy and supports about 32,000 jobs, so it is pleasing to see the sector continue to grow despite strong competition from Australia and other countries”. He continued by saying that the
government believed there was still room for considerable growth: “International students currently make up around 13% of the student roll in New Zealand universities, compared to an average of more than 20% in Australian universities”. Yet these figures are already quite high: even though the United States has the largest share (20%) of international tertiary education students worldwide, their representation in the overall American student body is just over 3% (AUSSE, 2010). In contrast, international students in New Zealand already have quite a noticeable profile within the student body, which may have some bearing on their campus experience, discussed in the following section.

The changing face – and purpose - of international students
As numbers have grown, the demographic face of the international student body has been changing too. In the 1990s, students came in larger numbers from Malaysia, Indonesia and Thailand than they do today. Next, it was students from China, Korea and Japan who predominated, and now their ranks are swelled by students from the Indian subcontinent (Deloitte, 2008). While we continue to host students from European and South American countries, North America and Australia (ESANA students) these groups remain a minority. Both Asian and ESANA students are international enrollees, but research has identified quite different motivations for each group, which have implications for understanding the expectation/experience divide.

Both New Zealand’s Ministry of Education and the Australian Council for Educational Research regularly conduct large-scale surveys of international students in this country and concur that while ESANA students rate travel and adventure, beautiful scenery and New Zealand lifestyle as important, Asian students make choices about study destination according to perceptions of employment and residency opportunities, and quality of education providers (AUSSE, 2010; Deloitte, 2008). Only 64% of New Zealand’s international students selected New Zealand as a first-choice destination, compared to 84% of international students in Australia (Deloittes, 2008) which supports the findings of Education New Zealand’s study of Chinese students who voiced concern over the perceived low ranking of New Zealand universities compared to those in Australia, Canada and the UK (Ho et. al., 2005). This concern was a direct precursor to our survey questions relating to students’ expectations and actual experiences of academic content and level within their programmes.

Whether or not New Zealand was a first-choice study destination, or a default means to gaining a western passport, it is clear that a large proportion of New Zealand’s international students are prospective migrants. Dr Elizabeth Craven from the University of Technology in Sydney, addressed our ATLAANZ conference in 2008 and cited Robertson’s (2006) study of international students’ mobility, which noted that temporary residence as a student was only ever seen by many as a transitional stage. From an immigration perspective, this was not a bad thing: it allowed a “double adaption” whereby individuals could adjust first to life as a student in a foreign university, and then as a longer term entrant into our wider society (Craven, 2009).
However, for educational institutions and student support staff, it is a phenomenon many have been slow to recognise. A decade ago, it was reasonable to expect that international students were aiming to achieve a New Zealand qualification to enhance their employability in their home country. Now we are preparing them for life as a New Zealand citizen, and need to be mindful of the Australian example of favouring residency for those with appropriate Australian tertiary qualifications which has failed to guarantee employability, or even a proficiency in the English language (Craven, 2009). If we are treading the same path, small wonder that many of our students find that their study plans need adjustment after arrival (Ho, Li, Cooper, & Holmes, 2005).

The campus experience
While international students may have chosen to study outside their countries for fairly specific reasons, a common denominator is a desire to develop their English language skills as they study, while making contacts with New Zealanders, on and off campus. Yet this can be hard work, and as Ramsey, Ramsey and Mason (2007) put it,

... there is significant risk associated with attempting to have conversations with Kiwi students who may treat such conversations with disdain ... It is far less risky and much less demanding to mix with other [international] students... For these reasons when Kiwi students hear international students speaking their native languages around campus and, for cultural reasons, displaying reluctance to speak up in English during class time, they assume the international students’ competence with English is worse than it really is and become more reluctant to enter into conversations with them. (p. 110)

Ramsey et al. (2007) continue with their description of the dilemma faced at Massey University, surely instantly recognisable to all tertiary staff in this field, noting that Kiwi students are often very conscious of globalisation and aspire to live and work overseas themselves. Many readily sympathise with international students’ social isolation, but do not want to offer support at the expense of their own immediate education. They may be reluctant to form groups with international students for shared assignments or to see much of their class devoted to filling in the background for those from different cultural and language groups. Similarly, teaching staff today frequently feel torn between recognising that international students may require more help to adjust, but not wanting to alter their delivery of course content in any way that might promote the needs of international students over Kiwis.

International students, particularly Asian international students, therefore experience considerable, and largely unforeseen difficulties in getting to know local people and assimilating into an academic institution, due to language barriers, cultural differences and racial discrimination (Brebner, 2008; Ho et al., 2005; Ramsey et al., 2007; TEC, 2009.). This is important: several studies on friendship patterns between domestic and overseas students suggest that the paucity of intercultural contact among tertiary students can affect the cultural, emotional and psychological wellbeing of international students (Ward & Masgoret, 2004). Other studies have correlated
satisfactory and meaningful contact with host students with the academic success rate of international students (Arkoudis et al., 2010). Yet Ward’s (2001) literature review of the impact of international students on domestic students and host institutions found a convergence of data evidencing a low incidence of intercultural interaction, and that international students would have welcomed more.

There can be no surprise then that this has proliferated the growth of “small world” networks of co-nationals (Brebner, 2008) which unfortunately only heighten public perceptions of difference. These tensions across our campuses are echoed in the literature from other English-speaking countries in the business of export education (International Division, 2006) and lead into the debate about what we actually mean when we talk of becoming ‘internationalised’. Brebner (2008) notes that the discourse highlights the tertiary sector’s “ad hoc nature and disjointed approach” (p. 2) and that academic curricula, teaching practices and delivery of student services are in need of considerable reform to promote true internationalisation. Otherwise, what we have is really more of an economic ‘globalisation’ through the commercialisation of international programs and activities (Brebner, 2008).

Many studies make recommendations for how a more internationalised campus can be achieved, calling for “mutuality and reciprocal cultural relations... [in] non-commercial activities within the institutions” to enable a more multicultural and critical stance of “our own cultural conditioning and national prejudice” (Welsh, 2002, as cited in Brebner, 2008, p. 3). Williams (2011) sees the curriculum as “the backbone of the internationalization process” (sic) since this is where the values, attitudes and beliefs of a particular culture and institution are reflected. She argues that an optimal learning environment must reflect the diversity of the students’ cultures, perspectives and experiences and outlines three approaches she has observed to internationalising the curriculum: the add-on, the infusion, and the transformation. The latter, she says, is the most difficult to achieve, but is the most culturally inclusive and counter-hegemonic, and therefore the most desirable (Williams, 2011).

Why would we want a more truly internationalised campus? Well certainly we want to continuously improve on the quality of experience we provide for our international students, and to be seen as value-for-money in a competitive tertiary study environment. But we also stand to gain: as Merwood (2007) notes, “international students also contribute to knowledge creation and transfer within educational institutions” (p. 6), and compel the institutions themselves to strive to improve the quality of their services. If we are to acknowledge and capitalise on student diversity as a resource for learning and teaching (Arkoudis et al., 2010; International Division, 2006) and enhance student engagement (AUSSE, 2010) then we must ensure that the gaps between international students’ expectations offshore, and study experience onshore, are minimised. While the Ministry of Education regularly conducts large-scale, nation-wide surveys of the sector, it is equally important that individual institutions review and evaluate their own performance; this is the rationale behind the research described in the subsequent sections of this paper.
Methodology

Given the rationale for undertaking the research, that is, to investigate the possible trend within our institution of international students seeking to change programmes because their study experiences didn’t match their pre-arrival expectations, a case study framework was selected as the most appropriate methodology. One of the early proponents of case study research was Robert K. Yin (1989) who defines the case study research method as “an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context” (p. 23). Cousin (2005) says simply that case study research “aims to explore and depict a setting with a view to advancing understanding” (p. 427). In this example, a situational case study allowed the presentation, examination and interpretation of the specific experiences of students within a single education community. The collation of all respondents’ viewpoints therefore provides a starting point for understanding international students’ perceptions of the student experience in our institution. While a limitation of case study research is that it is necessarily sited in a fixed context, it is hoped that the overall trends noted in the findings will be broadly generalisable to other tertiary education providers.

Three instruments of data collection were employed: a survey, focus groups and interviews. The first, an online, anonymous survey using Survey Monkey was developed and trialled with two international student volunteers. The survey included an ethical statement about participation being voluntary and anonymous. In September, 2010, approximately 100 international students were contacted by e-texts and emails, explaining the purpose of the research and inviting them to participate. When the survey closed two weeks later, 42 responses were recorded. Both genders were represented (60% male, 40% female); the majority were aged between 19 and 24, then 25 to 30. Sixty-four percent were from India, with the next most common groups being Europe, China and the Pacific Islands.

Results from the questionnaire were used as a basis for questions for focus groups in the first two weeks of October. Two groups of participants who had indicated availability and contact details on their surveys, with four and six international students respectively, met for a shared lunch, provided by the researchers. The intention with the focus groups was to probe some of the responses from the questionnaire, to gather specific stories of experiences about congruency or mismatch between expectations and the onshore experience, and to elicit suggestions for strategies that BoPP could provide to assist students’ assimilation. The focus groups were recorded and later transcribed.

Nine graduate students, also volunteers from the survey, were interviewed between November 2010 and February 2011, either in person and later transcribed, or electronically for those who had left Tauranga, to gain an idea of an individual’s
journey as a student – from abroad to New Zealand and our institution, through study and graduation, to their next destination – whether work or a higher qualification.

Finally, all data was collated noting recurring themes from the focus groups and interviews and linking these to the statistical analysis provided by the Survey Monkey summary of results.

Findings and Discussion

Prior to departure

Most students heard about our institution from our website, agents, or from prior study through NZ secondary and language schools, as shown in Figure 1. The other sources of information about BoPP as a study destination included friends, family and past and present students.

![Figure 1. Sources of student information about overseas programmes (n=42)](image)

This was an interesting result, as the Ministry of Education’s survey in 2007 (Deloitte, 2008) found that “scholarships, agents’ recommendations and advertisements for study were not strong influencers of student choice” (Executive Summary, p. 2). Yet while our marketing department might be happy with this endorsement of their sphere of influence, frustratingly for the staff charged with coordinating support services for international students, fewer than 30% of the participants had accessed the institution’s pre-departure information on the website.
As predicted by the literature, future job opportunities and interest in the subject were the two most prominent determinants of programme selection (named by 27 and 29 students), although 39% (16 students) also indicated that overseas study experience was important to them. Other considerations were work availability while studying (6 students), weather and lifestyle (6 students), cultural diversity (6 students), the English language medium (5 students), a stable political environment and perception of safety (4 students each), and their first choice wasn’t available (3 students). In follow up focus groups and interviews with representative survey participants, only one of our interviewees mentioned the reputation and ranking of the institution.

Research (AUSSE, 2008; 2010; Deloitte, 2008;) has established that students who have been living in New Zealand for longer and are potentially better assimilated into our society and culture are more satisfied with their education experience and find less dissonance with their expectations. This would suggest an advantage to enrolling students who are pathwaying from other New Zealand education providers such as secondary and language schools. Our institution has never formally measured the breakdown of where our students come from, and we were quite surprised to find that, for over 80% of our participants, New Zealand was their first study experience outside their home country, where we had expected a larger number to have come from the secondary or language school sectors. These findings may suggest that our students are likely to be particularly vulnerable to social isolation, loneliness, cultural dislocation and language barriers, as discussed by Ho et al. (2005), although none of our interviewees or focus group participants referred to any concerns other than the language issue - perhaps the individuals involved were more outgoing and self-sufficient than the norm, or perhaps they had simply progressed beyond the fraught experience of their first few months.

During study
Students were asked to respond to how well prepared they felt they were, using a scale of responses from “Not well prepared – I had some idea – Very well prepared”. The results are shown in Figure 2, with 0 representing a sense of poor preparation, and 3 a sense of complete preparation. Where the final column “All other responses” sums up aggregated responses to three questions about Tauranga – size and location, transport options, and accommodation options and cost.
Students felt least prepared about work options during study, and permanent residency. Focus group and graduate student discussion indicated that many had relied on agent advice and hearsay about these issues, and had made assumptions that both these areas would be accessible and achievable. In the words of one of our interviewees:

My immediate plan was to get an IT job relevant to my studies ... they did not worked out because I am still looking for it.

Other unanticipated difficulties were mostly about transport and, for some, the types and number of course assessments, although 12% were also disappointed by accommodation options.

Most participants felt somewhat prepared about programme level and content, and New Zealand culture. Many had had some communication with present or past students – either from our own or other Australasian tertiary institutions – and had received programme information in advance of enrolment.
The majority felt well prepared about English language requirements for their programme, and information about the location: city size and geographic location, cost of living, transport, accommodation and weather. In focus groups and interviews, students told us this was because they had surfed the internet, or had had conversations with people who had been to New Zealand. This probably represents a growing familiarity with New Zealand as an education destination, since an earlier study had found that the majority of students knew very little about the country prior to arrival (Ho et al., 2005).

Today’s international students are likely more savvy about researching their host country and education provider. In our study, more than 80% believed their programme was the right one for them in level and content, slightly fewer (73%) as a career pathway. This indicated that the issue of students upset over their programme level and/or content which had prompted this research inquiry, was not as widespread as we had feared, and that the students seeking to change courses or institutions were the likely extent of the issue, rather than the tip of the iceberg. When we asked students if the institution was what they had expected, 92% said “Yes” about the learning environment, 85% about the support services, including Learning Advisors, 80% about the class size, 78% about the class sizes, 69% about their classmates, and the same number about cultural diversity.

When students described their responses to both sport and leisure options and social opportunities, just under a half chose “sometimes” or “I’m disappointed by it”; slightly over a half chose “I love it”:

The people I met here and the group and the small family formed here, I never expected that, I would have a home far away from home, everyone taking care of each other as they never did before; this is one unexpected thing I experienced.

Most funny and enjoyable place of the polytechnic is the cafeteria. There is one Ping Pong table and another is Pool Table and having a match on those tables gives you energy whether you win it or lose it.

However, one of the key concerns for international students identified in the literature is that of intercultural interaction, and this was most evident in the focus group discussions, where our participants talked about how hard it was to make Kiwi friends. The majority were on acquaintanceship terms with classmates, but these were mostly what Ward (2001) has called “hi-bye friends, not close friends” (p. 6). Participants generally agreed that while their primary bonds were with co-nationals, they would have liked closer social contact with New Zealanders.

At the time of the study, our institution did not offer English language programmes. Instead, students whose IELTS (International English Language Testing System) levels did not meet entry requirements, or who were interviewed and assessed as needing extra language tuition before acceptance onto a programme were referred to Education Tauranga partners. However, the institution had been considering re-
establishing foundation English language programmes to provide an internal study pathway, and had asked us to include this in our project. Students were therefore asked in the survey, and again in focus groups and interviews, whether they would have liked the option to have enrolled in English language classes before or during their programme had these been available. Sixty-eight percent (27 students) said “Yes” in the survey, but when this response was probed further in discussions, almost all felt that they would not be able or inclined to pay extra for this. Despite the fact that all these students had achieved the prerequisite IELTS level for acceptance onto the programme, almost all felt that their proficiency with conversational English language created a barrier to learning and easy acculturation, particularly our accent, and colloquialisms. Many focus group participants noted that it took them a whole semester to feel that they had settled in; those who had arrived a few weeks earlier or pathwayed from secondary schools or language schools felt better adjusted to commence study.

In a final response worth noting, many students made comments about the difference in teaching and learning between New Zealand and their home country in terms of class size, leniency, participation, group work, the lack of tolerance for plagiarism, and the level of support services available. Almost all comments were favourable to their current programme, compared to their home tertiary study experiences.

**Future plans**

Although predictable from the literature review, it came as a surprise for many teaching and support staff that the majority of students were planning to stay in New Zealand after completing their qualifications: either to work, study, and/or pursue permanent residency. Students said that the prospect of gaining permanent residency and professional employment in New Zealand was one of, if not the primary reason for qualification and destination decisions, with less than a quarter of students planning to return to their own country to work on completion of their New Zealand programme. For most, these plans had not changed since arrival, reinforcing the need for institutions to recognise the motivations international students have for studying abroad in pre-enrolment planning and communications.

Present and graduate students had clear ideas about what advice and/or information they believed it would have been helpful to have received before they arrived, and future briefing letters for international students will incorporate these. Points students made included:

- Meet staff before you start to build relationships
- Need good command of conversational English as there is a communication gap, and this is essential for group work and building friendships with classmates
- Focus on learning technical language
• Colloquialisms, so you can understand what’s being communicated inside and outside of class and don’t feel so much the foreigner.

• Understand the Kiwi culture and have an open mind. Don’t expect to fit in immediately or blame yourself if other students are slow to include you. But equally, try not to spend all your free time with your own national group.

• Pre-learn the subject to be studied – basic knowledge to lay the foundation for learning on arrival.

**Implications for the institution and for Learning Advisors**

The research findings firstly clarified that the experience of the students in the scenarios cited at the beginning of this paper, who had applied to change programmes early in their study pathway due to the content or level not matching their pre-study expectations, were not widely shared by the larger international student population who chose to participate in this research. The majority of the students surveyed and interviewed were comfortable with the learning and considered that they were fairly well, or well prepared. Several of the findings supported trends widely discussed in the literature, such as the persistence of language as a barrier, the desire for rewarding social interactions with fellow students as well as the wider community, and the intention of migration.

For the institution, the study has confirmed the need for on-going education and close communication with international education agents, not just to ensure currency, but also to enable them to reiterate to students the social aspects of studying in a foreign, western culture. It has reinforced the intention to resume English language programmes, and to provide English language specialist staff for international students as a transition to enrolment in mainstream programmes, and this provision has been implemented. It has also meant additional staffing support for the International Student Coordinator and a closer focus for the entire Information Services team who process applications. Results have been shared with teaching staff and discussions led in teams about how better social and study interaction between local and international students can be nurtured, inside and outside the classroom.

For Learning Advisors, the comments about the difficulties for international students of living and learning in an English-speaking environment bear out the daily experience of our jobs. It has prompted us to revisit strategies for working with these students in small study groups, as well as individually, and to look at the resources we are able to refer them to. We did run a trial of a free, weekly English language lesson in a lunchtime, but found that, while the students who attended it enjoyed the sessions and found them valuable, numbers attending dropped off as students became immersed in their own study and assessment requirements. Although studies of our student populations such as recounted here offer no epiphanies of understanding, or quick-fix solutions, our team of learning support staff, and indeed the wider institution, have gained useful insights and reminders of the drivers, needs and concerns of our international students – and that’s always a good thing.
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The Poutama tukutuku metaphor and how it adds value to the tertiary learning journey

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An external review of student services in 2010 prompted us to reflect on how we might best foster academic learning in an increasingly diverse and expanding student body, within our finite resources. As a result we changed our name to Poutama Academic Learning Services to reflect our philosophical framework, and commissioned a tukutuku panel using the Poutama pattern to represent the aspirational, inspirational and scaffolding nature of our work with students and staff. We have since found the metaphors of Poutama and tukutuku to be powerful motivators of students as well as providing a philosophical framework for our practice with students and our active partnership with staff.

The adoption of the name Poutama Academic Learning Services was a deliberate strategy by our team to move away from any institutional perception of our former designation of Learning Skills being seen as one of remediation, towards the view of our service as one of legitimate and deliberate scaffolding of academic ability, motivation, persistence and effort. Simpson (2008) takes the view that these are keys to academic resilience and achievement. This shift was necessary to enable our existing resources to expand to align with the strategic requirements of The Tertiary Education Strategy (2010) with its focus on:

- More students progressing from Level 4 into Level 5-8 qualifications
- Students in Levels 1-3 improving their language, literacy and numeracy
- More students under 25 completing at Levels 4 and above, particularly at degree level
- More Māori students succeeding at higher levels
- More Pasifika students succeeding at higher levels
- More students with disabilities completing higher level qualifications
- More students completing qualifications at all levels

The Tertiary Education Commission focus was on more students succeeding. We needed to refine our own focus. Durie’s (2001) Te Whare Tapa Whā model of Maori health with its four fundamental areas -wairua/spiritual, tinana/physical, whānau/social and hinengaro/cognitive – applied equally well to the field of education and

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student support. As Learning Advisors, we were well positioned to recognise when students could benefit from other services to support them in any of these areas and to refer them on. However our distinctive focus needed to be on hinengaro, to staircase more students towards academic retention, progression and success.

This has required an equitable increase in student access to academic advice. In 2004 every student had been entitled to two 60 minute one-to-one appointments each week. Students made their own bookings on a ‘first come first served’ basis, irrespective of level of study. By 2005, in the face of increasing demand and static staffing levels, this entitlement was reduced to one 50 minute appointment each week. After discussing the level of independence required at different levels of study with Faculty deans, we reduced the time slot for one-to-one sessions from 50 minutes to 25 minutes per week for students studying at Level 6 and above. This released many more potential one-to-one opportunities, and induced a sharper focus in each individual session. We increased the number of tutorial sessions and introduced co-tutoring in classes. The latter offered good use of our time through being able to work with whole classes of new students to cover many of the foundational academic skills needed at the beginning of their programmes. These sessions have been contextualised, aiming to stretch students to the next level of academic ability and cover many of the competencies which they require to persist and succeed.

Co-tutoring is where a content tutor and a Learning Advisor work together in a class session. This model has been extensively used in the Language, Literacy and Numeracy (LLN) context where the Learning Advisor is an LLN expert. In the LLN context, Krsinich and Roberts (2008) identified three common variants of co-tutoring, all of which can and do occur jointly and severally within each of the sessions in a series. These are:

- **Up-front teaching** - This involves both staff members taking turns to teach. All teaching is contextualised to the course content so no extra LLN material is brought to the classroom. The Learning Advisor may pre-teach vocabulary, or other LLN skills or strategies that scaffold the students.
- **Tag/tandem teaching** – The Learning Advisor ‘seizes the moment’ to teach or comment on a specific LLN point where appropriate. Krsinich and Roberts (2008) found that content tutors appreciated LLN co-tutors who were able to “go with the flow”.
- **Roving** – content tutor at the ‘front’ and Learning Advisor roving around providing assistance to individuals or small groups who need extra help.

The shape of a particular co-tutored session series evolves from the relationship of the co-tutors and the students as well as the parameters of the academic content and specific demands of the course.

At Whitireia New Zealand co-tutoring was initially used to embed LLN and to build capability in LLN. It was also employed to enrich the subject content of language
tutorials for English as an additional language (EAL) nursing students. Subsequently the model has evolved to support first year nursing, early childhood education and performing arts degree programmes through embedding aspects of academic scholarship such as academic reading and writing, oral presentation and clinical communication and study skills within the subject context in the first semester of a student’s course of study. At this point it became apparent that changes in our modes of delivery were indicative of a cumulative process of change in focus from remediation to scaffolding students to learn and succeed. We changed the name of our service to Poutama Academic Learning Services to reflect this shift in philosophy and shape.

The traditional meaning of the Poutama pattern is described as

…the stepped pattern of tukutuku panels and woven mats, symbolising genealogies and also the various levels of learning and intellectual achievement. Some say they represent the steps which Tāne-o-te-wānanga ascended to the topmost realm in his quest for superior knowledge… (Māori Dictionary, 2011, para.1).

This pattern is often used in a wharenui to represent the aspirations of an iwi, not just an individual. Arapera Royal Tangaere (1997) alludes to the significance of the Poutama pattern as a metaphor for the time spent consolidating new knowledge, represented by the plateau at each step; and for the period of engaging strenuously with the new knowledge, represented by the vertical step. These lead to continuing progress as people journey upwards together.

Vygotsky (1978) originally coined the term zone of proximal development (ZPD) to describe the gap between what a child can accomplish alone and what a child can accomplish with assistance. As the child is assisted or scaffolded and develops mastery of the new skill, the ZPD moves to the next stage of challenge. The Poutama pattern represents the process of scaffolding (Knowing your learner, 2010) as learners are provided with a framework and support to enable them to acquire new skills and knowledge, and to consolidate these before attempting the next challenge.

