THROUGH OTHERS’ EYES.
INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION IN THE AUSTRALIAN CONTEXT: THE CASE FOR GLOBAL AND REGIONAL EDUCATION.

A portfolio submitted in part fulfilment of the Doctor of Education Program at the University of Western Sydney, by John Buchanan.

2004
CERTIFICATE OF AUTHORSHIP/ORIGINALLITY

I hereby certify that the work in this thesis has not previously been submitted for any degree.

I also certify that the thesis has been written by me. Any help that I have received in my research work and the preparation of the thesis itself has been acknowledged. In addition, I certify that all information sources and literature used are indicated in the thesis.

Signature of Candidate.
Dedication and acknowledgments

I would like to dedicate this work to my family, who believed I could do this, and my supervisors - Barry Harris, Chris Halse, Janice Hall, Neil Baumgart and Ken Linfoot - who showed me how.

I am also indebted to many people who, along the way, showed faith in me, and provided me with opportunities to develop and demonstrate my skills and expertise by offering me positions of responsibility in teaching, research and supervision. These responsibilities have informed this doctoral portfolio and vice versa.

In memory of my parents, Kath and Doug Buchanan.
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Appendix 1 Portfolio components

Appendix 2 Non-core articles

Appendix 3 Conceptual themes – Non-core articles
List of Acronyms referred to in Overarching Statement

ANOVA – Analysis of Variance

ANZAC – Australia New Zealand Army Corps

BOS – Board of Studies

CD – Curriculum Development

EFL – English as a Foreign Language

ESL - English as a Second Language

GTAV – Geography Teachers’ Association of Victoria

HSIE – Human Society and its Environment

HSIEPTA – Human Society and Its Environment Primary Teachers’ Association

IE – Intercultural Education

K – Kindergarten (the first year of compulsory schooling in NSW)

NALSAS - National Asian Languages and Studies in Australian Schools

NSW - New South Wales

PD - Professional Development

SARS - Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome

SD – Standard Deviation
SPSS – Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

UNSW – University of New South Wales

UNESCO – United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

UTS - University of Technology, Sydney

UWS – University of Western Sydney

VA – Values and Attitudes
INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION: TOWARDS A PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Abstract

The overarching theme of this doctoral portfolio is the issue of intercultural education. Linked to this are several sub-themes: teacher excellence and professional development (teacher reflection, deconstruction of educational outcomes and practices etc); curriculum development (including resource development, use and critical evaluation) and; the acquisition of values and attitudes. These themes have been developed through studies of Asia and global education in the Australian context. In particular, one focus was the readiness of students and teachers to undertake such studies, as well as entry points for and impediments to the uptake of such studies in Australia. The research components of this portfolio deal with the uptake of such studies in various sites of significance: schools and their communities, teacher training institutions, professional development organizations.

This portfolio adopts a variety of methodologies and strategies appropriate to the data to be derived from the research, the informants, the sites themselves and other circumstances. Data collection methods include hermeneutic dialectic circles, statistical analyses, text-type analyses, interviews and questionnaires.

One major outcome of this research is the development of a hybrid theoretical model, based on two pre-existing models, for examining curriculum in schools, as it is expressed in artefacts such as scope and sequence documents, as well as through practice and discourse by teachers and students. The research also generated a continuum to measure the effectiveness and extent of curricular change. The combination of these two artefacts provides an instrument for examining and mapping the progress and processes of curricular change with regard to fields such as studies of Asia. The model and other findings from this series of studies also pave the way for further examining the processes and outcomes of curricular change.
Chapter 1.

Conceptual Framework and Overarching Statement
Conceptual Framework and Overarching Statement

1.1 Thematic Introduction

This portfolio derives from, and represents one culmination of, a symbiosis between my developing research interests, and my changing circumstances and responsibilities during the past seven years. These responsibilities are outlined in subsequent sections of this chapter. The portfolio assumes as its overarching theme the issue of intercultural education. Linked to this are several sub-themes: teacher excellence and professional development (teacher reflection, deconstruction of educational outcomes and practices); curriculum development (including resource development, use and critical evaluation); and the acquisition of values and attitudes. These themes have been developed within the domains of studies of Asia and global education in the Australian context. Each of these themes is discussed in subsequent sections. The various methodologies and strategies (such as hermeneutic dialectic circles, statistical analyses, text-type analyses, interviews and questionnaires) are discussed in turn, each with regard to its specific research aims and contexts. The discussion of the conceptual themes is followed by concluding comments and an outline of contributions of this doctoral portfolio to current knowledge and further research.

1.2 Issues addressed by this portfolio, and research questions

The portfolio and the articles herein address the following questions, which correspond loosely to the conceptual themes outlined above. The questions have been synthesised into four question sets.

1. What are the factors which facilitate and constrain the pursuit of excellence, and in particular the uptake of studies of Asia and of global education by teachers and students? What impact do these factors have on the nature and emphases of the curriculum?

2. Who are the main players in the implementation (or frustration) of curricular development? What roles do they play? How do their actions, attitudes and decisions affect curriculum?
3 What are the features of successfully implemented professional development programs (with regard to studies of Asia or global education)? What does such a successful implementation ‘look like’ in terms of curricular change?

4 To what extent are topic areas of intercultural education (e.g., studies of Asia and global education) exceptional in terms of the associated difficulties faced by those intending to implement them in school curricula? What are the origins, features and consequences of any such difficulties? On the other hand, what might such curricular changes have in common with other innovations?

These questions, themes and publications are correlated more specifically on pages 16 and 17.

As part of its response to the above questions, the research set out to map and examine the extent of readiness on the part of teachers to take up such studies in their classrooms. One issue which emerged, and which was addressed during the research is the extent, nature and means of transference to the classroom on the part of teachers of the knowledge and understandings, values, attitudes, skills and perspectives acquired at professional development (PD) sessions. Repeatedly, it emerged that teachers who had been lavish in their praise of PD events were unable to identify resultant changes in their teaching some six months to two years later. In response to these findings, a model was developed, in order to better understand the dynamics of curriculum, such as its development in the context of school and broader culture, decision-makers, and a continuum was devised, as a yardstick against which the nature and extent of curricular change could be measured.

The learning journey could be diagrammatised as outlined in Figure 1, on page 3. It is perhaps appropriate to stress here that this is a diagrammatisation of the learning processes, and not a conceptual model of the thesis itself. Explanations of key terms mentioned herein and elsewhere in the portfolio can be found in the glossary, at the conclusion of this chapter.
Figure 1. Diagrammatic representation of conceptual themes in the context of the development of this portfolio

**Interests**

- Teacher Excellence/Professional Development/Reflection/
  Deconstruction of teaching

- Intercultural Education
  (In particular Studies of Asia and Global Education)

**Circumstances**

- Acquisition of values and attitudes
- Curriculum Development
As can be seen above, my interest in improving my pedagogy, and circumstances as a part-time research assistant merged to mould the shape and direction of the studies in terms of their content. Most broadly, these studies investigated regional (Asia, and to a lesser extent, the Pacific) and global studies in Australia. As the studies proceeded, the importance of values and attitudes in shaping and being shaped by teachers’ studies and teaching emerged, as did the implications for curricular change, and resistance thereto.

While the preceding two-dimensional diagram captures the back-and-forth nature of my learning, in reality, this process is cyclic, or rather, helical in nature, as opposed to the linear progression implied by the previous diagram. So, the process does not take one back to the beginning point, but to its epicentre, that is a place above it, in terms of conceptual sophistication. As is to be expected, subsequent revisits to teacher professional development were more fully informed as a result of previous insights, as demonstrated in the diagram which follows. To extend the analogy, the helical nature of this learning process allowed me not just to look back on previous experiences and learning, but to look down on them, not necessarily in a condescending sense, but as if from a more elevated vantage point. As stated previously, these schemata do not represent the conceptual development of the research, but the learning which attended it. Nevertheless, Figure 1 does illustrate the bi-directional nature of the relationship between issues such as values and attitudes, curriculum and professional development, and intercultural education. Figure 2, on page 4, illustrates the three-dimensional nature of this process.
Figure 2. Model of evolution of conceptual themes
The vertical axis of the figure above represents an increasing conceptual understanding of the phenomena concerned. Elements of teacher improvement which came into clearer focus included techniques in improving and honing reflection, deconstructing teaching to identify why certain elements worked or didn’t, and how they could be improved. I have found that it is tempting for teachers to be satisfied with their performance in the classroom, allowing an evaluation of this surface element of teaching to mask other considerations uncovered by a deconstruction of the causes, extent, nature, and permanence of the learning effected by the content and approaches chosen, as well as means by which these outcomes could be achieved more effectively. Thus, my own understanding of student-centred learning improved. Indeed, this was an epiphany for me from both a cognitive and affective point of view. The increasing realisation that good teaching is measured not by teacher performance, but as a reflection of student-generated thinking not only led me to use the processes of teaching more effectively and deliberately, but released me from much of teacher-centred self-consciousness which had to that point been a part of ‘the pedagogical condition’ for me.

The helix as diagrammatised above is ongoing. An understanding of curriculum development led to an increased understanding of the impact of stakeholders’ values and attitudes. Similarly, an understanding of the acquisition and impact of attitudes and values, and an enhanced understanding of teacher excellence, reflection and deconstruction, informed and contributed to a more sophisticated understanding of curriculum development. This is due in part to an understanding of curriculum as a cultural artefact, and of its nature which is contested, as are attitudes to regional and global studies. These elements provide a more informed platform from which to understand curriculum and to effect change therein. While an understanding or process can be said to ‘go full circle’, finishing at its starting point, the team ‘full helix’ is a contradiction in terms.
In terms of content, the study appears as follows:

Case studies, embedded in related literature, of some of the dynamics of professional development in the following loci, embedded in the context of Australia, or of Australian practitioners:

In schools

In communities

In preservice teacher training

In the psyche of (preservice) teachers

In inservice teacher training

The portfolio uncovers and examines commonality and heterogeneity between and among informants in these various loci, in the context of Australia, or with Australians operating in an Asian context.

These interrelationships are outlined in Figure 3, on page 9.
As Figure 3 suggests, these foci have features in common, which provided for triangulation and confirmation of findings. For example, difficulties in creating a space and time for studies of Asia, and the resultant inertia against their uptake, emerged at both school and teacher training contexts. This is taken up further in the context of professional development. While the intersection of these features was not a core part of this study, it would make for interesting further research.

As outlined in the published articles in this portfolio, my learning has been informed by the literatures of intercultural education, (eg Said, 1978; Giroux, 1991) teacher change (eg Hargreaves, 1994; Groundwater-Smith & White, 1995), workplace learning (eg Boud, 1995) and student-centred learning (eg Ramsden, 1992; Biggs, 1999), as well as the content areas of global education (eg Calder, 1997; Waters,
2001; Fien & Williamson-Fien, 2001) and studies of Asia (eg Broinowski, 1992; Baumgart, Halse & Buchanan, 1998) in Australia.

Chronologically, the learning pathway can be depicted as follows. The extensive report on the periodical *Global Issues*, (Buchanan & Halse, 1997) provided an opportunity to investigate the dynamics not only of globalisation, but also of the provision of global education, and the processes which underpin it. It set the groundwork for the processes of conducting and analysing interviews, triangulation, and the analysis of documents. This experience complemented the broader research conducted into teacher excellence (Buchanan & Khamis, 1999), and provided insights into the dynamics of teacher acceptance of, and resistance to, professional development regimes. It also afforded the first insight into the hiatus between teacher approval of professional development offerings and subsequent uptake of new content or approaches.

The development of the above papers fuelled to a desire to understand culture ‘from the other side’, which led to the investigation of outcomes for the students of a host school in Vietnam, visited by Australian teachers teaching English, but not necessarily trained or experienced in teaching English as a second language (Buchanan, 1999). This, in turn, led to an increased understanding of constructivism and phenomenography (Bowden & Walsh, 2000) on the part of both the Vietnamese students and their Australian teachers. This experience laid the groundwork for an evaluation of *Understanding Everyday Australian* (Buchanan, 2000), of the role texts play in mediating meaning for students and teachers alike, and of their contribution to the development and uptake of studies. This mediation operates in terms of understanding the task at hand, and in understanding what constitutes appropriate learning in this endeavour.

Given that schools are the frontline for the enhancement of studies of Asia in Australia, it was imperative that the school situation be investigated. This was conducted in the form of a case study of an Australian primary school (Buchanan, 2002), which brought to light the various and contested forces at work within and beyond the school in facilitating, modifying or constraining studies of Asia. At the same time, globalisation, another content focus of this doctorate, re-emerged. This
transpired in the context of a state-wide investigation of a suite of professional
development activities (Buchanan & Harris, 2002). This study reinforced my
understanding of the mismatch between acceptance and praise of professional
development activities, and their implementation, as well as some of the forces which
constrain implementation upon teachers’ return to school.

The question of teacher readiness to provide Asia education begged the question of
preservice teachers’ acceptance of Asia education, and of their willingness to
empathise with Asian peoples and cultures (Buchanan, 2003). This project shed light
on some of the experiential impediments on the part of some of the participants to
provide positive images of Asia, as well as some teachers of Asian backgrounds’
confrontations with racist attitudes in Australia. It also provided a richer
understanding of the requirements of an effective teacher education for studies of
Asia. At this time, research into the global education project previously mentioned
was continuing, and further research uncovered new possibilities for providing more
effective teacher education on the provision of global education.

The production of these research papers has paralleled a personal and professional
learning journey during the last septennium. At the commencement of this doctoral
portfolio, I was engaged on a casual basis as a research assistant and tutor,
supplementing this work with primary school teaching. In the meantime, I have taken
on a full-time lecturing position, as well as coordination of a Graduate Certificate in
Teaching Studies of Asia, and of a practicum for pre-service teachers in Phranakhon,
Thailand. In 2002, I was selected onto a Board of Studies New South Wales Syllabus
Consultation Committee (Deputy Chair) for the Aboriginal Studies 7-10 and the
Cultures Societies and Identities 7-10 Syllabuses. At the time of writing, I have been
selected by a Commonwealth Government Commission to be involved in an advisory
committee for the implementation of Studies of Asia professional development to
teacher educators in Australia, and am a member of a Pacific Circle Consortium
advisory group. My current work also entails membership of several committees,
such as Faculty of Education Faculty Board, Institute for International Students. I am
currently in discussions with Department of Education and Training and other
personnel with regard to the establishment of a Human Society and Its Environment
Primary Teachers’ Association (HSIEPTA). In 2004, I have presented papers at two
international conferences, a teacher educators’ conference in Bangkok and an Asia educators’ conference in Ha Noi, and at a University of Technology, Sydney (UTS) conference in Sydney, as well as attending another Australian conference convened by the Geography Teachers’ Association, and an environmental research conference at the University of New South Wales (UNSW). I have had accepted for publication a paper on incidental learning sustained by Australian practicum students in Thailand (see Section 1.2).

These doctoral studies have informed my teaching and vice versa. Moreover, these changed circumstances have enabled me to direct and shape my thinking and work. Whereas as a casual lecturer I had few opportunities to interrogate (other than reflexively) and shape the ‘big picture’, my current work offers me the occasion and the mandate to do so. I believe it is through carrying out my own decision-making and experiencing the consequences of the decisions I make that my learning has increased in scope and permanence. In particular, the portfolio has contributed to the shape of the Graduate Certificate in Teaching Studies of Asia I coordinate. For example, the findings from two projects in particular (Buchanan & Khamis, 1999; Buchanan & Harris, 2004) informed assessment tasks, which, as a result, were more deliberately designed to facilitate workplace implementation of content, processes and theories encountered during the on-campus sessions. Similarly, this doctoral study has informed the structure, aims and content of an articulated ‘Major Course of Study’ in social and environmental education which I composed and began implementing during the life of this portfolio.

The structure of the Doctor of Education at the University of Western Sydney (UWS) requires a portfolio comprising a minimum of four articles published in refereed journals, and a minimum of two other articles of a scholarly nature, as well as an ‘overarching statement’ bringing together the themes in common of the portfolio.

The portfolio consists of the following six refereed articles (see also Appendix 1):


Buchanan, J. and Harris, B. (2004). The world is your oyster, but where is the pearl? Getting the most out of global education. *Curriculum Perspectives, 24*, 1, pp. 1-11.

And the following non-refereed articles:


During the period of this doctoral candidacy, the following papers have also been authored or co-authored by the candidate. These articles will not be reproduced in this portfolio, but will be referred to as the need arises. (See also Appendix 2.)

Refereed articles (not directly subsumed by this portfolio):

Beyond the above contributions, I have had similar levels of involvement in the following 15 publications and reports, as outlined hereunder:


The table on page 16 outlines the above core articles and the areas to which they contribute. Each of these conceptual themes will subsequently be discussed in their various contexts of their chronological development, their locus, their interrelations, their links to the overarching questions and their links to methodologies.

The areas of research are as follows:

1. Intercultural education (IE)
2. Teacher professional development (PD)
3. Curriculum development (including resource development) (CD)
4. Values and attitudes (VA)

The research questions, (as outlined on page 2) are reproduced and diagrammatised on page 16 for comparison with the themes, in Table 1:
Table 1. Interrelationships between research questions and thematic concepts.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research questions</th>
<th>Thematic concept</th>
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<tr>
<td>Question 1: What are the factors which facilitate and constrain the pursuit of excellence, and in particular the uptake of studies of Asia and of global education by teachers and students, and what impact do these factors have on the nature and emphases of the curriculum?</td>
<td>Intercultural education</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Values and attitudes</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Teacher professional development</td>
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<tr>
<td>Question 2: With regard to the implementation (or frustration) of curricular development, who are the main players, what roles do they play, and how do their actions, attitudes and decisions affect curriculum?</td>
<td>Intercultural education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher professional development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Values and attitudes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question 3: What features are common to successfully implemented professional development programs (with regard to studies of Asia or global education)?</td>
<td>Intercultural education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher professional development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Curriculum, resource development</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Values and attitudes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question 4: To what extent are topic areas of intercultural education (eg studies of Asia and global education) exceptional in terms of the associated difficulties faced by those intending to implement them in school curricula, and what are the origins, features and consequences of any such difficulties?</td>
<td>Intercultural education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher professional development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Curriculum, resource development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Values and attitudes</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table 2, on page 17, outlines the research questions and their relationship with the various component publications.
Table 2. Interrelationships between research questions and portfolio components.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research questions</th>
<th>Publications</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Question 1: What are the factors which facilitate and constrain the pursuit of</td>
<td>Buchanan and Halse, 1997;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>excellence, and in particular the uptake of studies of Asia and of global</td>
<td>Buchanan and Khamis, 1999; Buchanan, 1999;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>education by teachers and students, and what impact do these factors have on the</td>
<td>Buchanan, 2000; Buchanan, 2002; Buchanan, 2003;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question 2: With regard to the implementation (or frustration) of curricular</td>
<td>Buchanan, 2002; Buchanan, 2003; Buchanan and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>development, who are the main players, what roles do they play, and how do their</td>
<td>Harris, 2004.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>actions, attitudes and decisions affect curriculum?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question 3: What features are common to successfully implemented professional</td>
<td>Buchanan, 2002; Buchanan and Harris, 2002;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>development programs (with regard to studies of Asia or global education)?</td>
<td>Buchanan and Harris, 2004.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question 4: To what extent are topic areas of intercultural education (eg studies</td>
<td>Buchanan, 2002; Buchanan, 2003.</td>
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<td>of Asia and global education) exceptional in terms of the associated difficulties</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>faced by those intending to implement them in school curricula, and what are the</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>origins, features and consequences of any such difficulties?</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

As is to be expected, these themes emerged to varying degrees in each of the published studies and reports. It was only in the latter part of the doctoral study, for example, that values and attitudes arose as a specific focus of study, based on findings from previous studies.
Reasons for the inclusion of the above themes will emerge in the discussion of each, but suffice it to say by way of brief introduction that all education is intercultural in nature. Successful teaching depends, at least in part, on an intercultural awareness, that is, a teacher’s ability and willingness to understand the perspectives of her/his students, given that there will be differences of gender, age, socio-economic status, ethnicity, among others. This pedagogical reality informs the provision of professional development at two levels: leading teachers towards an intercultural awareness, and being aware of those same intercultural dynamics between PD provider and (teacher/) student.

Curricular change is arguably both the starting point and end point of professional development. For the PD provider, it is the intended outcome and the means by which the extent of success of PD can be measured. Curricular change, both in terms of practice and policy, is a measure of the success or otherwise of professional development. Similarly, in the absence of professional development, curricular development is in all likelihood destined to falter.

An understanding of the role of values and attitudes in intercultural education also assumes a dual significance, in that it is a significant variable in overcoming resistance to change, while being an important factor in addressing fears related to ‘difference’. An account of the conceptual nature of non-core articles appears in Appendix 3.

The interplay between conceptual themes and written works is schematised on page 19, in Table 3.
Table 3. Component articles’ respective conceptual themes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Brief bibliographic details</th>
<th>Intercultural Education</th>
<th>Professional Development</th>
<th>Curriculum Development</th>
<th>Values and Attitudes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Core articles</td>
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<td>Buchanan, J. (2002) The emergence of Asia: Development of studies of Asia in one Australian school.</td>
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<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
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<tr>
<td>Buchanan, J. and Harris, B. (2004) The world is your oyster, but where is the pearl? Getting the most out of global education.</td>
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</table>

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Table 3 (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Non-refered articles</th>
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<th>Professional Development</th>
<th>Curriculum Development</th>
<th>Values and Attitudes</th>
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<tr>
<td><em>Australian Education</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>Buchanan, J. and Harris, B. (2002) The world at your feet: Introducing students and</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
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<td>✓</td>
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<td>teachers to global education. In Harris, Buchanan and Walker. *Evaluation report on</td>
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<tr>
<td>global education project conducted by the Geography Teachers’ Association of Victoria*</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

1.3 Links between publications and thematic concepts

For a summary of these and other terms relevant to the portfolio, refer to the Glossary at the conclusion of this chapter (p. 71).

1.3.1 Intercultural education

The theme of intercultural education pervades all but one of the publications (see table 3, above). All articles but Buchanan and Khamis (1999) dealt with attempts to embrace, or avoid, regional (Asian) or global studies in an Australian context. The theme of Asia education is taken up in Buchanan (1999; 2000; 2002; 2003) and Buchanan and Halse (1997). Global education, on the other hand, is dealt with in Buchanan and Harris (2002; 2004) and Buchanan and Halse (1997). Both of the Buchanan and Harris (2002; 2004) articles dealt with different aspects of the same project, the inservice and preservice education of teachers conducted by the Geography Teachers’ Association of Victoria, and uncovered a significant hiatus.
between immediate and longer term responses to professional development programs. The Buchanan and Halse (1997) paper reported on what was found to be an excellent resource in the support of global education. In the light of the limitations of global pedagogical credentials on the part of pre- and inservice teachers, it appears regrettable that contrary to the recommendations of the report, funding was terminated for the resource, one feature of which was its ongoing nature, potentially complementing the gains achieved through short-term professional development programs (Buchanan & Harris, 2003; 2004).

A clear progression can be seen in the suite of articles on Asia education. Buchanan (2000) investigated the effects of in-country visits by teachers on the host school. One assumption of such programs is that they are of benefit to the participating teachers. A related research project (Halse, 1999) found that the program was of immense benefit to the overwhelming majority of the Australian participants. Similarly, Buchanan (1999) found that the majority of Vietnamese students benefited from the program, while some, less proficient in English, found the processes of being taught by non-Vietnamese speakers confronting. The Halse (1999) study appears to have had at least one extra variable – the individual participants’ experiences in the various Asian destinations. It may be, however, that there is a parallel between the two studies, in that it was those who were the least interculturally literate who struggled the most with their experiences. The two studies conducted in a school (Buchanan, 2002) and a university (Buchanan, 2003) highlighted similar limitations in teachers’ readiness to undertake studies of Asia in their teaching, as well as similarities in the factors and dynamics generating these limitations, and suggested that less than optimal levels of Asia may persist for some time, at least among a minority of teachers.

1.3.2 Professional Development

Naturally, professional development subsumes all articles in the portfolio, each of which dealt with some aspect of teacher preservice or inservice professional development. The only article hitherto unmentioned in section 1.3, Buchanan and Khamis (1999) dealt with a generic program to enhance teacher excellence. In
common with Buchanan and Harris (2003; 2004), however, it identified an extinction through time of the outcomes of professional development.

More significantly, the various published papers shed light on the variety of types of support offered to teachers and systems. While such comparisons and their virtues or shortcomings were not the central focus of this portfolio, a comparison of some of their features is interesting, and includes the production of resources (Buchanan & Halse, 1997; Buchanan, 2000), provision of release time for the production of resources, curriculum documents and the like (Buchanan, 2002), inservice (Buchanan & Harris, 2002, 2003) and preservice (Buchanan, 2003) infrastructure. This is dealt with in more detail in the following section.

1.3.3 Curriculum development

Theoretically, all articles in this portfolio have implications for curriculum development. The experiences of teachers on in-country tours, for example, will have implications for the development of the content and processes of the teaching they undertake. For the purposes of this portfolio, however, only those articles directly impinging upon curriculum development have been included herein.

Resources are an important accoutrement to professional development. While textual resources were the central focus of only two or the articles, (Buchanan, 2000 and Buchanan & Halse, 1997), several others confirmed the importance of resources which are up-to-date, physically attractive and conceptually appropriate, in facilitating developments in curriculum. In particular, Buchanan (2002; 2003) investigated the arena of the development of studies of Asia in inservice and preservice contexts respectively. Particularly in the preservice context, it emerged that resources were not limited to textual support, but could include site visits, guest speakers, visual texts and others. Few examples of these emerged in the research, however (Buchanan, 2003). Continuing along this spectrum from textual to personnel resources, Buchanan and Harris (2002; 2003) found that the provision of inservice events was a necessary but not sufficient catalyst for curricular change. Indeed, the division of this spectrum into its component parts (verbal-textual, personal) is at best blurred. The so-called textual resources addressed in Buchanan (2000) and Buchanan and Halse (1997) incorporate
supra-textual components in the form of websites, key organizations etc, in the context of Global Issues (Buchanan & Halse, 1997) and Understanding Everyday Australian (Buchanan, 2000).

1.3.4 Values and attitudes

In the studies of a school (Buchanan, 2002) and of a cohort of university students (Buchanan, 2003) attempts were made to determine if the study of Asia presented deeper axiological problems than those pertinent to all curricular change. While practising teachers were not forthcoming with any specific antipathies with regard to their experiences of Asia and Asians (Buchanan, 2002), some preservice teachers of non-Asian backgrounds (Buchanan, 2003) were willing to share negative previous incidents and encounters, while some of Asian backgrounds recounted experiences of being subjected to racism and intolerance on the part of other Australians.

1.3.5 Links between the conceptual themes

The four conceptual themes addressed in this portfolio potentially generate 12 links among them, as each of the four themes can be linked with the other three. The following discussion will centre mainly on the links between two dichots of themes, that is, intercultural education and professional development, and intercultural education and curriculum development, with subsidiary references to the fourth theme of values and attitudes. These issues are also addressed under the methodological section of this chapter. While this portfolio is concerned with the various loci of professional development (see figure 3, p. 9), it has also investigated its various component parts. It was not an aim of this doctoral study to design a ‘perfect model’ of professional development for teachers or of curriculum development for schools, if such a model could be devised.

The call for intercultural education is a demanding, even arrogant one, in that it is difficult if not impossible to assume more than one perspective on an issue. Using language as a comparison, one will tend to express or explain a second culture, especially one experienced only as an outsider or as an adult, in a self-conscious and
incomplete manner, and ‘with an accent’. By the same token, one’s ‘first culture’ may escape scrutiny in the absence of comparisons with the norms of other cultures.

Curriculum development is a vital component of raising levels of Asia literacy amongst Australia’s school students. It is likely to precede, at least in its conceptual form, the provision of professional development, as well as accompanying and emerging from such provision. As such, the dual processes of professional development and the development of schools’ curricula are intrinsically linked. While the former refers to individual teachers’ professional enhancement, the latter corresponds to the analogous processes of corporate school- or system-based development of the profession. It is tempting to describe the two processes as parallel, but this suggests no meeting point between the two. The notion of curriculum development in the absence of professional development appears to be a quest for futility and frustration, on the part of teachers, students and systems, all of whom will in all likelihood fail to see desired outcomes materialise. On the other hand, professional development without forethought as to the nature and extent of its impact on curriculum, and without attention to actual, including unintended, outcomes, is a waste of limited resources.

Values and attitudes impinge upon curriculum development at at least two levels. Apart from any antipathy on the part of Australians with regard to perceived threats from the region or the globe, there is the angst linked to any (curricular) change. The importance of curriculum development in increasing levels of Asia literacy was raised in the previous paragraph. Curriculum development, however, is not quite a sine qua non, in that rising levels of knowledge of Asia are likely to continue in Australia the context of increased mobility, with its attendant travel and migration, as well as increased access to information. One difficulty with this, however, is the range of contested notions in the Australian psyche of Asia as a source of tourists or of terrorists, and a destination for travellers, a site of technological development and potential trade and investment, or of corruption and oppression among others. As with factual information, the school system is not the sole purveyor of axiological information and perspectives for students. Nevertheless, it is crucial in both domains (cognitive/epistemological and axiological) that education systems be capable of
providing positive yet realistic and contested views of Asia, as well as producing teachers who are able to provide informed and sensitive debate on the topic.

1.4 Methodologies and interconnecting conceptual frameworks

While the conceptual frameworks and methodologies of the component articles of this portfolio varied according to the aims, purposes and audiences of the various studies, several conceptual themes are common to much of the research. The first of these is constructivism (Bruner, 1990) which recognises that new understandings derive from previous idiosyncratic knowledge and experiences, and that the locus of understanding is in the mind of the individual experiencing a phenomenon. Constructivism challenges the notion that there can be one, correct understanding or interpretation of a phenomenon.

Linked to this presumption of person-specific world views is the methodological approach of phenomenography (Marton, Hounsell & Entwistle, 1997), that is, an attempt to understand how the world appears through the eyes of various informants, by allowing these informants to share their experiences. These two, constructivism, and phenomenography, underpinned in particular three of the research projects reported on in this portfolio in particular. The first of these concerned the investigation of the effects of guest teachers to Vietnam on a host school and its students (Buchanan, 1999), while the second constituted a case study of a school implementing studies of Asia (Buchanan, 2002). A third study investigated preservice students’ attitudes to, and readiness for, the inclusion of studies of Asia in their teaching (Buchanan, 2003), as reported by various informants, and as discussed below.

Emerging methodologically from these theoretical underpinnings is the use of the hermeneutic dialectic process (Guba & Lincoln, 1989, p. 149; see Buchanan, 2002, p. 6, chapter 6, this portfolio) in the school case study in particular. One salient feature of this approach is the identification by each informant of a subsequent informant whose views on the topic under study are likely to differ markedly from the current informant’s own views. This process of nominating new informants continues until it becomes evident that views previously canvassed are re-emerging, and that ‘new’
views are unlikely to manifest. This approach lent itself in particular to the study of one school’s initiatives in promoting the study of Asia among its students and staff. The research adopted a multi-perspectived overview of the school, the opportunities and constraints it encountered, as observed and identified by various players with regard to the development of studies of Asia.

The nature of the studies included in this portfolio necessitated triangulation of data (Yin, 1984), for the purposes of identifying similarities and differences in points of view. Most of the studies reported herein are qualitative in nature. They are point-in-place-and-time – specific. As a result, the notion of reliability in the traditional sense (that is, the propensity for the results to be repeated with another cohort) does not apply. Similarly, the term validity becomes problematic, in that such studies assume one further degree of abstraction, in that what is under study is people’s perceptions of particular phenomena, rather than the phenomena themselves. As such, differences in perceptions are to be expected. Nevertheless, methodological approaches such as triangulation were chosen in order to establish the internal validity of the data. Moreover, similarities of views emerged in the various contexts such as school, university and teacher inservicing. While constructivism recognises differences in perceptions and phenomenography encourages discourse thereon, triangulation allows for confirmation and contradiction in views to be interrogated. In the studies in this portfolio, triangulation allowed for comparison of views between different informants and groups of informants, as well as comparisons over time, with the same cohorts, or subsets thereof, providing data at various intervals (as in Buchanan & Harris, 2002; 2004).

The research (eg Buchanan & Harris, 2004 (see Chapter 7, this portfolio); Buchanan & Harris, 2002, Chapter 9)) made use of both qualitative and quantitative data and methodologies. In this study, data generated from questionnaires distributed to a large cohort \( n > 1,000 \) were analysed using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) software. Analyses included cumulative frequencies, \( t \)-tests and ANOVAs for indications of statistically significant findings among and between cohorts. This was supplemented by qualitative data furnished in the questionnaires and through follow-up telephone interviews and site visits. Table 4, on page 27, lists the core articles and some of the methodological approaches undertaken in the related studies.
Text-type analysis was one feature of a critical evaluation of the periodical *Global Issues* (Buchanan & Halse, 1997). The links between published papers and methodological approaches are outlined subsequently, in Tables 4 and 5.

Table 4 Component articles and respective methodological approaches

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Core articles</th>
<th>Phenomenography</th>
<th>Constructivism</th>
<th>Hermeneutic dialectic circles</th>
<th>Triangulation</th>
<th>Statistical analysis</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brief bibliographic details</td>
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<tr>
<td>Refereed articles</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Buchanan, J. (2002). The emergence of Asia: Development of studies of Asia in one Australian school.</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Buchanan, J. and Harris, B. (2004). The world is your oyster, but where is the pearl? Getting the most out of global education.</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-refereed articles</td>
<td>Phenomenography</td>
<td>Constructivism</td>
<td>Hermeneutic dialectic circles</td>
<td>Triangulation</td>
<td>Statistical analysis</td>
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<tr>
<td>Buchanan, J. and Harris, B. (2002). The world at your feet: Introducing students and teachers to global education. In Harris, Buchanan and Walker. <em>Evaluation report on global education project conducted by the GTAV.</em></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
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</table>

A more detailed account of each of the methodologies can be seen in each of the core articles reproduced in this portfolio, but Table 5, page 29, outlines links between methodologies, their respective rationales and uses, and their contributions to addressing the research questions.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Methodological approach</th>
<th>Rationale</th>
<th>Means of use</th>
<th>Link to research questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constructivism</td>
<td>A constructivist approach acknowledges that meaning is generated in the mind of the individual, and that various individuals may construe and accord different significances to a phenomenon under discussion.</td>
<td>An understanding and acceptance of constructivism and phenomenography are necessary prerequisites for several of the research projects (e.g. Buchanan &amp; Khamis, 1999; Buchanan, 1999; 2002; 2003; Buchanan &amp; Halse, 1997) in determining different interactants’ understandings of phenomena such as the value, purposes and extent of success of PD approaches,</td>
<td>Question 1: Factors which facilitate or constrain the pursuit of excellence, the uptake of regional and global studies (Buchanan &amp; Halse, 1997; Buchanan &amp; Khamis, 1999). Question Set 2: Identification of the main implementers, their roles and effects on curricular implementation (Buchanan, 1999; 2002; 2003).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phenomenography</td>
<td>This approach assumes that individuals identify phenomena in various ways, and attempts to identify the phenomenon under study from the viewpoint of the various interactants.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hermeneutic dialectic circles</td>
<td>Given that individuals understand phenomena differently (constructivism), and that methods are available to the researcher to allow informants to divulge these understandings (phenomenography), hermeneutic dialectic circles attempts to elicit divergent opinions, by asking individuals to identify others with different views to their own.</td>
<td>In Buchanan (2002) this approach was employed specifically to elicit a full range of views among the staff of the school with regard to the adoption of studies of Asia in the school.</td>
<td>Question 2: Identification of the main implementers, their roles and effects on curricular implementation (Buchanan, 2002).</td>
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<td>Table 5 (cont)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Triangulation</strong></td>
<td>This provides a means of confirming or contradicting data</td>
<td>While it is accepted that different informants assume different</td>
<td>Question 4: Special constraints with regard to regional or global</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>previously collected and viewpoints already elicited.</td>
<td>views of phenomena, similarities of viewpoints can be used to</td>
<td>studies (Buchanan, 2003).</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>confirm data provided, as in Buchanan and Khamis (1999);</td>
<td>Question 3: Features of successfully implemented programs</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Buchanan (1999; 2002; 2003), Buchanan and Halse (1997); and</td>
<td>(Buchanan &amp; Khamis, 1999; Buchanan, 2003; Buchanan &amp; Harris,</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>At an intra-project level, teachers were in agreement about the</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>costs of implementing studies of Asia in their school, but</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>differed in terms of the benefits (Buchanan, 2002).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>In Buchanan (2003) students differed in terms of Australians’</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>readiness to embrace studies of Asia.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Statistical analysis</strong></td>
<td>So as to elicit the views of as many informants as possible,</td>
<td>As part of the evaluation of global education PD provision, data</td>
<td>Question 1: Factors which facilitate or constrain the pursuit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>statistical analysis was undertaken of Likert scale and coded</td>
<td>from questionnaires were coded and collated and analysed using</td>
<td>of excellence, the uptake of regional and global studies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>information provided by teachers who had undertaken PD in global</td>
<td>SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) software.</td>
<td>Question Set 3: Features of successfully implemented programs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>education.</td>
<td>Analyses included t-tests, ANOVAs, to determine statistical</td>
<td>(Buchanan &amp; Harris, 2002; 2004).</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>significance of sub-groups’ responses.</td>
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</table>
A theoretical model was devised in order to investigate some of the dynamics which facilitate or constrain curricular change in schools (Buchanan, 2002). This model constitutes a modified version of an interplay between an existing model by Groundwater-Smith and White (1995), which investigates the socio-political contexts and pretexts of a curriculum, and another by Gerber (1995), which explores curriculum from the point of view of players and their roles. The resulting model more fully encapsulates than pre-existing ones the totality of the ‘constituents’ (human and other, including decision-makers, and the existing school culture) which impact the nature and development of curriculum. The model (Buchanan, 2002, p. 5) is reproduced hereunder, in Figure 4:

Figure 4. Conceptual model for study of curriculum.

Players & Roles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Context &amp; Pretext</th>
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Intended learning outcomes

Text/s, activities, their use and implementation

Learning outcomes

In addition to an examination of curriculum according to the *what* (that is, the content, priorities and silences) and to a certain extent, the *how* (as evidenced by the processes, in/consistencies and implementation, Groundwater-Smith & White, 1995) the model above allowed for investigation of the *who* (players, roles and resultant outcomes, Gerber, 1995). For a more detailed explanation of this model, see Chapter 5, this portfolio. the model above allowed for investigation of the *who* (players, roles and...

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1 For the purposes of this study, ‘reference texts’ i.e. those other than curricular documents such as scope and sequence, are principally treated as part of the context and pretext.
resultant outcomes, Gerber, 1995), as well as the way curriculum is mediated through the interplay between these constituents. Another feature of the model is that it allows for an examination of matches and mismatches between intended and actual learning outcomes, as outlined by Biggs (1999), who described this as constructive alignment in the context of classroom teaching and learning. The model also allows for the application of Biggs’ constructive alignment framework to artefacts such as policy and curriculum documents.

While it can be said that players and their existing roles operate in and perpetuate (or modify) the context and pretext of a school, it is also true that these players and their roles derive in part from existing norms of context and pretext. As a result it is profitable to examine each, as well as the complex interplay between each, in any thorough investigation of curriculum. For example, the school’s context may determine who the players are, as well as attitudes and actions on their part which are variously expected, encouraged, tolerated or proscribed. By the same token, other factors serve to shift, even if slightly, the centre of balance of the school’s ‘curriculum culture’. Such factors include decisions as to who the players and decision makers are (in terms of their official status or personal attributes which serve as prerequisites for their choice in such roles, and who chooses) as well as the decisions, processes and programs these incumbents put in place, as they (attempt to) introduce new norms in their workplaces. On the other hand, such decisions (and incumbents) may function as perpetuators of the status quo, augmenting or maintaining the inertia which serves to protect curriculum from change.

Naturally, neither a school nor a curriculum is a closed system, but acts upon, and is acted upon by external elements as well as internal ones. Such external factors include system-mandated policies and practices, changing (perceptions of) needs among system administrators, community expectations and ‘critical incidents’ such as significant events in the local, national or global community. Biggs (1999) notes that students are adept at subverting any given assessment policy, and acting in minimalist ways to gain maximum marks. Similarly, others (eg Hargreaves, 1994) have noted that teachers and others are quite capable of ‘acting as if nothing has happened’ in the face of imposed or mooted curricular change. This may be particularly the case if the intended change is a controversial one, or is difficult to implement for other reasons,
such as lack of teacher confidence and expertise, or paucity, inappropriateness, or poor quality of resources. Other factors include the relationship between the teacher or school and the body mandating the changes (which is likely to be affected by other, possibly unrelated issues, such as a breakdown in industrial relations), relationships between those implementing policy at school level and the rest of the staff, and the status (mandated or not) of the changes. This is further complicated by the maxim that new skills and expertise are acquired slowly, and initial frustrations or failures in implementing changed approaches or content, may serve as ‘proof’ of a failure of the implementation itself. In addition, there is intrapersonal dissonance or misalignment between espoused and actual classroom outcomes.

The extent and quality of curricular change may be no stronger than the weakest link in all the above processes through which the curriculum must pass, before it emerges as learning outcomes for students. As a result, it may be that teachers implement little or nothing of the mandated or recommended curriculum changes. Alternatively, they may ‘paper over the cracks’ of the existing curriculum, implementing some of its features at surface level, with little attention to, and/or understanding of their philosophical and theoretical underpinnings, or arguably while harbouring hostility or antipathy towards these philosophical bases (Hargreaves, 1994).

With the above factors in mind, a continuum was devised as a means to providing a yardstick for examining and interrogating the effectiveness and extent of professional development-generated curricular changes, the underlying motives, and some of the dynamics which effect or constrain the success of such undertakings (Buchanan & Harris, 2004). The model assumed a continuum of low, medium and high levels of change, corresponding to the criteria in Figure 5, page 34 (see also chapter 7, this portfolio).
Figure 5. Continuum of the extent of Professional Development outcomes.

| Little or no change | Mimicking of elements of the inservice | Conceptual synthesis of rationale, internalisation of approaches and content; demonstrated activities consistent with this |

This continuum allowed for a systematic evaluation of outcomes as they emerged from the study. It can be applied to areas of the (para-) curriculum such as resource development, ongoing inservice, matters of curriculum and timetabling and student work samples. It also provided a structural framework and a means to evaluate suggestions proposed by the researcher to increase the effectiveness of inservice undertakings. Moreover, the continuum is more widely applicable, to system mandated changes, whether or not professional development sessions form part of these. The fusion of these two research implements is a central feature of this doctoral portfolio.

During the course of the development of this portfolio limitations in data collection opportunities impinged upon the conduct of the studies. These were mainly linked to features of the programs under evaluation, such as the time limits for teachers to respond to a questionnaire distributed to them, owing to a delay in the provision of PD activities (Buchanan & Harris, 2002; 2004). In addition, the offer of an incentive for responding was likely to affect the sample of returns with regard to one project (Buchanan, 2000). Nevertheless, it was felt by the producers of the resource that the likelihood of an increased response justified this decision. Financial constraints limiting field observations to capital cities also meant that implications for rural users of the product were not able to be specifically addressed in the findings. These issues are acknowledged in the respective reports (Buchanan & Harris, 2002; 2004; Buchanan, 2000, Chapters 9, 7 and 4, this portfolio).
1.5 The conceptual themes

Each of the conceptual themes is discussed in turn below.

1.5.1 Intercultural Education (Studies of Asia and Global Education in Australia)

A discussion of intercultural education presumes an understanding of the notion of culture. Definitions of cultures abound, from the usually unattributed “the way we do things around here” (West, 1997, personal communication), to Hofstede’s (1980, p. 25) “collective programming of the mind”. Bourdieu (1980, translated by Hofstede, 1991, p. 18) speaks of “practices … which can be collectively orchestrated without an actual conductor”. Omaggio (1986) defines cultures as “powerful human creations, affording their members a shared identity, a cohesive framework for selecting, constructing, and interpreting perceptions, and for assigning value and meaning in consistent fashion” (p. 359). This last definition in particular is relevant to the purposes of the studies in this portfolio, in its reference to phenomena such as the construction of meaning and the assignation of values. It is also curious for its reference to “consistent fashion” without further explanation. It could be inferred that such internal ‘consistency of fashion’ in a given culture is subservient to previously formed world views, which, in turn, are influenced by one’s ambient culture. This would seem to support the notion that culture generates its own inertia, mitigating changes in worldviews and philosophies.

Like language, culture is a meaning-laden system of symbols (Orton, 1995, in Buchanan, 2002). Being an ‘unwritten language’, though, culture is prone to escape scrutiny. The subtleties of culture are more likely to escape the attention and questioning of ‘insiders’ than of those new to the culture. On the other hand, elements of culture are likely to be misinterpreted, that is, understood according to a disjunctive frame of reference, by outsiders. This is highlighted in interesting fashion by Troutman, Unger, Ramirez and Saddler (2001), who argue that artefacts used in teaching, such as a clock to measure starting and ending times, or the Latin alphabet (written, as it is, from left to right), tend to be overlooked in terms of their capacity to
mediate or change the processes of the learning, if such learning were to be conducted in the absence of such artefacts, which are norms in most ‘mainstream’ Australian classrooms. The fact that such artefacts are most likely accepted as unquestioned givens in a western educational paradigm, underscores the power which resides in such aspects of culture, camouflaged, as they are, by their own subtlety and familiarity. This begs the question as to the kind of ‘artefacts’ which teachers choose, modify, or reject and mis/interpret as they embark on intercultural (or other) studies with their students. Such artefacts include stimulus and research material, including guest speakers, as well as teaching approaches, the amount of time dedicated to intercultural or global studies, the time of day allocated to them.

As with culture, definitions of intercultural education are multiple and contested. Moreover, the term is used interchangeably with others such as intercultural communication, intercultural competence and perhaps most problematically, multicultural education. Le Roux (2001, p. 43) describes multicultural education as “neither a well-delineated field, nor a conceptually clear area”, and this description is also arguably applicable to intercultural education. Indeed, Le Roux puts forward arguments for using the terms interchangeably. Yet, while the two fields may be beset by similar confusions, using the terms interchangeably may compound, rather than diminish, the confusion over the terms. Multicultural education tends to have implications for the ethnic composition of the classroom, referring to a situation wherein students from a diversity of backgrounds find themselves together in the one classroom. Intercultural education, on the other hand, operates regardless of, and perhaps in spite of, the ethnic mix (or lack of mix) in any given classroom. Intercultural education assumes at times a fiscal rationale, particularly in business education. While this thesis does not seek to reject or denigrate the potential economic value of intercultural education, neither does it see monetary or commercial outcomes as its principal justification.

As asserted previously, all education is intercultural in nature. Differences between students’ and teachers’ age, gender, socio-economic status all contribute to the intercultural nature of teaching, as do differences of ethno-culture, religion and language. This adds significant variables to the already complex business of teaching and learning. Nevertheless, as suggested above, much of what is called intercultural
education could equally be termed ‘multicultural education’, or perhaps more specifically, education in a multicultural context. Verlot and Pinxten (2000) claim that an intercultural education is one wherein “learning in its formal and informal expression starts from the social and cultural diversity existing in society and in the classroom” (p. S8). This is one variable, but not the prime concern of this doctoral thesis, and begs the question as to what is to happen in the case where there is little ethnic diversity in the classroom, a question which will be addressed later. Suffice it to say here that such classrooms, according to Verlot and Pinxton (2000), are likely to have a narrower range of conceptual and experiential worldviews to draw on from the classroom and the immediate community. Nozaki and Inokuchi (1996, in Buchanan, 2002, p. 2) point out the “multiple and contradictory” nature of national and ethnic identities, as opposed to ‘essentialist’ views which ascribe uniformity to other groups. It is here that theoretical notions such as constructivism and phenomenography assume their importance, in their attempts to identify multiple, individual and emerging perceptions of realities, which can, themselves, be presumed to be multiple and emerging. This thesis is concerned not so much with the ethnic composition of classrooms, but with education about ‘other’ cultural groups, whether or not such ethnicities are represented in the classroom concerned.

Grant and Ladson-Billings (1997, p. 148) observe that “effective intercultural communication requires an understanding of cultural and social norms, that operate in any communicative situation”. Intercultural education could be defined, then, as those educational processes and experiences which promote effective intercultural communication. Indeed, the European Youth Centre observes that "intercultural education is educational activity which fosters an understanding of the nature of culture, which helps the student develop skills in intercultural communication and which aids the student to view the world from perspectives other than one’s own" (Hoopes & Pusch, cited in European Youth Centre Training Courses Resource File volume 3: Intercultural learning, 1991). http://www.tcd.ie/Education/Teachers_Pack/Text_Only/b6/Def06.html (accessed 20/2/03). It is these efforts to assist learners, including teachers, to assume new perspectives, which is one core issue of this portfolio.
Two examples of intercultural education under investigation in this portfolio examine the willingness or otherwise on the part of Australian teachers and students to embrace (a) studies of Asia and (b) global education.

### 1.5.1.1 Asia Education

The rightful place of attention to Asia in Australia is a contested issue (Broinowski, 1992; FitzGerald, 1997). This is illustrated by the vicissitudes of Federal Government NALSAS (National Asian Languages and Studies in Australian Schools) funding. It is also evidenced in part by heated debates over Australian immigration and the phenomenon of ‘Hansonism’ (e.g. Blair, 2002; Kingston, 2003). Such debates are not limited to the ‘popular press’. Speaking predominantly in a European context, Bash (2001) decries schools catering for ethnic minorities, claiming that they may inadvertently reinforce siege mentalities among such groups. This appears *prima facie* to be a call for a ‘one size fits all’ schooling system, which disregards ethnic and other differences, and demands a ‘regression to the mean’ type of assimilation. Bash goes on to say, however, that it is the failure of the existing school system to cater for fears of what could be termed “culturicide” (Stein, 2003) [http://www.ess.uwe.ac.uk/genocide/culturicide.htm](http://www.ess.uwe.ac.uk/genocide/culturicide.htm) (accessed 27/2/03) as expressed by minority families that leads to the popularity of such alternative schools.

Such approaches are problematic, entailing decisions as to the choice of the language of instruction, a point conceded in passing by Bash. Moreover, these arguments could, subliminally or otherwise, serve to promote a homogenised approach to education, wherein everybody is, and thinks, ‘just like us’. If Bash’s arguments are to be taken to their logical conclusions, the arguments against homogenous ‘schools for minorities’, for example a siege mentality, could equally be applied to the mainstream system. A call for heterogeneity in schools does not simply serve a political agenda, but a pedagogical one, facilitating the exchange of ideas, as per Verlot and Pinxton’s (2000) arguments discussed previously.

On a positive but arguably simplistic note, Bash calls for a displacement on the part of minority groups of “a mythologised past”, (as evidenced by Irish Protestants’ commemorations of the Battle of the Boyne), “and, possibly, an apocalyptic future” as
opposed to a “collective self-confidence based on a vision of what the future might be” (p. 10). Again, such arguments could be applied to majority or mainstream groups, with respect to, for example, reenactments of Captain Phillip’s landing in Australia, commemoration of ANZAC Day and the like, the point being that it is not only minority groups which are subject to the synthesis of a mythologised past. There is arguably a certain irony in that while the Australian Government is busily excising various Australian islands, it has recently unofficially ‘incised’ Anzac Cove, in Turkey. Again, in the European context, the recent decision by the French government to ban the wearing of outward signs of one’s religion such as headscarves and skullcaps, arguably privileges the second tenet of the French national motto, égalité, at the expense of the first, liberté.

Linked to this tension surrounding the contested nature of race and racism, the attention merited by studies of Asia in the Australian classroom is a subject of debate (Andresson, 1997; Arbor, 2001). The importance of teachers in enhancing Australians’ ‘Asia capital’ is a claim which has been strongly argued (Asia Education foundation, 1998; FitzGerald, 1991), as is the importance of teacher training in this process (Hill & Thomas, 1998; Patience, 1998) as elsewhere in the tertiary curriculum (Pendleton, 2001).

1.5.1.2 Global Education

As with studies of Asia, the notion of globalisation is one about which a number of teachers and others feel anxious. For the purposes of this study, a definition of globalisation as “a social process in which the constraints of geography on social and cultural arrangements recede and in which people become increasingly aware that they are receding” (Waters, 1995, cited in Buchanan & Halse, 1997, p. 10) was adopted.

Global education is itself a contentious term, particularly with regard to its perceived purposes. Calder and Smith (1991) for example, are critical of a global education which fails to incorporate an axiological dimension aimed at sharpening the student’s consciousness of financial and other needs in the developing world, along with an increased desire to redress such imbalances (Buchanan & Halse, 1997). National
identities and loyalties compete with sub- and supra-national (for example, global, regional, religious or ethnic) ones (Featherstone & Lash, 1995). An increased consciousness of such broader identities can be attributed in part to increases in communication and levels of education.

Globalisation evokes and begs a response to issues such as power, powerlessness and empowerment. It also subsumes issues such as social justice, environmental sustainability, conflict and resolution. These and other emotive issues impact the ways in which globalisation and its attendant processes are perceived, taught and learnt.

While any mooted educational change is liable to be met with opposition (Hargreaves, 1994), it stands to reason that, given their contentious nature, the introduction of curricular elements such as studies of Asia and of global education, is likely to meet with specific problems in the Australian context. For Australians, including, but not limited to those not of an Asian background, the term ‘Asia’ invokes conflicting notions of idyllic landscapes, smiling faces and business opportunities, along with notions of terror, oppression, corruption, poverty and, more recently, fears related to diseases such as SARS (Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome) and avian 'flu’. This is compounded by attitudes to Asian migration, including the acceptance of refugees in Australia. The dynamics of globalisation leave many feeling powerless and frustrated. This study will assist in producing studies of Asia and global education which engender broader, more open views, as opposed to more fearful, constricted affective and cognitive constructs.

A feature of this doctoral portfolio is its attempt to investigate a multiplicity of viewpoints, as outlined above, in the framework and methodology section. This is partly in deference to the New South Wales Board of Studies’ K-6 HSIE (Human Society and its Environment) syllabus document (Board of Studies, 1998, p. 9), which enumerates seven perspectives but, interestingly, provides no further information thereon. Beyond this, however, seeing others’ viewpoints is arguably a methodological necessity of intercultural studies. This multiplicity of viewpoints

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2 These are: Aboriginal, citizenship, environmental, gender, global, multicultural and work perspectives.
(including those of teachers, curriculum designers, education students and community members) also allows for triangulation, problematisation and confirmation of various perceptions of the issue at hand.

One research project which set out to investigate views ‘from the other side’ studied the effects of a visit by Australian teachers on a school in Vietnam, from the point of view of the host school students and teachers (Buchanan, 1999). Previous studies (Fearnley-Sander, 1997; Hill, Thomas & Coté, 1997; Halse, 1999) had investigated the beneficial outcomes for the Australian teachers undertaking such study and teaching tours. In this study, it emerged that while the majority of students found the visit by the Australian teachers beneficial and interesting, some problems were encountered. As might be expected, the main problems were experienced by those students whose English comprehension and speaking skills and/or whose confidence was lower than their peers’. One such student suggested that when encountering problems, they can ask their Vietnamese teachers for an explanation in Vietnamese, whereas with the Australian teachers this wasn’t possible. This was partially offset, according to some students, who commented that the Australian teachers were more open to being questioned, and more gentle in their responses than their Vietnamese counterparts. Informal conversations between the researcher and the other expatriate teachers revealed that there may be several reasons for this, which might be as circumstantial as they are cultural in origin – such as the Australian teachers’ felt inadequate in being unable to understand or answer questions in Vietnamese. In any case, no amount of kindliness on the part of the visiting teachers can compensate for a total inability to understand the child’s first language. Moreover, given that (at least) some of the informants identified an apparently harsher regime in terms of being shamed by teachers (and, possibly, peers – this question was not pursued as part of the research) when asking questions, this factor is likely to compound a student’s hesitation to ask questions in class. Such issues are worthy of further research.

