ICL BUSINESS SCHOOL

ICL Journal

Working Papers from ICL Education Group

VOLUME TWO | ISSUE 1: JUNE 2015

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PAPERS

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2 Men studying ECE: Perceptions and Reality from Inside and Outside the Box
Tahera Afrin, Sandy Duncan and Dr Syed Mohammad Masud Jamali

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Introduction

The relationship between teaching and research has often been an uneasy one, especially at universities. In the private sector we are clearly directed by NZQA, whose *Degrees and Related Qualifications – Guidelines for Programme Approval and Accreditation to Provide Programmes for Tertiary Institutions other than Universities*, published in July 2014, firstly gives a clear definition of what a degree is: "a programme of advanced learning that ... is taught mainly by people engaged in research." Secondly, the same document provides a clear definition of research, which is an "original investigation undertaken in order to contribute to knowledge and understanding ... ." So while we can join the debate, our direction is very clear.

Our research activity started almost nine years ago, and now we have a collection of publications and conference presentations to our name, bundles of newsletters, a second ICL Journal, over 60% of our academic staff actively involved in research, and above all, we have engaged in projects that inform our teaching. Not only is research fun; it is useful. And one of the sweetest moments of all was being asked by NZQA, during the Business TRoQ, for permission to refer to our research project with the NZ Institute of Management on managerial competencies in New Zealand organizations.

The raison d'être for our research programme, the Graduate Diploma in International Business Innovation, has had a tremendous first year with a pass rate of over 90% (papers passed as a percentage of papers taken) with 35% of students scoring A or A+. 93% of the first intake successfully graduated, and so far almost 100 students have started the Graduate Diploma. There is a good deal of satisfaction to be achieved from teaching at a graduate level. The students all have a bachelor degree in the first place; so they don't need the kind of basic study skill support students fresh from high school often need. Also I think our lecturers find teaching at level 7 refreshing and as one might expect, frequently challenging. The students really do ask questions; something that is almost an impossible dream at level 5!

We plan three new graduate diploma majors and will be submitting applications to NZQA shortly. Therefore our future research activities will focus on these new programmes as well as our current engagement. In the meantime, this second ICL Journal is no less eclectic than the first. Its variety reflects the range of activity and interests within the ICL community, and we celebrate our ongoing diversity.

Ewen Mackenzie-Bowie
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1 – Tuning with the Hermit Crab: Tātaiako for Māori and Pasifika Learners

Tahera Afrin and Makelesi Latu,
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Abstract
Boosting achievement of Māori and Pasifika is one of the six priorities mentioned by the Tertiary Education Strategy 2014-2019. Several research projects have been conducted in tertiary education sectors to promote Māori and Pasifika success (Thompson, 2012). This study is an added contribution to the literature that explores the success of Maori and Pasifika from the view of organizational change. Under a qualitative research paradigm, one Private Training Establishment (PTE) in Auckland is chosen as a case study to summarize the undertaken innovative strategies to support Māori and Pasifika learners' success. A summary and analysis also captures how the organization gradually engages with the concept of *Tātaiako* (Ministry of Education, 2011).
Twenty Early Childhood Education (ECE) learners and eight staff are chosen by convenient sampling. Focussed Group Discussion (FGD) and questionnaire are the research tools. The graduate students, the current students, and the academic and administrative staff participated and expressed ideas on nine key concepts around success. A metaphoric model of hermit crab (Thompson, 2012) is used to analyze the data. The findings show that a culturally competent organization should create an environment where the learners enjoy being in and then promote culturally-competent teaching. Individuality and flexibility around curriculum design and delivery are also important. The findings of the study are useful for both academic and administrative staff of the TEOs in New Zealand who implement the third priority of Tertiary Education Strategy 2009-2014.

Keywords
Māori and Pasifika learners, tertiary education, success, tātaiako concept, hermit crab model.

Tahera Afrin has been working as a teacher-educator for early childhood education (ECE) at ICL Business School since 2007. She has achieved several qualifications from universities in Bangladesh and New Zealand. From the beginning of her career, she has been actively engaged in research and the scholarship of teaching. She has led several organizational research projects investigating the tension between cultures in the classroom, both for international and also for Maori and Pasifika learners. Her research interests are the impact of culture in the process of *Ako*, adult learners and their diverse needs, and the transition and professional growth of learners as early childhood educators.

Makelesi Latu has been working in the ECE department at ICL Business School since 2011. She has taught in other tertiary education, such as at AUT University, tutoring to experience teaching adult Pasifika learners. Makelesi has achieved her qualifications from various universities and Tertiary providers in Fiji, Tonga and Auckland. She is currently engaged with research and teaching. Her research interests are taken from her language and culture as conceptual frameworks to frame the educational ideas of *Koloa* and *Talanoa*.

Glossary: He KupuWhakamarama
Tātaiako: cultural competencies for teaching and learning
Kanohikitekanohi: face to face
Manaakitanga: hospitality, kindness, generosity, support - the process of showing respect, generosity and care for others.
Whanaungatanga: relationship
Rangatiratanga: chieftainship, leadership of a social group
Kotahitanga: holistic development
Wairuatanga: spirituality of people
Karakia: prayer
Kaupapa Maori: Maori approach, Maori ideologies
Mihimihi: greeting and introduction
Kanohihui: face to face meeting
Tangatawhenua: local/indigenous people
Tuakana/Teina: older/younger siblings
Ako: learning
Whakapapa: family line, ancestry lines

Research Background

Education is one of the systems that draw immense influence from the surrounding political contexts. Te Tiriti o Waitangi, the founding document of Aotearoa New Zealand, establishes a commitment to protect the well-being of the Māori. Education sector reflects this through their policies and practices. With an integral link between the indigenous Māori and neighbouring Pacific Islanders, the emphasis also includes the success of Pasifika communities in education and other fields of social structure. Boosting achievement of Māori and Pasifika is one of the six priorities set by the Tertiary Education Strategy 2014-2019 (Ministry of Education and Ministry of Business, Innovation and Employment, March 2014).

Several research projects have been conducted in the tertiary education sector to find ways to promote Māori and Pasifika success (NZQA, 2008; Lātu, 2009; Thompson et al. 2009; Ministry of Education, 2008, 2011; Greenhalgh et al. 2011, Thompson, 2012; Williams, Broadley & Te-Aho, 2012). This research is an added contribution to the literature that compares the findings in the context of a Private Training Establishment (PTE) in Auckland. The study, therefore analyzes issues related to the achievements of Māori and Pasifika learners. It also looks at the organizational factors that are aligned with the concept of Tātaiako (translated as cultural competencies of teachers of Māori learners).

The background of this study involves an environmental switch in the organization (PTE) from a majority of international students to dominance of Maori and Pasifika learners. The whole dynamics of teaching-learning had to change to meet the cultural requirements of the learner-groups. The study investigates the issues related to those changes. Graduates who succeded through these efforts were invited to participate in the Focussed Group Discussion (FGD) and interviews to express their opinions of what worked and what did not work for them.

The aims of the research have both retrospective and prospective approaches. Alongside summarizing the innovative strategies taken by the participating organisation for helping learners achieve, the study also had a purpose to analyse the effectiveness of these strategies to better meet the cultural needs of the future learner groups.

Project Objectives

1. To summarize the innovative strategies taken by the organization which were effective for the learners to achieve;
2. To analyze further the cultural needs of the learner groups for the ongoing revision of the programme;
3. To know how the administration perceive efforts taken for Maori and Pasifika students;
4. To capture how the organisation gradually engages with the concept of *Tātaiako*;

and

5. To learn to what extent the success of the course leads the learners to other successes in life (Ministry of Education, 2011).

Strauss and Corbin's (1990) and (Punch's, 2005) qualitative research paradigm were undertaken for this study to compile the rich complex understanding of the social phenomena. A total of 20 learners, who either graduated from or have been studying at the department of Early Childhood Education (ECE) of the selected PTE, were chosen by convenience as sample for this research. In line with *Talanoa* (*leafaka*-Tonga, which means dialogue) framework, Focussed Group Discussion (FGD) was used as a research tool to collect information from them. Open-ended Questionnaire, as included, is used for collecting data from the staff. The graduate students, the current students, and the academic and administrative staff participated and expressed their ideas on nine key concepts around success, derived from Tātaiako framework (Ministry of Education, 2011andWilliams, Broadley, and Te-Aho, (2012). The nine key concepts are:

1. Manaakitanga

• The provision of support and mentorship (tuakana/teina and ako values) for all participants, contributors, observers and others to enhancetheir capacity of teaching and learning;
• The provision of safe teaching and learning internal and external environmentsthrough the use of karakia, waiata, te reo rangatira me önatikanga.

2. Whanaungatanga

• promoted as a model for ensuring that individuals and groups
take responsibility for themselves and for each other;
• Ethical obligations continually observed by the project team.

3. Rangatiratanga

• Acknowledgement of the rangatiratanga of all project participants, contributors and observers, and the provision of a safety net for all individuals through active facilitation and negotiation.

4. Kotahitanga

• Prioritisation of unity during the research project;
• Promotion of the wellbeing and safety of all whänau, hapü, iwi, participants, contributors, observers and others throughout the research project;
• Data analysis and results conducted using a collective approach reflective of ä Wairua, ä Tinana, ä Hinengaro, ä Whänau.

5. Wairuatanga

• Implementation of karakia and mihimihi practice at the start/finish of kanohikitekanohi hui;
• Promotion of the use of te reo Mäori me önatikanga throughout the project.

6. Tuakana/Teina

• Peer to peer: teina teaches teina, tuakana teaches tuakana.

7. Ako

• Peer-to-peer: younger-to-younger; younger-to-older, older-to-older, older-to younger similar to tuakana/teina concept although ako application can cross between genders.

8. Whakapapa

• Development and provision of tangatawhenua networks across the nation to enhance interrelationships.

Based on these themes, indicative questionnaire was formed which also were analysed in line with major documents related to Maori and Pasifika learners.

Table 1: Teaching-learning experiences;
Theme: Manatikanga (Expectations of culture)

Tātaiako framework	Pasifika Education Strategy
Teachers and students are expected to respect each others' culture	*The Pasifika Education Plan – 2013 – 2017 (PEP)* 's vision is to see 'Five out of five Pasifika learners participating, engaging and achieving in education, secure in their identities, languages and cultures and contributing fully to Aotearoa New Zealand's social, cultural and economic wellbeing'.

Table 2: Teaching-learning experiences;
Theme: Whanaungatanga (relationships)

Kaupapa Maori framework	Maori Education Strategy
Work collaboratively with each other and their family	It has to be connected to Maori philosophy and principles with strong respect for people.

Ethics approval for data collection was taken from the ethics committee of the participating Tertiary Education Organisation (TEO). The study was conducted within a time span of 18 months.

Two research tools were used in this study; Focused Group Discussion (FGD) for students (Appendix 1) and open-ended questionnaire (Appendix 2) for lecturers and administrative staff. The selection of these research tools has a rational of valuing Maori and Pasifika acknowledgements of togetherness, creating dialogue as a group and face to face (Kanohikitekanohi) approach (Lātu, 2009; Williams, Broadley & Te-Aho, 2012). Both tools had a background of a combination of documents; such as, Tātaiako framework, Kaupapa Māori framework, Māori Education Strategy and Pasifika Education Strategy. The following discussion show how themes for FGD schedule and questionnaire (Appendix 2) were derived from these documents. For both research tools, there were two sections; teaching-learning experiences (present) and preparedness for life (future).

The first section had three themes under it:

- Manatikanga (Expectations of culture)
- Tuakana-Teina (Peer support) and
- Whanaungatanga (Relationships)

The second section preparedness for life (future) had three themes under it:

- Rangatiratanga (Autonomy),
- Ūkaipōtanga (Family involvement) and
- Kotahitanga (United citizenship)

Discussion and Data Analysis with the developed tools, four sessions of Focus Group Discussion (FGD) and face-to-face interviews were arranged to collect data:

i) Kanohikitekanohi FGD with graduate students
ii) Kanohikitekanohi FGD with current students
iii) Face-to-face interviews for academic staff
iv) Face-to-face interviews for administrative staff

Collected data were analysed using manual coding and 'control F' function of Microsoft word.

The following section will be providing a discussion from the data analysis on the teaching and learning experience under the theme of expectations of culture.

Findings and Discussion

The findings show that the teaching-learning experiences are more meaningful and successful when the students feel they belong to the organization. If the expectations around them are high, they tend to perform better.

One of the influential factors identified for preparedness of life is for learners to see their fellow classmates achieving. The Māori and Pasifika students had a great sense of achievement after graduating from this course, as not only many of them found employment or pathways to further studies, but also they have lift up the prestige of their whānau and families.