Deliberate acts of teaching are integral to this scaffolding process. These include explicit use of learning goals, students identifying what success looks like, overt teaching of how to learn and transfer skills, modelling of effective learner behaviour, scaffolding of new skills, using the teachable moment, enlisting peer support within the class, and regular and prompt feedback (MacGibbon, 2010).

Having decided upon the name change, we commissioned our Whitireia weavers to weave us a tukutuku panel as a visual representation of our new direction. There are many stylistic variations of the Poutama pattern. The version used in our particular Poutama tukutuku panel was chosen by master weaver Kohai Grace to emphasise the
sense of continuous upward striving (personal communication, November 11, 2010). Stepwise journeys occur in parallel with others as many learners and staff are on different upward journeys. Each stepwise journey comprises a group of stitches (tuhi) which represent peers and support on the learning journey. The vertical components of each step represent challenge and stretch to master new skills, while the horizontal components of each step represent periods of consolidation.

As this tukutuku panel was woven, aspects of the weaving process emerged as powerful metaphors. The weaving lattice comprises the honey-coloured vertical rods which are at the rear of the panel (kakaho) and the black horizontal rods which are visible at the front of the panel (kaho). The lattice is secured with golden vertical lashings on each side of the panel (tumatakahuki). At this point the lattice is stable and ready for the main pattern to be woven, and the kakaho are clearly visible through the kaho. Kakaho represent the students – their gifts, prior knowledge and contribution to the learning process. The honey colour of the kakaho visible through the kaho represents overt recognition of the value of the contribution of students to the formal learning process. Kaho represent the contribution of the institution and the body of knowledge which the students are seeking. The tumatakahoki speak of the roles of content tutors and Learning Advisors working together to create a safe environment for learning to occur.

This panel also speaks of diversity. Kakaho is a grassland plant, kaho is dressed and painted pinus radiata, the tumatakahuki are woven from pingao, a coastal dune plant, and the tuhi of the main pattern are woven from kiekie, an epiphytic plant from the forest. All of these components play an essential part in the tukutuku panel, just as all the partners in the learning journey come from diverse backgrounds.

The process of making a tukutuku panel requires weavers to work from the front and from the rear of the panel. The weaver at the front of the panel is responsible for the big picture and for quality control. The weaver at the rear of the panel is responsible for securely tying off each stitch. As the pattern grows, it becomes more easily discernible from the rear of the panel. The process of passing of fibres back and forth to create tuhi (tuitui) requires constant communication and clarification to ensure that the design is accurately executed. The weaver at the front is analogous to the role of the content tutor who has the overall picture of the subject, while the weaver at the rear symbolises the learner who has the responsibility for securely tying off new knowledge and skills. Together they engage in the tuitui process of communication, clarification and feedback to ensure that the student thrives. And, just as weavers swap roles, the process of continuous reciprocal lifelong learning (ako) frequently involves learners and tutors reversing roles to utilise each other’s expertise.

This ako process is also evident in the relationship of content tutors and Learning Advisors, not only as we co-tutor, but as we engage in moderation, curriculum development, professional development and assistance to staff engaging in post-graduate study.
The tukutuku panel is deliberately woven with no top edge symbolising that the learning is a lifelong journey. This also offers us in Poutama Academic Learning Services the opportunity to reflect upon and evolve our own service and provision to students and staff. It is an ongoing journey and one which will involve further formal research into the co-tutoring model and involvement in staff development. It is an exciting prospect for us, our students, staff and the New Zealand tertiary environment.

References


The pedagogy and practice of elearning: Looking back to redirect the flow

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Introduction

This paper reports and reflects on a project changing face-to-face teaching material from generic classes across campus into a flexible online module. In this case, the material came from a doctoral programme that has been established for some years. The process was responsive to doctoral students’ needs, one of redirection from the purely face to face medium, the physical but temporal classroom, to another, the virtual but flexi-time electronic space. We looked back at the generic doctoral programme to capture what we felt to be important in our classroom pedagogy: a sense of community; the opportunity for conversation; deep-level student-friendly content; and multiple approaches (high register, low register, for example) likely to make the resource accessible to students from across campuses and cultures. We aimed to preserve these principles in the online medium. Here we describe and reflect upon our pedagogical negotiations. In journeying back up the river of our classroom practice to enable us to redirect the pedagogical flow into an electronic medium, we discuss the experience of navigating the challenging currents and what we have learned from it for future direction. Critical factors such as time invested in design and development, expenses incurred and possible future developments for interactive student engagement influence change whenever such a “river” is exploited differently. In particular, the paper documents the transforming perspective of Susan as the teacher who initiated the change. She began with a distrust of digital educational media and then worked with educational designers who helped her redesign the material into something that far exceeded her expectations. They contribute their e-learning pedagogy. Nonetheless, the author who changed her material remains aware of the limitations and challenges of going digital.

The Flexible Doctoral Programme (FDP): From physical to virtual space

The personal dimension is crucial, as it always is with teaching. This paper first explains the classroom teacher’s recognition of needs, and teaching aims and practices in Susan’s first person narrative. The team involved with design take over the voice to give a perspective into the motivation and pedagogy that sits behind the elearning

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module. A significant contribution of the paper is that we stress the importance of teaching and learning principles in the translation of a classroom session for online delivery, anatomising some of the considerations that need to be made in the context of personal teaching preferences. We finish by suggesting future possibilities and sharing limitations of the project for future development. The aim of the paper is to assist others contemplating or engaged in the process of building online teaching resources to consider their own style and the needs of their students (in this case, invisible online learners).

**The teacher: Susan’s perspective**

As a Learning Advisor providing generic support to doctoral students, I am aware that many doctoral students can’t access what I teach. They work, live away from campus, are out in the research field, have care-giving responsibilities or are on satellite campuses that have fewer events than the central campus. I know of some who feel isolated as doctoral students: for example, a mother with two small children under 3 years of age whose doctoral work maintains her sanity but whose children limit her research opportunities; a number of nurses and teachers who work full time; several students living in other cities (Palmerston North, Hamilton and Wellington) who commute to Auckland every few months; and a student in Mexico out in the field gathering data. They can’t alleviate isolation by attending the academic courses provided at our institution by the UoA Doctoral Skills Programme (DSP), a suite of almost 40 classroom sessions held through the year. These are fairly solid sessions, usually two hours long.

Currently, in an institution with about 2,000 doctoral students, 284 are part time (personal communication, Francoise Godet, 8 August 2011), which usually translates to people who fit their doctorate around full time work or child/family care and are thus unable to attend workshops. Some are kept at home by dependants. Typically, those who work do so in education, medicine, and population health. According to literature, increasing numbers of students are coming mid-career as part-time students, and ‘increasing numbers study at a distance’ (Kamler & Thomson, 2006, p.9, citing evidence from Australia - Evans, 2002; Evans & Pearson, 1999; McWilliam et al., 2002 - and from Canada: Smyth et al., 2001). It seems likely that New Zealand follows the Australian doctoral trends of increased distance learners cited by Kamler and Thomson (2006). Increased part-time students make flexible access to online resources and networks increasingly useful.

Despite my hesitancy at stepping into a dimension where I lacked expertise, I decided to put together an electronic version of some of the core courses in a flexible doctoral module to cater for doctoral students with restricted access to the classroom sessions. I felt that this was something I could contribute to the institution. It would be useful to supervisors, too. As an academic advisor teaching doctoral students across campus, although these students are my main concern, I need to keep good relationships with academics who supervise.
I’m also empathetic to their pressures. Supervisors find it hard to face increasing time demands (explained depressingly well by Austin, 2002; Acker & Armenti, 2004). There is pressure on them for success with candidates, with doctoral attrition a spectre (another depressing reality, analysed by Bair & Haworth, 1999). Particularly those who supervise students amongst the primary target group for my digital site, part-timers (for whom isolation is a problem, as discussed by Ali and Kohun, 2007), should find this site helpful for its links to rules and regulations, and to forward to students. Any interested academics would be able to check the digital version of my sessions for themselves, and assure themselves of just exactly what we did in the generic session.

However, having recognised a need and accepted the responsibility to meet it, I had reservations. In terms of studying individually, I personally prefer reading print as a way of learning to using digital media. Websites often seem insultingly light-weight (the superficiality of website on depression depressed me, for example, with its deadpan foot-ball star icon, John Kerwin). Equipped with fairly total ignorance and, even, suspicion, I wanted to build something that did justice to the intellectual level of my classroom sessions. I also feel that the contact and discussion with other doctoral students, the active community of practice (Wenger, 1998) aspect of the sessions, was of significant benefit in my classroom teaching. In every class I take, I make space for focussed student discussion, often in pairs, as well as in a group. Sitting alone in front of a screen did not seem able to be equivalent to eye contact and personal affirmation, however cheerful the screen might be. For doctoral students who work alone there is sustenance in the interdependence of the DSP classroom; Bruffee’s (1999, p. 267) efficacious ‘ennested’ communities of practice is a particularly pertinent concept for the practice of doctoral students. Their various communities over the three to four years of the doctorate are nested within departments, disciplines, and through the Doctoral Skills Programme, the wider doctoral community at this institution (as well as in the active dimensions of their lives outside of academia). Some of this collegial sharing would need to be enabled electronically.

I was aware of discourse on elearning pedagogy. Milne and Dimmock (2005) propose a set of principles for the design of effective elearning in New Zealand tertiary institutions: that they are learner-centred; collaborative; innovative; cater for diversity; support sharing of best practice; and are sustainable. These ideals align with my personal teaching philosophy.

**From concept to prototype**

This section explains the logic of the prototype content. Initially, I decided to begin with four sessions I saw as central, because they covered challenges of the doctoral journey that affect all and are bothersome to many: thesis proposals, the literature review, starting to write the thesis, and preparing for the oral examination. I listed the intended learning outcomes for each, which I had never actually articulated for the classroom sessions but felt might be helpful in communicating to the elearning experts who would be helping me teach in a medium with which I was unfamiliar:
1. Thesis proposals: After this course students will know
   - what to include in their thesis proposal;
   - how to negotiate the cognitive challenges of writing one;
   - what to emphasise in each section of the proposal;
   - what criteria will be used to evaluate their proposal; and
   - the expectation for thesis proposal tone, style and clarity.

2. Literature Review: After this course students will be aware of the need to
   - synthesise their literature in relation to their own research project;
   - identify and discuss important variables in their subject;
   - find strategies for the process that preserve sanity;
   - establish the context of their research questions through the literature; and
   - identify and discuss any contestations in their subject.

3. They will also be able to
   - evaluate where in the thesis their literature will be reviewed;
   - use the past, present continuous and present tense appropriately in
     review of literature;
   - select accurately nuanced verbs; and
   - knowingly privilege authors or facts.

4. Starting to Write: After this session students will be aware of
   - the importance of writing early;
   - the sections of the thesis that could be started in the first year;
   - strategies for overcoming writer’s block;
   - various approaches to writing;
   - strategies for learning to enjoy writing; and
   - the opinions from several academics on a panel giving advice about writing in
     the early stages of the thesis.

5. The Oral Examination: After this session students will know
   - the oral examination purpose as identified by literature;
   - the process at this institution around examination reports and
     committee considerations;
   - who will be present at their oral examination;
   - how long the examination should take;
   - what the possible outcomes are;
• predictable kinds of questions in the examination;
• what to expect;
• how to prepare;
• strategies for presenting well on opening; and
• strategies for responding to questions.

Classroom handout material for these courses would form the basis for material adapted for interactive on-line delivery. I speculated that possibly different learning styles (Kolb, 1984) would be better accommodated with an interactive electronic delivery. Yet, the value of interdependent learning (Bruffee, 1999) might be somewhat reduced simply because it could be more difficult for some to hold meaningful conversations when not physically together. I believe that much of good teaching relies on its response to student body language and expression as well as their comments, and it also entails getting them relating content to their own work by talking to each other. These things occur in classroom space; I was uneasy about how body language and expression may be compromised in the digital media. I was also unsure about how much time responding to student emails might take when I offered my contact address on the website. If easier access to the material meant more uptake, would it mean that I might get dozens of emails daily? My time is a limited resource: was I setting myself up for more than I could handle?

I decided to start with the Oral Examination session because most students get justifiably anxious as they approach this hurdle. Given that I am able to facilitate each class only two to four times annually, students often want an individual appointment to get guidance on their approaching oral examination. Currently in our Centre there is concern that individual appointments are time expensive and there is some pressure for us to try to pull back from this way of working. I was aware of interest in examiner discussion of the oral examination (Carter, 2008): students and academics are morbidly fascinated by the secret closed door process of the viva voce. It seemed likely that accounts from students who had been through the experience would be of interest, so of use to personalise advice through links, video clips, and individual bite-sized comments.

The next two sessions would be the Research Proposal and the Literature Review. I surveyed Departmental Graduate Advisors (DGAs) in 2008 and found that these were the two sessions they most wanted for their students (Brailsford & Carter, 2010). Their prioritisation choice confirmed the implications of classroom attendance rates: where 15 is the annual average of our individual sessions, 89 students attended the Literature Review sessions and 82 the Research Proposal sessions in 2008, with the next most popular session attracting far fewer (42). Initially we offered all courses equally frequently, but now the most popular are scheduled more often to cope with interest. Both DGAs and students clearly find these two the most useful. They work in tandem for all students beginning their doctorate. They address our institution’s claims that doctoral graduates would have “an advanced capacity for critical appraisal of relevant
scholarly literature [and] an advanced ability to initiate [and] design...research” (University of Auckland, 2009); sometimes I use the institutional graduate attributes as endorsement for the sessions we provide, since we teach the skills needed for these attributes.

With a draft plan, and some sense of what I wanted (and what I wanted to avoid), I approached Claire and Ashwini, eLearning Group colleagues in the Centre for Academic Development who had the expertise I so conspicuously lacked.

**From first concept to engagement with elearning pedagogy elearning designers: Ashwini and Claire**

In this section we describe the process of developing the FDP in collaboration with Susan, and the current version of it (i.e. the first prototype of the FDP’s course website). Our description weaves back and forth between pedagogical and technological considerations, showing their interplay during a typical learning design project.

**The process**

When Susan first approached us about this project, we embarked on an iterative learning design process. This typically involves stages of needs analysis, and the design and development of small, representative sections of the course. These “prototypes” or early versions are trialled with users and other stakeholders. The results of these trials inform the on-going development of further parts of the course in a cyclic pattern (Gunn & Donald, 2010), as shown in Figure 1.

![Figure 1. A typical iterative development process for elearning projects](image-url)
Pedagogical considerations

1. Establishing the need

The purpose of any needs analysis is to obtain a thorough understanding of the goals of the project from the perspective of all stakeholders, and then to translate these goals as educational requirements into a set of recommendations for the design and development of the resource. During the needs analysis, Susan provided much of the detailed information we needed about the students’ learning needs, the teaching context, and the goals and intended learning outcomes of the new FDP. We also studied the content of the existing DSP, and observed the teaching of some of the on-campus sessions to gain first-hand knowledge of how students interacted with staff, the materials and resources, and with one another.

2. Reviewing existing content for re-purposing

We also reviewed what online resources had been developed elsewhere. Susan was aware of what some Australian universities provided for their doctoral students online, and we surveyed online resources for postgraduate study from tertiary institutions internationally. We discussed which features of these would be relevant at our university, and an early design brief began to emerge.

3. Designing in response to the need and requirements

We used the ‘community of inquiry model’ (Figure 2) to direct our initial design. The community of inquiry theoretical framework represents a process of creating a deep and meaningful (collaborative-constructivist) learning experience through the development of three interdependent elements - social, cognitive and teaching presence (Garrison, Anderson, & Archer, 2000). We needed to balance the online provision of content (e.g. prose) with opportunities for student engagement (e.g. through online discussion and collaboration) to motivate students to become a part of a dynamic learning community (Datt, Donald & Carter, 2011). The focus on the differences between the ‘cognitive’, ‘social’, and ‘teaching’ presences that constitute the educational experience in this model helped us to match the technological possibilities to the educational requirements, and to prioritise our learning design tasks. For example, in designing for learning with ‘cognitive presence’, we were planning for a variety of learning opportunities that ranged from simple templates for the thesis to comprehensive blog-type log-books for supervisory meetings, and links to cross-campus support. In thinking about the ‘social presence,’ we needed to provide opportunities for students to interact with one another via discussions or phdchat on twitter. The discussions page would need ‘teacher presence’, but at the same time in such a way that students would realise that the subject matter expert, while available, is not on tap 24/7 like the content.
Excitingly, there is the potential to develop generic cross-campus doctoral support in a variety of directions: as a wiki that students can contribute to, or by incorporating Aropa, a peer-review system developed in the Department of Computer Science at the University of Auckland. Aropa enables students to give and receive critical commentary on parts of their work, such as their abstract. We have links to other websites, including the statutes and guidelines found at our own institution’s web pages, and websites linking doctoral students in an international community. Film clips of supervisors and successful doctoral students giving stories and advice establish a sense of community. All of these aspects could be taken further.

Figure 2 shows a model of educational experience which might give an ideal digital media resource, because the benefits of the classroom, teaching, social and cognitive presences should enable engagement.

Technological considerations
It was soon clear that the FDP needed to address two main requirements:

1. to provide relevant, flexible online resources; and
2. to stimulate and support the development of an online community of dispersed, postgraduate students studying in a wide range of disciplines (and, increasingly, working across disciplines).

Using the materials and resources that Susan used in her face to face workshop sessions, we started developing the first prototype of the online resources. We then used this prototype to integrate particular online communication and collaboration
functions for testing with the staff and students. A key decision was made at this stage to develop the online resources within a course website, which could eventually be used in conjunction with the university’s learning management system. There were five main reasons for this decision:

1. The university’s learning management system would support the significant online student administration requirements for the programme for the 2000 doctoral students currently at the university.

2. Students and staff would need a range of online communication services (e.g. discussion forums, announcements, reflective journals, and possibly blogs and wikis).

3. The prototype of the FDP had to be within a secure online environment (i.e. password protected and behind the university’s firewall) at least until we fine-tuned it in response to user feedback.

4. The course website would need to provide the range of online resources (text, images and videos) in an engaging, interactive format to supplement the on-campus sessions clearly and unambiguously.

5. The development environment (i.e. the web editing tool and the learning management system) was sufficiently user-friendly to allow Susan to edit and modify much of the content independently of the elearning designers and web developers. This was a significant advantage, not only for Susan to maintain her own “teaching voice” across the range of different online resources and on-campus sessions, but so that she and colleagues could provide for on-going maintenance of the content of the FDP when our collaboration on this project ends.

The Prototype

Pedagogical consideration
The importance of equitable access for distance doctoral students was a key driver of our design efforts. At the back of our minds was the vision of a connected doctoral community of students (on-campus and distance) and educators. Not only did we need to clarify for students how the FDP was intended to supplement the Doctoral Skills Programme, so that it would deepen and enrich the existing programme, we would also show its connections with the existing resources on the University’s website (e.g. doctoral policies and procedures). The media richness (e.g. video interviews and thesis examples) as elaborated in the section below helpfully collapsed the gap between doctoral students and educators through scholarly sharing of knowledge, skills and experiences.

In widening the scope of classroom sessions through interactive electronic access to the FDP, we have also been improving the resources for the class attendees. The
redirected flow in fact swells classroom potential too. The FDP programme will provide a place where additional examples for teaching (e.g. of introductions and conclusions, thesis proposals, etc.) could be accessed to complement the classroom teaching and materials. Workshop samples for classroom use would then be used to demonstrate and discuss theoretical points, in the knowledge that students could access samples close to their own discipline either before or after the class.

Technological consideration
All our pedagogical considerations influenced what we provided on the web pages, (i.e. the content), and how we structured the material, so that the format, arrangement, chunks of text, images, videos and modular segments linked clearly to the existing on-campus offerings of the DSP. The screenshots of pages (still in development) given below illustrate these points (see Figures 3, 4, and 5).

Figure 3. The Flexible Doctoral Skills overview page

In the overview page (Figure 3), Susan introduces the FDP by explaining (currently in writing) that it is intended to be used in a number of ways: either in lieu of attending the on-campus session, as a primer before attending a session on campus, or for revision and reflection after attending a session. To add a more personal touch, this introduction will be presented as a video later on. An introductory video clip by one of the experienced doctoral supervisors who have contributed to this project puts the doctoral thesis into some perspective and demonstrates how this resource epitomises collegial, scholarly sharing of knowledge, skills and experiences for learning.
Throughout the website, there are links and references to existing resources (Figure 4) within the university website to give the students a more holistic experience (e.g. Referen\cite website for the Citing and Avoiding Plagiarism module. This is a fifth module which is being added to the original four). In the classroom sessions we refer to some of the sites, but if students are using the Flexible Doctoral Skills modules at home, they will be able to pace themselves steadily through those links they find helpful, rather than taking a quick glimpse in a classroom session.
Figure 5 shows peer-mentoring collegiality, where experienced students who have recently gone through the process of completing a doctoral degree share their experience and advice with current and potential students. Attrition is a major doctoral challenge, making psychological support an important component of successful doctoral pedagogy. The communal sharing of experiences, especially challenges and how they were overcome, is crucial to Susan’s core work. Diverse perspectives, with potential to widen this pool over time with more video stories, make it likely that the material will cater for diverse students. One of the video clips is likely to be of someone who the watching student will know, and also someone with whom they will empathise and identify as similar to themselves.

If Susan began with a sense of ambivalence about the electronic medium, she remains pressingly aware of limitations as well as keen to develop its exciting potentials.

**Into the future: the rapids ahead**

Having packaged together existing material, links to other resources and examples, and video clips, we now need to extend the set of FDP resources and allow students to become active contributors and navigate through the resources at their own pace. More examples of literature reviews and thesis proposals could be gathered, and analyses of these could be provided to identify the mechanics of critical evaluation of
literature, or show the links between research questions, theory and methods. It would be great to build exercises that encouraged students to generate their own doctoral writing in response to what the teaching material and examples show. As well as having some ideas of our own, we intend to rigorously evaluate the current prototype to inform future developments. Potential to expand this dimension of teaching and learning is exciting, and as a teacher, Susan feels the motivational inspiration of that ‘plus ultra’ impulse that drove Renaissance ambition: let’s go further.

However, the countering ‘non plus ultra’ caveats are clearly evident as we go towards the rapids of the future. Susan is aware of being considerably more dependent as a teacher in the digital medium: self-sufficient in her classroom teaching, she regularly needs help when she is building her website. Those considering venturing into the production of a digital artefact should also think about their own competencies and sources of assistance, aware that someone who builds teaching software needs to consider pedagogy, and the quite different way that material is presented and engagement maintained. Additionally, when software changes, the electronic resource needs to be updated and kept current.

Susan’s successful application for a Teaching Improvement Grant in 2011 meant that she was able to pay someone so an additional 400 hours could go into this project along with considerable time from her and her colleagues. This grant has now been spent, and she will need to maintain the site herself or ask for help from colleagues. The web development tool that we used was chosen with this requirement in mind. Coursebuilder is a web development tool designed specifically for teachers to develop their own online resources independently (with help when needed). Nonetheless, with this site already built, an artefact, Susan is finding it difficult to crib time for its maintenance.

Susan’s role as an Academic Advisor makes her teaching a little different from discipline teaching. Some of what she teaches is similar: principles, definitions, strategies. But some aspects are more about sharing lived experience, coping with the psychological challenges to doctoral work. Elearning is flexible in that students can access it at any time and navigate through the site in any direction, but classroom sessions make it possible to teach responsively, slowing down if students want to go into the emotional challenges of the work.