It could be suggested that the presence of the Vietnamese national English teachers in the classroom would overcome the language barrier, if they could undertake a role as interpreters. Many of the teachers, however, spoke English only as a third or fourth language, and had learnt it later in their lives, having taught Russian until the collapse of the Soviet Union, and of many of its links to Vietnam, in 1991. Their presence
may betray the limited nature of these teachers’ English (if this is not already known to the children). The - admittedly contested - Asian notions of saving face, as well as arguably more universal professional and personal desires to avoid making any inadequacies known, might make such a situation uncomfortable, if not untenable.

It appears that the visits by the teachers generated much goodwill, and that a variety of activities of varying levels of difficulty catered for a range of ability levels. Nevertheless, it was suggested by the researcher that Australian teachers’ deployment for extended periods of time be limited to classes whose students have more experience in English. Other, briefer sessions, such as visually scaffolded discussions of Australia’s flora, fauna or geography, would still be appropriate for less advanced students. It is also acknowledged, however, that many inter- (and, for that matter, intra-)language experiences, in life as in the classroom, expose students to unknown vocabulary and language structures. Nevertheless, it emerged that, apart from difficulties related to language, the Australian and Vietnamese teachers saw teaching and learning in quite different ways, which expressed themselves in behaviours such as the Vietnamese teachers’ absence from the classroom and fear of ridicule.

A case study of a school in Western Sydney (Buchanan, 2002) shed light on some of the difficulties encountered in raising the profile of studies of Asia. Drawing on and interlinking the work of Groundwater-Smith and White (1995) and Gerber (1995), this study looked at the interplay between the school’s historico-political context, intended learning outcomes, the use of resources, including human resources, teaching content and approaches, and the ultimate outcomes with regard to studies of Asia. The study found that there was considerable inertia mitigating the breadth and effectiveness of studies of Asia, despite the fact that most players espoused positive attitudes to the topic area. Mitigating influences included the relatively low numbers of students of Asian background at the school, and the desire on the part of such students not to ‘stand out’, the crowded curriculum, lack of background knowledge and confidence on the part of some teachers, and a perception on the part of some that younger students in particular are cognitively unready to meaningfully absorb many of the realities of Asian culture.
Emerging from this project, another study (Buchanan, 2003) sought information on levels of Asia-literacy among prospective teachers in the final year of their preservice programs. The attitudes of these students towards Asia is a significant variable in their readiness to embark on teaching studies of Asia. Their attitudes will determine in part the extent to which and ways in which they will engage with their school’s curriculum, as might be measured by models put forward in Buchanan (2000) and Buchanan and Harris (2004). While all of the students expressed positive predispositions towards people of Asian origin, some, during the course of interviews, shared negative experiences which had compromised these predispositions. A number of students shared well-meaning, but at times naïve interpretations of Asian cultures. One recounted his experiences in an Asian city, saying, “I thought it would be fast-paced, but they walk really slowly. It just looks like they’re going fast ‘cause there’s so many [people]” (p. 57). Others shared negative encounters with ‘the other side’, including one student of Vietnamese background, who felt she was targeted for a bag search in a shop, because, in the words of the security guard, “All you Chinese are the same … I’m married to a Chinese lady, so I know” (p.146). In the context of local, national and international incidents which are fuelling tensions between Australia and Asia, the expression of such experiences does not offer encouragement. As someone who believes wholeheartedly in the power of education, it is sobering to read the comment by Le Roux (2001, p. 44), who claims that “racism and stereotyping are deeply rooted social problems that cannot be resolved by education alone”. He does not, however, appear to advocate what more is needed. With regard to educational approaches, on the other hand, he advocates extensive, rather than, as is often the case, piecemeal attention to intercultural education in teacher preservice programs. This was confirmed in my own research (Buchanan & Harris, 2004).

An earlier Australian study (Haque, 2001) concluded that Australian school students’ attitudes to Muslims and Islam were generally positive. Some of the statistics, however, were disconcerting, particularly given that the results were published prior to 11 September 2001. While the sample of students was relatively small (n = 132), only 29 percent of them disagreed with the statement that Muslims are terrorists, and only 37.9 percent thought that Muslims shouldn’t be prevented from migrating to Australia. Response rates for teachers in the same study were also disconcerting, but as figures were low (n = 24) it is difficult to draw confident conclusions.
One finding which emerged from two of the above studies (Buchanan, 2002; Buchanan, 2003) is that monocultural or homogenous classrooms were more problematic than multicultural ones in terms of developing an intercultural or crosscultural education, at least in terms of people’s perceptions. This was particularly the case at school level, where teachers identified the lack of students of Asian background as a problem for promoting studies of Asia. The extent to which this is a barrier or an excuse for teachers may be an interesting question to pursue. At tertiary level, this relative absence of non-Anglo-Australian students in teacher education programs would appear to both perpetuate and compound the problem, in terms of limiting a variety of cultural perspectives and voices to be heard in the preservice context, and with regard to the paucity of ‘teachers of difference’ entering the profession and serving as role models and providing alternative perspectives. It also begs the question as to why more students of minority backgrounds do not choose teaching as a career. Could it be surmised that such students typically either have negative experiences of schooling? For some, this might drive them towards the teaching profession, with a vision of redressing some of their own teachers’ shortcomings. Another possibility is that such students don’t see themselves as being ‘part of the system’, a view which may be premised on their own appearance, accent and difficulties with literacy, as opposed to the corresponding features of the majority of teachers they witness. Other factors may include cultural preferences for entrepreneurial or self-employment, or the perception or reality of inadequate salaries. Further research may shed more light on such determinants.

Arguably, children in monocultural classrooms are more in need of intercultural education than are their counterparts in more ethnically mixed classes. Multiculturalism should not be seen as a substitute for effective, deliberate intercultural education, however. In the Swedish context, Lahdenperä (2000, p. 201) noted that “teachers, despite the students’ diverse backgrounds, often taught classes as if the students were all ethnically Swedish … ‘Swedishness’ forms the basis, norm and goal for teaching”. One proposed solution to this issue of monoculturalism is to make use of the diversity which is there (Le Roux, 2001). In a class of predominantly Anglo-Celtic-Australians, teachers and students could investigate and compare for example, when students’ forebears arrived in Australia, from which part of the United
Kingdom or Ireland they came. This is one way of helping students to see beyond essentialism in their own (however defined), and, by extension, others’ cultures. This is the conclusion drawn by Verlot and Pinxten (2000, p. S11), who advise that “intercultural education should build on the intercultural competence that already exists among children (and teachers), broaden it, and apply it to different areas of the educational process in such a way that it promotes further growth of the initial intercultural competence that pupils and teachers already have.”

According to Le Roux (2001, p. 45), “teachers need to acquire the skill of deeply understanding the cultural norms other than their own. This sensitivity needs to be instilled during teacher training”. In the study of preservice teachers undertaking studies of Asia (Buchanan, 2003), however, it appeared that such training is found wanting. Respondents found little of value in their preservice training to date that had equipped them to understand the cultures of Asia. This was potentially exacerbated by apparently low levels of tolerance amongst at least some students, particularly if, as is likely, views consistent with this were yet more widespread amongst the broader cohort of students, including those who had not chosen this elective subject. Some of the most insightful comments came from one student with Japanese and European ancestry, who, in her own words, is often presumed to be “Italian or Spanish or something” (Buchanan, 2003, p. 63). She indicated that she is privy to racist comments about Asians from people who don’t recognise her true ancestry. Similarly, or perhaps conversely, an American study (Kinnucan-Welsh, Ridnour & Newsom, 2001) found that African-American informants waited until the end of formal data collection procedures before speaking frankly about how they saw themselves as victims of racism. These spontaneous comments were only forthcoming when the interviewers were also African-American.

The issues raised in the above section have implications for various aspects of education. These include professional development, resource development, appraisal and use, and values and attitudes of teachers. Each of these is dealt with below.
1.5.2 Professional development

In its broadest terms, this portfolio represents in part a search for excellence in teaching, particularly with regard to intercultural education. From the research in my first published paper for the purposes of this portfolio (Buchanan & Khamis, 1999) it emerged that teachers had not retained techniques developed by and for them in an earlier professional development program. They spoke in fond terms of the apparent therapeutic and professional value derived from earlier observation and appraisal of one another’s lessons. Despite the apparent psycho-social and pedagogical benefits of this process, the teachers were no longer continuing with it. Other things had ‘crowded in on’ such practices, according to the teachers.

Two other projects investigated professional development in inservice (Buchanan, 2002; Buchanan & Harris, 2004) and one in preservice (Buchanan, 2003) contexts. The first of these projects adopted an Australian primary school as a case study, and investigated the costs and benefits of a support system which was designed to increase the quality and extent of its teaching and learning about Asia. The school achieved a creditable standard in terms of the amount and quality of Asia content in its teaching, but it was noted that the amount of Asian content was not consistent across all classrooms, as some teachers felt less need, among competing needs, to address Asia with their students. Similarly, some teachers felt less confident in their ability to teach about Asia, and conceded that this compromised the amount and quality of their Asia content. Moreover, these achievements were coming at a high cost for the two teachers who were assuming primary responsibility for the Asia studies profile. In the context of demanding teaching roles, these two informants found that they had to work in the face of other professional demands they had to fulfil, varying levels of teacher interest, and, in particular, demanding administrative and other expectations from the body which funded the program. The use of hermeneutic dialectic circles uncovered a vast disparity in terms of teacher commitment to the program.

Similarly, in a much broader professional development project reported in Buchanan and Harris (2004), many of the approaches and much of the content encountered in PD sessions failed to materialise in the classrooms of the majority of the attending teachers. As part of this project, reports were being generated for funding bodies
and/or providers of professional development, and the authors had to deliver (what we saw as) hard (what we saw as) truths to clients. In the case of each of these studies, it appears that those who sponsor teachers to undertake professional development need to facilitate the creation of a time and place, a ‘geography and a history’ for new practices, understandings, attitudes and the like to emerge in the classroom. Naturally, the generation of such a geography and history may be beyond the control of PD providers.

In this instance, the authors (Buchanan & Harris, 2004) developed a suite of suggested approaches to maximise the adoption of such approaches and content in the classroom. This included the incorporation of the provision of more long-term and fewer ‘hit-and-run’ PD sessions, establishing goal-setting on the part of PD recipients, practice-based exercises to be carried out by teachers, and networking and other support provided online, both during and after PD sessions.

In a third instance (Buchanan, 2003), investigations centred on a cohort of Primary Education students who had elected to undertake a subject titled Asia Across the Curriculum, and asked them about their perceived readiness to teach about Asia, and the contribution their studies had made to this readiness. There was a range of ‘Asia literacy’ amongst the cohort members. Some had lived in, or travelled extensively in Asia. Some had migrated from Asia to Australia. Many of these people had ongoing contacts in Asia, which would allow them to update their understandings of the region, or at least one region or cultural group therein. Even among this group, the risk needs to be kept in mind of their essentialising all Asian cultures in the image of the one/s with which they are familiar. Others, however, had little experience with Asia and Asians. Among these people, some had had mainly negative experiences, and were untrusting of Asians. This was particularly disturbing in the context of students who had chosen, for whatever reason, to pursue an Asia-specific subject in their studies.

Of most concern in this study, however, was the almost universal attestation that the students’ undergraduate studies had contributed almost nothing to their knowledge and understandings of Asia, apart from that which was encountered in the elective course which they had undertaken at the time of the study. It was not so much that
the students were critical of the quality of any Asia content they had encountered, as that they could not identify any Asian content. This means that the majority of students – presumably all of those not undertaking this particular subject – were entering the teaching profession with little pedagogically contextual experience of Asia. In order to avoid too critical an approach to the course without corroborating evidence, however, it is worth keeping in mind the inability of some in-service teachers to recall elements of, or even their attendance at, professional development sessions (Buchanan & Harris, 2004). Nevertheless, if such experiences cannot readily be recalled, the pedagogical success thereof is seriously in question.

A further potentially disconcerting factor is that this subject was offered in ‘normal semester’ mode, and failed to attract sufficient students to operate. The subject attracted in excess of 60 students when offered as an intensive winter school, an attractive option to students who wish to ‘fast-track’ their qualifications, allowing them to enter the paid teaching profession earlier than they might do otherwise. This suggests that, despite the students’ assertions to the contrary, that for many of them, the choice of the subject may have been based on pragmatic reasons rather than on a desire to increase their knowledge and skills with regard to teaching about Asia. The above foci will be discussed further under the topic of curriculum development.

The findings generated by the above project have contributed to the shaping of a Graduate Certificate in Teaching Studies of Asia which I coordinate. Inbuilt into the Certificate course are assessment tasks designed to maximise the incorporation of studies of Asia into school curricula. One task requires students to devise a two-to-five year action plan for their schools, based on a critical awareness of the culture of the school and its readiness to embrace studies of Asia (a previous assessment task). Subsequent to this, students are required to implement and evaluate one aspect or facet of their action plan. It emerged during the assessment of these tasks, that there persists a resistance to implementing such plans, or a misunderstanding of what the task requires, in that in the second assignment, several students appeared to avoid addressing the task, and revisited their action plans, indicating how they intended to implement them.
1.5.3 Curriculum Development (including critiquing of resources)

A school’s or system’s curriculum is one of its most significant philosophical emblems or standards. It is comparable to a national constitution or a commercial or philanthropic mission statement. Gilbert (2003, p. 8) refers to curriculum as “a palimpsest, a text bearing the traces of past inscriptions and revisions”. Another metaphor which could define curriculum is that of the pentimento, the painting which has been painted over another, and which, with age - or when scratched – reveals its predecessor. Significantly, *pentimento* means ‘correction’. Such word-pictures serve to exemplify the social contestedness and complexity of curriculum, as well as its resistance to change. Brady and Kennedy (2003, p. 5) illustrate the elusive capacity of the term by offering a selection of definitions, without appearing to privilege any one of them. These definitions range from Marsh and Willis’ (1995) “interrelated set of plans and experiences that a student undertakes under the guidance of the school”, to Pinar et al.’s (1995) “what the older generation chooses to tell the younger generation”. This discussion highlights one of the issues which emerged in these studies, that is, the question of ownership and control of the curriculum.

The extent to which desirable curricular change is effected will depend largely on the capacity for teachers to understand curriculum, its contested nature and their opportunities and responsibilities in modifying its form and function. Teachers have all too often acquiesced to a pre-existing, monolithic perception of the status of curriculum, seeing it as somehow untainted by bias, something to which they are subservient, and which they are required to implement without question. Even if unquestioning implementation were possible, this overlooks the fact that each teacher will, deliberately or inadvertently, implement the curriculum in an idiosyncratic fashion. It is perhaps this failure on the part of teachers to recognise the idiosyncratic biases of curricular implementation in their own classroom which is as problematic as subservience on their part. Hargreaves (1994) and Hargreaves and Fullan (1992) among others, recognise the inextricable links between curricular development and teacher development, and in empowering teachers to consciously and deliberately mould the curriculum for the purposes and audiences they see it as best serving. Needless to say that this requires a sound understanding of these audiences and purposes in the context of teachers’ individual classrooms.
For the purposes of this discussion, the term ‘resources’ assumes a broad definition, including personnel and training, as well as textual resources. Change in curriculum is the product of various elements, including: teacher, student and community attitudes; availability and quality of inservice training to facilitate mooted changes; time, (perceived) need and opportunity to implement changes; (perceived) importance of the development; quality, suitability and availability of resources to support the development. The word ‘perceived’ in parentheses above, assumes a multiplicity of varying and at times competing perceptions on the part of various players.

In the course of this doctoral study, four ‘resources’ were critically evaluated. Two of these are of a textual nature: (Buchanan & Halse, 1997; Buchanan, 2000); Global Issues and Understanding Everyday Australian respectively. One is a professional development model (Buchanan & Khamis, 1999) and one is a suite of inservice courses (Buchanan & Harris, 2002; 2004). As discussed above, under ‘intercultural education’, one ‘resource’ which was evaluated was a visit by Australian teachers to a Vietnamese school, but this was investigated from the perceived benefits and disadvantages for the host school, not for the visiting students (Buchanan, 1999).

Global Issues, (Buchanan & Halse, 1997) a periodical hard-copy resource distributed to schools, met with approval at almost every level from the various informants. Its most favourable features were its immediacy, it being updated quarterly, its ‘reader-friendliness’ and its use of a variety of media, as quantified by a text analysis of the publication (Buchanan & Halse, 1997, p. 94) including an annotated ‘istography’\(^1\). One feature of the publication which received widespread praise was the cartoons, which took into account ‘locus of learning’, allowing readers to discover, discuss and debate multiple meanings inferred therefrom (Buchanan & Halse, 1997, p. 76). Regrettably, and despite strident recommendations in the report, “that [the funding body] continue to continue to fund the production and distribution of Global Issues” (Buchanan & Halse, 1997, p. 79), funding was terminated for this resource.

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\(^1\) by analogy with ‘bibliography’, ‘istos’ being Greek for ‘web’
A smaller scale research project was conducted into *Understanding Everyday Australian* (Buchanan, 2000), a text designed to familiarise ESL or EFL (English as a Second Language or English as a Foreign Language) students with colloquial Australian terms. This involved gaining responses from a variety of text users, both students and teachers, and from the author. The text appears to have overcome one major hurdle of such productions, in that most informants indicated that the language was not ‘stilted’ in nature. One suggestion put forward by the researcher was for the resource to make more use of learning-links to explain terms. For example, the term ‘a buzz’, as a colloquial term for a telephone call, was introduced without background information as to its onomatopoeic origins or its other possible referents. Other expressions, such as ‘my cup of tea’, were arguably generation-specific, more common amongst older than younger speakers.

As mentioned above, one issue which emerged in particular from the studies was the hiatus between participants’ praise of inservice offerings, and the relatively low uptake of related practices and content in the classroom. Participants’ responses in a questionnaire (Buchanan & Harris, 2004) were lavish in their approval of all aspects of the program, with responses to many statements generating means of 4 or above on a five-point Likert scale (1 = poor; 5 = excellent). Banks of statements on the questionnaire corresponded to the course’s content (such as applicability to the classroom and theory/practice balance), processes (variability, opportunities for reflection and discussion), resources used (clarity, presentation) facilitators (clarity in delivery, supportiveness) and transferability to the classroom of various concepts (diversity of cultures, power and wealth inequalities). The mean, range of individual means and number of items in each ‘bank’ of questions is tabulated on page 52, in Table 6:
Table 6 Means and ranges of responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bank of items theme</th>
<th>Overall responses mean</th>
<th>Range of individual question response means</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Content</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>4.0 - 4.4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Processes</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>3.7 - 4.0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resources</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>4.3 - 4.4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilitators</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>4.3 – 4.5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applicability to the classroom</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.4 – 3.9</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen from the table above, applicability to the classroom generated lower means than all other item banks, and considerably lower means than all others except ‘processes’. This is at odds with one of the questions in the ‘content’ bank, which sought information about applicability to the classroom, and generated a mean response of 4.3 (standard deviation (SD) 0.8). When pressed about application of specific elements of the course to the classroom, however, responses were lower. The lowest mean responses corresponded to the ability of the course to assist participants’ students understand efforts made to redress wealth imbalances (mean 3.4, SD 1.0) and ability to help students interact effectively with the world’s people (mean 3.5, SD 1.0). Still, in each of these responses, at least 50 percent of respondents indicated that the course contributed ‘significantly’ or ‘very significantly’ (as opposed to ‘not at all’, ‘a little’ or ‘moderately’) to their students’ understanding. At the time, these differences were put down to a number of possible factors: different wording of this Likert scale from the other scales; the more specific nature of these, as opposed to other questions on the questionnaire; the generic nature of the questionnaires, in the context of different course content (some sessions, for example, were primarily environmental in nature, and did not specifically focus on power and wealth imbalances).

The significance of these lower responses emerged as the project continued, however. Subsequent to the questionnaire data collection and analysis, two more sources of data...
collection were exploited: telephone interviews with participants who had indicated a willingness to take part \((n = 40)\); and case studies of four schools which had engaged in significant programs deriving from the PD sessions attended \((n = 4)\). In each case, it was difficult to locate sufficient participants for these purposes (from an original cohort of over 1,300). It needs to be kept in mind, though, that almost half \((602)\) of these respondents were students at the time of the PD sessions, and had either not moved into teaching in the meantime, or had moved house upon taking up teaching, and were no longer contactable. Nevertheless, it was common for respondents not to recall the PD session they had attended, or to have only very vague recollections when contacted by phone some 12 to 18 months later. Some were suspicious that the researcher was trying to sell them something!

1.5.4. Values and attitudes

Hill (1991, p. 4) describes values as follows: “those beliefs held by individuals to which they attach special priority or worth, and by which they tend to order their lives”. Attitudes, by contrast, are seen to be less enduring and more open to change (Marsh, 2001; Gilbert & Hoepper, 2001). The so-called Delors Report (International Commission on Education for the Twenty-First Century, 1996) recognises the importance of intercultural education, with “learning to live together” as one of its four pillars. Nevertheless, axiological (values-based) learning at times appears to be put into the ‘too-hard basket’ by comparison with epistemological (knowledge) and technological (skills-based) learning. The New South Wales HSIE (Human Society and its Environment) K-6 Syllabus (NSW Board of Studies, 1998) lists the values it promotes, with little further comment, other than to elaborate, by the use of dot-points, what each means (pp. 13, 14). Le Roux (2001) laments that issues regarding intercultural education are seen “as a contentious politically sensitive area best avoided” (p. 47). In the light of these comments, the K-6 HSIE Syllabus document is arguably more deserving of praise than criticism.

By its nature, axiological change is difficult to assess. It is easy for students to verbally espouse certain values and attitudes, while not embracing them in their lifestyle. The research in this portfolio may serve as an example of this. Schoolteachers in particular (Buchanan, 2002) indicated that they ‘had no problems’
personally with Asia or Asians, yet many were hesitant to embark on related studies. On the other hand, it emerged that at least some preservice teachers (Buchanan, 2003) harboured resentment towards Asians, and some of Asian background had been the recipients of antipathy on the part of other Australians, including their own peers.

While these findings may be disappointing, it is the exception rather than the rule to achieve consistency between values and actions (Hill, 1991). Moreover, it is conceded that substantive values (such as those pertaining to religion) are particularly problematic with regard to monitoring and assessment in the context of a professedly secular, and in-practice (largely) non-sectarian system such as the NSW Department of Education and Training. This is occurring at a time of intense questioning of hitherto ‘givens’ in terms of the West’s perception of Asia, (Kennedy, 2002) and angst related to new global political and other configurations.

This research raised more values-related questions than it did answers. Particularly in the study of preservice teachers (Buchanan, 2003), experiences and encounters with Asians emerged as a very significant factor in determining respondents’ values and attitudes to those of Asian background. Primary teachers weren’t as forthcoming with anecdotes of personal encounters with people of Asian background (Buchanan, 2002), but it may be that further research will shed more light on the existence, nature and effects of such encounters on values and attitudes.

1.6 Conclusions and Recommendations

“We accept the reality of the world with which we’re presented” (Christof, The Truman Show Weir, 1998) (http://www.un-official.com/Truman/TrumanShow.html, 23/12/02).

The above quote has assumed new significance for me during the course of this series of research projects. The projects have illuminated dual and parallel realities for me. An important component of equipping teachers to deliver intercultural education, that is helping students to ‘see the world through others’ eyes’ is to be prepared and willing to undertake this same practice this with the teachers concerned. In other
words, a valuable part of facilitating the uptake of intercultural education on the part of teachers, is a willingness of professional development providers to understand and accept (at least as a starting point) the views, experiences and attitudes of these teachers which may inhibit them from embracing intercultural studies. The knowledge emerging from this suite of studies is expressed as a set of recommendations, which constitute the professional knowledge deriving from the studies. As with all the recommendations enumerated herein, there is an assumption that a better understanding of the dynamics related to Australia’s regional and global contexts is a desideratum, that is, something to be desired.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recommendation one</th>
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<td>That providers of professional development continue and increase their efforts in understanding the constraints on, and opportunities for, teachers in their workplaces in terms of implementing curricular change.</td>
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Previous research has accounted for several of the factors which mediate the levels of uptake of PD-generated innovations by teachers (eg Hargreaves, 1994). These include the extent to which the innovations are seen as being relevant by teachers, and the ease and accessibility with which such innovations might be conducted in the classroom (including the availability of suitable resources), teachers’ (perceived) readiness to deliver the educational innovations. Beyond this, research conducted by Groundwater-Smith and White (1995) and Gerber (1995) specifically informed the model devised as part of this portfolio (Buchanan, 2002) to investigate the dynamics which contribute to the formation of the curriculum, both as it exists on paper, and as a conceptual framework in the minds of teachers. The model can also be used as a means to shed light on differences between the ‘hard copy’ and the ‘electronic version’ as it exists in the thinking of the teachers who implement it.
Recommendation two

That providers of professional development be given the means to understand better the dynamics of curriculum as it operates in schools, with a view to maximising the opportunities for transference of new content, approaches philosophies and the like into school practice.

Notwithstanding personal factors on the part of teachers, one critical determinant of the success of transference of professional development from the site of delivery to the classroom appears to be the dedication of time and space for the changes to take root in teachers’ minds and classrooms. Assuming the voice of teachers, Norberg (2000, p. 517) asks of new curricular implementations or impositions, “How important is this issue compared to others?” He adds that “visions and realities in terms of credits and space clash in the discussion of changing … education”. (p. 517). Naturally, this is only one variable in the success of PD uptake by teachers. It is significant, however, in that it appears to be a variable which is likely to extinguish even those initiatives which are otherwise seen by teachers as ‘good’. This underscores the need for closer collaboration between teacher employers/funding providers and PD providers in order to maximise uptake by teachers.

Recommendation three

That system directors (such as the Department of Education and Training, provide a space for the integration of new curricular approaches and content, so as to minimise teacher resentment towards and rejection of such changes.

One significant finding of these studies was the attrition rate with regard to classroom implementation of material and approaches encountered in professional development programs. The inclusion of means of measuring outcomes in schools would be a valuable component of professional development, and would inform providers as to the effectiveness and impact of their programs. Such processes could be fiscally factored into PD budget submissions.
Recommendation four

That professional development providers be given the means to incorporate into their programs means of measuring curricular, attitudinal and other desired change in the schools whose teachers attend PD programs.

Finally, with regard to studies of Asia in particular, it is important that the progress which has been achieved in recent years be allowed to continue and flourish. It is imperative that governments continue to provide funding to facilitate such developments.

Recommendation five

That government and other funding bodies allocate realistic amounts of funds to allow Australian students to have a broader and deeper understanding of the regional and global contexts in which Australia operates, and that such bodies monitor curricular and pedagogical outcomes of such provisions. This would include support for the inclusion of global and Asian studies in preservice teacher programs.

Beyond this, and in the longer term, it is imperative that teachers challenge themselves and their students to be critical in the way they ‘consume’ literature and the media, so as to maximise the likelihood of their interrogating stereotypes, being inclusive and multi-perspectived in their understanding of contentious issues.

The recommendations above are hardly new, but the studies of the past have underscored the need for these issues to be addressed by funding bodies and professional development providers alike.
### 1.7 Jointly authored papers: my contributions

The following table, Table 7, sets out my contributions to the jointly authored papers in this portfolio.

Table 7  Candidate’s contributions to jointly authored publications.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Publication</th>
<th>Candidate’s Contribution</th>
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<tr>
<td>Buchanan, J. and Khamis, M. (1999). Teacher renewal, peer observations and the pursuit of best practice. <em>Issues in Educational Research</em>, 9, 1, 1-14.</td>
<td>The original intervention project had been conducted prior to my candidature. I conceptualised the follow up project, carried out the literature review and conducted the data collection and analysis, the writing and submission for publication.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buchanan, J. and Harris, B. (2004). The world is your oyster, but where is the pearl? Getting the most out of global education. <em>Curriculum Perspectives</em>, 24, 1, pp. 1-11.</td>
<td>I conducted the qualitative data analysis, conducted and supervised the quantitative data entry and conceptual analysis, the writing and submission of the publication.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Unrefereed reports**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Publication</th>
<th>Candidate’s Contribution</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Buchanan, J. and Harris, B. (2002). The world at your feet: Introducing students and teachers to global education. In B. Harris, J. Buchanan and S-L Walker. <em>Evaluation report on global education project conducted by the Geography Teachers Association of Victoria</em>.</td>
<td>I conducted the qualitative data analysis, conducted and supervised the quantitative data entry and conceptual analysis, the writing and submission of the report.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The other papers, solely authored by me, are entirely my own conceptual work, apart from the usual contributions of my supervisors.

1.8 Contribution of this pathway of study to original knowledge, and implications for further study

The ensemble of the research projects and publications undertaken for this doctoral portfolio provides a broad sense of the some of the factors affecting the readiness of preservice and inservice teachers, institutions and students, to embrace intercultural studies such as those of global education and of Asia. Beyond this, it has shed light on the (potential) conceptual gaps between inservice providers’ and their client teachers’ readiness to translate inservice content and processes into classroom practice.

To a lesser extent, the studies have provided insights into the readiness of school students to undertake such studies. Few opportunities presented themselves for asking school-aged informants about the impact for them of studies of Asia or global education programs, and there was a paucity of other evidence of outcomes for students, such as work samples - this despite several requests for such information. Such experiences are likely to confirm a suspicion that the ripple effect of professional development is greatly dissipated by the time it reaches students. Further research is likely to confirm or refute this – or to do both.

Students growing up in a multicultural, or at least multiethnic Australia appear to accept same as normal. As such, there appears to be little resistance to embracing studies of Asia and the globe on their part. There is a tension here, in that an education in the processes of globalisation may produce students who are more, rather than less, accepting of these processes. On the other hand, it may be that the same educational processes whose intention is to help students understand the behaviours and motivations of different cultural groups in our region, may lead to greater resistance to an acceptance of some of the actions which further the processes of globalisation, and the motivations behind these processes. In any case, it will be an enhanced ability to see through others’ eyes that will lead to such empathy or antipathy. Such a paradox may be entirely appropriate, and it is to be hoped that an
effective global (or Asia) education will equip students to better deconstruct such processes and motives, and to communicate their opinions.

As mentioned earlier, it was conjectured that students from countries with a Confucian tradition may be inhibited partly by cultural norms in their own classrooms from asking questions of an Australian guest teacher, even one with a perpetually smiling face (Buchanan, 1999). On the other hand, it may be that this assumption does not withstand scrutiny. This would be worthy of further research, enabling researchers to look one step further into the psyche of students in cross-cultural teaching/learning situations. Linked to this, it was asserted above that notions of ‘saving face’ might be less specifically Asian than is sometimes assumed, and may be subsumed by broader pan-cultural notions of professional adequacy. It is conceded here that interesting and valuable findings could emerge from a study of the extent of the universality, as opposed to the ‘Asian-ness’ of such cultural notions.

Groundwater-Smith and White’s (1995) model of curriculum enquiry could assume an axiological dimension, in asking which (or whose) values should be privileged, and on what basis? A related question concerns the locus of learning for values, and invites further research into how students (and teachers) can be assisted in acquiring desirable (however defined) values and attitudes.

Linked to values education, one disconcerting comment which emerged from the research, and in other encounters I have with pre- and inservice teachers, is the notion that they have to treat contentious issues in an unbiased fashion. This presumes that they see themselves as capable of doing so, and as such, appears to be a naïve approach to the task. It is also arguably a dangerous one, if teachers are unproblematically seeing their treatment of topics with children as unbiased, especially given that teachers are the gatekeepers of materials they choose or reject for their students to study, and of the manner in which students read and interpret materials. My argument is that if teachers are incapable of deconstructing the assumptions of such materials (Gilbert, 2001), it is unreasonable to expect children to be able to do so, much less to learn the processes involved. This is arguably further compounded by preservice teachers’ inability to identify anything of value in terms of studies of Asia in their preservice studies (Buchanan, 2003).
As mentioned at the outset, this research sought to shed light on the players in facilitating or obstructing curricular change. Further research may elucidate the way in which these stakeholders play their parts. Who or what drives, encourages, permits, tolerates, discourages or proscribes the actions they undertake. These are also important questions for teachers to ask in determining (in both senses of the word – comprehending and shaping) the culture – that is, what they insist on, tolerate, forbid - in their classrooms, and why.

The development of a hybrid model for examination of curriculum (Buchanan, 2000) provides a basis for ongoing research into the nature of curriculum. This project was not primarily, however, a study of curriculum as artefact per se, but of curriculum as an indicator of the mindset of its writers, and of the readiness of a school or educational institution to incorporate studies of Asia or of global dynamics. As such, combined with the second of the models devised (Buchanan & Harris, 2004), these research instruments, in combination, may serve to further illuminate the cognitive and axiological processes which shape curriculum as it emerges on paper and in practice, and to identify matches and mismatches between the two. The use of such is likely to lend itself most particularly to a study of the dynamics of curriculum implementation in the context of ‘contentious’ issues such as studies of Asia and global education. Such studies are also likely to lead to the refinement of the models, and to examination of their potential for predicting and measuring the extent and nature of curricular change. This research has set the stage for me and for others to pursue some of these questions further.

With regard to extension of knowledge in my own professional arena, this suite of research projects has highlighted for me the potential for disparity between inservice provision and changed practices and content in the classroom. The experiences encountered in the production of this portfolio have moulded my approach to the Graduate Certificate in Teaching Studies of Asia. In particular these experiences have led me to strengthen and better understand the links between the content and process of the Certificate and learning/teaching outcomes in the classrooms of the participating teachers. Beyond this, I have been led to seek more valid, accurate and effective means of assessing such changes, not simply at a superficial level, that is, in
terms of what is being done, but more profoundly in terms of the learning that is being effected on the part of students - and teachers. This, along with my understanding of the primacy of learning over teaching has challenged and reshaped my philosophy of learning and teaching – something I would earlier have referred to only as my philosophy of teaching.

1.9 Epilogue: Of realities and representations

Returning to the Christof quote at the outset of the conclusions section (p. 48, this portfolio), it is refreshing to be reminded that the reality with which we’re presented is one of innumerable perceived realities, and one which is, despite the quote, in theory at least, open to interrogation. Teachers who assume, or who have thrust upon them, the pursuit of introducing studies of Asia or global education into school curricula and classrooms face the dual ‘realities’ of resistance to change per se, and resistance to the incorporation of these particular areas of study. This is perhaps to cast too dark a shroud over the quest, however, as there also exist the dual rewards of assisting students towards a critical understanding their and of Australia’s place in the duality of its regional and global realities, and of witnessing the cognitive, social, fiscal and other benefits attended by such an awareness, for individuals and for Australia.
1.10 References


Buchanan, J. and Harris, B (2004). The world is your oyster, but where is the pearl? Getting the most out of global education. *Curriculum Perspectives, 24*, 1, pp. 1-11


1.11 Glossary of Key Terms used in this Overarching Statement

The following are definitions for the purposes of clarifying an understanding of this doctorate. While the derive from a wide reading of relevant literatures, they attempt to offer a broad explanation of the terms as used herein, rather than drawing on one particular scholar’s view (See NSW BOS, 1998, pp. 84-96). Discussions deriving from particular readings of the literature emerge in the various chapters of the portfolio. The definitions hereunder are in no way intended to be ‘the final word’ on each entity.

Asia

The part of the landmass of Eurasia which is not Europe, i.e., that which is to the east of the Ural Mountains. This would notionally include Middle East nations such as Israel and Lebanon. A more common conception, particularly in Australia, includes nations to the east of Afghanistan, as well as the archipelagic areas of Indonesia and the Philippines and Japan. The south-eastern border of Asia is equally imprecise. The Indonesian province of Papua is commonly included in conceptions of Asia, while Papua New Guinea is not so construed.

Asia Education

Asia education refers to a development of the knowledge, understanding, values, attitudes and skills necessary for informed, empathic yet not uncritical interpretations of and productive dealings with peoples and nations of the Asian region, or, in the case of migrants, people of Asian backgrounds. A presumption of such a view is that it is offered to those of non-Asian backgrounds.

Axiology

Axiology pertains to the values-related dimension of learning and understanding. In this portfolio it is used to distinguish itself from cognitive/epistemological (fact and knowledge-based) and technological (skills-based) aspects of learning.
Constructivism

Constructivism concedes that there is no one interpretation of a given phenomenon, but that understanding or meaning is constructed or construed in the mind of the observer or learner. According to a constructivist view, meanings, understandings and interpretations are contested and open to debate.

Curriculum

Curriculum refers to the course of study offered by an institution. Socially, it is an important cultural artefact, subject to wider cultural and political influences, which can be interpreted as evidence of an institution’s priorities and arguably, its fears and blindspots. Curriculum can refer equally to documentation and practice, which are likely to demonstrate varying degrees of coincidence through time and locus.

Culture

Culture refers to the practices and attitudes which, to a greater or lesser degree, assume normalcy on the part of a particular group of people, sub-, supra- or national. It is by no means consistent across time and individuals. It impacts and is impacted by its corresponding attitudes and practices. It is prone to remain uninterrogated by members, and misinterpreted by outsiders.

Globalisation

Globalisation refers to the reality and perception that human activity increasingly has an impact on a world-wide or international scale, deriving largely from developments in technology and, to a lesser extent, increases in population. The effects attributed to globalisation are economic, environmental, political and cultural in nature.
Global Education

Global education attempts to equip students with the knowledge, understanding, values, attitudes and skills necessary for informed and accountable responses to the processes of globalisation. These include an understanding of the global impact of environmental, political and financial decisions and actions.

Hermeneutic Dialectic Circles

In an attempt to elicit a wide variety of views of a phenomenon under study, hermeneutic dialectic circles asks one informant to nominate a subsequent informant who is likely to have widely different views on the subject to his or her own. This process continues until it is evident to the researcher that the widest possible range of views has been canvassed.

Intercultural Education

The goal of intercultural education is an acquisition on the part of the student of knowledge, understandings, skills, attitudes and values which will enable a multi-perspectived and empathic yet not uncritical understanding of members of cultures different from one’s own, and of those cultures. As part of this process, intercultural education seeks to impart an understanding of the phenomenon of (a) culture, and of the ways in which it impacts those within and beyond its purview.

Multicultural education

This term refers to education provided in the context of a diversity of student ethnicity. While a variety of ethnicities and languages has been at times seen as a drawback educationally, it is increasingly being recognised that a variety of viewpoints enhances, rather than detracts from, educational richness.
Phenomenography

Phenomenography is a methodological approach which recognises that individuals understand elements (phenomena) in various ways, and that an understanding of interpretations of phenomena under study is as important as an understanding of the phenomena themselves. Phenomenography attempts to elicit informants’ differing understandings of the phenomenon or phenomena under study.

Triangulation

Triangulation refers to the process of confirming or countering data provided with information imparted by subsequent informants. It derives its metaphorical and etymological origins from trigonometry, in which the position of a certain point can be accurately determined by viewing it from a variety of perspectives.
This article marks the chronological starting point of my doctoral studies. It investigated the outcomes of a process of peer observation and review among teachers, designed to assist them in identifying, celebrating and adopting best practice in their teaching. It emerged that while the teachers unanimously recalled the peer observations and feedback as stimulating, therapeutic and inspiring, most were no longer involved in any systematic peer evaluation process two years after the program was initiated. This attrition rate in the take-up of professional development practices became a significant theme of this doctoral portfolio, one which I came to refer informally to as the “merchandise syndrome”. Audience members might be likely to embrace the merchandise associated with a movie or live show immediately upon having viewed the performance, and buying the batik shirt may seem like a good idea during the holiday in Bali, but in the ‘cold light of day’ some months afterwards, the purchase may seem out of context, or may simply have receded below one’s liminal consciousness level. Similarly, it appears that one feature of much professional development is that recipients enthuse about it at its conclusion, as evidenced by questionnaires completed thereupon. It is apparent that this is a necessary but not sufficient condition for absorbing into their teaching the processes, practices, content or other features of the inservice session. As the portfolio proceeded, it investigated and offered suggestions regarding other necessary conditions and structures which maximise the longitudinal uptake of new processes or content, as well as the development of models to better understand the nature of curriculum and the dynamics of curricular change. This particular study investigated best practice in its generic form; subsequent studies applied some of the findings from this first study to the specific contexts of studies of Asia and of globalisation in the Australian context. While the original peer observation régime was overseen by my colleague Dr Khamis, I designed and undertook the review process as outlined in this paper.

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3 Each frontispiece verbally illustrates the corresponding paper, and outlines its significance to the portfolio.
Teacher renewal, peer observations
and the pursuit of best practice

John Buchanan & Mon Khamis
University of Western Sydney, Nepean

The dynamics of teacher change have been extensively documented in recent literature (eg Hargreaves, 1994; Joyce & Showers, 1988; Huberman, 1995). This paper describes some of the processes of change identified during a research project undertaken in order to identify and maximise best practice in teaching. Of the models identifying best practice existent within the literature, one was used to develop an instrument for describing excellence as it emerged in the pedagogy of 25 teachers at four western Sydney schools. Teachers observed one another, and observers provided their colleagues with feedback on the strengths of the teaching they had witnessed. As part of an evaluation of the project, teachers were invited to provide feedback on the impact of the peer observations. Two years after the observations, teachers at one of the participating schools were interviewed, in order to ascertain the permanence of the processes adopted during the study, and the teachers’ attitudes to it in retrospect.
Introduction

While teaching, like many professions, has recently come under increasing public scrutiny (eg. Seddon, 1997), it remains a largely isolated profession, sheltered from scrutiny by others. The importance of teacher collaboration is widely documented (eg Hargreaves, 1994; Joyce & Showers, 1988; Nias, 1988) in enhancing personal and professional development, through processes such as offering moral support, sharing ideas and forming lobby groups.

In 1996, the (then) NSW Department of School Education, funded a project aiming to identify excellence in teaching. Teachers observed one another and provided feedback on successful approaches and practices. This report traces the project’s development, documenting some of the dynamics which led to changes in perceptions of and approaches to teaching among the participants.

The project did not seek to define a generic optimal practice (see McGaw, Banks & Piper, 1991). According to Sternberg and Horvath (1995, p.9), “there is no well-defined standard that all experts met and that no nonexperts meet”. Actual elements of best practice are not the central focus of this paper, and are discussed only briefly.

Reports from Literature

Teacher renewal

Change is a slow process, often met with strident resistance (Louden & Wallace, 1996; Boston, 1997; Eltis & Mowbray, 1997). Certain aspects of professional development have exacerbated resistance to change. Some inservice has been ‘deficit’ in philosophy, ‘remediating’ teacher shortcomings (Hargreaves, 1994) rather than recognising their expertise as the school’s greatest resource (Ingvarson & Chadbourne, 1994). Moreover, the importance of the teacher as learner has consistently been underestimated (Sarason, 1990; Smylie, 1995), overlooking teachers’ preexisting pedagogical constructs. Compounding this, initiatives for change are often compromised and frustrated by political, economic and other constraints (NSW DE, 1998).
Developing best practice through peer interaction

The centrality of the teacher in focused, purposeful and effective, educational reform can scarcely be overstated (eg West, 1998; Redman & Mackay, 1994; NSW DE, 1998). The Australian Effective Schools Project (McGaw, Piper, Banks 7 Evans, 1992) widely distributed questionnaires to Australian schools. More than two thirds of responses nominated teachers as the sine qua non of effective education (Banks, 1992). Smylie (1995, p.94) underscored the significance of teacher learning for student learning, contending that

If we wish to improve schools as places for teachers to learn, we need to be able to identify those workplace conditions that promote or constrain learning. Furthermore, we need to specify which teacher learning outcomes we wish to promote.

Owing to professional busyness and demands, teachers often have little time and energy to reflect on their own (Schön, 1983) or others’ practice. It appears, too, that the prevailing culture among teachers tends to extinguish opportunities for talk about pedagogy. West (1998) observed a paucity of teacher talk about teaching and learning styles, amid a sea of conversations about school structures, students, policies, resources, management etc. This represents a lost opportunity, in West’s opinion, for collegial support and development. In her experiences with professional interaction among teachers, Nias, (1998, p. 1261) describes praise and recognition of others as “the interpersonal attribute both most valued and most noticeable for its absence”. Nias (1998, p.1269) also refers to collaborative situations which enable teachers to assist one another’s daily work, confirm yet extend one another’s basic assumptions about education and its purposes, widen one another’s professional horizons and responsibilities, provide one another an experience of independence within interdependence, and offer one another attention, esteem and affection.

Peer observations are one way of recognising the expertise which teachers bring to their profession. Such an approach is of benefit to novice and experienced teachers
alike (Joyce and Showers, 1988). As the NSW Department of Education and Training (1998, p.32) asserts, effective models of professional development aim to support the learning of beginning teachers by creating settings in which novices enter professional practice by working with expert practitioners, allowing these expert practitioners to renew their own professional development and assume new roles as mentors, faculty adjuncts and teacher leaders.

Putting teachers in front of each other in the execution of their teaching leads to better identification of their colleagues’, and by extension, their own strengths. Observing and being observed is likely to lead teachers to become ‘students of their own teaching’ (Henderson, 1992), by interrogating their own teaching practices, in search of further improvement. Joyce and Showers (1988, pp.119, 120) noted that collaboration between teachers led to the adoption of new approaches more frequently, more appropriately, more permanently, and with greater understanding. Such teachers were also more likely to pass on their new-found learning to their students.

**Identifying best practice**

The concept of best practice is an elusive one. Studies of success in teaching appear to centre on teacher qualities, skills and behaviours, as well as the establishment of optimal classroom conditions for learning. Favourable teacher qualities include fairness, open mindedness, confidence, enthusiasm, a positive attitude and sense of humour (Batten, 1993, Khamis, 1993, Ogden, 1994). Desirable behaviours and skills include efficiency and diligence, the ability to elicit inductive reasoning in students and to vary approaches to learning, extensive content knowledge, clear communication, clarity of goals, knowledge of students, observation and reflective analysis (Lang, 1991, Dawson, 1994, Jensen & Templeton, 1993, Ziechner & Liston, 1996; Hopkins, Ainscow & West, 1994; Sternberg & Horvath, 1995). Conditions needed for effective learning include the establishment of an environment conducive to risk-taking (education being “an adventure of the self” (Goodlad, 1997, p. 155)), the establishment of authentic relationships with students, the maintenance of appropriate boundaries and expectations, a range of teaching approaches, self
evaluation of teaching, discussions with other teachers, the unconditional valuing of students' backgrounds, and purposeful collaboration (NSW DSE, 1994; Batten; 1993; Khamis, 1993; West, 1998).

Some researchers have developed schemata based on teacher attributes. For the purpose of brevity, the structures of each schema will not be explored here. Such schemata include integrated curricula, thoughtful instruction, active learning, reflective transfer and authentic assessment (Fogarty, 1995), knowledge, analysis, action and reflection (Maryland State Department of Education, 1994), instructional modes, strategies, methods and skills (Lang, 1991) and planning and preparation, the classroom environment, instruction, and professional responsibilities (Danielson, 1996). These intersect with themes common to most or all of the domains, including equity, cultural sensitivity, high expectations and appropriate use of technology. In the Australian context, Louden and Wallace (1996, p. x) refer to a model which groups teacher attributes under five headings: using and developing professional knowledge and values; communicating, interacting and working with students and others; planning and managing the teaching and learning process; monitoring and assessing student progress and learning outcomes, and; reflecting, evaluating and planning for continuous improvement. The attributes nominated by Evans (1992) include teaching and learning, interaction, and personal characteristics. As can be seen from the preceding paragraphs, many of these models are characterised more by commonality than by divergence, with depth of knowledge, positive interrelationships and teacher reflection, among others, being common to many.

In a schema similar to that of McGaw et al (1992), Khamis (1993) discerned 13 attributes of effective teachers, categorised under the headings of: personal qualities; development of the learning environment; teacher expectations, and catering for individuals. These are discussed in further detail below.

**Conduct of the study**

Twenty-five teachers from four schools in Sydney’s west participated in this study. Schools and teachers volunteered to take part. The schools are all in relatively low socio-economic suburbs, including some of Sydney’s most disadvantaged areas.
Each school caters for students from a range of ethnic and language backgrounds. All of the participating teachers agreed to be observed by a colleague on four occasions. The lessons covered a range of subjects, across a variety of contexts.

Following each observation, a conversation took place between the observed and observing teachers, focusing on the observed strengths of the previous lesson. In an effort to avoid masking diversity of responses, no interview schedule was used, but to give the responses some ‘structure’, interview transcripts were codified according to a framework developed from Khamis (1993). These are: Personal attributes (positive attitude to pupils, fair dealings with pupils, respect for pupils, enthusiasm); Learning environment (praise of pupils’ work, structured lesson plans, variety in teaching strategies, effective management, maximising learning); Teacher expectations (high expectations of pupils, awareness of aims of lessons, long term goals), and: Catering for individuals (awareness of personal development, catering for individual needs).

Lesson content was not under investigation here. While such matters are important (Hopkins, Ainscow & West, 1994), it was presumed that teachers were working within the constraints of curriculum guidelines.

Subsequent to the data collection, the process was evaluated (Sargent, 1996). Teachers were asked to reflect on their participation in the program, and on its impact on their teaching. This evaluation employed a questionnaire containing open ended and Likert scale questions, in five conceptual groups: previous reflective practices; program-related experiences; opinions on the value of the program; outcomes and; resulting colleague relationships. Two years after the initial observations, three of the four teachers remaining at one of the schools were interviewed, giving them opportunity to express their reflections on the process, and the extent to which the practice was being maintained.
Findings

Observations and interviews

In all, 468 comments were codified from the interview transcripts. The table below illustrates the dispersion of these.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criterion group</th>
<th>No of entries</th>
<th>% of total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal attributes</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning environment</td>
<td>292</td>
<td>62.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher expectations</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(attention to) Individuals</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>17.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen from the above data, the learning environment constitutes the most important aspect of teaching according to participants’ responses. The next most important component was considered to be attention to individuals. This is not surprising, as these are more ‘visible’ characteristics than personal attributes and teacher expectations, and are therefore more evident in classroom observations. A brief outline of the four criterion groupings follows, illustrated, where appropriate, with teacher comments.

In terms of personal attributes, the most commonly observed quality was the unconditional acceptance of student responses and contributions. One teacher commented that as a result, her students “are never worried about being made fools of”. Beyond this, students’ contributions are a valuable resource in their own right. One teacher observed “I think it’s great to take their ideas on board and run with them”. This is true in matters of management as well as academic contributions, particularly since children’s sense of fairness is so acute. “It’s important to let them know we’re not infallible either” said one teacher, reflecting on her admission to a child that she had wrongly accused her. Similarly, acknowledgement of students’
backgrounds is useful both in boosting confidence and enriching learning opportunities. Teachers drew on their students’ ethnicity, parents’ professional backgrounds, and, in one instance, a student’s predilection for reading the newspaper.

Emphasising children’s worth and building their self confidence enhances the learning environment, and, in particular, the creation of an academically risk-friendly milieu. “I have really been trying to improve their self esteem and self confidence … because I really want to start taking risks” commented one teacher. While perhaps not as infectious as criticism, praise will tend to be ‘caught’ by the students, as they model teacher behaviour. Praise of students was one of the most commonly noted teacher behaviours during the observations.

Structured, logically sequenced and manageable steps in lessons were found to make learning more effective, as was variety in teaching strategies. Approaching the one concept from a number of angles served as a reinforcement, while catering for students’ differing preferred learning styles, “providing not only variety to the lesson, but excitement as well” observed one teacher. These approaches assist in maximising the students’ learning. The main themes which emerged in terms of enhancing learning were those of student ownership of, and responsibility for, learning. Teachers also observed that their peers were aware of constraints such as interruptions, the weather, time of day etc, and the effects these had on students’ capacity to learn; the observers reported that their peers demonstrated a capacity to respond sensitively and appropriately to the resulting cognitive ebb and flow.

Classroom management was seen to be essential for safety, order, and effective learning. In the experience of these teachers, effective management consisted more in broadening, rather than constricting student choice and responsibility. This includes according students responsibility for devising and solving research questions, as well as classroom set-up and procedures. Nevertheless, several teachers commented that expectations, once set or negotiated, need to be consistently reinforced, for the sake of fairness and to maximise compliance. Discipline problems were rare in the observed classrooms. This may be partly due to the presence of another teacher in the room, but it is clear that not all the children are consistently compliant. One teacher remarked on a child who kicks holes in the walls at home, whereas, “he’d never do
that in class”. She attributed the children’s good behaviour to the positive reinforcement they receive at school.

Much of the above assumes high teacher expectations of students. Teachers spoke of students ‘growing into’ the responsibilities and expectations put on them. “In the long run, they become more accountable and use better strategies for their learning” commented one teacher. Another teacher illustrated long-term outcome in saying “if we’re going to have good communicators in the future, it needs to start from a very young age”. Naturally, while expectations need to be high, they also need to be realistic. This necessitates an awareness of personal development, at a corporate and an individual level. Teachers observed influencing factors such as ethnic background, gender and learning preference.

In summary, the findings seem to underscore the classroom as a ‘learning community’ (Kemmis, 1994), one which is friendly to learners and learning.

**Evaluation**

In response to the evaluation questionnaire, most respondents indicated that although reflective practice was not new to them, the program gave them new opportunities for interrogating their teaching. Many agreed strongly with the statement, “Articulating my reflections to a colleague was beneficial to my understanding what really happens in the classroom”.

On the other hand, there seem to have been fewer ongoing effects. The statement “I am more likely to collaborate with colleagues and share ideas now” met with only moderate agreement. One respondent felt that there was insufficient time for profound ‘second order’ changes to occur. The program does appear to have facilitated changes in classroom practice, however. Respondents spoke of being armed with more strategies, and with “activities that relate to my understanding of how children learn”. Another teacher said that the program “allowed me to explore my philosophical beliefs/values and also the theories I include in my teaching:. Other observations included the positive nature of the observations gave at least one teacher a greater freedom and confidence to “speak positively about my teaching practices”.

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Other respondents spoke of the resulting increase in variety of teaching strategies, and more informed decisions leading to their choice, as well as reflection on their own practice.

*Reflections two years on...*

One of the three teachers interviewed two years after the initial observations was still involved in a team of observers. She indicated that about one third of the staff were so involved. Peer observations and discussions take place on a voluntary basis. The school sets aside ‘mentor time’, for teachers who wish to reflect on their teaching in this way. “It’s something you don’t often do if it’s left in your own time” said one of the teachers.

As the teachers reflected on the process of the peer observations (past and present), a number of outcomes emerged. These impacted on the relationships among staff, as well as between staff and students. The observations were beneficial for host and guest teachers alike. One teacher recalled, “reflecting back on your own teaching even when somebody’s observing you - you learn so much”. Another said, “we were talking about the different ways teachers were doing things in the classrooms … it helped us, too”. The process stimulated discussion among teachers, beyond the structured post-observation conversations. One teacher recalled, “There was one infants teacher I hadn't spoken to a lot before [the observations]. I got to chatting to her after school about lesson plans etc”.

The observations gave teachers access to new strategies, content material and resources. In addition, some teachers witnessed the successful use of strategies that they themselves would previously have rejected. The observations also allowed the teachers to view a range of school grades, which helped them place their own students’ personal development in context. The teachers found themselves using a wider range of strategies after the observations.

The observations drew teachers closer together through an enhanced sense of empathy: “You understand better what they’re going through in the classroom, you can empathise more”. The process also facilitated a sense of solidarity among the
teachers. Said one, “People you observed, you trusted anyway, but the bond was made a little bit stronger”, suggesting the importance of a pre-existing bond of trust. One of the teachers observed, “I felt comfortable with the other [observing] teachers, because we get along very well”. In short, the observations served to dispel some of the sense of isolation experienced by teachers. According to one, “They’re reflecting on their own teaching … they’re not teaching on their own”.