Furthermore, the metaphoric model of the hermit crab (Thompson, 2012) was used for data analysis.


Figure 1: Hermit Crab

The metaphor of the hermit crab suggests, as applied by the researchers, four areas related to Maori and Pasfika learners: 1) Comfort zone of the learners as the shell of the crab, 2) Readiness of learners as the crab's maturity level to come out of the shell, 3) Environment of the learners as the sand that crab lies on, and 4) Culturally competent way of teaching and learning as the proper tuning of whistles to make the crab come out of the shell. This 4-dimensional model identifies valuable factors as described by the researchers:

- The hard shell is the crab's shelter. This means that the Maori and Pasifika students have a shelter and that can be their culture. They feel safe within their culture. They have their families, churches and communities and the ways they perform things to protect them. They feel that they are surrounded by strong and protective environment. For example, culturally the Maori and Pasifika students may hesitate to provide information about themselves and their families and whanau. They would feel uncomfortable to share anything with people they don't know.
- The environment where the crab is living. The crab lives on sand. It is soft for them to dig through for nutrients to live on. Maori and Pasifika students need staff who are empathetic, understanding and flexible in ways to motivate them to learn deeper and persist in their study.
- From our experience, Maori and Pasifika students can come out of their shell when they are ready. Initially they find it hard to come out of their comfort zone and hard to participate and contribute in their learning. On the other hand, when they are ready, they become more participative. The question is: When will they be ready? According to Piaget (1958), children develop and learn according to stages. Every child is different and unique in their own ways. Some may develop faster than the other. But when they are ready to learn they are inclined to develop and learn more and succeed.
- The crab can be whistled out. Whistling is one way that we can call the hermit crab to come out of the hard shell. Whistling is likening to the methodologies used to teach these Maori and Pasifika students. The teachers should know the right methods to approach these students in order to achieve and succeed in school.

The following are the findings from the FGDs with students:

1) Comfort zone of the learners contributes to the learner's success. The comfort zone is the culture where the learners come from. The followings are the steps that value the learner's comfort zone in school:

- Having more whanau times/days
- Need more school holidays (programme needs to break down in order to have holidays)
- Shared lunch more often
- School allowing mothers to bring in their children when no one to look after them at home so they can attend the class.
- Having extra classes in venues convenient to students'places.

2) Readiness of learners as the crab's maturity level to come out of the shell

- Home visits to see students who have difficulties attending classes
- Catch up classes for those who are behind with their works
- Providing transports if families unable to help students.
- Using technology as Facebook to communicate
- Motivation from partners and family members to move forward and continue their learning journey
- Partners share the responsibilities towards children, allowing students to come to school
- Family and whanau help and support i.e. stress free!
- Continue study in other tertiary providers
- Prepares students for future employment
- Become a better mother/wife/teacher
- Better perspective as a mother

3) Environment of the learners as the sand that crab lies on

- Provide highly trained and helpful teachers
- Ease of access to technological facilities and computers

4) Culturally competent way of teaching and learning as the proper tuning of whistles to make the crab come out of the shell. Culturally competent skills are to be gained:

- To build confidence in teachers as well as friends among themselves
- To network; knowing who and how to contact when in needs
- Communication skills, become confident in interacting within the class and voice own needs

5) Teacher’s ways of teaching to tune with the hermit crab has to incorporate:

- sharing personal experiences to make teaching fun;
- providing clear instructions;
- providing a lot of one on one time with students;
- allowing time to help students;
- checking student’s works in class to see if they are on the right track;
- having a sense of humour;
- being well prepared;
- using meaningful examples;
- using technology in teachings; and
- Using varieties of activities to demonstrate concepts being taught.

Comparison between Findings from Face-to-face Interviews with Academic Staff and Administrative Staff and FGD with Students

The academic and administrative staff had similar but different opinions around themes. They focused more on commitments whereas students focused more on immediate expectations. The organization’s policies and practices attended the immediate approaches with a purpose of creating long-term commitment among students for the course. The staff expected them to be a “contract” between learner and school whereby school will provide context, support and approaches to learning that maximises engagement and success. An acceptance of diversity was mentioned by the staff whereas students preferred to have respectful cultural celebrations. The organization overall changed its approach from accepting to celebrating.

Professional development of staff was encouraged by the organization. This helped the staff to provide more competent cultural orientation suitable for their Māori and Pasifika learners. This resulted in inviting all cultures to take part by sharing karakia, practices and values and achieving results in their own pace/rhythm of learning as much as possible.

Samples of FGD sessions are included here (Appendix 3) that approves the participants’ discussion above.

Conclusion

The metaphor of the hermit crab is related to Maori and Pasfika learners due to their culture. According to Helu-Thamanin Latu (2009) culture is a way of life of a discrete group, which includes a language, a body of accumulated knowledge, skills, beliefs and values. From this study, culture is central to the understanding of human relationships and acknowledges the fact that members of different cultural groups have unique systems of perceiving and organizing the world around them. The study also believes that the ways in which we have been socialized largely influence our behaviour and the way of thinking as our world view.

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Appendix 1

Discussion (FGD) model for graduate and current students

The following discussion guides are given to guide you as you share your own experiences in studying ECE. Each part requires your opinion by freely sharing with the other colleagues. All participants may withdraw from the FGD at any time. All views and opinions must be respected so that no one is made to feel uncomfortable. Completing or not completing this FGD will not affect or influence any aspects of your academic or pastoral care.

(The FGD will open and close with a Karakia. If participants want to volunteer to give the karakia, they may give it in their own languages.)

TheFGD session will follow the topics below.

1. Introduction of the:

- Researcher/ research assistant
- Study objectives

The following discussion will take place in the past tense for the graduate students' FGD and in the present tense for the current students' FGD.

[The first section is about learners' teaching-learning experiences during the course and the second section is about the learners' preparedness for life resulting from the course]

Learners' teaching-learning experiences during the course.

- What were/are your expectations of this course?

- How successful was/is the school in building relationship (whanaungatanga) with you?

- How did/does the school support (Manaakitanga - caring, hosting, generous tikanga/ protocols) your needs as learners so that you can achieve?

- What skills (Pūkengatanga) were/are shown by the teachers or administrators in school that help you achieve?

- What steps are taken by the school which make you feel that success is important?

[Success means when you complete a Unit Standard assessment or when you receive the certificate]

- What initiatives are taken by you/your whanau/your peers that help you achieve?

Learners' preparedness for life resulting from the course

- How did/does the course influence your sense of leadership and autonomy (Rangatiratanga)? What more could/can they do in this regard?

- How did/does the course prepare you for further studies/employment? What more could/can they do in this regard?

- How did/does the course value your family/whanau (collectivism /kotahitanga)? What more could/can be done in this regard?

*** Thank you very much for your time! ***

Appendix 2

Questionnaire for teaching and administrative staff

Learners' teaching-learning experiences during the course

- What expectations do you hold for Māori and Pasifika students studying the ECE Level 5 course?
- How do you define your relationship (whanaungatanga) with Māori and Pasifika learners?
- What initiatives do you take (Manaakitanga - caring, hosting, generous tikanga/ protocols) to promote students' achievement?
- What skills (Pūkengatanga) do you need for contributing to the achievement of Māori and Pasifika learners?
- What initiatives has the school taken to promote students' achievement?
- What initiatives have the learners taken to help them achieve?

Learners' preparedness for life resulted from the course

- How does the course influence students' leadership (rangatiratanga) skills? What more could be done in this regard?
- How does the course prepare the students for further studies/employment? What more could be done in this regard?
- How does the course value learners' family/whanau (collectivism /kotahitanga)? What more could be done in this regard?

Thank you very much for your time!!!!

Appendix 3: quotes from participants

Participant 1:

> "My name is XXX and I come from Samoa. I want to talanoa about my first time in the Institute (the participating PTE) but before I start that I have to go back and talk about last year where I started my Level 3 certificate in ECE. Before I come to the Institute I ask my friend cos I don't know where will I go. There is a Samoan lady who runs a preschool that I talked to and she told me about the Institute. She helped me with everything in filling my form then I started here on March 2014.
>
> On my first day, I did not know the students and the teachers. Later I learned to know the students, the teachers and the papers. My first problem is money. I don't have enough to pay the bills but I still come and I have got money from study link to pay my fee and the student allowance weekly. It's really going well in here for me because the teachers are very helpful. I understand the course more and the teaching is clear and I learn more. But what I don't like is when I came here I need to understand everything. Like when I came they didn't tell me about having the student ID card to help me with my bus fare discount. Still now I haven't got the card. I ask the girl in the front desk and she said to bring the photo. I brought the photo but she said not that kind. Today I bring my passport photo and I'm happy. But those are the things that I was not happy about are things that they must let the students know. I should say that it's very helpful here. Each paper I improve a lot as I learn new things. Things that are new that I haven't learn before. I am also happy that I went practicum. Just finish last two weeks ago. It was a good time with students as well as teachers. That's all."

Participant 2:

> YYY: Cook Islander 19 yrs old. "I started in the uni last year and I didn't like it because the students were not friendly and the lectures were so many up to 500students and all you do is to look at the front and take notes and don't really get to have that one on one with your lecturers even if you email them it will take forever for them to email back cos it maybe takes the whole 500 students to email them lol
>
> I have a change of heart because I love children and that helped me with raising a lot of my aunties children I helped them and with my little siblings I help my mom a lot. I did this a lot cos I was the kids leader at church and I thought it is good to come here and learn new stuff so that I can use in church as well."

Participant 3:

"I'm ZZZ and I'm Cook Island Maori. I didn't go school as I got pregnant at an early age. My daughter was my inspiration to study ECE so I wanna work with children with special needs, besides parenting my younger brothers and sisters nieces and nephews.

I chose the Institute because I went in FB and happened to find the information and I enrolled. My challenges was getting into the classroom after so many years and it was like totally new to me. I have a lot of family challenges and that's juggling the kids, being a students, study… trying to spend time with the kids and have own time to study. So it was hard and it was good to have mom there to help me and support me with couple hour and some nights so that I can go home and study.

Meeting new faces, new people like when I started here. Teachers were also so supportive. Challenges were parking, paying for parking as I don't have public transport. I had not certificate when I started but I walked out with a level 5 certificate. And I am the proudest mom ever."

Participant 4:

"I'm XYZ, I'm 27, a solo mother of 4. I left school at the age of 16 and I was not allowed to leave unless I get a job or have done a course. I did both. I went to study nanny at the papatoe a six months course level 3 and I completed that and I worked at Pak n save as well. After completed my course I joined up with the agency and I got lots of work in day cares up to working full time. Then I got pregnant and at 19 starting having kids and I haven't worked now for about 6 years. I came to the Institute last year and I got a casual job in Botany and it was a cool job as I wasn't working for years. I heard about the Institute on the radio and at the time, I felt it was right for me to come and study….. I found it was full time and overloaded too. I have lots of family issues so I was diagonised with post natal depression …crying… I had a family death…I broke up with my kid's dad after 11 years of being together and then my best mate committed suicide with her own daughter and they were found by ?...…… I tried to make things right for my kids…. Hasn't been easy at all!!!! Has been really good to come back and to see lots of people here made some real good friends and teachers were so helpful for me to be able to talk to. Seeing my friends complete this course and those started after me… make me wanted to complete this course..."

All these discussions were part of the organization when it was changing and adopting tātaiako. The research finding shows that tuning with the students with their struggles and strengths is the key to achieve success and everyone in the organization is a part of each success story woven in the organization.

2 – Men studying ECE: Perceptions and Reality from Inside and Outside the Box

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Abstract
Recently, there has been more research interest in the subject of Males in Early Childhood Education (ECE) (Russell, 2013; Friedman, 2010; Sumison, 2000; Farquhar et al., 2006; Farquhar, 1997). Several of these studies suggest how male participation in ECE can have a positive impact on young children's lives. Our study looked at whether there is widespread approval for men to undertake early childhood teacher education; with a rationale of exploring the issue from a wider perspective.

The data source included two groups of people to see how males studying ECE are perceived. The first group is from a relevant ECE sector, and comprises ECE teacher educators, teachers, students and parents. The second group of people comprises other professionals, not linked to ECE. Both groups were questioned to achieve four research goals: 1) to learn how the ECE relevant group perceive males studying ECE, 2) to learn how the non-ECE relevant group perceive them, 3) to analyse any difference in their perceptions, and 4) to collate proposals from both groups on how to increase male participation in ECE. Under a mixed-method research paradigm, 36 participants completed a six-item open-ended questionnaire; 18 ECE- relevant and 18 ECE non-relevant.