Some things about teaching never change: time is Susan’s main concern. How much new work will this redirection entail, and how much time will it save? Will it be problematic to open the site to student contribution without watching it closely? She will be evaluated annually on her publication, her service, and her teaching. Work in an additional medium may mean more time needed on maintaining both classroom material (handouts and Power Point slides) and electronic pages. Institutional policy and practice is updated occasionally, and fresh literature emerges to inform her
teaching. When she is on research and study leave, she can organise her classes to be covered, but may have to accept that the electronic site will be a responsibility that she will have to take with her.

**Conclusion**

Redirection of pedagogical flow and medium began as a response to student need with a sense of loyalty to what was being achieved in the classroom. Susan was aware as a Learning Advisor (teaching generic sessions with a significant pastoral element) that the challenge was not simply putting facts and theories online. Susan wanted reasonable intellectual depth within elearning principles: community of practice sharing, learner-centred; collaborative; innovative; catering for diversity; and sharing of best practice strategies (Milne & Dimmock, 2005). She is pleased that some degree of success with these goals has made the project a really satisfying teaching experience, but there remains anxiety about negotiating the rapids ahead in the future.

To close with the evocative power of the conference metaphor, ‘river’, we suggest that redirection from class to digital media has been both beneficial and costly. Norman Maclean’s (1993) novella, A River Runs Through It closes with the following reminder of the nature of rivers: “The river was cut by the world’s great flood and runs over rocks from the basement of time. On some of the rocks are timeless raindrops. Under the rocks are the words, and some of the words are theirs.” We suggest that doctoral new knowledge is always built on previous human wisdom, some of which comes from ‘the basement of time.’ The basement rocks remain, even when a great flood cuts the river. In this case, the river is pedagogy, the flood, the new dimension of elearning. Each doctoral student adds new knowledge and understanding to the river of human experience. Their thoughts, advice and encouragement are added to the pedagogical river that will carry future students. Is our rendition of the ways of best negotiating academic requirements for swelling the river, and for lodging words securely within the rocks, meaningful to students? This remains to be seen. Early feedback from colleagues and students has been encouraging.

**References**


Avoiding plagiarism: Steering clear of the rocks

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Abstract

For students embarking on a voyage of academic discovery, the threat of plagiarism lurks just below the surface. By and large, students know the dangers: course outlines draw attention to institutional policies on academic integrity, and students attest that ‘this is all my own work’ on their assignment cover sheets. However, ours is an age of constantly changing sources of information; demonstrating one’s academic integrity can prove a challenging task. By evaluating the typical range of responses to plagiarism—detection, punishment, skills-building, understanding, and prevention—this paper invites learning advisors and academics to consider the most effective ways of helping students avoid potential dangers upstream.

“Danger, danger! Warning, warning!” What is the first thing that comes to mind when you see this expression: is it (a) cautionary advice to students about the potential threat of plagiarism lurking below the surface of their voyage of academic discovery, (b) an intertextual reference to a 1960s’ science fiction programme, or (c) an example of plagiarism itself? That a single expression may have multiple interpretations indicates just how muddy the waters of academic integrity have become, as attested by the plethora of recent articles on plagiarism—and its counterpart, academic integrity—in areas ranging from ethics (Davis & Carroll, 2009; Rees & Emerson, 2009), to higher education (Devlin & Gray, 2007; Sutherland-Smith & Carr, 2005), from TESOL and applied linguistics (Abasi & Graves, 2008; Ha, 2006; Liu, 2005), to library studies (Park, Mardis, & Ury, 2011), from business (Christensen, 2011; Hansen, Stith, & Tesdell, 2011) to criminal justice (Ferree & Pfeifer, 2011) and computer science education (Joyce, 2007; Williams, 2002).

In fact, students should already be aware of the dangers: just as adventure tourists sign a waiver before embarking on a white-water journey, so students are required to attest that ‘this is all my own work’ on their assignment cover sheets. Despite this, students’ apparent inability to avoid plagiarism should come as little surprise. As the opening example reveals, steering clear of the rocks poses considerable challenges in an Internet age typified by increasingly credible, universally available

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sources of information. Moreover, the associated information management tasks are bewilderingly complex. As outlined by Purdue’s Online Writing Lab (OWL) checklist, in order to demonstrate academic integrity, students must:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Develop a topic based on what has already been said and written</th>
<th>BUT</th>
<th>Write something new and original</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rely on experts’ and authorities’ opinions</td>
<td>BUT</td>
<td>Improve upon and/or disagree with those same opinions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Give credit to previous researchers</td>
<td>BUT</td>
<td>Make your own significant contribution</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Purdue Online Writing Lab (OWL), 2011)

Avoiding plagiarism entails much more than simply knowing how to cite accurately; students must be able to interpret, evaluate, assimilate and synthesise secondary materials: sophisticated skills made even more demanding if operating in other than one’s first language. By evaluating the typical range of institutional responses to plagiarism—detection, punishment, skills-building, understanding, and prevention—this paper invites learning advisors and academics to consider the most effective ways of helping students avoid potential hazards upstream.

**Detection**

Tertiary institutions take plagiarism very seriously, as evidenced by the tendency to couch the issue in moral terms, as typified by Victoria University of Wellington’s statement: “it’s not acceptable to lie about, steal or mistreat academic, intellectual or creative work that has been done by other people” (Victoria University of Wellington, 2010). From the institution’s perspective, students have been forewarned. Course outlines cite the plagiarism policy, assignment instructions stress the need to acknowledge all sources correctly, and, as a measure of compliance, students are frequently required to submit assignments electronically via plagiarism-detection software. Although such measures come after the fact, Turnitin.com, the best-known of these programmes, claims that the process helps prevent plagiarism (2011). Certainly this assertion is supported by Ledwith and Risquez (2008) who found Turnitin.com’s peer-review function encouraged students to take more care in their work; similarly Davis and Carroll (2009) reported success when using the programme’s feedback reports as teaching resources. However, each of these studies incorporated human intervention rather than detection alone, the merits of which are affirmed by Emerson, Rees and MacKay (2005) in their paper, “Scaffolding academic integrity”. Indeed, according to other researchers (Okoro, 2011; Sutherland-Smith & Carr, 2005), the use of anti-plagiarism software in isolation not only has little deterrent effect, the associated presumption that all students are dishonest may actually harm the student-teacher relationship.
Having said this, of course, an act of plagiarism, once detected, demands some form of reaction, which often entails disciplinary proceedings in accordance with institutional policy. Punishments vary (depending on the perceived level of premeditation) from verbal caution to written warning to disciplinary hearing; from failing the assignment or course, or even, for serial offenders, exclusion from the institution itself. While such measures uphold academic integrity, punishment in itself does little to foster good behaviour. For this reason, the process generally also includes referral for remediation to Learning Advisors, who frequently find culprits fall into two distinct categories. The first group freely acknowledge they have copied material —it perfectly expresses exactly what they want to say. Moreover, they consider the accusation of plagiarism as an over-reaction, regarding the inclusion of a Reference List as sufficient. The second group tend to be more indignant: how can they use their own words when they don’t know anything about the topic? Does their marker really expect them to reference every sentence? Often such students are taking a single essay-based course within a largely practical degree, making both punishment and rehabilitation largely meaningless. In any case, no one is advocating punishment as the sole response: “robust and transparent procedures for detecting and punishing plagiarism” (Park, 2004, p. 294) must go hand-in-hand with education and prevention.

**Education**

Just what form this education should take is the area of most debate. Despite Purdue OWL’s realistic appraisal of the complexity of requisite skills, the immediate response to plagiarism usually focuses on teaching students how to format references in accordance with stylistic conventions. Such an approach addresses the symptoms, but little else. Granted, students need to learn how to cite accurately, and, to this end, there are any number of online and workshop-based ‘how to’ resources, including Auckland University’s excellent Referencite (2011) and bibliographic software such as Endnote or Zotero. A number of institutions have gone even further, as exemplified by the award-winning Youtube clip, Diagnosis Plagiarism (2009), from Yavapai College in The United States. Nevertheless, it is not enough simply to explain how to format citations without broader discussion about academic integrity as a whole (Baetz, Zivcakova, Wood, Nosko, De Pasquale & Archer, 2011). Anecdotal evidence suggests, however, that this big picture discussion rarely happens, or that there is a mismatch between theory and practice. Markers’ comments such as “it doesn’t matter what style you use as long as you’re consistent” reduce referencing to a stylistic technicality, rather than acknowledging its integral place within the disciplinary discourse. Equally problematic is the fact that inconsistency abounds: course readings may lack full bibliographic details, or include references ‘copied and pasted’ in a variety of styles; different disciplines require different, often unspecified, conventions,
and even recognised styles have alternate forms.\textsuperscript{2} Learning how to acknowledge sources correctly is a crucial academic skill, adding value to students’ work and demonstrating mastery of the intellectual discourse. However, teaching students how to reference does not in itself prevent plagiarism.

\textbf{Understanding}

One reason for education’s lack of effectiveness is its assumption that plagiarism stems from either wilful deception or lack of knowledge. In fact, there are many reasons why students plagiarise, with, over the years, a shift away from an assumption of cheating to a more sophisticated analysis, as outlined by Joyce’s (2007) literature review. While no study has investigated whether New Zealand students employ the essay-mills prevalent in United States’ tertiary contexts, undoubtedly there are those who knowingly copy others’ work. Nowadays, few students can genuinely claim ignorance or cultural misunderstanding. As Lui (2005, p. 237) indicated: “those who plagiarize in China, like those who do it in the West, know that what they are doing is wrong and they do it anyway as an easy way to obtain personal gains”. In many instances, however, simple expediency rules, with students failing to allow adequate time for research and simply latching on to the first available resource. One such example was a student referred to our Learning Support unit whose essay on “the constitutional nature of New Zealand’s parliamentary system” largely comprised a verbatim copy of the North Shore Bowling Club’s Constitution, which satisfied the assignment’s word count requirements, but little else.

Deliberate transgression aside, many instances of apparent plagiarism should more properly be regarded as students’ first attempts at developing an academic voice. Linguists call these efforts “patchworking” or “plagi-phrasing” (Abasi & Akbari, 2008; Reid, 2009; Wilson, 1997), half-way measures whereby students gradually learn to express their own ideas through modelling the language of the literature, as shown by Figure 1 on the next page:

\textsuperscript{2} For example, here are Reference List entries formatted according to the first three Google hits for ‘Harvard referencing style’:


The differences (commas/full-stops/parentheses; ‘place, then publisher’ versus ‘publisher, then place’, etc.), may seem insignificant in terms of the ‘doesn’t matter as long as you’re consistent’ rule. Nevertheless, as with novice kayakers, providing a single line of navigation has got to be preferable.
Developing an academic ‘voice’ merits an entire body of literature of its own, with, as already noted by Purdue’s OWL (2011), synthesising borrowed material having as much to do with thinking as writing. Paraphrasing is a sophisticated skill, which (Wilson, 2006) goes so far as to call an “arcane practice”, as exemplified by one student’s reaction: “‘Why do you ask us to paraphrase when the author already explained it?’” (Wilson, 2006, p. 766). Moreover, being exhorted to use one’s own words may seem a retrograde step for students seeking to emulate academic discourse: “‘when I read the book (…) I want to write like that’” (Reid, 2009, p. 71). Such evidence calls for realisation that apparent instances of plagiarism may well represent genuine efforts to obey the rules; accordingly, academics and learning advisors must appreciate the inherent developmental stages involved in successfully incorporating borrowed material into one’s writing.

**Skills-building**

Learning how to “write like that” is crucial if students are to master the requirements associated with academic assignments and avoid plagiarism in the process. Along with ‘how to reference’ guides, there are any number of ‘how to paraphrase’ courses, workshops and online resources (Park, Mardis & Ury, 2011). However, exercises asking students to ‘indicate which passage is plagiarised’ bear little relation to actual course readings, while paraphrasing activities tend to focus on the word level (finding synonyms, reworking expressions) rather than providing opportunities for students...
to achieve real understanding. For example, a fellow VUW learning advisor, Kirsten Reid, recounts a typical strategy employed by second language students: “First I think in Korean and write in Korean finding words from electric dictionary” (Reid, 2009, p. 65). Although aware that word-by-word translation was not ideal, this student knew no other way to incorporate source materials, apart from using direct quotations “if I don’t understand”. Unless “value is added through critical analysis” (Williams, 2002, p. 278), little is gained from simply rewording borrowed ideas.

As Learning Advisors, we need to encourage students not only to understand what they are reading — but also clearly demonstrate how such material supports their argument (Wilson, 2006). Avoiding plagiarism demands the development of critical thinking and writing skills (Ferree & Pfeifer, 2011). To this end, introducing reporting verbs as a way of foregrounding the student’s voice and working with course-specific readings go some way towards reinforcing the bigger picture: that ‘avoiding plagiarism’ equates to engagement with academic debate as illustrated by this extract from a brochure from VUW’s Student Learning Support Service.

"How do I use borrowed material in my essay?"

Show your understanding by rewriting in your own words:

- **For short passages:**
  - Break up long sentences
  - Combine short sentences
  - Use synonyms [use a Thesaurus]

- **For longer passages:**
  - Close the book
  - Write down what you remember

**For example:**


When Singapore gained independence in 1965, it was faced with major pollution problems. The government introduced taxation on motor vehicles and tobacco sales, and enacted anti-littering laws to solve the problem. Because of the cleaner environment resulting from these policies, many multinational companies have invested in the country.

**Step 1: Paraphrase (using all your own words)**

When it became independent in 1965, Singapore was heavily polluted. To address this problem, the government began taxing people for owning cars and smoking, as well as fining people for littering. This legislation resulted in cleaner surroundings that have attracted many international corporations to invest in Singapore (Zhou 2002, p. 33).

**Step 2: Use the information to support your own views:**

A second, less obvious instance of government’s influence on business can be seen in Singapore. According to a study on the Asian economy, Singapore used to be heavily polluted, but since independence in 1965, a successful government anti-pollution campaign has made the country attractive for offshore investors (Zhou 2002). This shows how legislation to improve the environment can also have an impact on the commercial sector.

**Marker’s comment:** [A+] “Well done! You have correctly cited the source — and indicated the relevance of the material to your argument as a whole.”

*Figure 2: “Avoiding plagiarism or How to write an ‘A’ essay” (Laurs, 2011).*
As revealed by the literature on plagi-phrasing, paraphrasing skills take time to acquire (for both native and non-native English speakers), a developmental process that needs to be scaffolded within the assessment system.

**Prevention**

All the responses discussed so far tend to represent reactions rather than proactive measures to forestall plagiarism in the first place. Certainly informing students of the dangers, understanding the pressures on them to perform, and helping them develop the requisite written and cognitive skills can help, but such responses are of little use if assessments inadvertently encourage the problem in the first place. For example, if a first-year assignment calls for a brief biography of a ‘chosen educational theorist’, students can do little other than reproduce the following passage almost word-for-word:

Jean Piaget was born in Neuchâtel (Switzerland) on August 9, 1896. He died in Geneva on September 16, 1980. He was the oldest child of Arthur Piaget, professor of medieval literature at the University, and of Rebecca Jackson. At age 11, while he was a pupil at Neuchâtel Latin high school, he wrote a short notice on an albino sparrow. This short paper is generally considered as the start of a brilliant scientific career made of over sixty books and several hundred articles.
(Jean Piaget Society, 2007)

Paraphrasing is not only difficult for students dealing with subject-specific, factual information. Even ostensibly more open topics such as ‘explore the relationship between leadership and organisational behaviour’ result in ready-made responses with the very first hit on Google.

In order to discourage plagiarism, assessment should be timely, visible and varied. Topical questions not only challenge students to recognise the relevance of their studies, they require them, at the very least, to think about and rework textbook information to suit the particular context. In one such example, an introductory Victoria University of Wellington course on Government, Law and Business required students to apply their lessons on “governmental capacity to intervene in the economy” to the aftermath of the Christchurch earthquake. While students may still possibly plagiarise the more theoretical aspects (Wilson, 1997), using localised examples privileges original thinking. Students are likely to have already considered the earthquake’s consequences in real terms, making their answers more authentic on all counts. Similarly, making the process overt by breaking down assessment into its constituent parts (for example, requiring an initial essay plan or annotated bibliography) has twofold advantages. Firstly, scaffolding reinforces the hows and whys of academic integrity, enabling students to isolate the requisite skills and tackle each in turn. Secondly, markers gain advance insight into students’ researching and thinking strategies, and can, if necessary, intervene. Variety is perhaps the most desirable form of assessment design, although the demands of large classes, brevity
of teaching terms, and limited sessional assistance mean academics often fall back on standardised written formats rather than allowing for self-selected topics, or oral, visual or online presentations. Some, however, are willing to push the boundaries. Massey University’s Communication in the Sciences course, for example, uses i-maps as both formative and summative assessment of first-year students’ understanding of source materials, as shown in Figure 3:

![Sample i-map (Emerson, Stevens, & Muirhead, 2008)](image)

Through encouraging authentic responses to the literature (‘kind of…nearly… but together we got it right’ and ‘It’s a very good point’), i-maps not only allow the student voice free range, they also effortlessly foster engagement with the academic discourse. Such personalised reactions do much more than inhibit plagiarism; they demonstrate “evidence of students being more confident about engaging with secondary source material, articulating their own position in relation to a research question, and understanding the writing process” (Emerson, Stevens, & Muirhead, 2008). Moreover, as Massey’s case study reveals, innovative assessments need not be time-consuming to mark.
Ultimately, honest treatment of the literature is what academic integrity is all about: avoiding plagiarism simply the process by which this honesty is made manifest. The rocks and rapids of plagiarism need to be recognised for what they are: obstacles that, with careful planning and sound navigation, need never be encountered in the first place. Getting rescued and/or chastised do not necessarily prevent future mishaps. Similarly, warning of the dangers does little to protect against reality. Practising the necessary steps to deal with the situation is a good first step, but only if drills are consistently reinforced. Moreover, it is important to realise that some may need the rocks as stepping stones, before casting off on their own. Furthermore, as with any voyage, everyone must be on board.

Rethinking

The twenty-first century offers considerable scope for reconceptualising plagiarism: intertextuality, remixing and mash-up are all legitimate art forms: West Side Story (Robbins & Wise, 1961) is a reworking of Romeo and Juliet (Shakespeare), the 1995 movie Clueless (Heckerling) draws heavily on Jane Austen’s Emma, likewise the Coen brothers’ film O Brother, Where Art Thou (2000) relies on the audience having at least a passing knowledge of Homer’s Odyssey. Taking things further, a recent Sky TV “Happy Place” advertisement (Baldwinson & Elstone, 2011) purportedly depicts the main character on the same golf course as Tiger Woods, while an amateur You Tube clip (McIntosh, 2009) deftly weaves scenes from Buffy the Vampire Slayer and Twilight into a valid ‘alternative’ narrative. In each instance, the product highlights the contributing factors and showcases the creator’s skills in the process. Likewise, rather than focussing on plagiarism’s negative connotations, institutions, educators and learning advisors need to build on students’ strengths in order to help them successfully navigate the waters of academic discourse.

References


In 1997 Pennycook wrote a landmark article in which he argued that English for academic purposes (EAP) practitioners are in a servant/master relationship with faculties. Very little appears to have changed in the intervening years. Turner (2011) argues that the work of EAP practitioners is “seen as a remedial ‘service’ peripheral rather than central, to the mainstream operation of the university” (p.34). Research suggests their work is not sufficiently understood or valued and that their input into the teaching/learning process is marginalised. Practitioners are kept on the back foot, obedient to the whims of faculties. This perception is supported by the literature both in New Zealand and overseas (Carter & Bartlett-Trafford, 2007; Chanock, 2007; Clerehan, 2007; Craswell & Bartlett, 2002; Craven, 2009; Crozier, 2007; Laurs, 2010; Quiddington, 2009; Stevenson & Kokkin, 2007; Velautham & Picard, 2009).

Yet at the same time it is these practitioners who have a wealth of knowledge about the diverse student cohorts now studying at our universities, and great insight into the linguistic challenges these students face. In addition they are acutely aware of the linguistic imperialism that still dominates practice at Western universities, and are sensitive to the damage this dominance causes. Also as Quiddington, (2009, p.21) points out EAP practitioners are “able to range feely across disciplinary boundaries, faculties, departments and whole institutions”. In this paper I explore what I regard as the greatest challenge facing EAP practitioners – the need to assert themselves so that they can play an influential role in the changes that I believe need to take place if English is to retain its role in the academic world not as a colonial dinosaur, but as “a living English, one that rejuvenates the language by contesting standardized, dominant English … in the light of ongoing, and differing, lives, contexts, values” (Horner, 2006, p.573).

The massification of higher education has affected the composition of universities globally (Alexander, 2000; Guri-Rosenblit, Šebková & Teichler, 2007; Tynjälä, Välimaa & Sarja, 2003). Tertiary education has expanded five-fold in the period 1970 - 2007 (Altbach, Reisberg and Rumbley, 2009) but the seven years prior to 2009 have seen a particularly marked increase. This increase in tertiary enrolment has been accompanied by the global mobility of students. In 2007 nearly 3 million students enrolled in education institutions outside their countries of origin. The number of these mobile students has grown by 53% since 1999 (Altbach et al., 2009).

1 Strauss, P. (2012). Drifting with the current or steering our own course? EAP practitioners in New Zealand. In M. Protheroe (Ed.) Navigating the River: Proceedings of the 2011 Annual International Conference of the Association of Tertiary Learning Advisors of Aotearoa/New Zealand (ATLAANZ) (pp. 49 - 57). Auckland, New Zealand: ATLAANZ.
The enrolment at universities in New Zealand mirrors the diversity found at Western universities around the world. New Zealand has approximately 3% of the international student market and is thus a relatively small player (Verbink & Lasanowski, 2007), but, in a country with a population of around four million these students have a considerable impact on university cohorts. This change means that a “culturally socially and linguistically diverse student population” now bring “different identities, understandings and habits of meaning–making to a more diverse range of subjects” (Hyland, 2008, p.4). At the same time, however, higher education has become more commercialised – universities are expected to generate more of their own funding. As Altbach (2001) notes “universities have to think more like businesses and less like educational institutions”. International students are “big business”, especially for OECD countries, where over 90% of international students are enrolled (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007).

It is, however, not just international students who are swelling numbers at universities. There are more mature and non-traditional students, many of whom juggle work and study commitments (Hyland, 2009; Robotham, 2008; Tones, Fraser, Elder & White, 2009). Greater numbers of students study part-time or at a distance (OECD, 2007). The diversity in both student background and modes of study blurs traditional distinctions between the support needs of native and non-native writers of English, and many researchers now acknowledge that an increasing number of students require support for writing in academic contexts, regardless of their linguistic background (Baynham, 2000; Casanave, 2008; North, 2005; Strauss & Walton, 2005; Wingate & Tribble, 2011).

One of the great advantages of such a diverse cohort, particularly international students, is that it offers all students at these institutions a truly multi-cultural education – or so it is argued. Reality however would seem to be far less sanguine. One of the more disappointing aspects of this broadening of our student body is that it does not appear to have brought about a more tolerant and culturally aware student body (Halualani et al., 2004; Salz & Trubowitz, 1997; Summers & Volet, 2008). Halualani et al. argue that students appear to believe that attending a university that hosts a number of different nationalities is “a substitute and stand-in for actual intercultural interaction on a personal and individual level” (p.10). It seems that as far as domestic students are concerned the presence of these international students is sufficient. The possibility that they might be able to add something of value to the western academy does not appear to be entertained.

This devaluing of non-traditional input affects what is deemed acceptable academic language. What is acceptable is described by Turner (2011) as linguistic features which can be “highlighted as germane to specific disciplines” (p.19). She gives as examples the use of tentative language and modals. Although it would seem obvious that language must embrace change if it is to reflect our rapidly changing realities (Widdowson, 1994). Shelton (2007, p.60) points out the suggestion that academic English could be modified “appals or even terrifies some who think there is a
purity to be defended”. As a result it could be in danger of losing its vitality and its communicative and communal value Widdowson (1994, p.384). Ryan and Viete (2009, p.305) cite Schmitt’s (2005) argument that “native speakerdom [is] derived not from creative language use but from the shared set of memorized stock phrases that native speakers understand and tacitly agree are efficient and expected ways of expressing ideas”.