Teachers recalled that the observations served as a motivation to ensure thorough preparation prior to lessons. “When someone is observing you, you become more aware of your own teaching practices, and it encourages that accountability factor” said one. This not only contributed to high levels of teacher confidence, but freed the teacher to ‘get beyond [classroom] management’ and concentrate on issues such as clarification of outcomes with students. One of the teachers reported being more self conscious than would otherwise be the case. Of others, he said, “at first some were a bit apprehensive”, but added that they felt more relaxed after several minutes into the lesson.

An important facet of the post-observation discussions was that they were limited to observations of the lessons’ strengths. “Often you don’t get many positive comments. You always find you’re your own harshest critic, too” said one teacher. Moreover, some teachers found themselves being praised for elements of their teaching they had taken for granted. Apart from boosting their self esteem, such comments allowed these teachers to employ these strategies more deliberately. Concentrating on positives flowed over into teachers’ previously subliminal virtues of their students. By the same token, post-lesson discussions gave teachers scope to discuss what they would do differently in lessons, a valuable process, according to those interviewed.

The realistic context was also valued by the teachers. “It’s happening in the real classroom”, said one teacher, “as opposed to some videos, where you have ‘perfect students’ - that just ends up alienating you”. It was more beneficial and practical than much of the other inservice material they had encountered. Comments included “some [inservices] you walk out of half asleep”, and “you learn more in 30 minutes observing somebody else’s lesson than you would in three full days of an inservice”.

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The presence of observers had a positive effect on the students. This was partly attributed to an already positive rapport between staff and students. Having an observer made the students feel important. It was explained to them that the process was to help them, by helping to find out more about how we learn.

The outcomes were well illustrated by one teacher, who said,

"It makes you change your strategies. It makes you reflect, instead of just going home thinking it’s fine, but you become more conscious of what you do and how you’d change it - what are the benefits and what are the negatives, and building up on them and working out what’s best for your classroom."

The one teacher still engaged in peer observations is part of a team of several teachers. She outlined some of the benefits for her. The observations enable her to “Sit down and allowed time in our programming format to discuss things we’ve done”. The team of which she is a part consists of various grade teachers, which, “Helps you to better understand what other teachers are doing with their classes, and what to expect of each age group. It also helps you to be more consistent as a staff”. Overall, the peer observations appear to have drawn from a combination of the commonality and solidarity among staff, as well as their varying viewpoints and differing strengths.

In the light of these positive comments, it would seem regrettable that the practice of peer observations of this kind was not more widespread. Time was the major constraining factor in implementing the observations. At the school, release time is consumed by other teaching and administrative responsibilities. A particular disappointment for these teachers was that older and more experienced teachers were cynical and hesitant to become involved. The teachers suggested that this may be due to fear of, for example, not using computers. But “older teachers can help the young ones, and if they’re not willing to get involved, they’re shutting the door on something”. While the observations are seen as having particular benefit for neophyte teachers, all can benefit. “The best learning is what goes on here”, said one teacher, indicating the classroom in which we were sitting. One teacher underscored the abundance of expertise in the school, observing, “There are teachers in the school,
and you walk past their room and everybody’s perfect and you see this great work they’re putting in. I’d like to see how they do that”. He added that one teacher “had fantastic art work. I’d just like to see how she organises it, but she wouldn’t have anyone in the class”. Another problem is the high teacher attrition rate through transfers. Nonetheless, other schools and students stand to benefit from the experience thus gained.

Conclusions and implications for further research

Teaching need not be the psychologically lonely profession that it often is. Without sufficient time for reflection, teachers may regress to a minimalism of practice and attitude. The model outlined in this study is a relatively cost effective form of teacher inservice, requiring little equipment and virtually no outside expertise. It does involve teachers being present in each other’s classes, necessitating an increase in release from face to face teaching, with its inherent costs.

Such collaboration is a public declaration of the teachers’ membership of the learning community. Another positive aspect of this method of inservice is its grass-roots nature. Teacher ownership of change is crucial (Hargreaves, 1994; Joyce & Showers, 1988). The process undertaken in this research project gave teachers not only a sense of ownership, but empowered them with a sense of agency, as they became facilitators of change in their colleagues’ and in their own teaching. This is particularly important in an age where teachers are being seen as technicians, employed to implement the educational visions of others (FitzGerald, 1997; NSW DE, 1998). An approach such as this enables teachers to situate their new-found knowledge and experiences in the context of their classrooms (Smylie, 1995).

This approach has other benefits. It is ‘divergent’ in that it does not lead to a predetermined set of outcomes (Hattam & Smyth, 1995). It is also communal and reciprocal. There is scope for the observer to later be the observed. It does not employ the ‘imported expert’. It focuses on classroom procedures, which may otherwise remain a hidden part of the school improvement equation.
Some teachers may feel more threatened by the presence of a colleague than that of a stranger, but the colleague-observer has no power of hiring and firing (Billing, 1994). McRae (1994, p.154) speaks of those who seek to “control, if not punish, the teaching profession for its alleged failures and who see appraisal as a means to do so”. Moreover, the task of those observing was to report only on elements of excellence in teaching. Observed teachers reported being motivated to perform their best. While the extent of change among teachers appears to be incremental, it may be that some of these changes have been incorporated subliminally into their teaching.

This is not to dismiss other forms of in-service. While much professional development has disregarded the classroom as the epicentre of educational exchange, there is a risk that a process such as this, in the absence of other sources of professional development, could create a self-contained school unit, overlooking educational theory, and its potential for interface with classroom practice. Nevertheless, as stated earlier, teacher renewal is a central precondition for school renewal. “It is good teachers who make good schools, much more than the reverse” (Ingvarson, 1997, p.32).

The need for and benefits of such an approach, however, are clear. Nias (1998, pp. 1258, 1259) describes the teachers with whom she worked: “Anxious, exhausted and guilty, they felt themselves becoming narrow-minded and petty, self-conceptions which compounded their lack of technical self-confidence”. On the other hand, Measor and Sikes (1992, p. 210) affirm the value in uncovering “evidence from the lives of others that we are not alone in our difficulties, pains, pleasures and needs”, through working with sympathetic others.

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References


CHAPTER 3

In-country experiences have been developed on the understanding that they form an important contributor to the increase in knowledge and understanding of Asia on the part of Australian teachers. Such experiences are costly, financially and in other terms. This paper examines one aspect of the ‘ecology’ of teacher professional development. I was a participant observer in a broader project (Halse, 1999), which investigated the contribution of in-country study and teaching tours to participating teachers’ attitudes to Asia and teaching practice. The discrete research paper discussed in the following chapter explored the pedagogical outcomes for students in the host school. For the majority of students surveyed, the outcomes of the teachers’ visit were overwhelmingly positive. For a minority of the school students, however, - those whose English was the least advanced - it emerged that what was intended as a pedagogical bridge, instead assumed some characteristics of a barrier, in that the cognitive demands of the lessons with the visiting teachers, none of whom spoke any Vietnamese, served as a frustration for some students. Interestingly, this mirrored the findings of the Halse (1999) study in which I was involved. While for most of the Australian teachers, the in-country experience was a vastly enriching one, for a small minority of participants, the intercultural dissonance was too great to afford learning which led to a more empathic understanding of the host culture.

Suffice it to say that these experiences demonstrated a vast potential to contribute to both the cognitive and affective development of the Vietnamese students’ understanding of English language and Australian culture. Nevertheless, in terms of the conceptual development of this portfolio, the study revealed imperfections with regard to tailoring the program to meet the needs of the in-country ‘client-schoolstudents’. Indeed, it appears that this is one aspect of such programs which has been overlooked in what has been an arguably Australian-centric consideration of the ecology of such programs.

ARE YOU BEING SERVED? THE IMPACT OF AUSTRALIAN TEACHERS VISITING A SECONDARY SCHOOL IN VIETNAM: A CASE STUDY

Introduction

In recent years, numbers of Australian teachers and trainee teachers have undertaken practicums, courses of study and teaching positions in various countries of Asia. Several studies have reported on the effects and effectiveness of such experiences (e.g., Fry, 1995; Baumgart & Elliott, 1996). No doubt, such experiences also have an effect on the schools in which these Australian teachers work, both in teaching practice and in helping to shape the thinking of students and teachers. This report aims to shed some light on the nature and extent of these effects. The program described in this report is in its fourth year of operation. The teachers work with students in year ten. These students have been learning English for five years.

Methodology

A review of the literature was conducted, in order to contextualise and inform the study. One of the aims of this review was to shed light on some of the circumstances which have influenced education in Vietnam.

The researcher in this case was a participant/observer, taking part in a two-week teaching session in Hanoi. Impressions were gained from informal conversations with other Australian teachers. These insights brought to light some of the conditions at the school which differed most markedly from those in Australia.

The principal sources of data consisted of interviews with the deputy principal and another staff at the host school in Hanoi. Where permission was given, interviews were recorded on audio tape, and in the case of all interviews, extensive field notes were taken. In addition, a questionnaire was administered to the students (n = 81) of...
four classes. The aim of these interviews and questionnaires was to elicit information on stakeholders’ opinions of the impact on the school’s teaching practice of the visit by Australian teachers.

Field notes, transcripts of interviews and questionnaire responses were analysed and codified in an attempt to identify scatter and cluster in responses and impressions. Views of teachers and students were triangulated, and where possible, views of Australian visiting teachers were incorporated.

The investigation was conducted under several constraints. Time and opportunities to interview teachers and administer the student questionnaire were limited. Language difficulties may have compromised the students’ ability to articulate answers, even though most of them appear to have understood the questions. It may be, too, that the students are inexperienced in providing feedback of a critical nature to their teachers, and that cultural considerations constrain them from being frank. While the English teachers demonstrated a high level of understanding and articulation in English, it may be that, given differences between Vietnamese and Australian cultures, the interviews posed questions ‘askew’, soliciting information which is meaningless or irrelevant in the Vietnamese context.

**Findings from the literature**

Vietnam’s history has been characterised by alternative intervention by and liberation from other nations such as China, France, Japan, and the United States and its allies. As a result, Vietnam has tended to define itself in terms of comparisons with other nations (Jamieson, 1993).

One of the legacies of colonial rule was that in 1945, Vietnam enjoyed a literacy rate of less than five percent (UNESCO, 1991). At the end of the north/south ‘civil war’, “many schools had to work in 3, sometimes even 4 shifts a day...In the cities each class had an average of 60 pupils or more...There was a great shortage of textbooks and stationery” (UNESCO, 1991: 9).
Far from being characterised by consensus, Vietnamese society has been marked by debate over issues such as arranged versus free choice in marriage, the role of women, adoption of Latin versus Chinese script for the national language etc. Moreover, it needs to be kept in mind that considerable differences in outlook are evident in the north/south (Sheehan, 1992), urban/rural and coastal/highland, among other dichotomies.

**The Setting**

The school chosen for the research caters for children gifted in studies of language. Students must sit an exam to enter the school, and the school’s internal exams are demanding. Most students are fee-paying, while about 25% of the school’s clientele are on scholarships. In terms of funding, about half originates from the government, while the other half derives from student fees. The school with 2,500 students, operates on a site which would be considered cramped in Australia. The students’ bicycles occupy a large proportion of the playground. The school is located some eight kilometres to the west of central Hanoi, in the midst of a housing estate currently under development. Classrooms are spartan, with little incidental print around the walls, none of it in English. A teacher at another school said that posters tend to distract the students from what the teacher has to say. Posters and other commercially produced materials (whether for the purposes of advertising products or specifically for education) seem to be less prevalent in Vietnam than in Australia. The school has access to a multi-media room on an adjoining university campus, and it is not uncommon for the students to have a computer at home.

The teachers of English at this school for gifted students, appear to be highly competent in the language. Still, only three of the 35 teachers have travelled internationally. The two teachers interviewed are among those who have been to Australia, and highly valued the experience and the contribution it has made to their understanding of English. The teachers conceded that they rarely speak English to each other, and to stave off ‘rustiness’ in the language, they read books in English, and listen to English language radio and television programs, including those by the

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4 Of the 35 teachers, only ten are employed on a full-time basis.
BBC (British Broadcasting Commission) and VOA (Voice of America), CNN (Cable News Network) and the Australian Broadcasting Corporation. The teachers make less use of English language newspapers available in Vietnam. It would stand to reason, therefore, that copies of such papers are not used in the classroom as teaching resources, perhaps because of curricular constraints.

The visiting teachers have free rein in terms of lesson content; staff at the school have not requested that the teachers follow the Vietnamese curriculum. Reasons for this are examined below. Typically, the Australian teachers spend at least part of their time informing the students about Australia. Some use the time to investigate matters related to their teaching specialty, such as art, history etc.

Language classes in Vietnam are large compared to those in Australia, typically comprising about 50 students. At the participating school, however, foreign language classes have been divided into two groups of 25, to allow for more spoken work.

Communication over a distance such as that between Australia and Vietnam is problematic. The school does not appear to have access to e-mail. Our arrival coincided with examinations in the Vietnamese schools; as a consequence, the onset of teaching was postponed for several days. The staff praised the Australian teachers’ flexibility and willingness to accommodate the needs of the local schools. Language lessons typically last up to two hours.

**Researcher observations**

Mastery of spoken English appears to present greater problems for native speakers of Vietnamese than for those of many other languages. While many students are quite skilled in reading and writing English, pronunciation causes significant problems. When reading aloud or speaking in English, Vietnamese native speakers will at times omit some sounds from clusters of consonants, and at other times will insert consonants gratuitously. While Vietnamese uses Latin script, the letter-sound correspondence is by no means equivalent to that most commonly seen in English.
The letter ‘d’, for example (when it is not written with a line through it) is pronounced like a ‘z’, as is the letter ‘g’ before a ‘soft’ vowel.

While most consonantal sounds of English also appear in Vietnamese, English combinations thereof are likely to cause problems, just as the sound produced by the letters ‘ng’ (represented phonetically by the agma, [ŋ]) is common as a terminal or medial sound in English words (e.g. ‘singing’), English native speakers experience some awkwardness in pronouncing this when it is the first sound in a word, since it does not appear in this position in English words. When the letter ‘l’ appears as a final sound in an English word, it is typically pronounced as an ‘r’ by Vietnamese native speakers. Conversely, the sound ‘r’ in the middle of a word, is often pronounced like an ‘l’, leading to utterances sounding like ‘velly beautifoor’. This gap between the competence in the written and verbal competencies is compounded by the typical teaching methodology in Vietnamese schools which privileges the written over the spoken word. Group work is uncommon. From the students’ unfamiliarity with expressions such as ‘copy this down’, ‘please repeat’ etc, it appears that such instructions are given to the students in Vietnamese by their regular teachers.

The letter/sound relationship in Vietnamese is, with the exception of a few newly introduced words, relatively consistent, leading Vietnamese speakers to surmise a similar consistency in English, leading to the pronunciation of a word such as ‘future’ sounding like ‘footer’. Naturally enough, Vietnamese speakers are tempted to impute the meaning-laden tones of their own language onto English, all the while failing to recognise the different ways in which tone contributes to meaning in English, such as in terminating questions, or in the way in which one calls another person’s name whether in anger, joy, surprise etc.

A particular difficulty for many teachers of English in Vietnam is that, following changes in international alliances, English has replaced Russian as the most commonly learned language. As a result, many teachers have been required to retrain in mid- or late career, and are not confident in their use of English. International

5 (except in the south, where the letter sounds more like an English ‘y’)}
travel for Vietnamese citizens is problematic, and it the exception rather than the rule for teachers of English to have visited an English-speaking country.

In informal conversations, Australian teachers often reported that Vietnamese speakers with a sound understanding of English would still have difficulties making sense of certain questions, or perhaps the purpose in asking them. Classroom questions, on the other hand, seemed to be more widely understood. It may be that these questions were more thoroughly scaffolded by context, or that a certain universality exists in classroom questioning techniques, which operate in independence of their cultural milieu. Further research may shed light on this.

Findings and Discussion

Responses of the host students and teachers to the visit by the Australian teachers was overwhelmingly positive. “We have established a good relationship between the Australian teachers and the Vietnamese students, and have a good friendship and mutual understanding” said the deputy principal. The staff described the Australian teachers as well organised, diligent and successful in their teaching.

Teachers’ viewpoints

While the Australian teachers’ agenda diverts the Vietnamese students from their own exam-driven curricular objectives, the practice gained in speaking English more than compensates for this, according to staff members, particularly in view of the fact that the students are so highly motivated and gifted.

Organisation of the visit by Australian teachers does not cause problems, according to staff members interviewed. Indeed, the organisation is a simple matter of allocating one class to each of three teaching teams from Australia. No changes of timetabling are necessary.

Staff at the school appreciate the opportunity for their students to speak English with native speakers. They did not refer to opportunities for themselves to further practise their English. They did, however, indicate that the information on Australia was
valued and appreciated by the students. In addition, the visits by the Australian teachers build the confidence of Vietnamese students, who have the opportunity to be understood by native English speakers with little or no knowledge of Vietnamese. The teachers described their students as intelligent and hard-working, but lacking the funds to travel to English speaking nations.

Students were asked to identify ways in which the lessons with the Australian teachers differed from their usual English lessons (see Appendix 2). The most significant difference was the immersion in English language, with 35.8% of responding students commenting on this. For most, it appears that the change was a valued, if at times difficult one. A small proportion of students indicated that their English was not of a standard to cope with such immersion. For 16% of respondents, the activities were the most significant difference from their usual English lessons. Similarly, 16% of respondents indicated that the lessons were interesting. Some students made specific reference to their usual English lessons as being less interesting. The only other response to score higher than ten percent was the confidence and ease the students felt in the classroom, either in speaking English, or in asking for explanations and clarification (11.1%). Difficulties were not reported by many students, but the greatest of these derived from the language barrier. One student recalled, “We have to speak English all the time. Sometimes I don’t know what you are speaking [about]”. Another student lamented the lack of a break time.

When asked if the differences between the Australian teachers’ lessons and their usual English lessons were hard to get used to, only 14 respondents (17.3%) identified any difficulties. Several of these comments were qualified with a statement to the effect that the differences were difficult to get used to at first, but as the students adjusted to the teachers’ accent and pronunciation, these difficulties diminished, and were indeed compensated for by the satisfaction of communicating with a native speaker of English, and the interest level of the lesson material. It would seem, then, that most of the differences constituted improvements on the students’ usual classroom conditions. The message came across quite clearly in one student’s comment: “I think these differences were not difficult to get used to. In my opinion they were even interesting so much”. Feeling free to ask for explanations allayed the fears of some students. According to one, the differences, “were not difficult to get used to because
they [the teachers] were very kind, they often explain every words which were
difficult for me”. Group work was identified as an important difference by one
student, who observed, “We can discuss with one another”.

Some students were more strident in identifying problems. In the words of one,
“Many pupils including me think that these differences weren’t easy to get used to.
Because the native speaker sometimes speak some English words and ways that we
haven’t learned before”. It is not clear whether the second part of the above response
refers to teaching styles or use of English, but it stands to reason that colloquialisms,
particularly Australian ones, are unlikely to be found in text books focusing on
standard British and North American usage. Several students commented that the
Australian teachers scaffolded comprehension with visual or other cues, a small
number of students commented that the Australians spoke too quickly. Three students
identified weaknesses in their English comprehension, particularly in spoken mode.

On the other hand, some students recognised that they have to get used to English
spoken at native speaker levels of speed and colloquialism. Encouragement from
teachers was identified by some students as being helpful in compensating for
communication difficulties, as was student/teacher rapport. As one student said, “All
of you are very divoted [sic] and your ways of learning are very interesting”. One
student recognised a link between the immersion of the English classrooms and the
learning of a first language. According to this student, “I learnt like that when I was
small”. Of course, the difficulties diminished for those most skilled in English. “We
have learnt English for 5 years so we can speak English well” said one respondent.

The teachers identified differences in teaching style between Vietnamese and
Australian teachers, the former privileging a theoretical approach over a practical one.
As a result, observed one of the teachers, “the students have very few chances to
practise”. The Australian teachers’ approach is, in their opinion, more practical. The
teachers pointed out, however, that neither theory nor practice is more important than
the other, but each has its part to play in language learning.

The teachers answered with an enthusiastic ‘yes’ when asked if the students enjoyed
the Australian teachers’ lessons. The teachers identified few changes in their own
teaching as a result of the Australian teachers’ visit. “We can’t change the approach or the content” said one. In senior years, students at all schools are working towards an external matriculation exam. The school can and does, however, provide creative opportunities for their students to improve their English, such as by using the computers in the multi-media centre, inviting native speakers etc. The multi-media room is available to the most gifted students (the classes are streamed according to ability) on a once-per-fortnight basis. The teachers also observed that their relationship with their students is a good one.

When asked to identify the best aspect of their lessons, 28.8% of student respondents mentioned the Australian content. Observing a combination of interpersonal and subject motivation, one student described the lessons as “cheerful and interesting”. The next most noted element was the rapport with the teachers (21.3%). Language practice was identified by a further 20% of students.

The activities were nominated as the best aspect of the lessons by almost one in five students (18.8%). One student described the lessons as “learning in order to play; Playing in order to learn”. Another observed, “Australian teachers have a great zeal for teaching”. She added, “They like to explain to us even difficult problem”. Yet another said simply, “I like the way you teach”.

For some students, new vocabulary presented a problem, but others commented that pictures, body language etc were used to effect by the teachers in facilitating comprehension. As one student commented, “I couldn’t hear all the contents which were given. But I understood what the Australian teachers wanted to say”.

The teachers are enthusiastic about the visit of the Australians, and are already looking forward to next year’s visit. They would like to participate in a study tour to Australia in the future. The teachers had several suggestions for making greater use of the visit by the Australian teachers. They would welcome a forum for exchanging ideas on teaching methodologies. They also suggested that they could assist future teachers by arranging home stays, short courses in Vietnamese language, and would be happy to participate in action research associated with the program.
Students were more reticent to suggest changes to the program than they were to praise it, with almost three quarters (71.6%) not answering the question, or saying they would change nothing. 8.6% of students requested more opportunities for speaking. 4.9% requested more, or longer lessons with the Australian teachers. 3.7% of students suggested a change in content, the same number proposing a change in teaching method. Some students found the immersion in English difficult to cope with, and would prefer a more structured approach, explaining new vocabulary and providing a grammatical background.

While most students appreciated an activities-based approach, one said that too much time was spent drawing. It stands to reason that secondary school teachers will specialise in their own subject area. Naturally, the use of English is more likely to be a means to an end than an end in itself in a situation such as this, and while only one comment to this effect was made, it may be that further clarification is needed in terms of the aims of the program as far as the students are concerned, in terms of privileging study of the target language or study using the target language as a medium. In any case, the establishment of teaching teams is likely to lead to a wider distribution of content and approaches. Indeed, several of the visiting teachers expressed appreciation of their team members’ observations and suggestions.

Using a series of Likert scales (1-5), students were asked to indicate the extent to which the lessons with the Australian teachers were relevant, interesting and able to be understood. In terms of comprehension, a response of ‘1’ equated to ‘easy to understand’ while ‘5’ corresponded to ‘hard to understand’. The mean response to the question was 1.76 (SD = .962). More than half the respondents (50.6%) provided a response of ‘1’, while 79.7% answered with either ‘1’ or ‘2’. Only one student responded with a ‘5’. Among the factors contributing to a high level of understanding were “Because the teacher explain something we don’t understand cheerfully”, On the other hand, certain factors made understanding more difficult for some students. One said, “If we don’t understand we can ask our teacher in Vietnamese, but with the A.[ustraliann] teachers, it’s rather difficult for us”.

With regard to interest levels, the scale ranged from 1 (not interesting) to 5 (interesting). This question generated an average response of 4.70 (SD = 1.043),
indicating a high level of interest. 82.7% of students furnished the highest possible response, ‘5’, with a further 2.5% answering with ‘4’. One student responded with ‘1’. More than half (53.8%) of the students felt that a new approach and/or a new topic made the learning interesting. Another 23.1% said that the opportunity to learn is, in itself, interesting. A further 13.5 attributed the level of interest to the rapport between teacher and student.

The ‘relevance scale’ was similar, a response of ‘1’ corresponding to ‘not relevant’, while ‘5’ indicated a high degree of relevance. Here the mean response was 4.77 (SD = .745). 93.1% of students responded with ‘5’, the highest possible response, this figure rising to 95.9% when including a response of ‘4’. Again, one student responded with ‘1’. There were three main reasons given for seeing the program as relevant. The most common response (50%) referred to the Australian content, followed by a general statement to the effect that a broader knowledge is relevant (34.5%), at times accompanied by an observation that the students have few opportunities to ‘discover’ other countries. The only other statistically significant response (15.5%) referred to practice in English.

Conclusions

It is interesting that a central facet of the program such as learning English was considered by fewer students than was the Australian content. The principal aim of the program is to improve the students’ English, not to increase their knowledge of Australia. There is reason for optimism here, though. It is reasonable to presume that interesting content material provided a forum for the more subliminal activity of English acquisition.

It would appear that the impact of a two-week visit by teachers from Australia on the thinking and priorities of a Vietnamese staff is minimal, as would perhaps be the case with teachers visiting Australian schools for a similar period of time.

While differences in approach and content between Australian and Vietnamese teachers are evident, they defer to differences in language. By dint of necessity, English becomes a survival mechanism for the teachers. Perhaps one of the most
significant differences is the relative invisibility assumed by the English language, as it becomes less an object of study, taking on instead the role of a prism, through which are refracted new bodies of knowledge.

References


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APPENDIX 1

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

In what ways were the lessons with the Australian teachers different from your usual English lessons?

Were these differences difficult to get used to? Why/not?

What is the best thing about the lessons with the Australian teachers? ..........................................................

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What would you change about the lessons? ..........................................................

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Please circle one of the numbers below, and give any other comments you wish.

Did you find the lessons easy to understand?

1 2 3 4 5
Easy to understand Difficult to understand

................................................................................................................................................................................................
................................................................................................................................................................................................

Did you find the lessons interesting?

1 2 3 4 5
Not interesting Interesting

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................................................................................................................................................................................................

Was the information relevant?

1 2 3 4 5
Not relevant Relevant

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APPENDIX 2

TEACHER INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Describe your school. In what ways is it similar to other Vietnamese schools? In what ways is it different?

How would you describe the interaction between the Australian visitors and staff here over recent years?

Are the lessons of the Australian teachers different from the ‘normal’ English lessons here? How?

What things do you think the Australian teachers bring to the school?

What things do the staff here offer the Australian teachers?

Do you think that the school has changed at all through the visits of the Australian teachers? How and why?

Do you think the students are changed at all as a result of the visits by Australian teachers here? If so, how?
CHAPTER 4

The provision of effective resources is an important contributor to the development of changed pedagogy and improved practice on the part of teachers. The following chapter investigates the effectiveness and uses of a text titled *Understanding Everyday Australian*, designed to assist teachers and learners of English as a second language in the Australian context.

Effective resources are not sufficient in themselves to sustain effective practice, but they do constitute an important practical and psychological support for teachers in their efforts to improve, redirect or reinforce their teaching content or outcomes. This paralleled findings from other components of the portfolio, wherein the provision of inservice or preservice programs is not necessarily sufficient in itself to significantly increase desired practice or content inclusion. The best combination is effective resources in the hands of those who know how to use them effectively.

This investigation had methodological similarities with those which preceded it, in that it sought perspectives from a variety of sources, and particularly from the users of the product. Given the time and other constraints of this project, it was impractical to interview previous student users of the materials. Consequently, I trailed certain components of the text with my year six students at the time. Beyond this, the investigation triangulated findings from teachers’ opinions of their students’ success with the materials, and the claims of the text itself. A more substantial report on uses of a text, *Global Issues*, outlined in Chapter 8, provides a more comprehensive overview of student perspectives, by using interviews and work samples, as well as teachers’ reports.

In common with other components of this portfolio, it emerged that there is a ‘continuum of users’ in terms of their ability to derive the greatest benefits of the materials. Naturally enough, with resources, as with the provision of any other catalyst to learning (inservice or preservice sessions, or in-country experiences), it is of fundamental importance for providers to ‘precognise’ matches and mismatches between resources and the audiences and purposes for whom and which they are intended.
Abstract

English continues to consolidate its position as a world lingua franca. In the light of this, there is a corresponding increase in the demand for contemporary resources to help non English-speaking background (NESB) students understand the various contextual modes of the language. One such mode is the spoken form in casual contexts. Understanding Everyday Australian (UEA) is designed to familiarise new English speakers with some common Australian colloquialisms. This paper critically reviews the resource, investigating its strengths, weaknesses and potential for use. Data collection measures include interviews with five teachers who have used the book, and with the book’s author, as well as a trial of the book by the researcher. Literature on English as a Second Language (ESL) pedagogy has also been consulted.

The resource and its author

The resource comprises two student books, a teacher’s book and two cassette tapes. Susan Boyer, the books’ author, is a teacher of English as a Second or Foreign language with 11 years’ experience. She has a Master of Language and Literacy degree. The book emerged from her experience of students having high skill levels in reading and writing English, but having difficulties in understanding spoken colloquial English upon arrival in Australia. There existed a gap in resources addressing this.

Material from the book and/or extension activities may in future be published on the publisher’s website at www.boyereducation.com.au. Book One comprises nine chapters which cover topics such as socialising at a barbecue, phoning a tradesperson and visiting the doctor. Each chapter, which centres on an audio-taped conversation, takes the learner through six stages. In the first instance, the listener is expected to focus on the general meaning of the conversation being heard, without necessarily...
understanding every word. This reflects the book’s whole language approach to second language learning (Nunan, 1991). In the second stage, the conversation is replayed, while the student reads a text of the tape.

Students then have the opportunity to compare the first and second parallel conversations in each chapter; the two conversations in each chapter are identical, except that the colloquialisms in the first conversation are paraphrased in more formal or standard terms in the second text. Phase three consists of a cloze text of the first (colloquial) conversation, requiring the learner to fill in the missing words as they are heard on the tape. The fourth phase features reinforcement of the newly-encountered terms. Meanings of colloquial expressions are written down by the students. The next phase requires the learner to use colloquial expressions in controlled contexts. The final section provides cultural and other information designed to help English learners make sense of colloquial expressions.

The second book is divided into ten themes, including technology and business, having dinner with friends and talking about employment. Book Two has a glossary of grammatical and pronunciation terms, information of past simple and participial forms of irregular verbs, a phonemic chart of Australian English sounds, as well as a list of Australian colloquialisms ending in ‘y’ or ‘ie’, such as footy, bickie etc.

The exercises following each chapter could be classified into four groups. The first exercise is designed to test and extend the student’s understanding of the text in general terms, and deals with issues such as nature of the problem or issue being discussed, those involved etc. This exercise is typically of a multiple choice nature, such as nominating the correct response, or matching text with pictures. Once the student is more familiar with the text, through having compared a written version with a more formal ‘parallel text’, the next exercises are designed to further familiarise the student with the colloquialisms in the conversation. They are intended to be completed with the assistance of repeated hearings of the taped conversation, and are usually in the form of cloze texts. The exercises then adopt a broader scope, and investigate the colloquial terms in context. Finally, the chapters include extension exercises based on the theme of the chapter. These may range from a study of intonation in English, to sharing one’s own experiences such as holidays or hobbies.
Many ideas for extension activities are to be found in the Teacher’s Book. Overall, the exercises demonstrate a creditable range of creative ideas, including role plays and tasks supported by visual information such as, retrieval charts and mapping exercises.

One of the author’s aims is to establish a “‘conversationalisation’ of public discourse” (Fairclough, 1995, p. 19), that is, to allow sociocultural dimensions of the language emerge to be scrutinised. Her aim is to deal with colloquial expressions which are, in her words, both “mainstream” and “current”. She added that students have difficulties when confronted with expressions such as “to make ends meet” and phrasal verb forms such as “fed up”. Consulting the meaning of each word in a dictionary is unlikely to shed meaning of the global expression.

Sources of perspectives on the resource

Various perspectives on the resource were sought. An interview was conducted with the author, and with five users of the material, nominated by the author. While there is a risk that this method of sample selection is open to bias, these respondents were able to identify potential for improvement in the material. Interviews were semi-structured, with informants being asked to indicate the ways in which they had used the texts, and with whom. They were then asked to nominate the books’ strengths, as well as weaknesses and suggestions for alternative format and content. Informants were also asked to include their understandings of their students’ perspectives of the books. In addition, an informal content analysis of the resource was undertaken. Content was analysed according to text type and purpose, and dealt principally with the student exercises. The researcher also trialed the material with a group of younger ESL students. and perspectives were gained from relevant literature.

Findings and discussion

The text and its context

One of the features of colloquial language is its dependence on context. This can be a cultural and linguistic minefield for the new user of English. The text is at pains to point this out: Boyer includes a disclaimer to students, and a note to teachers
(Teacher’s Book, p. 4) recommending that learners develop a broad understanding of culturally appropriate contexts in which to use everyday expressions before using them. The resource claims to be “a starting point for students’ mastering everyday language rather than a definitive text” (Teacher’s Book, p. 4). Reflecting this, several teachers indicated that the material readies their students to become familiar with colloquialisms they encounter in everyday situations, but feel that more ‘real life’ exposure is needed before most students can use them appropriately.

The contextual importance of colloquial expressions emerges at the very start of the text. The first underlined (ie colloquial) expression of conversation one is “give you a buzz” (p. 3, Book 1). In this instance, the expression is used in relation to ringing somebody on the telephone. The expression “to give someone a buzz”, however, is also used in relation to the effects of drugs. The expression is quite widely understood beyond the communities of illicit drug users. This first expression presents an opportunity to include an illustrative explanation in the Teacher’s Book, pointing out the dual meaning of the expression, and providing other teaching hints. These could include the fact that the word ‘buzz’ is onomatopoeic in nature, imitating, for example, the sound of an insect’s wings. By extension, therefore, the sound is used in imitation of a phone ringing. A similar exercise could be undertaken explaining the metaphor in “not having the foggiest idea” another expression in the first conversation. Alternatively, where such instances arise, these could be met with a dictionary exercise, asking students to find the etymological origins of the word, searching for alternative meanings etc. These suggestions may seem obvious, but the irony is that native speakers are so immersed in their first language that semantic and other features of words may well be subliminal.

Target audience

The text does not appear to specify a target age group, but most of the chapter themes, such as employment, neighbours, money and phoning a tradesperson, are more relevant to adults than children. Nevertheless, other chapters, while using adult speakers and contexts, are more easily adaptable for children. Such themes include visiting the doctor, talking about holidays and socialising at a barbecue. It is also worth keeping in mind, however, that the kind of everyday expressions which are
common amongst adults, may be considered stilted and ‘text-bookish’ when used by and among young people. For example, young people are less likely than their parents to describe something as being ‘not their cup of tea’. A group of year six NESB students found the chapter on new beginnings (Chapter One) relatively easy to understand, but had mixed feelings about the interest level of the chapter. Of more interest, they found the chapter on holidays. Studying this chapter provided an enjoyable and non-threatening opportunity to treat a basic geography of Australia, material these students had missed owing to their absence from Australian schooling in earlier years. The exercise generated some animated discussion.

The introduction is addressed to the student. As with many text books, it may be the exception rather than the rule for students to methodically read this introduction, unless under the guidance of the teacher. Nevertheless, such an introduction provides the opportunity for the prospective teacher to ‘eavesdrop’ on this conversation between author and student, and thereby become more familiar with the text.

The text presumes a working knowledge of formal, ‘text book’ English on the part of the student. Anne Baker, an initial reviewer of the resource indicates that it is “for intermediate students and teachers of Australian English” (back cover, Book One). In an open letter to students in the introductory pages unnumbered), Boyer states, “I am sure you are aware of the difference between the formally presented language of the textbook, and the language you hear, outside the classroom, in your daily activities and conversations with Australians”. The target audience is therefore presumed to be living in Australia, and to have a functional level of English which permits conversation in ‘survival contexts’. Teachers who have used the book commented on this, one describing the text as “a solid book, a consolidation” for students who already have some familiarity with English.

Another feature which suggests a pre-existing functional level of English on the part of the learner is its reference to the meaning of colloquial expressions in terms of other English phrases and words. Given that this text does not target a particular first-
language group, such a choice is inevitable\textsuperscript{6}. For a beginners’ resource, simpler or more familiar terms might not exist, so new vocabulary would need to be supported by use of pictures or video-, as opposed to audio-tapes. Stern (1992) refers to cross-lingual as opposed to intralingual approaches to second language teaching. Cross-lingual approaches depend on use of the students’ first language (ie translations) for an explanation of terms in the second language. Intralingual approaches, on the other hand, make exclusive use of the second language to explain new terms. Cross-lingual approaches are only possible in situations where all students speak a language or languages known to the teacher, who is then able to translate terms into the students’ language/s. Stern observes that an intralingual process most closely approximates the way in which one’s first language is learnt. He questions the exclusive adoption of an intralingual approach, however, claiming that it may sacrifice pragmatism for purism, and asserting that at times, direct instruction is the most efficient way to explain new vocabulary. In language acquisition, as with most learning, new information takes on meaning for the learner by comparison with previous knowledge and experiences (eg Piaget, Vygotsky, 1978). Second language learners will search for synonyms of new words that they learn, whether in their first or second language. It could be argued that the locus of this process is in the student’s mind, not in the written text. Therefore, text and teacher may have little control over the extent to which the learner uses first language of second language synonyms to generate meaning for new terms in the second language\textsuperscript{7}. It needs to be kept in mind, too, that a text is one step further removed from the student than is the teacher, and it is the teacher who can bridge this gap between text and student.

\textsuperscript{6}The text has been adapted for specific target groups such as Mandarin, however, in broadcasts on the SBS network, whose Manager of Radio Resources, Training and Coordination described it as “a very practical teaching tool and a very useful resource” (Book 2, back cover).

\textsuperscript{7}Two personal experiences of my own bear this out. As a learner of French in secondary school, I recall my teachers’ attempts to avoid using English terms to explain French ones. Once I had understood the meaning of the word being mimed, shown in a picture etc and spoken by the teacher in French, I would typically think of the equivalent English term. The other students and I learned early not to say the English word aloud, to avoid suffering the teacher’s wrath.

As a teacher of English in Vietnam, and speaking no Vietnamese, I was limited to communicating new vocabulary through miming and other means. In my desperation to communicate, if a student said a Vietnamese word in response to my mime, on more than one occasion, I said an enthusiastic ‘yes’, despite not knowing if the Vietnamese word I heard was the one I was miming.
In the face of the above constraints, the text is commendable in its ability to draw on the experiences of its target students. The first conversation in the text deals with somebody starting a new job, and some of the feelings she had to contend with as she started out. Hence, expressions such as “getting the hang of it”, “not having the foggiest idea” etc. One exercise in this chapter invites students to discuss their feelings as they started the English language course they are undertaking. By extension, another exercise in the chapter refers to learning new things for vocational or leisure purposes. This also gives students an opportunity to talk about their own hobbies and interests, and perhaps to teach each other about those interests. Boyer uses the opportunity to remind students and teacher that attrition rates are often high at the beginning of a new endeavour such as a language course, and offers a reminder that it is important to persevere in the face of initial frustration or sense of non-achievement. A further exercise in this chapter provides information on the Dewey cataloguing system, and invites students to locate library resources and do some research on a topic of their choice. This, in turn, begs opportunities to consult a librarian and/or the library catalogue. The text suggests that subsequent to this students might share the findings from their research in pairs, small groups or as a whole class. Such an exercise generates a great deal of language. If teachers are concerned about imperfect modelling of English in small group situations, they may wish to read and edit with the student a copy of the research report prior to its presentation to peers. Specific questions could also be devised to determine comprehension levels of other students.

The exercises were universally praised by the respondents as being creative and appropriate to the needs of their students, who reported enjoying doing them. One particular strength of the exercises is their potential for helping students acquire a contextual understanding of the expressions, and use them appropriately. One respondent indicated that she would like the inclusion of more of the language activities such as crosswords, found at the end of each chapter. Teachers indicated that their colleagues like using the text, and that their students find it “challenging”,

**Strengths and limitations of the text**
and that “it stretches them”. Some students have found the material so helpful that they have bought personal copies.

One teacher explained that the book lends itself to independent learning, and can be given to individuals or small groups for this purpose. She added that this is partly because of the predictable nature of the book’s format, which allows students to engage with the colloquial texts, rather than being preoccupied with negotiating the broader text and its intentions. In some texts, according to this teacher, the instructions are “absurdly complex”, much more difficult than the exercises themselves, and demand an unrealistically high expertise in English. She added that UEA is clear and “user friendly” in its physical layout, its content and its aims. Another feature of the text praised by teachers is the self-sufficient nature of the chapters. Chapters can be chosen in any order for study, as they are not cumulative in nature. That is to say that each chapter does not presume a familiarity with the vocabulary and experiences of previous chapters. This gives teachers freedom to deal with chapters as circumstances warrant. The holiday chapter, for example, lends itself to discussion immediately prior to, and/or after school or institution vacations.

More generally, those who have used the text spoke highly of it. One said that when she found the material, she was “very, very enthusiastic. I had always wanted a text like this”. Another described it as “absolutely excellent”. The publication appears to have met a need among English teachers and learners. As one respondent said, “virtually no other book deals with Australian idioms”.

One limitation of the resource is that the text of the conversations are copyright protected. This means that multiple copies of the text must be purchased for each class. On the other hand, the Teacher’s Book, which contains many of the exercises, is photocopiable. The author pointed out, though, that under fair dealing legislation, some photocopying can be legally done.

Coming full circle: The text and the reader

Perhaps the greatest challenge in using texts is to avoid mismatches between the demands of the text and the ability levels of the students. One respondent praised the
use of new expressions in context, which helps students in making sense of them. Another teacher suggested that introducing the texts through listening gives too much scope for passivity on the students’ part. Instead, she introduces the new texts by using the cloze text, which “forces the students to engage with the text” and demonstrate that they have understood it.

Making the text more challenging is an easier prospect than simplifying it. One teacher said that the tape recorded conversations are “very thick with idiom”. She observed that when students stop to consider a colloquialism unfamiliar to them, they lose the flow of the conversation, and find subsequent colloquial expressions all the more difficult to understand, in the absence of contextual understanding. While she said that this can be overcome with pre-teaching, she felt that the idioms at times drive the conversations, rather than being embedded in them, and that fewer idioms per conversation would render the texts more comprehensible. This reflects a criticism from an earlier review of the text, which compared the frequency of idioms, particularly in the ‘holiday’ chapter, to “an over packed suitcase” (Snelgrove, 1998, p. 88). Snelgrove claims that this diminishes the book’s potential for use with ESL students, particularly with regard to the conversation which takes place around a barbecue.

This, though, is to criticise the book at its most vulnerable point. The question of authenticity as opposed to cliché in Australian conversation, or that of any other national or cultural group or sub-group, is not one which can be definitively encapsulated in one or several illustrative texts. As mentioned earlier, the publication concedes this point. These criticisms may be a case of cultural cringe, which has been extensively described in commentaries of Australian culture (Wood, 2000). In any case, when idioms are the focus of a conversation, understandably such idioms almost necessarily assume an embarrassed self-consciousness absent from unexamined discourses. On occasions, though, the idiomatic conversations from the text come across as being more authentic than their more formal counterparts. “I think I’ve let the cat out of the bag” (p. 55, book 2) rolls off the tongue more easily than “I think I’ve revealed a secret” (p. 56). Some criticisms were made of the tape recorded texts, one teacher describing them as somewhat “stilted”. She acknowledged the need for
scripted and controlled texts, but added that professional actors/readers can still manage to make the conversations sound natural.

Snelgrove (1998), despite her earlier criticisms, is quick to point out the book’s virtues, in saying that the conversations “replicate not only idioms, but the casual flow of speech with all its sudden changes of topic, back tracking, contradictions, syncopated utterances and changes of tone, depending on mood and context” (p. 89). Some responses demonstrated the use of the Australian idiom, describing the phrases as “everyday expressions, not way out” and “the kind of expressions students come up against”. This latter respondent saw no problem with the number of colloquialisms, describing the text as “meaty”, adding that teachers can be selective in dealing with expressions. From conversations with the participants, it would appear that the critical variable is the students’ level of ability in English.

Conclusions

“You’ll soon get the hang of it”. So says Lee in the first conversation of Book One of Understanding Everyday Australian. Despite some limitations - as one respondent said, “you’ll never get the perfect resource” - this is a creative resource which provides great scope for interaction with and between students and for developing their expertise in English, in their attempts to ‘get the hang of’ the language when used in an informal mode.
References


Biography

John Buchanan is a part-time lecturer, researcher and doctoral student at University of Western Sydney, Nepean. He also teaches English as a second language to primary school students. His research interests include intercultural education, particularly in the context of the Asia-Pacific region.

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CHAPTER 5
Chapter 5 builds on the findings and understandings of the earlier research projects in this portfolio, and adopts a more comprehensive examination of the dynamics of curricular change. This work contributes to my learning and to the new knowledge of the portfolio in that it sheds light on some further aspects of the mosaic which is curricular change, in the context of studies of Asia in Australia.

This research project was site-specific, and investigated the adoption of studies of Asia at a school in Sydney’s west. The study set out to discern what, if any, were the peculiarities in terms of any resistance to studies of Asia (as opposed to other proposed curricular changes) at this school. If studies of Asia is attended by difficulties over and above those common to all curricular change, this was not immediately evident from the reports of the informants. Some of their comments, however, suggest that studies of Asia was, for at least some teachers, at the higher end of a ‘resistance continuum’ with regard to curricular innovations. This paper forms an interesting conceptual forerunner to Chapter 6, which examines the realities and potentials of preservice students with regard to teaching studies of Asia. The two papers reveal some interesting parallels in the two sites of investigation.

Methodologically, the project adopted hermeneutic dialectic circles, wherein the researcher asks each informant to identify another potential informant, one who was likely to have different views on the issue to their own. This facilitated the process of generating a variety of perspectives on teaching studies of Asia in the school.

The school is an ‘Access Asia’ school, and is provided with funds to assist it to increase and enhance the studies of Asia it offers to its students. Having received such support over several years, the school is an élite. Despite the provision of such funds, it emerged that enthusiasm for embracing studies of Asia was inconsistent amongst the staff.
Abstract

The need for an understanding of Asia has attracted increasing attention in Australia in recent years. One strategy in response to the need for greater Asia literacy has been the development of networks of Access Asia schools. The Asia Education Foundation (AEF) supports 'Access Asia' schools in their efforts to increase and improve the Asia content in their curricula.

This paper reports on the development of studies of Asia in one western Sydney primary school, which is a member of an Access Asia network. The project adopts a case study approach and attempts to provide comprehensive observations on the forces which drive and constrain the introduction of curricular change in this school. The study also features hermeneutic dialectic circles, seeking diverse opinions of various staff members, such as the ‘Access Asia coordinator’ and the librarian, as well as factors such as the amount and availability of resources, and the attitudes of the school staff.

In particular, the research pointed to the centrality of teacher practice in implementing change in schools, and the interplay between teachers and curriculum. It found that while some staff members in particular have expended great energy in producing resources and encouraging others to undertake studies of Asia, the teaching of Asia-related material in the school is somewhat sporadic.
Studies of Asia in Australia

The study of “the countries and environments of the region generally called ‘Asia’” (Asia Education Foundation, 1998, p. 2) has attracted increasing attention in Australia in recent years. In the words of Baumgart, Halse and Buchanan (1998, p. 47) “The importance for Australians of understanding Asia can scarcely be overstated”. It is reasonable to assert that Australia’s geography, economy and demography all necessitate attention to Asia. This is taking place at a time when the world’s attention is being increasingly directed towards Asia (FitzGerald, 1997), and when Australia is reassessing its position in the Asia-Pacific region. Asia literacy, then, can be seen in the context of a widening global education. Singh (1995, p. 8) asserts that,

*Studies of Asia may provide an opportunity to retool the curriculum, to enable students to construct new social networks, to see themselves as part of new border zones, to engage in new types of boundary crossings and to participate in new global relations.*

FitzGerald (1991, pp. 21, 22) describes Asia-literacy, within the Australian context, as follows:

*An Asia-literate person is one who at the end of schooling will know sufficient of the history, geography, politics, economics and culture of Asia so that they may: be simply well informed; be confident regional citizens, be 'at ease' in Asia; understand the dynamics of the region and in particular Australia's*
place in it; make informed decisions on their own behalf and through national decision-making processes to have a productive interaction with Asia.

Orton (1995) likens the study of a culture to that of a language, enabling the learner to negotiate with and through the target society, with its different set of meanings. Like language, though, culture is not static. Such a view interprets culture not as “a site of belonging”, but “a process of transition and becoming” (Chambers, 1996: 53).

The concept of Asia is largely a western social and psychological construct (Said, 1987; Clarke, 1997). Understanding of another culture is likely to be compounded by essentialism, which according to Nozaki and Inokuchi (1996, p. 73) "defends the 'essence'" of a culture, "rather than promoting a full knowledge of it", thereby sustaining shallow stereotypes and overlooking changes through time and space, in the search for a "single dominant paradigm" (Hooper, 1992, p. 105). A pedagogy of Asia needs to identify the "multiple and contradictory" identities of other individuals, nations and regions (Nozaki & Inokuchi, 1996, p. 74). It must recognise tensions and changes in other societies.

The rhetorical rationale for Australia’s engagement with Asia is premised largely on commerce, as evidenced by titles such as Asian languages and Australia's economic future (Council of Australian Governments, 1994). In reality some prominent instances of Australia’s engagement with Asia have been military in nature, and the recent conflict over East Timor has served to reinforce stereotypes on both sides.
For some time, state/territory and Federal governments have set about addressing the need for raising the ‘Asia literacy’ levels of Australian students (Asian Studies Council, 1988; Curriculum Corporation, 2001). The transition has not been uniformly smooth, however, and some government initiatives have featured an ambition unmatched by funds and strategies. While funding is neither the sole problem nor solution, disconcertingly low levels of Asia literacy among secondary school graduates in Australia have been identified (Hill & Thomas, 1998; Andresson, 1997).

Compounding this reluctance to embrace Asia, stated government policy has not always successfully negotiated the cross-over into popular thinking and practice. Fry, Baumgart, Elliott and Martin (1995) note that the study of Asia in Australian schools has not fared well. It has largely been relegated to studies of languages and the social sciences. For a number of reasons, among them the ‘crowded curriculum’, an across-the-curriculum approach is a more effective way to immerse Australian students in the mosaic which is Asia (Fry et al., 1995; Curriculum Corporation, 2001; FitzGerald, 1997). For this to take place, both the curriculum and teachers need to be equipped and sufficiently flexible to facilitate the necessary changes.

The place of Asia in the Australian psyche is problematic (Singh, 1996, Rudd, 1996), and efforts to change traditional attitudes are likely to challenge long-held views of a monolithic, hostile Asian ‘other’ (Broinowski, 1992; Mohanty, 1994). In the context of tertiary education, Malin (1999, p. 1) notes that “prejudice and discrimination are not only very difficult concepts to teach; they are also very confronting ones to learn”. She speaks of a trend towards national unity, with “notions of superiority and inferiority which characterised the previous racism ... being replaced by notions of the
threat of ‘aliens’ (most commonly Asian) to the nation’s social cohesion”. She speaks of three stages in the ‘journey’ to freedom from prejudice. These are: denial and resistance - an unawareness of subliminal stereotyping, accompanied by criticism of the complaints of minority group members); disequilibrium (characterised by confusion, frustration, rationalisation, anger etc); transformation (acceptance of new attitudes, values and behaviours, and a recognition of systemic discrimination).

It can be argued that teachers are the linchpin of educational change (eg Hargreaves, 1994). Unless teachers understand and embrace government mandated policies, little change will be effected in the classroom. Halse (1996, p. 5) warns that

*there is a danger that the conceptual divide between Asia and Australia will be perpetuated through future generations if the perspectives of teachers are constrained by stereotyped preconceptions and understandings of Asian people, cultures and societies.*

**Teacher Renewal and Curricular Change**

Calls for a recognition of Australia’s wider educational contexts are not new. The Auchmuty Report (Commonwealth of Australia, 1980) for example, refers to Australia’s emerging multiculturalism, but makes few apparent references to Australia’s place in the Asia-Pacific region. Indeed, at the time, British and European settlers accounted for 96.8% of total immigration (p. 14). Marsh (1997), however, highlights the contested nature of curriculum in the hands of federal and state government bodies. Moreover, as Goodson (1994, p. 16) asserts, “curriculum is a
social artifact”; just as government edicts do not inevitably lead to changes in popular thinking, neither do changes to the educational structure necessarily lead to new pedagogical attitudes (Hargreaves, 1994). Impediments to professional change in educational communities have been reported extensively in the literature. Responses to change include resistance (Schön, 1983), a regression to minimalism (Sikes, 1992) and to old behaviour patterns (Apple & Jungck, 1992). These factors are exacerbated by an ageing teacher profession (Dinham, 1991), the physical and psychological isolation of teachers (Giroux, 1991), increasing workloads and a decrease in the profession’s esteem (Hargreaves, 1997). Further compounding this, professional development courses have at times adopted a deficit approach to teachers and their needs.

Potential frustrations accompany to any proposed change in educational practice and delivery. According to Noonan (2000, p. 7S)

The outlook for progressive change at present seems rather bleak. The main stakeholders are at odds: an irritable government with a short-fused parent constituency, seemingly unable to prevent the steady drift of students from the State to the private system; the universities with their diminishing interest in running courses as unfashionable as teaching; the teachers, testy and suspicious even of the sorts of modest change being proposed by the department, with a union determined not to give up a single note of its considerable power.
The above comments were made in the context of an industrial dispute between teachers in New South Wales and their employer. The dynamics identified by Noonan, however, “‘go underground’ (but are not dead)” once particular disputes have been resolved.

Groundwater-Smith and White (1995, p. 96) describe curriculum work as “the substance which lies between the teacher and the learners”, adding that it covers the “knowing-how and knowing-that” components of teaching and learning, that is to say, process and content. They ask five questions of a school’s curriculum (pp. 105 ff): What are the priorities (and silences), and how were they determined (and are there inconsistencies)? What is the context of these curricular priorities? How have curricular decisions been implemented at school, grade or class levels? How adequate is the implementation? What implications are there for future directions? This study was guided in part by these questions, in the context of Asia literacy.

According to Groundwater-Smith and White (1995), understanding curriculum is a function of three factors: text (the curriculum itself and the social interaction which produces it); the context in which it is implemented, and; pretext (rationale for curricular decision making). Gerber (1995) takes a phenomenographic approach to curriculum, in recognising different concurrent constructs thereof. He claims that past research assumed that curriculum could be unproblematically defined (by researchers, if not by teachers). Instead, he says, curriculum as reported to researchers depends on “reflective collective memory” (p. 35), and suggests the best way to deal with this is through three lines of investigation: who are the main players; what are their roles; what were the outcomes? This triptych of questions makes for an interesting interplay
with those posed by Groundwater-Smith and White, above, as outlined, in modified form, below:

Players & Roles

Context & Pretext

Intended learning outcomes

Text/s, activities, their use and implementation

Learning outcomes

As implied by this flow chart, the intended outcomes are devised by key players in their socio-educational context. This results in a text or set of texts (syllabus, scope and sequence etc), which effect student outcomes, whether or not these coincide with the intended outcomes. There exist opportunities for mismatches between intentions and eventual outcomes, as the former are mediated through classroom activities and texts.

\[8\] For the purposes of this study, ‘reference texts’ ie those other than curricular documents such as scope and sequence etc, are principally treated as part of the context and pretext.
Conduct of the Study

This case study examines some of the above dynamics in the context of one government primary school in New South Wales. The study set out to ‘map’ the interaction between some of the key players and their social environment, and to identify the obstacles and opportunities for promoting the study of Asia in an Australian school, as observed by informants, and to investigate the reactions of players to those obstacles and opportunities. In all, six teachers provided information for the study.