Purposive random sampling was used to include people of different genders and ages. Some of the participants are from a Private Training Establishment (PTE) and three early childhood services and others are from non-education industries in Auckland. The collected data was analysed by 2-level coding. The findings point to the ECE-relevant group being more supportive of men studying ECE; however, it also reveals that they overlook wider ideas on the reasons for low male participation. The findings are useful to the ECE sector for developing and implementing strategies to increase male participation.

Keywords
Male educator, early childhood education, perceptions.

Tahera Afrin has been working as a teacher-educator for early childhood education (ECE) at ICL Business School since 2007. She has achieved several qualifications from universities in Bangladesh and New Zealand. From the beginning of her career, she has been actively engaged in research and the scholarship of teaching. She has led several organizational research projects investigating the tension between cultures in the classroom, both for international and also for Maori and Pasifika learners. Her research interests are the impact of culture in the process of *Ako*, adult learners and their diverse needs, and the transition and professional growth of learners as early childhood educators.

Sandy Duncan has Bachelor's and Master's degrees in Russian from The University of Auckland and has been part of the Early Childhood Education team at ICL since 2007. Sandy worked for many years in ECE centres and in special education support, aged care and nannying.

Dr Syed Jamali has been working as a Lecturer at ICL Business School since 2011. His PhD research, obtained from Korea University, is on the curriculum development that reflects light on the respective curricula of OECD and non-OECD countries. His career has involved working in education, research and development organisations in Bangladesh, New Zealand and South Korea. He has presented original research papers in several international conferences and has published several research papers. Curriculum design and evaluation, Maori education, motivation, culture and early childhood education are his major research interests.

Research Project

Gendered occupation is one of the ideas discussed from a social science perspective (Blackburn, Brooks, & Jarman, 2001). It is presented as a situation where there is a disproportionately large number of men or women in a profession. On the contrary, gender-mixed occupation occurs where the proportion of men and women in a profession represents the proportion of men and women in the existing labour workforce.

Early childhood education and care (ECEC) is amongst one of many careers to be chosen by youth and also others who are ready for employment. A diverse range of early childhood education (ECE) services creates opportunities for both full-time and part-time provision as some of the services are full-day and some are sessional. Payment for ECE teachers is about average, lower than some jobs, but higher than many (TradeMe, n.d.). The workload and work responsibilities are manageable. Employment in this sector is rewarding as the results or effects are seen instantly. It is more of a profession than an occupation. In spite of these worthwhile features, that could easily attract the whole of the target group population, only half of the potential workforce (females) is attracted to this role as an early childhood educator. This career becomes an easy choice for many females whereas males rarely select this profession as a career. This article will be an attempt to investigate this universal issue in the New Zealand context.

Several researchers have raised this issue to bring about changes and have pointed out how important it is today for children's well-being to have access to more male educators. One of the prominent researchers working for more male in ECE is Dr. Sarah Farquhar. She has co-ordinated several research works and has revealed interesting facts. Farquhar (1997) in her study on male participation on ECE found out that most females enter early childhood teaching because they wanted to or because this is the only paid job they think they will be good at. In contrast, the male entry to this career is explained more from a background of unemployment (bankruptcy, redundancy or being unable to find any other permanent job). The reasons found out in this study for under-representation of males were due to: fears of accusations of child sex abuse, wages, the feminine nature of work, the status and prestige of working in ECE, perception of others as homosexual or not being a 'real man'. The study has included many different perceptions about male participation in ECE. However, the author concludes that there are many positive reasons of having more men working in ECE and little justification for their exclusion.

Other research conducted by Dr. Sarah Farquhar found six issues (Farquhar et al, 2006) around male participation in ECE that establish the fact that male participation needs to be increased. The facts presented in the study are:

1) The role of men in the family has changed over time, but ECE policy has failed to incorporate this change.
2) Young children do not get much male contact in total and they spend a lot of time in a female-dominated ECE environment.
3) ECE services encourage children to practice non-sexist play, but in reality they are presented with a contradictory picture.
4) Because other sectors are more available to women nowadays, it is important to open the ECE profession up to both genders to ensure that the ECE services get more suitable and also qualified ECE teachers, no matter whether they are male or female.
5) If women are concentrated in any particular profession, their opportunity to contribute to other sectors of the economy is lower.
6) NZ has a significantly lower rate of male participation compared to other countries around the world.

The study strongly recommended that males in ECE should be discussed and debated in Aotearoa New Zealand.

With the above-mentioned background, the current study shows perspectives towards male EC educators from different target groups. An ecological theoretical framework is considered and the gender disparity in Early Childhood (EC) occupation is explained from the Micro, Meso and Macro-systems of Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). For a young child aged between 0-5 years of age, a Micro-system consists of home and early childhood centres. With the increase in solo mother families alongside childcare centres with little or no male role models, the children may get a limited and biased idea of social life. Even in a Meso-system, where the interactions between two micro-systems are considered, having only female teachers to have partnerships with the family creates a cycle of accepting ECE as a female-only profession. The child gets a different experience in the exo-system, the places they visit occasionally, for example, parks, hospitals and shopping malls, and the father's or mother's workplaces. With the exception of their early childhood centres, they find both men and women working side by side in most of the other sectors. These conflicts either confuse or limit their developing sense of gender roles. A Macro-system, the last layer of development, consists of a governmental, cultural and altogether bigger picture of their life as a group. The policies and philosophy embedded in this system either can be supportive, or neutral, or negative in creating a non-biased environment for the children to experience.

The study here is an attempt to explore low male participation in the early childhood teaching from micro- and macro- level. The research, therefore, involves two types of people or participants. Some participants are related to the ECE sector, such as ECE lecturers and ECE students from a tertiary education organisation (TEO) in Auckland, early childhood (EC) staff from different ECE services, and parents whose children attend the ECE services. The other group of people are not directly linked to the ECE sector. They are the lecturers and students from a non-ECE department (Department of Business Studies) of the same TEO, or other professionals from other organisations. The rationale for including some ECE and some non-ECE participants is to receive an outlook from the 'public' in general who may or may not be directly linked to the ECE sector. The aim of the research was to find out the general perception of the public on why male participation in ECE is low, how this can be increased, how male ECE students are perceived, what type of barriers they may face in the classroom and workplace and whether there is a significant difference between male and female educators.

In line with the aim, the research tool included the following questions:

1. What is the main reason for low male participation in ECE?
2. What are the ways to increase the participation?
3. How are males studying ECE perceived by you?
4. What are the barriers male ECE students may face in the classrooms?
5. What are the employment barriers male EC educators may face at the workplace?
6. How do male ECE educators differ from female EC educators?

The study was successfully approved by the PTE's ethics committee. Purposive random sampling (for convenience by the researchers) was used to select sample from an open population. The questionnaire was then distributed amongst participants, in person, by post or online as convenient to each participant. The participants responded to the questions and returned the questionnaire to the researcher anonymously by post, only mentioning their background information that shows which of the following twelve groups of participants they belong to.

ECEL = Early childhood education lecturers
ECEMS = Early childhood education students (male)
ECEFS = Early childhood education students (female)
ECECS = Early childhood education centre staff
ECEPM = Early childhood education centre parent (male)
ECEPF = Early childhood education centre parent (female)
Non-ECE LM = Non-ECE Lecturers (male)
[lecturers from department of Business, Computing or Language]
Non-ECE LF = Non-ECE lecturers (female)
NECSM = Non-EC Students (male)
[Students from department of Business, Computing or Language]
NECSF = Non-EC Students (female)
NECP = Non-ECE other professionals
OP = Other Professionals

Three participants from each group amounting to 36 in total responded to the questionnaire. The first 18 of the participants are from an ECE-relevant group whereas the later 18 were the non ECE-relevant group. The data gathered were coded in themes. The result were analysed first according to different groups of participants, and then according to the themes arose from the responses.

The findings of the research were verified by using the dissemination approach. The draft paper was presented two times at two different research seminars and summit in Auckland and Wellington. The discussion arises from these are then integrated to the research findings.

For analysing data, they were first written down in different categories. Some examples are included here.

"In general, parents who send their children to day care or kindergarten are not 100% comfortable with male teachers taking care of young children. I think that it is probably because there must be direct contact between teachers/carers and children regarding changing clothes and nappies." ECECS 3

"It is education as well as care. Men are entering the teaching profession at primary, intermediate and secondary school levels but see ECE as more of a care giving role rather than education."
ECECS 1

"(The barriers could be) the idea that mothers are more similar to female teachers, they know better, they are more skilled" ECEL 1

"Introduce ECE in secondary schools in a way that male students would feel positive about it" ECEL 3

"I felt it wasn't allowed. I wanted to teach the children about the rules of football but the female teachers did not know about it at all." ECEMS 3

"They (male educators) are rougher and like to engage in sport and rough games." ECEFS 3

"As a mother of two young girls, I would want to get to know the male teacher, e.g. background, previous employment etc before I left my children in their care." ECEPF2

"The job is not suitable for male." ECEPM 3

"Traditionally females play more roles in childcare than males". Non-ECEL3

"Initiatives for changes need to be taken at all levels through the Goverment, the media, training organisations, employers, parents and educators." Non-ECE LM 1

"Advertise with males who look 'blokey" ...is important to increase male participation in ECE. Non-ECE LM 2

"Some female students of certain culture may feel uneasy as they are more used to see female EC educators" NonECE LF 2

"The males are already tired with own children, let alone caring for others' children in ECE." NonECE LM3

"Do females really want male ECE educators?' Non-ECE LF3
"Male students may struggle to speak in public, shy to talk. They are more likely not socialising in the classroom but being alone. They (males as educators) also may find it difficult as children always talk." NECSM 3

"Because of differences in gender, female teachers may use their full energy to do it (teach ECE), but not the males". NECSM 1

"If a man participates in ECE, he can be criticized by others telling him that he has a feminine side." NECSF 3

"If I know a man who is strong and straight studying ECE, I will be very surprised. He will be an exception." NECSF 3

"Males tend to be more into logic than arts compared to women for whatever reason....If they are young and could earn more in the other industries, I would feel it's quite weird. But if they like the job, then I guess it's OK." OP 2

At the second stages of analysis, these ideas were included in two categories (table 1).

Table1: Comments in two groups

ECE	Non-ECE
-Historical perception as a cause -Low pay -Discrimination -Many parties involved, like parents and educators, specially parents concern x4 - Details of sensitivity like people's resentment for physical contact and changing nappies	-Culture that dictates that women are primary caregivers -less than average pay in other jobs x2 -Requirement of other sectors with physical strength -Male don't like children as much as females

Table 1 continued with all ideas mentioned from both the groups of participants. Then, at the third stage of data analysis, two columns of table 1 were compared to find out similarities and differences between groups. Several tables were created to sort ideas in frequency under themes/ideas (table 2- table 6).

Table 2: Reasons for low male participation in ECE

Themes	ECE	Non-ECE
Socio-historical reason for low participation in ECE	~~////~~ ~~////~~ ~~////~~ ///	~~////~~ ~~////~~ ///
Need of other industries with physical strength		//
Requirements of soft skills associated with females	//	///
Males interest in challenging jobs	/	///
Difference in interest of males and females	/	~~////~~ /
Lower pay than other jobs	~~////~~ /	~~////~~
Media coverage of paedophiles/ suspect of paedophiles	///	////
Threat to gender identity	/	///
No/little experience with children	/	
Low awareness of demands	/	

Table 3: Perceived barriers to the males in ECE

Themes	ECE	Non-ECE
Stigma/being questioned	~~////~~ /	~~////~~
Parents concern	~~////~~ ~~////~~ ///	////
Distrust/Suspecting paedophiles	///	//
Discrimination	~~////~~	////
Study-materials/methods not male-friendly		//
Minority & isolation	~~////~~ ///	~~////~~ ////
Loss of learning opportunities	~~/~~	
Lack of appropriate support from colleagues	////	//
Employer's concern	////	/////
Males inability to Multi-tasking or other personal dispositions	~~////~~ ///	~~////~~ ~~////~~
Under representation in PD Networks/ decision making		//
Cultural barrier	/	/
Lack of male to male interaction/no male teacher	///	
No barrier	/	/

Table 4: Attitude to males studying ECE

Themes	ECE	Non-ECE
Positive	~~////~~ ~~////~~ ////	~~////~~ ////
Neutral	/	////
Negative	/	////

Table 5: Perceived difference between male and female EC educators

Themes	ECE	Non-ECE
No difference	////	////
Difference in skills and outputs	~~////~~ ~~////~~ //	~~////~~
Difference in characteristics	//	~~////~~ ////

The frequency analysis of these tables could reflect the ways society thinks on this issue. The reason for low participation of males in ECE profession is highly linked with the traditional social stigma of seeing childcare as females' job. Even though as mentioned earlier that ECE has a medium-earning status in the job market, low pay is identified as another big reason for a lower number of males coming for this profession (table 2).