The insistence that, for the most part, traditional academic English not be challenged is somewhat ironic if one considers how little attention is paid to what this desirable English is. When pressed as to what kind of language they do find acceptable, discipline lecturers are vague, usually indicating that while they can’t describe what they want “I know it when I see it”. This would tend to lend support to Schmitt’s argument.

At all levels but especially at postgraduate level this insistence on a particular kind of English is problematic. Because English is a global language, many countries are now familiar with its discourse features (Canagarajah, 2001). A number of these countries now insist that postgraduate and sometimes even undergraduate students receive at least a part of their education through the medium of English. At postgraduate level there is often a requirement that dissertations and theses be submitted in English. This means that many non-native speakers of English have already developed their own voice in the language, and are disinclined to change this for what Cheney (1991, p.123) has described as “the institutional non-voice ...the ‘beige’ voice”. It must be pointed out that the institutional voice cannot be seen as synonymous with correct use of English. Quite often it appears that the perception of what is ‘acceptable’ depends on what is familiar to academics. Students might not be using language in a way that academics are accustomed to, not employing the “shared set of stock phrases”. This does not make their use wrong, simply different, and it is worrying that this too is often seen as unacceptable. A study at AUT (Strauss & Walton, 2005) found that a few students resisted the institutionalisation of their voices arguing that their writing reflected who they were as academics. However it is a brave student who is prepared to go this route.

However, despite the arguments outlined above, what is regarded as appropriate English is not a topic of hot debate in higher education. Turner (2011) points out that language in the academy is usually invisible and that it only becomes an object of discussion when it is perceived as faulty. This is what is happening at the moment as the number of non-traditional students on our campuses is increasing. It is difficult for them to develop acceptable writing skills by a process of osmosis as students in the past have been able to do. This is because they are drawn from diverse backgrounds and “the assumption of osmosis is predicated on sameness” (Turner, 2011, p.21). Even if they are able to adopt what lecturers see as acceptable, a brave few are not willing to do so. What is being debated then is not standards of appropriacy or how better academic English can serve the needs of the academy, rather it is around how we can help students meet linguistic standards that very few academics seem to feel need to
be debated or negotiated. We are all familiar with complaints from lecturers about students who are inadequately equipped to deal with course demands.

I do not want to suggest that there is not a great deal of merit in these concerns. There appear to be many students in our institutions who do not possess sufficient knowledge of English to be able to meet our standards. Indeed I would argue that for some the experience is unpleasant and far from educational. These students are at our institutions because as pointed out earlier in this paper university education has become big business. It is all about “bums on seats”. I was present at a discussion where staff in a discipline were arguing passionately that some of the non-English speaking students on their course were completely out of their depth and were unhappy and desperate. Plagiarism was a growing problem as these students struggled to submit assignments in language that the lecturers could understand. The programme leader was very sympathetic but pointed out that raising admission levels would simply mean that students would enrol at another institution. This would mean that the problems would simply move to another place, and, as he pointed out to them, might well mean a loss of jobs.

There is very little that discipline lecturers, often overworked and without linguistic backgrounds, can do other than send such students to EAP practitioners to be ‘fixed’. Yet as noted earlier these practitioners are not highly regarded by the institutions. Their services are “routinely sidelined” (Turner, 2011, p.3) and they operate at “the margins of academic life” (Chanock, 2007, p.272). The centres at which they work are subjected to continual reviews, as is the international trend (Palmer, Holt & Challis, 2011). In the Palmer et al. study, 83% of the Australian universities that participated indicated that they had undergone a change in their configuration in the past three years or that such a change was imminent. Staff are continually having to defend their academic status, a battle that some have lost. It is hardly surprising then that the energies (and their research opportunities) of these centres are often directed towards proving that the services are indeed beneficial to the institutions at which they are located (Challis, Holt & Palmer, 2009; Manolo, Fraser & Marshall, 2010).

It is quite an ask then for us to assert ourselves in such a climate. Yet I feel that this is the role of EAP practitioners. Rowland (2007) acknowledges the tensions and challenges that practitioners face in their work but maintains that their role is more than just enhancing student learning, that there comes a point when they “need to articulate clearly what they believe higher education is for” (p.12). I believe that we have reached such a point where the stimulus for such reconsideration and renegotiation of the role of English must come from those of us involved in the teaching of academic language.

I argue that unless we move to reconsider and renegotiate the role of English in the academy with all its speakers there can be no real sense of inclusiveness. This consideration is not just essential for second language speakers of English. Non-traditional students are often stymied by the linguistic requirements of the academy.
We need what Phan describes as “a healthy and sensible sharing of the ownership of English” (2008, p.202), a recognition that it is “both futile and inappropriate” to insist on a single standardised English (Horner, 206, p.572).

What is also clear though, is that first there are issues that must be resolved within our own ranks – at least to some degree. I have encountered numerous practitioners who argue that their first responsibility is to the student and not to challenging the status quo. They point out that the vast majority of students they assist simply want to get the best marks they can, and have no wish to become embroiled in some kind of language crusade. I respect and understand this perspective but at the same time I am uneasy about the implications of such an approach and whether it is ultimately in the best interests of the students we assist. After all Quiddington (2009, p. 22) refers to EAP practitioners as the “educational linguists of the international university”. Is it also ultimately in our own best interests that we adopt the position of those who serve the faculties instead of being considered those who assist and who are regarded as equals? While debate and robust discussion in our midst is to be welcomed - after all we are academics - we need to unite in our quest for greater recognition of the work we do. Unless we improve our status it is unlikely that faculties will consider our input with the respect it deserves.

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WaiBoost: An intensive cohort programme for developing tertiary-level academic skills

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Abstract

During 2011 an intensive (four-day) academic upskilling programme (WaiBoost) was trialled at the University of Waikato for students whose Faculties deemed them to be under-achieving during their first or second year of undergraduate study. The first trial ran in one Faculty before the beginning of ‘A’ semester, while the second was offered later in the year to Maori students in a different Faculty. WaiBoost’s design was informed by research into cohort learning, the nature of academic literacy, and student engagement. In addition, its delivery was characterised by team teaching, practical tasks, student reflection, and group discussion of concepts. Regular follow-up was conducted after completion of the programme. Students’ affective response to WaiBoost was extremely positive, but perhaps more interesting were the successful academic outcomes. This paper describes the overall successes and challenges of the WaiBoost approach and concludes with recommendations for intensive upskilling programmes of a similar nature.

Background

In November 2010 a “whole of institution” audit was conducted at the University of Waikato by the New Zealand Universities Academic Audit Unit (NZUAAU) as part of its regular five-year cycle of university audits. One of the panel’s recommendations was that “the University develops a student transition programme that extends beyond orientation and includes, in particular, a comprehensive institution-wide students-at-risk programme to close the loop between enrolment and completion” (New Zealand Universities Academic Audit Unit, November 2010, p. 29).

In 2011, in response to the recommendation and to learning development needs already identified at the University, staff in Student Learning, in collaboration with colleagues in the central Library, designed and trialed an intensive academic upskilling programme for students (WaiBoost). The programme was intended to address the academic literacy and learning skills needs of undergraduate degree students whose Faculties deemed them to be under-achieving during their first or second year of undergraduate study. The overall goal of WaiBoost was to help these students

develop the independent, meta-cognitive thinking and academic literacy skills, motivations, and attitudes that they would need for successful tertiary study.

Two WaiBoost trials were run in 2011 with different cohorts, with the overall purpose being to evaluate the content, pacing, and overall academic effectiveness of the new approach to helping students develop academic literacy skills. Although student numbers were small, they were sufficient for Student Learning staff to evaluate the overall programme design. Both trials achieved excellent success as measured by increased student completion of papers and lifting of their final grades. This paper will describe the two trials, illustrate similarities and differences between them, and discuss overall findings. Implications for intensive academic up-skilling programmes (including specific consideration of resourcing) will be provided.

**General features and structure of WaiBoost**

The design of the trials was guided and shaped by ‘best-practice’ pedagogy, including peer-support, cooperative (cohort) learning, eLearning, and formative evaluation leading to continuous improvement of learning processes. It is also important to understand that WaiBoost was designed as one of many learning development approaches that ran throughout the academic year at the university, including (for example) on-going workshops, embedded literacy within courses, and online interactive tutorials. Participants were guided through a range of student-focused activities designed to help them reflect on past academic experiences, build new strategies for successful learning, and become part of a peer-support cohort during the teaching term. WaiBoost participants were assisted in their development of academic reading and writing skills, referencing (including how to avoid plagiarism), and library skills, such as searching online databases. The aim was for the participants to develop an enhanced sense of academic self-confidence and success and a greater awareness of when and where to seek help if they encountered learning problems. All sessions were team taught by Student Learning tutors or librarians.

The first trial was conducted in one academic faculty in February 2011 (the week prior to the beginning of ‘A’ semester) and ran from 9-3:30 pm across four consecutive days. The total number of in-class teaching hours was 26. The second trial, with a Maori cohort, was conducted at approximately the halfway point of ‘B’ semester (August 2011) in one academic faculty. The duration of the second trial was the same as the first – 26 in-class teaching hours across four consecutive days. The February trial will be referred to as Trial 1, while the August trial will be referred to as Trial 2 throughout the remainder of this paper.

During the in-class sessions, both groups participated in a range of academic skills workshops, practical tasks, reflections, and discussions about how to become a successful student. The groups also received about three hours tuition in the Library where they were shown how to locate and access resources.
It is also worth noting that the structure of Trial 2 and its instructional approaches were identical to those in Trial 1. The major change was that Māori protocols and some use of Te Reo had been added, thus creating a learning environment in which students clearly felt comfortable.

The Trial 1 group then attended monthly follow-up meetings throughout ‘A’ semester to discuss their progress, challenges, and strategies for success. The timing and format of follow-up for the Trial 2 group was necessarily different, as WaiBoost had been offered much later in the academic year and several students were studying at a distance. The Trial 2 group met face-to-face on a weekly or bi-weekly basis (depending on students’ availability), online via Skype conversations with a Student Learning tutor, and also interacted in Moodle (the university’s learning management system (LMS)).

During both trials we conducted workshop appraisal surveys (facilitated by the university’s appraisal office) and collected students’ daily written reflections about what they were learning. At the conclusion of the trials, we examined students’ overall academic achievement and compared it to their pre-WaiBoost grades.

**Conceptual framework**

WaiBoost was designed as a coherent program to recognise and explicitly include key concepts related to group cooperative (cohort) learning, academic literacy development, and student engagement. We were particularly interested in cohort learning as it provides multiple opportunities for individual participants to share understandings, seek clarification of new concepts with their peers, support one another emotionally in the “ups and downs” of their intellectual journeys, and importantly, it contributes to the learning of both student and teacher participants (Lawrence, 2002). In addition, there is research evidence that tailored cohort initiatives contribute to long-term academic success (Whitebook, Sakai, Kipnis, Bellm, & Almaraz, 2009).

As regards academic literacy, Leki (2000) and Braine (2002) state that it is more than just knowledge of discrete language skills or appropriate language use ‘in context’. Academic literacy needs to be understood holistically and includes, for example, competence in reading, writing, critical thinking, knowledge of independent learning processes, tolerance of ambiguity, effective practice of good judgment, and development of a deeper sense of personal identity. The development of academic literacy must be seen as a long-term endeavour, requiring practice and refinement of knowledge and the awareness that meta-cognitive learning processes and strategies are transferable across a variety of tasks. What is abundantly clear is that students will not acquire higher-level thinking and other academic literacy skills simply by enrolling at university (Chanock, 2001) but that learning processes can (and we would argue, should) be explicitly taught (Hammer & Green, 2011).
Finally, research into student engagement in higher education has found that although most students do need help at some point during their university studies to develop academic literacy skills, they tend not to actively seek assistance (Christie, Munro, & Fisher, 2004). Multiple, and often interrelated factors, such as poorly articulated orientation programmes, students’ own inability to self-assess their learning needs, disappointment with performance in courses, and a lack of awareness of what help is available or how to access it can contribute to retention problems at university (Kift, 2009; Trotter & Roberts, 2006). Cohesive approaches to learning development, and particularly ones in which supportive learning tutors and appropriate study materials are included, are key in helping students bridge learning gaps and complete their studies (Brew & Ginns, 2008; Chanock, 2007); developing multiple and various support structures through which students can be reached is critical for their academic achievement.

### Overall description of the trials

#### Curriculum content, timing, and follow-up

Trials 1 and 2 contained equivalent content, but feedback from Trial 1 influenced pacing and sequencing in Trial 2. The programme was designed to be interactive and involved sharing of insights into learning failures and successes. Although there was teaching input from staff, there were also a variety of practice-based, interactive tasks to develop students’ academic skills. Students were encouraged during each session to think about what they were doing, why they were doing it, what they were learning, and then voice (and pen) their thoughts. All materials used during the week were developed by staff in Student Learning and the Library. An example of the WaiBoost programme (Trial 2) is referenced in Appendix A.

As stated earlier, Trial 1 was offered within one academic faculty during the on-campus enrolment week (immediately prior to the commencement of ‘A’ semester). Student Learning and Library staff discussed the issue of timing at length and agreed that there was probably no “good” time to run WaiBoost. The constraints of students’ external commitments (including employment), other teaching commitments within Student Learning and the Library, and availability of classroom space existed throughout the year. In fact, post-WaiBoost student feedback was positive about the timing, as students reported it had prepared them mentally, emotionally, and strategically for the semester. Trial 2 was offered at approximately the halfway point of ‘B’ semester (August 2011) with a Maori cohort, within one academic faculty. Although it was late in the year, we obtained a special funding allocation for Maori student support and believed that WaiBoost could still be of value to students. The only time possible to run Trial 2 was the mid-semester break with the main problem being student recruitment at short notice.

We believed that regular follow-up meetings were essential to maintain group cohesion and to ascertain if additional academic assistance was needed. Trial 1 students met monthly, face-to-face throughout the term although some were unable
to attend any sessions due to their timetable. For Trial 2 students, we opened a Moodle “course” and posted weekly questions to stimulate reflection and discussion. Students also met (face-to-face) individually or in small groups, or they conversed (individually) in Skype with a Student Learning tutor.

Student recruitment – both trials
The recruitment for Trial 1 began in early January 2011 and was managed by Faculty administrative staff who checked first year students’ academic achievement in 2010. The students selected were admissible without appeal, which means that they had passed (most if not all of) their courses. However, as evidenced by the number of “incomplete” and low grades (in the C range), their Faculties deemed that they had struggled and that their chances for academic success in 2011 were not encouraging. Letters of invitation were sent to each student, with staff advisors available to answer questions and register the respondents.

This method of recruitment proved to be less than satisfactory, as the response rate was extremely low. As a result, we extended the invitation to second year students entering third year. From nearly 120 invitations, 17 students enrolled in WaiBoost, but only 9 attended all sessions.

For Trial 2, recruitment of students was constrained by the timing of when WaiBoost could be offered. Given that funding for the project began after the ‘B’ semester had started, the only viable time for WaiBoost was during the mid-semester break (end of August), which meant that logistical decisions, curriculum planning, and student recruitment had to be coordinated very quickly. In Trial 2, students were identified by teaching staff who knew them personally and contacted them quickly. Turn-around time from initial contact to enrolment was around two weeks. This method differed considerably from Trial 1 where students were selected on the basis of grades (only) and by people who did not know them. Although the overall number of participants was not large (16 students), it was similar to Trial 1 where we had spent many weeks trying to recruit. Of the Trial 2 students who agreed to attend WaiBoost, 8 completed all sessions.

Thematic analysis of the data
The participant numbers were adequate for the trials and contributed valuable information about the programme content and teaching approach. In both trials, qualitative data were collected through students’ open-ended responses on the university evaluation form, their daily reflection sheets, and (Trial 2) reflective prompts in Moodle. Questions related to setting goals, general study strategies, managing time, academic writing, reading strategies, and becoming part of a larger academic community.

While the text-based reflections were being collected within the individual trials, the authors read and re-read students’ comments. Through a process of inductive
reasoning, emergent themes within cases were identified (Braun & Clarke, 2006) and then reported and discussed by the teaching team and with the librarian participants. Such discussion facilitated understanding of both particular (“within trial”) and generic (“across trial”) themes. Finally, at the end of each trial a full report was prepared and submitted to faculty advisors and to the main university-level committee responsible for teaching and learning. Key themes that emerged from both trials have been consolidated and relate to making (implicit) academic literacy skills explicit, developing skills and confidence as learners, and increasing awareness of the importance of community. However, in some cases the cohorts’ characteristics were different and the groups will be described separately.

Findings and discussion

Overall, students from both trials reported that the combination of interactive teaching style, practical activities, and opportunities to reflect contributed positively to their self-understanding. We believe that participants completed the WaiBoost trials with an enhanced sense of personal identity as university students. From the evaluation data and reflections it was also clear that the WaiBoost intensive teaching and follow-up approaches were pedagogically effective.

Making the implicit explicit through teaching and reflection

There is research evidence that explicit and early teaching of academic literacy skills can improve tertiary student outcomes (Kift, 2009; Whitehead, 2012). Comments from students in both trials strongly supported the value of having implicit knowledge about academic skills and learning strategies made explicit. Students commented positively about strategies they had learned for academic reading, writing, setting goals and achieving them, and time management:

WaiBoost helped in being able to understand what studying in University context is all about. [student quote]

I didn’t know how to structure a paragraph let alone an essay. Having learnt a technique to get through the readings was also vital to me. [student quote]

It opened my eyes up about where I can get help; strategies to be successful; came in to the programme with low confidence in my ability to understand/gave me answers to use the tools within myself and feel more confident in being successful. [student quote]

In both trials students also openly shared their stories about learning at university and reflected on choices they had made, the consequences of those choices, and how different choices could have facilitated better outcomes. By sharing ideas, forming a cohort, and having an opportunity to be open and forthright in their discussions with academic staff and each other, students obtained insights into their own study
behaviours and learned strategies that they could use longer-term. One student remarked that WaiBoost demonstrated that she was more than “just a number” to the university, while others stated that:

- When doing the reflection I reviewed what I learned and know how to improve my skill. [student quote]
- WaiBoost is helping me know my weaknesses and how to fix those problems. I found especially time management and goal setting helpful and interesting. [student quote]
- WaiBoost provided the key skills for study. [student quote]

**Becoming part of a learning community / finding help**

A key aim of WaiBoost was to help students realize that there is a range of support structures at the university and that it is important to seek help as and when issues arise. It could be argued that such awareness can help augment students’ engagement with their learning. Across both groups students reported an enhanced awareness of the available support networks across the university. Feedback from students also emphasised their sense of being part of a wider learning community. In the follow-up meetings for Trial 1, several students reported meeting regularly with their WaiBoost peers and discussing assignments and strategies for learning. This occurred even if students were studying in different courses.

- Networking is important to developing my way of learning and surrounding yourself with the appropriate people. [student quote]

However, with the Trial 2 cohort, there was a key difference. Students often mentioned “whakama”, which they considered highly problematic. They reflected that it could be difficult to convince students that not only do they need academic assistance, but that it is completely “ok” to seek help when they encountered academic problems.

- Whakama (be shameful, shy, embarrassed, bashful) is something students need to be helped to overcome. I don’t want another person to look at me and say “you’re dumb”. [student quote]
- Māori gravitate to friends and whanau. We are hesitant to explain our needs and wants to people we don’t know. The University needs to think of ways to get students who need help to ask for help. [student quote]

This finding is also different from what is reported in research literature (Christie, Munro, & Fisher, 2004) as was described earlier in the conceptual framework discussion. It could be argued that students’ reluctance to seek help when needed is deeply rooted in culture. The Trial 2 WaiBoost experience created a “safe” and culturally appropriate environment for students to communicate with each other and the Student Learning tutors to deepen friendship relationships around learning. In
fact, two of the participants travelled over 100km every second week to visit Student Learning for tutorial assistance. Once they had established friendship relationships with staff in the unit, they felt comfortable seeking assistance from any of them, not just the Maori learning developer.

**Competing demands for time**

There were also key differences between the trial groups around time management. Trial 2 participants were older and more mature than the students in Trial 1. In addition, Trial 2 students were usually balancing complex demands of family, extended family, work, and study. Many had returned to full-time study after a significant gap of time and due to the cost of higher education, almost the entire Trial 2 cohort was in full-time (or almost full-time) employment. As a result they emphasized their need for help with time management strategies.

The time management workshop would be of more benefit at the beginning of the year especially for students that come straight from school. [student quote]

The time management workshop would be good for mature students until they get used to the way of things. [student quote]

Although Trial 2 students were more likely to be in full-time employment than their younger Trial 1 peers, various recent studies have shown that all students are increasingly dividing their time among many (often competing) demands (ACER, 2010; Radloff, 2010). Nearly all students in both Trial 1 and Trail 2 acknowledged they needed assistance with time management. Therefore, recognising the changing environment in which students study and then developing targeted strategies (including time management) to promote academic achievement is essential.

**Student achievement**

While we were buoyed by the positive nature of the qualitative feedback, we were also mindful that a key goal of WaiBoost was to help students improve academic achievement. In this regard, there were differences between the outcomes for Trial 1 and Trial 2 participants. With the Trial 1 cohort WaiBoost was successful for most, but not all students and it would be fair to say that some were not well placed in university study. The most notable success was the decline in the number of “incompletes” and “fails” (Ds and Es) that had characterized students’ academic performance previously. For some participants, their academic performance changed from failing or C-range grades to ‘B’ or even ‘A’ grades.

Trial 2 participants also had a very positive response to WaiBoost, but as already noted this group participated quite late in the year. Thus, comparing the impressive achievement improvements of Trial 1 students with that of the Trial 2 cohort is not useful as the two groups were entirely different. Trial 1 participants obtained preparation for the coming academic year, while Trial 2 students essentially received remedial assistance at probably the latest point in the year for it to have any positive effect.
Interestingly, although we did not teach Maths concepts at all during WaiBoost, Trial 2 students nevertheless felt confident enough after WaiBoost to seek Maths tutoring assistance from Student Learning. None of the participants had visited a Student Learning tutor previously. Student achievement in Math education showed remarkable improvement amongst Trial 2 participants, many of whom had struggled all year with the Maths content of their courses. Two students had already failed major assignments and yet were able to pass the Maths education paper. This was a significant achievement, as they would have needed at least an “A” grade in final assessed work in order to do so. Another student who had failed a Maths paper in Semester ‘A’ was also able to complete it successfully.

As for other end-of-year grades for Trial 2 participants, there was no marked improvement from ‘A’ to ‘B’ semester, but as stated above, WaiBoost was offered late in the year. The more interesting comparisons might yet be found in their 2012 grades, as students will have opportunities to apply the WaiBoost skills much earlier in the teaching term.

**Conclusions and implications**

Four days is not very long to effect behavioural change, but it would appear that WaiBoost contributed positively to student achievement. However, it is probably fair to say that some students were not well placed in university study and more up-skilling than could be provided by WaiBoost was required. For some students low literacy levels would have hindered their chance of academic achievement. It was also clear that processes for identifying and recruiting students needed much more careful consideration. Simply developing a list of potential participants (based on grades) and then sending a letter or email invitation had been a failure; more nuanced and personal approaches were needed as had been the case in Trial 2.