Some research approaches have been criticised in the past for the relationships which developed between researcher and ‘subject’. Stringer (1996) calls on researchers to assume a more humanist, collaborative, egalitarian and liberating approach. This investigation adopted a case study approach. The methodology for this study conformed largely to the process of hermeneutic dialectic circles (Guba & Lincoln, 1989, pp. 151-155). Central to this processes was the use of various informants’ views on Asia literacy and policies in the school. The first informant, having given feedback, was asked to nominate another informant within the school who was likely to have significantly different views to those of the first informant, regarding studies of Asia at the school. Member checks were conducted with informants, providing the opportunity for them to offer corrections, clarifications or elaborations. The second informant nominated a third, and so the process continued. In adopting such an approach, the researcher’s desire for egalitarianism must be genuine, as the process is laden with opportunities for debilitating conflict among informants. On the other hand, this approach exposes the researcher to a variety of attitudes and constructs,
which, it is to be hoped, counters the effects of researcher and informant bias. Interviews were semi-structured, initially asking respondents to discuss an studies of Asia they had undertaken in class, outcomes for students and difficulties encountered.

The school

The primary school is located in outer western Sydney, and caters for a relatively comfortable socioeconomic clientele. It is known as an “Access Asia” school. Access Asia schools are provided with support such as release time for staff and funds for special projects designed to promote and facilitate the study of Asia in their curriculum (www.accessasia.edu.au, 2/2/01). The current Access Asia coordinator, Alison (a pseudonym) has held the position for one year. Prior to that, Beth, the librarian, held the position since the program’s inception, a period of about six years.

Only about ten percent of the school’s children are identified as being from a non English-speaking background (NESB). Of these there are “more Asians than others, depending on how you define ‘Asian’”, according to one of the school’s administrative staff members. Alison was able to identify Indian, Thai and Filipino families among the children. The school’s chosen language other than English (LOTE) is French, because of the qualifications of staff.

The library is well resourced with Asia-related materials. Ready-to-use units of work have been compiled by Beth and Alison, with contributions from other teachers. These units, in kit form, have been cross-referenced with resources from the teachers’ library, and include a range of other resources, including artefacts such as coins or
works of art and craft. This allows teachers to readily put their hands on resources needed for their classes.

**Findings and implications**

An inspection of the school’s artefacts reveals a wealth of Asia-related materials. According to the school’s HSIE (Human Society and Its Environment, known in other states and territories as SOSE - Studies of Society and Environment) scope and sequence, each grade-related stage\(^9\) covers two Asian countries in thematic fashion, meaning that students in each year explore one Asian country. The library and teachers’ resource centre are richly stocked with Asian teaching resources, and Alison (the Access Asia coordinator) and Beth (the librarian and previous coordinator) carry in their heads a wealth of information on Asia, as well as resources and methods related to the teaching thereof, including the resources available at the school. At this level, the school appears to have been very successful with the implementation of Asia studies across the curriculum.

Further investigation reveals that these successes have come at considerable cost to (some of) the staff, however. Moreover, it appears that implementation of the Asia-related scope and sequence has not been universal. One teacher in particular outlined what she saw as some of the central problems with regard to implementing studies of Asia across the curriculum: Jenni came into the staffroom looking tired from the day’s teaching. Her comments were terse. Without being asked a question, she said,

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\(^9\)In NSW the stages are: Kindergarten: early stage one; years 1, 2: stage one; years 3, 4: stage two; years 5, 6: stage three.
The trouble with new initiatives is there’s too little time. I’m not against teaching about the outside world, but these kids are too young, and the outcomes don’t parallel HSIE [/SOSE] outcomes. My class is still meeting stage one - local - outcomes. This is a very Anglo school, and here’s another thing to teach.

After summing up the arguments above, she left the room. While Jenni’s comment was more strident in its tone than those of the other teachers, she raised some very pertinent issues that the literature also addresses, as reported earlier, with regard to the difficulties of implementing studies of Asia. Moreover, other teachers raised similar issues in less forceful terms. These contextual and pretextual issues include matches and mismatches between:

• the totality of the Department of Education and Training’s (DET’s) curricular mandates and the time, among other resources, needed to fulfil them;

• the Asia-related content and the ability of children, especially younger children, to make sense of the ‘otherness’ of Asia, particularly in the context of a school where Anglo-Australians dominate numerically;

• the HSIE mandated content material and the school’s scope and sequence of Asia content.

It is possible that Jenni’s comments mask a lack of confidence on her part to teach about Asia. It is unfair to impute such a motive to Jenni, however, particularly since
she claims to have no objection *per se* to the teaching of “the outside world”. Nevertheless, it is probably reasonable to conclude that there is a ‘crisis of confidence’, of whatever cause or causes, which may constrain Jenni in her teaching about Asia. Jenni’s comments roughly parallel the contextual/pretextual concerns, implementation of curriculum and eventual outcomes outlined in the model earlier. Each of these three issues will be dealt with in turn. One other matter worthy of comment is the relative silence on the part of the informants other than Alison and Beth. They volunteered little information other than their responses to direct questions.

*Contextual and pretextual issues*

All of the teachers who were interviewed made passing references to the time constraints of trying to accommodate all the content demands of the curriculum. Other than Jenni, though, the teachers tended to be philosophical about this problem, and questioning did not reveal that studies of Asia suffered more from this than did other elements of the curriculum. There were, however, teachers who were disregarding the Asia studies scope and sequence - this will be taken up in a subsequent section.

Time emerged as a critical factor in other aspects, however. Alison and Beth both spoke highly of Curriculum Corporation resources (such as the “Access Asia Primary Teaching and Learning Units”, Curriculum Corporation, 1996). Such resources allow for comparison between various Asian countries and Australia. Nevertheless, these resources are designed to cater for national outcomes, and their ‘stage
appropriateness’ (ie level of difficulty) and content matter do not necessarily correspond to the NSW outcomes. Both Alison and Beth praised the initial funding they received when the school achieved Access Asia status. Much of the material in the library at the time, according to Beth, was outdated, biased and/or unattractive.

Alison and Beth were critical, however, of the current lack of AEF (Asia Education Foundation) funds for purchasing resources. These funds are now used for the development of materials by teachers in Access Asia schools. Both teachers feel that they are ‘reinventing the wheel’ to a certain extent, in developing their own resources, but they were particularly critical of the demanding accountability expectations which accompany the spending of money granted by the AEF. Having spent considerable amounts of time producing resources, they felt that additional time spent in documenting processes could be more wisely and productively spent. Alison and Beth also reported that they had not had the opportunity to see other schools’ resources developed under this scheme, and recommended that such cross-pollination of ideas would be very valuable. Many of their own units of work on Asia are literature-based, using materials such as Asian folk-tales as their starting point.

At a school level, provision of funds is also an important practical and psychological impetus for the promotion of curricular content. There is no specific allocation of funds within the school for Asia-related resources, and these are purchased from Key Learning Area (KLA) budgets. Alison and Beth (the current and previous Access Asia coordinators) bemoaned the resulting lack of parity with other KLA committees,

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10 The Access Asia program was known as the Magnet Schools program when the school originally undertook to participate in the mid 1990s.
which makes it difficult to enthuse a committee, since they have no specific imprimatur to spend money.

As in any school, the presence of enthusiastic and qualified personnel is essential for developing and maintaining programs. Alison said that it is invaluable having a librarian such as Beth, who is enthusiastic about Asia. Beth said that she valued the support of the Principal, which gave authority to her previous position as Access Asia coordinator. On the other hand, she mentioned several key teachers who had been engaged in studies of Asia with their classes, but who had subsequently left the school, necessitating energy and vision for enthusing and training new arrivals on staff. Beth also cited ‘burnout’ as another factor in the attrition rate of teachers studying Asia, again hinting at the effort and energy required for such study, in the absence of mandates to study the topic. Other staff displayed a range of enthusiasm levels. Carla shared some of her misgivings about teaching studies of Asia. She began by saying, “I religiously teach it” with a tone of resignation.

Beth explained that the AEF was concerned that materials were being produced by schools, potentially to be left unused by teachers and students. In response to this, the AEF has put forward a policy of providing children with ‘experiences’ of Asia. Provision of such experiences is not without its problems, however. Beth spent considerable time in coordinating an excursion to various places of worship in the Fairfield local government area. She explained that many such places have telephones which are attended for only a few hours per week, and there are few people available who speak English, rendering the coordination of such events difficult and time-consuming.
Not surprisingly, competition for resources is strong and budgets are limited. Alison indicated that Beth, the librarian, had at times reported that teachers are not seeking out existing Asian resources in the library, meaning that current funds were likely to be spent elsewhere. Alison and another teacher, Helen, pointed out, though, that substantial funds had recently been raised through a walkathon, and responded with scepticism to claims that the school has no money for Asian resources.

The need for appropriate resources was echoed by other teachers, such as Carla, who said that while she normally hates kits, some of the school’s ‘ready to go’ resources would be very useful. She added that some of the resources created when the school first joined the Access Asia network were starting to become dated, and needed revising. While there was considerable time for teacher relief for creating the initial resources, no such relief exists now. Alison also indicated that multi-media kits, including for example the national anthems of various countries, would be valuable.

The professional development of the teaching staff is an important prerequisite for effective teaching. Such training can address issues of teacher confidence to deal with Asia content. Helen hinted at this, confessing that she sometimes asked herself if she was “teaching it right”, with regard to Asia. She added that having travelled widely in Asia gave her more confidence, as well as artefacts such as money from various countries. She observed that teachers without such travel experience might struggle to present authentic lessons, however. Helen is a new member of staff, and was only vaguely aware of the status of teaching Asia in the school. She said that,
confronted with the expectation to teach a unit of work on Asia, her first questions would be, “Do I have what’s needed? And who can I ask?”.

Alison (the Access Asia coordinator) lamented funding levels for some aspects of professional development. Beyond this, professional development did not appear to be a significant issue for the other teachers. Some felt that other areas of PD (Professional Development) were a higher priority, however. Sarah, for example, said that while she would like “more knowledge about things Asian”, she felt that “such training is a luxury, compared to English etc”. It is perhaps such a ‘core and lobe’ dichotomy in the minds of other teachers with regard to various KLAs that leads them to overlook any possible gaps in studies of Asia PD provision. A ‘shortfall’ in PD provision is a subjective matter, and arguably only emerges in the context of perceived teacher needs.

The school is part of a local Access Asia network. Alison spoke highly of the Access Asia network leader, her enthusiasm, her dedication to the role and her expertise in Asian culture. The network is geographically vast, however, and the coordinator’s school is about 60 kilometres away, or over an hour by car, from Alison’s school. During the research period, Alison’s school hosted a professional development session on teaching Asian arts. Alison said that this was well attended, and was encouraging, partly because of the good attendance\textsuperscript{11}. The corollary, she said, is that low attendances have left her feeling drained and wondering if the organisational effort is worth it. Alison felt that it should be an expectation that all network members attend all Access Asia network meetings. On the other hand, she felt that

\textsuperscript{11} Only Beth and Alison from the host school attended, however.
the network leader’s enthusiasm was at times a little “other worldly”, an enthusiasm which Alison finds difficult to emulate in her own teaching environment.

The school has taken advantage of a twin city arrangement between the municipal council and Fujieda, in Japan. Visitors from Fujieda came to the school, and took part in activities such as getting the children to write their names in kanji characters. The school has also called on the expertise of a teacher at a nearby school, who has lived in Indonesia. The school once hosted an Indonesian music show.

Curricular material is limited to the extent that students are able to make sense of it. Helen, who was new to teaching and to the school, echoed some of Jenni’s strident concerns, musing, “You wonder how much of [Asia content] the kids absorb”. Alison said that “the few Asian kids we’ve got usually want to blend in with their non-Asian peers, and don’t like talking about where they come from”. One boy told Alison he wasn’t able to attend the school camp, as his family was saving up to go back to Thailand during the summer holidays. “Don’t tell anyone about it, though”, he said to her. Alison feels that parents sometimes emphasise the bad points about the ‘old country’ and the reasons they brought the children to Australia. This being the case, it is perhaps understandable that some children are not keen to speak about their country of origin. She compared this to other schools, with higher NESB populations, where she felt that children were more willing to discuss their backgrounds. On the other hand, Helen said that in her class, one Filipino boy showed a great deal of enthusiasm to study Asia, as did some other children of non-Asian background. Another teacher, Carla, said that the children enjoy the hands-on nature of craft activities. She added that years ago she had observed anti-Asian comments on the
part of some students, but none now. Alison explained that she has a “difficult” class this year, making it harder to find the energy and opportunities to introduce and promote Asia-related learning experiences.

The school sponsors a Filipino child through a relief agency. Alison reflected, however, that when she asked the staff if anyone would get their class to write to the child, no-one replied. When asked why this might be, Alison replied that this was probably due to busyness on the part of teachers, rather than an unwillingness to be confronted with phenomena such as otherness or poverty. When further questioned, Alison claimed that the staff does not display any symptoms of anti-Asian sentiment. She said, “they are not resistant to [the notion of teaching Asia]. They’re more resistant to other, mandatory elements such as child protection ... mainly because they’re not confident to teach [child protection]”. While this was said in defence of the staff’s willingness to embrace studies of Asia, it is interesting that Alison placed it on the same continuum that includes the most-feared curricular topic. The dynamics affecting Asia studies may be similar to those impinging on child protection. It could be inferred that these dynamics include the one nominated by Alison, ie, lack of confidence.

*Of Intentions, Curricular Texts and their Implementation*

Helen, who is new to teaching, mused, “what do I teach and how do I teach it?” The school’s Human Society and its Environment (HSIE) scope and sequence targets two Asian countries for each developmental ‘stage’, which means that theoretically each class in each year studies one Asian country. Alison observed, however, that “once
you get into your classroom and close the classroom door, it’s hard to know what anyone’s teaching”. She added that while some teachers “put a fair bit into it”, others indulge in “a bit of tokenism”. To illustrate this, she said that only one of the previous year’s year three teachers had covered Indonesia, the nominated country for that year. She said that, “the presumption is that everyone embraces it, but in reality...”. Beyond this scope and sequence document, little specific direction is given to the teachers with regard to the teaching of studies of Asia, apart from support from the resource kits. It is significant to note, then, that the overlaying of an Asia-specific set of content outcomes onto an existing HSIE Scope and sequence has not guaranteed a universal embrace of Asia content material on the part of the staff.

Another challenge with stage-specific treatment of different countries is the difficulty in obtaining resources which are of an appropriate level of difficulty. Alison and Beth reported, however, that they have become adept at adapting existing materials to suit the needs of their students. Nevertheless, other issues remain in the potential for mismatches between classroom practice and the syllabus-mandated stage-specific content. Moreover, HSIE curriculum consultants and Access Asia support personnel have expressed frustration at the tendency for teachers to allow resources, rather than the syllabus, to drive their teaching practice [personal conversations]. On the other hand, the mandated outcomes are rather generic in nature, and are capable of accommodating the incorporation of Asian studies.

Beth explained how she had tapped into existing units of work in HSIE. For example, while teaching European exploration of Australia, she made reference to Dutch colonisation of present-day Indonesia, hence the arrival of Dutch explorers on
Australia’s west coast. Some teachers in the school have adopted a thematic approach to studies of Asia, developing or using units such as “Breakfast around the world”. By contrast, Alison said that some teachers become too “boxy” rather than maximising osmosis between key learning areas. Her view reflects Hargreaves’ (1994) notion of Balkanisation, wherein mutually hostile subject-related empires develop in a school. Again, though, the state-mandated, and at times mutually exclusive KLA-specific outcomes may serve to make such integration across subject areas problematic.

In the past, ‘Asia week’, organised by the AEF, coincided with Book Week, which added impetus to a literature-based approach to studies of Asia. Now, however, the school adopts a more informal approach to celebrating Asian culture and achievements during the year. Each year the school adopts a country for thematic study for Education week. In 2000, the school chose Belgium as a country of study. While Alison sees this as a logical consequence of having French as the school LOTE, she feels that it represents a lost opportunity to promote Asia in the school and to the wider community. Nevertheless, other issues remain, in that the syllabus mandates stage-specific content outcomes, as well as behavioural outcomes.

Learning outcomes

An observation of one stage-three class conducting research on various Asian countries revealed that the students’ knowledge and abilities were more than adequate to deal with the demands of the activities. The students appeared to have a sound understanding of the position of the countries with respect to each other and to
Australia. It appeared that the students were successfully applying generic skills and knowledge (eg terminology such as north, etc) to this situation. The only instance of apparent confusion concerned the status of the capital city of South Korea. This appeared to stem from the text being used, which was titled “Korea”, dealt exclusively with South Korea, but included a map showing North and South Korea with their respective capitals.

An inspection of the finished work samples equally revealed a good, broad understanding of the countries under study. Arguably, some of the students’ statements (eg “Koreans like to dress in fancy clothes for special occasions”) were so applicable to any cultural group as to have little meaning. On the other hand, such comments reflect similarities which transcend particular cultures. Statements which were factually dubious (eg “Most Thai people don’t eat spicy [sic] food”) were quite rare. An inspection of stage one (year two) work samples on Indonesia demonstrated a sound understanding of basic facts with regard to Indonesia’s geography, climate etc, despite some possible overgeneralisations (“The weather is very hot but it rains in the afternoon all the time”). Based on the small sample of work samples viewed, it appears that the children are coping creditably with the Asia-related material they are presented with. As this section suggests, however, there was difficulty in finding current and recent Asia-related teaching and work samples. Moreover, it could be argued that the study was exclusively of ‘physical phenomena’ such as geography, food etc, to the exclusion of an examination of worldviews.

Helen, who claimed to, “religiously teach” studies of Asia wondered “how much of it the kids absorb”. It must be accepted, then, that students of those teachers who are
more indifferent to studies of Asia may find themselves far from its epicentre. Overall, the school has admirably equipped itself to give its students positive and contemporary experiences of Asia, and an inventory of the school’s ‘Asia credentials’ and related resources reveals a creditably high profile of studies of Asia. Classroom practice does not universally reflect this, however. Moreover, the promotion of Asia has come at considerable cost, particularly to the staff involved. Beth mused, “Is it worth it? I don’t know. You’re often preaching to the converted.” Reflecting on this comment, Alison said, “It’s more like preaching to the apathetic”.

With reference to the AEF’s accountability requirements, Beth said, “You have to jump through 99,050 hoops for five cents”. She did note, however, that the demands on accountability had been reduced, perhaps in response to schools opting out of the program. Beth said that, “For funds, you work for 32 hours and sell your soul”. She added, “It takes time to write, implement and evaluate the units, then do the paper work”. This raises the issue as to whether the demands placed on teaching staff are realistic, vis-à-vis the support offered. One way of increasing the dividends for participating teachers, according to Alison and Beth, is an increased dissemination of teacher-devised resources.

Reflecting on the frustrations she’s had in trying to change the attitudes of other teachers, Alison said that she has to get used to the fact that “what’s important to me isn’t necessarily important to someone else”. She felt that “no one else is very motivated”. This raises the issue of the interplay between curriculum, its creators and its implementers, as referred to by Groundwater-Smith and White (1995) and Gerber (1995) above. Alison observed that while she has a good deal of responsibility to
ensure that studies of Asia are pursued, neither she nor the Asia curriculum has much in the way of official status, and the implementation of the program relies on factors such as the goodwill, confidence, time and energy priorities of teachers in the context of myriad competing demands, many of which have higher real or perceived standing.

Conclusions

The various teachers’ responses, and particularly those of Alison and Beth, immediately above, demonstrate that there is a vast spectrum of enthusiasm and engagement levels for studies of Asia in the school. Moreover, this is taking place in a school with few students of Asian background, while studies of Asia vie for space in an overstocked curriculum. Australian students are in need of informed and contemporary perspectives on Asia, regardless of their schools’ demography. Findings from this study suggest that schools with few students of Asian background have particular problems with regard to introducing studies of Asia. Despite the above constraints, it does not appear that studies of Asia have been avoided more rigorously than other ‘challenging’ curricular components.

There is an apparent hiatus between the written text of the school’s Asia studies scope and sequence and rationale, and the manner and context in which this curriculum document operates. The way in which the players and their roles shape this document is likely to have an impact on the student outcomes. Observation of such outcomes in classes selected by the school formed only a small component of this study, in terms of assessing students’ knowledge bank of Asia. Nevertheless, student interest appeared to be high, and it may be that feelings of student resistance are a
misconception on the part of some teachers. Other pretextual and contextual issues remain, such as the state-mandated curriculum, and, perhaps most importantly, the crowded curriculum.

If, as Groundwater-Smith (1995) contends, the locus of curriculum is between teacher and student, it is here where curriculum change needs to centre itself. Provision of external funds does not guarantee this. Similarly, the existence of enthusiastic promoters of studies of Asia in the school, while important, does not universally change classroom practice with regard to its study. It may be that devolving responsibility and funds to various KLA committee coordinators in the school would broaden the appeal of studies of Asia and would more evenly apportion the burden for its implementation. The extent to which studies of Asia can be treated as a ‘priority amongst priorities’, is dependent on many factors, including mindfulness of external curricular givens. Nevertheless, change will be effected more efficiently by operating primarily on, rather than at several degrees of abstraction from, the nexus between teacher and learners.

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CHAPTER 6


*Education and Society, 21*, 1. 53-74.
As foreshadowed in the frontispiece of Chapter 5, the study reported on in this chapter complements the project discussed therein. The locus of the study is a cohort of preservice teachers at a university in Sydney. The project investigates the readiness of a group of these preservice teachers who had elected to undertake a subject titled “Asia across the Curriculum” as part of their bachelor degree.

To a certain extent, this paper also echoes the concerns raised in Chapter 4. The group could be said to be an élite, in that they had chosen to undertake a studies of Asia subject. Nevertheless, their motives could be open to question, in that the same subject, when offered during semester, failed to attract sufficient students for a class. When offered as an intensive winter school, in excess of 60 students enrolled. Notwithstanding the above considerations, the students demonstrated considerable differences in their willingness and readiness to embrace studies of Asia in their classrooms. This was still the case amongst the smaller cohort who agreed to take part in interviews, and whose identity was therefore known to the interviewer, who was also their lecturer for the subject.

The study revealed some interesting perspectives ‘from both sides’. Some students of Asian background revealed that their appearance had caused them on occasions to be the victims of prejudices from Australians of non-Asian background. In particular, one student with both Asian and European ancestry, who was at times presumed to be southern European in background, related that she was privy on occasion to anti-Asian comments by people who misidentified her ethnicity. The findings of this study suggest that there exists a cycle of Asia-illiteracy, or even Asia-hostility, not only amongst (some) teachers, but amongst (some) (young) preservice teachers. This suggests that simply increasing the amount of studies of Asia in preservice degrees is not sufficient to overcome reservations on students’ part to take up related teaching. Moreover, inclusion of such matters in their teaching did not make itself evident, in that students could identify very little from their undergraduate studies which prepared them for teaching studies of Asia.
Abstract

Australia is gradually coming to terms with its place with regard to Asia, and with Asia’s place in the world. An integral part of this process is the equipping of teachers to incorporate appropriate experiences of Asia in their teaching. This study investigated the attitudes of a group of trainee teachers undertaking an elective subject focusing on the teaching of Asian studies (n = 66) who responded to a questionnaire and took part in interviews (n = 11).

This paper sets out to interrogate the interplay between the three main factors in willingness and aptitude to teach about Asia which emerged: personal experiences; intergenerational and other attitudes (which derive largely from experiences) and; overall confidence to teach about Asia. The respondents displayed a considerable amount of goodwill with regard to teaching about Asia, albeit tempered at times with some negative previous experiences. They had scant praise for the quality of their tertiary training experiences, and recalled few useful contributions to their Asia literacy from their training, but demonstrated interest and enthusiasm for incorporating studies of Asia into their own teaching. These students’ responses suggest that the goal is not simply to increase the quantity of Asia experiences in teacher training, but to monitor the quality and nature thereof.

Background to the study

The nature of Australia’s relationship with Asia is contested, as is the nature of Asia’s relationship with the rest of the world (FitzGerald, 1997). The term “Asia” is similarly a contested construct of ‘western’ origin (Said, 1987; Clarke, 1997). At the same time, the configuration of Australia’s roles in the context of globalisation is emerging under interrogation (Waters, 1995; Arbor, 2001). Less contentious, however, is the importance of Asia to Australia (Baumgart, Halse and Buchanan, 1998). Indeed, the
combination of Australia’s history, geography and demography put it in a unique position to integrate studies of Asia, according to Patience (1998).

FitzGerald (1991, pp 21, 22) provides the following definition of Asia-literacy, within the Australian context:

An Asia-literate person is one who at the end of schooling will know sufficient of the history, geography, politics, economics and culture of Asia so that they may: be simply well informed; be confident regional citizens, be 'at ease' in Asia; understand the dynamics of the region and in particular Australia's place in it; make informed decisions on their own behalf and through national decision-making processes to have a productive interaction with Asia.

Prerequisite to the development of students’ Asia literacy is the enhancement of inservice and preservice teachers’ ‘Asia capital’. Speaking in a North American context, Barnett and Symons call for an inclusion of studies of Asia in tertiary curriculum (Ryor, 2001), while Hargreaves argues, more generally, that teachers are the sine qua non of educational reform. As Hill and Thomas (1998) argue, however, levels of Asia literacy amongst teacher education students are not high.

For some time, Federal and state/territory and governments have attempted to address the need for raising the Asia literacy levels of Australian students (Asian Studies Council, 1988; Curriculum Corporation, 2001). At times, though, there have been mismatches between stated goals and implementation or funding, and levels of Asia literacy among secondary school graduates in Australia have been disappointing (Andresson, 1997).

Any model for Asia literacy is further modified by the nature of schooling and the schools wherein it resides. Under the forces of ‘Balkanisation’ (Hargreaves, 1994) studies of Asia may fond themselves relegated to studies of languages and the social sciences. On the other hand, an across-the-curriculum approach has been suggested as a more efficient means of educating students about Asia (Fry, Baumgart, Elliott & Martin, 1995; Curriculum Corporation, 2001; FitzGerald, 1997).
Despite the comments by Patience (1998) above about Australia’s unique geo-historical position with regard to Asia, the place of Asia in the Australian psyche is problematic (Broinowski, 1992; Mohanty, 1994; Singh, 1996, Rudd, 1996). Moreover, several teacher-related impediments to curricular change have been identified. Giroux (1991) reports on the physical and psychological isolation of teachers. This may well facilitate on their part a regression to old behaviour patterns (Apple & Jungck, 1992) in the face of imposed curricular change. More generally, Schön (1983), observed resistance to change on the part of professionals, while Sikes (1992) reported on minimalist responses. Moreover, the mean age of teachers continues to rise (Dinham, 1991), while increasing workloads and a decrease in the profession’s esteem are also likely to fuel cynicism (Hargreaves, 1997). Some professional development courses have at times adopted a deficit approach to teachers, their performance and their needs, providing more fodder for cynicism. Anecdotally, teachers report that lack of confidence to teach certain topics impedes them in their attempts to do so.

This study is based on the assertion that the future of Australia, in demographic, geographic and economic terms, is closely enmeshed with that of Asia. This, then requires a certain degree of familiarity with Asia on the part of Australians, particularly those charged with teaching children, who also need a ‘critical mass’ of confidence, as well as attitudes which demonstrate an affirmation of Asian viewpoints, cultures etc. This study set out to investigate the views of a group of prospective primary school teachers at a university in Sydney. In particular, it sought information on their own constructs of Asia and Asians, on their background experiences with regard to Asia, and on the training and teaching they had encountered at school and university about Asia.

**Conduct of the project**

Undergraduate students at a university in Sydney \((n = 66)\) responded to a questionnaire, consisting of Likert-scale and open-ended questions, eliciting their attitudes to the teaching of “the countries and environments of the region generally

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12 Some of the students were already in their beginning years of teaching.
called ‘Asia’” (Asia Education Foundation, 1998, p. 2). Quantitative data from the questionnaires were analysed by using SPSS software, in an attempt to locate ‘scatter and cluster’ amongst the responses, while open-ended responses were coded and analysed manually.

At the time of completing the questionnaires, the students were also asked to indicate if they would take part in an interview on their views of Asia and Australia. Eleven people agreed to do so. The interviews afforded an opportunity for respondents to elaborate on their experiences of Asia, their confidence to teach about it etc. Interviews were transcribed and the transcripts analysed. It is worth noting that while the questionnaire was distributed at the commencement of the subject, the interviews took place at the time of its completion.

The cohort

The cohort comprised a group of preservice teachers who had elected to undertake an elective dealing with teaching studies of Asia In all, 66 people completed questionnaires.

The mean age of the respondents ($n = 62$) was 23.4 years, with a median age of 21 years. Ages ranged from 18 to 48 years. The ethnic background of the respondents was as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aboriginal/Torres Strait Islander</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anglo-Celtic</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>53.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle eastern</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (including American, Pacific Islander)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The interviewees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Schooling</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Diane</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>Where 1960s, 70s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kei Yee</td>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>Where 1970s, 80s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leanne</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>Where 1990s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leigh</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>Where 1990s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linda</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>Where 1960s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lisa</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>Where 1960s, 70s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Michelle</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>Where 1970s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Michelle’s parents lived in Bangladesh at the time, and she visited them regularly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natalie</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>Where 1990s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Natalie has European and Japanese ancestry.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steven</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>Where 1980s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thi</td>
<td>(Mostly)</td>
<td>Where 1990s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>Thi arrived in Australia from a refugee camp in Thailand in the late 1980s, en route from Vietnam.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vicky</td>
<td>Taiwan,</td>
<td>Where 1990s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>Vicky commenced year three in Australia.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Not surprisingly, the background experiences and degree of exposure to Asia vary vastly amongst these participants.

Findings and discussion

Experiences in Asia and of Asians

Some of the respondents reported encounters which have left them with unfavourable images of Asia. The participants were perceptive and frank in identifying these. More subtle were some of the essentialist or stereotypical notions of Asia held by some.
Several of those respondents who described themselves as being of non-Asia background, have lived or travelled in Asia. Michelle recalled from her experiences in Bangladesh, an Asia very different from that of the tourist brochure or corporate prospectus. She spoke of beggars who didn’t want their disfigurements treated, as a comfortable living could be made from begging. She also recalled having her hair pulled, because it was long and blond “and they wanted a strand of it”. She recounted being entertained at children’s parties by “the snake man” and “the monkey man” each of whom would use their animal companions to threaten customers who were tardy in paying for their services. She spoke of the warmth of people they met, such as their neighbours who lived in a lean-to, and who invited them to the second day of a three-day family wedding; “the groom’s family was rich. They were rickshaw drives. If you owned a putt-putt you were even better”. Despite, or perhaps because of, her Asian experiences, Michelle said that, “you weren’t allowed to go anywhere near Chinatown” in Sydney. She said of her Australian experiences, “living out here was very western suburbs. I didn’t see an Asian until I went into town”.

Lisa recalled walking out of Manila airport on her first excursion into Asia: “and being totally blown away, thinking wow, this is really hot and it was quite frightening, and the car horns, the traffic. I knew it wasn’t going to be like Sydney, but the noise ... the mass of people”. She said, though,

after that I loved Manila. I liked the people. They were very friendly, even though at the time it was still under martial law. We were searched constantly coming in and out of hotels. And people were telling us to be careful - I think because we were young girls. People telling us don’t go here, don’t go there. If you get in a cab, make sure somebody’s with you. A lot of people went out of their way to tell us.

Lisa also had contact with the family of an adviser to the King of Laos, and who had escaped when Laos became a communist country. It seems, though, that an earlier experience has had a more lasting impression on her:

When I was young we went to Tunisia. I had blond hair, and people kept wanting to touch me. After a while, I didn’t want to leave the hotel. It was a
real culture shock. Whether that’s still with me - that was a bit overwhelming for me ... I’m still uneasy about travelling in Asia. There’s something - I can’t put my finger on it - but something that makes me feel uneasy. Vanuatu or Fiji – it’s so easy.

Australian-born Steven undertook a practice teaching experience in Hong Kong. He enjoyed the cultural experience, recalling, “I went out walking every day, strolling through the suburbs. ... I loved the experience - the markets, the bird markets. In the mornings you’d see a lot of the elderly people doing tai chi. You don’t see that here”. When asked if he felt claustrophobic, he replied, “I don’t mind crowds. It was very different to what I expected. I thought it would be fast-paced, but they walk really slowly. It just looks like they’re going fast ’cause there’s so many”. He later said, 

at first I found people very rude - they bump into you and don’t say sorry, wouldn’t even acknowledge they’ve bumped into you. You walk out of a door - bang, they don’t even turn around to see what they’ve hit. They wouldn’t even know - could be anything. But they weren’t singling me out. After I was there for a while, observing their behaviour I realised that’s the way they are.

He said the experience was, “good to make me feel like a foreigner, to know what it feels like. There definitely is a fitting in thing that is hard to do, and it would be hard for people coming to Australia and trying to fit in. It’s good to experience and understand that”. Steven has also studied martial arts, saying, “I’ve always been fascinated by Chinese culture”.

At Steven’s high school, “one boy from Korea was a bit different. His attitude towards education was a lot different to most kids’. He was very studious” but, “no one treated him any different really. It’s not like now where Asians would stick together. He had no one to stick together with so he was just part of the classroom”. The issues of definition or nomenclature of Asians is also problematic. Steven at first recalled an Asian student at his primary school, then said, “no, she was Hawaiian”. These comments are interesting in the light of the observations made by those arriving from Asia, below.
Several of those who have come from Asia spoke of their experiences since their arrival in Australia. Kei Yee reported that, “most Australians don’t like to make friends with Asians”. Such divisions were perhaps even more stark in the respondents’ school experiences. Vicky said that on arrival in an Australian school, “it was hard to make friends at first - [the other students] sort of stuck to themselves. They didn’t welcome you”. Thi said that her schoolmates sometimes teased her. She was pinched on the thigh by the girl sitting next to her for asking the teacher questions. She also recalled, “I was called ‘Chinese Ching Chong’. I said, ‘I’m not Chinese’.”. When asked what her nationality was and replying, “Australian”, some children persisted, “But what’s your real nationality?”.

Thi recalled a recent event. While shopping with her mother, a security guard was keeping a close eye on them both, “because”, she explained, “we look Asian”. He insisted on checking their bags as they exited the shop, even though the shop assistant had already done so. As he stood reading the dockets from other shops, Thi asked, “‘what’s going on? My bag’s been checked. The security device at the door didn’t go off’. He said ‘All you Chinese are the same’. I said, ‘not all Chinese and Asians steal things’. He said, I’m married to a Chinese lady, so I know’.”.

Others reported more positive experiences in Australia, especially when compared to the difficulties of the voyage here. Thi recalled escaping from Vietnam, sailing to Thailand and being placed in a refugee camp where she lived for one year. She described the voyage as traumatic, and, not surprisingly, these events “disrupted her education”. She said, however, “I’m grateful to be here”. Vicky has gone back to Taiwan on several occasions, as her mother’s family lives there. In Australia she teaches at a Chinese language school, and helps at the Buddhist Temple. She writes and speaks in Chinese to her grandparents. After arriving in Australia, she kept on reading Chinese newspapers and watching videos in Chinese. Vicky and Thi were too young to remember much about the content of their schooling in Taiwan and Vietnam respectively, but of the regimes, Vicky recalled,

*big classes. The teachers were strict - for punishment they hit you with a cane. It was very rigid. There were no activities; you sat at your desk. Classes were long - from seven till four, but there was a nap time at one pm.*
Her first recollection of the teachers in Australia was that they “were very nice”. Thi also recalled being “hit for not remembering things” in Vietnam.

In comparing the two ‘sides’ of her family, Natalie said, “In my family the Japanese side seem to be more determined, They know what they want and they go and get it. They study successfully. The Australian side of my family say things, but don’t go and do anything about it”. Her nomenclature above suggests that she sees the European side of the family as being more ‘Australian’ than the Japanese side, even though most of her living relatives on both sides reside in Australia. On the other hand, it may be that such labels form a useful ‘shorthand’. Linda conceded that she grew up oblivious to Asia. She recalled, “in years 11 and 12 we had a family from Asia at the school. That was the first time I realised there are people who don’t have the experiences we have”.

Some of the respondents have done some teaching in schools with high populations of students from an Asian background. Linda spoke of two of her students: “One girl interpreted for all the other kids, but she only spoke Vietnamese. All the kids understood her. One boy arrived with no English. He spoke little English, but parroted everything I said. I don’t think he understood”. In terms of any perceived animosity between the various communities at the school, Linda said, “The only antagonism that I saw and I felt was in the higher grades, and it was more the Lebanese against everybody else. I personally feel that the Anglos accepted the Asians very well. The Anglos didn’t necessarily accept the Lebanese, and the Lebanese accepted nobody. That could’ve been the area. The Lebanese were trying very hard to be superior to everybody else”.

The contribution of schooling

During the interviews, respondents were asked about the authenticity and adequacy of the Asia component of their schooling. Not surprisingly, several of the respondents felt that this was wanting. Michelle did Asian studies at school, and felt that, in the light of her Bangladeshi experiences, the Asia component of her schooling was sanitised. When asked how she felt about this, she replied, “ripped off”. She said, for
example, “we were taught that the caste system is no longer, but it is.” She praised her teacher, though, who took on board her comments on Bangladesh, and who sent her with “shopping lists” of items to bring back to Australia with her. She conceded, too, that her experiences of Asia were “one extreme” of the Asian spectrum, and that this has influenced her views. Still, she said, “I imagined the whole of Asia to be this beautiful place with all the beautiful dancers. The real thing isn’t - even in Bangkok - those beautiful dancers are actually boys”. It is arguable that here, though, she is replacing one stereotype with another. This perhaps takes on added significance, given that her experiences in Asia are likely to lend authority and credibility to her opinions, in the eyes of her students and others.

In primary school, Michelle learnt nothing about Asia, only, “the Commonwealth - the pink bits on the map”. Interestingly, this does not appear to have included Asian member countries, such as Malaysia, Pakistan etc. Similarly, Diane recalled very little Asian content from her school days. “We did monsoons in geography” she said, “but it was more on the weather side, not the impact, not the people. And lots of British history”. Leanne did Asian studies in years nine and ten, and recalls enjoying it. Content-wise, she recalled doing the one-child policy in China, and wars in Indochina. Lisa recalled little of Asian content from her schooling. She remembered one of her teachers saying that, “we should be very fearful of Indonesia. I remember seeing a documentary called Two Minutes to Midnight, and she was saying that Asia is heavily populated and poor and Australia is rich and underpopulated, and we should be very fearful”.

Because Thi left Vietnam so early, she had to learn about Asia “like the rest of us” in the words of the interviewer, so she felt that she was not in a position to comment on the authenticity of the Asia content of her studies. She learnt about China in ancient history, as well as Japanese language and culture, and Bali in geography. Meanwhile, Natalie studied Japanese, but learnt little about Japanese culture. She went to a state school in the Hills district, an area which has a high proportion of Asian migrants, but, “most of the other kids were Anglos. Many Asians go to selective schools. At my sister’s selective school, it’s all Lu, Yao, Tang etc.”. She recounted that most of her Japanese language learning was accurate, but recalled one incident: “once the teacher was talking about a bum [ie homeless person] on the street. He said oshiri,
that’s ‘backside’”. Later, Natalie brought this to the attention of the teacher, who was grateful that she hadn’t mentioned it in class.

It is worth keeping in mind that even those who were schooled in Asia do not feel they have a broad knowledge and understanding of the region. Kei Yee said, “In Hong Kong, there was too much focus on China”. Thi remarked that when she did a practicum in Hong Kong, the Anglo-Australian students thought, “‘you’ll know all about Hong Kong’. They expected us to speak Cantonese”. She added that the Hong Kong locals also thought she was Chinese, and were surprised when she had to resort to showing her calculator to communicate prices when bargaining.

The contributions of teacher training

Perhaps the most damning response was in regard to the amount to which the participants’ teacher training had increased their knowledge of Asia. The mean response to this question was 1.8, between ‘little knowledge of Asia’ and ‘no knowledge of Asia’, but closer to the former (standard deviation 0.8). For three respondents, though, University has been the major source of knowledge about Asia. This is interesting in that the interviewees universally claimed that University had contributed little or nothing to their Asia literacy. Other contributors were books (13 responses), “news”/ “the media” (9 responses), television (9 responses) and family (9 responses).

Natalie recalled, “in HSIE we had one activity. We had a map of Asia and we had to name the countries. Nobody knew most of the countries. I’m Japanese and I didn’t even know - I know where Japan is, but that’s all I knew”. Thi said that her HSIE studies, “didn’t touch on [Asia]”, while Linda said that her HSIE studies had centred on Aboriginal perspectives, saying that she was told to, “Make sure you do this, make sure you introduce the Aboriginal perspective, some aspect of Aboriginal life and Aboriginal content.” We haven’t crossed the boundaries into Asia yet”. She said that now she’s ready to study Asia further, but in her preservice and early inservice days, her decisions were driven by, “what can help me when I get out there as a

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13 Human Society and its Environment (Known in other states/territories as SOSE – Studies of Society and Environment.)
teacher. So I did things like assessment and issues in literacy - trying to identify poorer literate students, that was the first base”. On the other hand, Steven said that while his teacher training hadn’t delved deeply into Asian content, it had, “shown me how to teach so I can teach what I want to teach. If I want to teach Asia I know where to start from. I know that I need resources, I can use the basic strategies in teaching and apply it to an Asian theme”.

**Knowledge of Asia**

How, then, have the above experiences mediated these students’ knowledge and understandings of Asia? Not surprisingly, most of the respondents feel that their knowledge of Asia is wanting. Kei Yee observed that, “Australians don’t know much about Asia. When I ask them, they don’t know much - only if I ask them about Australia”. Vicky’s school friends, “thought Taiwan was part of China”. They didn’t classify countries - everyone was the same”. Vicky said, “There’s a gap between Asian Australians’ and other Australians’ knowledge about Asia. A lot of people don’t understand Asian culture, so they stereotype. If I wasn’t Asian, I wouldn’t pay much attention to [Asian culture] either”.

The students were asked to indicate, on a 1-5 Likert scale (1 = no knowledge; 5 = vast knowledge, see Appendix 1, Questionnaire), the extent of their knowledge of various aspects of Asia. They did not rate their knowledge of Asia very highly. Table 3, below outlines their responses, in descending order of knowledge. The aspect of Asia which they felt they knew the most about was Asians in Australia. This item generated a mean of 2.5, midway between ‘moderate’ and ‘broad’ (see Appendix 1, questionnaire). On the other hand, knowledge of government in Asia was not at all strong, with a mean of 1.6, slightly closer to ‘poor’ than ‘nil’. The range of responses has also been included. It is worth keeping in mind, though, that while in most cases, only one or two respondents furnished the highest response (four or five, as the case may be) in each question. Moreover, a response of ‘five’ was only generated in five of the 14 questions.

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14 This is interesting in that many (mainland) Chinese nationals might make the same claim, in political terms.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Range of responses</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Asians in Australia</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>1-4</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One or more Asian religions or philosophies</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geography of one or more Asian regions</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One or more Asian cultures</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some Asian arts and crafts</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>1-3</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History of one or more Asian regions</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>1-4</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human rights in one or more Asian countries</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>1-4</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some Asian environmental issues</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1-4</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian technology</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1-4</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian sport and leisure</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>1-3</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade between Australia and its major Asian trading partners</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1-3</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some Asian literature</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1-3</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One or more Asian languages</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian forms of government</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>1-4</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Attitudes to Asia**

*Particularly my generation and generations below us, we need to understand where they fit in the world, and where we fit. And there's no more of that bygone aggression*”.

Linda

Interactions between Asians or Australians of Asian background and other Australians appear to have been friendly, or at least good-humoured, but again, tending towards the stereotypical. Diane recalled that a Chinese neighbour’s grandmother immigrated to Australia, saying that her neighbour, “John was in his 50s. We joked that the grandmother must have been in her 100s”. Leanne said that while she was selling cosmetics in Cabramatta, she was taught some words of Vietnamese by “one of the little cute ladies I worked with”.

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Some of the respondents noticed that not everybody shared their good will, however.
Diane lived in Canley Vale.

It was just becoming Asian then. The shops were good, but there was lots of animosity. We’re all people, I reckon, but there were lots of negative feelings in the community - ‘the Asians are taking over the whole community’. I grew up with the politics of white Australia.

Natalie recalled of her school friends,

One particular boy hated Asians, and I confronted him about it, because I was really good friends with him through primary school, and he said, “they come here and take our jobs”. It didn’t come out of his mouth in year six. I just said, “you’re your father’s son, and that’s all I have to say to you”. His dad went for a job and an Asian man got it, so his dad comes home and started blah blah blah about Asians. He hated them because his dad was out of work for a period of time because of an Asian.

Perhaps the most poignant comment came from Natalie, with regard to criticisms of Asian people and culture to which she is privy:

People didn’t know that I was half [Asian]. People wouldn’t really pick it. I hear racism a lot more than - if there are people from Asia around they watch their mouth, whereas they think I’m Italian or Spanish or something, so that’s okay to say around me.

She added that her university colleagues are not above racially intolerant comments at times.

The media have played their role in shaping respondents’ views. Leigh said, “I’d love to go to Cabramatta, but I’m scared, because of the media”. Leanne, on the other hand, said that her work experiences in Cabramatta provided her with perspectives of the area which contradicted the prevailing negative media views. She added that while the drug-related connotations of the area weren’t necessarily overstated, “more
of the people were Caucasian. That was the drug element. Most of the Vietnamese people, the ones I had contact with, were very frightened of that, very apprehensive”.

There also appears to be intergenerational conflict in terms of attitudes to Asia, and there was a variety of responses on the part of the respondents to such attitudes, ranging from resignation to anger. Leigh observed, “I grew up very prejudiced. My grandfather fought in World War Two”, and Linda recounted, “My father is definitely very racist. He says he’s not, but all his attitudes and his actions tell me he is. When I first said I was going to have an exchange student from Japan, he was very angry that I would do that”. Leanne was more forthright in her dismissal of such attitudes, and recalled, “I grew up with all that white supremacist stuff. ‘It’s our country’, sort of thing” and, “at school we learnt ‘We discovered this country in 1788’. Bullshit, if I can say so”. Similarly, Lisa, “had an uncle from Changi” and said that she encounters negative comments about “Asians taking over ... ‘They all want to be here’. That’s what people believe”.

Just as some participants were concerned and surprised by their parents’ attitudes, some have noticed differences in their children’s experiences and attitudes. Diane said that her son, “is doing a lot more [about Asia at school] than I ever did”. Michelle said that her son sees photos of himself as a two-year-old in Bangladesh, and wants to go back. Whereas as his mates, “just want to stop off in Bali, he wants to kick on [to other Asian destinations]”. Similarly, Linda has learnt a lot about Indonesia from her children, both of whom have studied the language at the school they attend, but she felt that many children might not have the same opportunities, as the following excerpt illustrates:

*The only reason my kids had any Asian influence is because they went to a private school. This school has a sister school in Indonesia and in Tokyo. If they hadn’t gone there, their introduction to Asia would have been just as negative as mine.*

*Negative or negligible?*
Negligible. I think negative, too, because when you don’t know about something, that’s when you build up suspicions and you’re against it. Because my children went through a private system and my daughter goes to a semi private, Catholic school where they have 15 languages, I think. ... I don’t know if the public system would offer the same things, and whether my kids being in the private system had an advantage. There’s an issue of funding and support. That particular independent school had the initiative to go out and sell themselves. They brought students back [from Asia]. The principal went once per year to the [partner] school and gave a big spiel - there were so many places allotted each year for students from these schools. Wealthy kids from Tokyo and Hong Kong came here.

None of the respondents mentioned the influence or existence of Asian-background friends of their children.

The mean response to the five-point Likert scale question on attitudes to Asia was 3.9, almost mid-way between ‘indifferent’ and ‘positive’ (see Appendix 1). Only 2 people indicated a negative response, and none indicated ‘very negative’. This is interesting in the light of responses to the interview questions, above, which perhaps ‘scratched a little deeper’.

Reasons for negative responses were: “From my experience I have found many Asians to be anti-social with other cultures & sometimes rude” and “I live in an area which has become a high Asian population. They won’t speak or associate with English speaking families. Won’t even return a smile”. Some of the ‘indifferent’ reasons included, “I don’t have enough knowledge to pass judgement” and “I don’t see them as any ‘different’ to others”.

Reasons for ‘positive’ responses ranged from general affirmations (“every person is special”, “my attitude to any culture is special”) to more specific affirmations of Asians (“I have always found the Asian people to be pleasant and polite”). Positive encounters with Asians affected responses; “I had a lot to do with Asians at school, lovely people”; “I have many Asian friends”. For those from an Asian background, this background was, naturally enough, a contributing factor to positive responses.
In all, respondents furnished 148 words or phrases in response to the question about words associated with Asia (see appendix 1). When loosely grouped into positive, negative and ‘neutral’ categories\(^{15}\), the breakdown of responses was as follows:

- positive: 47 responses
- negative: 29 responses
- neutral: 72 responses

The most commonly cited negative image was that of overpopulation, with 12 references. The other 17 negative references included crime, gangs, drugs, poverty, pollution, absence of human rights, pushiness of the people. Positive images included peacefulness, tourism, advanced technology, good food, the depth of traditions and cultures and moral values. Little in the way of patterns emerged in these responses, however.

*Reasons for choosing the subject*

Respondents were asked to rank the reasons they had chosen the teaching studies of Asia subject. Since the rankings were placed in order from one (most important reason) to six (least important reason), lower mean scores corresponded to the most important factors in making their decision. The figures are outlined overleaf, in table 3, in descending order of importance.

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\(^{15}\) It is conceded that these groupings are very subjective. For example, place names were recorded as neutral, but these included references to Cabramatta, a suburb of Sydney strongly associated with residents of Asian background, and with negative images of crime etc. It is likely that at least some informants ascribe negative connotations to Cabramatta.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I want to learn about Asia</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I need to learn about Asia</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers need Asia literacy</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is on at a convenient time</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will do well at it</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There were few other choices</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is difficult to know to what extent the students provided idealistic, as opposed to realistic responses to this question. While it does not appear from the responses above that the timing of the subject was the main factor in subject choice, the subject was offered during semester, and ‘collapsed’ owing to low numbers of student applications. When the subject was offered on an intensive basis between semesters, however, it attracted more than 60 candidates.

Implications for teacher training

Students need to be better informed, according to Michelle, who added that offering more Asia-related subjects would achieve this. On the other hand, Vicky said, “Asian studies can’t be a compulsory subject, because there are so many subjects to get through, but it should be incorporated into our subjects a little bit more than they are now. If it was made a compulsory subject, it might turn some people off. Not everyone is as tolerant”.

Leanne suggested that Asian studies needs a higher status in undergraduate courses. The study of Asia is “optional, and it shouldn’t be”. Similarly, Leigh said that the university, “should have a separate Asia subject. It should be compulsory. Like a KLA subject - even if it covered all [Asian and non-Asian] cultures. It’s like child protection, drugs education”. In similar vein, Diane said, “Aboriginal studies should be a core subject. Asia would be pretty close to that”. Linda commented that Aboriginal and Asian studies could be incorporated into the one subject. Beyond this,
the main suggestion was for universities to offer practicums or other exchange opportunities in Asia, mentioned by two students. Nobody mentioned the teaching of Asian languages.

Importance of Asia in the curriculum, and possible entry points

This question, which required a response on a 1-5 Likert scale (1 = not at all important; 5 = vitally important, see Appendix 1, questionnaire), generated a mean of 3.4, (standard deviation 0.9) almost midway between ‘of some importance’ and ‘very important’. There was not necessarily a strong correlation between responses and reasons, with the same reasons accompanying different responses on the Likert scale. Of those who said that Asia is not curricularly important, one drew on her previous experience, saying, “I haven’t seen it being adapted to during practicum in either first or second year”. Other comments included, “Too many cultures (including Asia) to teach. Focus needs to be on Australia”. “The curriculum is very time-consuming as it is” and “because if we are going to stress about teaching Asia in schools, then we would have to consider all the other continents/countries our students come from. Why Asia in particular?”.

Several of those who furnished a mid-range response (“of some importance”) positioned Asian culture within the myriad cultures co-existing in Australia, indicating that all should be equally represented. One said, “I haven’t ever needed to know about Asia, so find it not a necessary subject to study”. Other comments included, “other aspects such as English, maths, arts, PE etc are of more importance”, “the curriculum is already crowded with other KLAs [Key Learning Areas] including assessment, evaluation etc”, “it depends on the other demands placed on you”, ”we need to have a broad curriculum” and “there are MANY other things that are more important” (emphasis in original).

Reasons for seeing Asia as important in the curriculum included, “to help accommodate [sic] children with an Asian background and to help others become more open minded”, “neighbours to our own country”, “we have a lot of Asians in Australia”, “because of our changing society, students need to be educated in order to have understanding and respect for one another”, “our students (adults of the future) will be
required to interact with Asian countries and people more and more”, “the world is becoming more globalised every day”, “the relationship between Asia and Australia is strengthening every day” and “it’s important to be open minded about all cultures”. One participant wrote of “the many prejudices against Asian people”.

One respondent used the question to outline a difficulty in classroom practice: “The importance may be overridden by the busy curriculum & lack of interest by schools in general”. Some spoke of the benefits for teachers: “with a better understanding of others’ backgrounds your teaching can be more effective” and “teachers need to become more aware of multiculturalism”.

Interview data confirmed a general lack of confidence to teach about Asia, among other insights. Comments included, “there’s so much to teach, about Asia and not Asia” (Leigh) and, “there’s a difference between knowledge - facts, and understanding culture” (Vicky).

As with those who answered the questionnaire, most of the interviewees claimed that the main reason for including studies of Asia is to cater for the significant and increasing numbers of children of Asian background in our schools. Natalie said,

*There are lots of Asian children here, even in my prac class. This would probably make them feel more Australian. Even though they’re from somewhere else, we’re teaching it here, because they are here and they don’t feel as foreign because everyone’s learning about it. It’s not like we don’t want to talk about it or teach it because it’s over there. We’re multicultural and this is how it is. That’s sort of a compliment in a way. It’s a booster in a way, acknowledging you want to teach that.*

Diane recalled the animosity towards Asians she witnessed when she was growing up and said,

*We need to, especially with the kids growing up, to make sure that doesn’t happen. I think the more you know about something, the less frightened you are of it. I think if we can instil that in children as they’re growing up and get*
them to accept those differences, there’ll be less aggression. Fear is a big thing. People think they’re losing something, afraid of being taken over, but if we can get children to understand that, there’s more hope as the generations grow, of that understanding spreading.

Similar comments included, “the main reason to do Asia is if you have Asian children in your class”, “we live in communities with Asian cultures intermingled with us ... how can you be an effective teacher if you’ve got no knowledge of how these people live, where they’re from, what they’re about?” and “It’s important to make Asian kids feel welcome”. This contrasts with governmental rationale for Asia literacy, such as trade and tourism, which are underpinned by a financial ideology.

Nevertheless, some of the participants’ views did include economic notions. Steven said, “The majority of people’s livelihood is likely to be connected with Asia, especially if you see Australia as being part of Asia”. Diane said that with regard to trade, “The USA is a long way off”, whereas Asia, “has more impact on us than a lot of other countries do. They’re our neighbours, and we need to know about those that we live near”. Others indicated that an understanding of other cultures is a valuable intellectual and axiological pursuit in itself. Steven said, “It’s good to understand as many cultures of the world as possible. When you do come across other people, you’re not critical of their behaviour”.

Natalie indicated that studies of Asia would permit an investigation of, “different perspectives, even on history and wars, for example, Hiroshima - to understand why Japanese might feel racist against whites”. Linda, on the other hand, said that her studies of world war two “didn’t give me any sympathetic images of Asia”, as it dwelt on an Australian perspective of Japanese aggression during the war.

Linda wants to incorporate the role of the Chinese into a study of the Australian gold rush. She added that information on the Chinese was now relatively readily available, whereas, “ten years ago it would have been hard to find anything about it”. She also intends to incorporate examples of Asian literature into her teaching, “instead of looking at Charles Dickens this week”.
Leigh appeared to be somewhat apprehensive about ‘saying the wrong thing’ with regard to Asia. She spoke of “acid attacks [as punishment for a woman accused of committing adultery] - I spoke to an Indian - he said it’s not like that now. I might have said that in a class”. This is interesting, in the light of Michelle's comments about learning that the caste system no longer exists, but finding evidence of it. Similarly, with regard to teaching about world religions, Leigh said “you have to tread carefully ... religions cause world wars” and “I found some beliefs very strong. You have no right to change that”. She recalled an incident from a school where she did practice teaching, “some kids stormed out during the national anthem - they felt so strongly”.