Parental concern is perceived as one of the biggest barriers for males working in the childcare sector. It is interesting to note that over the period of time, the role of families and fathers have changed, but both group of parents (mothers and fathers) have concern about their babies to be looked after by males. However, the concerns were not explained in details to know if they were related to possibility of abuse, or they were due to the lack of experiences of males taking care of children. The other largest barrier perceived by, and sympathized with by people, were the ECE male educators being the minority in the sector. The participants in this research largely thought that both male early childhood educators and males studying towards ECE may feel isolated in their career and in the classroom. Along with many other barriers mentioned, these were the main struggles identified for the pro-active males in ECE (table 3).

Overall, participants showed a positive attitude towards the few males choosing ECE as their career. Characteristics of males and females were analysed by the participants to discuss how they may or may not bring differences in their practice with young children (tables 4 & 5).

Table 6 summarizes suggested ways to improve male participation in ECE and is included in the later part of discussion. Advertisements are the means to create public awareness and to increase potential men's interest in ECE, as found by the participants of this study. They stated how the advertisement of already existing male educators or the use of appropriate models may change the closed perception of people choosing their career. Changes in Government policy to promote male enrolment is another recommended strategy to increase male participation in ECE. Even though some participants did argue that Government policy to increase male participation may contradict the criterion of quality, overall an need was perveived for Government to be more pro-active around this issue.

This study also analysed to identify similarities and differences between the two groups' opinions. Two groups of participants, ECE and non-ECE groups, have many points raised that belong to both the groups. However, some interesting differences are noted between the two categories of participants.

Both groups were found very similar in rationalizing low male participation in ECE. The socio-historical background of the roles of males and females was identified as the major reason. Parents' concern/apprehension was mentioned by both groups, but was emphasized more by the ECE-relevant people than by the non-ECE group. Another difference shown was that the non-ECE group mentioned the requirement of males in other industries where physical strength is a criterion for recruitment. This was not raised by the ECE group. Differences in interest were also discussed often by the non-ECE group compared to only one mention by the ECE group. Females' general interest in children, family, music, arts and crafts was seen as an advantage or motivational factor in comparison with males' perceived lack of interest in those areas.

The ECE groups were found to be very supportive of males entering ECE. They mentioned how it was a good choice by the males. The children and the settings benefit from the male educators. The non-ECE groups were overall less supportive of males joining ECE, as many of them explained male early educators from a neutral or even negative background. They preferred that the males should have the freedom of choice. According to this group, males should be able to choose what they want to do, but should not be forced politically just because the sector needs more males.

There was another "near-far" difference identified between these two groups. The ECE groups were found to analyze the situation from the perspective of experience, whereas the non-ECE groups tended to perceive male educators from a neutral viewpoint. The ECE groups stated that all males that they had experienced in ECE were friendly and wonderful to work with. These experiences helped them to develop a positive viewpoint towards male EC educators. However, without any experience as such, the non-ECE group who commented positively about male participation in ECE did so from critically thinking over the issue. They thought that these males were courageous as they had chosen a non-traditional career and challenged social stereotypes.

To discuss the barriers, both groups covered peer isolation, but the non-ECE groups mentioned the barriers more from exo- and macro-systems, whereas the ECE relevant groups mentioned the barriers more from micro- and meso-systems. Only non-ECE groups mentioned how because of existing low numbers of males in ECE, they have a limited voice in decision-making processes and also have under-representation in professional development opportunities.

The complete research shows similarities and differences between people who are relevant to ECE and people who are not. Sadly, one of the common issues raised by both groups was the concern of physical contact with children. The difference between the two groups was only that the ECE group referred to the previously-debated cases of male EC teachers, whereas the non-ECE group talked more from a broad-spectrum how generally men in all spheres of life are often involved in the sexual abuse of the vulnerable, including children and women.

> *"Because of what's been going around for years (paedophile cases of teachers), the guys will not be interested in this profession as they would not like others to think about them in that way when they actually haven't done anything wrong."* ECE FS (ECE Female Students) 2

This situation needs to be changed. As a society, we need to change our pre-assumptions of individuals based on their gender. However, surely this is hard for us to achieve with a high crime rates, especially among men.

> *"Really, when you open a newspaper, you see all these horrible cases of sexual abuse to children, even to own daughters, by the men only. This, in general, brings a spontaneous negative impression to those great men who would be fantastic teachers. But that's how it is."* OPF (Other Professional Female) 3

As researchers, we would suggest though to think *around* this issue taking into account the health and safety policies that are usually in place at different early childhood settings in New Zealand and in many other developed countries. The practicality in a centre-based setting is quite reliable in terms of safe supervision, child safety and also adult safety. With the present legislation around safety and protection (Ministry of Education, 2008), it is an invalid fear that male educators may abuse children while changing nappies. The ECE settings have open and clear child protection policies and practices; for example, making sure that the toilet and nappy changing area is visible to others. It is not logical that the alarm of child abuse still remains in a grey area of parenting and teaching specific to any gender. This also raises concerns about the safety of male educators themselves. An earlier study discusses how men use self-protective strategies in relation to nappy changing and other physical intimacy compared to other colleagues in the ECE settings (Sumison, 2000).

The results of the study of both groups find numerous ways to increase male participation in ECE. The following table shows a range of ideas in summary.

Table 6: Suggested ways to increase male participation in the ECE

Themes	ECE	Non-ECE
Highlight significance for future/ from the past	/	///
Pay increase	/	/
Advertisements/ Change public perception	~~////~~ ~~////~~ /	~~////~~ /
Government policy related to males in ECE	~~////~~	///
Government policy related to false abuse accusations		/
Improved status of ECE	///	/
Targeted scholarships/reward		~~////~~
Looking at other industries		//
Inclusion in secondary School	///	//
Privatisation		/
Challenging work environment	/	//
Encouraging and assimilating father role in family	/	/
Collaboration at all levels including training org	////	/
Never thought of it	//	

An earlier research by Simpson (2005) shows how men who chose a non-traditional profession as a career are categorized in three types: 'seekers' (who actively chose the 'female' occupation), 'finders' (who did not actively seek a non-traditional career but who found the occupation in the process of making general career decisions) and 'settlers' (who actively chose the occupation, often as a result of dissatisfaction with a more 'masculine' job, and who then settled in their non-traditional career).

Some of the suggested ways in this research to improve male participation in ECE can specifically increase the number of 'seekers' compared to 'finders' and 'settlers'. If ECE as a career is presented to high school children as a suitable career for both males and females, the present situation can see a positive change over time. Targeted scholarships for males can also increase participation. However, scholarships to one gender can still be debated in terms of fairness and equality. In contrast, if we consider equity as a desired approach in education, and not equality, this debate can be won by the group of people who would like to see more males in ECE working alongside females.

Study Limitations

The study 'Males in ECE from Inside and Outside the Box' has a number of limitations. These are: sampling of convenience, small size of sample, specifically for quantifying data, and lastly, analyzing perceptions and not reality. Future researches can be conducted in this area to know how the gender-socialization of people can be changed not only in terms of family and personal life, but also in terms of occupation, career choice and social life.

Conclusion

People in general, who have had no experience of ECE, are yet to be more supportive of males choosing a career in early childhood. Young males, who are willing to be a part of the workforce, will still face confused looks from their friends and acquaintances, but when they enter into the world of early childhood, they might have a different realization.

The inside world of early childhood is not only more accommodating but also more welcoming of males as educators of young children than it used to be before. One of the early childhood educators Alan Stehli says, "At the centre, families and the children are very accepting. The children respond to me differently. They could be doing an activity, and when I come in, they seem more interested. Perhaps it's only because there are so few male teachers (Friedman, 2010:41)." Once the field is explored, interested males will find that it is not hostile anymore, rather the relevant people are more enthusiastic for male teachers. This positivism should be more widespread now. Male EC educators and male ECE students should not continue to live in a 'liminal' state, a term used by Heilbrun (in Overall, 1998) to describe a condition of being surrounded by the old concepts of what a group of individuals can do and should do. They should be given enough opportunities to prove themselves. The echo of solo fathers (Breiding-Buss, Smith & Walker, 2012: 189) saying, "I want to make people understand that I can do a good job!" is also heard from male early childhood educators. The people living inside or outside the box of early childhood should come forward to support these males.

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3 – The Importance of Innovation: The Case of ICL Business School

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Abstract
The academic field of innovation has gained popularity in the last decade with various journals dedicating whole issues to cover the various aspects of innovation theory. All NZ universities offer innovation studies in the form of a full programme or as a course under business studies. We also examined the 12 leading polytechnics in New Zealand, of which four offer programmes in innovation or courses in innovation studies. Internationally, we examined the top six innovation research centres, all of which covered various aspects of innovation process and management. Most institutes offer courses in entrepreneurship as part of their degree in innovation studies. However, most institutes do not offer specific courses in international business aspects as part of their innovation studies. This report is divided into three parts: the first part gives a general overview of innovation theory studies from an academic perspective; the second part benchmarks the ICL Business School programme against leading institutes in NZ and overseas; and the third part gives a paper-by-paper explanation of each course, the leading lecturer, and the rationale for including the paper in the programme. We emphasize various aspects of innovation and international studies as we aim to encourage links to international markets and we see the importance of the internationalization of innovation, specifically, since our target market is international students.

Keywords
Innovation, innovation research, entrepreneurship, international business, graduate diploma, International Business Innovation.

Dana Cumin finished her Master of Commerce in collaborative innovation for product development from The University of Auckland in 2011. She presented papers on the topic at the International Society for Professional Innovation Management Conference 2013, the World Business Capability Congress 2012, as well as at the Business & Economics Society International Conference 2012. Dana was lecturer at ICL Business School from 2010, and later research manager and the inaugural programme leader of the Graduate Diploma in International Business Innovation. In 2013 Dana left ICL to take a full-time PhD at The Universtiy of Auckland.

The following paper was presented as part of the application to NZQA for course approval for ICL's Graduate Diploma in International Business Innovation, in September 2013.

Innovation as a major field of study and the NZ context

The importance of innovation to economic growth has been acknowledged for decades (Schumpeter, 1943; Fagerberg, 2003; OECD, 2005, de Jong & den Hartog, 2010). Furthermore, the literature suggests that companies need to engage in constant innovation in order to survive in the market place (Van de Ven, Angle & Poole, 1989; Tidd, Bessant & Pavitt, 2001; Roberts, 2002; von Stamm, 2003). And a 2012 report by the UK government states that, "improving the innovation system will directly support two of the government's priorities for growth, by helping to make the UK the best place in Europe to start or grow a business and encouraging investment and exports." (UK Government, 2012).

Innovation theory has shifted over the years in response to an ever-deepening understanding of processes and players. The shift in innovation theory, apart from a natural course of new research done in the field, also came from realizing that innovation is a process, and a complex one, where no one cause can instigate it. The paradigm changes came about due to social and technological changes such as the knowledge transfer and the mobile workforce enabled by rapid technological progress. As the innovation field evolved so did the call to further investigate the effect that external links have on innovation (Enkel et al., 2009; Dahlander & Gann, 2010; Gassmann et al., 2010). The importance of understanding external links to innovation was also evident in the special June 2006 edition of the R&D Management Journal. The whole issue was devoted to the discussion of how the innovation process had become more open. Furthermore, the Production Planning & Control Journal published a special March issue on Collaborative Innovation (Mendibil, Bititci, Smith, & Wang, 2013). The issue included nine articles covering issues pertaining to open innovation (including barriers), university-industry collaboration, and practice-based innovations.

From an international perspective, NZ was ranked low in terms of global competitiveness in comparison to other OECD countries (The New Zealand Institute, 2007). In the latest world economic forum report, NZ ranked 23rd out of 144 countries in terms of global competitiveness (Schwab, 2012) where one of the top three hurdles was insufficient capacity to innovate. It has been reported that NZ is lagging behind other developed countries with its international economic activity, especially exporting and foreign direct investment activities (Skilling & Boven, 2005). This is due to several reasons. First, technology-intense exports were low as most exports were land based (Skilling and Boven, 2005). Second, NZ had low R&D expenditure, as well as low rates of patenting. This ranked NZ low in terms of national innovation rates in comparison to other countries (Crawford, Fabling, Grimes & Bonner, 2007). NZ was called an average performer in OECD reports as well (McCann, 2009) and NZ's innovation ecosystem attracted less investment than other developed nations (Boven, 2009). Boven (2009) suggested that the country's economic prosperity might be hindered because of this. However, things are improving. Though in The Global Competitiveness Index NZ ranked 23 out of 144 countries this year, up from last year (25 out of 142 countries).