Although student numbers were small in both trials, we nevertheless gained important insights into the planning and running of an intensive programme such as WaiBoost. One is that the collaborative approach to the design, teaching, and administration of WaiBoost, including as it did input from content-area lecturers, library staff, administrators, and Student Learning tutors strengthened it. In addition, the programme’s emphasis on reflection helped students make explicit how and why they were under-achieving. It helped students understand that they needed to assume responsibility for their own learning, but also that they were part of a larger academic community. They also became aware that there was a range of people who could help when academic challenges emerged and that it was entirely acceptable to seek assistance. Finally, as was noted earlier, the structure of Trial 2 and its instructional approaches were identical to those in Trial 1. The major change was that Māori protocols and some use of te Reo had been added, thus creating a learning
environment in which students clearly felt comfortable. The intensive cohort-based
approach of WaiBoost appealed to the students, which reflects the importance of
culturally responsive pedagogy, not only in school settings, but also at tertiary level
(Savage, Hindle, Meyer, Hynds, Penetito, & Sleeter, 2011).

There were key implications that emerged from the trials, especially around
student recruitment, timing for when the programme could be most efficacious, and
resourcing. First, recruitment of students requires careful advance planning and needs
to be a careful combination of invitation and “shoulder-tapping”. If students attend
WaiBoost (or a similar up-skilling programme), they can benefit academically, but
helping them first realise that they need assistance is problematic and must be handled
sensitively. Shame and embarrassment are powerful disincentives to students who
should seek support.

Second, intensive up-skilling programmes such as WaiBoost can be very effective and
need to be offered regularly so as to become a regular feature at university. WaiBoost
should not be perceived as “special”, but as “normal” for any student who might have
experienced academic learning difficulties. Such perception could diminish the sense
that up-skilling is remedial and acknowledge that any student could experience gaps
in their understanding of how to be an effective learner. More widespread student
acceptance of the idea that seeking help is positive could in turn make recruitment
more straightforward.

Third, WaiBoost needs to be offered before the beginning of teaching semesters,
include regular follow-up during the semester, and be tailored to the particular
learning needs of students from different Faculties.

All of these conclusions have resourcing implications that need to be addressed.
However, the resourcing required for WaiBoost need not be excessive. Through
the combined cooperation of Faculties and academic support units, costs could
be distributed and shared. More importantly, however, resourcing for intensive
programmes such as WaiBoost needs to be perceived and acknowledged as an
investment in success, not a costly burden. What can be seen from the two trials
outlined above is that the rewards far outweigh any expense.

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thanks the contributions of Library, Faculty, and Student Learning staff to this project.
References


# Appendix A: Overview of WaiBoost Program (Trial 2)

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<th>Monday</th>
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<td>Library information evaluation sheet</td>
<td>Evaluation sheet collected</td>
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<td>Group discussion about what participants hope to gain from WaiBoost</td>
<td>Interactive workshop: <em>Academic reading</em></td>
<td>Interactive workshop: Writing assignments: What makes a good assignment, with a focus on paraphrasing and referencing to avoid plagiarism.</td>
<td>Interactive workshop: Writing assignments: Introductions, conclusions, cohesion.</td>
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<td>Cracking the library code – 2</td>
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<td>Success stories; Successful study strategies; Support systems</td>
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<td>Interactive workshop: <em>Effective time management</em></td>
<td>Interactive workshop: Writing assignments – Developing an argument and writing effective paragraphs</td>
<td>Interactive workshop: Goal setting – short term and long term</td>
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<td>Skills and strategies consolidation activity</td>
<td>Identifying and incorporating learning strengths into goal setting and academic study</td>
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Creating a place at the table or getting a seat on the boat: Reflections on a strategy to position Academic Language and Learning work in relation to national agendas

Bronwyn James
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Abstract

In 2010, The Association for Academic Language and Learning (AALL) took the direction of explicitly linking the work of academic language and learning (ALL) educators across Australia to current national higher education agendas. This direction has resulted in a number of AALL funded national events that involve collaborations among higher education institutions in regional groupings. To date, these events have focused primarily on English language proficiency and assessment, and on social inclusion. This paper begins with a look back at these events and their outcomes over the last 18 months. The paper then reflectively and reflexively examines one of these events as a provisional moment in which AALL was able to create ‘a place at the table’ in the constantly moving feast of higher education. The material effects of language in describing ourselves and our work as ALL educators is a central theme in this paper. My intention here is to use this Australian experience to invite further dialogue with our ATLAANZ colleagues about their own experiences of navigating the Aotearoa/New Zealand tertiary education waters.

Introduction

Ironists ..[realise] that anything can be made to look good or bad by being redescribed, and their renunciation of the attempt to formulate criteria of choice between final vocabularies, puts them in the position which Sartre called ‘meta-stable’: never quite able to take themselves seriously because always aware that the terms in which they describe themselves are subject to change, always aware of the contingency and fragility of their final vocabularies and thus of their selves. (Rorty, 1989, pp. 73-74)

It might seem strange to begin a paper about a strategy to position the work of academic language and learning (ALL) educators in the Australian higher education system with Richard Rorty’s quotation about ironists. I first came across this quotation in an article by Alison Lee and Erica McWilliam (2008) in which they address the positioning of academic developers within the academy. Lee and McWilliam make a
case for the real effects that language has in describing, redescribing, constraining, making possible, and making visible or invisible what it is that academic developers do, who they see themselves to be and who they are seen to be. While Lee and McWilliam address most directly the work and identity of academic developers, the argument they develop in their paper has many parallels for the identity and work of ALL educators.

Issues of identity transcend national boundaries. Susan Carter (2011), for example, makes reference to identity work, likening Learning Advisors in Aotearoa/New Zealand to ‘borderland dwellers’. So, while the national context for this paper is Australian, I suspect that the content of this paper will, in some ways at least, resonate with many Learning Advisors in Aotearoa/New Zealand as much as it does for myself and my work as an Australian ALL educator.

I want to carry across Lee and McWilliam’s framing of the ways in which language works into this paper. I would ask you, also, to keep in mind Rorty’s words as I outline a strategy that The Association for Academic Language and Learning (AALL) began in 2010 to gain a place at the table or, more neatly, employing the ‘Navigating the River’ theme of the conference, ‘to gain a seat on the boat’ in our institutions’ responses to national agendas that currently shape the higher education landscape in Australia.

This paper begins with a description of the AALL strategy and the national higher education landscape or context within which this strategy is positioned. I then take a look back at one of the events and its outcomes that was part of this strategy over the last 18 months and reflect on what sort of place we were able to gain at the table in the constantly moving feast of higher education.

**The AALL event strategy**

In 2010, the executive members of AALL agreed to fund a competitive targeted ‘event’ grant program in addition to the existing competitive project and research grants that AALL has made available to its members for some years. Competitive grants are funded through membership fees. This targeted event grant scheme has resulted in a number of AALL funded national events since 2010 that have involved collaborations among higher education institutions in regional groupings. The five events identified in Table 1 were funded under this strategy and were held in 2011.
Table 1. Targeted ALL national events 2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Venue</th>
<th>Event date, links for audio files, PPTS, further information</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good Practice Principles: How do we know what they know?</td>
<td>Edith Cowan University, WA</td>
<td>31 January 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widening Participation in AALL: Developing Interactions Between Universities and the VET Sector</td>
<td>University of South Australia</td>
<td>18 April 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introducing the British Written Academic English Corpus: Enhancing our practice in improving student writing in the disciplines</td>
<td>University of Sydney</td>
<td>20 May 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English language entry pathways: Innovations, outcomes and future directions</td>
<td>University of Sydney</td>
<td>9 June 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical discussions about Social Inclusion Forum</td>
<td>University of Wollongong</td>
<td>10 June 2011</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Targeted event grant proposals need to meet particular criteria designed to position ALL work in relation to national agendas. These criteria are identified in an excerpt from the application form in Figure 1.
Table 1 is interesting in terms of what it reveals about the focus of the events that were both proposed and successful in attracting funding. These events could broadly be grouped into two categories – those events that relate to broadening participation and social inclusion in higher education, and others that relate to English language proficiency. The first group – social inclusion – is elaborated further in later sections of this paper where one of the events in this category becomes illustrative of the reflexive and reflective purposes of this paper. The latter group – English language – included the Western Australian based event that focused in part on the impact of a report by the Australian Universities Quality Agency (AUQA) commissioned by The Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations – *The Good Practice Principles for English Language Development for International Students* (the GPP) (AUQA, 2008). This report outlines institutional and student responsibilities in relation to entry requirements and access to programs that will enhance English language. The GPP also contains examples of best practice offered by a number of institutions around Australia. Two NSW based events also focused on English language proficiency. One of these, based at the University of Sydney, included speakers from the private language provider sector and addressed English language pathways. The one based at the University of NSW centred on the British Academic Written English corpus – perhaps somewhat more of an outlier in relation to an obvious connection to key policy drivers in higher education.
The Australian higher education context

Each of the events that were funded under the new grant scheme nevertheless remains firmly connected to the broader higher education context. They sit within quite visible policy and media discussions about social inclusion and English language development as these relate to ensuring the not always easily reconcilable focus on both standards in higher education and a fair go for all (see for example, the website for The Tertiary Education Quality and Standards Agency http://www.deewr.gov.au/HigherEducation/Policy/teqsa/Pages/default.aspx and, the 2011 report from the Victorian Ombudsman, John Taylor).

In this section, I detail some of what is influencing the current context. My intention is not to attempt to be exhaustive since the question of what to include is a political one – there is no single or coherent element influencing the higher education sector and shaping the work that we do and the ways in which we do it. Looking beyond national boundaries, for example, ‘the university’ has been described using multiple, overlapping, and at times contradictory terms: ‘the university of reason’, ‘the university of culture’, ‘the university of excellence’, the university as ‘corporate enterprise’, the university of ‘accountability’. For an extended discussion about the modern university Readings (1996) work is invaluable. Other critically motivated theorists of the contemporary university have added to this bank of terms. There are references, for example, to ‘new managerialism’ and ‘neoliberalism’ (Davies, 2003), ‘audit culture’ (Summers-Bremner, 2006), and ‘risk society’ (Bullen, Fahey, & Kenway, 2006). The competing and overlapping political, economic, and intellectual agendas that are indexed by these terms reflect and shape much of the local and international higher education context.

The context that I describe in this paper, however, is local, situated as it is within national boundaries. It is nevertheless just as non-unitary, non-finite, in process, and influenced and reflective of the competing and overlapping agendas I have sketched above. This context and these agendas are always discursively implicated; ‘discursively’ used here to signal my intention to take up Michel Foucault’s (1982) understanding of discourse as always associated with relations of power. To describe one context or one element or agenda and ignore another is precisely an example of Foucault’s understanding of the power of language to ‘discipline’, make visible or invisible. Some contexts and their agendas are more ‘visible’ than others.

In the following section, and with this realisation in mind, I do privilege one key policy driver – social inclusion. The ‘social inclusion agenda’ occupies a highly visible place in the context of Australian higher education and it has particular relevancy for the work of ALL educators. In the context of this paper, where my purpose is to reflect on the effect of the AALL strategy of targeted events, I could equally have focused on English language proficiency, or some other driver. My own involvement with one of the social inclusion events, however, has influenced my choice in this regard.
Social inclusion

The ‘social inclusion agenda’ has become increasingly visible via Australian government commissioned reports, directives, policy documents, and various policy and practical responses from universities in Australia. The Australian government initiated *Review of Australian Higher Education* (Bradley, Noonan, Nugent & Scales, 2008) put forward a number of recommendations that have been largely taken up, most demonstrably through the Government’s commitment to providing an additional $5.4 billion over a four-year timeframe in order to resource reform in the higher education sector. Specifically, as this excerpt from the website of Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations (DEEWR) indicates, the aim of this funding is to:

... support high quality teaching and learning, improve access and outcomes for students from low socio economic backgrounds, build new links between universities and disadvantaged schools, reward institutions for meeting agreed quality and equity outcomes, improve resourcing for research and invest in world class tertiary education infrastructure.

The reform targets that have been identified on the DEEWR website which relate to the Higher Education report include the following:

... 40 per cent of 25- to 34-year-olds will have attained at least a bachelor-level qualification by 2020. This will be quite testing for Australia, as current attainment is 29 per cent.

By 2020, 20 per cent of undergraduate enrolments in higher education should be students from low socio-economic backgrounds.

In order to achieve these and other identified reform targets, the Australian Government began negotiations with individual universities to develop Mission-Based Compacts in 2011. The Government web page: The Mission-Based Compacts for Universities contains the following information:

The Commonwealth will monitor the University’s equity performance through the existing reporting requirements attached to individual programs. The University’s performance in meeting equity objectives will also be linked with teaching and learning Performance Funding targets, as specified in the table under paragraph 4.14 of this Compact.

The linking of those targets that relate to previously under represented groups in higher education to institutional funding makes social inclusion a high stakes contour in the Australian higher education landscape. Importantly, as Trevor Gale (2009, p. 10) pointed out in his keynote address to the Student Equity Forum, a strong theme that comes across in the Bradley Review is that social equity and inclusion is everyone’s business. This leads me to questions that I want to raise about the new social inclusion
agenda and the work of ALL educators: How are we positioned and positioning ourselves in relation to this agenda – do we have a seat on the boat? My reflections on these questions provide an entry point from which to reflect on the broader AALL strategy that I described earlier.

Most if not all of us within the ALL field would find it heartening that social inclusion is being taken seriously and positioned with such mainstream prominence. After all, the ALL field, if I can call it that, either expanded in focus or, as it was the case for the majority of universities, came into being in the 1990’s largely in response to an earlier wave of social inclusion as part of the Dawkins reforms of higher education. The prominence given to this current agenda is indexed by the creation of professorial positions dedicated to social inclusion in a number of universities. The same prominence, I would suggest, has not flowed over to institutional recognition of the contributions made to social inclusion by many ALL educators. As a field, ALL has since the early 1990s enabled and supported success in university education for students who have been previously underrepresented in higher education. For many of us in that field now, the social inclusion agenda remains business as usual, while around us, and at times without us, policy and program decisions are made by the new social inclusion governance bodies and executives.

**Shaping a place at the table – the Critical Discussions about Social Inclusion Forum**

*The Critical Discussions about Social Inclusion (CDSI) Forum, listed on the calendar of events for AALL (Figure 1), was held at the University of Wollongong in 2011. We conceptualised the event as a way of showcasing ALL work as it relates to social inclusion to the broader university community, and as an opportunity for academic and professional staff to critically reflect on the debates, stories, practices and policy surround the ‘new’ social inclusion agenda in higher education. We actively opened up the event to those outside of ALL. This was done by advertising within our own universities (the organising committee included ALL educators from the University of Wollongong, The University of New England, The University of Sydney, The University of Technology, Sydney and the Australian National University). We also advertised nationally through the Higher Education Research and Development Society of Australia (HERDSA), the Unilearn discussion list, the AALL membership list, the AALL website (http://aall.org.au), the Australian Learning and Teaching Council site (now The Office of Learning and Teaching), and the Equity 101 website (http://www.equity101.info/content/welcome-equity101). Equity 101 was set up by the National Centre for Student Equity in Higher Education to support collegial networks and locate information and scholarship related to social inclusion, widening participation and student equity issues. Figure 2 shows the CDSI Forum listed on the Equity 101 webpage.*
The CDSI Forum was initially funded by a $4000 targeted event grant from AALL but as the program for the Forum took shape, the University of Wollongong decided to promote the Forum as a strategic priority and offered additional funding. Information about the Forum, speakers and program, and subsequent audio-recordings of the sessions are housed on the University of Wollongong’s Focus on Teaching website (http://focusonteaching.uow.edu.au/events/cdsi/index.html).

The CDSI was a success in many ways. It attracted over 100 participants; the majority of whom came from NSW city and regional areas but also quite a number of participants and presenters came from interstate and one participant from New Zealand. Two high profile speakers took up our invitation to speak at the CDSI Forum. Professor Alison Lee, Director, Centre for Research in Learning and Change (CRLC), University of Technology, Sydney developed an argument for a critical scholarship of curriculum in higher education to consider the relationship between student equity and conceptions of the future of the university; and Professor Martin Nakata, Director of Nura Gili, University of New South Wales, examined the complexities of the cultural interface for indigenous students in higher education. The other sessions involved speakers from the ALL field and beyond. Figure 3 contains the program and, as a consequence of the program design and the aims of the CDSI Forum, a number of future research connections were forged during the day. The feedback that we had during the day and afterwards via an on-line evaluation survey was overwhelming positive. Currently, we are working on a special edition of the Journal for Academic Language and Learning based on the CDSI Forum.
Reflective and reflexive moments

My description of the CDSI Forum and its outcomes sounds like a tale of redemption. We were able to create a place at the table for ALL educators that was acknowledged both within and beyond our individual institutions, by senior management and ‘those that matter’. We had, at that moment, been able to seize an opportunity to position ALL work somewhere closer to the centre. We had shifted a perception that our work sits on the periphery of the real work of universities.

We had, to return to Alison Lee and Erica McWilliam’s work, employed language to reposition our work as critical to the social inclusion agenda. But to do this once is not enough. Things go back to normal and the normal for ALL educators and our work is usually not positioned at the centre. The positions available to us in our individual
institutions constrain what it is possible to do and to say in the sense that this doing and saying might be deemed recognisable. The ongoing language that we employ to describe ourselves and our work becomes, to use Lee and McWilliam’s words “scripts for self-fashion-ing … and hence a strategy of disciplinary power, producing what can be and become thinkable” (p.74).

Rorty’s description of ironists as those who understand that the terms in which “they describe themselves are subject to change, [and as] always aware of the contingency and fragility of their final vocabularies and thus of their selves” (pp 73-74) leads me to the final point that I would like to make in this paper. This is that we, as ALL educators need to seize those provisional but ongoing and inevitable moments when the higher education landscape undergoes some shift or realignment and employ the language of the moment to move our work from the periphery and closer to the centre. The language that we use to describe our work and our students has real effects on who we are seen to be and what will be recognisable in what we say. Most importantly, it has real effects on the ways in which the students that we work with are understood within our institutions.

**A provisional conclusion**

Language plays an important role in identity work in making visible or invisible what it is that we do and who we are seen to be. Language also offers us, however provisionally and tentatively, a tool through which to create a stance from which we might position ourselves and be positioned differently. As ALL educators in Australia and as Learning Advisors in Aotearoa/New Zealand, the national contexts within which we work provide different possibilities and different constraints. And while what we can do, what we can say and what might be heard is constrained by our institutional positioning, we nevertheless have some options to speak and do differently at precisely those times when the national contexts in which we work shift and through this shift become momentarily less stable.

**References**


KEYS to Academic Writing Success: 
A six-stage process account

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Abstract

This paper was originally conceived as a position paper arguing for the retention of KEYS to Academic Writing Success (KAWS), a successful undergraduate writing programme which had been developed by AUT University’s unit for Learning Development and Success: Te Tari Awhina. However, AUT’s approach to developing academic literacies has recently been reviewed; therefore this revised version merely seeks to document the approach taken in KAWS, which may be of pedagogical interest to colleagues considering adopting a genre-based approach to academic writing programmes. This approach aims to empower first year undergraduate students with the confidence and skills to tackle their first writing assignment, which is typically an essay, due in the first few weeks of the first semester. As a coherent writing development programme, KAWS has received positive endorsements from colleagues teaching on the programme and by faculty staff members whose students’ writing improves as a result of having attended the programme, and overwhelmingly positive feedback from the students themselves.

Introduction

One essential quality of a university writing programme is that it works. Simply put, this implies that students emerge, not only with a better understanding of the writing process, but with a repertoire of strategies which enable them to produce good assignments – with concomitantly high grades. In the real world, the first assignment given to an undergraduate student is typically an essay, due in the first few weeks of the first semester. Unfortunately, not all students enter university with either the confidence or the skills to tackle such a task, and support is not always available from subject lecturers. First-year students who are faced with the challenge of writing their first assignment need a writing programme which is both practical and effective, and which provides a solid foundation on which to further develop academic literacies. This paper outlines such a programme: KEYS to Academic Writing Success (KAWS) – a long-running and successful programme which has been developed by AUT University’s unit for Learning Development and Success: Te Tari Awhina. This paper argues that when students develop a clear sense of where they are (at any

1 Allan, Q. (2012). Keys to Academic Writing Success: A six-stage process account. In M. Protheroe (Ed.) Navigating the River: Proceedings of the 2011 Annual International Conference of the Association of Tertiary Learning Advisors of Aotearoa/New Zealand (ATLAANZ) (pp. 82 - 106). Auckland, New Zealand: ATLAANZ.
given point) in the writing process, they are more likely to produce a well-argued, tightly structured essay, with fewer surface errors in spelling and grammar. This self-awareness can best be cultivated through a contextualised teaching programme in which each stage of the process is systematically explored through class discussion, demonstrated by an effective practitioner, experienced by the student and evaluated at the end of the process. This paper is organised in seven sections: the first section provides an overview of the KAWS introductory writing programme. Each subsequent section explores a key component of the six-stage programme: the second section outlines a systematic approach to question analysis; the third section considers effective ways of generating ideas; the fourth section explores the role of reading in the writing process; the fifth section outlines strategies for devising a logical plan; the sixth section commends the ‘framing’ approach which is used to model the drafting of paragraphs; the final section reviews a straightforward approach to proofreading and editing.

**AUT’s writing programme**

AUT University provides a free 50-hour academic writing programme for first year undergraduates (KAWS)\(^2\). The programme provides students with 10 hours of classroom teaching, over two days, with the balance comprising guided self-study and interactive on-line activities; in recognition of their coursework requirements, students have the remainder of the semester in which to complete the self-study component\(^3\). KAWS is offered in two forms: where possible, the programme is customised for specific papers with materials adapted for the needs of the subject discipline and the actual written assignment. For further discussion of how KAWS works as an embedded literacy development programme, see McWilliams and Allan (2011). The second form is the generic model, which is the approach outlined in this paper. The teaching approach adopted by KAWS lecturers is informed by genre literacy pedagogy, especially as it has been developed by literacy specialists in Australia; see, for example, Cope and Kalantzis (1993); Kress (1993); Martin and Rose (2005). Genre literacy pedagogy is closely allied with Michael Halliday’s (1985) functional model of language with its emphasis on context and awareness of register variables. This approach encourages literacy specialists to focus on whole texts, paying particular attention to text structure and lexico-grammatical patterning.

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\(^2\) Grateful acknowledgement is hereby made to my colleagues at Te Tari Awhina for their enthusiastic support in team-teaching *Keys to Academic Writing Success*; in particular, I wish to pay tribute to the previous paper leader, Sue Bretherton, for her role in developing many of the materials, including some online activities. I also wish to thank Rainie Yu for her cheerful assistance in formatting the initial unedited figures for this paper.

\(^3\) Students are able to choose from a suite of on-line activities. These are available under 10 headings: academic writing context; writing process; analyzing essay questions; introductions; body paragraphs; conclusions; reading and research; referencing; proof-reading; academic vocabulary. These online activities are a requirement of the programme and students’ online presence is monitored as one of the assessment criteria. Work is in progress to improve the interactivity of the online component. Students who require further guidance are always welcome to visit the twice daily LDS: Te Tari Awhina ‘drop-in’ sessions, or to make an appointment for an hour-long consultation with a lecturer.
Within distinct stages of a given text. Through a carefully selected series of hands-on activities and expert demonstrations, students are scaffolded towards the point where they can confidently tackle an academic assignment, secure in the knowledge that they know what they are doing, and where they are in the writing process. For further information on scaffolding learners, see Wood, Bruner and Ross (1976) and Vygotsky (1986). For a fuller discussion of the theoretical underpinning of the KAWS approach, with particular reference to genre literacy pedagogy, see Allan (Forthcoming).