Linda called for Asian studies as a curriculum subject, but felt that it’s difficult for younger children to grasp related concepts, particularly in the crowded curriculum. She suggested introducing Asian fables and fairytales in senior primary school, while deferring historical studies until secondary school.

Lisa warned against a shallow or stereotypical treatment of Asian themes, saying, “Don’t just teach the exotic; kimonos, tea ceremonies”, and, “it’s easy to get out a Japanese doll with kimono and do origami, and say, ‘ooh, Asia’.”.

Vicky said that her Asian background had led to an offer of a teaching job at a school with a high Asian population: “In my first year out on prac, the principal was asking me if I was a third year student. She said ‘if you were, I’d offer you a job straight away’ ... because I speak Cantonese and Chinese and I’m Asian”. Apart from being pleased at being offered a job, Vicky said, “the south-west [of Sydney] really needs a lot of Asian teachers. There’s not a lot around”.

*The next part of the cycle: Confidence to teach about Asia*

You’re not going to teach something you’re not confident about.

Diane
Students were asked to furnish a number corresponding to their level of confidence to teach about Asia. This question, on a five-point Likert scale, generated a mean response of 3.0, midway along a scale with ‘nervous’ and ‘relaxed and comfortable’ at either end (standard deviation 1.0).

Reasons for responses

Of the 22 respondents who gave reasons for a response at the ‘nervous’ end of the scale, all but one cited limited knowledge as their reason. The other said, “in classrooms with high Asian populations it is hard to teach”. The main reason for positive responses included enjoying the topic (five responses).

During the interviews, Diane said, “I don’t feel very confident to teach about Asia. I’d need something to teach from at the moment. The Access Asia package is very good, but I’d need more. She added, shrugging her shoulders in resignation, “with any culture, if you don’t have the information...”. She went on to say, “kids either grab things and run, or switch off. To get through, you want them asking questions, and unless you have the resources or at least a basic knowledge, you’re stumped. Then they drop the ball. You’ve got to have something to start with”. Lisa was probably the most scathing of her teacher training, saying, “I’m not confident about teaching. I’m learning now [as a practising teacher]”.

Michelle recalled that she had always wanted to be a teacher, and that she had this in mind when getting her shopping list items for her teacher. She also took photos with this in mind as a child. “They’re yellowed now”, she added.

An expectation that teachers of Asian background necessarily have a broad knowledge of the entire continent is unrealistic and arguably stereotypical. Vicky said, “I feel confident to teach about China or Hong Kong, but South-East Asia, less so”. On the other hand, Steven said, “I feel pretty confident to teach about Asia, because I’m pretty interested myself. I’m happy to learn along with [the students]”.

Lisa said that before she starts to teach about Asia, “I’d like to feel more comfortable with it first. I still feel a little funny - I go to Chinatown - I enjoy it but I still feel very
foreign, still a bit of a them and us”. She believes that increased knowledge of Asia is best effected through, “more exposure to Asia and Asian people. My Blue Mountains school has a Japanese teacher there every day. You get to know them”. She suggested exchange programs as another means of increasing understanding between Australia and Asia.

Steven said that he could find out more about Asia by, “getting involved with some kind of organisation dealing with Asian people”, but “not being of an Asian background, it would be very hard for me to associate with Asians. I even found that in Hong Kong - it’s quite hard to associate with the Chinese”. His comments further illustrate a perceived rift between Asian and non-Asian cultures. Thi, on the other hand, said that associations, “like Buddhist groups, community groups [are] very welcoming of non-Asians”.

“I have no problems with introducing Asia into my studies at all, except finding how to do it. Finding an entry point that makes sense”, said Linda who added, “I’m happy to teach about Asia. It requires a bit of research on my part to make sure I’ve got the content right, but that just comes down to experience, but I’m quite happy to open the door to that, because I think that if you don’t, there’s going to be a lot of questions that these kids want to know, want to ask”. 

Linda believes that one way of expanding children’s horizons with regard to Asia is to include in the study of government undertaken in years five or six, an investigation of one Asian government, because, “they’re our neighbours. If we can’t understand them, they can’t understand us - we’re teaching the children who are going to be the next generation of whoever’s going to run the country”.

**Concluding remarks**

If these informants are indicative, the ways in which people of Asian and other backgrounds see themselves and each other seem to be considerably different. This is even more the case when one considers that these informants are: relatively highly educated and successful in their schooling; part of an ‘elite’ who have chosen (for whatever reason) an elective subject on Asia; willing to take part in a related research
project, and not hiding their anonymity, as far as the interviewer (/lecturer) is concerned.

Three variables seem to emerge with regard to teachers’ levels of Asia literacy: their bank of knowledge and experiences; their attitudes which derive from such experiences; their overall confidence and willingness to teach about Asia. With regard to confidence, one of Linda’s comments is worthy of further consideration. She suggested that preservice students are most concerned with ‘survival’ knowledge, and it may be that inservice training would be more warmly received than its preservice equivalent, particularly for those teachers in areas of high Asian immigration.

On the one hand, an inventory of these teachers’ experiences reveals an encouragingly broad ensemble of Asian encounters. Yet there are large inconsistencies between individuals. Notwithstanding the arguments about pre- and inservice training, universities arguably have a duty to provide appropriate ‘Asia experiences’ for their students of teaching. This raises the question of the nature of such experiences, given that attitudes derive largely from experiences. Training institutions need to allow for a balance of ‘positive and comfortable’ and ‘challenging and growth-inducing’ encounters, with a view to maximising positive and empathic, yet not uncritical attitudes to Asia. This is further complicated by the fact that teacher trainers are not immune to blind spots and prejudices with regard to Asia. Uncertainty over the future of NALSAS (National Asian Languages and Studies in Australian Schools) funding adds another complication to the equation.

The participating students offered few suggestions with regard to improved tertiary training. This is particularly discouraging in the context of their low regard for existing support in this area. In general, the respondents were much more interested in talking about schools with regard to Asia literacy, than they were to discuss their teacher training. The possibility has to be conceded that they see their tertiary training as having little relevance for their eventual teaching. It is worth keeping in mind, though, that these students were nearing the end of their teacher training, and it is not surprising that they should be looking forward rather than backwards. One other positive note is that (the majority, ‘non-Asian’) students entering teacher
training come increasingly from a milieu wherein they mix freely with Asians and Asian-Australians, from their earliest days.

The informants display a good deal of goodwill as well as intention and energy for intercultural understanding. Those from non-Asian backgrounds also seem to view themselves as more ‘Asia literate’ and ‘Asia enlightened’ than their parents, and less so than their children or students. Even the fact that most of the Australian-schooled students indicated that their school experiences of Asia were inauthentic is perhaps encouraging, in that they were able to recognise these experiences as such. Still, these positive stated attitudes and increased understandings emerge despite some negative and fearful experiences on the part of certain respondents. Apart from their personal experiences, these and other preservice teachers’ constructs of Asia are developing in the context of ‘corporate (i.e. shared) experiences’ such as those associated with conflicts over East Timor, asylum seekers, international terrorism and war, association of the SARS (Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome) virus with Asia etc. Keeping in mind this context and some of the dynamics as they emerged from this study may assist tertiary institutions in the purposeful and premeditated development of Asia literacy among their students. Similarly, making teachers aware of these dynamics may be a productive step in facilitating informed and open-to-scrutiny understandings of Asia on the part of all Australians. Given that negative experiences can be counterproductive in the journey towards intercultural understanding, more thought could well be devoted to the nature, depth and extent, and not simply the number, of ‘Asian experiences’ provided for students of teaching.

For schools and teacher training institutions alike, consideration could be given to the recognition, reward and offering of in-country experiences, and of appropriate studies (language and culture studies etc), the further use of mentor teachers and schools, such as in the Access Asia program, using e-networks and online support with resources etc where possible, and, more simply, the encouragement of ‘Asian experiences’ within Australia, through cultural associations, visits to local Asian communities and from those with backgrounds and knowledge in Asia.
References


Apple, M. and Jungck, S. (1992) You don’t have to be a teacher to teach this unit: teaching, technology and control in the classroom. In Andy Hargreaves and Michael Fullan (Eds) Understanding *teacher development* (New York: Teachers College Press).


APPENDIX 1 QUESTIONNAIRE

Asia-Literacy questionnaire

Gender ☐ Male ☑ Female

Age _____________ years (optional)

I consider my ethnic background to be (please tick one or two):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnic Background</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aboriginal/Torres Strait Islander</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>British/ Irish/ New Zealand Pakeha</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>European</td>
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<td>Middle Eastern</td>
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<tr>
<td>North American</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pacific Islander/Maori</td>
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<tr>
<td>South American</td>
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<tr>
<td>Other:</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

I would rate my knowledge of the following topics as:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Nil</th>
<th>Poor</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>Broad</th>
<th>Vast</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One or more Asian languages</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One or more Asian cultures</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geography of one or more Asian regions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One or more Asian religions or philosophies</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>History of one or more Asian regions</td>
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<tr>
<td>Asian technology</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Some Asian arts and crafts</td>
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<tr>
<td>Some Asian literature</td>
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<tr>
<td>Asian sport and leisure</td>
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<tr>
<td>Asian forms of government</td>
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<tr>
<td>Trade between Australia and its major Asian trading partners</td>
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<tr>
<td>Asians in Australia</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some Asian environmental issues</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Human rights in one or more Asian countries</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
My attitude to Asia is:

- Very negative  □
- Negative  □
- Indifferent  □
- Positive  □
- Very positive  □

When I think about Asia, the following word/s come to mind:

__________________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________________

In the context of a crowded, demanding curriculum, the teaching of Asia in NSW schools is:

- Not at all important  □
- Of little importance  □
- Of some importance  □
- Very important  □
- Vitally important  □

Are there any particular reasons for your response above? ______________________

__________________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________________

The idea of teaching about Asia makes me feel (please circle one number):

1 __________ 2 __________ 3 __________ 4 __________ 5 __________  

Nervous  Relaxed and comfortable

Are there any particular reasons for your response above? ______________________

__________________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________________
My teacher training course to date has given me:

- [ ] No knowledge about Asia
- [ ] Little knowledge about Asia
- [ ] Some knowledge about Asia
- [ ] Extensive knowledge about Asia
- [ ] Very extensive knowledge about Asia

My main source/s of information about Asia is/are:

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________
APPENDIX 2 INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

1. Where did you do your schooling? [Primary, infants, secondary? Many Asian children at your school?]

2. (Optional question) In which decade/s did you go to school?

3. Did you learn much about Asia at school? If so, what can you recall?

4. What sort of association have you had with Asia and Asian? [Neighbours, friends, travel, reading, hobbies, religion etc]

5. Do you believe it’s important for teachers to be ‘Asia-literate’? Why/not?

6. How confident do you feel to go out and teach about Asia? [Content, processes]

7. What more could teacher training courses do to improve teachers’ Asia literacy?

8. What could/would you do to improve your knowledge and understanding about Asia?
CHAPTER 7

Buchanan, J. and Harris, B. (2004). The world is your oyster, but where is the pearl? Getting the most out of global education. *Curriculum Perspectives*, 24, 1. 1-11.
The provision and quality of professional development is a *sine qua non* of curricular and pedagogical change. This chapter represents a comprehensive report on the outcomes effected as a result of an extensive program of professional development implemented by a Victorian professional association. The content focus in this instance is a global, rather than a regional, Asian one, in that the PD sessions aimed to raise the profile and enhance the quality of global education in the schools of participants.

This report adds to the findings outlined (in particular) in the preceding two chapters, in that it investigates the role of professional development designed to inform issues of both content and processes.

As stated earlier, this study’s content focus is global education rather than studies of Asia. In common with all professional development, however, the program reported on in this chapter aims to effect change in the classroom. More specifically, the inclusion of both studies of Asia in Australia and of global education are issues which are potentially contentious. While all educational change has the capacity to unsettle teachers and their habits, few would argue that ‘we need to do more to help children with their literacy’ or ‘with their numeracy’. Replacing ‘numeracy’ or ‘literacy’ in the previous statement with ‘knowledge of Asia’ or ‘global knowledge’ may give rise to a dictum which fails to generate the concurrence which the ‘basics’ such as literacy and numeracy enjoy.

Accession to an ideal is not necessarily attended by a corresponding change in behaviour. So it would appear that effective improvements in fields such as studies of Asia and global education are, at a minimum, a two-fold challenge, that is, in changing both the *attitudes* and *practices* of teachers. The research report which constitutes this chapter identified mismatches between teachers’ initial positive responses to the PD sessions they attended, as evidenced by evaluation questionnaires, and (limited) changes in classroom practice, as revealed by telephone interviews some months after the sessions were conducted. The report put forward a suite of suggestions for maximising classroom change.
THE WORLD IS YOUR OYSTER, BUT WHERE’S THE PEARL?
GETTING THE MOST OUT OF GLOBAL EDUCATION

The realities and perception of interconnectedness on a global scale are becoming increasingly evident owing to enhanced technology and the escalating scale of human impact on the rest of humanity and on the environment. This paper reports on a project which investigated the effectiveness of a suite of professional development sessions, of from one to two hours’ duration, offered to primary and secondary teachers in Victoria, Australia, aimed at improving classroom practice in global education. The professional development was provided by a professional teachers’ association, in an effort to increase the knowledge and skills of teachers with regard to global education, and assist their students in doing the same. The study employed a combination of questionnaires, completed by participants at the conclusion of each session \((n = 1326)\), telephone interviews with a random sample of participants \((n = 40)\) chosen from among those who had indicated a willingness to be so interviewed, and four case studies. The study found that while participants were forthright and generous in their praise of the professional development courses in their post-session questionnaire responses, very few of them translated this into their classroom teaching in ways which could be identified. This paper aims to highlight some of the excellent classroom work which derived in part or whole from the professional development sessions, and, using some of the literature on educational change, workplace learning and transference of learning, to investigate reasons why more teachers may not have taken this up. The paper also proposes a model designed to ‘value add’ to the training work which was undertaken by providers of the professional development. Many of these findings may be transferable to other inservice providers.

Background to the study

A discussion of global education presumes a familiarity with the phenomenon of globalisation. Waters (1995, p. 3) defines globalisation as “a social process in which the constraints of geography on social and cultural arrangements recede and in which people become increasingly aware that they are receding”. The term is contested, though, and is seen to centre on the dynamics and politics of wealth and opportunity
inequalities. Such an approach is commonly adopted in texts with an educational focus (e.g. Curriculum Corporation, 2002). The causes and effects of globalisation are economic, environmental, socio-cultural and political in nature (Strachan, 1998; McMillen; 1997; Merryfield, 1994).

Global education is a process which is designed to enhance students’ understanding of the above processes. It should provide students with an increased understanding of environmental, political and economic causes and effects, a deeper and more critical understanding of themselves, and empathy with others. Above all it should provide them with more informed lifestyle choices, and a new enthusiasm for justice (Buchanan & Halse, 1997). The term global education has been used interchangeably with other terms such as international education and development education. Calder and Smith (1991) point out, though, that global education transcends an awareness of what is happening in developing nations, and demands an investigation into aspects of developed countries, including poverty and injustice within these richer countries, and the dynamics of such countries which contribute to poverty in developing nations.

In many cases, it appears that previous research has taken place when a certain program, or suite of skills or processes were to be developed in the classroom. Groundwater-Smith and White (1995) adopt a socio-cultural approach to curriculum, and pose questions as to the priorities and silences of a school’s curriculum, and the context thereof (pp. 105 ff). They see curriculum in terms of its context and its pretext (that is, its rationale), and warn against too tight a yoking of curriculum and assessment, which, they claim, does not necessarily lead to an improvement in schools. Ross (1994, p. 381) cites a lack of initiatives aimed at improving practice, reporting that, “there have been few attempts to increase teacher efficacy through district-organized professional development”. As well as reporting on the findings from a professional development initiative in Australia, this paper explores some broad themes of inservice education and proposes a model for maximising its effect.

Smith, Baker and Oudeans (2001) report on three essential elements identified as assisting transfer of practice into the classroom: “deep instructional understanding of the rationale for the changes being considered … multiple opportunities to try new instructional practices in the classroom … specific feedback about implementation
during ongoing professional development activities” (p. 8). Sugai and Bullis (1997) claim that inservice training needs to fit the teacher’s experience and teaching context. It also needs to allow for “communication, support and accountability” (p. 56) and to be rewarded. Calderhead (1984) recommends a more holistic approach to understanding teachers and teaching, students and learning, the classroom and metacognitive processes, in our attempts to better understand the factors which promote and constrain transference of learning from the professional development program to the classroom.

In an attempt to determine ongoing classroom practice, Ross (1994) investigated teacher and student outcomes on three occasions during an eight-month professional development program. His study derived from the theory of teacher efficacy (Bandura, 1977), in which the success of educational innovations can be measured in terms of teachers’: perceptions of their ability to effect a desired change, and; the likelihood that the action they undertake will effect such a change. Ross found that, “it was the use of inservice knowledge, not exposure to it, that contributed to changes in teacher efficacy” (pp. 389, 390, emphasis added). These changes were largely attitudinal, however, and little change in teacher practice was reported. Ross cites two reasons for this: the lack of between-session opportunities for practice of related skills, and, significantly, the relatively short period of study, eight months. Gusky, in an interview with Todnem and Warner (1994, p. 63) made similar observations, noting that:

*I find two mistakes that are most common in staff development evaluation. The first is that efforts are too shallow. The second is that efforts are too brief. Regarding shallowness, staff developers are often satisfied with assessing participants’ immediate reactions to a program or activity. Sometimes we consider the effects on participants’ perceptions, attitudes, or beliefs.*

*But rarely do we consider impact on professional knowledge or practice. And rarer still is any consideration of impact on students – the clients our schools are designed principally to serve. If we’re serious about evaluation, we must probe deeper, consider multiple*
sources of information, and not be satisfied with tapping only immediate reactions to a program or effort.

While certain desired teaching approaches can be modelled during inservice sessions, then copied and monitored in the classroom, it is arguably more problematic to facilitate and monitor second order conceptual change, such as implementing along with the appropriate processes and attendant outcomes, content which is not state-mandated, in the classroom.

Impediments to professional change in the classroom include resistance (Schön, 1983; Rudduck, 1984), a regression to old behaviour patterns (Apple & Jungck, 1992) and to minimalism (Sikes, 1992). This resistance to change is exacerbated by the physical and psychological isolation of teachers (Giroux, 1991) in the context of an aging profession (Dinham, 1991) as well as increasing workloads and a decrease in the profession’s esteem (Hargreaves, 1997). Further compounding this inertia against change, professional development courses have at times adopted a deficit approach to teachers, their performance and their needs.

Another factor impacting the effectiveness of curricular development is the issue of ownership of intended change. Hargreaves (1994, p. 186) uses the term “contrived collegiality” to describe change over which teachers feel they have little input or power, and Au (1997) emphasises the teacher-centredness of successful change, calling teachers to reflect on their personal philosophies, choose a focus for professional development, and set related goals. Hargreaves (1994) refers to such contexts as “collaborative cultures” (p. 192).

A further critical aspect of successful inservice provision is its transferability to the workplace context. Anderson, Reder and Simon (1996) speak of workplace learning’s “situatedness” (p. 5), a term they derive from the work of Druckman and Bjork (Eds., 1994), who do not appear to use the term per se. In similar vein, Boud (1995) enumerates various conditions of transference of learning to the workplace. He observes that workplace learning: is relational; social; extant independent of, and at times despite, ‘formal teaching’; needs- and opportunity-based, and cultural in nature. Boud’s work could be seen in terms of linking professional learning to
various workplace contexts that are time-, place-, needs- and opportunity-specific, inter- as well as intra-cultural (i.e., reflective) in nature. Boud (1995) recognises that workplace learning is not dependent on formal training, but that such training needs to critically consider the above workplace contexts. Similarly, Lave and Wenger (1991) identified the social nature of workplace learning, describing workplaces as “communities of practitioners” and workplace learning as a progression “toward full participation in the sociocultural practices of a community” (p. 29). It is with these considerations in mind that this study was undertaken.

Conduct of the study

Between November 1999 and February 2001, more than 50 professional development experiences were offered to teachers in Victoria. Almost 1,500 pre-service and practising educators participated in one or more of these sessions. These experiences were designed to raise teachers’ awareness of the need to include global education in their teaching, and to provide ideas for resources, approaches and content material they might use in their everyday teaching. The majority of the experiences were short (one to two-and-a-half hours, average 1.5 hours) and were designed to be practical in nature. Topics included refugees, land mines, water resources and fishing. Attendees at the professional development sessions were as follows: primary school teachers: 196 (15%); secondary teachers: 632 (48%); preservice teachers: 457 (35%); other: 21 (2%).

Participants (n = 1326) completed questionnaires at the end of the professional development sessions they attended. These consisted of a series of Likert scale questions eliciting information on the participants’ views on course content, processes, including the provision of resources, quality of the teaching and the potential for the sessions to assist the participants’ students to increase their knowledge and understanding of various aspects of the course, such as diversity of cultures, power and wealth inequalities etc.

Responses were analysed using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) software. Significant differences in mean responses between pairs of sub-groups such as males and females, urban and rural teachers were sought using t-tests, while
ANOVAS (Analyses of Variance) were used to investigate differences according to age, sector (Government, Catholic, Independent schools) KLA (Key Learning Area taught) etc.

**Findings and discussion**

Participants generally rated the sessions that they attended very favourably. Content issues received the highest praise, with all elements generating mean responses of 4 or higher on a 1-5 scale (1 = poor; 5 = excellent). The processes were similarly praised by the participants, with only ‘opportunity for individual reflection’ and ‘for discussion’ failing to generate means of 4 or higher (means of 3.7 and 3.9 respectively). It appears that the provision and demonstration of resources was more than adequate during the sessions, with related questions generating mean responses of 4.3 or 4.4. Facilitators also appear to have performed very well, particularly in their clarity of delivery and supportiveness, such aspects generating responses of 4.5 each.

There were relatively few statistically significant differences in sub-cohorts’ responses. Those that did manifest are tabulated below. In most cases, the differences emerged between teachers in rural locations and their Melbourne counterparts, the former rating the items more highly in each instance. In each case below, the cohort with the higher mean response is in the ‘group one’ column. In all cases, the value for $p$ is less than 0.05. It needs to be kept in mind, too, that the urban and rural groups were not equal in number (urban: 669, 82.5%; rural: 142, 17.5%). Nevertheless, SPSS identified the following differences as statistically significant.
Table 1. Differences in sub-group responses

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<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Group one details</th>
<th>Group two details</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Applicability of content to the classroom</td>
<td>Rural teachers (mean 4.4, standard deviation 0.7)</td>
<td>Urban teachers (mean 4.2, SD 0.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive, open learning environment</td>
<td>Males (mean 4.1, SD 0.9)</td>
<td>Females (mean 3.9, SD 1.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive, open learning environment</td>
<td>Rural (mean 4.1, SD 0.9)</td>
<td>Urban (mean 3.9, SD 1.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helpful in summarising, consolidating ideas, issues</td>
<td>Rural (mean 4.1, SD 0.9)</td>
<td>Urban (mean 3.9, SD 0.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resources well presented</td>
<td>Rural (mean 4.5, SD 0.7)</td>
<td>Urban (mean 4.3, SD 0.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resources clear, concise</td>
<td>Rural (mean 4.8, SD 0.7)</td>
<td>Urban (mean 4.3 SD 0.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resources easy to use</td>
<td>Rural (mean 4.5, SD 0.7)</td>
<td>Urban (mean 4.3, SD 0.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilitator clear in delivery</td>
<td>Rural (mean 4.6, SD 0.6)</td>
<td>Urban (mean 4.5, SD 0.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilitator helpful, supportive</td>
<td>Rural (mean 4.7, SD 0.6)</td>
<td>Urban (mean 4.4, SD 0.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilitator used interesting, stimulating language</td>
<td>Rural (mean 4.5, SD 0.7)</td>
<td>Urban (mean 4.3, SD 0.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilitator challenged audience in a non-threatening way</td>
<td>Rural (mean 4.5, SD 0.7)</td>
<td>Urban (mean 4.3, SD 0.9)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above responses support anecdotal findings that teachers in rural areas are ‘inservice-starved’ and see themselves as being in need of the professional input and networking which such sessions provide. The relative absence of multicultural school populations in rural areas may have added to the difficulties in providing information and impetus for global education. ANOVAs revealed no statistically significant differences in the sub-groups, with the exception of some differences in certain age brackets. These did not appear to conform to any pattern, however. Differences in the relative size of the groups may account partly for this.
Outcomes from the inservice

Curriculum - content

The inservice sessions contributed to a range of units of work, including refugees, urban and rural development, global warming and water resources. Apart from teachers of VCE (matriculation) classes, who attended sessions specifically designed for VCE study, teachers typically incorporated elements from the training sessions into their teaching, rather than developing discrete units of work based thereon. Significantly, too, a number of the teachers reported that they were already applying a global consciousness to their teaching prior to the inservice courses, and that the courses had contributed “ongoingly” in the words of one teacher, to their implementation of global issues. This teacher added that the inservice “highlighted the need to keep that [global] focus”.

One teacher developed a unit investigating international and regional events and organisations in fields such as economics, the environment etc. Organisations studied included the World Wildlife Fund. The teacher exchanged information with neighbouring schools, and found that the unit gave students a good ‘macro’ perspective on global dynamics. Another teacher developed a study of various cities, comparing “some third world cities and their infrastructure with Melbourne”. One college of TAFE worked in collaboration with a local primary school collecting the stories of local refugee children. The college intends to publish these stories to a wider audience. One Catholic School teacher recounted that he had undertaken a case study of development using the Catholic Church as an example of a non-government organisation.

Curriculum - Approaches

Several teachers reported modelling approaches they had seen. One teacher extensively used case studies she found on websites and elsewhere. She said, “the case studies are really the thing which gets [the students] on board because it personalises the whole issue”. One teacher used a simulation game she encountered
at the inservice course. The game involves blindfolding students, who then have to walk across a field to a predetermined point on the other side, without stepping on a simulated landmine.

One of the case study participants, David (a pseudonym), who has been involved in landmine clearing in Afghanistan, used a more confronting approach than usual:

__I actually have video material of people in mine fields at the time they had been blown up and the mine clearers have gone in there and videoed as they have done it. It is gruesome but I made a judgment call, and when confronted with that it’s hard to say ‘I don’t care’. You forget this reality TV crap. That’s the reality.__

When asked if he warned the students about the potential for the material to be distressing, he replied, “The way I explain it to the kids is, ‘it’s coming up. I’ll warn you. If you wish to look away, do so if you feel like it might distress you. I will tell you when it’s over and there are no brownie points for saying, ‘I am a tough guy and saw it’”’. He added, “Every kid knows that I didn’t come back from Afghanistan the same person I was when I went away. They all know that”.

David feels that one of the beneficial outcomes of his role is, “that little bit of warmth that can be delivered by someone who has been there as opposed to someone that has read about it … the anecdotal illustrations that you can give are quite different”. As the circumstances in Afghanistan and elsewhere have changed, David has continued to provide input for the students: “We did a fair bit – post September 11, we also did quite a bit because of the Afghan Taliban connection”.

Building on, or expanding students’ experiences

One school used students’ backgrounds to look at familiar phenomena from a different standpoint. One wealthy private school (“We’re a laptop school.”) investigated tourism from the point of view of developing countries. One teacher explained that she uses a giant wall map to illustrate and contextualise members of
various ethnic groups and their cultures. She focuses on Indonesia, because of its relative proximity to Australia, and because Indonesian is the school’s LOTE (Language other than English). She also uses the map to demonstrate the ethnic origins of the school’s student body. On the other hand, some teachers have tried to investigate situations beyond their students’ usual experiences. One school has a high proportion of refugees and migrants from the former Yugoslavia, and for that reason chose to study Vietnamese refugees in Australia.

Affective changes

Many of the units of work demand responses on the part of the students. Perhaps the most powerful outcome of the training and subsequent teaching was the impact it has had on children’s world views. The teacher who conducted the case studies said that they are, “the thing that hooks [the students] and then they have an understanding of the deeper global issues and more of the economics and demography surrounding the background of developing countries”. The case studies also, “make it more meaningful for these urban Australians who have absolutely no cognisance of how the other half live”. She confessed, “I'm in the same situation. I've never ventured into developing countries myself so I am not far beyond that”.

One teacher indicated that the study of refugees had opened her students’ eyes to the issue. Previously they had, “stereotyped refugees as ‘no-hopers’, or at best, treated them with condescension”. This teacher indicated that it was valuable for these students to see that many refugees had achieved high qualifications, respect and positions of authority in their home country. Another teacher developed a unit investigating the global implications of international trade, the environment and privatisation. This topic was also a new experience for her students, who “are privileged, and ski Mount Buller each weekend”.

At one primary school, a teacher organised a ‘global Christmas tree’ on which students hung their ‘wish-gifts’ to the world. One child, for example, “did not want any animals to ‘go extinct’”. At another school, students undertook fundraising to provide a school library in Ghana with books, and ‘bought’, through sponsorship,
income-generating gifts, such as a cow, for farmers in developing nations. One participating teacher developed a year ten unit focusing on the unequal distribution of resources in the world. In particular, she looked at water resources, and compared the Snowy Scheme, the Nile and the Yangtze rivers. Given the inequalities of assets, and the economic and environmental consequences, the students were asked to develop appropriate responses, as they took on the roles of NGOs (non-government organizations) or various levels of government. Another teacher reported that the PDs reinforced the fact that the students are called on to be global citizens, and raised the question of which competencies they need in order to take on this global role. Modelling her approach on that of the inservice, one teacher challenged her students to take on shared responsibility for their citizenship and their learning. At one school, students undertook selling products made by land mine victims. Another participant emulated the inservice by engaging a guest speaker from the Red Cross to address her students on international treaties and land mines. Subsequent to this, she organised a debate, whose topic was “Australia is a good global citizen”. One teacher, who organised a hut-building exercise, said that apart from gaining new perspectives from the experience, her year four class gained skills in teamwork.

One teacher said that her children reacted negatively to the idea of Australia providing money for overseas projects and relief. She continued, “Kids [in Australia] think the whole world lives like them”. The teacher quoted the AusAID website which states that 80 percent of its budget is spent in Australia. She personally felt disappointed that such a small proportion filtered through to poorer economies. She has put this quote onto worksheets she has distributed to students. At the time of the interview she was awaiting their response to this statistic. Another teacher mentioned that her students had expressed an interest in volunteer work overseas, as a result of material they had studied in school.

In one of the case study schools, David, who was approached to deliver seminars, had been involved in landmine clearing in Afghanistan. He also presented information in his own school. This unit of work incorporated a range of media, including CD-ROM and internet material. At one stage the class participated in a simulation, with imitation mines placed randomly under students’ chairs prior to the lesson. They also
explored the effects of landmines on children, the most common victims, as well as social and financial implications for male and female invalids.

The lessons were very well received. In David’s words, “Kids relate very well to the land mine issue. I found it absolutely astounding, with classes that most people would regard here has very difficult to manage and very difficult to control have been absolutely captivated by the land mine issue and the impact on people”. In particular, he spoke about

9W last year. The worst class in the school ... I took the geography component and really we were struggling with the traditional geography syllabus. So we got onto doing the land mine study on what its world implications were ... I did it as a one-off because the traditional curriculum they were just not connecting with and what it did create was it changed the dynamics of the class. To get involved in a social issue that has a very human face to it really did break the trend in the class and we got better learning outcomes as a result ... we were all a little more on the same side.

The effect has been ongoing. As David explained, “I have most of these kids in year 10. It’s one of those things that if handled well, puts a human face on the teacher as well. It’s not as if you are just someone there just sort of pouring stuff down your neck. You actually get involved with it.” This high level of interest is also perhaps a result of the school’s demography: “We also have a very high Indo-Chinese population here. A lot of Cambodians and so on who can very quickly make a connection”. David added that the presentation helps students to make human connections with issues such as refugees, border protection terrorism and other humanitarian crises.

Elizabeth, now in year ten, found the work on land mines “very interesting” last year. It was enjoyable because she knew nothing about land mines beforehand. When asked how this was different from other new units of work (about which she might also have known nothing), she replied, “because it’s a big issue”. She clarified this by saying that the issue is important. She found it interesting to compare maps of where refugees typically come from, with maps of the most heavily land mined countries,
finding that there was a strong correlation. She spoke enthusiastically about the unit of work, and especially about the videos she saw.

Changes beyond the classroom

Lynette, another of the case study participants, spoke of a visit from a global educator, who addressed the whole staff. As a result of this, the staff conducted an audit on their teaching content, with a view to being more inclusive of global, and particularly regional, material.

*The school wanted to address the relative ‘silence’ on the part of its ESL students. The school had been holding ‘International Week’ each year, but felt that this was tokenistic, so replaced it with a more affirming approach incorporating positive role models from the students’ backgrounds into the curriculum. Lynette said that the students, “respond incredibly well to practical examples of role models”, and demonstrated a commensurate increase in self confidence.*

Lynette also noted that there has been a change in the school’s staff attitudes in response to the professional development day, saying that other staff are more likely to ask her now about student-sensitive approaches to topics, such as the bombing of Darwin, given that there are Japanese students in the class.

The school’s expertise in ICT assists a global perspective in teaching. Lynette observed, “we have link ups with the Internet - serious link ups - so [the students] are operating outside country boundaries all of the time”. In her own teaching, Lynette has also endeavoured to admit a variety of perspectives. She mentioned her Australian Cultural History class and its discussion of the Second World War. Her aim is to avoid making value judgments, and allow the students to initiate and pursue lines of enquiry.

Indeed, the Australian Cultural History class has emerged in part from the influence of the inservice day: According to Lynette, it gives the students who are new to Australia an opportunity to understand better the new culture, as well as a chance for
them to tell stories from their own cultures. This allows for a more “personalised connection to places other than our own”, for both those students who are new to Australia and those whose ancestors have been here for several generations.

Partly in response to word-of-mouth reports about his presentation, David has spoken at a primary school, written an article for a Health Education Association, and has addressed various community clubs. At the primary school, “the kids all wrote little pieces for their school magazine. It was quite touching”.

David has initiated other global education undertakings. He explained an initiative related to East Timor, in response to which students decided to make and sell red ribbons, symbolising bloodshed. The culture of the school was such that it was “uncool” not to have a red ribbon. During the ceremony for the handover of the proceeds, a relief agency representative explained to the school what the funds would be used for, which, according to David, was a significant morale booster for the students.

David’s presentation led other teachers at the school to engage in the land mine topic, with similarly enthusiastic responses from students. At one stage a staff member who had escaped the Khmer Rouge regime spoke to the students. One teacher, Robert, described his land mines teaching as “probably the most successful unit of all that I teach”. He described the students’ understanding of war as ‘very Hollywood’, lacking an understanding of the consequences of an impoverished child losing a limb. He went on to explain that, “one of the things that came through with regard to land mines is the state of its insidiousness, the fact that it’s a very cheap way of creating human misery”. Robert also referred to the mapping activity of comparing the geography of land mines and of refugees’ origins, saying that the parallels are fascinating.

**Difficulties with implementation**

*Time pressures*

David suggested that time limitations are the greatest obstacle with regard to providing information on landmines, particularly in the light of his existing
responsibilities at school. He added, modestly, “It’s been significant for some but overall I guess fairly superficial. I guess in my view it never reached perhaps the potential that it offered”. Providing professional development out of school hours appears to be a problem for potential participants as well as for David as a presenter. Time pressure was a common theme among teachers, who spoke of their myriad responsibilities over and above classroom teaching, which limited their opportunities to attend inservices or implement them.

Several teachers pointed out that the crowded curriculum is also a challenge. Global education has to compete with issues of equal opportunity and vocational education, as well as the various subject areas. State-mandated curricula – described by Stenhouse (1984, p. 68) as an example of truth being “defined by the state” - are a reality in the professional development equation.

**Recruiting and equipping staff**

Lynette observed that teachers in some faculties are more open to including a global dimension in their teaching. On the other hand, she observed that teachers of younger children do not find their students’ age a barrier to pursuing global understandings in the classroom, adding that younger grades have fewer external exams and that the primary school structure lends itself more to thematic approaches than does the secondary system. Nevertheless, she noted that there is broad scope for treatment of global themes in the VCE exam. Lynette sees her school as a leader in innovative teaching, including globalisation, which has led to a problem with locating mentors. This was overcome in part by approaching a local university.

Staff turnover is another difficulty in maintaining global perspectives in teaching for the school. As Lynette said, “we have 40-50 staff turnover a year …. You can never ‘let go of it’”. The requirements of new staff need to be kept in balance with the needs of existing staff members. While Lynette does not feel that she is a ‘voice in the wilderness’, in that other staff are taking up global education, there remains the problem of maintaining interest and drive in the program. According to Lynette, “it needs constant rejuvenation and each time you rejuvenate it you have to come up with a different angle otherwise you get the ‘been there and done that’”. She spoke of the importance of motivating other key players on the staff, “especially faculty
coordinators. We rely so much on faculty coordinators to drive absolutely everything, so you have to capture the faculty coordinators. So if you have some great practice expert that can point them in the right direction and feed them ideas then it will drive itself”.

As stated earlier, while some of the schools are engaged in exciting and creative work in global education, many schools do not seem to have taken up related activities. It is particularly interesting to note in the questionnaires that the statement, “The content was applicable to the classroom” generated a high mean response of 4.3 (Standard Deviation 0.8). Such a response would seem to foreshadow a high level of uptake of material in the classroom subsequent to the professional development sessions, but this does not appear to have been the case. Previous research (Ross, 1994; Halse, 1996) showed that there exists a considerable time-lag between professional development and the undertaking of related techniques and content material in the classroom. This gap is partly attributable to prescribed curriculum documents being set in place a year in advance. With this in mind, some two years after the initial PD sessions, teachers in this study were contacted regarding implementation of materials and processes in their classrooms. In order to locate 40 such teachers, more than 120 were contacted by phone. Few declined involvement per se. Some, however, could not recall the particular inservice session. Almost all of those who chose not to be involved indicated that they had not yet implemented material from the inservice sessions. As one potential respondent said,

*I’m afraid I must be extremely frank with you and tell you that I haven’t used information learnt during the course in my teaching. I was trained with AusAID as part of the geography course, and I haven’t taught geography this year. I have been teaching biology and maths instead. Furthermore, my school is not yet set up for use of the internet - should be happening in the next year - and so any skills in this area have also not been relevant as yet.*

Similarly, finding four ‘case study’ schools which felt they had undertaken substantial programs related to the inservice courses was difficult. In only one instance was it possible to interview a student informant, to triangulate the extent of classroom practice and investigate its impact.
The professional development appears to have unproblematically assumed that teachers would undertake related material in their classrooms. As stated above, some schools were conducting exciting and innovative programs, as a result, partly or wholly, of the inservice input.

It could be proposed that a continuum be adopted to gauge the effectiveness of professional development on change in the classroom. This could be used as a yardstick against which to determine the quality and extent of implementation of inservice initiatives, as well as the depth of understanding thereof (Smith, Baker & Oudeans, 2001).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Little or no change</th>
<th>Mimicking of elements</th>
<th>Conceptual synthesis of</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>rationale, internalisation of</td>
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<td>approaches, content etc</td>
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One aspect to note is that the difference between mimicking and conceptual synthesis may not be immediately obvious. Indeed, the suggestions below could be interpreted as a ‘recipe’ to be replicated in a superficial fashion. A prerequisite for the uptake of any of these ideas, however, is consideration of them in terms of the outcomes and purposes to be effected. The extent to which the findings from this study are transferable are open to debate, but in order to gain better ‘fuel economy’ from their training sessions, the organisation providing this professional development could do this in a variety of ways. All of the following presume funding implications. Professional development is costly in terms of money, time and resources. It is also an investment. It is with the above factors in mind that the following practical suggestions for inservice delivery teams are proposed.

Establishing outcomes (for participants, their peers, schools, students and communities) as a part of professional development sessions, and devising follow-up action plans for teachers to fulfil subsequent to these sessions is likely to maintain the momentum established during inservice sessions. The partnership of universities, school systems or other accrediting bodies could be sought in recognising the achievement of such goals. Such undertakings would facilitate opportunities for
practising new classroom practices (Ross, 1994) and providing ongoing feedback (Smith et al., 2001; Todnem & Warner, 1994). The internationalisation of programs appears to be a priority for many tertiary and secondary institutions. Other creative and productive partnerships between universities and schools are also surely possible.

Alternatively, evidence of working towards such goals in the classroom could be set by recruitment bodies, as a condition of attendance at inservice courses. Examples could include conducting an inventory of the school’s ‘global capital’, and devising an action plan for the school based on the findings thereof, as was done in Lynette’s school. As an extension of such an exercise, past or current students could be called on to devise a ‘profile of a global-friendly school’ with various criteria of low-, medium- and high levels of ‘global-education-friendliness’, in various aspects of the school. These could include curriculum (in various subject areas and grades), resources, social action, student and staff attitudes, policies etc, as shown in the framework below. Such an approach may serve to tease out some schools’ curricular priorities and silences (Groundwater-Smith & White, 1995), while providing opportunities to measure and derive satisfaction from progress through time (Bandura, 1977) and to investigate the school context of implementing ‘new’ practices and approaches (Anderson et al., 1996; Boud, 1995).

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Hosting a competition for students would be another means of generating momentum in schools. Such an event would also serve in the identification of schools wherein best practice is occurring, and for the establishment of such schools in leadership and
mentoring roles, if they so choose. The dissemination of best practice work samples would serve to inform other schools of such practices and related outcomes.

The establishment and maintenance of easily accessible networks is important in maintaining momentum in a program such as global education, in the context of multiple demands on teachers. Such networks could be established electronically, with the use of a webpage as a ‘bulletin board’ of events, for advising of relevant websites, or for the purposes of answering peers’ questions, sharing experiences etc. While it could be that participation in such an activity is a compulsory part of attendance at an inservice session, it needs to be kept in mind that for such a system to be of real value to teachers, it must be meeting their needs and driven by them, not simply fulfilling an imposed requirement (Hargreaves, 1994).

One problem appears to be the disparity of ‘global capital’ held by various schools and communities. As a general rule, it emerged that schools in more multicultural communities had a higher degree of global awareness than did schools in more monocultural areas. Such a situation provides an opportunity for peer mentoring, with schools and teachers whose plans and visions are more advanced, sharing their ideas with neophytes, which might be of particular value to rural and isolated schools, if virtual networks are formed. As part of this process, train-the-trainer programs could be established. Linked to this, the use of ‘authentic’ experiences was highly praised by a number of participants in the PD sessions. Such experiences could include visits to museums or galleries, restaurants, or areas with highly visible non-Anglo-Saxon profiles, such as Cabramatta in Sydney or Springvale in Melbourne. Hearing from refugees is also likely to be a memorable and enlightening experience. It is worth restating here that such undertakings need to be measured against valid outcomes, to avoid tokenism. Given that travel overseas is likely to be prohibitive to sponsor, the development of a register of teachers who have travelled to various overseas destinations may prove valuable, allowing them to share their insights and resources with other teachers.

Past students could be used to mentor current students. Similarly, the identification of ‘advanced’ teachers to inservice others would be valuable. Mentoring could take place in formal training sessions or as part of more informal networks. Undertaking
such responsibilities would need to be met with some reward, perhaps in the form of accreditation, as part of, say, a graduate certificate in professional practice.

Many of these initiatives are not necessarily highly labour-intensive, but are, once established, fairly self-perpetuating. Such undertakings would need to be supplemented with follow-up visits by guest speakers, or by personnel from related professional associations.

The videoing of guest lectures for dissemination may prove to be a valuable way of multiplying the effect of such speakers. In response to time limitations, David suggested the provision of more release-from-face-to-face time, or the opportunity to produce a video which could be shown to various groups of teachers, students or interested others. As he explained, while he is limited in his ability to travel and present the seminar, the, “resource is a transportable resource, and there is no reason, given administrative changes, that resource could not go to other schools”. Similarly, in response to curricular time pressures, issues such as equal opportunity and vocation could be dealt from a global perspective. Apart from increasing time-efficiency, such an approach is more likely to satisfy the political demands of a global education (Calder & Smith, 1991; Buchanan & Halse, 1997). While rewards such as the prospect of promotion or pay increases, and ‘putting it on one’s CV’ may provide some motivation, immediate incentives such as time in lieu or a reduction in other responsibilities may prove to be more attractive and realistic incentives for teachers.

Given the prominence accorded to literacy, professional associations could devote some time and energy to developing students’ critical literacies, and teachers’ skills in developing these in children, as well as using literacy as a tool for understanding the world. Such an approach may attract some funding from government bodies. As one teacher pointed out, literacy and global awareness are not mutually exclusive: “It’s okay to read a story, but what are we learning from the story? Are we choosing our stories carefully? Are they tuned to current issues?”.
Conclusions

As Ross (1994, p. 392) observes, “disentangling the provision of inservice from other organizational factors is likely to be complex”. In this account we have tried to avoid either over- or understating the effects of the inservice sessions. We strongly believe, though, that there is enormous further potential for these inservice sessions. The ultimate measure of success of such endeavours, though, is their effective implementation in the classroom (Anderson et al., 1996; Boud, 1995) and ownership by teachers (Hargreaves, 1994). As suggested earlier, there is a risk that the suggestions enumerated above are simply taken on superficially as a ‘grab-bag of ideas’ to be mimicked in the absence of conceptual understanding of their purpose on the part of participating teachers. Just as outcomes-based education has become de rigueur in many educational contexts, so should such an approach have similar effects in maximising the effect of professional development and monitoring its effectiveness. It is to be hoped that the use of the proposed model, in the context of desired outcomes, may contribute to a more effective implementation of inservice content and practices in the classroom. Returning our thoughts to the difficult year nine class David spoke of is a reminder that the success of such training is of benefit not just to this world, but also to the 9Ws of this world.

References


CHAPTER 8

Frontispiece

As stated earlier (Chapter 4), the provision and quality of pedagogical resources is a pivotal component in the process of effecting curricular change. The study reported on in the following chapter comprises an extensive review of a nationally distributed periodical resource titled “Global Issues”, published by the Geography Teachers’ Association of Victoria.

The report investigated a variety of issues such as the espoused and actual purposes and uses of the periodical. It adopted a range of research procedures such as interviews with students and teachers, as well as the publishers and some contributors, such as the publication’s graphic artist. This allowed for triangulation, comparison and confirmation of data. A content analysis of the publication was also undertaken, in order to ascertain the range of text types employed, and to allow for a comparison with the pedagogical outcomes effected by each of these. Analysis of annotated student work samples were also included in the report. For example, student and teacher interpretations of one of the publication’s cartoons were compared with the cartoonist’s intentions, and made for interesting comparisons, demonstrating the richness of this medium.

The magazine was almost without exception highly praised by all users. It developed an effective ecology, by allowing practising teachers an opportunity for publication and dissemination of their ideas. These contributors were not paid for their input. The aspects which featured most prominently in users’ responses included the publication’s recency, its accuracy and its conceptual accessibility. Most importantly, the research demonstrated that the magazine was effecting cognitive as well as affective and axiological outcomes among students. The report strongly recommended that funding for the publication continue. Regrettably, some months after the completion of this report, government funding for the periodical ceased.

This report is one of the earlier components of this portfolio. In terms of its conceptual contribution to the portfolio, the investigation afforded the first opportunity to undertake a comprehensive analysis of a resource, of its espoused and actual uses in the classroom, and of the corresponding outcomes.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

In any research project, a number of people are crucial in facilitating both the process and an effective product. In relation to the current study, special thanks are due to the Geography Teachers’ Association of Victoria (GTAV) for their support and assistance with the project, and their willingness to make available a range of documents and other information relevant to Global Issues and the evaluation study.

In particular, the researchers are indebted to Denise Miles, who took the time to answer questions regarding the project, and who facilitated the school consultations in Melbourne and Sydney, as well as coordinating the personnel interviews with GTAV staff and others. We are also indebted to Lindy Stirling, the editor of Global Issues. Both Lindy and Denise also provided considerable support by facilitating the distribution of the survey to readers and in relaying responses to the research team. Their support in facilitating the research study is greatly appreciated.

We would also like to thank Julie Dyer, Ellen Finlay and David Rothstadt of the Steering Committee, who generously gave up their time to take part in an interview, and whose insights and comprehensive understandings of Global Issues were of considerable value in informing the direction of the study.

A particular note of appreciation is given to the publication’s graphic artist, John Allison, who shared his insights and opinions about Global Issues, and who provided the graphic for the front cover of the report.

The teachers and students at the schools that were visited have made a central contribution to the successful completion of the report. We thank them for their willingness to take part in interviews, for providing work samples, and for generously agreeing to allow observations of their work in the classroom. The quality and dedication of the teaching that was observed, and the diligence of the students whose work samples were copied, provide a source of great optimism in our schools.
To all those who responded to the evaluation survey, a particular vote of thanks is extended for contributing their time and their frank opinions. Our thanks are also extended to the many consultants and peak body representatives who gave of their time and their ideas during telephone interviews, and whose feedback provided a particularly informative range of perspectives about *Global Issues*.

Finally, a special thanks is due to Simon Jimenez, who supported the conduct of the study by assisting with telephone interviews.

### LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS USED

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<th>Description</th>
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<td>ACT</td>
<td>Australian Capital Territory</td>
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<tr>
<td>AEF</td>
<td>Asia Education Foundation</td>
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<tr>
<td>APEC</td>
<td>Asia Pacific Economic Community</td>
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<tr>
<td>AusAID</td>
<td>Australian Agency for International Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>GI</td>
<td><em>Global Issues</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>GTAV</td>
<td>Geography Teachers’ Association of Victoria</td>
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<tr>
<td>HSIE</td>
<td>Human Society and its Environment</td>
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<tr>
<td>KLA</td>
<td>Key Learning Area</td>
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<td>NESB</td>
<td>Non-English Speaking Background</td>
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<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-Government Organisation</td>
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<td>NSW</td>
<td>New South Wales</td>
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<td>Northern Territory</td>
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<td>Queensland</td>
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<td>SA</td>
<td>South Australia</td>
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<tr>
<td>SBS</td>
<td>Special Broadcasting Service</td>
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<td>SOSE</td>
<td>Studies of Society and Environment</td>
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<td>SPSS</td>
<td>Software Package for the Social Sciences</td>
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<td>Tas</td>
<td>Tasmania</td>
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<td>UN</td>
<td>United Nations</td>
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<td>VCE</td>
<td>Victorian Certificate of Education</td>
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<td>Vic</td>
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<td>WA</td>
<td>Western Australia</td>
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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The production team of *Global Issues* is confident about the quality of the publication, and their confidence is well founded. During the current evaluation study, *Global Issues* received acclaim from teachers, students, educational consultants and professional bodies. This report reflects the praise put forward by these users of the resource.

The production and distribution of *Global Issues* is effective and efficient. It is circulated nationally in all states and territories in a cost efficient manner by drawing on the distribution mechanisms of other professional associations and making use, where possible, of volunteer assistance.

A particular strength of the publication is that it utilises the professional expertise of teaching practitioners by providing, in the words of one consultant, “an avenue for teachers to publish”. This strategy not only allows other teachers and students to profit from a wide range of educational expertise, but ensures that the content of *Global Issues* has relevant and practical value in Australian classrooms and national/state based curricula.

*Global Issues* is enthusiastically received and used by teachers and students in a variety of contexts, and it caters for a wide range of needs, abilities and learning styles. It brings to the attention of teachers and students an array of resources. In particular, the advice regarding the internet minimises time and frustration on the part of students and teachers conducting internet research, thereby facilitating a cost-benefit for schools and education systems.

Perhaps most importantly, *Global Issues* is effecting change among its readership. In line with national and state curriculum expectations, the evidence suggests that *Global Issues* is facilitating the achievement of student outcomes by developing their knowledge and understanding of content, complex analytical skills, such as an
understanding of cause and effect, and informed attitudes related to global and developmental issues.

In short, the publication has exceeded all reasonable expectations on virtually every criterion against which it could be measured: size, distribution, cost-efficiency, value for money, objectivity, quality, variety, relevance, user-friendliness, and effectiveness in facilitating student outcomes and teaching practice.

As a consequence, this report strongly recommends a continuation of funding to allow *Global Issues* to further meet its needs and obligations in informing, challenging and affirming the world citizenship of its readers.
CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Origins of the study

*Global Issues* has been in production since 1994. At that time, the Geography Teachers’ Association of Victoria (GTAV) successfully applied for funding from AusAID to produce the publication. At the end of the first year of production, an evaluation was conducted, which heartily endorsed the quality of the publication, and recommended a further two year period of funding (Matthews & Milne, 1995:14). During this first funding period, the publication received an award from the Australian Geography Teacher’s Association for “Best edition of a periodical” (see *Global Issues*, 2, 2, p.1).

In 1997, GTAV called for submissions to conduct a second evaluation of *Global Issues*. The seven editions of this second funding period (Volume 2, No. 1 - Volume 3, No. 3), are included in this second evaluation.

Rationale and background of *Global Issues*

*Global Issues* is funded by AusAID as part of its global education program. As per the funding contract, *Global Issues* is published and distributed four times per year to teachers of Geography and related disciplines. It caters for students in grades 5-12. At the time of writing, it is about to complete its third year of production, the last number of volume three being currently prepared for publication.

The publication appears to have significantly exceeded its target in terms of distribution. The original brief called for a production of 3,000 copies (Matthews & Milne, 1995). The print run for Vol 3, No. 3 was 6,500. Moreover, the production
now exceeds the original vision for its size, this being for “16-20 A4 pages” (Matthews & Milne, 1995: 3). The current length of each edition is 24 pages.

The objectives of *Global Issues* are as follows:

- To improve the quality of geography teaching about global issues;
- To provide teachers with access to current and useful information and associated professional development about global issues;
- To address the objectives and guidelines of the SOSE national Curriculum Statements and Profiles and hence assist teachers in the implementation of the contents of these documents, with particular relevance to Studies of Society and the Environment;
- To present material to teachers in a form that is readily accessible and useable and to draw attention to wider sources;
- To assist teachers in organising large amounts of information into smaller integrated units;

- To promote interstate and international networks in global education;
- To provide avenues for professional development based on the best practice principles; and
- To provide material that can be adapted to key learning areas other than Studies of Society and Environment.

(Source: GTAV records)

*Global Issues* is designed as “a quarterly publication, for the formal education sector, that presents current global issues in innovative ways, relevant to teachers of Global Issues” (Matthews & Milne, 1995: 2).

**Requirements of this study**

As set out in GTAV’s call for submissions, the objectives of the current evaluation include:

- an examination of the extent to which goals of *Global Issues* have been achieved;
• an investigation of the impact of *Global Issues* on the Australian educational community; and
• a study of the cost effectiveness of *Global Issues*.

Within and beyond these aims, this report sets out to shed light on how *Global Issues* is being used in classrooms, and ways in which favourable student outcomes have been effected or enhanced by *Global Issues*. As well, the report will offer suggestions, based on stakeholders’ opinions, as to ways in which the effectiveness of *Global Issues* can be increased.

**Structure of the report**

A central aim of the study is to triangulate (i.e. identify the relationships between) *Global Issues*’ operation, management, content etc. and teaching practice and student outcomes, as shown in figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1 Triangulation of viewpoints

Teaching Practice

*Global Issues*                               Student outcomes

Following this introduction which briefly outlines the background and rationale of the study:

Chapter two explains the methodology chosen for data collection and analysis.

Chapter three explores recent and current literature on globalisation, curriculum, and related topics, in which this study is embedded.