Also, in the Global Innovation Index 2012, NZ was ranked 13 out of 141 countries, up from the previous year 2011 (11 out of 125 countries) (Dutta, 2012).

In a recent innovation survey, the then ‘NZ Ministry of Economic Development’ found that almost half of all businesses in NZ (46%) reported innovation activity and that 40% of businesses reported a new or significant innovation activity (Statistics NZ, 2012). In comparison, in the UK over the same period, 37% of firms were innovation active (UK Government, 2012) and in Australia it was reported as 46.6% (Australian Government, 2013). Furthermore in NZ businesses which innovate were likely to engage in exporting, investing in expansion, or in R&D activities. In fact, over half of innovative companies are engaged internationally while only 27% are non-innovators (Statistics NZ, 2012).

In terms of profit, it was reported that innovators’ profitability was twice that of non-innovators and that businesses spent $1.7B on product development activities in 2011 alone with SMEs being the biggest spenders (Statistics NZ, 2012). However, businesses that had low product development expenditure spent more on marketing. In terms of sources of innovation, 70% of innovating companies claimed that existing staff were the main sources of ideas and information for innovation (Statistics NZ, 2012). It was reported by Jaruzelski, Loehr, & Holman, (2013) that companies mostly turn to customers for ideas generation (42%), followed by traditional market research (31%), and feedback from sales and customer support (22%). However, internally-focused mechanisms were the most useful tools for converting those ideas into products (Jaruzelski, Loehr, & Holman, 2013).

In terms of barriers to innovation, it was reported that two main reasons prevent firms from innovating. These are a lack of management resources (15%) and a lack of finance (19%) (Statistics NZ, 2010). These results repeated in the 2012 survey (14% and 21% respectively) (Statistics NZ, 2012). This is understandable, given that the majority of companies in NZ are SMEs and so access to funds or skilled staff is a challenge. This was also reported in other research conducted by Storey, 1994; Nieto and Santamaría (2010). However, this can be addressed through links to external resources for innovation purposes. Fagerberg (2005) noted, “This [learning from interacting with external sources] is of particular importance for smaller firms, which have to compensate for small internal resources by being good at interacting with the outside world” (p.11). Indeed, recent studies have shown that large firms and SMEs alike engage in open innovation and that SMEs can overcome their lack of resources by opening up their innovation process (Gassmann et al., 2010). While opening up innovation channels can help SMEs to compensate for their lack of resources, Gassmann et al. (2010) added two main reasons for international alliances with large firms: one was to be closer to their target market and lead users; and the second was to tap into the best talent available worldwide. The later was also supported by the OECD (2004).

Though managers' perception is that lack of finance is the main hurdle to innovation, other researchers disagree. NZ's expenditure on R&D as a percentage of GDP was found to be less than most of OECD countries, and so NZ may be thought of as comparatively less successful. However, Nobelius (2004) noted that R&D expenditure did not always translate into successful innovation – it was rather the successful process (process management) of producing and bringing a product to market that determined its success (Nobelius, 2004). This sentiment, that emphasising entrepreneurship and the process of innovation, is more effective in introducing new innovations and subsequently boosting economic development, has been shared by other authors (Biemans, 1991; Wessner, 2005). In a country like NZ, which is small in size and with limited resources, high R&D expenditure may not be viable. Instead, there was recognition of the value of collaboration to encourage economic growth, especially for NZ to explore external collaborations with other countries, specifically with Australia (Skilling, 2008). The United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO) also recommended firms, regions, and countries to connect with external entities for skills and technologies, exploit these relationships, and learn from one another (Harvey, 2003).

Jaruzelski, Loehr, and Holman (2013) emphasized that it is not how much money you spend on R&D, but how you spend it and how you manage it that matters most. In the recent Global Innovation 1000 studies on R&D spending, the point that R&D expenditure increases financial performance was refuted, yet again. The point the writers were making was that the management of innovation processes & decision making, the way money and other resources are used, as well as the quality of their workers, matter more than investing in R&D. Worldwide, computing & electronics is the highest R&D spender sector worldwide with 28%, followed by healthcare with 21%. China and India were the biggest spenders on R&D in 2011 with 27.2% (total of $16.3 billion) while the rest of the world, during the same time period, spent 12.2%, and North America spent 9.7%. China's and India's expenditure on R&D in 2004 were approximately 1.5% of revenue. In 2011 they were almost 5% (slightly below the USA). Having said that, the ten leading innovative companies (those who are effective at idea generation and conversion) in the world are majority American firms. The view that R&D expenditure does not necessarily correlate with high financial returns highlights the disposition that countries, and especially small ones such as NZ, are able to introduce, and should compete successfully in introducing, innovations through strengthening other capabilities. These capabilities are in the core of the programme we are proposing: strengthening the management of innovation, assessing and evaluating innovation pathways and processes, and identifying market opportunities while evaluating these from an international perspective.

Institutes in NZ and Worldwide Overview

Business courses in Innovation from eight universities and 12 polytechnics were examined (For a list of institutes see page 13). All universities offer a degree in international business. As part of this degree, some offer courses in entrepreneurship and innovation. The following universities offer specific degrees in Innovation: Lincoln University, University of Canterbury, Otago University, and The University of Auckland, which offer the following degrees:

- The University of Auckland offers: a Certificate, Graduate Diploma, and Masters in Innovation and Entrepreneurship (The University of Auckland 2012a, b). Courses include: Finance, Innovation & Entrepreneurship, Marketing, Innovation Management, Technology & Innovation for Business Growth, Project Management & Report Writing, and Internship & Report.
- Lincoln University: Bachelor of Entrepreneurship, Innovation, and Commercialization. However, no specific innovation courses were noted. The following specific courses were offered: Financial Information to Management, Management, Marketing, Leadership, Business Plan, Entrepreneurship & SME Management, Management Accounting, and Financial Management (Lincoln University, 2011a).
- Lincoln University and The University of Canterbury collaborate to offer a Graduate Certificate in Science Innovation and Entrepreneurship (GradCertScIE). This degree includes courses about Innovation, IP, Management & Governance, Business Plan Writing, Evaluating a Business Opportunity, Science & Entrepreneurship, Managing Change, Diversity in Organizations, and International Management & Entrepreneurship (University of Canterbury, 2013; Lincoln University, 2011b).
- Otago: Postgraduate Certificate in Technology and Entrepreneurship (PGCertTE) (practical degree focusing on innovation and commercialization) specific courses: Technology and entrepreneurship, Business evaluation, design for technology, feasibility analysis, marketing and selling (Otago University, 2013).

Four polytechnics out of the 12 surveyed offer a degree in Innovation and Entrepreneurship:

- Otago Polytechnic (Otago Polytechnic, 2013): The programme focuses on start-ups and SMEs management with elements of corporate entrepreneurship and professional practices.
- Christchurch Polytechnic Institute of Technology (CPIT, 2012): The programme covers innovation and creativity, entrepreneurship, strategic planning for small business, managing for growth, and product development. Students will also work with a business for a minimum of 400 hours applying their learning and completing a research project for the host organization.

- Manukau Institute of Technology (Manukau Institute of Technology, 2013): As of 2013 this programme is offered as a Grad Dip as well. This programme covers courses in accounting, communication, culture, law, economics, marketing, computing as well as strategic planning for SME, entrepreneurship, innovation and creativity, managing for growth, and product development.
- Unitec Institute of Technology offers courses in innovation and entrepreneurship as part of their Bachelor of Business Management degree: Innovation & Entrepreneurship BSNS 5391 (Unitec Institute of Technology, 2013a) and Enterprise Creativity, Design & Innovation - APMG 8118 (Unitec Institute of Technology, 2013b).

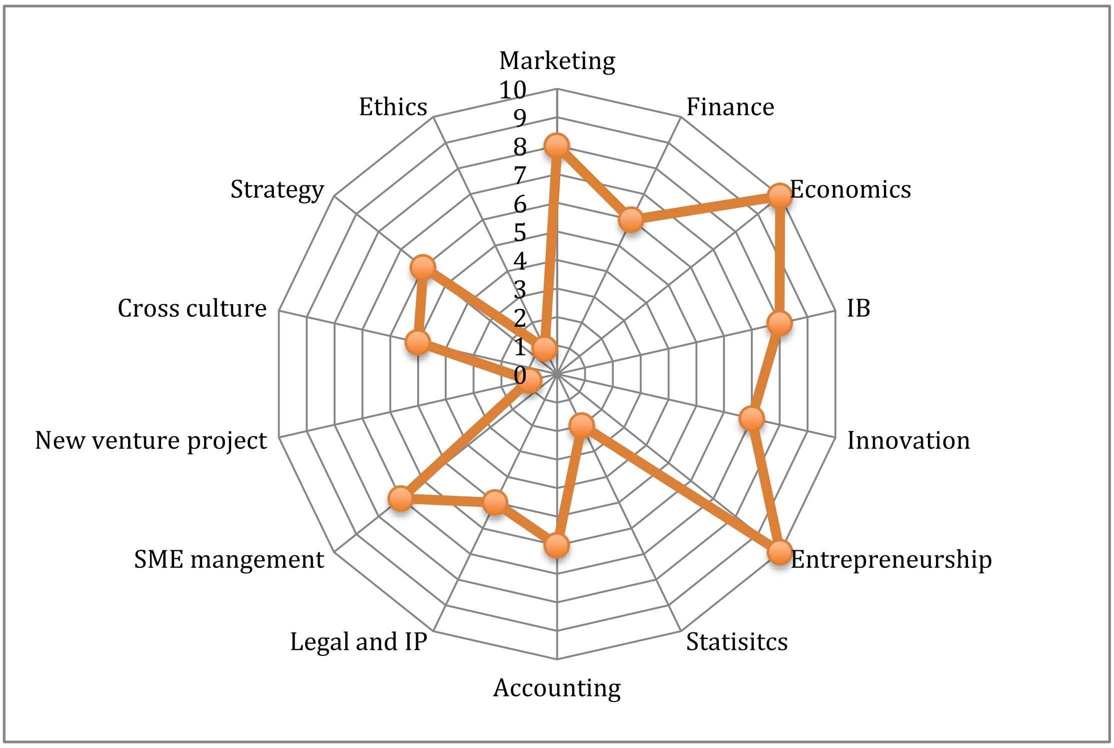

Figure 1: Chart showing courses offered by NZ universities and polytechnics, as above.

Our programme was benchmarked against six other leading international institutes:

- Innovation Studies Centre (ISC) UK: part of the Imperial College Business School. Established in 2003 funded by a government agency Engineering & Physical Sciences Research Council (EPSRC). Their research focuses on the process and management of innovation as well as the socio-environmental consequences of innovation Imperial College London. (2013a). Four themes are funded by the EPSRC: Open and Distributed Innovation, Business Model Innovation, Systems Services & Design, and Diffusion of Innovation Imperial College London (Imperial College London, 2013a). Two other themes are supported by other sources: Inclusive Innovation, and Strategic Entrepreneurship (Imperial College London, 2013b).

- UC Davis California: Centre for Science and Innovation Studies (CSIS) (UCDavis, 2013). Their research focuses on collaboration, innovation process, IP, and knowledge transfer.
- The University of Edinburgh: Science, Technology and Innovation Studies (STIS) consist of the Institute for the Study of Science, Technology and Innovation (ISSTI) established in 2000 (STIS, 2013). The centre is a research network including the business school and the Centre for IP & Technology Law in Law.
- University of Minnesota Rochester: Centre for Learning Innovation (CLI) (The University of Minnesota Rochester, 2013). Emphasis on collaboration, change, leadership, creativity, sustainability, global leveraging of technology/culture/foreign policy. Established the Strategic management & Entrepreneurship Department in the Carlson School of Management. Emphasis collaboration, leadership, ethics, strategy, knowledge creation, and innovation.
- The University of Manchester: The Manchester Institute of Innovation Research (MIOIR). Emphasis on the management of R&D, science policy, entrepreneurship, and sustainability, strategy and innovation management, innovation policy, sustainability, economic development. Consumer, Retail, Innovation & Service (CRIS) Centre: emphasis an organisational micro-level perspective of innovation. Meaning, they are concerned with the management of innovation.
- Centre for Innovation, Research and Competence in the Learning Economy (CIRCLE), Sweden: they established four research platforms Economics of Innovation, Entrepreneurship and Innovation, Globalization of Innovation, and Innovation Systems and Innovation Policy (Circle, 2013a). Education level postgrad. As part of the masters 'Business & Innovation' they offer three courses: Entrepreneurship in New and Established Ventures, Innovation Management, Globalization and Innovation (Circle, 2013b).