In conjunction with an exploration of the academic writing process in very general terms, the programme begins with a needs analysis activity, adapted from Cottrell (1999). See Figure 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Do I know …</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>Rating</th>
<th>I just need practice</th>
<th>Not sure</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How to get into the habit of writing?</td>
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<td>How to get started on a piece of writing (Or overcome writer’s block)?</td>
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<tr>
<td>What an essay is?</td>
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<td>A procedure for writing essays?</td>
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<td>How to analyse assignment questions?</td>
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<tr>
<td>How to organise information?</td>
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<tr>
<td>How to use and organise concepts?</td>
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<tr>
<td>How to structure an essay?</td>
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<tr>
<td>How to structure a report?</td>
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<tr>
<td>How to write good paragraphs?</td>
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<td>How to write a persuasive argument?</td>
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<tr>
<td>About different academic writing styles?</td>
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<td>How to use personal experience writing?</td>
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<tr>
<td>How to draft, edit and proof-read?</td>
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<tr>
<td>How to present my writing?</td>
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<tr>
<td>What gets good marks?</td>
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<td>How to use feedback to improve my marks?</td>
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<tr>
<td>What are the two main priorities for improvement in your next piece of writing?</td>
<td>Highlight these two in colour.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Repeat this self-evaluation when your next piece of writing is returned, using the tutor’s feedback.

Figure 1. Needs Analysis Self Evaluation: How good am I at managing writing tasks?
The importance of this self-appraisal questionnaire cannot be overstated: not only does the activity provide students with some of the meta-language associated with academic writing, it also highlights aspects of the writing process which are typically ignored or neglected by students. This is followed by a peer-activity in which students design an action plan. See Figure 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>ID no</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

1. My strengths as a writer are:

2. These are aspects of writing I need to improve in:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Areas for Improvement</th>
<th>Positive consequences if I improve</th>
<th>Negative consequences if I don't improve</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

3. My goals for this paper:

4. Things I will do to achieve my goals are:

Peer student’s comments:       Peer student’s name:

_________________________       ________________________

*Figure 2. Action Plan*
In their personalised action plan, each student is encouraged to identify specific goals which are specific, measurable, achievable, realistic and timely; working through this process also helps students to begin considering some of the key concepts which they will be engaging with over the next 10 hours. For further information about goal setting, see Covey (1990). One of the most problematic issues identified by students is inefficient time management. This then, is both a starting point and an orienting device for the entire writing programme. As a class, students brainstorm the key stages of the writing process which are mapped onto a timeline, see Figure 3.

Organising your time when writing an essay

When you get your assignment, make a time line as soon as possible, and allocate writing tasks along it. A useful rule of thumb is to allow four weeks for each assignment. If you have more than one assignment due at the same time, you should prepare a separate timeline for each assignment. Make sure that you allow enough time between steps (at least overnight is recommended) to reflect and develop your writing as you go.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Analyse the question</th>
<th>Read, research and reference the topic</th>
<th>Write the 1st draft (+ in-text referencing)</th>
<th>Final Draft</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Generate ideas (mindap)</td>
<td>Make a logical plan for body paragraphs</td>
<td>Edit/proofread</td>
<td>Hand in</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3. Timeline

This timeline is invoked regularly throughout the 10 hours of classroom teaching and two key messages are emphasised: firstly, knowing where one is in the writing
The first stage focuses on the assignment question: close questioning of students about their approach to question analysis confirms our suspicion that, too often, questions are given little more than a cursory reading. With reference to Figure 4, students are led through a consideration of assignment requirements from both their own perspective and that of their lecturers.

**Figure 4. Question Analysis**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>QUESTION ANALYSIS</th>
<th>GENERATING IDEAS</th>
<th>READING &amp; REFERENCING</th>
<th>LOGICAL PLAN</th>
<th>1ST DRAFT</th>
<th>PROOFREADING &amp; EDITING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

_Discuss the role of stress in people’s personal and professional lives. You must outline the signs of stress, the causes of stress and some methods of dealing with stress._

**Analyse the question**

- Read the question 2-3 times
- Highlight key words
  - **instruction** words
  - **content** words
  - **context** words
- **How many parts** does the question have?
- **What information** is required?
- Check **Learning Outcomes**
- Check **Marking Criteria**
- How does the question link to **lectures**?
- **How much do I know about it already?** Prepare an **information audit:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What do I know already?</th>
<th>What do I need to find out?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **Discuss** the question with several others
- Confirm the **areas you need to research**
- **Prepare a preliminary mind map**
Particular attention is drawn to the need for systematic identification and analysis of key words, not only in the question itself, but also in the Learning Outcomes. Useful discussion of key words as used in academic contexts can be found in Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, and Finegan (1999); Coxhead (2000); Leech, Rayson, and Wilson (2001); Nation (2001); and Hinkel (2004). Key words are explained as follows: ‘instruction words’ are directive verbs (such as discuss, analyse, justify, critique); ‘content words’ are typically abstract nouns – often extended noun groups; ‘context words’ refer to time, location and manner (ideas such as where, when, to what extent). These terms are explored with the introduction of a sample essay question relating to stress: Discuss the role of stress in people’s personal and professional lives. Outline the signs of stress, the causes of stress and some methods of dealing with stress.

Having identified these key words, students’ attention is drawn to the advantages of preparing an ‘information audit’ – basically, a rough sketch of what they already know about the topic contrasted with a summary of identifiable lacunae. An explicit statement of these gaps in their knowledge provides a focus to the reading which follows on from the generation of ideas.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>QUESTION ANALYSIS</th>
<th>GENERATING IDEAS</th>
<th>READING &amp; REFERENCING</th>
<th>LOGICAL PLAN</th>
<th>1ST DRAFT</th>
<th>PROOFREADING &amp; EDITING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Most writers will, at some point in their life, have experienced the frustration of writer’s block. This problem is one of the difficulties typically identified by students in their needs analysis, hence the attention paid to developing strategies for generating ideas at this stage of the programme. With reference to the key concepts identified in the question analysis, various approaches are discussed, including free-writing, brainstorming and mind-mapping. One of the problems associated with free-writing is related to coherence and structure; in practice, what begins as a free-writing activity often ends up being submitted as the final assignment – a painful and tedious experience for the marker who must struggle to make sense of the text, and a disappointing result for the writer when the assignment is returned with the predictably low grade. Given the incoherence associated with free-writing, students are encouraged instead to adopt a sequenced approach involving brainstorming and mind-mapping along the lines suggested by Buzan (1993).³ The first rule of brainstorming is that (within reason) anything goes, so all ideas are jotted down. The crucial next step is to impose some sort of order on the initial brainstorm. Sometimes an order will suggest itself: possibilities include hyponomy (hierarchy), metonymy (association), meronymy (part-whole), chronology, cause and effect, pros and cons; however, experience suggests that not all students are immediately aware of the productive potential of sense relations and other categorising options. Therefore, a basic heuristic is suggested whereby multiple questions are asked, using the standard

³ Students who feel more comfortable using a free-writing approach are alerted to the dangers as outlined above, and invited to consider using this approach as an idea-generating strategy, to be followed by deconstruction, reordering and eventual reassembly at the drafting stage.
prompts: who, what, where, when, why, how, and the answers deployed clockwise around the central organising idea. The point is made that more than one attempt is necessary in order to arrange ideas satisfactorily and to identify connections. This process is demonstrated in class and students are able to see how the initial brainstorm morphs into a more thematically oriented mind-map. With respect to the stress question, the initial mind-map emerges structured something along the lines of that depicted in Figure 5.

![Figure 5. Mind Map](image)

Brainstorms and mind-maps are modelled on the whiteboard and students are encouraged to adopt this strategy in approaching all future assignments. The simple power of pen and paper is acknowledged and celebrated, typically with either presentations or wall displays of students’ group work; the class is also invited to explore the potential of commercial mind-mapping software such as Inspiration©, which has the added advantage of enabling writers to convert mind-maps to essay outlines.
Now that the question has been analysed and ideas generated, students are ready to embark on the reading. However, a common problem expressed by students is knowing where to start. General advice is provided with reference to the library catalogue and databases, and the multiple entry-points available. The reading list, if provided, is a useful starting point and students are alerted to the potential of identifying additional sources from the reference section in each of the readings. Reading is an activity which all students have been doing for years without having given it much, if any, conscious thought. Our aim at this point is to encourage metacognitive awareness of the different reading strategies available at different stages of the reading and writing process. Emphasis is placed on the importance of reading strategically: it is not possible to read everything, so students need to skim read first to decide if the text is useful. Having selected a text, then they need to read it carefully, and make notes for the essay. Key concepts of scanning for detail, skimming for gist and annotating texts are introduced and discussed in general terms leading in to a discussion of the sorts of texts which are appropriate for citing in academic essays. Students are led to explore key criteria for selecting appropriate texts and provided with a checklist containing five ‘quality control’ questions to ask before selecting a text:

1. What is the source? Is it from a reputable organisation such as a university or a government department? Knowing where a piece of writing comes from helps you to place it in context, and decide how reliable it is.

2. How current is it? Unless there is an historical reason to do so, a good rule of thumb is to use more recently published sources.

3. Who is the author? Do they have any expertise in the topic?

4. What sort of writing is it? What is the text structure? newspaper, magazine, academic journal, website, book, encyclopaedia, press release...

5. What is the purpose? Is it to inform, to argue for a point of view or to advocate change? Look beneath the surface. What is the writer’s agenda?

Having identified appropriate texts, students are alerted to seven critical reading questions to ask as they are reading:

1. What are the ideas and key points? Work out what they mean to you.

2. What is the writer’s perspective? Think about the cultural and social implications of this perspective.

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5 Time is not available during this programme to address database searching in depth; however, students are advised to enrol on the library courses which are also available free of charge to all students at AUT University.
3. What is the writer’s position? For, against, neutral...
4. Is there adequate evidence for the conclusions?
5. Is the writing grounded in robust theory and research?
6. Is the information factually correct?
7. What assumptions does the writer make?

For further information about reading within an academic context, see Cope and Kalantzis (2000); Brick (2009); and Godfrey (2009). The importance of notetaking is emphasised and various approaches are outlined. The familiar and useful mnemonic ‘SQ3R’ is introduced as a practical heuristic to aid retention and recall of complex information (Robinson, 1970); see Figure 6.

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**Figure 6. Readings: Active Reading**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey</th>
<th>Title / Headings / Sub-headings / Summaries / Topic sentences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Question</td>
<td>Think of questions that you want answered before you start reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Read</td>
<td>Be an ACTIVE reader: Ask questions when you are reading e.g.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“Is this what I need to know?”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“Does this give an example of what I want?”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“How can I relate this to my own experience?”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>After reading make notes of the important information - in your own words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recall</td>
<td>Without looking at your article / book / notes, visualize and write down in your own words the main points of what you have just read.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Review</td>
<td>Look back at the questions that you wrote, the notes that you took and the article that you read.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can you remember the main points?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What things did you forget?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What things did you not get totally right?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Go back to the notes you wrote in ‘recall’ and add or change things so that your notes are complete. Try to recall the answers to the questions again, and then check your notes to see if you were correct.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Having covered theoretical aspects of reading, an opportunity is provided at this point for students to apply appropriate reading skills to a carefully selected collection of readings from a range of sources (newspapers, academic journals, Heart Foundation, websites); before starting the reading, students are invited to devise a coding device to help them keep track of key themes as identified from the question analysis. A group reading activity is followed by feedback on the whiteboard using a reading synthesis grid, a simple but highly effective strategy for keeping on top of complex and extensive reading matter. A reading synthesis grid enables students to organise the notes from their readings in a systematic manner, and to view at a glance the themes covered in the readings. Later, in the drafting stage, it becomes an essential resource for quickly and accurately locating statistics, definitions, other quotes and text which has been earmarked for paraphrasing. Students have the option of orienting the reading synthesis grid concept-centrically, as in Figure 7, or author-centrically (Godfrey, 2009; Webster & Watson, 2002).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEMES</th>
<th>Source # 1</th>
<th>Source # 2</th>
<th>Source # 3</th>
<th>Source # 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Main Idea A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main Idea B</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in Idea C</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main Idea D</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 7. Synthesis Grid*

Reading copious amounts of academic text presents a number of challenges to anyone, which the strategies outlined here address to some extent; however, one of the perennial difficulties (and not just for first year students) is knowing when to stop reading. The advice we give is closely tied in with time management – specifically with reference to the time-line. Students are alerted to the likelihood that reading will quickly subsume time which would be better spent on drafting; therefore, it is in their interests to move on from reading to the plan formulation stage as soon as a representative coverage of the literature has been achieved.
The planning stage is absolutely essential and the old adage ‘fail to plan: plan to fail’ is explored through class discussion and illustrated with the appropriate cautionary tales. A surprisingly high number of students are unaware, not only of the importance of planning, but of how to go about formulating a workable plan. Numerous sources provide advice about planning; see, for example, Cottrell (1999); Brick (2009); de Luca and Annals (2009); Godwin (2009); and Oshima and Hogue (2007). Standard procedure is to refer back to the assignment question, specifically to the key words which were identified, and to the actual requirements of the question, then to the themes which are used to organise the reading synthesis grid. These themes very often form the basis of the body paragraphs. The next step is to check the word count followed by a quick demonstration of the economics of essay structure. Assume the word limit is 1500 words; if 10% of the word limit is assigned to the introduction and 10% to the conclusion, that leaves 1200 words for the body; if four salient themes or issues emerge from the question and reading synthesis grid, then each body paragraph will have 300 words, with some flexibility allowed. The structure of each paragraph is not outlined until the next stage, as a preliminary to drafting the body paragraphs; instead, at this point the emphasis is on identifying and articulating the main idea for each body paragraph, then deciding on the sub-points [How many? In what order?], then on the nature of elaboration for each sub-point.
Figure 8. Essay Plan

With reference to Figure 8, approaches to developing the main idea are discussed, with a rule of thumb being at least one in-text citation for each paragraph. The reading synthesis grid is invoked again at this point to provide a sense of which sources are appropriate to illustrate or elucidate a point. This provides a short-list which can be narrowed down at the point of actually drafting each paragraph.
From the perspective of an English lecturer who has marked thousands of student essays, it is evident that too many students submit what is essentially a first draft, typically written without reference to a carefully devised plan and with only cursory attention given to the assignment question. The approach we have adopted with the KAWS programme is designed to highlight the importance of each stage in the writing process and to emphasise the point that it is counter-productive for the student to begin drafting until each of the previous four stages has been adequately addressed. The drafting stage is promoted as the most exciting stage, when ‘it all comes together’; the use of the word ‘draft’ in preference to ‘write’ underlines the point that the emphasis is on getting words down on paper, not on getting it right. Drafting is a recursive activity, with the possibility of numerous reformulations, each resulting in an increasingly well-constructed and nuanced essay. The key point is made that the first draft is simply that – a tentative attempt to create linear text in which an argument is developed and points elaborated.

From the very beginning of the KAWS writing programme, students are assured that they will not have to do any actual writing until the process has been demonstrated by their lecturers. This assurance results in a more relaxed frame of mind with which to identify and consider each discrete stage as the programme unfolds. In order to demystify the composition process, each stage in the process has been explored with reference to the writing task (the essay on stress). The question is analysed on the white board, ideas generated in plenary discussion and mapped out in real time for students to see how themes and concepts coalesce visually and how connections between ideas can be depicted diagrammatically; the set of readings is explored individually and in groups, then possible in-text references identified and noted on the reading synthesis grid; this then helps to inform the logical plan from which the essay can be drafted.

The stage is almost set for the lecturer to demonstrate, using ‘think-aloud’ protocols, how a confident, sophisticated writer might approach the first draft of an academic essay. However, an essential preliminary step involves deciding on the structural composition of three paragraph types, starting with the Introduction. This is presented as having six components, as in Figure 9.
The different components of each paragraph are explored through a guided analysis of a model essay, written from a Health Sciences perspective, on the subject of teenage alcohol abuse. The approach taken has been informed by some of the earliest advocates of genre analysis: Hoey (1983); Swales (1990); Bhatia (1993); and Dudley-Evans (1994). The point is made that tremendous variety on paragraph structure is possible in practice, but that a neophyte writer (unsure of what belongs in an introduction, and in what order) will produce a tightly structured paragraph if this schematic structure is followed. Discussion follows about the function of the introduction and students’ attention is drawn to the following prompts and advice:

- What is your purpose? Are you writing to inform, educate, persuade or evaluate an issue?
- What is the issue?
- Move from the general to the specific.
- Who is your reader?
- What’s the central problem or question that your writing is going to address?
- Bold statements, controversial quotations or rhetorical questions are good opening gambits for your opening sentence.
- Most reading is voluntary. By the end of your introduction you should have convinced your reader that it is worthwhile continuing. You have got something important to say, and they should keep reading.

Although it is the first paragraph of the essay, students are encouraged to consider drafting the introduction after they have drafted the body. This makes sense in practical terms as it means that they are more likely to have formulated an argument and they will have a clearer sense of how the body is organised.

The introduction is then contrasted with the conclusion, which is presented as having three components, as in Figure 10.
Discussion follows about the function of the conclusion and students’ attention is drawn to the following prompts and advice:

- Have you answered the question?
- Do not include new material in the conclusion.
- Re-read your introduction to remind yourself what it is you were promising to deliver to your reader.
- Use the conclusion as a means to reinforce your main idea or points of view.
- If there is nothing more to be said on your topic, it is time to finish. You do not have to write a ‘thank you and goodnight’ final sentence.

With respect to body paragraphs, the point is made that the structure used will depend on the ideas being developed. At school, students are often taught the SEX structure: Statement, Example, Explanation. At tertiary level, common acronyms include TEER: Topic sentence, Explanation, Example, Relevance, and PERL: Point, Elaboration, Relevance, Link. In Business, a common paragraph structure is ITAC: Issue, Theory, Application, Concluding statement. In Law, a common paragraph structure is ILAC: Issue, Law, Application, Concluding statement. Some colleagues teaching on KAWS like to introduce students to Toulmin’s model of argumentation as outlined in Toulmin, Rieke, and Janik (1984) and further developed in Toulmin (2001). A general-purpose structure that many students find useful at university is outlined in Figure 11.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conclusion</th>
<th>Comments re structure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Argument</td>
<td>Restate main hypothesis (paraphrase)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key points</td>
<td>Summarise key points (paraphrase)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implications</td>
<td>State implications for future action/research</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 10. Conclusion*
Because of the greater potential for variation in structure and function in body paragraphs, students’ attention is drawn to the following prompts and advice:

- **Unity** – each paragraph should have one clear focus. If you were asked to explain what the paragraph was about, you should be able to summarise the main idea in just a few words.

- **Coherence** – this is achieved when all of the concepts, propositions and examples within the paragraph are clearly related to each other and consistent with the main idea of the paragraph, as indicated in the topic sentence. People will find your essay easy to read if each paragraph is well developed, and clearly about one main idea, as indicated in its topic sentence.

- Each **topic sentence** should be clearly identifiable. Topic sentences can be used by the reader to skim through the essay and easily follow the logical ‘flow’ of ideas. This makes the whole essay coherent.

Students sometimes appear to be confused by the terms ‘coherence’ and ‘cohesion’. The term **cohesion** refers to the ways that sentences are linked together grammatically and through vocabulary (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). Students are encouraged to enhance their paragraphs’ cohesion by focusing on word choice. Practical ways to achieve cohesive text include:

- Repeat key words and ideas – use synonyms and paraphrase
- Use pronouns (*she, it, this*) to refer to people, ideas and units of text
- Use ordering words to sequence your ideas (*firstly, secondly, finally*)
- Use transition markers to indicate the relationship between different ideas (*however, therefore, moreover*)
- Use contrast (*national—global; liberal—repressive*)
Having established the characteristic structural and functional components of paragraphs, the next step is for the lecturer to model for students the drafting of a body paragraph, the introduction and the conclusion, in that order. Keeping track of the different pieces of paper in the process of tackling a writing assignment poses a huge challenge for many students, and advice is provided at this point that the following documents need to be at hand:

- Assignment question
- Reading synthesis grid
- Readings
- Essay plan
- APA reference guide
- KAWS writing guide: paragraph structure

The first body paragraph is the starting point, and in order to ensure that each structural component is addressed in turn, a drafting frame is used, developed according to the principles of genre pedagogy as outlined in Cope and Kalantzis (1993). See Figure 12 for a first draft paragraph which was co-constructed by a lecturer and a class of students in 2011.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key elements</th>
<th>Sentences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Topic sentence</td>
<td>The signs of stress are easy to identify: these relate to mood, behavior and health, both physical and mental.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support</td>
<td>Our moods convey our inner feelings to the outside world, so depression, irritability and emotional mood swings are clear indicators that an individual is feeling stressed. Stress also shows itself in inappropriate behaviours such as aggression and seeking solace in alcohol or drugs. [reference?] According to the Heart Foundation (1999), physical signs of stress include frequent colds and ‘flu, digestive disorders, high blood pressure and insomnia. Mental indicators of stress, especially when linked to depression, can be seen in lack of concentration, irrational decision-making and memory loss.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relevance</td>
<td>It is clear then that the typical signs of stress are obvious and ubiquitous. It is important to note that visible symptoms can indicate more serious underlying problems. Evidence?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concluding statement</td>
<td>The signs of stress are easy to recognize and to classify; however, the impact of stress on an individual’s personal and professional lives is more complex.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Link to next theme</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The lecturer asks questions and uses responses to build up the paragraph. For example, the lecturer might say *What are the key words that we need for our topic sentence?* Students refer to their essay plan and reply something like: ‘Signs of stress’. The lecturer might then invite the students to formulate a sentence. This is typed up while the lecturer is speaking and the text appears on the overhead screen; the class is then invited to evaluate this text and suggest any changes. The classroom atmosphere is typically warm and collegial and students supportive of each other. As the paragraph grows, the lecturer moves backwards and forwards through the text, commenting, prompting, evaluating, highlighting key words, and making the point at frequent intervals that *this is just a first draft – we can go back and fine tune it later*. This is a critical teaching point, because it is easy to get stuck on details and lose sight of the need to maintain onward movement of the drafting process. If we get stuck for a word or identify an infelicitous phrase, we simply put ‘xxx’ in as a placeholder or highlight the words in yellow and return to that section later. At the end of each paragraph, we read through what has been written in order to add, delete or amend as appropriate. At the end of twenty minutes, or so, a reasonably well-developed paragraph has emerged. The lecturer takes this opportunity to point out the structural components which give the paragraph integrity, coherence and cohesiveness; with reference to the essay plan, students’ attention is then drawn to ‘linking sentences’ which clearly orient the reader to the position of this paragraph within the essay and which help the reader to navigate their way through the text.