Chapter four provides findings from the content analysis of *Global Issues*. 
Chapters five, six and seven provide an analysis of the project’s findings. Chapter five comments on matters such as the production, management and distribution of Global Issues, as well as budgetary matters. Chapter six examines in detail the findings generated by the reader survey, site visits, interviews and document analysis. Chapter Seven looks at Global Issues-related outcomes in schools. Chapter eight offers recommendations arising from the findings, with regard to the ongoing funding and publication of Global Issues. Where appropriate, extracts from artefacts such as teaching programs and work samples which have been collected, are included within the report, as are the data collection instruments, in the form of appendices.
CHAPTER 2

METHODOLOGY

Conceptual framework

This study sets out to determine the degree of congruence between the aims and visions of the production team and funding bodies, with regard to Global Issues, and the purposes of teachers and students who use the publication.

It stands to reason that teachers who are positively predisposed to adopt a global perspective in their teaching will have several sources of information available to them which can facilitate such a change in perspective. While Global Issues does not operate in a vacuum, it was one of the researchers’ tasks to determine the extent to which the publication contributed to a change in teaching standpoint.

Data collection strategies and modes of analysis

Literature review

To contextualise the study, an extensive review of the literature was conducted. Electronic databases used included ERIC and the Social Sciences Index. Descriptors included “globalisation”, “global pedagogy”, “curriculum materials” and “curriculum evaluation”.

Survey of subscribers

A survey form was enclosed with Volume 3, Number 3 of Global Issues. (See Appendix 1.) In order to further increase the response rate to the survey, the research team contacted individual teachers via telephone. The interview schedule for these telephone interviews was identical to that of the survey itself.
The aim of the survey was to elicit data to inform the project’s objectives, in particular the relevance and effectiveness of *Global Issues* in terms of:

- providing useful information and teaching/learning activities to teachers and other educators;
- promoting networking;
- identifying its use in school curricula;
- being a ‘user friendly’ publication;
- identifying the extent of its use in the curriculum;
- supporting the National Curriculum Statements and/or guidelines in each state/territory;
- contributing to teachers’ professional development; and
- facilitating student outcomes about Global Issues.

The evaluation survey, which contained Likert scale and open ended questions, was designed to generate both qualitative and quantitative information. With the support of GTAV, an effort was made to maximise the response rate of recipients, by:

- keeping the questionnaire brief;
- providing reply paid postage, courtesy of GTAV;
- the formatting of the questionnaire, allowing it to be folded into an envelope; and
- providing incentives, (prizes) for those who responded to the questionnaire.

GTAV offered a copy of *Food for All? A Global Challenge*, (GTAV, 1995) to the first 100 respondents. Each respondent was also eligible to receive one of three fifty dollar book gift vouchers made available by the research team.

Likert scale responses from the evaluation questionnaire were analysed using SPSS software. Open ended responses were codified, but are discussed in a more qualitative fashion. In all, 98 questionnaires were received, of which 92 arrived in time for statistical analysis.
Telephone and personal interviews

Further telephone interviews were conducted with other key recipients and/or stakeholders associated with *Global Issues*. These included staff at universities and departments of education, as well as representatives of peak bodies, such as state Geography Teachers’ Associations, AEF, Access Asia etc (see Appendix 2). A telephone interview was also conducted with John Allison, the publication’s cartoonist. (See Appendix 2.) To preserve individual anonymity, GTAV and *Global Issues* respondents have been referred to as ‘production team members’, and respondents representing departments of Education, Universities and Professional Associations are referred to as consultants or peak body representatives.

In an effort to understand the views of the people most central to the production of *Global Issues*, face to face interviews were conducted with several members of the *Global Issues* production team: Ms Denise Miles, GTAV project officer; Editor, Ms Lindy Stirling, and three members of the Steering Committee: Julie Dyer, Ellen Finlay and David Rothstadt.

Field notes from site interviews were subjected to a rigorous content analysis. Where possible, triangulation (cross referencing) of students’, teachers’ and consultants’ opinions, and those of the producers of the resource, have been explored.

Document investigation

The GTAV made available several relevant documents for study. These included: a previous evaluation of *Global Issues*; the aims and objectives of *Global Issues* and; a copy of each of the editions to be included in the review. Analysis of these documents contributed further insights into the background of the resource and its production. The contents of these documents were investigated in their entirety.

Site visits

A key component of the research design was the inclusion of school visits. Where possible, these consultations comprised several semi-structured components: teacher
interviews, and “global awareness forums” with students (see Appendix 2). In addition, at some locations, lessons in which Global Issues was being used were observed.

Suggestions for school visits were provided by the GTAV. Initial contact was made by telephone and arrangements were confirmed by letter. A total of seven schools were visited; three in Melbourne and four in Sydney. These schools were from the State, Catholic and Independent systems.

Six secondary schools and one primary school were chosen. This would seem to reflect the distribution of the magazine. Where possible, interviews were recorded on audio tape, and extensive filed notes were taken (See Interview Schedules, Appendix 2). Artefacts such as teaching programs and work samples were also collected and examined where appropriate. Table 2.1 outlines the number of interviews conducted, artefacts examined etc.

Table 2.1. Types and number of data sources

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<td>Teacher interviews</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students in forums/interviews</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching documents</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students providing work samples</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Content analysis

It was essential for the research team to be familiar with the content of the volumes of Global Issues under study. Consequently, an analysis of the content of the seven issues was conducted. The various components of Global Issues were analysed according to four different approaches. While a more detailed account of the content analysis can be found in Chapter 4, the following section offers readers a preliminary overview of the scope of the content analysis.
Learning activities were analysed according to the requirements they made on the students. Activities as they appear in *Global Issues* are typically subdivided into several numbered components. Many of these components are further subdivided, resulting in a considerable number of entries for most activities.

Resources were investigated according to their text type. The nomenclature corresponded largely to terms used in English syllabus documents, including labels such as narrative, recount etc.

Lead articles (and other primarily textual components of *Global Issues* such as introductions etc.) were examined according to their subject material. At a macro-analysis level, each was allocated a major theme. Micro-analysis was then conducted, using paragraphs as analysis units.

Each volume of *Global Issues* was analysed in its entirety, to ascertain the frequency of references to the various nations of the world.

**Formative and consultative nature of the study**

Initial responses to questions and other data generated new research questions. GTAV and *Global Issues* personnel have been most helpful in furnishing the research team with information, documents etc, and in providing answers to numerous questions over the telephone, as the relevance of such information became apparent.

Some teachers did not have work samples for the research team on arrival, but kindly forwarded them later. Similarly, some peak body representatives and consultants requested that teachers in their networks forward information to the research team, and/or suggested other contact people.

**Ethical considerations**

Anonymity of all respondents has been preserved, and neither schools nor school systems are identified. Nor have comments of members of the *Global Issues*
production team been individually identified in the final report. As mentioned earlier, respondents from various educational and professional bodies have not been classified by name of organisation and are collectively identified, for the purposes to his report, as consultants or peak body representatives.

All respondents were advised that their responses would remain anonymous. Permission was sought from and granted by contact teachers for all school visits to take place, for all work samples to be collected, and for any photographs to be taken.

**Limitations of the evaluation**

Time limitations were exacerbated by the occurrence of school holidays during the evaluation period, and the two-stage nature of *Global Issues*’ distribution process, delaying the arrival of the publication in some states.

This limited time frame resulted in a lower than expected response rate to the evaluation survey. In response to the closing date (15/7/97) for eligibility for the prize, one respondent wrote, “Difficult when it is not received until 24/7/97!”. While this respondent was still willing to furnish a completed survey form, there may well be others who didn’t. Taking into consideration these sampling difficulties, GTAV generously granted a two-week extension to the deadline for submitting the report.

Limitations of time and money also restricted site visits to Melbourne and Sydney. Further research may reveal the specific needs of rural, isolated and/or small school, and how *Global Issues* is meeting these needs.

While the evaluation covered specific editions of *Global Issues*, the magazine’s production is a seamless process for teachers. Whereas the survey form specified that the questions relate to the most recent seven editions, it is unlikely that respondents consciously differentiated these from the previous four. Where comments relating to earlier editions of the magazine have been put forward by respondents, they have been included in this report.
CHAPTER 3

A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

None of the three super-states could be definitively conquered, even by the other two in combination.

George Orwell, 1984 (1949:191)

We can no longer identify three worlds or two superpowers but rather a singular system.

Waters (1995:116)

Introduction: Discovering the new world

“Globalization is a reality, and people who speak in terms of wanting it to happen or not are living in a fantasy world.” So said Jean François Troglic, National Secretary of international affairs for the Democratic Confederation of French Labor (cited by Walsh, 1997:38). The world’s nations, and the identities they generate are competing in a wider marketplace of subnational and supranational loyalties. Meanwhile, it is these national or state bodies which maintain responsibility for constructing and regulating the curriculum and its contents. It is unlikely, though, that national identities will be lost, as the emergence of trading blocs such as APEC (Asia Pacific Economic Community) will give their member nations legitimacy (Singh, 1995), as did their predecessors, the military blocs.

The emergence of globalisation has implications for schooling. A growing consciousness of our place as individuals and as a nation in the world demands that we develop a wider personal and curricular perspective. Moreover, it is in Australia’s interests to constantly reassess its position with regard to the global community. Singh (1995:16) speaks of, “the need for knowledge which might enable Australia to
better position itself within the world”. Education and the curriculum which bears it, are central to this process (Fien, 1995).

Globalisation is also capable of extinguishing significance and identity at the local level (Robertson, 1990, Featherstone & Lash, 1995). Here the curriculum and individual schools can play a role in bringing together the local and the global. As a consequence, it is desirable that schools and education systems arm themselves with a global education that has a clear and focused philosophy, supported by, or capable of generating material which is relevant to the needs and interests of young people. This global education should generate, in turn, a “global ethic” (Osler & Starkey, 1996:10) that expresses itself in responsible social action.

This literature review will investigate the emergence of globalisation, and discuss the link between the philosophy and positive social and educational outcomes of a global pedagogy. This will be followed by an examination of the role that educational materials can play in supporting global education.

Three worlds or third rock? Globalisation: a new worldview

The ‘shrinking world’, the ‘global village’ and ‘spaceship earth’ are among the common metaphors which serve to remind us of the increasing consequences of actions, interconnectedness and complexity of our interrelationships on a global scale.

The “scale, severity and complexity” (Fien, 1995:3) of global issues is becoming increasingly apparent. Waters (1995:62) speaks of the, “contagion of risk” and the, “boomerang effect” of decisions made by individuals, corporations and nations, and cites global warming and ozone depletion as examples. In contrast, contributors to a global consciousness include satellite - and internet-borne immediacy of information, as well as the instantaneous impact of consequences of monetary or military decisions. “The boomerang effect puts the poor and the wealthy in the same neighbourhood” says Waters (p. 62). The causes and effects of this increasing interconnectedness are political, cultural, economic (Singh, 1996) and environmental in nature.
The symbiosis of the world’s peoples, then, is becoming increasingly evident. Waters (1995:3) defines globalisation as “a social process in which the constraints of geography on social and cultural arrangements recede and in which people become increasingly aware that they are receding”. Osler and Starkey (1996:9) offer illustrations, mainly economic in nature, of the essence of globalisation. They describe it as “the increasing interdependence of national economies, the integration of financial markets, the increasing power, influence and scale of transnational corporations and media and communications that cover the whole world”. They add that, “a further dimension is provided by the environmental movement”.

The term “globalisation” and some associated theories are contentious. Pieterse (1995:45) speaks of “globalizations in the plural”, and Robertson (1995) speaks of a mythology surrounding globalisation. According to Robertson, certain questionable doctrines inhere to such a mythology. He challenges the notion that bigger is better, and the potential disregard for local histories and identities.

Certain elements of globalisation are also paradoxical. Walsh (1997:40) claims that, “rather than seeing globalization we’re actually seeing an Americanization of the world economy”. Similarly, Pieterse (1995:45) speaks of “CocaColonisation”. Globalisation could lead to what Buell (1994:1) describes as, “a vision of the globe flattened into a low-level monoculture, a gigantic K Mart with no exit”. Waters (1995:142), on the other hand, distinguishes dual outcomes of globalisation, in saying that globalisation can “homogenize across the globe in that what is available in any locality can become available in all localities but at any particular locality it increases the range of cultural opportunity”. Similarly, Pieterse (1995:45) describes globalisation as a process of “hybridization”. In other words, while the world risks becoming a monoculture, any location on the planet takes on added potential for multiculturalism. Many Australian classrooms bear witness to the increased wealth of cultural experience available in any one location.

It could be argued that thinking globally and locally are complementary procedures. Terms such as “glocalization” Pieterse (1995:49) and “glocality” (Luke, 1995:91) have emerged, and Waters (1995:xii) refers to this local/global dichotomy as “Janus-faced aspects of the same process:”. On the other hand, these two can be seen as
mutually exclusive and hostile processes, as the local and the global compete for our loyalty and attention. Despite the call to think globally while acting locally, there is the temptation, particularly in times of economic constraint, to become preoccupied with one’s own ‘patch’. Tye and Tye (1992) observe this tendency to ignore outsiders. An “ebullient generosity”, they claim, referring to a more benevolent spirit of decades past, “has given way to a corrosive pessimism, an inward-looking preoccupation with personal well-being, and a general apathy about really doing something about the less fortunate” (p. 229, emphasis in original). While these comments are made in reference to the United States, they resonate with the current Australian debates on issues such as welfare, unemployment, immigration and wage levels. All the while, the actions and consequences generated by this local thinking are becoming increasingly global in scope, as a result of the technological and other changes mentioned earlier. Ironically, then, we can be led into the dangerous position of thinking locally, while acting, with detrimental consequences globally.

In similar fashion, globalism couples a perspective on the future, with an historic one (Gill, 1993, Arrighi, 1993, Townsend, 1989). Luke (1995:93) speaks of “context and chrontext”. In particular, the implementation of new curricular perspectives requires an understanding of schools’ future directions, as well as their origins.

These paradoxes and controversies have implications for schooling. With regard to the homogenisation/heterogenisation processes referred to above, Robertson (1995:25) observes that there is a risk that globalisation will overlook different cultural worldviews, thereby reinforcing the notion that there is but one valid way of interpreting the world. Text books, he adds, are at risk of reinforcing this view.

This serves to highlight the complex nature of global studies. Paradox should not be surprising with a phenomenon such as globalisation, which challenges many assumptions. Toh (1993) outlines two global literacy paradigms: liberalist-technocratic and transformative. Characteristics of a liberalist-technocratic paradigm include a reduction of culture to its tangible manifestations (food, clothes etc.), and a minimal acknowledgement of interdependence, which fails to interrogate motives, and a vision of less developed nations as aberrations, economically and socially, of their more developed counterparts. A transformative paradigm, on the other hand,
privileges similarities over differences among the world's people’, while surfacing double standards and hypocrisies inherent in various worldviews. A global view is likely to be contentious, then, as it challenges the view that other cultures are inferior to our own, as well as interrogating Australian myths of egalitarianism and economic self-determination (Fien and Williamson-Fien, 1996b).

Above all, then, a global perspective demands response. It is perhaps for this reason more than any other, that global outlook has been held at arm’s length by so many.

**Beyond a brave new world: Philosophy and outcomes of a global pedagogy**

*...a more peaceful, just and ecologically sustainable world...*

Fien and Williamson-Fien (1996a:129)

A global education should imbue its clients with an understanding of and desire for equity in terms of participation in government, access to information and other resources etc (Osler & Starkey, 1996). While the adoption of a global perspective is likely to have positive outcomes for the earth and its people, global education should also make a significant contribution to children’s cognitive and personal growth. Toh (1993:15) asserts that, “we affirm our humanity when we can empathize with compassion for the suffering, joys, despair and hope, of others wherever they are”, and, “As a person’s interior life deepens, she or he becomes engaged in the crucial struggles of all peoples for justice, dignity and freedom”. Below are listed some of the positive outcomes of a global education. Each has implications for the development of skills, attitudes and values, as well as knowledge, and each is interrelated. As will be seen in subsequent chapters, *Global Issues* makes a valuable contribution to each of these outcomes.
A global perspective can offer:

- A new perspective on ourselves.

The potential rivalry between global and national perspectives has implications for the curriculum, as observed by Fien and Williamson-Fien (1996a). While they are ambivalent about schools’ nationalist agendas, these authors contend that a robust understanding of Australia’s links with and place in the world is needed in order to more fully comprehend elements such as our culture, our future, our environment, our history and so on.

Another dimension of our identity involves who we consider to be insiders or outsiders (Bachelard, 1994) of groups or societies. It invites questions such as, “To whom do I belong?” and “Who belongs to me?” According to Linn (1996:137,8) “teachers are now dealing regularly with topics such as prejudice, race, gender, the media’s presentation of the Other, color symbolism, and the need for a multiracial standard of beauty”. It stands to reason that a global perspective will privilege inclusion over exclusion, as we determine and consider our multiple identities.

- An enhanced understanding of environmental causes and effects

Examples of what could be called ‘primary’ environmental degradation (ozone depletion, greenhouse gas emissions etc.) are now occurring on a global, as well as a local scale. Moreover, there is an increasing awareness of ‘secondary’ environmental degradation, which is sparked by the chasm between the rich and poor nations, such as the destruction of forests for cultivation of cash crops, and the inability or reticence on the part of poorer nations to introduce environmental safeguards and limits. Moreover, it is the wealthier nations that have a greater capacity to address and remedy such problems - both on their own and indirectly, on others’ soil.

- Greater empathy for others

An effective global education should equip students to look sensitively, yet critically, at the factors leading to lifestyle decisions on the part of others. Recognition that the
world is a community, is likely to beget an increased compassion for the situation of others, as well as an enhanced motivation to act thereon. Similarly effective will be a perspective which privileges similarities over differences, in terms of human needs, problems and responses to these. At the same time, a global perspective should recognise, celebrate and try to more deeply understand cultural and other differences.

As Fien and Williamson-Fien (1996a) point out,

*Global education is not a neutral, apolitical study about the world, but a values-laden pursuit that seeks to foster the holistic development of individuals and communities and a just world order.*

(p. 132, emphasis in original)

A multicultural Australian context adds further weight to the need for a more empathic outlook. Whether at local or international levels, “If we pretend that students are mostly the same, there is no reason to make a place for the range of historical and cultural voices that shape students’ identities” (Dudley-Marling & Murphy, 1997:463).

- An improved awareness of economic forces

As outlined earlier, globalisation means that the world’s wealthier nations are no longer isolated from the economic regime of the poorer nations. At the same time, it is becoming increasingly evident that many of the causes of poverty, such as loan interest levels and overconsumption by the rich, originate beyond the grasp of the poor. A global perspective assists in foregrounding these causes and the mechanisms that perpetuate the cleft between rich and poor. As such, it should incorporate lifestyle implications for learners.

- An increased capacity to interrogate assumptions
Vigilance is necessary in identifying pedagogical presumptions. In the words of Fien and Williamson-Fien (1996a: 126) “assumptions of economic and cultural superiority … have coloured, albeit unintentionally in many cases, past teaching about the lives of the oppressed”. Many of these assumptions are both broad and simplistic in nature, and include the arbitrary privileging of races and cultures, or of teaching processes and content.

An effective global education can help to train children to mistrust simple solutions. While the symptoms of many of the world’s global injustices surface in the less developed countries, their source may be located elsewhere. Global education should not dwell exclusively on these problems, but should also investigate the attitudes and mechanisms of richer nations which have brought the problems about. It should also examine students’ own attitudes and assumptions with regard to the circumstances of these countries. Moreover, problems and their solutions are multi-faceted, and simple solutions can fail to address the root causes of problems, and may, “add further layers of problems” (Toh, 1993:16).

• The extension of more informed lifestyle choices to students

Common among educators is the call to provide learners with achievable goals. A notion that the world’s global problems are insoluble is likely to lead young people into a slough of indifference and/or frustration. Furthermore, a sense of powerlessness is an all-too-convenient bedfellow for a disinterest in righting current global imbalances. Whether deliberately or otherwise, media portrayals of less developed countries suggest that they are beyond help, or undeserving thereof.

A global education maximises its value and effectiveness by engendering a compassionate, practical and workable response on the part of learners. Observing that global education goes beyond mere “academic concern”, Fien and Williamson-Fien (1996a: 129) recommend that students be provided with opportunities to clarify their values, and to gain the knowledge and skills necessary for making informed and responsible decisions. These responses on the part of learners may have consequences that are economic (through choices as a consumer), environmental
(through care with resources) or ‘participatory’, (through the exercise of one’s own political will or by allowing others’ voices to be heard and considered).

- A new, or renewed enthusiasm for a just world

The economic, ethical, environmental and other issues presented by a global education demand responses. As Fien (1995) points out, to marginalise ourselves from the political process is to marginalise ourselves indeed. Toh (1993: 18) asserts that, “An empowering pedagogy for global literacy invites learners to participate actively, to link their knowledge and awareness, no matter how partial, limited, biased or inaccurate, with fellow learners”.

**Globalisation and school curriculum: For whom the bell tolls…**

*Australian students will not benefit from a curriculum framed in terms of localism, nostalgia for empires past or nihilism*

Singh, 1996:21

Despite a rising tide of global consciousness, good practice in global education is uncommon (Fien, 1995). According to Fien and Williamson-Fien (1996a: 125) “Few Australian syllabuses provide students with the comprehensive view of the world as an interconnected and interdependent system”. Referring specifically to environmental and development education, Fien (1995:2) says that, “few teachers appreciate the full range of objectives, resources and strategies in these fields”. Moreover, “few have received either pre-service studies or undertaken in-service professional development in them”.

Indeed, a global stance in the classroom is rare. There is a temptation to cleave to outdated views of the world (Giroux, 1994, McLaren, 1994). In both the physical and cognitive worlds, the unknown invokes fear and feelings of powerlessness. Brookfield (1994: 210) quotes an academic colleague, who, with disarming frankness confessed, “There was a feeling that if truth didn’t reside in the heads of you guys - or on the library shelves - then it couldn’t be found anywhere”. Nonetheless, fixed
boundaries, whether territorial or curricular, serve as a pretext for regressing from
of petty national rivalries which undermine attempts for a peaceful and equitable
apportionment of resources. The implications of such a regression are arguably
more drastic in teaching than in most other professions. Schön (1983) notes that
teachers, enjoying the familiar comfort of their own scholastic world, fear venturing
beyond it. Such comfort is acquired at the expense of new experiences, challenges
and knowledge, and forfeits opportunities for personal and professional growth.

Such obstacles, although real, cannot be allowed to frustrate the quest for a global
perspective in education. As Tye and Tye (1992: 299) point out,

An understanding of ‘how the world works’ is crucial for
everyone, if we are to live well in an increasingly
complicated society. Such understanding can be
achieved through global education for both children and
adults.

It would be naïve to consider that the curriculum is value-free or apolitical. Buell
(1994: 221) claims that knowledge is “neither genuine representation nor a
transparent window on reality, but … a construction both embodying and advancing
unequal relations of power”. In other words, the content of the curriculum is
politically contested. Further complicating this is the twofold nature of universal and
positivist philosophical approaches. Buell, (1994: 223), describes the duality thus,

On the one hand, development of cultural and aesthetic
forms (ways of representing the world that claim to be
universally human), and, on the other, the elaboration
and institutionalisation of “objective” and “scientific”
disciplines (ways of representing the world that claim to
be disinterested and true).
While discourses are “neither objective nor universal” (Buell, 1994: 223), it could be argued that knowledge, as it is applied in schools, is seen as empirical, in both the positivist and colonial senses of the word: It is empirical in the sense of being handed down as from the colonial power to the colony; it is equally treated as empirical in being accorded the status of measurable, absolute ‘Truth’.

The curriculum, then, is an arena in which these and other battles are being fought.

**Supporting teachers as agents of change**

> Like weather forecasters, we are at our best when prognosticating more of the same; it is the change, the radical change, change in the rules of the game and thus in the game itself, that defies our imagination, shackled as it has been since the beginning of the modern age to continuous time and monotoneity of institutional reproduction.

Bauman, 1995: 140

The nature of globalisation itself is changing. Game (1995: 193) uses metaphors such as “flow, flux, waves” to describe poststructuralist accounts. Even if the threat of homogenisation across the world is real, changes in technology and communication are ensuring heterogeneity, that is, change, through time.

Yet, school cultures and structures resist change (Beare, Caldwell & Millikan 1989, Tye & Tye, 1992). Beare et al. (p. 177) point out that a culture’s or community’s “shared meanings, cognitions, symbols and experiences” assert themselves in the accepted practices and behaviours of that community. The competing demands placed on schools and their staff are among the forces that conspire against change and renewal in schools (Tye & Tye, 1992). Ironically, such bureaucracy and standardisation may well remove from teachers many of the opportunities for making decisions. This exercise of autonomy is arguably central to educational, professional,
and personal growth. Compounding this, teachers are expected to be the agents of change, whilst also being the subjects of change (Halse, 1996).

Globalisation has challenged past assumptions, and is occurring in the context of dramatic political and economic change. Parodying the concept of a new world order, there is a "new world chaos" (Waters, 1995: 124) and a “patterned disorder” (Gill, 1993: 7). If knowledge is the legal tender of schools and the currency in which transactions are conducted, the challenge for teachers in promoting a new standpoint such as a global perspective is neither straightforward nor easily achieved. Schools are typically conservative institutions, that serve to reproduce society’s values. Schools “engage in specific discourses and hence inconsistently tap the social and cultural resources of society; privileging specific groups by emphasising particular … styles, curricula and authority patters” (Cairney, Ruge, Buchanan, Lowe & Munsie, 1995: 6). Such a stance, however, is contrary to the very nature of effective education.

Teachers need not be bound by the rigidity of their own, or other’s ideas. It is doubt, rather than surety which effects cognitive and personal growth. This growth can best happen when teachers and students are able to, “surface conflicts and dilemmas and subject them to productive public enquiry” (Schön, 1983: 335). This, in turn, may equip and embolden teachers to lead students into new cognitive and philosophical territory. Schön (1983) views the teacher as a conduit for helping students to, “become aware of their own intuitive understandings, to fall into cognitive confusions and explore new directions of understanding and action” (p. 333). An academically ‘risk-friendly’ environment is as necessary for teachers as for those they teach.

On a global scale, and at school level, a substantial reconfiguring of thought and of structure may be required. A certain level of ‘cognitive untidiness’ may need to be accommodated in the short and long term, in place of the traditional fixity of knowledge. Schön (1983) views such uncertainty as a healthy, and even a necessary condition of sound education. Putting this into the perspective of global education, Singh (1996: 61) asserts,
The belief that there is one best way to redress global risks through global education would seem self-defeating, denying teachers access to an array of strategic alternatives to test under their particular conditions of work.


Despite the efforts of governments and bureaucrats, teachers are the gatekeepers of the curriculum. If curricular change is not to be superficial and tokenistic, teacher change is required. For a global outlook to be successfully adopted, teachers must be convinced of its merits. For this reason, curriculum development hinges on teacher development.

Furthermore, in the context of their demanding profession, teachers will need and expect materials which are of high quality, easily accessible, and relevant to the needs of their students. While the curriculum determines the ‘official’ syllabus, teaching content is largely governed by available resources. *Global Issues* has contributed to fulfilling this need.

As suggested earlier, cultural change is a necessary pre- and co-condition for effective curricular change (Hargreaves, 1994). Traditionally, however, commercially produced teaching materials have followed in the wake of curricular change, seeking a share of the educational dollar.

*Global Issues* departs significantly from this formula. Firstly, it seeks to interrogate heirloom attitudes and values. Secondly, while constrained by financial realities, it is not in search of profit. The development of *Global Issues* parallels the emergence of the wider global education movement (Fien & Williamson-Fien, 1996b: 14) that, “Did not begin as an initiative of the formal education sector”, but with teachers and others attempting to address an issue of concern.
Role of AusAID and GTAV

As Tony Hepworth’s (1996) serialised story in Global Issues illustrates, the SOSE/HSIE Key learning area is one of the more politically vulnerable KLAs, dealing as it does with social issues. (See also Marsh, 1994). Observing a further complication, Singh (1996: 13) explains that the evaluation of publicly funded projects necessarily takes on a political dimension. Countering this, Singh also points out that,

> It is, however, a mistake to assume that this is the primary or sole interest of government agencies such as AusAID; issues concerning the worthwhileness and sustainability of the Global Education Project’s goals, processes and products are of central importance.

Desirable qualities of curriculum materials in global education

> The important issue is not the amount of development education received but the quality of it.

(Fien, 1989, Introduction, emphasis in original)

Effective, teaching materials in global education need to focus on issues such as power and powerlessness, participation, critical awareness and worldwide interdependence (Fien, 1989). Specifically, such materials should seek answers to questions related to inequitable distribution of wealth and resources, autonomy, political and commercial vested interests, and the relative merits of suggested solutions to dilemmas such as sustainable development (Geography 16-19, 1985, Fien, 1995).
There is a weakness in materials which fail to take note of the multi-faceted causes and solutions to such issues. Fien (1995) for example, speaks of responding with purely technological solutions to ecological problems whose origins are cultural, economic or political in nature. Consequently, curricular materials supporting a legitimate global education should, “reflect an alternative epistemology which values diverse ways of knowing, identifies with the people and communities they purport to serve, and respects community-based approaches to social change” (p.11). The UNESCO Brisbane Criteria, cited by Fien and Williamson-Fien (1996b: 16-18) identify two criteria for curricular materials. The first deals with general matters of validity (e.g. academic rigour, and the inclusion of verifiable source material), an ethical approach and a comprehensive range of viewpoints. The second is concerned with specific issues such as equality of rights, the pursuit of peace, and sustainable development.

Ideally, the aims of such materials should not be solely ideological, but are tailored to the cognitive and other needs of the student. As well as presenting knowledge, such materials lend themselves to the development of skills such as interpretation and decision-making, communication and critical thinking (Fien, 1989, Fien & Williamson-Fien, 1996b). Moreover, effective materials attempt to include, or make allowances for, local adaptations of core material (Fien, 1995). Perhaps most importantly, curriculum materials should be designed as a source of conscientisation, or critical consciousness (“conscientização”, Friere, 1992: 41), so as to provoke a practical response on the part of students and teachers. Fien and Williamson-Fien (1996b) also point out that one of the aims of a global education is a “positive self image” (p. 12). According to this view, that a sense of one’s own value is a more effective catalyst than guilt and shame, for engendering political and practical responses.

National and state curricula

The National SOSE Curriculum (Curriculum Corporation, 1994a) emanated from an audit of materials related to the teaching of SOSE, in 1990, and the nationwide mapping of SOSE curricula (Curriculum Corporation, 1994b). This curriculum document embraces many of the virtues enumerated above. It acknowledges the
“contested nature of knowledge” (p.7). One of its “seven major perspectives” (p.6) is explicitly devoted to a global outlook. This perspective incorporates references to phenomena such as culture, economics and the environment. An associated aim is that children will “learn about societies and environments form the local to the global: and will “develop an appreciation of Australia’s place in the global community and its role in helping to achieve international cooperation” (p. 7). Many of the other perspectives could be construed to include a global dimension. Of these, perhaps the most obvious link is within multicultural perspectives, although specific references within this chapter are limited to the Australian context.

Within several of the stands of the SOSE curriculum document, there is a recognition of diverse ways of thinking. It acknowledges, for example (Curriculum Corporation, 1994a: 7), “cultural differences in explaining time … as linear progression, cyclical recurrence or continuous state of being”. This is arguably an important contributor to an empathic understanding of other cultures. As well as recognising the “complex of cultural heritages in Australia, the Asia-Pacific region and elsewhere” (p. 15), it ratifies the centrality of Geography to such a study, by stating that, “The contexts for study will vary from the home and local area, through to regional, state, national and global contexts. The central discipline underpinning the strand is geography” (p.15). Indeed, the multiple realities of local, national and global ‘memberships’ are each endorsed in an arguably deliberate ambiguity in the statement, “broaden and challenge students’ [perceptions of their natural and social worlds” (p. 19, emphasis added).

One of the difficulties with regard to publications such as Global Issues that have a national audience, is that the states and territories have interpreted the national guidelines in various ways, resulting in a considerable disparity between curriculum guidelines at state/territory level.
Conclusion

*Being globally literate is an idea whose time has come - in society, and in schools.*

Tye & Tye (1992:227)

Schools are the ideal site for local/global interface and the curriculum and support materials are central to this process. Just as new knowledge and technologies are changing the world order, new knowledge, values and skills are essential, if we are to make sense of this changing world order. As Buell (1994: 337) says,

>`The theorization and representation of culture has changed in the postwar period in response to a succession of geopolitical and geocultural shifts. The emergent communication model of globalization theory suggests that one of the chief symptoms and causes of these developments has been the rapid alteration in the circulation of knowledge.`

In response to such phenomena, Gobbett (1995: 18.1) advises that, “education must address both the cognitive and affective domains and should empower people to act”. The skills and cognitive processes facilitated by a global perspective in education, as well as the inherent knowledge, should equip students to challenge myths of equality, and to ask, “What kind of sovereignty, for whom, and for what purposes?” (Gill, 1993: 10). *Global Issues* is one publication which poses such questions, and is thereby helping to consummate goals such as those outlined above.
An effective global education will ‘bring home the world’ by giving local meaning and relevance to global realities, and by offering local responses to global issues. As Toh (1993: 17) puts it,

*A liberating curriculum surely succeeds and fails in terms of whether it moves learners, and that includes teachers, to try to transform their realities as they become critically conscious of the way the world works. ... A liberating curriculum has to move the hearts of learners.*
CHAPTER 4

CONTENT ANALYSIS OF GLOBAL ISSUES

Introduction

As outlined in the methodology, four discrete analyses of *Global Issues* have been conducted. Lead articles, resources and activities have each been classified. In addition, the editions have been analysed in their entirety with regard to the number of components (resources, activities etc.) which make reference to the world’s various nations. The analysis revealed a creditably wide variety of text types, activities, resources and topics. For sample tables of findings generated by these analyses, refer to Appendix 3. The seven editions of *Global Issues* being evaluated comprise 168 pages.

Overall, the content analysis revealed a very high level of accuracy of data in the publication.\(^\text{16}\) This is especially commendable in view of the tight time constraints under which the magazine is produced. Typographical errors, too, are exceedingly rare. The four analyses are outlined below.

**Lead articles**

For the purposes of this analysis, lead articles (and other primarily textual components of the magazine, such as introductions to themes) have been included in the category of ‘lead articles’. Analysis has been conducted at two levels: the articles have been categorised by theme and sub-theme. The major themes parallel what might correspond to government portfolios, such as education, economy, agriculture, health etc. In many cases, for the sake of increased specificity, the title of the article is listed.

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\(^{16}\) Of the few minor errors detected, two are included for mention here. In volume 2, number 3 (p.4), a pie graph indicates a proportion of Sudanese people living in Java. It is presumed that this refers to Sudanese people. It may be that the error was in the original source material. A map of South-East Asia (volume 2, number 4, p. 10) positioned Vientiane on the Lao-Vietnamese border, whereas it is in fact located on the Lao-Thai border. In view of the scale of the map, the error is, in one sense, minuscule. Nevertheless, the position of Vientiane is important both politically and geographically, the city being located on the Mekong. It is stressed again, however, that such errors are notable by their infrequency.
as the major theme. While these themes are interrelated, they tend to have features which distinguish them.

Sub-themes, on the other hand, constitute aspects of society which tend to pervade the themes and include issues such as change, cause and effect, self esteem etc. In some cases, an element may appear as either a theme or a sub-theme. Education as a theme, for instance, might be seen in terms of institutionalised schooling. As a sub-theme, it is also used to denote the process of challenging values, attitudes and assumptions (for example, on issues such as drug use, equal opportunity etc.) in a less formal context.

The unit of analysis was the paragraph, as paragraphs tend to correspond to topical, or thought units.

Within the 29 articles, there were 323 paragraphs. Within these, a total of 51 topic themes were differentiated. These topics covered a wide range of social and other areas of study. The most common subject of articles was culture, occurring in 47 paragraphs (14.5%). The most commonly occurring themes appear in table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Topics of lead articles.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Culture</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>14.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economy</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>6.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equality</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Climate</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Issues such as ideologies, language, fauna, racism, food and self esteem were mentioned only once or twice.
While it is inappropriate to suggest a ‘hierarchy of value’ relating to various topics, Global Issues deserves praise for raising more complex issues of culture, and venturing beyond its tangible forms, such as food, clothes etc. As is evident in the literature on the subject, issues such as economics and education are central to a host of global concerns; as table 4.1 shows, these subjects are well represented in the magazine. The recurrence of geographical themes in the articles highlights the centrality of this field to many social and economic outcomes. Moreover, it demonstrates that Global Issues has been faithful to GTAV’s mission. While ‘environment’ has been specifically identified on only four occasions, it is worth keeping in mind that implicit references to same are subsumed within ‘geography’ and other topics.

Resources

Resources have been classified according to their ‘text type’ or genre. Some of these text types are self explanatory; others are briefly explained below.

- Graphic. This category includes any primarily visual (as opposed to textual) or diagrammatic means of conveying information, such as maps, graphs, pictures, drawings, cartoons, flow charts, tables, concept maps etc.

- Recount and narrative. A recount generally refers to a factual account (e.g. a newspaper report, an account of a field trip etc. (while a narrative is a factitious story. One example of the latter is the serialised story by Tony Hepworth (e.g. Global Issues, 2,1, pp. 19-22).

- Discussion and argument. The former tends to look at and weigh up two or more differing opinions, whereas the latter is constructed so as to convince the reader of its particular point of view.

- Procedure and explanation. A procedure provides information on how something happens. An explanation informs the reader on how to do something, although the two may overlap.
Parables and the like were difficult to classify under this scheme. Some, such as, “How the elephants lost their wings” (*Global Issues*, 3,2. p.15) are explanations. Others, such as “The Boatman and the Scholar” (*Global Issues*, 2,2. p.9) have more in common with a narrative. It is recognised, though, that one’s religious or philosophical viewpoint might interpret these as a recount.

In all, the seven volumes contained 136 resources. A small proportion of resources were accorded two entries, as they were comprised of discrete subsections.

The range of resource types is impressive, with 19 different resource types identified. This variety gives the magazine credibility in the eyes of teachers, while making *Global Issues* interesting and stimulating for students.

The most common resource type was the recount, occurring 37 times (27% of the total number of resources). This, and the next most commonly occurring text types are presented in table 4.2
Table 4.2. Resource types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource type</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Recount</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tally</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cartoons</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explanations</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maps</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arguments</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drawings, logos</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussions</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Narratives</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Several resource types occurred only once or twice (e.g. policy documents, lists, concept maps, procedures and flow charts.

Altogether, resources of a graphic nature (logos, flow charts, maps, graphs cartoons etc) comprised 37.5% of the total, occurring on 51 occasions. This is particularly commendable, given the constraints on the size of the publication. It also reflects an understanding that students grow up in a visual world, and many do not speak English as their first language. The frequency of arguments and discussions (which totalled 10.5% of resources) demonstrates a recognition of the "contested nature of knowledge" (Curriculum Corporation, 1994b: 7).

The variety of resources also aligns with the aims of curriculum documents, that demand the understanding and interpretation of data from a range of sources, and the ability to ‘translate’ data from one form to another. The SOSE National Statement (Curriculum Corporation, 1994a: 4) states as one of its outcomes, that students need
to “understand the nature of evidence and sources and to evaluate their authenticity and values”.

Activities

Activities were categorised according to the required response, as follows.

a) Reference was sub-divided according to the type of material to be resourced, eg:

- media articles (e.g. TV, radio programs, newspapers, internet);
- text. Prose, such as in text books, fiction or non-fiction library books etc.
- reference materials (atlases, encyclopaedia, dictionaries etc.);
- ‘graphics’ (information presented graphically or diagrammatically, e.g. graphs, cartoons, pictures, tables etc)
- ‘market research’, e.g. of environmentally friendly products.
- interviews, surveys.
- organisations - investigating their modes of operation, policies, practices etc.

b) Discussion included

- paired, small group or class discussion. Where the size and structure of discussions were not specified, these were entered under group discussion.
- debate, interviews and speeches.

c) Classifying was interpreted as meaning categorising phenomena according to their salient features. Examples include ranking exercises, such as classifying solutions according to their chances of success (Global Issues, 2,1, p.11), or ranking countries by wealth (GI, 2,1, P.23). Also included were arguably simpler tasks such as comparing one’s own list of the necessities of life with that of the United Nations (GI, 2,1, p.4).
Listing and brainstorming  Listing involved the composition of ‘finite’ registers, e.g. of household appliances. It should be noted that listing inherently involves some degree of classification. Even if a phenomenon was not divided according to ‘internal horizons’ (i.e. different subcategories, see Marton, 1994) there will be an ‘external horizon’ aspect to a list generated for any phenomenon, differentiating it from other phenomena.

Brainstorming, on the other hand, involves the generation of potentially infinite lists such as solutions to or causes of a problem. Usually, the wording of the activity itself has been the arbiter of the classification.

e)  A concept map was seen as being more sophisticated than a list as it serves to illustrate the links between various phenomena.

f)  Role play, empathy exercises and simulation games While these are separate entities, they are listed here together because of their pedagogical similarities.

g)  Political response includes lobbying politicians, writing to manufacturers, or a call to lifestyle changes or other response in the face of new knowledge.

h)  Document production was of two types: written (story etc.) and graphic (maps etc.).
   • written  This consists of most writing other than that outlined above. Typically, it is produced by an individual rather than a group. It includes, for example, story writing, poetry, acrostics, posters, logos, mottoes etc.
   • graphic - a map, table flow chart etc.; model; video

i)  Presentation is often implicit in document production, but is only included here if specific reference is made to same in the activity. Subgroups include: oral, written, graphic, dramatic.

j)  Contributing questions. Usually this category is used if it is left to the teacher’s or students’ discretion as to how the questions are to be dealt with (e.g. via
discussion, writing etc). In other words if there is an instruction to debate or discuss a certain question, it is classified accordingly.

\( \textit{k}) \quad \textit{Hands-on activity} \) includes experiments, inspection of artefacts in class etc.

As can be seen from the preceding list, \textit{Global Issues} has combined an impressive range of learning activities comprising a total of 37 different teaching/learning activities. In all, 843 instructions were discerned from the 85 activities of the seven editions. Contributing questions were posed 181 times, making them the most common form of activity. They comprised 21.5\% of the total number of instructions. The most common forms of activity are outlined in table 4.3.

Table 4.3. Distribution of common teaching/learning activities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Proportion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contributing questions</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>21.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research - text</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group discussion</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>9.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Document production - graphic</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>8.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Document production - written</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>6.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research - graphic</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classification/comparison</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Several activities occurred only once or twice. These included research using artefacts, writing to businesses, letters to editors and hands-on activities.

As with the resources, the sheer variety of teaching/learning activities is impressive, and is likely to maximise student interest and learning. The authors and production team appear to have kept in mind the needs of both visual and auditory learners. While activities of a kinaesthetic nature are less common, they are nonetheless well represented, with the inclusion of surveys etc, as well as the examination of artefacts. It may well be that authors of activities are hesitant to incorporate artefacts into their activities, on the reasonable assumption that not all teachers will have access to these.
The prevalence of discussion activities mirrors an understanding by the producers that students are not expected to passively absorb knowledge, attitudes and values. It acknowledges the background knowledge students bring to new information, and provides scope for peer teaching/learning to take place.

Apart from the time saved by teachers in not having to develop such activities, those provided by *Global Issues* are likely to make a valuable contribution to teachers’ storehouses of ideas. There is no obligation on the part of the teacher to match activities with resources as per the magazine. This multiplies the potential options for teachers to pursue with the material.

Tallies were made for the ‘categories’ of activities, and are presented in table 4.4. Of these, 25% (213) involved research.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity ‘grouping’</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Research</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Document production</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussions, debates</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presentations</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Interestingly, political responses were specifically invited on only five occasions (0.5%). Given *Global Issues’* intention to generate responses on the part of children, this figure might appear low. Still, subtlety is of the essence in such matters. Constant requests for political responses may simply galvanise students into inaction. On the other hand, students may choose, without prompting, to respond politically to the material.

**Nations**

A fairly strict interpretation of national status was adopted for this classification, to the extent that it may at times challenge conventional thinking. Island groups such as Hawaii and Tahiti were regarded as part of the United States and France respectively.
References to Hong Kong were treated as being to China; Macau was seen as part of Portugal.

Naturally, in some cases, the status of certain regions is in question. A classification such as this may at times be seen as arbitrary and contentious, or even objectionable. For instance, Tibet was seen as belonging to China, whereas Taiwan was seen as having nationhood status. Eritrea was seen as a separate nation, whereas Tigray was treated as a part of Ethiopia. The decisions made were for pragmatic purposes only. They do not necessarily reflect the views and hopes of the research team, nor are they intended to constitute a political statement.

For the purposes of this review, a component constituted any discrete element of the magazine: resources, lead articles, activities, resource listing etc. Such components were not further subdivided.

The tallies correspond to the number of articles, activities, resources etc that mention a particular country. Second and subsequent references to a particular country in the same component of the magazine were not included. In general, regions were not included in the tallies unless they were substantial. Regions such as the Sahel and the Himalayas, for instance, did not alter the tallies. On the other hand, cities gained a mention for their country of location. Neither did the reference to people alter the tally, unless such reference included a specific allusion to their country of origin, such as in the case of political incumbents.

The total number of ‘component-nation-references’ was 653. The total number of components was 267. On average, between two and three countries were mentioned in each article.
The seven issues of *Global Issues* under review mentioned a total of 93 countries. While the inclusion of various countries is not necessarily a virtue, this breadth of information is quite impressive, particularly given the size and number of the editions. If the total number of the world’s countries can be approximately assessed at 225, these seven editions of *Global Issues* can be said to have included 42% of all the world’s nations.

The most commonly mentioned country was, naturally enough, Australia, which was referred to in 109 of the articles. Australia was mentioned in 41% of components, and comprised about 16.5% of all national references. One reason for the prominent inclusion of Australia, according to the production team, is to enable students to work from the known to the unknown, and to more easily make comparisons. Australia and the other most commonly mentioned countries are tabulated below. Column three indicates the percentage of all the magazine’s components containing references to the country concerned. Column four indicates the percentage of all national references taken up by the country in question.

Table 4.5 Frequency of national references

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>No. of components</th>
<th>% of components</th>
<th>% of all refs.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>16.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>8.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>16.5%</td>
<td>6.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bhutan</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A broad definition of ‘Pacific nations’ revealed that 30 were included in these editions. Similarly, 30 Asian nations were included, although some nations were included in both groups. There were 16 African nations mentioned. Six South
American nations rated a mention, with the inclusion of a further ten central American or Caribbean nations. A total of 21 European nations gained a mention.

For the purposes of this analysis, the boundary between North and Central America was treated as the US-Mexican border. This is arguably no less justified than a division between Europe and Asia, in geographical terms. This left a total of only two north American nations, the United States and Canada, both of which were mentioned. This illustrates the fact that certain regions comprise considerably more countries than others.

Perhaps the only entry in the table above which may cause surprise is Bhutan. It is to be remembered that volume three, number two of *Global Issues* featured south Asia, and included several articles and activities focused on Bhutan.

More revealing is the collective frequency of references to countries in each region (see table 4.6).

There was an average of more than one reference per component to an Asian, and/or Pacific country. European nations were represented in 21% of the components, African nations in 16.5%, North American nations within 16% and central, south American nations in 13.5%. Interestingly, then, the USA and Canada still rated more mentions than all the Caribbean, central and south American nations combined.
Table 4.6. References to regions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Number of article/references</th>
<th>% of total references$^{17}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Pacific</td>
<td>334</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>50.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North America</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central, Sth America</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From table 4.6, it can be seen that *Global Issues*’ commitment to focus on the Asia-Pacific region has been fulfilled. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that the tally of Pacific nations is considerably inflated by the inclusion of Australia, the United States and Asian nations.

Another observation worth noting is the nature of various references. Some references could be described as being made ‘in passing’ while others are of a more in depth nature. One *prima facie* observation of references to European nations is that many of them are couched in terms of their colonial track record and may be unflattering references.

**Conclusions and implications**

The seven editions of *Global Issues* currently being investigated covered an impressive range of material types, topics and activities, and have illustrated these with a comprehensive array of references to the nations of the world. In particular, the following points were noted:

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$^{17}$ Totals exceed 100% for two reasons: Firstly, several countries in the one region may be included in some articles. Secondly, countries may belong to more than one region. Russia, for example, was included as a European, Asian and Pacific nation. In this case, Australia was treated as a Pacific nation, but not as a part of Asia. Either of these decisions, it is conceded, could be contested.
• The variety of articles and activities enhances student interest and learning, while contributing to teachers’ professional development. This variety also allows for the understanding and interpretation of various media (graphs, statistics text etc). The inclusion of participant accounts and official documents lends authenticity and immediacy, as these resources are often not easily available.

• The information in *Global Issues* is faithful to the national SOSE Curriculum Profile (Curriculum Corporation, 1994b), and provides specific links with the document’s outcomes in each edition (e.g. *Global Issues*, 2,1. p.4).

• Just as the stimulus material for students shows a wealth of variety, so do the responses required on the part of students. While the call to political action is relatively muted, subtlety in such matters is valuable.

• Despite *Global Issues*’ space limitations, the visual nature of much of the information assists ‘print-resistant’ students, and those whose first language is not English.

• Perhaps because of its multi-authored origins, *Global Issues* incorporates a range of perspectives and approaches with regard to the issues it treats. This adds to student interest, and minimises the risk of bias.

• The activities and resources of *Global Issues* cater for a range of preferred learning styles and appear to have relevance for a wide range of cognitive ability. They take into account the knowledge a student brings to a field of study, and allow for cognitive growth through peer interaction, as well as conceding that much knowledge in a discipline such as this is open to debate.

• The information is highly accurate. The factual nature of the material enhances teacher confidence and adds to the value of the resource.

• The inclusion of current information not readily available from many other sources and the ‘reader-friendly’ focusing of information around themes is likely to save the teacher time in preparing lessons.
• *Global Issues* has covered a wide range of countries in these editions. In particular, reference to Australia’s regional neighbours is commendable. While reference to Pacific island nations is less common, it needs to be kept in mind that a previous edition of *Global Issues* dealt specifically with this region. Also of value is the inclusion of countries with a lower profile, such as Bhutan. As can be seen by the number of references, Australia is not overlooked in the quest for a global perspective.

It is evident that *Global Issues* has been most successful in meeting its objectives (see chapter 1). The magazine is practical, accurate and factual. It comprehensively incorporates many perspectives and caters for a variety of students, and credits the learner as being a ‘knower’. The information provided in *Global Issues* is thematically focused and easily accessible. It can be said with confidence that *Global Issues* is a production which has the needs of both teachers and learners in mind.
CHAPTER 5

THE MANAGEMENT, PRODUCTION AND DISTRIBUTION OF
GLOBAL ISSUES

Introduction

Global Issues is produced on a quarterly basis. An editor is employed on a part time basis, and writers are paid for their contribution. Meanwhile distribution occurs through the goodwill of associations who receive it so that the distribution costs of Global Issues are negligible.

The production and distribution of the resource appears to be both efficient and cost effective. From the first edition comprising 4,000 copies, the print run has expanded to 6,500 for the most recent edition (Vol 3, No 3. Source, Global Issues Editor). This bears testimony to the quality of the production, and its success in meeting teachers’ needs.

The purpose and vision for Global Issues

Members of the team producing Global Issues are aware of teachers’ need for an easy to use, time-saving relevant teaching resource. One of the team explained her vision for the magazine as being “To make teachers’ lives easier”. She added,

Global Issues takes a lot of the hack work out of preparation. Gives teachers current, pertinent information. It improves the quality of teaching. I hope it broadens people’s horizons - that their view is not the only view. What’s [the television station] SBS’s slogan? ‘The world is an amazing place’. The trouble with the Hanson view - the thing about stereotypes exist, that’s why they’re there, but they’re the lazy man’s way of defining the world. We’re all incredibly diverse people. Those are some of the stereotypes I want to challenge. Here are some positive options, some different role models, here are some new ways to look at old perceptions. Without wanting to downplay the importance of major issues, it’s important not to give them too defeatist a portrayal. It’s good to give positive
responses to a problem. Global Issues is giving teachers good materials to use, that challenge stereotypes. You need to see a sense of hope if you’re going to respond.

It is the desire of the team members to influence teachers’ thinking. As one of them said, “If teachers are using the material, then they’re being pointed in the ‘right’ direction”. Similarly, another member of the production team said that “The content and the way it’s presented challenges people”.

The production team does not see Global Issues as an instant solution to all of the world’s (for the classroom’s) problems. The team recognises that solutions to global problems may be complex and contested. As one team member reported, “We try to avoid telling people the right answer. This is one way of looking at the issue”.

One of the hopes for Global Issues is that it will lead to a response on the part of its readers. As a team member said, “We want kids to do something - it’s not just knowledge for knowledge’s sake. So it’s seen as an engaging thing”. A respondent from a peak professional body outlined her view of the vision for Global Issues as, “to facilitate discussion of relevant issues, and to remind teachers of what they could teach”. With regard to the teaching of Asian studies, she added that Global Issues is successful in these goals. Another consultant explained that “Its raison d’être [is] to keep people in Australia informed and up to date on Asia and the Pacific. Most teachers and students are ill-informed on the region”.

**Strengths of the production process**

Many features of Global Issues are praised by its readers, and, as the following discussion illustrates, these virtues derive from strengths in the production process.

*Authorship of the magazine*

Teacher authorship gives the magazine credibility in the eyes of other teachers. A team member reported that teachers tell her, “Teachers write it. They write material that they know will get kids in”. In addition, others with expertise in their fields write
for *Global Issues*. Because the magazine is multi-authored, it is able to embody a range of perspectives, and include a wealth of knowledge, experiences and skills. One teacher commented, “The authors are practising teachers, and AusAID, and World Vision - they’ve been there and done that”. Another teacher observed that,

> One advantage is such a range of contributors. Many of the authors’ names are well known - it gives you confidence. Even if there’s a name you don’t know, you can assume they’re of the same calibre. These people have all tried the activities.

Some authors have a high profile within and beyond Geography education. The author of “The nature and causes of poverty” (*GI*, 2, 4. pp. 1-3) was Peter Hollingworth, Archbishop of Brisbane. On the other hand, many authors are “not household names” according to the production team, even though they might be known to teachers through conferences and so on. The team cited several reasons for including less well known authors. Members said that they are keen for new approaches to be shared by “bringing in new ideas and new talent”. Thus, teachers who might not otherwise give voice to their ideas in a wider circle are not doing so. In general educators from the tertiary sector

have been invited to write lead articles for each edition. The aim of these articles is to equip and challenge teachers with new ideas. By contrast, practising teachers predominate as authors of the activities, but the two cohorts are by no means mutually exclusive.

*The Partnership between Global Issues and GTAV*

The link between a Geography professional association and global perspectives is a logical one. As one of the team members pointed out,

> Geography is an approach, not a topic ... so it really doesn’t matter what topic you deal with. Providing you take a geographical approach in the way you go about it, you’re still satisfying the objectives of GTAV.
Among its objectives, GTAV aims to “promote co-operation between and undertake liaison with similar associations” (Source: GTAV Incorporation document).

Given this logical link, and the focus of GTAV, it is not surprising that Geography teachers outnumber others as recipients of *Global Issues*. But *Global Issues* has also infiltrated other key learning areas (KLAs). According to the questionnaire responses (see Appendix 1) recipients of *Global Issues* work in fields such as Asian Studies (6% of respondents), LOTE (Languages Other Than English, 5%), and Commerce (2%). Returned questionnaires are tabulated by discipline in table 5.1. Nine people did not specify their KLA, but the range of respondents from diverse teaching areas attests to the likelihood that teachers of other subjects use *Global Issues*. According to *Global Issues* records, copies are distributed to peak bodies with responsibility for disciplines as diverse as Home Economics and Textiles, History, Science, Environmental Education and English.