Reviewing the themes and courses in the above institutes we find that all institutes are concerned with innovation management and advancement. The question is not whether to study innovation, but rather what aspects of innovation should be studied. In the ICL Business School programme, we are aiming to attract international students and so we have incorporated international business studies with elements of innovation management, commercialisation, and innovation pathways.

International Business and Innovation are not offered together in most institutes, both domestically and internationally. However, innovation and entrepreneurship are complementary topics and most institutes in NZ incorporate courses for each. However, internationally, innovation takes centre stage while entrepreneurship courses are offered under the umbrella of innovation research. Though we made the decision not to offer specific courses in entrepreneurship, we acknowledge the importance of entrepreneurship in exploring and instigating innovation, and so we offer elements of corporate entrepreneurship and international entrepreneurship as part of our innovation courses. Various institutes offer specific courses in IP, we decided to cover the international legal environment in course 6201 (International Business) as we believe this issue can be covered as an element in the course rather than a full course not to compromise other topics that we felt were more important to offer.

In this programme we emphasise the elements to consider when introducing and managing innovation activities in a cross-cultural / cross-border environment. We are concerned with how elements of ethical and cross-cultural issues affect innovation, as well as how economics and international business issues affect innovation management and internationalisation of innovation. In this programme we are trying to address these issues and enhance connectivity and external links for innovation purposes by addressing global matters to encourage connectivity and to fit in with our target market.

Career prospects

Students who want to continue to postgraduate studies and use this degree as a preparation or students who want to add to their existing degree a specialisation different to their major.

Courses and Rationale

6280 International Business: Lead Lecturer: Dr. Dayal Talukder	
Description: This paper introduces students to the international business environment and examines a wide range of current issues pertaining to business management across national borders.	Rationale: Markets are no longer one-dimensional. With technology progression and on-line trading, issues of globalisation are essential for exploration and management of innovation. Students need to consider international business concepts to assist with internationalisation of innovation and to understand how cross-border links can affect innovation. It is important to understand the effect of external links on innovation (Enkel et al., 2009; Dahlander & Gann, 2010; Gassmann et al., 2010; Mendibil, Bititci, Smith, & Wang, 2013).
6220 Introduction to International Economics : Lead Lecturer: Dr. Dayal Talukder	
Description: This paper introduces students to the theoretical contexts and practical aspects of international economics. Students will be able to critically analyse and evaluate these contexts and be able to apply theories of international trade to a broad range of situations – either a particular country perspective or an international environment.	Rationale: Financial markets are intertwined and are affecting one another. Countries and regions do not operate in a vacuum as open innovation and collaboration (Gassmann et al., 2010; Mendibil, Bititci, Smith, & Wang, 2013) as well as increasing international trade affect and are affected by the international financial system. As this programme is concerned with internationalisation of innovation, understanding the micro and macro environment of trade and financial systems are essential.
6281 Business Ethics: Lead Lecturer: Dr. Maria V. Umali	
Description: This paper takes a person-centred approach to help students understand and evaluate ethical debates in business, including debates regarding corporate social responsibility, and to encourage students to engage with their own ethical perspectives.	Rationale: It is important to understand how innovation affects the individual and society as well as how corporations need to consider their social responsibility when exploring and introducing innovations. The ISC made it a priority to study the socio-environmental consequences of innovation (Imperial College London, 2013a).

7240 International Marketing & Digital Media: Lead Lecturer: Brent Hawkins	
Description: This paper equips students with a broad understanding of marketing principles set within a global context. Students will critically examine the future of global marketing, including contemporary issues of digital marketing	Rationale: As this programme aims at internationalisation of innovation, students need to understand marketing elements in the global era. Also, in the recent innovation survey completed in NZ, it was reported that innovative firms with low R&D expenditure, instead, invest in marketing (Statistics NZ, 2012).
7280 Intercultural Relations: Lead Lecturer: Dr. Maria V. Umali	
Description: This paper encourages students to critically reflect on intercultural theories and debates within a broad communication-based context. Business and management approaches are applied to this discussion as students reflexively explore their own intercultural viewpoints	Rationale: Tapping into talent worldwide to help with information for innovation and access to markets are two main reasons for international alliances for innovation purposes (Gassmann et al., 2010; OECD, 2004).
7273 Corporate innovation: Strategy to Implementation: Lead Lecturer: Dr. Siham El-Kafafi	
Description: This paper aims to apply innovation concepts and initiatives to business situations. Students will conduct their own research, think critically and collaborate with others to develop an innovation strategy that could be implemented in an existing organization.	Rationale: The link between R&D expenditure and innovation output has been criticised by many, saying that what contributes to successful commercialisation is not the amount of funds but rather the management of the process (Jaruzelski, Loehr, & Holman, 2012; Nobelius, 2004). Nevertheless, investing heavily in R&D in China and India will increase the need to learn how to manage the R&D processes (i.e. the management of innovation) (Jaruzelski, Loehr, & Holman, 2013). 46% of firms in NZ reported innovation activity (Statistics NZ, 2012) Also, ICL's two main export education

	markets are India and China. Both countries are the biggest investors in R&D (Jaruzelski, Loehr, & Holman, 2013) and so innovation management is likely to become more crucial.
7271 Open Innovation: Lead Lecturer: Dr. Siham El-Kafafi	
Description: This paper examines the recent paradigm shifts in innovation theory, whereby paths to innovation are concerned with outer-firm sources. The paper provides students with an understanding of the evolution of innovation theory from its linear model to a more open strategy and evaluates how this reflects social and technological changes. In this paper open innovation in international firms, in particular, is emphasized with students applying concepts and theories to 'real-life' cases.	Rationale: Innovation theory has shifted over the years to reflect technological and economic changes. The shift towards a dynamic aspect of innovation where paths to innovation are concerned with outer-firm sources reflects the shift to the knowledge economy of the global era. This transition has made way for "open innovation" in the interaction between firms and individuals with their external links. The OECD encourages regions, firms, and countries to collaborate to enhance development and knowledge transfer (Harvey, 2003; (Gassmann et al., 2010; OECD, 2004). Over half of innovative firms in NZ engage internationally and it was found that innovative firms in general are more likely to engage in exporting or investing in expansion (Statistics NZ, 2012).
7272 Applied Innovation: Lead Lecturer: Dr. Siham El-Kafafi	
Description: This paper examines the implications of innovation and how the capacity of innovation can change and transform established systems. To this end, students will review and assess recent case studies on innovative technologies, such as social network channels. In addition, students will exercise applied creativity to innovation in the form of a class project to launch an innovative project for a real organisation.	Rationale: This is a practical course where students need to explore an opportunity and apply their knowledge of process management for innovation purposes. There are countless of reports and research supporting the importance of process management (as discussed above).

Academic Institutes

Universities in NZ:
1. The University of Auckland
2. Lincoln University
3. AUT
4. Waikato
5. Victoria
6. Massey
7. Otago University
8. University of Canterbury

Polytechnics in NZ:
1. Otago Polytechnic
2. Bay of Plenty Polytechnic Taurange
3. Open Polytechnic
4. Whitireia NZ
5. Christchurch Polytechnic Institute of Technology (CPIT)
6. Aoraki Polytechnic
7. Tai Poutini Polytechnic West Coast NZ
8. Unitec
9. Manukau Institute of Technology
10. Southern Institute of Technology
11. Eastern Institute of Technology (EIT)
12. Nelson Marlborough Institute of Technology (NMIT)

International Research Institutes

1. Innovation Studies Centre (ISC) UK
2. UC Davis California: Centre for Science and Innovation Studies (CSIS)
3. The University of Edinburgh: Science, Technology and Innovation Studies (STIS)
4. University of Minnesota Rochester: Centre for Learning Innovation (CLI).
5. The University of Manchester: The Manchester Institute of Innovation Research.
6. Centre for Innovation, Research and Competence in the Learning Economy (CIRCLE).

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4 – Defining Nonsense Poetry

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Abstract

The aims of the paper are to define nonsense poetry as a genre of literature in itself or a sub-genre of Fantasy. I look first at the origins of nonsense poetry and then look at the causes of what is seen as a golden age of nonsense, in the middle to late nineteenth century: principally the revolution that was affecting children's literature from the 1840s. Then I look at the types and mechanisms of nonsense, in particular the world-turned-upside-down kind and the invented-words kind, and the different elements of the "game" of nonsense, the phonological and the syntactic, leading onto the semantic. Finally I look at the purposes of nonsense poetry, particularly its entertainment and escapism, most poignantly and elegantly depicted by the master of nonsense, Edward Lear.

Keywords

Nonsense poetry, nonsense verse, limericks, Edward Lear, Lewis Carroll, the world turned upside down, invented words, escapism, entertainment.

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Introduction

Dulce est desipere in loco
(It is pleasant to play the fool on occasion)

Horace (Odes, IV, xii, 28)

Malcolm (1997) and Grigson (1979) refer to nonsense poetry as a genre, and Gangopadhyay (2007) suggests Nonsense as one of two sub-genres of Fantasy, the other being Fairy-tale. The challenge is to identify the characteristics of the genre, and to achieve this it is logical to look first at the origins of nonsense poetry. I will then look at the causes of what is seen as a golden age of nonsense, in the middle to late nineteenth century, principally the revolution that was affecting children's literature from the 1840s. Then I will look at the types and mechanisms of nonsense. Quentin Blake (1996), in his introduction to *The Puffin Book of Nonsense Verse* suggests there are at least two kinds of nonsense: "the world-turned-upside-down kind and the invented-words kind". I will look more closely at these two kinds. Pat Pinsent (2005) suggests "A salient characteristic of nonsense is 'game', a playing with language at all levels: the phonological …; the syntactic …; and the semantic". I will look at different elements of the "game" of nonsense, leading onto the semantic, which Pinsent suggests can stretch as far as the actual form of the poem. At this point I will take a brief look at concrete poetry. Finally I will look at the purpose of nonsense poetry, particularly its entertainment and escapism, most poignantly and elegantly depicted by the master of nonsense, Edward Lear.

Origins

In his introduction to *Poetry for young People / Edward Lear*, Mendelson (2001) suggests "Hickory Dickory Dock" is the ancestor of the limerick. Certainly the pattern of rhyme is the same, although the metre is not. "Hickory Dickory Dock" is a series of iambs, embraced by dactyls in the first and last lines; limericks consist predominantly of anapæsts with iambs at the start of lines 1, 2 and 5. (Note: earlier versions of Lear limericks have lines 3 and 4 written as one, whereas the "modern" form of the limerick nearly always has five lines.) And according to Haughton (1988) the Opies suggest that "Hey Diddle Diddle" is "probably the best known nonsense verse in the language". Iona Opie's (1996) *My Very First Mother Goose* has the standard version:

Hey diddle, diddle, the cat and the fiddle,
The cow jumped over the moon;
The little dog laughed to see such fun,
And the dish ran away with the spoon.

This is nonsense in that there are three or four "world-turned-upside-down" instances; the cat juxtaposed with the fiddle, the cow jumping over the moon, the dog laughing and the dish running away with a spoon. "The cat and the fiddle" is frequently illustrated by a cat playing the violin, as is the case with Rosemary Wells' illustrations in Opie (1996). Without this there would be only three "world inversions". It has a possible word invention in "diddle", although according to Chambers (1998) this is a kind of Scottish mouth music. Certainly "diddle, diddle" is, as Haughton (1988) puts it, "freed of obvious semantic reference"! And by all means this nursery rhyme has many "game" characteristics, phonological, syntactic and semantic.

Alchin (2013) and others have suggested that there is an historical interpretation to many nursery rhymes. "Ring a Ring o' Roses" is generally believed to refer to the Black Death or bubonic plague, and there is a theory that "Hey Diddle Diddle" actually parodies a "love triangle" involving Queen Elizabeth, the Earl of Essex and Lettice Knollys, one of Elizabeth's ladies-in-waiting. Haughton (1988) mentions several *Oxford English Dictionary* references on "nonsense" from the nineteenth century and highlights the simple underpinning definition of "spoken or written words which make no sense or convey absurd ideas". "Hey Diddle Diddle" fits very neatly into both sub-definitions. So it is fairly clear that this particular nursery rhyme is indeed an early example of nonsense verse, irrespective of potential roots in parody.

Haughton (1988) goes on to suggest that some of the origins of nonsense may lie in the "speech-play" of children, observed by Chuvovsky and Pushkin. I would like to submit that my boy Maxim's composition, below, recorded when he was aged 3 years 1 month, is as eloquent as the "Kunda munda" of Chuvovsky or the "Indijanda" of Pushkin.