Having drafted the first body paragraph, attention is turned to the essay plan and students invited to imagine the moment when all body paragraphs have been drafted. This is the appropriate time to start thinking about the introduction, and again, a drafting frame is used to ensure that all components are included, in the appropriate order. See Figure 13 for a draft introduction which was co-constructed in a typical class.
When writing an introduction to an academic essay, it is useful to imagine the reader, not as the lecturer who has assigned the question, but as an educated, intelligent non-specialist. This mindset encourages the writer to start with a clear indication of the subject area before narrowing in to introduce the topic, using key words from the assignment question. The next step is to anticipate questions from the ‘non-specialist reader’ and define any key words. The definition will ideally be sourced from a dictionary, a textbook or a peer-reviewed journal article. Having visualised the ideal reader, students are then encouraged to put themselves in that reader’s shoes and ask the question: ‘Why should anyone invest time to read this’? ‘Because it’s the lecturer’s job’ is a common response, but misses the point: there should be some inherently motivating reason for reading the essay so students are invited to identify and state the reasons why this topic and these issues need to be explored. The next component is the argument or hypothesis. This may not be immediately obvious during the planning process, in fact, it often only becomes clear while drafting the body. Therefore, it makes sense to defer writing the introduction until the end of the drafting process. At this point, it is useful to point out the value of adopting a deductive approach to the essay; in other words, reading the essay should not be a magical mystery tour, with the main point hidden away, waiting to be discovered at the end of the reading process. Rather, the reader will find the whole essay easier to process if the argument is stated at the beginning. The final component of the introduction is an outline of the
essay structure; interestingly, many students react in surprise to the suggestion that the main themes be foreshadowed in the introduction. Their concern appears to be related to the misconception that this is unnecessary repetition. Important then to point out that indicating the structure at this point assists the reader to put in place a mental schema with which to process the development of the writer’s argument. With the introduction now in place, it only remains to draft the conclusion. See Figure 14 for a draft conclusion co-constructed in class.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key elements</th>
<th>Sentences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Restate main hypothesis (paraphrase)</td>
<td>In conclusion, this essay has argued that, while some stress can be positive, too much stress can be detrimental to one’s health.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summarise key points (paraphrase)</td>
<td>The first section discussed some of the common warning indicators of stress; the second section examined the function of stress in our daily life; the third section explored the underlying causes of stress followed by a summary of useful methods of managing stress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Draw any conclusions/implications</td>
<td>It is easy to identify stress triggers in situations and to recognize signs of stress. Bearing in mind the negative consequences of stress, it is important to focus on developing effective techniques for managing stress in a range of situations. Above all, it is important to maintain a sense of proportion.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 14. Model: Conclusion [1st draft] - drafted with input from students

In the interests of assisting the reader at all possible points, attention is drawn to the desirability of reiterating the argument; this is easily achieved by copying and pasting the sentence from the introduction to the first row of the conclusion writing frame. The tense is adjusted, from future to present perfect, and the point made that reminding the reader of the argument at the close of the essay provides an essential unity. A recapitulation of the main themes and key points is demonstrated by copying the ‘structure’ component from the introduction writing frame and pasting the text into the ‘key themes’ row. This trick enables the writer to modify the syntax and vocabulary whilst retaining the original sense and the order of key points. The final component is elicited with reference to the ‘shape’ of the essay – widening out again to connect with the real world. By the end of the essay an argument has been introduced and developed, the question has been answered and it is now appropriate to consider implications for further action or necessary research. By the time the conclusion has been drafted, students have observed a lecturer demonstrating the drafting process through ‘think-aloud’ protocols and they can observe, in real time, the creation of text which is now ready to be set aside and returned to later, for proof-reading, editing, enhancing content and stylistic fine-tuning.
Perhaps the greatest psychological hurdle to overcome during the drafting stage is the sense that the writing should be ‘perfect’; in practice, however, attempts to fix problems during the actual drafting process tend to impede creative progress. The point was made in the previous section that it is far better to allow oneself permission as a writer to permit imperfections of grammar, spelling, style and referencing in the interests of maintaining a forward momentum in the production of linear text. Then, after each section has been drafted it is good practice to develop the habit of systematic checking, bearing in mind that revision of draft text occurs as both a micro and a macro activity: at the micro level this involves a careful read through of each paragraph immediately after it has been drafted, and any obvious problems fixed on the spot; macro level revision involves systematic proofreading of the body first, then of the entire essay. Whether editing is taking place on a micro or macro scale, neophyte writers find the following four prompts helpful:

- Electronic checks
- Academic honesty checks
- Academic writing style checks
- Marking criteria checks

Firstly, electronic checks can assist writers in identifying text which is grammatically questionable, with spell check tools allowing speedy replacement of incorrect spellings. Attention is also drawn to the word count tool to ensure that each section is the appropriate length. Secondly, academic honesty checks focus attention on referencing conventions for direct quotes and/or paraphrasing and the extent to which appropriate evidence or illustrative examples have been presented to substantiate the argument. Thirdly, academic writing style checks involve questions of formality, writer intrusion into the text and appropriate lexis. Notions of style also encompass sentence length and variety: in many cases students will identify sentences which are too long and could usefully be reduced to make their meaning clearer. One useful tip is for the student to read the essay out loud and consider how it sounds. Another strategy is to have someone else read and comment upon the draft. This can be extremely helpful to students who are still unsure of what precisely they should be looking for; however, in the interests of promoting autonomy, students are encouraged to take ultimate responsibility for developing their own proof-reading and editing protocols. Academic writing requires a professional standard of presentation:

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* At an appropriate point in teaching, usually towards the end of the first day in class, students are given a presentation on APA 6th Edition referencing conventions. This is followed by hands-on activities and a homework task: to prepare the reference section for the set of assigned texts. At the drafting stage, students explore different approaches to in-text citation. Contextualising the referencing component in this way helps students to understand the principles of referencing, and to engage at a practical level with the formatting of bibliographic components and arcane details of punctuation.
students are reminded that that the essay must be presented in accordance with the department’s style requirements. Which brings us to the final prompt, a reminder to revisit the marking criteria; it is also worth checking the essay against the paper’s stated learning outcomes to ensure that key concepts are addressed in the development of the essay’s argument. The point has been made previously that drafting and editing is a recursive activity. Each cycle should result in improved clarity and style; however, this is only possible if sufficient time is allocated, and, in practice, students seldom leave themselves enough time for this very important stage. The possibility of gaining 5% for each revision cycle may be difficult to measure empirically, but telling students that they are likely to improve their final grade is undoubtedly psychologically motivating. It is important to reiterate the point that the earlier the first draft is completed, the more time is available for redrafting and editing.

**Conclusion**

My opening gambit for this paper was the observation that the test of a university writing programme is whether it works. Do students emerge with a better understanding of the writing process? Have they acquired a repertoire of strategies which will enable them to produce good assignments which are well-argued, tightly structured, and contain fewer surface errors in spelling and grammar? Do students report higher grades? Feedback from students and faculty staff members indicate affirmative answers to each of these questions. A class survey (n=49) which was conducted independently in Semester 1, 2011, asked students whether they found the KAWS programme effective and practical: an overwhelmingly positive 92% of the class surveyed agreed, or strongly agreed, that they “would recommend this paper to others”. Furthermore, students regularly report improved grades which they attribute to the KAWS programme. From a faculty perspective, the KAWS programme is highly regarded. Anecdotally, staff regularly report improvements in their students’ writing, again which can be attributed to the KAWS programme. Along with other KEYS papers it is on public record that “KEYS demonstrably makes a difference to retention and performance” (Reid, 2011). KAWS has also had endorsement from an Ako Aotearoa publication, with statistical evidence supporting the programme’s claims to effectiveness (Manalo, Mashall, & Fraser, 2009).

In conclusion, this paper has argued that academic literacies can be usefully developed through a contextualised teaching programme in which each stage of the writing process is systematically explored through class discussion, demonstrated by an effective practitioner, experienced by the student and evaluated at the end of the process. When students develop a clear sense of their progress through the writing process, they are more likely to produce a well-argued, tightly structured essay, written in an appropriate academic style. Such an approach is grounded in robust pedagogic theory, and is in line with AUT University’s stated aim to improve student success and retention.
References


Navigating towards success: Supporting students on academic probation

Catherine Ross
Open Polytechnic
New Zealand

Abstract

Tertiary student success is of strategic importance (Ministry of Education, n.d.) and success in terms of course and qualification completion is a key requirement of the government’s funding regime. Yet many students do not complete their courses and qualifications successfully. Currently around 25 per cent of New Zealand tertiary students do not complete their qualifications (Scott, 2009) and in a distance learning environment this figure is often higher (Boyle, Kwon, Ross & Simpson, 2010). High non-completion rates provide strong incentives for Tertiary Education Organisations (TEOs) and their learning support services to do as much as possible to promote student success. Targeted support programmes can achieve this end (Grant, Olivier, Rawlings & Ross, 2011).

This paper describes a pilot programme developed by the Learning Centre at the Open Polytechnic which targeted students placed on academic probation. Because students placed on academic probation are at a high risk of dropping out, the programme offered individualised support to these students during trimester one 2011 with the aim of helping them engage with their study and complete their courses successfully. The programme was informed by positive psychology and a strengths approach and focused on helping students clarify study goals, identify their strengths and determine how they might apply those strengths to the skills needed for successful study. Results revealed higher successful course completion rates of students who participated in the programme compared to those who did not. Students also reported high levels of satisfaction with the programme.

Introduction

Tertiary student success is of strategic importance (Ministry of Education, n.d.); it is a requirement of the current funding regime. New Zealand has a capped funding environment and the government has challenged the tertiary education sector to lift educational success and introduced performance-based funding. Tertiary Education Organisations (TEOs) need to ensure that the majority of students succeed in their study, are retained and progress to higher levels of learning. Yet many students, particularly part-time students, do not complete their courses and qualifications.

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successfully; currently around 25 per cent of New Zealand tertiary students do not complete their qualifications (Scott, 2009).

The high rate of non-completion amongst tertiary students is an international phenomenon (Ishitani, 2006; Marshall, 2007) and is particularly noteworthy in distance and online education (Boyle, Kwon, Ross, & Simpson, 2010; Jenkins, 2011; Smith, Wellington, Cossham, Fields, Irvine, Welland et al., 2011). Students bring to their study a wide range of backgrounds, experiences and expectations. Many have few or no formal qualifications and begin their tertiary education journey unprepared for the independent, self-directed learning that is required. Additionally, students can lack the academic skills necessary for successful study (Kartika, 2007; Wingate, 2006). When these factors come together in a distance learning environment, where students are physically separated from teaching and support staff and other learners, the isolation coupled with a weak sense of connection to the learning community, means students can struggle to maintain their motivation and engagement in learning (Ross, 2009). Furthermore, studying is often just one of a variety of activities that students are involved in. Increasingly students are in full or part time employment which means they have less time to devote to their studies. In 2011, 96 per cent of Open Polytechnic students were studying part time and 70 per cent were in the workforce (Open Polytechnic Annual Report, 2011).

Government funding expectations combined with the fact that many students do not complete their courses and qualifications successfully provide strong incentives for TEOs and their learning support services to do as much as possible to promote student success. Targeted support programmes can achieve this end (Grant, Olivier, Rawlings & Ross, 2011). This paper describes a pilot programme developed by the Learning Centre at the Open Polytechnic which targeted students placed on academic probation with the aim of improving their engagement and success outcomes.

**Literature review**

Tertiary student retention and completion are complex issues (Tinto, 2006/07) and literature on the subjects is extensive (Zepke & Leach, 2008). In recent years student engagement has attracted growing attention partly because engaged students are more likely to persist and complete their courses successfully and increased levels of success in terms of course and qualification completion is a key requirement of government funding regimes. Student engagement, like retention and completion, is also complex and influenced by myriad factors (Ross, 2011). However, engagement with learning is enhanced when institutions provide a comprehensive programme of academic and other support (Reason, Terezini & Domingo, 2006). Early, appropriate and regular learning support has a positive and lasting effect on retention and academic and social outcomes. (Crosling, Thomas & Heagney, 2008; Earle, 2008; Gibbs, Regan & Simpson, 2007).
Preparing students for learning can also have a long lasting and positive impact on engagement and success. Successful preparatory programmes include transition and bridging programmes, orientation processes and study skills development programmes (Kuh, Kinzie, Buckley, Bridges & Hayek, 2006; Pittaway & Moss, 2006; Youl, Read & Schmid, 2006). Study skills programmes like essay planning can be effective, especially when such planning comprises a component of the final course assessment (Kiernan, Lawrence & Sankey, 2006). Equally effective are learning to learn programmes particularly when those programmes are embedded in discipline-specific content. Zeegers and Martin (2001) found that students who participated in a learning to learn programme in an introductory chemistry class were less likely to engage just in surface learning. In addition, these students achieved better assessment results and more of them persisted with their studies than the previous year’s cohort.

In addition to preparatory programmes and academic support, peer mentoring schemes are reported to contribute to increased levels of student engagement and achievement. Dewart, Drees, Hixenbaugh and Thorn (2006) describe a mentoring programme for first year students which resulted in increased self esteem and academic confidence in those students who participated compared with those who did not. Likewise, Glaser, Hall and Halperin (2005) report that students who took part in peer mentoring attributed their successful transition to university, feeling of belonging and the development of academic skills to the mentoring programme, indicating that students directly value such programmes for their own learning and institutional engagement.

While peer and academic support programmes lead to increased engagement with learning, students still must be motivated and willing to engage with their learning in order to be successful (Simpson, 2008). Indeed, motivation is seen as a primary driver in engagement for learning (Yorke & Knight, 2004) and being motivated and willing to act are strongly implicated in whether or not learners engage successfully (Ainley, 2006; Schuetz, 2008). There are a number of theories of learning motivation (Simpson, 2008) and some suggest learners are motivated by an intrinsic interest in the subject (Venturini, 2007) or by particular personality traits (Caspi, Chajut, Suporta & Beyth-Marom, 2006). Others propose that learners’ self-efficacy (Llorens, Schaufeli, Bakker & Salanova, 2007; Yorke & Knight, 2004) and confidence in their own abilities (Fazey & Fazey, 2001) are key motivational drivers for engagement.

Despite students being strongly motivated to engage with their learning and institutions providing optimal learning environments, influences external to those environments, but which are integral to students’ lives and identities (Kasworm, 2003) can work to undermine student engagement. These external influences include family and employment commitments and personal, social and cultural factors. The pressures that arise from these influences play a significant role in determining whether or not students persist with their studies. Burtenshaw, Ross, Bathurst, Hoy-Mack and Zjakowski (2006) found that distance students who considered withdrawing from study did so because of such pressures. Dealing with personal problems and
the demands of family can be stressful too and can force students to reconsider their
commitment to study and whether or not to continue (Ross, 2009). Studying part-
time is also associated with lowered levels of engagement and success (Earle, 2008;
McInnis, 2003; Scott, 2009). Part-time study is increasing as students take on paid
employment in order to support themselves. Krause, Hartley, James and McInnis
(2005) found that full-time students in paid work reported that work interfered with
their studies and their levels of academic achievement.

The literature reviewed here presents student engagement and success as complex and
influenced by myriad factors. While some literature argues that student motivation
and effort is a key factor in engagement, other work highlights the critical role that
institutional structures and services play in engaging students successfully. As a part
of those institutional structures, learning support services can make a significant
contribution to student engagement and success through the provision of timely
and appropriate learning support. Such support is effective in building students’
confidence and skills (Grant, Olivier, Rawlings & Ross, 2011), particularly when it is
tailored to the needs of individual students and their own situation and personal life
(Light, 2001). Tailored support helps students feel accepted and affirmed, and that
they belong which strengthens their engagement with learning (Johnson, Soldner,
Leonard, Alvarez, Inkelas, Rowan-Kenyon et al, 2007; Read, Archer & Leathwood,
2003).

Background and rationale

The pilot programme, targeting students placed on academic probation and delivered
in trimester one 2011, was initiated by the desire to improve aspects of the Open
Polytechnic Learning Centre’s support service and to try to reach some of the students
who do not contact us for support. Because students placed on academic probation are
at a high risk of dropping out, we thought these students might benefit from targeted
and personalised support rather than assume they would take advantage of the general
support services available to them. Furthermore, we believed that being proactive
and making contact with students at the beginning of their study rather than rely
on student self-referral was a more effective way to support these students and one
which would result in improved success outcomes for them. Students on academic
probation are those who have a history of non-completion of at least two courses and
students have to apply to the Academic Registrar for approval to enrol. If approved,
the students receive a letter confirming their enrolment and letting them know that the
Learning Centre will be in contact with them to discuss their study.

The theoretical framework for the programme was grounded in Positive Psychology
and a strengths approach.

Positive Psychology and a strengths approach

Positive Psychology is a relatively recent area of research. As classical psychology
focuses on people’s weaknesses and why they are unhappy, so positive psychology
focuses on why people are happy and on their strengths (Hefferon & Boniwell, 2011). Positive psychology has links with a strengths approach. A strengths approach suggests that people do best when they focus on their strengths rather than their weaknesses.

While focusing on weaknesses and trying to improve performance by attempting to overcome them is not particularly effective, it is a common approach to student support. Such an approach serves only to undermine students’ own resources. A more successful approach is to help students identify and build on their existing skills and learn how to apply them effectively to study and learning (Anderson & Clifton, as cited in Simpson, 2008). Research has shown that students who use their strengths more report increased engagement in and intrinsic motivation for learning (Louis, 2009). Furthermore, helping students become aware of their personal strengths boosts their self-confidence and contributes to their development as autonomous learners (Macaskill & Denovan, 2011).

Programme purpose and method

The relevant details of all students on academic probation were loaded into a database by the Polytechnic’s academic registry before the beginning of trimester one 2011. Students in this database were those whose poor academic record involved mitigating personal circumstances and not just a lack of commitment or effort on their part. All students in the database were telephoned by the Learning Centre administrator, working from a script (Appendix A), before the start of the trimester and offered the opportunity to have a half-hour consultation with a Learning Advisor. An appointment was made with those who accepted the invitation and the Advisor then telephoned at the agreed time and spoke with the student.

The purpose of the consultation was to help students complete their trimester one courses successfully by encouraging them to identify their underlying goals and motivation for study, focus on their existing competencies and strengths and apply those strengths to the skills needed for successful study. During the half-hour consultation Learning Advisors concentrated on drawing out students’ past successes and validating and encouraging effort rather than achievement. Only after that did they discuss uncertainties, fears and/or lack of skills. Advisors used a guide (Appendix B) for conversations on which they also noted salient points and follow up actions. Brief details of the consultations and follow up actions were also recorded in a database set up for the purpose.

Students who required or requested it were followed up as appropriate and follow up actions included:

1. Ongoing support from the Learning Advisor.
2. Consultation/discussion with tutor
3. Referral to the Disability Advisor

4. Participation in a study skills workshop

5. Referral to an external agency, for example, Literacy Aotearoa.

At the end of the trimester students were telephoned by the Learning Centre administrator and surveyed about their perceptions of the usefulness of the consultations for their study and learning.

Programme results

The number of students in the pilot was small at only 40. Twenty four students accepted the invitation for a consultation with a Learning Advisor and sixteen students declined the invitation. Consultations were an average of 25 minutes each. At the end of the trimester students’ final course results were collated.

Results revealed that 17 (70%) of the students who had a consultation with a Learning Advisor successfully completed their courses. Only nine (56%) of the students who did not have a consultation with an advisor successfully completed theirs. These results show a 14 per cent higher successful course completion rate for the students who had a consultation with a Learning Advisor compared to those who did not.

A telephone survey (Appendix C) was conducted at the end of the trimester to gather students’ feedback on the programme. Students were asked how they felt about being contacted and offered a consultation and how that consultation had helped them. Fifteen (62%) of the 24 students who had a consultation with a Learning Advisor gave feedback. Overall, students reported high levels of satisfaction with the programme. Students appreciated being contacted. They liked the interest and concern shown by the Open Polytechnic which made them feel they were not just a number but a real person. One student told us:

It felt good that people knew about me and didn’t just send my course materials and forget me.

Another student was pleased to know she did not have to study entirely on her own. She said that when the Learning Advisor contacted her:

It gave me the opportunity to discuss the situation and made me realise I was not alone.

Students also said they found the consultations encouraging and motivational. One reported that:

The encouragement from the Learning Advisor made me feel I could be successful in my study.
Some students thought the consultations helped them meet assignment deadlines more easily:

Following up with students like me is motivating and helpful in terms of getting my assignments in on time.

In addition to helping manage deadlines, another student remarked that the consultation provided her with:

Moral support – the advisor helped me with ‘keeping on track’ and helped me complete my last papers.

When asked how it helped with their study, one student said:

He provided some useful study tips and followed up with another phone call. I appreciated that.

Another mentioned:

We talked about study strategies and time management which was helpful.

A third student commented:

She helped me better understand the process of writing essays and referencing correctly.

Discussion

Overall, the results of the programme were positive. Students who had consultations with Learning Advisors successfully completed their courses at rates higher that those who did not. Students reported that they appreciated being contacted by the polytechnic which made them feel accepted and valued. Feeling accepted and valued leads to a sense of belonging which is positively implicated in students’ levels of engagement; when students feel accepted and that they belong, their engagement with learning is strengthened (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Read, Archer & Leathwood, 2003). Students also reported that contact with Learning Advisers was encouraging and motivational and helped them feel confident that they could be successful in their study. When students believe they have the personal resources to complete tasks, their self-efficacy grows and so does their engagement in learning (Llorens, Schaufeli, Bakker, Salanova, 2007); being confident helps students become autonomous learners (Macaskill & Denovan, 2011).

As well as being encouraged and motivated, students said they had learned some useful time management and study and writing strategies from the advisers which helped them to feel confident about their study and learning. Being confident in these ways helps students to feel competent and self-perceived competence is a key motivator for student engagement and action (Fazey & Fazey, 2001). In addition, when students feel
competent they set themselves goals and persist in overcoming obstacles (Yorke & Knight, 2004). Burtenshaw, Ross, Hoy-Mack, Bathurst and Zajkowski (2006) found that students who persisted with their study were “determined to succeed” and that this determination was intimately connected to strong motivation for learning driven by very clear goals for that learning.

While the results of our programme must be interpreted with caution because of the small number of students involved, some of the findings are supported by the results of other programmes targeting students on academic probation reported in the higher education literature. One such programme at the University of Canberra (UC) (Prentice, Collins, Couchman, Li & Wilson, 2009) also offered students the opportunity to attend an individual consultation with a Learning Advisor. Even though his programme differed from ours in that consultations were face-to-face and conversations between advisors and students focused on students’ difficulties, not their strengths, the results revealed a comparable (ten per cent) increase in the success rates of the 148 students who participated in the programme compared with those who did not. Just as students in our programme appreciated the interest and concern shown by the Open Polytechnic (OP), students at UC welcomed the concern shown and believed that participation in the programme helped them feel more integrated into the university community. Feeling integrated has a positive impact on student success and institutions must act to ensure that students are integrated into the academic culture to optimise their retention and academic success (Tinto, 1993). Both the OP and UC programmes described here can help achieve this end.

While neither the OP nor UC programmes included students developing a plan for improved success, another programme at the College of Charleston in the USA (Cherry, & Coleman, 2010) did. In this programme, students placed on academic probation were given the opportunity to create a Plan for Academic Success, the aim of which was to help students assume responsibility for getting their study back on track and improve their success outcomes. Students met with a Study Skills Coordinator over a three week period to write their plan which when completed was submitted to the academic services director for consideration. After their plan was accepted students took responsibility for completing all the action points documented in their plan over the course of the trimester. Charleston did not compare the success rates of students who completed a plan with those who did not, instead they measured the pass rates of the 75 students who completed plans and found that pass rates were comparable with all students at the institution at around 83 per cent.

Cherry and Coleman (2010, p. 28) note that students whose academic dismissals were reversed when their Plan was accepted were “generally highly motivated to live up to their promises.” That these students were largely successful in their studies is perhaps not surprising given that motivation is a primary driver in engagement for learning (Yorke & Knight, 2004) and being motivated and willing to act are strongly implicated in whether or not learners engage (Ainley, 2006; Schuetz, 2008). While the students in the OP programme said they found the consultations with Learning Advisers
encouraging and motivational it is not clear how that translated into students’ own motivation for learning or influenced their success. Further investigation is warranted.

An online programme for students given academic warning was developed by the University of Southern Queensland (USQ) to encourage students to reflect on their poor performance and identify appropriate actions to improve it (Taylor & Lawrence, 2007). Students logged onto the programme, worked through a series of questions, identified strategies for improving their performance from a bank of resources and developed a personalised action plan for success. With a focus on poor performance and remediation this programme is a deficit-based approach and is different to the OP programme which is strengths-based. Research suggests people do best when they focus on their strengths and concentrating on weakness is not an effective way of improving student performance (Simpson, 2008). In addition, students who use their strengths more report increased engagement in and intrinsic motivation for learning (Louis, 2009).

Despite the deficit focus, the 40 students who participated in the USQ programme and completed an evaluation form, reported, as had students on the OP and UC programmes, that they appreciated the effort made by the university and the availability of a helpful resource. The authors note that the programme was deliberately designed to preserve students’ anonymity so that it mirrored counselling practice and feedback revealed that students valued this aspect of the programme. Presumably because of the anonymous nature of students’ participation, pass rates could not be measured. Consequently there is no evidence of the impact of the programme on students’ academic success.