Table 5.1. Distribution of *Global Issues* by discipline (*n* = 83)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KLA</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>43.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOSE/HSIE</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>33.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>22.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Partnership between Global Issues and AusAID*

The partnership with AusAID was nominated by production team members as a valuable component of the *Global Issues* strategy. One of the team said, AusAID has been a very amendable partner”. Among the virtues of this partnership is the trust accorded to GTAV from AusAID. As another team member put it, “We get a lot of autonomy from AusAID”.
The philosophies of AusAID and *Global Issues* are similar. As one team member said of AusAID,

> It’s easy to stick to their principles, because we’re both focused on development issues. They’ve developed an understanding over a period of time that if you do narrow the parameters too much, you lose a large segment of your potential audience, so they’ve left things to our judgement, as to what’s the best way to go about that.

Team members recognised the delicate balance needed in terms of references to AusAID and its projects. While it is only reasonable for AusAID to use *Global Issues* to inform people of its work, if such promotion becomes too conspicuous, readers are likely to respond to the magazine with scepticism. One team member told us,

> That’s the trouble with [other aid organisations]. They’re seen as having a propaganda agenda. I just want to have an excellent curriculum resource. We do try and include AusAID’s projects - and other organisations’ projects - that gives us more credibility.

It stands to reason, too, that AusAID will gain more support for its aims by enhancing young people’s understanding of global concerns than by simply ‘flying the AusAID flag’. As observed in the literature review, AusAID has been praised for transcending mere political concerns.

This attention to transparent motives is particularly important in the light of biases perceived by teachers and students in many texts. It was not uncommon for teachers to describe other sources, although useful, as being either left wing or right wing in nature. One student also complained at the lack of a variety of perspectives on various issues. Similarly, a consultant commented that some other sources stereotype Asia as a “Developmental basket case”, politely and passively waiting for benevolent gifts from wealthier countries, all the while accumulating psychological and financial debts.
Another strength of the magazine is its strong volunteer base. Perhaps the most vital component of the volunteer network is the Steering Committee. The committee comprises a primary school and a secondary school teacher, an academic, and a representative of an educational peak body with aims sympathetic to global education. As such they bring a wide range of expertise to their task. Their primary responsibilities are to ensure the quality of the production by advising the editor of potential writers, and then, in partnership with the editor, to monitor the quality of the magazine’s content.

As one member of the production team said,

_The [Steering Committee] meetings are very lively - no holds barred, and I usually come out feeling like I’ve done ten rounds with Mike Tyson - but with both ears in place, if not battered. I appreciate that they don’t hold back. That’s an atmosphere I’ve tried to nurture. You need strong, constructive criticism. I usually go away with a list of contacts a mile long, which is fabulous. That’s the great strength of them._

Some members of the production team are known to some of the teachers interviewed. These teachers were full of praise for the _Global Issues_ personnel. As one said, “Lindy is an excellent editor. She works very hard. I have a very high regard for Lindy. I don’t think she would let anything go into it that wasn’t first class”. Unsolicited praise for the editor and her skills came from as far afield as Perth.

**Distribution of the publication**

*Distribution by GTAV*

_Global Issues_ is distributed mainly via _Interaction_, the GTAV journal, and with other professional journals. When it came to the dissemination of _Global Issues_, the production team,
decided to distribute it via Interaction and other subject association magazines. We knew the audience of subject association members were most likely to read the newsletter. Therefore there’s a much higher chance that it would get opened and looked at in the first instance. That was a very strong strategy in the proposal we put into AusAID. Also, it’s promoted at conferences. At schools, you have to rely on your subject coordinator. We avoided going through the administrative stream, the way the junk mail does.

Most respondents to the questionnaire (67, or 77%) receive Global Issues as an insert in another journal. 32 respondents receive Global Issues with Interaction, GTAV’s journal. Another 22 respondents named other journals. The distribution through other professional associations considerably increases the ‘reach’ of Global Issues, but once the magazine leaves GTAV’s hands, destined for these other associations, the ongoing distribution is difficult to ascertain. As one team member pointed out, “It’s hard to get information on who receives the magazine. The associations keep their [own] database”. A consultant commented, “There are lots of teachers out there praising it, who wouldn’t be on any of your lists”. There are also paid subscriptions, currently numbering about 120.

Precise distribution in each state and territory is difficult to ascertain, as over 1,500 copies are distributed to national bodies for further distribution. Other copies are distributed at national and international conferences. For Global Issues, 3, 3 (the most recent issue at the time of writing) specific distribution to state bodies was as follows:
As might be expected, Victoria enjoys the widest distribution of *Global Issues*. The 1,550 copies sent to national bodies and 120 individual subscription bring this total to 5,490. Copies were also produced in this instance for distribution at three conferences, of which one was held in Indonesia and another in Sydney. The third conference was GTAV’s Annual Conference in Melbourne.

Responses to the questionnaire were distributed through the states as set out in table 5.2

Table 5.2. Questionnaire responses by state/territory. (*n* = 92)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage of total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vic</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>50.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NSW</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACT</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QLD</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SA</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WA</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tas</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NT</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Distribution among schools

According to survey responses, *Global Issues* enjoys a wider distribution in secondary schools than in primary schools. This is not surprising, given the more prevalent culture and structure of specialisation in secondary schools. Distribution figures are set out in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3. Distribution of *Global Issues* by school. \( n = 88 \)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>76.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of those who were in other groups, three were from the tertiary sector, and one respondent was in each of the following areas: administration, curriculum writing, adult education and consultancy.

Distribution within schools

Teachers made some suggestions as to how the publication can be most effectively distributed:

Libraries appear to be a common point of arrival for the magazine in many schools. One teacher suggested it be put in the teachers’ library. A librarian reported that she makes relevant components of *Global Issues* available to teachers as appropriate when they request information. She acknowledges the source of all materials thus distributed. Since teachers are busy, though, they are glad to have the resource, and may overlook its origins. This librarian found that many teachers were unable to identify which materials had originated from *Global Issues*. As a result, the staff at this school felt unable to participate in the evaluation.
This raises two important issues. Firstly, even if teachers are unfamiliar with *Global Issues*, it does not necessarily follow that they have never ‘rubbed shoulders’ with it. Secondly, it appears that even when copyright obligations are observed, it is still possible for teachers to be unaware of the source of their teaching materials. Nevertheless, the librarian concerned indicated that when she prompted the memories of the teachers by outlining the contents of the materials, they invariably gave glowing reports on the quality of material.

One teacher, the Geography coordinator at his school, told us, “I announce it at staff meetings, telling staff what would be useful for certain topics and grades”. Several consultants mentioned that they bring it to the attention of the teachers with whom they work. The ‘word of mouth’ publicity which *Global Issues* receives is evidence of its standing with teaching practitioners.

**Budget**

Members of the production team consistently said that the money offered by AusAID is sufficient to produce a quality resource, but needed to be carefully managed. One team member said “You could not maintain the quality with less funding”. Recipients of the magazine invariably described *Global Issues* as representing value for money (see Chapter 6).

Costs are kept to a minimum in various ways. *Global Issues* is mailed in bulk to subject and professional associations. AusAID bears cost of bulk mailout to each of these associations. All the associations, in turn, bear the cost of mailouts to their own members.

There are also other reasons for not increasing the size of the magazine. Apart from making it more daunting for teachers and students to read, a larger production would entail considerable increases in postage and production costs. Also, according to one of the production team members, *Global Issues* would thereby, “lose some its punch”. Another alternative, cutting down on the number of activities, is also fraught with drawbacks. As a team member said, “you take away the scope for teachers to pick and choose what suits their teaching practice”. The team concedes that catering for
the range of students would also be compromised. Said one member, “We’ve been very conscious of the layout for primary school children. You’d do it very differently for them if you could, but you’re catering for VCE [matriculation] level as well”.

A team member told us that as the magazine is well received, other associations are unlikely to abandon it. This is fortunate, as any change in the current mailing arrangement could add “many thousands of dollars”, to the distribution costs. As one team member explained, “There’s an enormous amount of goodwill. We’ve worked hard at building that up”.

GTAV offers considerable support for the magazine in providing office space and equipment (such as furniture, a computer etc.) and in meeting the cost of electricity, telephone, fax and internet access. As well, some of the GTAV Project Officer’s time is devoted to administrative and other support of *Global Issues*, in payment of wages, attendance at Steering Committee meetings etc. Naturally, the volunteer base of the production process is another significant cost saver.

Alternative funding arrangements each have their own problems. Commercial sponsorship would compromise the independence of the magazine. One team member told us, “Any organisation which puts money into something, including AusAID, has an agenda”. While there is scope for advertising the publication in other places, an increase in the print run would exceed the budget. Moreover, bypassing the professional association membership ‘dissemination path’ may alienate these organisations. As one of the team members noted, “It was seen as a supplement in other journals, but it’s now developed into an entity in itself”. She added, “GTAV has a reputation for high quality materials, so *Global Issues* already has the confidence of people who receive it”. An increase in paid subscriptions would be one way to address the issue of increasing output while containing costs.

The annual budget provided by AusAID is $75,000.00. This has funded the production and distribution of some 6,500 copies of the magazine in the last quarter, and a total of 25,500 copies in the last 12 months (source: *Global Issues* records). In simple terms, this has meant a cost to AusAID of $11.75 per volume to produce the latest yearly subscription, or just over $2.95 per copy. At first glance, a paid
subscription of $3.00 per copy just covers these costs. It needs to be remembered, however, that the ‘average cost per issue is significantly reduced by many of the factors outlined above. Postage, and handling-related costs increase considerably when dealing with single issues. When calculating the revenue generated by the publication, it is also worth keeping in mind that with each edition, a certain number of copies are distributed for public relations and promotional purposes.

There are significant financial incentives to encourage the purchase of multiple copies and yearly subscriptions. While bulk subscriptions diminish some of the expenses-per-copy, the resulting revenue for *Global Issues* is also considerably reduced, as set out in the table below. Details of subscription costs appear on the back cover of each edition of *Global Issues*.

### Table 5.4. Subscription costs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscription</th>
<th>Total copies</th>
<th>Cost</th>
<th>Cost per unit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yearly (4 copies)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>$10.00</td>
<td>$2.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 copies x 1 issue</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>$10.00</td>
<td>$2.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 copies x 4 editions</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>$30.00</td>
<td>$1.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 copies x 1 edition</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>$35.00</td>
<td>$1.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 copies x 4 editions</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>$110.00</td>
<td>$1.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Paid subscriptions constitute an important contribution towards the costs of *Global Issues*, but current levels of subscriptions, would not be sufficient to make the magazine self sustaining. It needs to be kept in mind, too, that paid subscriptions may significantly reduce the number of copies ordered by subscribers. More than a quarter of respondents to the questionnaire indicated that they probably would not pay for subscriptions (see Chapter 6). Raising the cost of paid subscriptions is likely to have a similar effect.

On the other hand, attempts to increase the number of subscriptions through advertising are likely to significantly distract staff and volunteers from the tasks of production of the magazine. In the light of these factors, the distribution subscription
arrangements seem most appropriate in meeting the needs of *Global Issues*, GTAV and AusAID, given the current level of production and funding.

The magazine is printed on recycled paper. A telephone call to a New South Wales paper merchant revealed that recycled paper is more expensive than 'new’ paper, the difference being 75c per ream. The decision to use recycled paper was driven by philosophical rather than financial concerns. The research team thoroughly endorses a decision such as this, and believes that, given the philosophies of *Global Issues*, a challenge to such a decision would be difficult to justify. Moreover, the research team is advised that costs associated with recycled paper are at present decreasing. If, as can reasonably be presumed, this is in line with increased use of recycled paper, *Global Issues* can be congratulated for contributing to this trend, thus further reducing price of recycled paper in the future.

**Previous evaluations**

Two previous evaluations have been carried out on *Global Issues*, one internal and one external. The internal evaluation, conducted by the publication’s editor, praised *Global Issues’* “succinct graphics and incisive writing” in the words of one informant, and praised the excellence of the publication’s presentation, content and cognitive appropriateness, among others. (Source: *Global Issues* records.)

As outlined in the introduction, an external evaluation of *Global Issues* was conducted in 1995 (Matthews & Milne, 1995: 14). Matthews and Milne made eight recommendations. Discussion with *Global Issues* personnel shed some light on the extent to which these have been taken up. Most of the recommendations have been adopted, at least in part. These are briefly outlined overleaf, in table 5.5.
Table 5.5. Previous recommendations and action

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recommendation</th>
<th>Action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>That funding be maintained at current levels, but for a further two year period.</td>
<td>Adopted.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>That the publication should focus on Year 5 - 12 rather than on Prep [Kindergarten/Reception] to 12.</td>
<td>Adopted.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>That the publication concentrate largely on SOSE with links to other key learning areas.</td>
<td>Adopted. It was felt that an attempt to cater also for Science was diluting the effectiveness of the material for teachers of Geography and related disciplines.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>That objectives are refined so that all parties are clear about the implications of them.</td>
<td>No specific action. It was felt by <em>Global Issues</em> personnel that this was a recommendation whose achievement was difficult to quantify.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>That GTAV engage a consultant to assist with (a) developing Internet activities (b) further advice in the area of SOSE methodology.</td>
<td>a) Responsibility for internet resourcing has been assumed by the editor. While <em>Global Issues</em> is rich in advising of internet sites, there appear to be fewer specific activities. b) Texts have been bought in order to meet this need.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>That further evaluation be used to establish exactly how teachers are using materials.</td>
<td>Internal evaluation sought and gained such information. Anecdotal evidence is used to inform document design. The current evaluation has focused heavily on teacher use of the material.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>That a folder or file be designed in which teachers can store the materials so that they are kept together.</td>
<td>While no specific decision was made to disregard this recommendation, no action has been taken.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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3 *Global Issues* acknowledges that not all schools have ready access to the internet. This is kept in mind when designing activities.
That a checklist be developed of features for writers to use in preparing material for the publication to ensure that the activities and material remains closely linked with the objectives and to best practice in SOSE methodology. No specific checklist has been produced, but the letter sent to prospective authors has been modified with this in mind.

The Future

Among the visions for Global Issues, production team members mentioned the prospect of expansion, both in terms of distribution and input. Expansion into New Zealand was cited as a possibility in the relatively near future. Similar potential was seen for connections with Canada and the United Kingdom. Other links with countries in the Asia/Pacific region were also alluded to as a more long-term possibility.

With regard to the magazine’s contents, it is felt that distribution hints could be provided, perhaps one at a time, in a “Hints for distribution” or “Who knows about Global Issues?” segment in a prominent position in a series of editions.

Several teachers suggested more opportunities for internet use. Indeed, the internet offers considerable potential for maximising the magazine’s ‘hinterland’. Options include the placing of back issues on internet, and setting up a virtual community, providing more immediately of communication. A team member told us,

You start to get some global connection. Global Issues could be a forum for connecting teachers via the internet. If we get other countries on board, we can broaden our horizons, and see things from other people’s perspectives. Also, you get to see how other people view Australia. Previous views of students [e.g. Vol 2, No 3, pp 12, 13] have been gained through correspondence which is painfully slow. You need long lead times to do that.
Conclusions

GTAV and AusAID appear to have found an efficient and cost effective way to distribute *Global Issues* to a wide range of educators and students. This model of production uses the skills of teachers and other specialists in Geography and related disciplines, while it takes advantage of existing networks and further develops them. It is also an effective production model in that it maximises the use of volunteers in the writing and production of the resource.

The various authors bring a range of expertise, experience and perspectives to their collective authorship. Many of these authors would not otherwise be writing for such a wide audience. Being a quarterly publication, the magazine maintains a currency not afforded by many other printed forms.

The link between a Geography professional association and an agency such as AusAID is a logical, and in this case, a healthy one. Overall, this is a model worthy of investigation and adoption or adaptation by other potential Government and professional association partners.

In terms of the size of the publication, *Global Issues* appears to have found a ‘happy medium’. As one teacher said, “If you broaden its scope, it’s almost in danger of becoming less useful. If it starts to get bigger than Ben Hur, it’s going to take longer to edit, longer to get to us, and we won’t read it”.

One consultant offered sobering advice, in referring to a previous government-sponsored publication. According to this respondent, just as the publication was becoming well known among teachers, “the pin got pulled”. Even in times of financial constraints on the part of governments, a similar decision with regard to *Global Issues* would be likely to spawn considerable cynicism among teachers.
CHAPTER 6

READERS’ OPINIONS OF GLOBAL ISSUES

Introduction

Global Issues has generated a high level of confidence among teachers of Geography and related disciplines, and is eagerly awaited and read by the teachers who receive it. As one teacher said, “As soon as it comes into the school, I read it, and see where I can use it”. Similarly, students overwhelmingly endorsed the magazine as interesting, relevant and user-friendly. Global Issues seems to occupy quite a unique place in the resource marketplace. “Refreshing and original” was one consultant’s opinion of Global Issues.

The relationship between Global Issues and curricular frameworks

At national, state/territory, system and school level, a global perspective is becoming increasingly widespread. As the SOSE National Statement points out (Curriculum Corporation, 1994a: 3) “Studies of society and environment are important because they expand students’ knowledge and understanding of their own society, other societies, local and global environments”.

Many teachers recognise that a global perspective is implied by their state curriculum guidelines. Said one teacher,

Year six is focused that way. They do two units on developing countries - not just a country study with national dress and national food. They look at what is a developing country, and why this has occurred - colonisation etc., education, climate. They look at causes and what things are being put in place to address the problem.

Another teacher indicated that the current school syllabus demands a global perspective, and added that, at school level, “We’re trying to offer a broad curriculum”. Said another, “Senior courses need a global approach”. Noting seniors’
ability to cope with a global stance, this teacher added that it's essential for students to have a global view. Several teachers also told us that an emphatic, global perspective is an inherent part of their schools’ ethos.

Some students feel that they “know it all” when it comes to local studies, or become blasé with their local worlds, said one teacher. “Then, when you look further afield”, she added, “you see things that are similar, you can take a fresh look at what’s going on”. She added that looking at situations overseas helps students to gain a deeper understanding and a new perspective on similar issues in Australia. As one teacher said, “If you’re just looking at Australia, that’s an insular perspective”.

Beyond this, many teachers are convinced that a global education is of great value, both cognitively and affectively. One teacher shared her conviction that a global perspective will help her students to, “think in other ways than what they’re being presented on videos, in books and in their little worksheets that they get given”.

Students also gave reasons for adopting a global stance. These were cultural as well as cognitive in nature. They included, “It makes us alert”, “We need to know how things affect us, and how we affect others” and “It’s interesting”. As one student explained, “It’s important to look beyond Australia because it helps you to understand meanings in different cultures. For example, body painting might mean different things in different cultures. Also, the gesture for ‘come here’ [in Australia], is offensive in some cultures, so you might accidentally offend someone”. Another said, “It opens up your eyes to what the world’s really like, and shows you there’s no right and wrong way of doing things: With regard to indigenous cultures, one student said, “you get to see how other groups, not just Aborigines have suffered”. Students also agreed that a global perspective gives you a new outlook on Australia.

Benefits of the production

*Global Issues* has managed to meet various needs of teachers and students. One team member summarised comments typical of teachers by saying,
It’s fantastic. We always wait for it to come. It’s not too big. All the activities are interesting; all the information is up to date. It’s really easy to use. It’s useful, relevant, easy-to-use material, and it’s there. It’s self-contained. You don’t have to find other resources.

Respondents to the questionnaire (see Appendix 1) were asked to rate the quality of *Global Issues* in terms of: the range of topics covered; appropriateness for their students; usefulness within state/territory guidelines; ability to generate student interest, capacity to assist networking; ability to challenge stereotypes and; variety of its approach. The range of possible responses was ‘1’ (very low) to ‘5’ (very high). Mean response figures are tabulated below, along with standard deviations.

Table 6.1. Stakeholders’ opinions of *Global Issues*.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attribute</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>range of topics</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>.622</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>appropriateness</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>.882</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>state/territory relevance</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>.807</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interest level</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>.878</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>networking</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>.748</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>challenge stereotypes</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>.675</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>variety of approach</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>.697</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From these figures, it can be seen that the mean response figures for almost all of the questions asked correspond to ‘high’ or above. Given the above response figures of 4.2 apiece, it appears that *Global Issues* is particularly successful in challenging stereotypes and facilitating networking. Moreover, the low standard deviation values (less than 1.5) indicate that there was a high degree of agreement amongst respondents on these issues.

Students, teachers and consultants were also asked to comment on the qualities of *Global Issues*. Among the attributes praised by stakeholders were its:
a) Relevance.

*Global Issues* appears to be relevant both in terms of its content and its range of activities. “It’s scratching where people are itching” said one production team member. “I know it gets picked up” reported one consultant.

The production team is aware of its responsibility to ensure that while the magazine content met syllabus requirements, it must not simply parrot available materials. As one member said,

*We also need to see that it links with curriculum policy. We make sure it’s not overdone - some topics you see everywhere. We need to take a new angle, a new approach.*

Respondents to the questionnaire (see Appendix 1) were asked to identify one or more strengths of *Global Issues*. In all, this question generated 194 opinions from the 92 respondents, praising over 20 different aspects of the publication. Of these responses, 16 (8.2%) referred to the magazine’s relevance. One respondent described *Global Issues* as an “Intelligent, aware stimulating resource with a good third world perspective of great relevance to students”. Another said it has “Across the curriculum applicability”.

Questionnaire respondents were also asked to indicate the relevance of *Global Issues* to their state/territory curriculum. Respondents were asked to reply with a number from ‘1’ (very low) to ‘5’ (very high). State by state average responses are tabulated below.

Table 6.2. Relevance to state/territory curricula.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Vic</th>
<th>NSW</th>
<th>ACT</th>
<th>Qld</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>WA</th>
<th>Tas</th>
<th>NT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
On average, respondents in all states and territories rated *Global Issues* relevance as moderate or above. We can tentatively say, however, that respondents in New South Wales, Western Australia and Tasmania saw the greatest relevance of *Global Issues* for their state curricula, rating it as high or above, but respondents in all states and territories saw it as relevant.

*b) Practicality.*

Teachers particularly praised *Global Issues’* relevance to teaching practice. One teacher observed that many professional journals,

_Tend to be more information based rather than learning approach based. Lots of information, but none of the creative ways of using the material. Eg. New Internationalist - the audience for that is different. It’s a document for teachers only. It certainly has up to date material, but it doesn’t have the adaptation of content for primary activities etc._

“It’s very easy to use in the classroom, with the activities” said a consultant, adding that it also provides good professional reading. The lead articles can be used with year ten and above - perhaps also in year nine, for example tourism”. Several respondents remarked that the permission for photocopying was a significant benefit of *Global Issues*. The format of *Global Issues* is another factor its practicality. “I’m able to skim through it” said one consultant, “then home in on the bits that catch my attention”.

Use of the teaching/learning activities, according to survey responses, is tabulated overleaf.
Table 6.3. Use of activities. \((n = 90)\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>48.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>41.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constantly</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These figures show that almost half (43.4\%) of respondents use the activities ‘often’ or ‘constantly’. Over 90\% use it ‘sometimes’ or more. It is to be remembered, too, that some respondents are not currently working in the classroom, which explains why they might not be using the activities.

Seven questionnaire respondents made specific reference to practicality as a strength of *Global Issues*, and another ten spoke of the quality of the activities. 12 praised the resource materials. In all, then, there were 29 comments (15\%) which commended the practicality of the magazine. One respondent stated that “The mix of feature articles and student activities gives multiple entry points for uses of the resource”. Another described *Global Issues* as “A valuable resource - excellent tool for helping teachers with this topic”. A third respondent observed that *Global Issues* is “Giving children the chance to be involved in ‘hands-on’ (and very effective) activities”.

In short, the production is highly practical. As one consultant put it, “Teachers can pick it up and apply it with confidence and with ease”, but it provides teaching learning activities that go beyond “just comprehension” in the words of another consultant.

c) Currency.

“Geography teachers are plagued by out of date resources” observed one consultant *Global Issues* affords an immediacy of information that is not available in many printed forms. Several teachers commented that *Global Issues* has a longer shelf life
than text books. This is perhaps because of the shorter lead time between writing and distribution. One teacher explained, “Any text book is 12 months out of date when it hits the shelves”. He added,

\begin{quote}
You go into my school and look at the social science books that I threw out this year, and you get a good idea when you see that they were published in 1967, or something like that.
\end{quote}

Some teachers observed, too, that schools are hesitant to invest heavily in text books in a climate of such fundamental change, and when the demands to purchase computer software and hardware are so pressing. In such an environment, Global Issues provided an economical way of accessing up to date information.

One teacher went as far as to say “You won’t get anything more up to date unless you watch the news tonight”. Another said that as a result of reading Global Issues, “I know exactly what the state of the art is”.

When asked to nominate a strength of Global Issues in the survey, the most common response (27 out of 194 suggestions, 13%) mentioned that Global Issues is up to date. One respondent said that the “Issues are current and very thought provoking and challenging”. Another said, “It makes contemporary issues more accessible to both myself and my students”. Students echoed the views of teachers, saying that Global Issues gives you information “on what’s happening”.

d) \textit{Focused, thematic content.}

The focused content allows teachers to save time in preparing materials. The advantage of Global Issues is, “It’s all in one spot”. One teacher commented, “I can go through a journal, but that’s a slower process”. Another teacher described Global Issues as being “very well presented and organised … an incredibly useful resource”. Similarly, a student said, “It’s easy to do a lot of research from, and do assignments. Newspapers get distracted and go into a lot of politics. The magazine focuses on the issue”.

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Its focused nature and thematic approach allow Global Issues to be self-contained, providing comprehensive information on the topic at hand. “It’s issues-based” said one consultant, in praise of the publication. A teacher commented, “I don’t think there’s anything as comprehensive as this”. 

Students had similar comments to make. One said, “The articles themselves were really good. You didn’t need to look in 2,000 different places” and “In the library, you can get bits and pieces, and in a papers, you don’t know where to look. In Global Issues, you can find heaps and heaps on the topic. It has it all there”. 

One of the magazine’s strengths, in the words of one student, is that it provided information that was “hard to get anywhere else”. In similar vein, a teacher told us, “My daughter in year four is doing an assignment on Indonesia. For her, the brief history, and the map [Global Issues, 2, 3, pp. 4, 5] would be useful”. She added, “In particular, the comments from Indonesian and Australian students [G1, 2, 3, pp 12, 13] would be something interesting for her to incorporate - nobody else may have found that”. 

When asked if Global Issues is unique, most respondents made comments to the effect that it complements or supplements other publications. “No two materials are identical”, said one of them. Rather than fundamentally changing the outlook of teachers, it appears that Global Issues expands teachers’ repertoire of ideas and knowledge while rekindling their interest in global affairs.

e) Balance perspective. 

Because Global Issues focuses on one or two issues at a time, it has the scope to investigate these issues from a variety of viewpoints that may not be available in other texts. In a recognition of Global Issues’ ‘multi-perspectived’ nature, one student commented that relying on more traditional sources of information meant, “you have to look in different places to get different aspects of an issue”. With regard to the “Views on poverty” (Global Issues, 2. 4. p.2) several students told us that it gave them alternative views on poverty, and a better idea of causes and effects. Teachers
also commented on the bias evident in so many other source materials. One primary school teacher said,

*You’re restrained by the syllabus. Even in some of the new books that are coming out, what’s not said is almost as important as what’s said. It’s really hard to get that across to this group, [of primary aged students] because they haven’t got the analytical skills.*

On the other hand, one teacher said of *Global Issues*, “I think their sources are quite wide and varied”.

Questionnaire respondents also praised the magazine for its balanced perspective, 12 responses (6% of the total) making specific mention of this. One respondent praised *Global Issues’* “Ability to challenge stereotypes”.

These qualities of the magazine stem from the deliberate efforts on the part of the production team. Recognising the difficulties of gaining a balanced view, one of the members said,

*Development issues are very difficult to do, because they can be so political. Global Issues arms teachers well with some quality information and it’s also giving a particular perspective. It tells the story from the point of view of the people involved in the development, and the people who are doing the developing in the country. That information is not easy to find.*

In praise of *Global Issues’* resources, one teacher commented that, “any of these things that deal with a balanced view is great for us”.

In *Global Issues*, several points of view dovetail with a variety of resource types, which allow students and teachers to take advantage a range of perspectives on the one topic.
f) **Variety of information sources.**

The range of information sources in *Global Issues* appears to have several positive outcomes for teachers and students. It appears to reinforce new knowledge and experiences. As one student said, “The more processes you go through to learn something the easier it stays in your memory”. This variety of sources is particularly useful as curriculum documents typically insist on students being able to understand and interpret multiple forms of data, “seeking corroboration, judging the credibility and relevance of information, and identifying … values, biases and points of view” (Curriculum Corporation, 1994a: 12).

Apart from this, the magazine offers a wider scope than many other resources for choice of activities and approaches, making it a more interesting resource. “Texts tend to be fairly dry. *Global Issues* is more dynamic”, said one consultant.

The variety of *Global Issues* attracted a good deal of praise from the evaluation survey, with 24 responses (12.5% of the total). The variety of topics is another virtue noted by subscribers. One questionnaire respondent said, “The wide range of topics reach a wide range of teachers and students”.

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g) **Capacity to save time.**

One of the most commonly praised aspects of *Global Issues* was its ability to cut down on teachers’ preparation time. Said one teacher, “We’re so busy at the moment, we think, if only someone would start us off. Once they’ve done that, we can use it or develop it”. As she explained, “Teaching loads are going up … When I started [teaching], the range of journals etc. was small, so you could keep up”. With a resigned shrug of her shoulders to indicate the dauntingly vast array of information, she added, “but now, journals, internet…”. 
Another teacher observed,

*I can see it as a time saving device for the teachers, with these activities. That’s the sort of thing in reference I’m always on the lookout for. Something that’s there that they can grab it and start using it.*

Another teacher referred to *Global Issues* as a “grab it and do something really quickly thing”. Many respondents raised *Global Issues* for its ability to save them time in pursuing resources. The *Global Issues* production team is keenly aware of the need to assist teachers in minimising their preparation time. *Global Issues* appears to be successful in obviating the need for teachers to be spending time ‘reinventing the wheel’. As one of the production team indicated,

*It’s all time-saving for the teacher because it cuts through all the things a teacher normally has to do in coming up with materials. In that, too, we’ve tried to draw on existing material in terms of data and good case studies, and supplement that in creating, where there wasn’t material in the form that we needed it.*

As one teacher explained, “Someone else has done all the sorting … You can get all the information on children’s rights, but it means sifting through the UN documents, for several hours - someone else has done it for you”. Other comments included, “A certain amount has been done for you” and “I now can put my hands on something with a lot of different topics. You’ve always got a base to start a topic, and if you want to extend it further, it’s up to me to look in the newspapers videos etc.”. One questionnaire respondent explained, “I am too busy to search for this kind of material and too busy to develop such activities”. The ready-made aspect of *Global Issues* also makes it suitable to leave with a relieving teacher, in the case of teacher absences.

**h) Positive stance, foreshadowing hope and solutions.**

As stated in the literature review, children need to be presented with cognitive goals which are realistic. The same can be said for lifestyle changes. Students indicated
that *Global Issues* provides hope of remedying the problems raised. One student said that *Global Issues* “has lots of answers”. When asked to clarify this, he said, “Solutions, I mean solutions”. Echoing this, one student said, “It gives you the problem and explains ways to solve it, or presents problems that they’re not sure how to solve”.

i) **Factual content.**

In the midst of achieving its other aims, *Global Issues* manages to contain a wealth of factual information. “It gives excellent facts” said a teacher, adding that Geographers need access to accurate statistics. Similarly, several of her students praised the magazine as being factual. Also, then of the questionnaire respondents praised *Global Issues* for being a factual, informative and/or credible source of information.

*Global Issues*’ brevity, as well as being borne of necessity, appears to be one of its attractions. The succinct teaching activities were praised, as well as their variety. The magazine appears to be having a role in raising the morale of Geography teachers. Said one questionnaire respondent with regard to his students, “I’m proud to show them lessons on Global issues which have been prepared by practising Geographers”.

**Components of the magazine**

As well as praising various features and qualities of *Global Issues*, teachers and other respondents made favourable references to its various components. These included:

1) **Internet information**

In particular, the information about internet sites was appreciated by teachers. In the words of one, “A lot of teachers aren’t internet literate”. Questionnaire respondents were asked to indicate how often they use the secondary resources identified by *Global Issues*. On a scale of ‘1’ (never) to ‘5’ (constantly), the results are tabulated below.
Table 6.4. Frequency of internet and other secondary resource use. ($n = 87$)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>29.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>43.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constantly</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fewer than seven percent of respondents never use the secondary resources. Almost two-thirds of these people (63.2%) use them at least ‘sometimes’.

A *Global Issues* team member observed that, “To sit down and find useful sites in the internet is time consuming. One teacher said that, “With the internet, to start from scratch takes so long. In *Global Issues*, there’s a description of what they can find in each address. Going in through subjects takes too long”. A consultant observed that because there appears as yet to exist no comprehensive list of internet sites, the information in *Global Issues* is of great value.

Such support offered by *Global Issues* seems to take on an added importance in the context of other conditions associated with internet use. One teacher reported that, “Students get frustrated if they spend a long time on the internet”. While this respondent advised that students need to develop the maturity and patience necessary for successful research, and to learn to cope with the frustrations of ‘dead ends’, she added an observation of a pragmatic reality, that there are long queues for computers in many schools. Similarly, another teacher reported that, “Most of the students can only use it at home - after English, maths etc. get into the computer labs, there’s not much time for us”.

*Global Issues*, therefore, is helping to maximise the efficiency of internet use in schools, while effecting a reduction in internet-generated time, expense and frustration. It would be premature, if not naïve, to assume that all students have internet access at home. While it is accepted that not all teachers are confident in
using the internet, some students are also making their first forays into its use. It is important that their early experiences are frustration-free. As one teacher reported, “We don’t want to give [the students] a negative experience with the internet”. No doubt, the same applies to teachers who are novice internet users. The inclusion of internet sites makes the immediacy of Global Issues all the more attractive. As one teacher observed, “The speed of getting it to us is particularly important with the internet sites, as six months later the sites might not exist”.

2) Cartoons

Teachers and students indicated that the cartoons are often the first thing that catch your eye on looking at the magazine, and that they can be much more powerful than text in conveying a message. As one student put it, “The cartoons really caught me. Then I’d ask, what’s that really about, and I’d read the article”. “Thought-provoking” was another description offered by a consultant. Another student described cartoons as, “A simple way to introduce a complex problem”. One teacher noted, however, that some may be in need of further explanation, being too subtle or requiring too much political knowledge to be understood by some students. On the other hand, the capacity of cartoons for multiple interpretations is another of their strengths. (For an illustration of this, refer to Chapter 7.) Frequency of cartoon use in the classroom is tabulated below.

Table 6.5. Use of cartoons. (n = 90)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>43.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>34.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constantly</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
More than four in every five respondents (82.1%) use the cartoons at least ‘sometimes’. More than one in three respondents (38.8%) use them ‘often’ or even more regularly.

According to team members, the advantages of cartoons are that they break up the text, and they’re cheaper and more reproducible than photographs. They’re also poignant, conveying a message much more succinctly than extended text, and seem to be remembered long after the surrounding text is forgotten. The humour in cartoons also helps to break down the potential defensiveness associated with some issues. The *Global Issues* team is aware, though, that in some contexts, humour could appear insensitive. In such cases, cartoons are used for illustrative purposes only.

3) *The serialised story*

The serialised story, paralleling the events in a classroom and in the world, appeared in the first four editions of the evaluation period. Details on the use of the story are tabulated below.

Table 6.6. Classroom use of serialised story. (*n* = 86)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>24.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>29.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>34.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constantly</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.6 suggests that the story may be less widely used than the other aspects of *Global Issues*. This may reflect the wider use of the magazine in secondary than in primary schools. Still, the story was greeted with enthusiasm by teachers, and many reported a feeling of anti-climax when the story came to an end. One teacher said, “I really like the stories at the back. I use bits of those in class - they’re good stimulus. They’re quite different to what the kids are exposed to. They appear to enjoy them”.
While the students at the same school felt that a story such as this, with elements of fantasy, is more appropriate for a younger audience, they agreed that this form of presenting the facts and implications makes them easier to understand and appreciate. As one of the students said, “I think it’s easier as a story, because people are used to the format of a story. They’re used to listening to a story”. The students felt that such a story could be adapted for older readers and help them to ‘suspend disbelief’ (Coleridge, 1906) by deleting or modifying the surrealistic aspects such as puppets coming to life. In primary schools, some teachers use the story as part of their literature component, reflecting the fact that *Global Issues* is used in KLAs other than SOSE.

4) Case studies

Case studies were also seen as valuable by many respondents, of whom one said that they, “link with what [the students] have done, give terminology, and background”. Another teacher reported that the case studies make things real”. Figures of case study use are tabulated below.

Table 6.7. Use of case studies. *(n = 90)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>52.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>37.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constantly</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen from the above figures, fewer than 9% of respondents use the case studies less than ‘sometimes’. More than one in three (38.7%) use them ‘often’ or more.

In particular, one teacher praised the inclusion of two case studies, for the sake of comparison (Vol 1, No 3, p.5) on the topic of water usage. This teacher added that
when more subtly embedded in (longer) stories, such comparisons are more difficult to identify by students. Nevertheless, in the lesson observed, the case studies served as a springboard for students to identify other examples of water use in their written and oral responses. In a sense, then, in combination with student and teacher interaction, the material generated its own extension work. In the words of the teacher, “Everyone was challenged, even the brighter ones”.

5) Lead articles

The lead (or feature) articles generated fewer comments from interviewees, but were seen to be good for setting the scene, and for providing background information, particularly for teachers and senior students. Their classroom use is tabulated below.

Table 6.8. Use of Feature articles (n = 91)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>56.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>28.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constantly</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen from the above figures, they are a popular form of data and stimulus material, with over 86% of respondents using them ‘sometimes’ or more. Teachers’ opinions of case studies are most likely subsumed in their general comments on resources. It was also reported by teachers that children like the centre page articles found in certain editions featuring viewpoints of Australian and other children.

Similarly, almost every edition came in for specific praise from respondents. The “timely” unit on tourism (Global Issues, 3, 3) was said to have “struck a particularly favourable chord” by one consultant. The units on technology (GI, 2, 2) and poverty (GI 2, 4) were also seen as useful. One of the most commonly praised editions was one of the earlier ones, on water usage (GI, 1, 3). This unit also seems to have had the
greatest capacity to generate lifestyle changes on the part of readers. Any units including Asia received widespread praise, while the topic of elephants \((GI, 3, 2)\) generated much interest among students. This may be partly due to their prominence in advertising.

The popularity of these topics may be partly attributable to the fact that students can identify with issues such as tourism. With regard to water usage, the matter is receiving media attention, not only at an international level, but as many parts of Australia face a severe water shortage. Again, this highlights the ‘topical advantage’ \emph{Global Issues} has over many other resources, allowing it to focus on current issues. The magazine has an important role to play in generating an early response to issues such as saving water. At the time of writing, the arrival of the upcoming edition on indigenous peoples is eagerly anticipated by several recipients of the magazine.

Students and teachers agreed that \emph{Global Issues} facilitates student research. According to one student, the magazine,

\begin{quote}
\textit{Writes down more detail than newspapers. It tells you exactly about the issue. It’s good for assignments, because it’s all in the one article - lots of different articles on lots of different sources, so it was very informative.} Global Issues is easy to use, very easy to use.
\end{quote}

\textbf{Size and complexity of Global Issues}

Two major areas where \emph{Global Issues} appears to successfully negotiate a narrow path with regard to the size of the publication and its academic ‘level’.

\textit{i) Size of the publication}

While both teachers and the production team would like to see more information included in \emph{Global Issues}, there are advantages in keeping the resource small and brief. Said one peak body respondent, “It’s not too big, so teachers aren’t inundated”. Others praised it for not being too “wordy”, “thick” or “hefty”.
One of the production team said, “It’s big enough to have depth, but not too long. In one way, I’d like to see the size increase, but it’s probably very accessible for teachers”. A teacher observed that while the format is crowded, and could be more “user-friendly”, the clear labelling makes negotiating the magazine relatively easy. She added that teachers need to quickly familiarise themselves with the resources they use.

**ii) Suitability for a wide range of ability levels.**

The reality faced by *Global Issues* is the need to cater to a wide range of ability levels in many classrooms. Many teachers reported that it was easy to implement activities from *Global Issues* to suit the cognitive needs and abilities of a diverse range of students. In the words of one teacher, “We don’t necessarily teach a whole unit from *Global Issues*. We’ve taught for a long time, and we know our way around the resources and we cut and paste the good bits, which suit our teaching style”. Another teacher said,

*These [Global Issues resources] are eminently useful. Even though they’re written for senior classes, we can use them for junior classes. Even though some questions may have a [year] seven and eight focus, a more experienced teacher can adapt that, for example, with year 11.*

A consultant described *Global Issues* as having “a good balance of academic rigour and practical ideas”. Similarly, ten respondents to the questionnaire made specific mention of the appropriate language and cognitive level of *Global Issues*.

Students also described *Global Issues* as being suitable for the demands of their classes and research. One said “It has a really good level of complexity for the subject we’re doing. It told us all we need to know, and it wasn’t hard to understand. It was an interesting document”.

The flexibility of *Global Issues* for different ability levels was seen as a particular strength. Our investigations revealed, for example, that there are many primary schools using the secondary material from *Global Issues*, and secondary schools using
the primary material. A consultant who works with secondary teachers, said, “I tell my teachers, ‘If it says Primary, don’t toss it out. Adapt it for your students’”.

The emergence of composite classes in many schools has increased the potential adaptations of *Global Issues*. In reference to the simulation game on tourism (*Global Issues, 33*, p. 21), a consultant praised its usefulness for grades five to 12, “especially in one-teacher schools”, where isolation and difficulty in finding resources can make *Global Issues* an indispensable teaching/learning aid.

Opinion was divided as to whether *Global Issues* should aim for a more or a less sophisticated audience. Most teachers reported that it is more difficult to simplify available material to make it useful for weaker students, than to generate more difficult material to extend the more gifted class members. For this reason, many teachers found *Global Issues* more valuable than other available materials. One teacher said of *Global Issues*,

*This is nice and simple and the language is suitable for them. We could get New Scientist and Time, but the language is beyond them, so you spend a lot of time explaining to them.*

Teachers also reported that it is difficult to find learner-friendly information for NESB students and that *Global Issues* meets this need. Indicating some of the graphics in one edition of *Global Issues*, one teacher said, “These diagrams are good for ESL students. They’re overwhelmed by masses of text”.

Teachers reported that at times the particular issue they want to use has been written with a slightly less or more sophisticated audience in mind, but that the material is nonetheless adaptable. When developmental mismatches occur between a particular activity and the teacher’s own class, some teachers use only the resources, while developing their own associated activities or contributing questions.

Some students weren’t specifically familiar with *Global Issues*, either because the school had only recently started to use it, or because teachers primarily used it for their own research and generation of ideas. In such cases, students were asked to
describe their ideal resource. “In some text books” said one student, “the language is off-putting, especially if it’s too long”. Some students said that they’d include lots of graphic information. Other suggested that text could be set out in point form, with sub-headings, to help guide readers through it, and assist them in finding the specific information they need. Indicating that they are thinking beyond tangible features of culture, students at one school said that resources should provide information that encompasses the history of an ethnic group, its lifestyles, beliefs and languages. These are features common to Global Issues.

Some students said the ideal resource is the internet, and that websites should feature easy-to-type addresses, be concise, concentrate on downloadable graphics, and avoid “masses of boring type”. Similarly, a production team member said that Global Issues is, “near the cutting edge, but not right at the cutting edge. The cutting edge is technology”. This has implications for the magazine’s future directions.

Value for money

Recipients invariably described the magazine as representing value for money. When asked if the magazine represented value for money, one respondent inquired, “What’s it cost, 30 or $40.00?” When told it is ten dollars, she replied that it is “Definitely value for money”. Another consultant said that Global Issues would be ‘underselling itself’ if the subscription price dropped. She added, though, that a significant rise in the cost would make the magazine prohibitive for many schools. It seems that one of the magazine’s attractions lies in the balance between its cost and its quality and usefulness.

Almost three-quarters (73.7%) survey respondents (n = 76) indicated that they would still subscribe if they had to pay for the magazine. Some qualified this response by writing comments such as “probably” or “depends on the cost”. By contrast, 20 respondents (26.3%) said that they would not continue to subscribe. It is worth keeping in mind though, the limitations of the response rate to the questionnaire may mean that this figure would not translate into actual subscribers and non-subscribers.
Suggestions for change to *Global Issues*

Suggestions for change generated less discussion and more silence than any other we asked, particularly among the publication’s readers. Nevertheless, respondents were able to offer some advice.

*Future topics*

The main suggestions were for potential future topics. These have been roughly categorised and tabulated overleaf, followed by further information where appropriate.

Table 6.9. Suggested future topics.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographics</th>
<th>Environment</th>
<th>Regions</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indigenous peoples</td>
<td>Greenhouse effect</td>
<td>African countries</td>
<td>Values clarification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women’s issues</td>
<td>Hydro-politics</td>
<td>Asian countries</td>
<td>Foreign aid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>Forests</td>
<td>Antarctica</td>
<td>Internet sites</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Citizenship</td>
<td>Wetlands</td>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>Trade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cities</td>
<td>Natural disasters</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hydro-politics refers to the responsible use of rivers which flow across borders. Citizenship could include a focus on the different ways Europeans and Asians, for example, understand the concept. Cities would have applications for the senior syllabus (in NSW). Naturally enough, respondents involved with Access Asia, AEF etc. would welcome a greater concentration of articles on this part of the world.

Over half (53%) of the respondents to the questionnaire wrote “nothing” or didn’t respond to the question about changes. The only changes which attracted more than two responses were in regard to a bigger, and/or more frequent publication (seven requests). The only other suggestions offered more than one were in relation to a
contents section, a less crowded format, more challenging activities and more pictures. Each of these generated two responses.

Minor advice for future production

- Colour. Some teachers indicated that the colour of some past issues made them difficult to photocopy. For this reason, teachers welcomed the use of black for cartoons and line drawings. Some teachers mentioned that iridescent colours, (e.g. Vol 3, No 1) could be bettered. On the other hand, the different colours seem to be useful as a mnemonic, helping users to match issues and topics from previous editions.

- Layout. Some respondents said it was desirable for resources and their corresponding activities to be placed on the same page, making them easier to photocopy for classes. One of the problems associated with this, however, is that at times several activities make use of the one resource.

- Cross-referencing. One consultant suggested that Global Issues maintain an “updates section”, keeping an open file on further developments related to previous topics. One teacher suggested the inclusion of a glossary containing any words which might be unfamiliar to students. One of her students also said that there were “some big words” in the magazine. The internet may provide scope for these inclusions. Given the magazine’s diverse clientele, though, it may be most appropriate for individual teachers to provide or ask for definitions according to their own students’ needs. Indeed, some activities already make such requests, for example, “Explain the terms ‘landlocked’ and ‘strategic’.” (Global Issues, 3, 2, p. 19).

- Activities. One teacher suggested the inclusion of question sheets corresponding to certain internet sites. Such worksheets would then be ready to be reproduced by teachers. It is recognised, though, that leaving space for answers will compromise Global Issues’ quest to maximise the use of space on its pages. Again, the internet may be the appropriate site for the placement of these question sheets.
Curriculum guidelines. With regard to state and national curricular outlines, some respondents felt that the aims overlapped sufficiently to cause few problems at state level. In general, primary and junior high school curricula appear to be sufficiently flexible to cater for a variety of approaches and content material. Senior secondary curricula, on the other hand, are more prescriptive. One consultant made a valuable suggestion for the inclusion of a matrix, outlining links to each state’s guidelines.

Space. While the magazine’s limited size is one of its strengths, the production team explained that there is a constant trade-off between a more eye-catching, reader-friendly format, and the space required for same. Graphs, for example, while being more instantly comprehensible than tables or text, take up more space. Some students commented that the format of the magazine is somewhat cramped, and had difficulties distinguishing one article from another. The team is aware, though, that deconstructing the magazine into a less cramped format leads to a reduction in the spread of ideas and activities.

On the other hand, it appears that in most cases, prudent formatting compensates for these space limitations. Several respondents mentioned that activities are clearly outlined, with aims, suitable ages etc, making them, “user-friendly” in the words of one consultant. The clear, concise headings were also reported by some respondents to be helpful. Nine respondents to the evaluation questionnaire also made mention of this.

Photographs. Some students said they like photographs in texts they use. The production team have provided reasons for not including photographs. What is interesting, though, is an apparent belief on the part of many students that the camera doesn’t lie. While the research team does not believe that Global Issues will necessarily better serve its audience by introducing pictures, it may be worthwhile for the magazine to investigate and challenge the notion of the camera’s objectivity, and produce a unit or some activities on the reporting of global issues. Television footage may also prove to be valuable source material for such a study.
Conclusions

There’s a fight in the staffroom over who gets the copy first.

The above comment perhaps best sums up the qualities of *Global Issues*, and the esteem in which it is held by teachers. One of the consultants said that her teachers are often asking when the next issue is arriving. Another consultant explained that one edition had inadvertently not been sent to some of the members, who subsequently contacted the organisation, asking, in his words, “Where the hell is it?” Yet another observed that “Teachers invariably find it useful”.

Feedback from teachers and students indicates that *Global Issues* is contributing to a change in ideology in schools and effecting subtle changes in the mindsets of students and teachers alike.

While *Global Issues* aims to help teachers and students gain a balanced and compassionate view of the world, the effects of the magazine far exceed this. As well as generating lifestyle and attitude changes on the part of its readership, *Global Issues* contributes to students’ and teachers’ cognitive and professional growth respectively.

*Global Issues* also reduces preparation time for teachers, particularly those in charge of composite classes, and/or in isolated schools. It is also facilitating the change to a SOSE structure where operating, and is particularly helpful for new teachers.

Students find the magazine engaging, and its provision of access to the internet saves schools time and money. It can also be used by relief teachers.

In view of all this, a decision to continue the funding of *Global Issues*, allowing it to further penetrate the SOSE and related teaching areas will serve the needs of AusAID, teachers and students.
CHAPTER 7

OUTCOMES IN SCHOOLS

Introduction

Available teaching materials have a strong influence over the content, skills, attitudes and values that are taught in schools. As one teacher explained, “What you teach depends on the material you come across”. It would appear that Global Issues has had a considerable impact on the pedagogical landscape. One production team member recalled, “When I was at school, Geography was, ‘Where is Pakistan?, rocks, volcanoes etc’. It’s embraced whole new areas since then, which is valuable for young people”.

Impact on teachers

Global Issues has contributed to the establishment of new subjects in some schools, and has resulted in changes to the content and teaching approach in others. In at least one of the participating schools, Global Issues was partly responsible for the establishment of an elective subject by the same name.

Figure 7.1 Teaching document related to the subject "Global Issues"
Questionnaire recipients were invited to describe the extent of their knowledge and understanding of global matters before and after subscribing to *Global Issues*. Responses are tabulated overleaf.
Table 7.1. Knowledge of global issues \((n = 91)\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prior Knowledge</th>
<th>Resulting knowledge</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>numbers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>low</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moderate</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>high</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>very high</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen from the above table, all but seven recipients considered themselves to have at least a moderate understanding of global concerns prior to receiving *Global Issues*. After receiving *Global Issues*, only one respondent still claims to have a low level of understanding of global matters. The number of recipients considering themselves to have a very high understanding more than doubled, rising from 7.7% to 16.5% of all respondents. The change in profile is perhaps more evident when seen as a graph.

Figure 7.3 Knowledge through *Global Issues*.

As can be seen from the above graph, the ‘knowledge curve’ has become considerably more skewed towards the positive as a result of *Global Issues*. 
Teachers of SOSE, and new teachers

Less experienced teachers reported finding *Global Issues* particularly helpful. This was highlighted by one such teacher who said, “As a new teacher, it provides me with professional development”. There was some concern among Geography teachers, too, at the changes from History/Geography structure to SOSE/HSIE. Under the new regime, teachers found themselves responsible for Geography classes, even though they lacked the experience and ‘heart’ for the discipline. Nevertheless, *Global Issues* was seen as an indispensable device for such teachers. As one teacher commented, “Many SOSE teachers know very little about Geography. It’s an essential tool for those teachers. They have a very limited background”. Members of the production team also noted *Global Issues*’ role in facilitating the structural change towards SOSE faculties.

Figure 7.4. Teaching/learning documents from Global Issues used in participating schools.
Geography as a means to global understanding

For many of the teachers interviewed, Geography was described as the ideal learning area for incorporating a global perspective, and it was an interest in the wider world which originally attracted these teachers to the discipline area. Most, however, indicated that Global Issues had sharpened their own and their students’ interest in things global. As one teacher comments,

*I think we have responsibilities beyond the community that we live in. That’s why I’ve always pursued Geography. I like learning about other places in the world. Australia is the lucky country. We have an expectation that the more we have the more we get. That’s not fair. ... That’s part of my responsibility as a teacher. Without ramming what I think down their necks, I have the responsibly to at least expose them to a range of points of view.*

As can be seen from the above comment, teachers are central to the process of changing students’ thinking. Another teacher explained,

*I have a fairly strong contention that kids don’t know enough about places other than where they live, and they assume that what is normal for them should be normal for everybody else. I aim to challenge that.*

Impact on students

Global Issues has challenged students with information that begs a response. One student commented, “I didn’t know that just three percent of the world’s water is fresh. It makes you think”.

Teachers responding to the questionnaire were invited to nominate which component of Global Issues they use most frequently with their students. The results are tabulated overleaf.
Table 7.2. Components of *Global Issues* most commonly used with students. \((n = 77)\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Feature articles</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>20.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activities</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>36.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case studies</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>24.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serialised story</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cartoons</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Not unsurprisingly, the teaching/learning activities, incorporating the resources, were the most commonly used feature of *Global Issues*. With the exception of the serialised story, other components are also widely used. This may be because the serialised story only appeared in five of the seven editions, at the beginning of the evaluation period. Some respondents who had only recently subscribed, for instance, indicated that they did not know what this story was. The less frequent use of the story also possibly reflects the predominant distribution of *Global Issues* in secondary schools. (See also Chapter 6.)

As with teachers, *Global Issues* is having an impact on students’ knowledge and understanding. As one of them explained,

*[Global Issues] definitely made me see things on a bigger level. I knew global warming was happening, but you don’t understand what effect it’s having on the rest of the world. We’re very sheltered in Australia - we’re all right. We know it’s happening and it’s bad, but we didn’t understand why it’s happening and how it can be stopped.*

It was reported that *Global Issues* helps students gradually embrace new perspectives, attitudes and values. Teachers acknowledged this gradual nature of change in students. As one said,

*With values and attitudes, I try to develop personal responsibility. It’s not somebody else’s problem, it’s mine, because I’m part of this global scene, and*
the fact that the kids have read something - I’m not sure how you gauge the success of that - but I certainly try and ask them at certain points what they could do, what their responsibility is, not just in terms of global issues, but anything on that level, and lead them to the idea that governments are responsible, and you will elect governments.

It’s got to be subtle. If it’s not, they won’t take it on board. It’s one of those lifetime things. I can’t do it by myself, but if several other teachers drop those subtle hints over the years...

They won’t get that message from the media, because the media is into sensationalism and materialism. I like also to try and give them some hope. They can always read these things and say, “those poor people”. I think along with that we need to give these kids some hope, otherwise there’s no point in teaching it to them.

The production team is similarly aware that such change comes but slowly. One of them indicated that they are,

Hoping to challenge assumptions in the ways in which people looked at these issues. I don’t think there’s an intention to radically change what people are teaching. We want to find different ways of looking at issues that are currently being taught. We don’t have any visions of grandeur about changing the curriculum massively. We didn’t think that was the way to go. It’s more to resource people with useable and up to date material.

Teachers were conscious, too, that their own cultures may differ markedly from those of the students they teach, and that there is a risk of inadvertently placing their own values onto the students. Too strident an effort on teacher’s part to influence the students’ thinking can be counterproductive.

Nevertheless, it appears that Global Issues is having an impact on students’ thinking. As one reported, “There was one article about how people live and cope with their situation. I know that I couldn’t cope with poverty. I had never thought about it”.
Another said, “We were aware of some of those issues before the Global Issues, but we didn’t understand them as much as we do. The magazine makes you aware”.