> Tock!
> Tickatock tickatock
> Tick tock tick tock
> Ticka ti-tickatock
> Tick tock tick tock
> Ticka ti-tickatock
> Ticka ti-tickatock
> Tick tock atickatock
> Di di didididi
> Ticktock atickatock
> Ticktock atickatock
> Rab rabbit!
> Ticka tock
> Ticka ticka tock
> Ticka tock ticka tock
> Ticka ticka tock
> Rabbit!

However, the grander view that *origins* of nonsense poetry lie in nursery rhymes is challenged by Noel Malcolm (1997), when he suggests: "the argument that nonsense poetry depended on the existence of a substratum of folk nonsense (nonsense nursery rhymes …) seems to reverse the true order of transmission”. He proposes that although the origins lie in the Middle Ages, nonsense poetry as a “self-conscious genre” dates from the burlesque and the early seventeenth century Fool, notable in *Twelfth Night* and *King Lear*. Malcolm (1997) dispels the myth created by “early modern writers” (Chesterton among them) that nonsense literature springs up here and there apparently at random, and submits that it is rather “a literary genre with a particular history … and possessing a peculiarly close relationship – largely a parodic one – to the ‘high’ literary conventions of the day”. He goes on to suggest that the “literary nonsense poetry of the seventeenth century was invented by … Sir John Hoskyns, in 1611”. Malcolm (1997) therefore suggests that this particular type of the nonsense genre has a very precise origin in:

> Even as the waves of brainlesse butter’d fish,
> With bugle horne writ in the Hebrew tongue.

While Malcolm (1997) focuses on this rather esoteric and narrow sub-genre of nonsense poetry, best portrayed by John Taylor, I would like to acknowledge it, but suggest that we have less to learn from 25 pages of “Sir Gregory Nonsense His Newes from No Place” with respect to the meaning of nonsense than if we move on to the (to me) much more interesting poets of the very late eighteenth and nineteenth century.

After Hoskyns and Taylor, the more significant are William Blake, who appears below in the “world-turned-upside-down” section, and the older Thomas Hood, before reaching the golden age of nonsense and Edward Lear. Haughton (1988) has found in the older Hood a wit which would have graced Pope, who died exactly a hundred years earlier, on the occasion of a shark eating half of John Jones:

> ‘Alas! Death has a strange divorce
>   Effected in the sea,
> It has divided me from you,
>   And even me from me!

After Hood and a handful of later poets including Swinburne and Thackeray, Haughton (1988) includes twelve rhymes from Halliwell’s *The Nursery Rhymes of England*. This is then consistent with Malcolm’s (1997) assertion that the rhymes were more a product of the nonsense genre than its origin. And I suggest the reason that critics such as Chesterton (1902) claim that nonsense poetry “pops up” from time to time rather than existing as a genre in itself is the very “guest appearances” Swinburne and Thackeray make in the world of nonsense with Swinburne’s “The Higher Pantheism in a Nutshell” and Thackeray’s “Foreign Literature” appearing in both Grigson (1979) and Haughton (1988).

Then after Halliwell there is Edward Lear! If you go into *Google* on the Internet and enter "nonsense poetry", the first poet mentioned is Edward Lear. Grigson (1979) has no less than 150 poems by Lear, with Carroll providing a relatively paltry 36 and even the time-honoured "Anon" only 62. Lear is in my view, and in many others', the master of nonsense poetry. Why?

Revolution

In *The Oxford Book of Children's Verse* (Opie, I. & P., 1978), the first 100 poems up to the first half of the nineteenth century are largely moralistic and cautionary, and the few which are not are pastoral landscapes. In his essay "How Children's Literature Changed: What Happened in the 1840s?" Dennis Butts (1997) observes nothing short of a literary revolution taking place. Captain Marryat establishes the adventure story, Mozley and Sewell transform moral tales into "psychologically profound family stories", Howitt does the first translation of Hans Christian Andersen into English, and in 1846 there appears Horne's *Memoirs of a London Doll* and Lear's *Book of Nonsense*. Between the Opies' poem number 163; Julia Carney's "Little Things":

> Little drops of water,
>   Little grains of sand,
> Make the mighty ocean
>   And the beauteous land;

and poem number 164:

> There was an Old Man with a beard,
> Who said, "It is just as I feared! –
>   Two owls and a hen,
>   Four larks and a wren,
> Have all built their nests in my beard!"

something significant has happened! And although, after seven poems and alphabets by Lear, the next poem in the collection just happens to be "All Things Bright and Beautiful", the majority of subsequent poems in the Opies' (1978) anthology have a markedly less moralistic tone; it seems that nothing will be quite the same in children's literature again. I am not suggesting that Lear conducted the revolution, but he is surely symptomatic of it. Butts (1997) suggests it is not difficult to offer a kind of Marxist context, with the collapse of the European revolutions of the 1840s, and goes on to suggest that the change in children's literature also reflects the strains placed on society by the industrial revolution, the effects of the Great Reform Act of 1832, the first steps towards state education and the changing attitudes to children in society. With respect to the latter, Butt (1997) observes the children of the New Forest are "quite free from the constraints of adult supervision in a way which is new in children's books". Naomi Lewis (1993) writes "What [Carroll and Lear] did share, in their separate ways, was a *freedom from the moral-didactic*, a magician's gift with words, and an absolute logic, which is at the root of all true nonsense" (my emphasis). There is a profound element of escapism in this new literature, to which we shall return later when we look at escapism as being one of the principal characteristics of nonsense poetry.

"Shadrach", the early nineteenth century anonymous verse found by Grigson (1979), would not have been possible fifty years earlier; it would have been deemed sacrilege:

> Shadrach
> Shake the bed;
> Meshech
> Make the bed;
> And Abednego,
> And to bed we go.

The poet is essentially making a joke of one of the most celebrated episodes in the Bible when the God of Abraham reveals himself considerably more effective than the golden image of Nebuchadnezzar (Daniel 3). There is no attempt here to make a moral, biblical or educational point at all; this is pure word-play. And a later well-known example is raised by Michelle Martin (1998) who suggests that *The Story of Little Black Sambo* of 1899 was written by Helen Bannerman "in the nonsense tradition … Bannerman composed this moral-less tale not to teach anything but to delight readers". The primary quality we expect of nonsense poetry is that it should be without didacticism; by the 1840s there had been enough of that!

The world turned upside down

Malcolm (1997) tells us the reversal of natural order is known as "impossibilia" in Latin and reminds us that not only did Virgil, Horace and Ovid use this literary device, but the Greeks long before them – αδιυατα. In the Bible Isaiah has "The wolf also shall dwell with the lamb, and the leopard shall lie down with the kid" (11: 6).

The phrase which Quentin Blake (1996) uses derives from his namesake William, whose illustrated work (in Haughton, 1988) focuses on news-breaking moments:

> Here you may see what's very rare,
>   The world turn'd upside down;
> A tree and castle in the air,
>   A man walk on his crown.

The poem is modern in its journalistic technique in the sense of "dog bites man" versus "man bites dog". William Blake was always a modernist!

Lewis (1993) believes “Nonsense is not nourished by nonsense but by ‘sense’. It is an oblique and personal response to accepted fact”. Pinsent (2005) says “Nonsense needs to have some contact with sense”. And McGillis (2002) focuses on paradox as an essential element in nonsense. He quotes Christina Rossetti’s “Sing-Song”:

The peacock has a score of eyes,
  With which he cannot see;
The cod-fish has a silent sound,
  However that may be;

No dandelions tell the time,
  Although they turn to clocks;
Cat’s-cradle does not hold the cat,
  Nor foxglove fit the fox

and goes on to suggest that each of the five assertions in the poem makes sense, although each one is by its very nature arguably “nonsense”. A foxglove is absolutely not a glove for a fox; nor is a cat’s-cradle anything to do with a cat. “The words themselves are paradoxical. Paradox is central to this poem and to nonsense generally”. McGillis (2002) goes on to quote Jean-Jacques Lecercle’s *Philosophy of Nonsense*: “nonsense is structured by the contradiction … between over-structuring and destructuring, subversion and support”. For a mathematician like Lewis Carroll this kind of situation would be seen as routine, given that much of the pure mathematical world is based on theory whose practice is impenetrable to the layman. As an example, complex numbers are based on ***i***, the square-root of –1, which cannot exist and is therefore strictly nonsense.

Counterpoint requires a point to counter; Carroll’s Old Father William literally stands on his head in a parody of Southey’s “The Old Man’s Comforts and How He Gained Them”. And in a more recent reversal of fortune Richard Edwards’ (1993) Maxo the Magician in *Leopards on Mars* disappears into the magician’s hat:

When something startling happened –
He screeched out in alarm,
His hand went in the hat, his wrist,
His elbow, his whole arm,

His cloaked-in-velvet shoulder,
And then, as people cheered,
His head, his chest, his legs and feet
Entirely disappeared.

The world has turned upside-down for Maxo, but Edwards (1993) does not allow this to be a quirk of fate; it is a malevolent and deliberate action by the hat itself, as a product of boredom and envy of the applause Maxo generates every evening.

For Gangopadhyay (2007) nonsense is characterized by disenchantment and disorder, by "a continual playing with reality and breaking it." As with counterpoint above, nonsense creates pleasure by playing with impossibility, but grounds it in reality: "Nonsense begins in the armchair world," citing Alice as a classic example.

Holbrook Jackson's (1997) view of Lear's "impossibilia" is that his nonsense "is no mere tissue of quips and jokes. It is a thing in itself in a world of its own, with its own physiography and natural history; a world in which the nature of things has been changed, whilst retaining its own logical and consistent idiom". Lear has an almost childlike way of turning nature on its head; so that ultimately we might begin to believe that it is perfectly normal that an owl and cat fall in love, or jumblies easily go to sea in a sieve. We are tempted to accept that Aunt Jobiska is actually right: that a Pobble *is* better without his toes. As Chesterton (1902) suggests of Lear's statements, "we are almost stunned into admitting that we know what they mean."

Lear's first *Book of Nonsense* consisted entirely of limericks. Parrot (1983) admits the limerick was not originated by Lear and cites "There was an old man of Tobago" which appeared in 1822 in *Anecdotes and Adventures of Fifteen Gentlemen* published by an unknown writer. And Noakes (1985) observes the Oxford English Dictionary recording that the word "limerick" was first used in 1898, ten years after Lear died . Whatever the name of the poetic form, Lear is unquestionably owed the credit for launching it on the literary scene, in spite of Parrot's (1983) rather disingenuous statement, "[Lear] may have played some part in popularising it". And the limerick certainly belongs in the world-turned-upside-down category. Just the first few have eight birds nesting in a man's beard, a young lady wearing clogs, surrounded by small spotted dogs, another young lady who is content to have birds sit on her bonnet, and a Turkish girl who insists that her grandmother burn her cat rather than herself.

Mendelson (2001) observes that Lear might be limiting his options by virtue of having the last line almost identical to the first, and Moss (1964) suggests that "one of the opportunities for ingenuity is lost". But this criticism forgets that Lear's objective is not solely ingenuity or indeed action, but also lyricism. Consider the young lady of Tyre:

> There was a young lady of Tyre,
> Who swept the loud chords of a lyre;
> At the sound of each sweep,
> She enraptured the deep,
> And enchanted the city of Tyre.

There would not be so much enchantment if "Tyre" were not repeated.

The invented word

Lear wrote a letter to Evelyn Baring, quoted by Grigson (1979):

> Thrippsy pillivinx,
> Inky tinky pobbleboskle abblesquabs? –
> Flosky! Beebul trimble flosky! – Okul
> Scratchabibblebongibo, viddle squibble tog-a-tog,
> ferrymoyassity amsky flamskyramsky damsky
> crocklefether squiggs.
> Flinkywisty pomm,
> Slushypipp

While this is not poetry, it is full of invention! I find it quite fascinating that Lear wrote such wonderfully nonsensical words to the man who was to become Lord Cromer, the ruler of Egypt in all but title for 24 years, a man of whom Marlowe (1970) says, "because he remained in Egypt much longer than any Viceroy had remained in India … his views had more authority in England than those of any Viceroy ever had". Nonsense is not exclusively directed at children!

Although Carroll is probably better known for the invented word, with "Jabberwocky" the most significant, Lear has some very fine inventions too. Apart from his wonderful place names, Gromboolian and Chankly Bore, "runcible" is an interesting word. The spoon does not appear in the three drawings Lear includes along with "The Owl and the Pussy-Cat"; so it has always been a matter for conjecture. Like many I suppose I have fallen for the rather bent or rumpled sort, but a rather endearing offering is made by Louise Voce's illustration in the Walker Books version (Lear, 1981): a two-ended spoon, a lovers' spoon if you like!

It is clear that the invented word derives from the same stable as nursery rhymes, but let us look at a modern version: Clyde Watson's "Dilly Dilly Piccalilli", from *The Puffin Book* (Blake, 1996):

> Dilly Dilly Piccalilli
> Tell me something very silly:
> There was a chap his name was Bert
> He ate the buttons off his shirt.