Next steps

The Learning Centre at the Open Polytechnic will again offer its support programme to students on academic probation during 2012. Results will be compared with those of 2011 to determine whether or not the programme yields the same or better results. In addition, the Centre plans to investigate the potential for an online programme, similar to that developed by USQ but with the strengths-based approach of the Centre’s current programme. Recent research at the Open Polytechnic (Ross, Bathurst & Jarden, in press) reveals that using their strengths encourages students and gives them confidence in their studies. Lastly, an online programme would be a useful addition to the Centre’s existing suite of online student learning support resources.

Conclusion

In New Zealand around 25 per cent of tertiary students do not complete their courses successfully and in a distance learning environment this figure is often higher. Current government funding policy requires improved student success outcomes and so TEOs must ensure that the majority of their students succeed in their study. Targeted support programmes can achieve this end.
This paper has described one programme targeting students placed on academic probation. The programme offered individualised support to students with the aim of helping them engage with their study and complete their courses successfully. The programme was well-received by students who reported that the conversations they had with Learning Advisors impacted positively on their study progress and outcomes. Results revealed that the students who participated in the programme successfully completed their courses at a rate 14 per cent higher than those who did not. Although these results must be interpreted with caution because of the small number of students involved, they are supported by the results of similar programmes reported in the higher education literature. Overall, these results provide sufficient evidence of improved success outcomes for students who participated in the programmes described in this paper that they could usefully inform the work of Learning Advisors in other Tertiary Education Organisations in New Zealand.

References


Youl, D., Read, J., & Schmid, S. (2006, 12-14 July.). *Bridging courses: Good learning environments for engaging students?* Paper presented at the 9th Pacific Rim First Year in Higher Education Conference, Engaging Students, Griffith University, Gold Coast Campus, Southport, QLD.


Appendix A: Script for making an appointment

Hello [Name] I’m [name] calling from the Open Polytechnic. Have you got a couple of minutes to have a chat now or can I call you later?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>If</th>
<th>Then</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>I’m ringing on behalf of the Learning Centre and we’re phoning students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>I’m ringing on behalf of the Learning Centre and we’re phoning students who’ve enrolled in the last few weeks, to ask if they would like the opportunity to talk about their study with one of our Learning Advisors. Would you be interested in doing this?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>When would be a convenient time to call?</td>
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</table>

Taking opportunity

<table>
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<th>If</th>
<th>Then</th>
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<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>When, over the next week or so would be a good time for you? I’ll set up an appointment with a Learning Advisor and they will ring you.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>…that’s fine. And please do not hesitate to contact your tutor or the Learning Centre if you have any questions about your study or would like some help with it.</td>
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</table>

Thanks for your time [Name]

NOTES
Student wanting more background information:

- It’s about discussing any support you’d like to have during your course
- Learning Advisors can direct you to lots of helpful study resources
- Answer any questions you might have about your study
- Clarify anything that you’re not sure about.
Appendix B: Students on academic probation - Conversation guide/checklist

Focus
Clarify underlying goals and motivation for study: Long term & short term - why are they doing subject, what is their desired outcome?
Past successes - in study (or anything else)
Identifying strengths
Discuss persistence - encourage effort as well as past achievement - make point that effort is a key to achievement
Students identify what they need to do to be successful
We advise on how we can help them

Prompts
Tell me about…
Tell me about the strategies you use to…
How would you describe your/approach to …
Tell me about/what are your (study/learning skills/time management/) strengths…
Tell me about/what works well for you…
Tell me about/what do you find challenging…

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Comments</th>
<th>Actions</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Confidence</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Learning/study skills</td>
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<td>Motivation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Time Management</td>
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<tr>
<td>Work/home/study balance</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Summarising discussion and moving on to action:
Tell me/what is… one (two/three) thing/s you would find really helpful for your study this trimester/course…
Tell me /what is… one (two/three) thing/s you could do to help you complete your course successfully…
How can I help…
Is there anything else you’d like to ask/talk about…

Agreed follow up actions as appropriate (may include)
• Student/tutor discussion
• Participate in StudyWise/ExamWise workshop
• Ongoing contact/support from LA
• Investigation and use of Learning Central resources (specific)
• Contact/discussion with disability coordinator/LA
• Referral to external agencies (eg: Literacy Aotearoa)
Appendix C: Telephone survey - Questionnaire

1. How did you feel when someone phoned and asked if you would like to talk with an advisor?

2. Was the opportunity to talk with a learning advisor helpful?

3. How did it help you with your study?

4. What else could the advisor had done to help?

5. What else would you like to tell us?
Invisible Ties: Finding Learning as It Happens

Sean Sturm
University of Auckland
New Zealand

Finding the learning

My question is: how can we assess learning as it happens, to find the learning that goes on seemingly invisibly in the classroom? We teachers are past masters (and mistresses) at assessing learning in hindsight — through some sort of examination; assessing learning in action is new to us.

Why is finding the learning important? Because as teachers we can feel when a class is going well and think we can explain why: we’re getting our content across — and all (or enough) of it and in an order that makes sense; we’re making sense; we’re feeling in control or challenged, depending on our preferred style; we’ve plenty of questions or dialogue; we notice that the class is busy and noisy — or the opposite, depending on the discipline. If we feel that a class is going well, most of us would say that there must be learning going on. We don’t know, of course, because students might just be playing along or they might be good at pretending, that is, they might be playing at being good learners. It’s hard to know (most of us teachers are, of course, just playing at being good teachers; we’re just “muddling through,” as Stephen Brookfield (2006, p.1) puts it.

So, how to assess what’s going on in the learning situation is one problem.

Finding the learning is also important because we currently assess learning — in fact, we tend to define learning — in econometric terms. For example, what is considered best practice in assessment, namely, the “constructive alignment” of aims, objectives and outcomes theorised by Biggs (1996; 2003) in the ’nineties and now orthodox in higher education is often destructive because it is practiced less flexibly and educatively than it might be. (Biggs himself describes “trapp[ing]” learners in a teaching system as if this were a good thing (2003, p. 2)). I call this end-stopped teaching and learning, or “teaching (and learning) to the test” (Sturm & Turner, 2011, p. 19). We decry this in schools (well, some of us do), while lauding it in universities.


2 For econometric measures of teaching and learning, which assess quality as efficiency rather than excellence, see Anderson (2008, p. 257). For the link between econometric teaching and learning and formative assessment, see Black & Wiliam (1998).
In other words, what to assess in the learning situation is another problem.

Not only, then, does this kind of assessment fail to account adequately for learning, but it counts the wrong things (of course, whether we want to count to right things, if to count them is to control them, is questionable).

**Assessment for learning: How and what to assess**

Such end-stopped assessment focuses on assessment of learning: examinatorial assessment that aims to prove learning. Assessment of learning tends to rely on formal and summative assessment. Instead, we should focus on assessment for learning that aims to improve learning. Assessment for learning relies on informal and formative assessment, by teachers of — or rather for — students and by students for students (not to mention, by students for teachers). That’s where the real learning action is, but we miss most of it when we focus on the products of learning (essays, exams, tests, etc.) at the expense of the process of learning (curiosity, questioning, reflection, etc.). (Remember that summative assessment is not necessarily bad; as Table 1 suggests, it can be used formatively. And formative assessment can, it must be said, be used badly, for example, if we give cul-de-sac feedback that is unclear, impractical or just plain destructive.)

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4 See Wiggins (1998) which opposes “educative” or forward-looking assessment to motivate learning to “audit-ive” or backward-looking assessment to measure — or audit — what has been learnt (p.7).
What follows is an assessment menu; assessment can happen, to put it in culinary terms, before (diagnostic), during (formative) and after the meal (summative). The ticks mark the comfort level of teachers and learners.

Table 1. *Types of assessment*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Diagnostic</th>
<th>Formative</th>
<th>Summative</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>during</td>
<td>after</td>
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<tr>
<td>formal [✓]</td>
<td>formal [✓]</td>
<td>formal [✓✓]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>informal [✓]</td>
<td>INFORMAL [?]</td>
<td>informal [✓]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
More fully,

a. diagnostic assessment is like asking the customer what they want to — or can — eat, or how they like their food cooked;

b. formative assessment, like tasting and seasoning the food as it is cooked — ideally, if this were possible, by allowing the customer to taste it; and

c. summative assessment, like tasting the cooked food and/or asking the customer what they thought of it.

Some of the forms of feedback and feedforward in Table 1 both teachers and learners are very familiar with, namely,

a. formal summative assessments like exams, essays and external review (√√√).

They are rather less so with

b. formal formative assessments like proposals, drafts and peer review (√√).

They are even less so with

c. formal diagnostic assessments like DELNA (the University of Auckland’s English language proficiency test) or university entry criteria, and informal ones like categorisation based on ethnicity, gender, age or class (√); and

d. informal summative assessments like mock exams and essays, and peer assessments (√).

They think (and think they know) very little about

e. informal formative assessment (?) — though it is, in fact, the most common form of assessment.

Formative assessment is usually thought of as feedback and feedforward on work in progress, group work and so on, that is relatively formal in nature. Yet informal formative assessment by us as teachers (not to mention our students) — what Ruiz-Primo (2011) calls a necessary and necessarily “unceremonious type of formative assessment” (p. 15) — goes on continuously in the classroom. It is assessment that “take[s] place in the course of events, but which [is] not specifically stipulated in the curriculum design” (Yorke, 2003, p. 479).5

5 See Shavelson and Stanford Education Assessment Laboratory (2003) and Harlan (2003). Bell and Cowie (2001) distinguish between formal or planned formative assessment, which focusses on feedback from a whole class at key moments, and informal or interactive formative assessment, which focusses on feedback from any student any time (p. 65).
Such assessment is, for the most part, “intuitive”; it is learnt through practice and “felt” (taking “feeling” to be both cognitive and affective). That is to say, we teachers continually assess students as we teach: informally, through their affect, body language and verbal responses, and less informally, through classroom discussion, exercises and co-teaching. We are expert collectors of oral, written, graphic, practical and non-verbal evidence (Ruiz-Primo, 2011, p. 15) — although, when we reflect, we tend to think (mistakenly) that the most important evidence is oral, that is, “assessment conversations,” or those “daily instructional dialogues that embed assessment into an activity already occurring in the classroom” (Ruiz-Primo & Furtak, 2006, p. 207).

Oral evidence includes students’ questions and responses to questions, polling students, eavesdropping on groupwork (“fish-bowling” (Exley & Dennick, 2004, pp. 65-66)), and so on. Written evidence includes students’ Post-It notes (perhaps for “fears (or hopes) in a hat” (Sugerman, Doherty, & Garvey, 2000, pp. 34-35)), groupwork feedback “scribed” by the teacher, and other classroom assessment activities like “muddiest point” responses, “minute papers” and “one-sentence summaries” (Angelo & Cross, 1993). Other evidence is graphic, like drawing, images, mind or concept maps and other “graphic organizers”6, practical, like the observation of students conducting experiments or other practical activities; and, most importantly, non-verbal, like “body language”7 and bodily orientation (Ruiz-Primo, 2011, p. 15).

Ideally, these on-the-spot assessments8 — or interventions — feed back more or less immediately into our teaching as instant feedback, affective, cognitive and dialogic. I call this feedback a transactional feedback loop,9 after Miller and Seller’s (1985) classification of the three orientations possible in curricula: transmission, transaction and transformation (see Miller, 2007, pp. 9-13).

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7 See Roth (2001).
9 For transactional feedback, see Pope-Ruark (2011).
(Notice that teachers are conspicuous by their absence: it seems they are to be identified with their curricula. A pyramid not unlike Aristotle’s rhetorical triangle (Kinneavy, 1971, p. 226) of *ethos* [“character”: author], *logos* [“reason”: argument] and *pathos* [“emotion”: audience] — viz. teacher, curriculum and learner — might better represent this nexus.)
Strictly speaking, for “teacher,” we should read “teacher-learner”; for “learner,” “learner-teacher” [see Figure 4].

Whereas transmission relies on instruction and imitation, transaction enables dialogue and problem-solving (Miller, 2007, pp. 10-11), namely, co-construction. Thus, we teachers learn as we teach ... and learners teach for us to learn, forming a feedback loop in which our roles are exchanged.

From the feedback loop emerges a teachable moment, a moment at which, or better, a movement through which, development — transformation, even — is possible (Havinghurst, 1952, p. 7). For this reason, a better term might be teachable movement. If what Miller and Seller call transformation, their third curriculum

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10 The idea of co-construction parallels Lev Vygotsky (1978) on obuchenie, in Russian, “teaching/learning” (p. 90) and the Maori practice of ako (Keown, Parker, & Tiakiwai, 2005, p. 12).
12 See Wiliam and Leahy (2007, p. 35).
orientation, aims at “authentic learning” and “mak[ing] . . . connections” (see Miller, 2007, p. 12), how to notice and nurture it, how to teach transformatively, is the question.13

**The formative assessment cycle (how to assess): N4R**

It is through a *formative assessment cycle* of five actions: notice, recognise, respond, record, revisit (N4R), a.k.a. “planning on our feet,”14 that we can positively feed back on the learning attributes at work in students’ learning behaviours as they happen by prompting, acknowledging or rewarding them, and feed forward into their future learning.15

![Diagram of N4R cycle](image)

*Figure 5. The formative assessment cycle*

Compare the orthodox curriculum design cycle (design, implement, evaluate — D.I.E., indeed — with add-ons),16 by which we plan ahead (or in the head, rather than on our feet), and assess and evaluate mainly in hindsight. Through the heuristic of the formative assessment cycle, I *notice* learning happening, *recognise* it as an instance of learning, *respond* by acknowledging it and *recording* it (saying something affirmative and writing it down, for example) and *revisit* the moment in discussion (or writing) later. But what do we notice when we “notice learning happening”? What are we looking to nurture?

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13 See Mezirow (1997).
14 I am indebted to Jacqui Sturm of the Education Leadership Project for alerting me to the idea of a “cycle of planning” and “planning on your feet”; see Ramsey, Breen, Sturm, Lee, and Carr (2006).
16 Compare Kolb’s (1984) experiential learning cycle: concrete experience (feeling), reflective observation (watching), abstract conceptualisation (thinking), active experimentation (doing), and so on (p. 21).
Learning attributes (what to assess): The 5LA’s

I would propose we look for a set of what Claxton and Carr (2004) call “learning attributes” (LAs) or “dispositions in action” (Carr, 1995). These attributes can serve as learning outcomes to be nurtured in the classroom and elsewhere, and which, to a degree, map onto the kind of graduate attributes that we seek to cultivate in our students (at my institution they constitute what is — rather forensically — titled the “Graduate Profile” (University of Auckland, 2003)). They also give substance to the rather nebulous attributes of Miller and Seller’s (2007) transformative curriculum orientation, namely “authentic learning” and “mak[ing] … connections” (p. 12). Interestingly, read in this order, the learning attributes form a kind of learning narrative:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning attribute</th>
<th>Learning narrative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Curiosity</td>
<td>taking an interest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust</td>
<td>getting involved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confidence</td>
<td>expressing an idea or feeling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persistence</td>
<td>persisting with difficulty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>independence</td>
<td>taking responsibility</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These dispositions come from that other non-compulsory sector: early childhood education. Why might they be useful to understand assessment at the other end of the education system? Because early childhood education is all about formative assessment, formal and informal: we higher educators can learn a lot from early childhood educators about formal assessment.

Carr (1995) argues that the dispositions can be variously taught, more or less formally. They can

(a) provide examples or models of the disposition, (b) encourage and orchestrate [student-student and student-teacher] interactions involving the disposition, (c) directly teach the disposition, and (d) value the disposition, so that chance remarks and attention provide implicit affirmation and support. (p. 13)

We can apply all these teaching strategies in higher education; here I focus on two strategies, one formal and one informal.

See the Te Whariki early childhood curriculum (Ministry of Education, 1996), which combines formative assessment, co-construction and a bicultural lens.
1. Formal
Learning attributes can be “assessed” in a relatively formal feedback process. For example, the competencies of standards-based assessment, which are often formulated as learning aims and outcomes, can be unpacked into a number of learning attributes. For example, the idea of the “effective learner” can be unpacked into a tendency to “persist,” “question,” “collaborate,” etc. We can assess such attributes with a verb and an adverb: “John questions [verb: what] appropriately [adverb: how, when, etc.],” viz., more or less frequently, or appropriately, or skillfully. Progress in developing a competency can be measured in terms of three parameters:

a. robustness, that is, becoming adept in “tolerating or managing the emotions of learning”;

b. breadth, that is, becoming “ready, willing and able to recognize and perhaps to reinterpret the affordances of a wider learning environment”; and


In short, such parameters allow us to assess a competency’s transformative potential — or what in the parlance of attribution theory might be called its wealth of “positive affordances” or “action possibilities” (Gibson, 1986, p. 137). We can thus offer concrete and constructive feedback to students in or on formal (and perhaps, even, informal) assessments, both formative and summative — and avoid feedback based solely on liking and ranking (Elbow, 1993).

For early childhood educators, this progress can be recorded in “planning stories” (Hatherly, 2004) that establish and assess the aims, objectives and outcomes of teaching & learning of the class — co-constructed curriculum design — for the class or for students, seeing curriculum as a “work in progress” rather than a “list of detailed expectations in advance” (Fleet & Patterson, 1998, p. 35). We higher educators have as yet no method as robust, broad or rich.

2. Less formal
These attributes can also be fed back on less formally. When we teachers find these learning dispositions at work in students’ learning, as observed in the actions or behaviours that embody them — say, in a discussion, group work, and so on — we can positively feed back on them by prompting, acknowledging or rewarding the action or behaviours, such that the actions feed forward into the future actions or behaviours of students. For example, I might notice a student explaining themselves in group work, recognise it as an instance of confidence and trust at work, respond by acknowledging it and recording it, and revisit the moment in one-to-one discussion later.
A disposition to learn (D2L)

But what we are really looking to nurture is the disposition to learn (Claxton & Carr, 2002), an emergent property, as it were, of the learning narrative by which formative assessment becomes transformative (Sadler, 2002). The disposition to learn is what Dweck calls, by another name, a “growth mindset” (Richard, 2007):

…people’s self-theories about intelligence have a profound influence on their motivation to learn. Students who hold a “fixed” [i.e. static] theory are mainly concerned with how smart they are — they prefer tasks they can already do well and avoid ones on which they may make mistakes and not look smart. In contrast, she said, [those] who believe in an “expandable” or “growth” [i.e. dynamic] theory of intelligence want to challenge themselves to increase their abilities, even if they fail at first. (Dweck, 2006, as cited in Krakovsky, 2007)

Learners of the former group believe intelligence is based on innate ability (they are “naturals”) and must be demonstrated; those of the latter group believe intelligence is based on hard work and learning, and can be developed (it can be nurtured). This self-theory has implications for their learning and for them as learners, as summarised in Table 2.

Table 3. Fixed and growth mindsets (after Dweck, 2006)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fixed mindset</th>
<th>Growth mindset</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intelligence</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intelligence is fixed</td>
<td>intelligence can grow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we must demonstrate it</td>
<td>we can develop it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Learning</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>→ performance goals</td>
<td>→ learning goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>extrinsic motivation</td>
<td>intrinsic motivation (curiosity)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rewards success, competition and mystery</td>
<td>rewards effort (persistence), cooperation (trust) and communication (confidence)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The Learner</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>→ learned helplessness</td>
<td>→ determination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>→ a sense of fatalism</td>
<td>→ a sense of freedom (independence)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the disposition to learn in the world of “mass intellectuality,” or “immaterial labour,” see Virno (2007, p. 6).
As the right-hand column in Table 2 suggests, what I called our learning attributes (after Carr, 2001), namely curiosity, trust, confidence, persistence and independence, map well onto aspects of Dweck’s growth mindset (see Table 3).

If we want to cultivate — or rather, activate — graduate attributes like “intellectual openness and curiosity” or “[a] capacity for creativity and originality,” to name just two in the University of Auckland’s “Graduate Profile” (University of Auckland, 2003), we need to foster a growth mindset in learners. The growth mindset and formative assessment intersect in the idea that, as Dweck puts it, “changing a key belief — a student’s self-theory about intelligence and motivation — with a relatively simple intervention can make a big difference” (as cited in Trei, 2007).

A simple example of such a transformative intervention might be letting students learn from their mistakes. In my writing classes, I adopt what I call an “erratological” approach to practising writing (Sturm, 2009), whereby students are given licence to make mistakes and learn rules in and through their breaking: we study errors in writing (some bad, some good) to better make them. This fits to a degree with what Dweck (2007) says about error — or “failure” — and growth: “in the growth mindset, students care about learning. ... In the face of failure, these students escalate their efforts and look for new learning strategies” (p. 35). But an erratological approach sees error as a positive rather than a negative affordance (Gibson, 1979/1986, p. 137), that is, it cultivates it for its critical or creative possibilities. In the writing class, this might involve offering mini-lessons to explore grammar “errors” that come up in passing; finding our characteristic error(s), which may well mark a characteristic sentence, a turn of phrase, that embodies our turn of mind; or cultivating what Weathers (1980) calls “Grammar B,” an alternative (“alternate”) or errant grammar that deforms “normal” grammar to communicate more persuasively.

Thus, to teach for growth or transformatively is to teach positively and “possibly,” that is, “conditionally” — to elicit or offer alternatives (Langer, Hatem, Joss, & Howell, 1989). In this way, we can foster a disposition to learn.

From classroom as black box to classroom as network

Finding the learning is an easy, practical, non-threatening way to shine a little light on what is going on in the “black box” of the classroom (Hattie, 2008), and, hopefully, to foster the disposition to learn (D2L) in our students. But might it not be better to leave the classroom dark? After all, as Latour (1999) puts it in his definition of black-boxing, “scientific and technical work is made invisible by its own success,” that is to say, that “[w]hen a machine runs efficiently ... one need focus only on its inputs and outputs and

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19 See also Williams (1981) and Weathers (1980). (The clause “we study errors in writing to better make them” of course errs in splitting its infinitive ... but thereby proves its rule.)

20 For a summary of Weathers’ “grammar B,” which involves errors like sentence fragments, labyrinthine sentences and neologisms (all of which I use here), see Romano (1988).
not on its internal complexity” (p. 304). Perhaps it is unnecessary to posit a disposition to learn; perhaps noticing learning attributes, or failing that, learning skills, is enough. Perhaps it is better that the learning attributes on which it is based remain hidden, lest they are taken to be a set of boxes to be ticked. Perhaps it is the case that to measure a disposition to learn is to create it ... or to destroy it (an observer effect), or that for learners to know it is to be measured changes it (a Hawthorne effect).

There is more to informal formative assessment than the relatively formal feedback mechanism of the formative assessment cycle (N4R). But to internalise such a heuristic can inform our “feel” for the classroom as teachers, our “intuition-in-action,” or “immediate experience of a teaching situation in its entirety,” embodied, embedded and enacted (Johansson & Kroksmark, 2004, p. 377). The formative assessment cycle illuminates the classroom as less a container for teaching and learning (Leander, Phillips, & Taylor, 2010) than a network of verbal and non-verbal interactions, of (largely) invisible ties. These ties, in turn, are revealed to be not puppets’ strings but feedback loops from which emerge truly common learnings — and through which education transforms teachers into learners and vice versa.

References


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140

Appendix 1: Statistics relating to the refereed proceedings

A total of 37 session presentations were included in the 2011 ATLAANZ conference programme. Subsequently a total of 12 papers were submitted to be considered for the refereed proceedings of the conference. Table 1 shows the distribution of referees’ recommendations across the categories available.

Table 1: Distribution of Referees’ Recommendation by Category

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Number of recommendations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accept for refereed proceedings as presented</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accept with minor revisions</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accept with major revisions</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reject but accept with revision for non-refereed proceedings</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reject</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the twelve papers submitted for review, two papers were rejected and the authors decided not to proceed. The majority of reviews recommended acceptance with minor changes and the papers involved were accepted for publication once revision had been completed.