This thinking is translating into action on the part of at least some students. One student recounted how she had begun to reduce water consumption at home, and had advised her parents (to their chagrin!) on how to do likewise. Referring to the same edition, a student at another school said, “I told dad, ‘Fix the taps!’”. He had come to appreciate the value of water by reading in Global Issues (Vol 1, No 3) about the number of people not having access to it, and being at risk from cholera. Such a consequence parallels National Curriculum outcomes (Curriculum Corporation, 1994b: 5) such as “takes part in routines and projects to care for a significant place”.

Models of use in classrooms

Almost all teachers interviewed indicated that they use Global Issues as part of their overall repertoire of resources. Effective teachers typically adopt an eclectic approach, choosing and adapting the best of what is available. As one teacher said, “I collect from everywhere. I don’t use one particular text book. Topics I use are fairly broad, so I can change as new material becomes available”. Others spoke of the wide variety of sources they incorporate into their teaching. A consultant said that in the past, little has been done in Geography classes on development, as there has been little available in the way of resources. She added that Global Issues has helped to fill this void.

Class sets versus one copy

Uses of Global Issues differed. Some teachers felt it was best for students to have access to personal copies of the magazine. As a result, they ordered class sets of the publication. They felt that using overheads or writing questions on the board ‘distanced’ the students from the information at hand. According to others, having a class set is easier than photocopying each time an article is to be used.

Reasons for not ordering multiple copies were provided by other teachers. Some teachers did not want students to be distracted by other material in the magazine.
Others wanted to juxtapose particular activities and their corresponding resources on the one sheet, which was then distributed to students or used as an overhead transparency.

In cases where articles are reproduced, the acknowledgement of the source material is not invariably included in the resulting handout. Apart from legal and moral requirements regarding copyright, such an omission is regrettable, as it limits students’ opportunities to become familiar with a resource that is proving to be so appropriate to their needs.

*Uses in the classroom*

Questionnaire respondents (see Appendix 1) were asked to indicate the frequency with which they made various uses of *Global Issues*. Respondents indicated how often they:

- make *Global Issues* available to their students;
- browse through the contents;
- read articles in their entirety;
- incorporate its activities into their teaching; and
- use the secondary resources mentioned in the magazine.

The possible range of answers was ‘1’ (never) to ‘5’ (constantly). Mean and standard deviation figures are tabulated overleaf.

Table 7.3. Uses of *Global Issues*. (n = 89)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Use</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>available to students</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>.921</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>browse</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>.722</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>read entirely</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>.813</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>incorporate</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>.689</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>use other resources</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>.895</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From these figures, it can be seen that recipients regularly browse through the contents of the magazine. They often read items in their entirety, and almost as often incorporate the material into their teaching.

Similarly, respondents were asked to identify how often they use various components of the magazine: feature articles, teaching/learning activities; case studies; the serialised story and; the cartoons. A response of ‘1’ signifies ‘never’, whereas ‘5’ means ‘constantly’. Measures of central tendency are tabulated below.

Table 7.4. Frequency of use of components of Global Issues. (n = 90)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>feature articles</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>.714</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>activities</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>.694</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>case studies</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>.707</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>story</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>.978</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cartoons</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>.935</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Not surprisingly, the most commonly used items of Global Issues are the activities, followed closely by the case studies, then the cartoons and feature articles.

Teachers explained various ways in which they use Global Issues. One teacher explained,

*We’re looking at indicators of development - those which will build up a quality of life scenario in different parts of the world. The girls are mapping this data [on Pacific nations, in Global Issues, 1, 4] then selected regions. The girls will be doing their own research. I’ll do work on Pacific Islands. This isn’t a unit for year 11, but I’m using part of the information to build up a scenario of what life is like on this part of the world; then to look at living conditions, extending the girls through library research and using these criteria.*
We’re looking at disasters and their impact in these areas [the Pacific nations]. Some students have information on rising sea levels etc. I use the material [on the Pacific Islands [GI, 1, 4] to set the scene, locate [the islands] and provide some background. How could the local environment affect the living conditions? We look at population density. They draw proportional circles, using the data on this map. ... We look at population change and living conditions - link to economic and other indicators. Then we talk about living conditions.

She added, “Another teacher might use this data for something completely different”.

Another school has established an elective subject titled, “Global Parliament”. This subject has been structured so that each student is the ambassador for a country of their choice. Research conducted by the teacher and students then generates class discussion. Topics include women’s issues, health, and education, as well as, ecosystems, multinational corporations, food webs, migration and adaptation to the environment. Inclusion of such topics demonstrates the school’s focus on interconnections. Contributing questions in this subject include, “What caused the problem?” and “How can it be addressed?” While the subject pre-exists Global Issues, the magazine is used to facilitate student and teacher research.

It is interesting to note that many teachers referred primarily to editions of Global Issues which were over 12 months old. To conclude that Global Issues had become less relevant in the meantime, though, does not accord with other praise offered by teachers. As some teachers pointed out, if an edition of Global Issues arrives soon after the same topic has been dealt with in class, it may be 12 months before the teacher can make use of the material.

Other teachers mentioned the relevance of Global Issues for disciplines other than Geography. Among these were Economics, General Studies and Global Parliament, Technology and Science and Personal Development and in particular, SOSE and Asian Studies.
In one observed lesson, the teacher began by recapitulating information encountered in the previous lesson, on water usage (Global Issues, 1, 3), then allowed students to work in pairs to answer questions. Following this, teacher and class discussed answers in a whole-group forum.

Figure 7.5. Work sample related to figure 7.6.
During another lesson, a discussion was conducted on the subject of children’s rights, based on a reading of “Views of Poverty” (*Global Issues*, 2, 4. p.2). One student flippantly suggested the right for all children to be able to play soccer. The teacher took up this suggestion, and, in turn, asked, “If all children were to be given the right to play soccer, what other rights would they have to have?” With suggestions from the students, she then compiled a list of the associated requirements. It was thereby determined that all children would have the right to the space, clothes, equipment and training/education necessary for soccer, as well as other necessities to enhance performance, such as food, clean water and shelter.
Just as views of poverty are subjective, it emerged from this discussion that the nature of rights is also open to debate. Students and teacher discussed the need for clothes when playing sport. Clothing-related needs raised by this discussion ranged from issues of performance and protection (e.g. shoes) to identification and identity (uniforms).

As stated elsewhere, the cartoons are a popular and widely used source of stimulus material. One teacher used the following cartoon as a catalyst for discussion and written response.
Interpretations of this cartoon differed. One reader presumed the irony derived from the fact that a backpacker is presumably too poor to be ‘in his element’ in Bhutan, with its “relative prosperity, high wages” (Global Issues, 3, 2, P.23). Another saw it as a satire of a tourist having the luxury of being able to freely enter Bhutan, whereas, for exiled nationals, “[India] pushed them into Nepal, and today arrests those trying to return to Bhutan via India” (Global Issues, 3, 2, P.23). Other interpretations are included below. This arguably raises the issue of the formatting of the magazine. The first of the two interpretations most likely derives from a reading of resource five, the second from are resource seven. Nevertheless while the cartoon appears most likely to be an insert of Resource seven, interpretations are not limited to this connection.

Figure 7.9. Work sample related to figure 7.8.
Indeed, the cartoonist’s intention was to illustrate the difficulty of ‘getting away from it all’ in a shrinking world, an idea which links with the overall theme of the Bhutan articles.

This only serves to illustrate one of the strengths of cartoons, that the interpretation is, to coin a phrase, in the eye of the beholder. Each one of these interpretations could be justified in conjunction with the various resources etc. on Bhutan, and a discussion of same could well prove lively and thought-provoking. In general terms, students praised the graphic nature of much of the information, as well as its factual nature. Another student said that *Global Issues* has good visuals, adding, “a picture explains a thousand words”.

![Figure 7.10. Teaching document related to *Global Issues*](image)

**Conclusions**

As illustrated by the copies of teaching/learning documents and work samples in this chapter, *Global Issues* is being used in a variety of contexts and for a range of purposes in schools. In particular, the work samples give an idea of some of the thinking generated on the part of students who are using the material.

The preceding discussion demonstrates that *Global Issues* is having a significant impact on teachers, students, teaching and learning, in line with national guidelines.
It is not simply impacting at a cognitive level, but consolidating understanding and compassion on the part of students. In particular, this enhanced understanding is being translated into lifestyle changes. Its pedagogical contribution is also considerable, as seen in this and the preceding chapter.

Figure 7.11. Teaching document related to *Global Issues*.
CHAPTER 8

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Preamble

As the advice from informants clearly illustrates, *Global Issues* brings together an effective combination of professional expertise and volunteer goodwill in producing and distributing a quality resource for teacher and student use. The recommendations hereunder emanate from the various sources of information employed during this evaluation project, including a content analysis of *Global Issues*, a review of the relevant literature, a survey of readers, interviews with key stakeholders and school consultations.

**Continuation of funding**

To recommend anything short of a continuation of funding by AusAID would be to misrepresent the voices of our informants, including teachers, students and key stakeholders, who have given an enthusiastic vote of confidence to the product.

*Global Issues’* readership has praised an array of the magazine’s qualities, saying that it is relevant, up to date, practical, factual, multi-sourced, ready to use, clear and concise, able to challenge stereotypes and suitable for use with a range of students. Its impact on readers is social as well as educational.

Questions such as increases of funding in line with the Consumer Price Index, or to facilitate increases in the magazine’s scope and/or distribution should not be discounted. These are a matter for negotiation between AusAID and GTAV/*Global Issues* personnel.
Recommendation 1. That AusAID continue to fund the production and distribution of *Global Issues*.

**The AusAID/Global Issues partnership**

As intimated above and pointed out by the *Global Issues* team, a central strength of the current infrastructure of *Global Issues* is the robust partnership between production personnel and AusAID. In particular, AusAID is to be congratulated for allowing *Global Issues* to have a frame of reference which transcends, but does not preclude AusAID-specific projects. Such a stance has added to the credibility of the final product, has served AusAID’s wider interests, has contributed to the establishment of a culture of empathic global understanding, and has resulted in identifiable student outcomes.

Recommendation 2. That the mutually beneficial partnership between AusAID and GTAV/Global Issues be sustained.

**Maximising the scope and accessibility of Global Issues**

The internet offers considerable potential for putting *Global Issues* within reach of more people, with minimal cost and effort compared to other strategies. This fact was pointed out by both the magazine’s readers and producers.

The establishment of a *Global Issues* home page would allow for much greater interaction between students and teachers at national and international level, and increase the potential for feedback to the *Global Issues* team, and interaction between the readers.

The internet would assist in resolving some of the space/expense-related limitations associated with the printed format of *Global Issues*, for example website worksheets for downloading and copying by teachers. One respondent suggested the production
of separate teachers’ and students’ editions of *Global Issues*. The internet could overcome space-related problems associated with the inclusion of separate information for teachers and students, and would add to the potential for establishing an international market, as well as international viewpoints. Furthermore, electronic media are increasingly becoming a preferred means of research for students and teachers.

It is not envisaged that this use of the internet will replace the production of a hard copy resource. Given that school limits to internet access exist, it is necessary to have access to hard copy versions of materials.

**Recommendation 3.** That a *Global Issues* home page be established offering scope for ‘real-time’ interaction, and that in addition, ongoing investigations be conducted into other applications of the internet, such as its use as a vehicle for the distribution of *Global Issues*.

Beyond this, there are other possibilities for further streamlining the distribution of the magazine, which might include:

1) Engaging ‘gatekeepers’ in schools and peak bodies to bring the magazine and its contents to the attention of colleagues will maximise its accessibility and use.
2) A series of suggestions for distribution placed on the front page. (See Chapter 5).
3) Placement of *Global Issues* in school libraries, for student and teacher use.
4) Increased distribution in primary schools, where teachers are less likely to see themselves as SOSE specialists.
5) Making *Global Issues* more ‘buyer-friendly’ by accepting alternative ways of paying for the magazine, such as credit cards.
6) Continued and increased promotion through conferences, including Principals’ and Librarians’ conferences.
7) Advertising through state system and similar newsletters, subject to budget constraints.
8) Seeking further individual subscribers.
In all this, it needs to be kept in mind that a large increase in the print run will have financial implications.

Recommendation 4. Subject to continued funding, that *Global Issues* personnel further develop a strategic plan for increasing market penetration.

**Implications for ongoing evaluations of *Global Issues*.**

The internet offers considerable scope for ongoing and frank evaluation of the magazine. In the course of the current study, some participants indicated that *Global Issues* is a particularly valuable resource for teachers in non-metropolitan schools, especially isolated sites where access to resources can be problematic. This raises issues of equity for all students. From the responses received, it appears that *Global Issues* is playing an important role in mitigating the problems associated with isolation. Future evaluations could attempt to quantify this, and seek ways of increasing *Global Issues*’ service to isolated students.

While a hiatus from evaluation is appropriate, subsequent evaluations could be of a longitudinal nature and use a case study approach. Teachers and students could be co-researchers in this type of evaluation. Such an approach may prove to be particularly revealing given the incremental nature of change in people and institutions, and the desirability of accessing information about the relationship between *Global Issues* and student outcomes. It is also likely that such an approach will assist in generating a more complete profile of people who are using the resource.

Recommendation 5. That future evaluations of *Global Issues* comprise a longitudinal dimension that facilitates the gathering of information on issues of equity, changing teaching practices and student outcomes in a variety of teaching/learning contexts.
Acknowledgement of the magazine by users

It became clear during the evaluation that copyright obligations are not widely observed when elements of *Global Issues* are reproduced. This appears to be an oversight on the part of busy teachers, rather than a deliberate disregard for copyright. While it would seem counterproductive to insist on these legal obligations, it may be that the inclusion of a small copy of the copyright symbol and *Global Issues* logo or name adjacent to each component of the magazine will solve the problem with minimal loss of space. Inclusion of this information will also assist in making students and teachers more familiar with the resource.

**Recommendation 6.** That the *Global Issues* team determine user-friendly ways of maximising copyright compliance among teachers and students.

Beyond this, most recommendations apply to issues of the magazine’s content. This section must be prefaced, however, with a strong endorsement of *Global Issues’* content and format. The task of identifying improvements has been considerably more difficult than that of praising the magazine’s strengths. Many of the following suggestions have only the most minor implications for changes to *Global Issues.* Implicit therein is the recommendation that *Global Issues* retain its current ensemble of successful features.

**Upcoming topics**

Respondents provided a range of suggestions for topics that they would like incorporated into future editions of *Global Issues.* These included issues of a demographic nature (e.g. cities, women’s issues), regions (such as African or Asian countries, the Antarctic) the environment (wetlands, the greenhouse effect, for instance). It would be valuable for the production team to investigate the relevance of these topics for their audience and their correlation with curricular guidelines and, where appropriate, include such topics.
In cases where topics are not deemed to be of sufficient importance or relevance to warrant a whole unit, a smaller section could be devoted to ‘secondary’ resources (e.g. internet sites, videos etc.) and/or the inclusion of suggestions for activities and further reading.

**Recommendation 7.** That the production team develop a strategic plan for incorporating topics in future editions.

**State/territory curriculum information**

While there appears to be a good deal of commonality between the various state, territory and national curriculum guidelines, not all of *Global Issues*’ content is applicable to all states/territories (see Chapter 6). As suggested by one respondent, the inclusion of a matrix outlining the relevance of each topic and approach to each curriculum document would be helpful. The assistance of consultants within state and territory departments of education could be enlisted for this purpose. While such people are already busy, they are likely to welcome the increasing relevance their contribution to such a document will provide in further increasing *Global Issues*’ relevance. The major drawback of such a proposal is its requirements for space. The recommendation relating to the internet may provide a solution to this difficulty.

**Recommendation 8.** That the production team investigate ways of including state/territory curriculum-specific information with regard to the content of *Global Issues*.

**Increasing the scope for use by senior students**

The need was suggested for increased circulation of *Global Issues* in primary schools. At the other end of the scale, some teachers reported a limited amount of relevant
material for students in senior years. It is recognised that Global Issues has a great deal of success in catering for such a wide range of students.

Teachers indicated that the depth and sophistication of the feature articles are suitable for seniors but that their potential for use in class might be facilitated if supported by contributing questions of a depth commensurate with the articles themselves.

**Recommendation 9.** That questions and/or activities for more able/senior students accompany the feature articles.

**Inclusion of nations**

As Chapter 4 illustrates, a wide range of countries has been included in the past seven editions of Global Issues. While the inclusion of Asian countries is extensive, references to Pacific island nations are less frequent. It is recognised that one of the earlier editions (Vol 1, No 4) features the Pacific, but the continued inclusion thereof would provide a further dimension to magazine’s local substance.

References to North American and western Europe nations are frequent in Global Issues. There seem to be fewer references, however, to positive environmental, economic or other initiatives on the part of these nations. It may be that such initiatives are difficult to find, but it would be worthwhile seeking such examples in line with Global Issues’ spirit of optimism and in deference to the numbers of children (including Anglo-Celtic Australian children) who come from such backgrounds. Such an approach would not ignore negative attitudes on the part of these nations, or ‘hide skeletons in colonial closets’ but would endeavour to provide more positive illustrations of proactive policies and initiatives. These two initiatives would further enhance the global credentials of the resource.
Recommendation 10. That the *Global Issues* team remain vigilant for opportunities to illustrate upcoming topics with examples from Pacific island nations, as well as those from other regions, and that the team seek to include illustrations of the way that developed nations tackle global problems.

**Replication or adaptation of the *Global Issues* model.**

Evidence collected during the evaluation indicated that the model used for the production of *Global Issues* is exemplary, and is worthy of investigation as a model of best practice for government/peak body partnerships aimed at the dissemination of information, networking and resource creation.

Resulting partnerships could be of a ‘convergent’ or ‘divergent’ nature. A divergent model would see the establishment of working alliances similar to but independent of the *Global Issues* collaboration, for example, between government bodies and professional associations in fields such as health or the environment. By contrast, a convergent model would result in the contribution of other agencies towards the production of *Global Issues*.

In suggesting this, the research team is aware that similar partnerships exist. The cross-fertilisation of such ideas between these various groups is likely to be of benefit to all concerned.

Recommendation 11. That the *Global Issues* model be used as an exemplar for adoption or adaptation for similar potential partnerships between government and other bodies.

Recommendation 12. That cross-fertilisation of ideas be facilitated between other collaborative partnerships with the aim of replicating best practise.
Conclusions

As stated earlier, *Global Issues* is in need of only the most minor changes to further improve its performance. The collaborative nature of the magazine’s production and its quarterly format offer *Global Issues* a great deal of flexibility, allowing it to ‘reinvent itself’ with each new edition, thereby minimising the risk of it becoming stale.

Recent discussions have taken place on the importance of citizenship education (e.g. Australian Government Publishing Service, 1994). Global citizenship is now an important reality. Resources such as *Global Issues* are making an essential contribution to preparing students to be global citizens.

The production of *Global Issues* benefits from a great deal of goodwill and volunteer assistance, and results in very positive student and teacher outcomes. From the point of view of a government investment in the project, *Global Issues* has provided AusAID with considerable ‘value adding’.
APPENDIX 1

“GLOBAL ISSUES” EVALUATION SURVEY

We are keen to ensure that Global Issues is meeting the needs of its readers. By taking the time to complete this brief questionnaire, you can help us. Any replies received before 15/7/97 will be in the running for one of three book gift vouchers to the value of $50.00 each. In addition

In answering, try to make reference to the last seven issues. Forwarding details are overleaf.

In which state or territory do you live?  ………………………

At what level do you do most of your teaching? (Please tick one)

Primary □ 1  Secondary □ 2  Other □

3 …………………………………

(Please indicate)

If you teach in a specialist area, is it …?

Geography □ 1  SOSE/HSIE □ 2  Other □

3 …………………………………

(Please indicate)

How do you receive Global Issues?

Separate subscription □ 1  Journal insert □ 2

……………………………………

(Please indicate name of journal)
If Global Issues were not available through your current journal, would you be prepared to subscribe to it?

Yes ☐ 1  No ☐ 2

How would you rate the quality of *Global Issues* in terms of ……?

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<th>the range of topics it covers</th>
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How often do you …?

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<th>rarely</th>
<th>sometimes</th>
<th>often</th>
<th>constantly</th>
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<td>Incorporate its activities and other information into your teaching</td>
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<td>Use the secondary resources it mentions</td>
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<th>Low</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Very high</th>
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<td>As a result of receiving the magazine?</td>
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How often do you use the following components of *Global Issues*?

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<td>B) Teaching/learning activities</td>
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<td>C) Case studies</td>
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<td>D) The serialised story</td>
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<td>E) The cartoons</td>
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Which of the above (A, B, C, D, or E) do you use most regularly with your students?

…………………………..

What do you see as the overall strength/s of *Global Issues*?

…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

What would you change about *Global Issues*?

…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

REPLY PAID
Sender’s details
APPENDIX 2 INTERVIEW SCHEDULES

TEACHER INTERVIEWS

(General questions about your teaching)

How, if at all, do you incorporate global perspectives into your teaching? What has prompted you to do so?

If you are including global perspectives, is this a recent change in your teaching? What has contributed to this change?

…

How did you find out about Global Issues?

What, if any, contribution has it made to your: knowledge; teaching skills; values and attitudes?

What, if anything, makes it a useful teaching resource?

Does it provide information or perspectives which are difficult or impossible to obtain elsewhere?

Is it placed at an appropriate level for your students?

How have you used it? (resources, activities, cartoons, articles etc)

How do/did your students respond to it?

How, if at all, has your teaching approach changed since receiving Global Issues?
What is the most useful component of *Global Issues*? Why? Are there components you find not very useful?

Do you use primarily a) for your own research, b) for your students: the cartoons; the lead articles; the activities; the resources within *Global Issues*; the resources ‘advertised’ by *Global Issues*?

How much did you know about/think about Global perspectives before receiving *Global Issues*? How much do you know and think about such a perspective now?

How much/ how often did you incorporate a global perspective into your teaching before receiving *Global Issues*? How often do you do so now?

How, if at all would you improve *Global Issues*? What would you add, delete or change?

How do you receive *Global Issues*? If you had to pay for the magazine, would you subscribe to it?

What topics/issues have you incorporated into your teaching that reflect global perspectives (units, activities, topics, resources)?
GTAV INTERVIEWS

What is the history of Global Issues?

What has been your role with regard to Global Issues?

What is the underlying philosophy of Global Issues? What do you want it to achieve? To what extent has it achieved this?

What role does Global Issues have to play in the ‘educational marketplace’?

What do you see as the strengths of Global Issues?

What do you see as its weaknesses?

What are some of the problems which have had to be overcome in the production of Global Issues?

Who or what are your main sources of support in producing Global Issues?

How are expenses for the production of Global Issues met? How would you describe the level of funding for Global Issues?

What sense of teamwork is evident in the production of Global Issues? Is a sense of teamwork necessary?

What kind of feedback have you had from teachers and others about Global Issues?
STUDENT INTERVIEWS

What are some examples of global issues?

Do we need to take a more global view of the world? If so, why?

What have you studied in the way of global issues?

How has your thinking changed as a result of investigating global issues?

What sort of responses do you think global issues require? How, if at all, have you responded to issues of global concern a) as a class and b) as an individual?

Have you ever tried to locate materials with a global perspective? What did you find?

What sort of materials would be useful for you to have? Prompt: If you were producing resource materials with a global perspective, what sort of things would you want to include?)

…

How, if at all, have you used Global Issues? Have you actually referred to copies, or has your teacher simply used it as a resource in class?

What do you think of it? What, if anything, makes it a useful resource for learning?

Do you think that it is too simplistic? Too complicated?

How, if all, has Global Issues changed your: knowledge; skills; values and attitudes?

Does Global Issues provide information, perspectives etc which are difficult/impossible to obtain elsewhere? How would you compare it with other resources you’ve used?
Do you find it useful for: Classroom activities; for research?

If you are familiar with the format of *Global Issues*, what component do you like best about it? (Cartoons, lead articles, activities, resources in GI, resources ‘advertised’ by GI?

If you were editing *Global Issues*, what changes, if any, would you make?

How much did you know about/think about Global perspectives before coming in contact with *Global Issues*? How much do you know and think about such issues now?
TELEPHONE INTERVIEWS

PEAK BODY REPRESENTATIVES

Do you receive *Global Issues* personally?

If not, are you familiar with it?

How, if at all do you see it as being useful for teachers?

For students?

Does *Global Issues* duplicate other available materials that you know of? If not, in what ways is it unique?

Is there a particular component of the magazine which you feel is particularly relevant?

Are there any things you’d change, add to or delete from *Global Issues*?

What do you see as the objectives for a publication such as *Global Issues*?

Do you think *Global Issues* represents value for money?

What specific feedback have you had from other recipients of the magazine?
### APPENDIX 3 CONTENT ANALYSES

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REFERENCES


The following texts were referred to by title in this report.


Camberwell South, Vic: GTAV.

*New Internationalist*: Melbourne.


*Time*: Sydney: Time Australia Magazine Pty Ltd.
This chapter constitutes my contribution to a research project investigating the effects of professional development provided on Global education. Over 2,000 PD participants responded to questionnaires provided at the cessation of the sessions they attended. In addition to a quantitative analysis of these statistics, using SPSS (Statistical package for the Social Sciences), this report provides qualitative analysis of forty telephone interviews, and four case studies. The telephone interviews elicited information on the extent to which and ways in which global education outcomes were being met in schools. Site visits were considerably more exhaustive in nature, and multi-faceted in their approach, and investigated outcomes in schools from the point of view of various stakeholders, including teachers and, where possible, students.

As reported previously (Frontispiece, Chapter 7) there was a disparity between participants’ enthusiasm at the culmination of the PD sessions, and the changes they effected in their classrooms. Indeed, difficulty was encountered in identifying sufficient numbers of schools for interviews and case studies. Moreover, in the schools chosen for case studies, student outcomes were difficult to discern, and all schools claimed to be in the early stages of implementation some two years after the professional development sessions in which they had participated. This is perhaps not surprising, in that some teachers had only attended a single brief PD session after school one evening. One recommendation made to the PD purveyors was for the provision of more extensive professional development, perhaps to a smaller and more targeted clientele.

This report corresponds to a published article (Chapter 7) and makes several recommendations in order to maximise the effectiveness, particularly the cost effectiveness of such inservicing. This report brings the portfolio virtually full-circle. One recommendation for providers of professional development is a familiarisation with the dynamics of curricular development as they proceed in their school contexts. A more sophisticated understanding of the players and processes of curricular development (as outlined, for example, in the overarching statement) will better equip PD providers to maximise the effects of their efforts in schools.
THE WORLD AT YOUR FEET: INTRODUCING STUDENTS AND TEACHERS TO GLOBAL EDUCATION

John Buchanan (University of Technology) and Dr Barry Harris (University of Western Sydney)

The realities and perception of the world as a global village are becoming increasingly evident owing to enhanced technology and the increasing scale of human impact on the rest of humanity and on the environment. This paper reports on a project which investigated the effectiveness of a suite of professional development sessions to primary and secondary teachers in Victoria, Australia, aimed at improving classroom practice with regard to global education. The professional development was provided by the Geography Teachers’ Association of Victoria and was funded by AusAID. The study employed a combination of questionnaires, completed by participants at the conclusion of the sessions (n = 2169), (not all participants completed all items on the questionnaire), telephone interviews with a random sample of participants, (n = 40) after they had completed the sessions, and four case studies with four schools. The study found that while participants were forthright and generous in their praise of the professional development sessions, as demonstrated by their responses to questionnaires at the conclusion of the sessions, only some translated this into their classroom teaching, and there was a hiatus between the demonstrated enthusiasm for the sessions, and implementation of related materials, processes and resources in the classroom. The purpose of this paper is to highlight some of the excellent classroom work that derived in part or whole from the professional development sessions, and to investigate reasons why more teachers may not have taken this up. The paper also proposes a model designed to ‘value add’ to the training work which was undertaken by providers of the professional development. Many of these findings may be transferable to other in-service providers.

Background to the study

A discussion of global education presumes an understanding of the phenomenon of globalisation. Waters (1995, p. 3) defines globalisation as “a social process in which the constraints of geography on social and cultural arrangements recede and in which
people become increasingly aware that they are receding”. The causes and effects of globalisation are economic, environmental, socio-cultural and political in nature (Strachan, 1998; McMillen; 1997; Merryfield, 1994).

Global education is a process designed to enhance students’ understanding of the above processes. It should provide students with an increased understanding of environmental, political and economic causes and effects, a deeper and more critical understanding of themselves, and empathy with others. Above all it should provide them with more informed lifestyle choices, and a new enthusiasm for justice (Buchanan & Halse, 1997). The term global education has been used interchangeably with other terms such as international education and development education. Calder and Smith (1991) point out, though, that global education transcends an awareness of what is happening in developing nations, and demands an investigation into aspects of developed countries, including poverty and injustice within these richer countries, and the dynamics of such countries which contribute to poverty in developing nations.

Relatively little research appears to have been undertaken recently with regard to ongoing classroom effects of teacher professional development. In most cases, it appears that such studies have taken place when a certain suite of skills or processes were to be developed in the classroom. Ross (1994, p. 381) cites a lack of initiatives aimed at improving practice, reporting that, “there have been few attempts to increase teacher efficacy through district-organized professional development”. As well as reporting on the findings from a professional development initiative in Australia, this paper will explore some broad themes of in-service education and will propose a model for maximising its effect.

Smith, Baker and Oudeans (2001) report on three essential elements identified as assisting transfer of practice into the classroom: “deep instructional understanding of the rationale for the changes being considered … multiple opportunities to try new instructional practices in the classroom … specific feedback about implementation during ongoing professional development activities” (p. 8). Sugai and Bullis (1997) claim that in-service training needs to fit the teacher’s experience and teaching context. It also needs to allow for “communication, support and accountability” (p. 56) and to be rewarded.
In an attempt to determine ongoing classroom practice, Ross (1994) investigated teacher and student outcomes on three occasions during an eight-month professional development program. His study derived from the theory of teacher efficacy (Bandura, 1977), in which the success of educational innovations can be measured in terms of teachers’ perceptions of their ability to effect a desired change, and; the likelihood that the action they undertake will effect such a change. Ross found that, “it was the use of in-service knowledge, not exposure to it, that contributed to changes in teacher efficacy” (pp. 389, 390, emphasis added). These changes were largely attitudinal, however, and little change in teacher practice was reported. Ross cites two reasons for this: the lack of between-session opportunities for practice of related skills, and, significantly, the relatively short period of study, eight months. Gusky, in an interview with Todnem and Warner (1994, p. 63) made similar observations, noting that:

I find two mistakes that are most common in staff development evaluation. The first is that efforts are too shallow. The second is that efforts are too brief. Regarding shallowness, staff developers are often satisfied with assessing participants’ immediate reactions to a program or activity. Sometimes we consider the effects on participants’ perceptions, attitudes, or beliefs.

But rarely do we consider impact on professional knowledge or practice. And rarer still is any consideration of impact on students – the clients our schools are designed principally to serve. If we’re serious about evaluation, we must probe deeper, consider multiple sources of information, and not be satisfied with tapping only immediate reactions to a program or effort.

While certain desired teaching approaches can be modelled during in-service sessions, then copied and monitored in the classroom, it is arguably more problematic to facilitate and monitor second order conceptual change, such as implementing along with the appropriate processes and attendant outcomes, content which is not state-mandated, in the classroom.
Impediments to professional change in the classroom include resistance (Schön, 1983), a regression to old behaviour patterns (Apple & Jungck, 1992) and to minimalism (Sikes, 1992). This is exacerbated by the physical and psychological isolation of teachers (Giroux, 1991) in the context of an aging profession (Dinham, 1991) as well as increasing workloads and a decrease in the profession’s esteem (Hargreaves, 1997). Further compounding this, professional development sessions have at times adopted a deficit approach to teachers, their performance and their needs.

Related to this is the issue of ownership of intended change. Hargreaves (1994, p. 186) uses the term “contrived collegiality” to describe change over which teachers feel they have little input or power, and Au (1997) emphasises the teacher-centredness of successful change, calling teachers to reflect on their personal philosophies, choose a focus for professional development, and set related goals. Hargreaves (1994) refers to such contexts as “collaborative cultures” (p. 192).

Conduct of the study

The professional development sessions related to this project were conducted between 1999 and 2002. Pre-service teacher-trainee students and practicing educators participated. These were designed to raise teachers’ awareness of the need to include global education in their teaching, and to provide ideas for resources, approaches and content material they might use in their everyday teaching. The majority of the experiences were short (one to two-and-a-half hours, average 1.5 hours) and were designed to be practical in nature. Topics included refugees, land mines, water resources fishing etc. Proportions of primary and secondary teachers who responded to the evaluation questionnaires were as follows: primary: 263 (12.3%); secondary: 846 (39.6%); preservice: 988 (46.3%); other: 38 (1.8%).

Participants \((n = 2169)\) completed questionnaires at the completion of the professional development sessions they attended. These consisted of a series of Likert scale questions eliciting information on the participants’ views on session content, processes, including the provision of resources, quality of the teaching and the scope of the sessions to assist the participants’ students to increase their knowledge and
understanding of various aspects of the session, such as diversity of cultures, power and wealth inequalities etc. Responses were analysed using SPSS (Statistical package for the Social Sciences) software.

Forty participants were contacted and interviewed by telephone approximately six months after they had completed some of the global education in-service sessions. These interviews were conducted on a random sample basis. Some of the interviews were recorded by notes taken during the discussions and others were tape-recorded and transcribed. The focus of these interviews was to find out what action participants had taken in following up their professional development sessions, and what their future professional development needs may be in terms of teaching global education.

Four schools, from which participants had attended global education sessions, were visited by a researcher during the year 2002. The schools consisted of one primary school, two secondary schools (years 7-12) and one school from Prep to year 12. Two of the schools were from the government school system, one was from the Catholic schools system and one was an Independent school. The focus of these case studies was again the further needs of teachers teaching global education and the impacts upon students as a result of experiencing curriculum involving global education topics.

Findings and discussion

Responses to the in-service sessions

Participants generally rated the sessions they attended very favourably. Content issues received the highest praise, with all elements generating mean responses of 4 or higher on a 1-5 scale (1 = poor; 5 = excellent). The processes were similarly praised by the participants, with only ‘opportunity for individual reflection’ and ‘for discussion’ failing to generate means of 4 or higher (means of 3.8 and 3.9 respectively). It appears that the provision and demonstration of resources was more than adequate during the sessions, with related questions generating mean responses of 4.4. Facilitators also appear to have performed very well, particularly in their clarity of delivery and supportiveness, such aspects generating responses of 4.5 each.
**Outcomes from the in-service**

The in-service sessions contributed to a range of units of work, including refugees, urban and rural development, global warming and water resources. Several teachers reported modelling approaches they had seen. Apart from teachers of VCE (matriculation) classes, teachers typically incorporated elements from the training sessions into their teaching, rather than developing discrete units of work based thereon. It needs to be kept in mind, too, that many of the teachers were already applying a global consciousness to their teaching prior to the in-service sessions, and that the sessions have contributed “ongoingly” in the words of one teacher, to their implementation of global issues. This teacher added that the in-service “highlighted the need to keep that [global] focus”.

One teacher developed a unit investigating international and regional events and organisations in fields such as economics, the environment etc. Organisations studied included the World Wildlife Fund. The teacher exchanged information with neighbouring schools, and found that the unit gave students a good ‘macro’ perspective on global dynamics. Another teacher developed a study of various cities, comparing “some third world cities and their infrastructure with Melbourne”. One college of TAFE worked in collaboration with a local primary school collecting the stories of local refugee children. The college intends to publish these stories to a wider audience.

One teacher extensively used case studies she found on websites and elsewhere. She said, “the case studies are really the thing which gets [the students] on board because it personalises the whole issue”. She added that the case studies are, “the thing that hooks them and then they have an understanding of the deeper global issues and more of the economics and demography surrounding the background of developing countries”. The case studies also, “make it more meaningful for these urban Australians who have absolutely no cognisance of how the other half live”. She confessed, “I'm in the same situation. I've never ventured into developing countries myself so I am not far beyond that”.

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One teacher indicated that the study of refugees had opened her students’ eyes to the issue. Previously they had, “stereotyped refugees as ‘no-hopers’, or at best, treated them with condescension”. This teacher indicated that it was valuable for these students to see that many refugees had achieved high qualifications, respect and positions of authority in their home country. Another teacher developed a unit investigating the global implications of international trade, the environment and privatisation. This was also a new experience for her students, who “are privileged, and ski Mount Buller each weekend”. Other teachers have tried to investigate situations beyond their students’ usual experiences. One school has a high proportion of refugees and migrants from the former Yugoslavia, and for that reason chose to study Vietnamese refugees in Australia. Yet another school used students’ backgrounds to look at familiar phenomena from a different standpoint. One wealthy private school (“We’re a laptop school.”) investigated tourism from the point of view of developing countries. One teacher explained that she uses a giant wall map to illustrate and contextualise members of various ethnic groups and their cultures. She focuses on Indonesia, because of its relative proximity to Australia, and because it is the school’s LOTE (Language other than English). She also uses the map to demonstrate the ethnic origins of the school’s student body. One teacher used a simulation game she encountered at the in-service session. The game involves blindfolding students, who then have to walk across a field to a predetermined point on the other side, without stepping on a simulated landmine. One Catholic School teacher recounted that he had undertaken a case study of development using the Catholic Church as an example of a non-government organisation.

Many of the units of work demand responses on the part of the students. At one primary school, a teacher organised a ‘global Christmas tree’ on which students hung their ‘wish-gifts’ to the world. One child, for example, “did not want any animals to ‘go extinct’”. At another school, students undertook fundraising to provide a school library in Ghana with books, and ‘bought’, through sponsorship, income generating gifts, such as a cow, for farmers in developing nations. One participating teacher developed a year ten unit focusing on the unequal distribution of resources in the world. In particular, she looked at water resources, and compared the Snowy Scheme, the Nile and the Yangtze rivers. Given the inequalities of assets, and the economic and
environmental consequences, the students were asked to develop appropriate responses, as they took on the roles of NGOs or various levels of government. Another teacher reported that the PDs reinforced the fact that the students are called on to be global citizens, and raised the question of which competencies they need in order to take on this global role. Modelling her approach on that of the in-service, one teacher challenged her students to take on shared responsibility for their citizenship and their learning. At one school, students undertook selling products made by land mine victims. Another participant emulated the in-service by engaging a guest speaker from the Red Cross to address her students on international treaties and land mines. Subsequent to this, she organised a debate, whose topic was “Australia is a good global citizen”. One teacher, who organised a hut-building exercise, said that apart from gaining new perspectives from the experience, her year four class gained skills in teamwork.

Perhaps the most powerful outcome of the training and subsequent teaching was the impact it has had on children’s world-views. One teacher said that her children reacted negatively to the idea of Australia providing money for overseas projects and relief. She continued, “Kids [in Australia] think the whole world lives like them”. The teacher quoted the AusAID website which states that 80 percent of its budget is spent in Australia. She personally felt disappointed that such a small proportion filtered through to poorer economies. She has put this quote onto worksheets she has distributed to students. At the time of the interview she was awaiting their response to this statistic. Another teacher mentioned that her students had expressed an interest in volunteer work overseas, as a result of material they had studied in school.

Two of the case studies are particularly worthy of note. Lynette (a pseudonym) spoke of a visit from a global educator, who spoke to the whole staff. As a result of this, the staff conducted an audit on their teaching content, with a view to being more inclusive of global, and particularly regional, material.

The school wanted to address the relative ‘silence’ on the part of its ESL students. The school had been holding ‘International Week’ each year, but felt that this was tokenistic, so replaced it with incorporating positive role models from the students’ backgrounds into the curriculum. Lynette said that the
students, “respond incredibly well to practical examples of role models… we got rid of the international week and we try to embed it in a more affirming type of way. We discovered that a lot of our girls from overseas were kind of in the background too much”.

Lynette also noted that there has been a change in the school’s staff attitudes in response to the professional development day, saying,

when people talk about who is in their classrooms, they are much more conscious of cultural statements. I get many more enquires about, ‘I have to teach the Japanese bombing of Darwin and I have got four Japanese girls I the room. How do I approach this?’ Very specific questions which I didn’t get years ago. So more sort of conscious of who is in the room.

The school’s expertise in IT (Information Technology) assists a global perspective in teaching. Lynette observed, “we have link ups with the Internet - serious link ups - so [the students] are operating outside country boundaries all of the time”. In her own teaching, Lyn has also endeavoured to admit a variety of perspectives. She mentioned her Australian Cultural History class and its discussion of the Second World War. Her aim is to,

Make no value judgements whatsoever and then ask the girls to pursue a line of investigation … you also introduce them to guiding them to look at the social repercussions and then what happened after that. So you don’t leave them stuck in the past but move them forward. That’s what I always suggest to people.

Indeed, the Australian Cultural History class has emerged in part from the influence of the in-service day: “It is an opportunity for girls who have arrived particularly from an Asian background to interpret the culture in which they have landed. The reason we need to do that is so that they can participate in the culture. The other side of the coin and one of the first things we do is we spend a lot of time asking the girls to tell their own stories and there is a recurring theme across faculties is getting people to story tell”. This helps generate, “the type of personalised connection to places other than
our own and it allows those people for whom Australia is not their original background the opportunity to place themselves within it”.

At another school, David, who was approached to deliver seminars, had been involved in landmine clearing in Afghanistan. He also presented information in his own school. This unit of work incorporated a range of media, including CD-ROM and Internet material. At one stage the class participated in a simulation, with imitation mines placed randomly under students’ chairs prior to the lesson. They also explored the effects of landmines on children, the most common victims, as well as social and financial implications for male and female invalids.

The lessons were very well received. In David’s words, “Kids relate very well to the land mine issue. I found it absolutely astounding, with classes that most people would regard here has very difficult to manage and very difficult to control have been absolutely captivated by the land mine issue and the impact on people”. In particular, he spoke about

9W last year. The worst class in the school … I took the geography component and really we were struggling with the traditional geography syllabus. So we got onto doing the land mine study on what its world implications were … I did it as a one-off because the traditional curriculum they were just not connecting with and what it did create was it changed the dynamics of the class. To get involved in a social issue that has a very human face to it really did break the trend in the class and we got better learning outcomes as a result … we were all a little more on the same side.

The effect has been ongoing. As David explained, “I have most of these kids in year 10. It’s one of those things that if handled well, puts a human face on the teacher as well. It’s not as if you are just someone there just sort of pouring stuff down your neck. You actually get involved with it.” This high level of interest is also perhaps a result of the school’s demography: “We also have a very high Indo-Chinese population here. A lot of Cambodians and so on who can very quickly make a connection”. David added that the presentation,
provides a great start, like making human connections to develop studies into social issues such as refugees, border protection, and whatever and population movement, humanitarian crisis and even post September 11, the circumstances that build terrorism. I have found it to be a great way of creating that stimulus.

The approach David used was more confronting than usual: “I actually have video material of people in mine fields at the time they had been blown up and the mine clearers have gone in there and videoed as they have done it. It is gruesome but I made a judgement call, and when confronted with that it’s hard to say ‘I don’t care’. You forget this reality TV crap. That’s the reality”. When asked if he warned the students about the potential for the material to be distressing, he replied, “The way I explain it to the kids is, ‘it’s coming up. I’ll warn you. If you wish to look away, do so if you feel like it might distress you. I will tell you when it’s over and there are no brownie points for saying, ‘I am a tough guy and saw it’’”. He added, “Every kid knows that I didn’t come back from Afghanistan the same person I was when I went away. They all know that”.

Elizabeth, now in year ten, found the unit of work “very interesting” last year. It was enjoyable because she knew nothing about land mines beforehand. When asked how this was different from other new units of work (about which she might also have known nothing), she replied, “because it’s a big issue”. She clarified this by saying that the issue is important. She found it interesting to compare maps of where refugees typically come from, with maps of the most heavily land mined countries, finding that there was a strong correlation. She spoke enthusiastically about the unit of work, and especially about the videos she saw.

David feels that one of the beneficial outcomes of his role is, “that little bit of warmth that can be delivered by someone who has been there as opposed to someone that has read about it … the anecdotal illustrations that you can give are quite different”. As the circumstances in Afghanistan and elsewhere have changed, David has continued to provide input for the students: “We did a fair bit – post September 11, we also did quite a bit because of the Afghan Taliban connection”.

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Subsequently, and partly in response to word-of-mouth reports about his presentation, David has spoken at a primary school, written an article for the Health Education Association of Victoria, and has addressed various community clubs. At the primary school, “the kids all wrote little pieces for their school magazine. It was quite touching”.

David has initiated other global education undertakings. He explained an initiative related to East Timor.

Just after the ballot on independence recently, the imagery that was coming out was pretty horrific - the militia violence and so on. I did a presentation here at the school assembly on what it must be like to be in East Timor and grabbed a few student leaders and the kids decided that they shouldn’t be just sitting back and saying ‘it’s terrible’, but should be actually doing something. So we had kids, and a few of the student leadership, made up hundreds and hundreds of red ribbons symbolising - the way they presented it was symbolising the blood of the people. We had a red ribbon day. The kids sold them in their local communities and went down the street and sold them here at school. In fact it was pretty uncool not to have one. The dynamics of the place was such that if you didn’t have one, someone would be asking you why not … One of the good things about the hand over [of the funds raised, to an NGO] was that they showed the kids the sorts of emergency packs that they give. That made a good connection. [The students] loved to see where the money was going - big winner.

David’s presentation led other teachers at the school to engage in the land mine topic, with similarly enthusiastic responses from students. At one stage a staff member who had escaped the Khmer Rouge regime spoke to the students. One teacher, Robert, described his land mines teaching as “probably the most successful unit of all that I teach”. He described the students’ understanding of war as ‘very Hollywood’, lacking an understanding of the consequences of an impoverished child losing a limb. He went on to explain that, “one of the things that came through with regard to land mines is the state of its insidiousness, the fact that it’s a very cheap way of creating human misery”. Robert also referred to the mapping activity of comparing the geography of land mines and of refugees’ origins, saying that the parallels are fascinating.
Difficulties with implementation

David suggested that time limitations are the greatest obstacle with regard to providing information on landmines, particularly in the light of his existing responsibilities at school. He added, modestly, “It’s been significant for some but overall I guess fairly superficial. I guess in my view it never reached perhaps the potential that it offered”. Providing professional development out of school hours appears to be a problem for potential participants as well as for David as a presenter. This was a common theme among teachers, who spoke of their myriad responsibilities over and above classroom teaching, which limited their opportunities to attend in-services or implement them.

Lynette observed that teachers in some faculties are more open to including a global dimension in their teaching. On the other hand, she observed that teachers of younger children do not find their students’ age a barrier to pursuing global understandings in the classroom, adding that younger grades have fewer external exams and that the primary school structure lends itself more to thematic approaches than does the secondary system. Nevertheless, she noted that there is broad scope for treatment of global themes in the VCE exam. Lynette sees her school as a leader in innovative teaching, including globalisation. This has led to a problem with locating mentors. She added

in the other schools that I have worked at I could always go to another school and find a model that seems to be working quite well and do research that way. I think one of the telling examples is that I needed to go somewhere, like the linguistics department at Monash to get rigorous kinds of study research on intercultural communication. We are at that kind of level.

Staff turnover is another difficulty in maintaining global perspectives in teaching for the school. As Lynette said, “we have 40-50 staff turnover a year …. You can never ‘let go of it’”. This needs to be kept in balance with the needs of existing staff members. While Lynette does not feel that she is a ‘voice in the wilderness’, in that other staff are taking up global education, there remains the problem of maintaining
interest and drive in the program. According to Lynette, “it needs constant rejuvenation and each time you rejuvenate it you have to come up with a different angle otherwise you get the ‘been there and done that’”. She spoke of the importance of motivating other key players on the staff, “especially faculty coordinators. We rely so much on faculty coordinators to drive absolutely everything, so you have to capture the faculty coordinators. So if you have some great practice expert that can point them in the right direction and feed them ideas then it will drive itself”.

Lynette pointed out that the crowded curriculum is also a challenge. “You have to compete with equal opportunity with students. There is lots of workplace stuff that you also have to incorporate, so you do have to compete with different areas”. Other teachers echoed this, referring to literacy and numeracy priorities among other issues.

As stated earlier, while some of the schools are engaged in exciting and creative work in global education, many schools do not seem to have taken up related activities. It is particularly interesting to note in the questionnaires that the statement, “The content was applicable to the classroom” generated a high mean response of 4.3 (Standard Deviation 0.8). This would seem to foreshadow a high level of uptake of material in the classroom subsequent to the professional development sessions. This does not appear to have been the case, however. Previous research (Ross, 1994; Halse, 1996) showed that there exists a considerable time-lag between professional development and the undertaking of related techniques and content material in the classroom. This is partly attributable to prescribed curriculum documents being set in place a year in advance. With this in mind, some two years after the initial PD sessions, teachers in this study were contacted regarding implementation of materials and processes in their classrooms. In order to locate 40 such teachers, more than 120 were contacted by phone. Few declined involvement per se. Some, however, could not recall the in-service session being referred to. Almost all of those who chose not to be involved indicated that they had not yet implemented material from the in-service sessions. As one potential respondent said,

I’m afraid I must be extremely frank with you and tell you that I haven’t used information learnt during the session in my teaching. I was trained with AusAID as part of the geography session, and I haven’t taught geography this year. I
have been teaching biology and maths instead. Furthermore, my school is not yet set up for use of the internet - should be happening in the next year - and so any skills in this area have also not been relevant as yet.

Similarly, finding four schools which felt they had undertaken substantial programs related to the in-service sessions was difficult. In only one instance was it possible to interview a student informant, to triangulate the extent of classroom practice and investigate its impact.

The professional development appears to have unproblematically assumed that teachers would undertake related material in their classrooms. As stated above, some schools were conducting exciting and innovative programs, as a result, partly or wholly, of the in-service input.

It could be proposed that a continuum be adopted to gauge the effectiveness of professional development on change in the classroom.

| Little or no change | Mimicking of elements of the in-service | Conceptual synthesis of rationale, internalisation of approaches, content etc |

One aspect to note is that the difference between mimicking and conceptual synthesis may not be immediately obvious. Indeed, the suggestions below could be interpreted as a ‘recipe’ to be replicated in a superficial fashion. A prerequisite for the uptake of any of these ideas, however, is consideration of them in terms of the outcomes and purposes to be effected. The extent to which the findings from this study are transferable are open to debate, but in order to gain better ‘fuel economy’ from their training sessions, the organisation providing this professional development could do this in a variety of ways. All of the following presume funding implications. Professional development is costly in terms of money, time and resources. It is also an investment.

Establishing outcomes (for participants, their peers, schools, students and communities) as a part of professional development sessions, and devising follow-up
action plans for teachers to fulfil subsequent to these sessions is likely to maintain the momentum established during in-service sessions. The partnership of universities, school systems or other accrediting bodies could be sought in recognising the achievement of such goals. The internationalisation of programs appears to be a priority for tertiary and secondary institutions. Other creative and productive partnerships between universities and schools are also surely possible.

Alternatively, evidence of working towards such goals in the classroom could be set by employing bodies, as a condition of attendance at in-service sessions, such as conducting an inventory of ‘global capital’, and devising an action plan for the school based on the findings thereof, such as in Lynette’s school. Linked to this, past or current students could be called on to devise a ‘profile of a global-friendly school’ with various criteria of low-, medium- and high levels of ‘global-education-friendliness, in various aspects of the school. These could include curriculum (in various subject areas and grades), resources, social action, student and staff attitudes, policies etc, as shown in the framework below.
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Hosting a competition for students would be another means of generating momentum in schools. Such an event would also serve in the identification of schools wherein best practice is occurring, and for the establishment of such schools in leadership and mentoring roles, if they so choose. The dissemination of best practice work samples would serve to expose other schools to such practices.

The establishment and maintenance of easily accessible networks is important in maintaining momentum in a program such as global education, in the context of multiple demands on teachers. Much of this could be done electronically, with the use of a webpage for advising of relevant websites, or as a ‘bulletin board’ of events, or for the purposes of answering peers’ questions, sharing experiences etc. While it could be that participation in such an activity is a compulsory part of attendance at an in-service session, it needs to be kept in mind that for such a system to be of real value to teachers, it must be meeting their needs, not simply fulfilling an imposed requirement.

One problem appears to be the disparity of ‘global capital’ held by various schools and communities. As a general rule, it emerged that schools in more multicultural communities had a higher degree of global awareness than did schools in more monocultural areas. This also provides an opportunity for peer mentoring, with
schools and teachers whose plans and visions are more advanced, sharing their ideas with neophytes. This might be of particular value to rural and isolated schools, if virtual networks are formed. As part of this process, train-the-trainer programs could be established. Linked to this, the use of ‘authentic’ experiences was highly praised by a number of participants in the PD sessions. Such experiences could include visits to museums or galleries, restaurants, or areas with highly visible non-Anglo-Saxon profiles, such as Cabramatta in Sydney or Springvale in Melbourne. Hearing from refugees is also likely to be a memorable and enlightening experience. It is worth restating here that such undertakings need to be measured against valid outcomes, to avoid tokenism. Given that travel overseas is likely to be prohibitive to sponsor, the development of a register of teachers who have travelled to various overseas destinations may prove valuable, allowing them to share their insights and resources with other teachers.

Past students could be used to mentor current students. Similarly, the identification of ‘advanced’ teachers to in-service others would be valuable. This could take place in formal training sessions or as part of more informal networks. Undertaking such responsibilities would need to be met with some reward, perhaps in the form of accreditation, as part of a graduate certificate in professional practice.

Many of these initiatives are not necessarily highly labour-intensive, but are, once established, fairly self-perpetuating. Such undertakings would need to be supplemented with follow-up visits by guest speakers, or by personnel from related professional associations.

The videoing of guest lectures for dissemination may prove to be a valuable way of multiplying the effect of such speakers. In response to time limitations, David suggested the provision of more release-from-face-to-face time, or the opportunity to produce a video which could be shown to various groups of teachers, students or interested others. As he explained, while he is limited in his ability to travel and present the seminar, the, “resource is a transportable resource, and there is no reason, given administrative changes, that resource could not go to other schools”.

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While rewards such as the prospect of promotion or pay increases, and ‘putting it on one’s CV’ may provide some motivation, immediate incentives such as time in lieu or a reduction in other responsibilities may prove to be more attractive and realistic incentives for teachers.

Given the prominence accorded to literacy, professional associations could devote some time and energy developing students’ critical literacies, and teachers’ skills in developing these in children, as well as using literacy as a tool for understanding the world. This may attract some funding from government bodies. As one teacher pointed out, literacy and global awareness are not mutually exclusive: “It’s okay to read a story, but what are we learning from the story? Are we choosing our stories carefully? Are they tuned to current issues?”.

Conclusions

As Ross (1994, p. 392) observes, “disentangling the provision of in-service from other organizational factors is likely to be complex”. In this account we have tried to avoid either over- or understating the effects of the in-service sessions. We strongly believe, though, that there is enormous further potential for these in-service sessions. The ultimate measure of success of such endeavours, though, is their effective implementation in the classroom. As suggested earlier, there is a risk that the ideas enumerated above are simply taken on superficially as a ‘grab-bag of ideas’ to be mimicked in the absence of conceptual understanding of their purpose on the part of participating teachers. Just as outcomes-based education has become de rigeur in many educational contexts, so should such an approach have similar effects in maximising the effect of professional development and monitoring its effectiveness. Returning our thoughts to the difficult year nine class David spoke of is a reminder that the success of such training is of benefit not just to this world, but also to the 9Ws of this world.
References


APPENDIX 1 PORTFOLIO COMPONENTS

This portfolio consists of the following refereed articles:


Buchanan, J. and Harris, B. (2004) The world is your oyster, but where is the pearl? Getting the most out of global education. *Curriculum Perspectives* (in press).

And the following non-refereed articles:


APPENDIX 2  NON-CORE ARTICLES

Refereed articles:


Reports and other non-refereed articles:


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