It's as if the choice of word is almost solely driven by the need for rhyme and the key word is probably "silly". "Piccallilli" is only partly an invented word, although a spicy condiment has no relevance here; and "Dilly Dilly" is absolutely in the tradition of "Hey Diddle Diddle" in its freedom of obvious semantic reference!

The Game

McGillis (2002) says nicely, “Nonsense is all ludic”, and according to Pinsent (2005), “a salient characteristic of nonsense is ‘game’, a playing with language at all levels: the phonological … ; the syntactic …; and the semantic”. Opie (1996) has:

> From Wibbleton to Wobbleton is fifteen miles,
> From Wobbleton to Wibbleton is fifteen miles.
> From Wibbleton to Wobbleton,
> From Wobbleton to Wibbleton,
> From Wibbleton to Wobbleton is fifteen miles.

The game here is simply the rhyme and the rhythm; very much a phonological game. Much more recently Michael Rosen (1985) creates a fine rhyme in *Don’t Put Mustard in the Custard*. The sense element is the rhyme and ultimately the message; the nonsense is in the choice of words. The poem as a whole, “Don’t”, is arguably not a nonsense poem at all. It is a child’s plea for the parent to stop saying “don’t” to everything he or she does, skilfully told through ridicule. But the counterpoint of the words makes it nonsense: “toffee in my coffee”, “toes up his nose”, “confetti on the spaghetti”, until we get to “fruit at the computer”, which brings the very sensible response: “Who do they think I am? / Some kind of fool?”

From the phonetic we move to the syntactic game. In *Wouldn’t You Like to Know?* Rosen (1985) has:

> I saw Esau Wood saw wood
> Esau Wood’s wood-saw sawed his wood
> Said he saw his saw saw
> If Esau’s wood-saw saws his wood
> Would Esau’s wood-saw saw wood-saws?

This is much in the tradition of “Peter Piper” or “She sells sea shells”, and is probably modelled on the anonymous poem which Grigson (1979) offers:

> I saw Esau sawing wood,
> And Esau saw I saw him;
> Though Esau saw I saw him saw,
> Still Esau went on sawing.

Or it could derive from one of the Mills, Collins & Godfrey (1909) songs:

> I saw Esau sitting on a see-saw
> See-sawing with my girl Brown

I've bought a saw and when I see Esau
I'll saw his see-saw down.

A nicely subtle kind of word-play is on the confusion between an idiom (sense) and its literal meaning (nonsense). In Rosen's (1977) poem in *Wouldn't You Like to Know?* the two-headed Demon Manchanda "opened his mouth and put his foot in it" and then goes on to say:

'You're pulling my leg,'
he said to himself.
So he ate his words instead.
I suppose you know the rest:
he went to the window
and threw out his chest.

This is the same sophisticated word-play as Milne (1958) uses in *Winnie-the-Pooh* where Pooh lives "under the name of Sanders", and Bond (1970) uses in *A Bear Called Paddington*; when Mrs Bird tells Paddington he's "worth his weight in gold" he weighs himself and consults Mr Gruber.

In Edwards' (1986) *The Word Party*, the poem which gives the collection its name, word-play takes on a whole new meaning, as the words perform to their own meanings:

Common words tell jokes and gabble,
Complicated words play Scrabble,
Swear words stamp around and shout,
Hard words stare each other out,
Foreign words look lost and shrug,
Careless words trip on the rug.

The word party only ends when the dictionary shuts.

Form

Pinsent's (2005) third "game" is semantic: the meaning of a poem in general, and even its shape, and she goes on to suggest that George Herbert's "Easter Wings" of 1633 is a "game" poem. But Pinsent (2005) is not suggesting this is a nonsense poem; indeed it can be seen as the forerunner of concrete poetry. Carroll's (1976) "The Mouse's Tale" in *Alice in Wonderland* is possibly the next; this time definitely of the nonsense genre. Solt (1968) quotes Mike Weaver in the 1966 Lugano Review distilling three kinds of concrete poetry; visual, phonetic and kinetic. Edwin Morgan's (1968) "Boats and Places" (see appendix) and "The Computer's First Christmas Card" are respectively examples of the first two, and definitely worthy of a nonsense classification; the former through its word-play; the latter through its word-invention. Indeed there are palpable similarities between:

row the sea
row it easy
Rothesay

and

And Abednego,
And to bed we go.

But "Dove's Song" (Smith, 1996) (see appendix) is completely concrete without any nonsense element.

Purpose

So why write nonsense poetry? I suggest there are two answers: entertainment and escape. Maxim's poem "Tickatock" is evidently composed and recited out of pure enjoyment. Rosen's (1977, 1985 & 1997) and Edwards' (1986 & 1993) poems are largely entertainment. Lear's (1964) limericks in the first *Book of Nonsense* were dedicated to the "great-grandchildren, grand-nephews and grand-nieces" of the thirteenth Earl of Derby, and aimed primarily at entertaining them. But with both limericks and songs there is a dark side according to Mendelson (2001): "People or creatures who don't fit into the ordinary world go far away to places with strange names, where they find happiness and their hearts' desire. Standing against these creatures are others who hate anything extraordinary … 'They': are the enemies of happiness". Noakes (1985) mentions Lear's epilepsy which plagued him all his life, and observes that he suffered from bronchitis, asthma and endured bouts of depression, which he called "the Morbids", and Carpenter (1985) notes Lear's homosexuality at a time when homosexual acts were illegal. While this is a literary thesis rather than psychological, I believe there must have been much in Lear's life to seek to escape from.

Orwell (2009) goes further and sees a political conspiracy. The Old Man of Whitehaven is perfectly happy until "they" said, "It's absurd, to encourage this bird!" and "they" smashed the Old Man of Whitehaven; all because he danced a quadrille with a raven! Orwell's view is that "they" represent authoritarian government; the same type of government whose theory is summed up "in the statement that Pobbles were happier without their toes."

In the face of such Orwellian doom Lear just runs away; the Nutcracker and the Sugar-Tongs, away to the beautiful shore; the Owl and the Pussy-Cat to the land where the Bong tree grows; The Yonghy-Bonghy-Bò to the coast of Coromandel; the Jumblies to the hills of the Chankly Bore. For Chesterton (1902), Lear's trick was "the idea of escape, of escape into a world where things are not fixed horribly in an eternal appropriateness, where apples grow on pear-trees, and any odd man you meet may have three legs".

Therefore, although the origins of nonsense poetry may lie in plague and parody, and although the need for escape, almost by definition, requires a negative or dark prompt, there is ultimately a sense of wistful optimism in Lear's nonsense poetry. Carpenter (1985) says of Lear that:

> [his] message was that the public world was vindictive and intolerant, and that the man of vision, the true artist, must alienate himself from society and pursue a private dream.

He goes on to suggest that Lear is "stating a theme that becomes central to the great children's writers: the search for a mysterious, elusive Good Place," and that like those writers that came a little later: Kenneth Grahame, Beatrix Potter, JM Barrie and AA Milne, Lear is looking for his own Secret Garden: Arcadia. Or, as the Duck says to the Kangaroo:

> "My life is a bore in this nasty pond,
> And I long to go out in the world beyond!"

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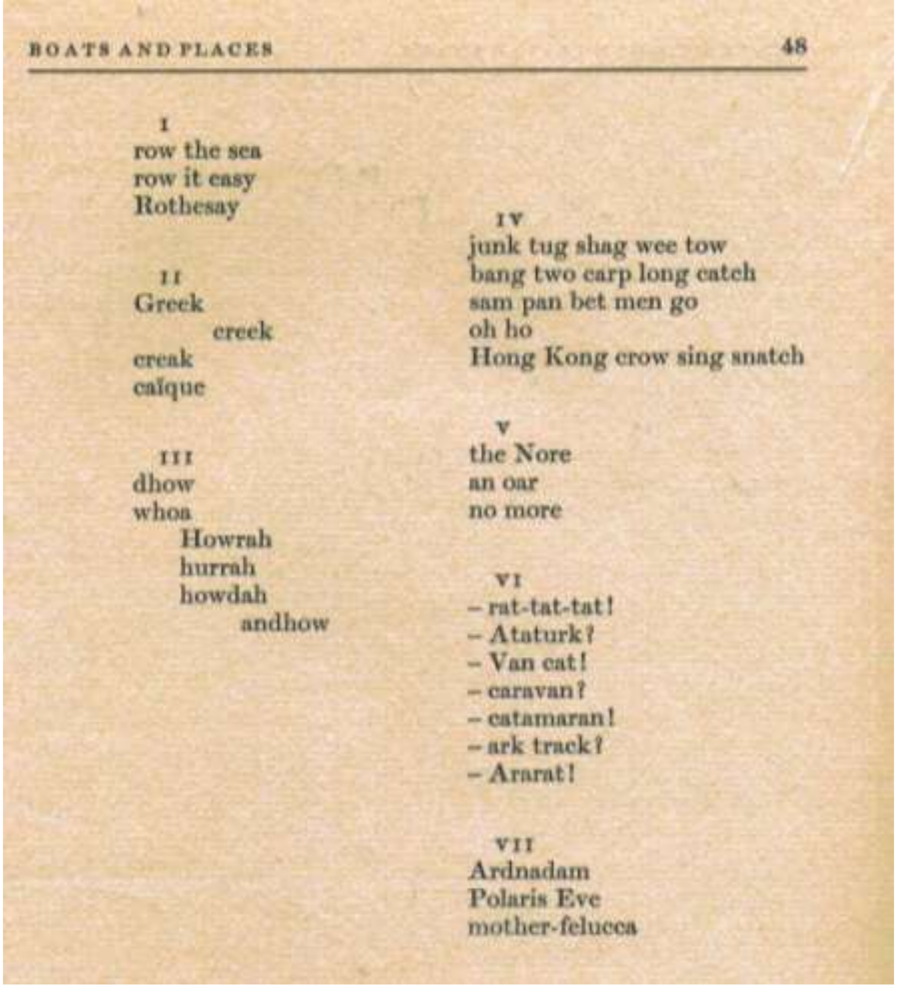
Appendix



BOATS AND PLACES 48

I
row the sea
row it easy
Rothesay

II
Greek
creek
creak
caïque

III
dhow
whoa
Howrah
hurrah
howdah
andhow

IV
junk tug shag wee tow
bang two carp long catch
sam pan bet men go
oh ho
Hong Kong crow sing snatch

V
the Nore
an oar
no more

VI
– rat-tat-tat!
– Ataturk?
– Van cat!
– caravan?
– catamaran!
– ark track?
– Ararat!

VII
Ardnadam
Polaris Eve
mother-felucca

Dove's Song

5 – Attitudes of Chinese Students to International Education

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Abstract

The main objectives of this study are to find out what other factors are underlying the academic achievements of Chinese students and to explore the perspectives of Chinese students in relation to international education. The purpose of the study is to gain insight of the attitudinal reflection of the students to international education. The methodology of the study consists of samples, data collection tools, and data analysis strategies. The population of the study involves the students, the teachers and the relevant agents of a Private Training Establishment in New Zealand. For analyzing and interpreting the data the 'triangulation' method was used in this study. This triangulation was formed through the data collected from students' interview, teachers' interview and agents' interview and the case studies of students. The findings revealed that some factors such as: socio-economic background, one child policy, freedom, lack of guidance, "fear of failure" and excessive use of technology (mobile, computer, iPad) have negative impact on student's academic performance and attitude.

The recommendations to improve present perspectives are:

- To provide an extra care to students out of school.
- To make collaboration among schools, agents, teachers, students and parents.
- To arrange an orientation programme to the parents and students.
- To make awareness among parents how they can encourage their children to be become self independent.

Keywords
International education, Chinese students, PTEs, triangulation and factors affecting international studies.

Dr Syed Jamali has been working as a Lecturer at ICL Business School since 2011. His PhD research, obtained from Korea University, is on the curriculum development that reflects light on the respective curricula of OECD and non-OECD countries. His career has involved working in education, research and development organisations in Bangladesh, New Zealand and South Korea. He has presented original research papers in several international conferences and has published several research papers. Curriculum design and evaluation, Maori education, motivation, culture and early childhood education are his major research interests.

I. Background

An increasing number of international students has been coming to New Zealand in recent years (Department of Labour, 2007). China is New Zealand's single largest source of international students with 24,981 enrolments during 2012 (Education New Zealand, 2014). The majority of Chinese students studying in New Zealand are in the private training establishment (PTE) sector (37% in 2012) and the university sector (27% in 2012) (Education New Zealand, 2014). However, the completion rate of university-level institutions in New Zealand is significantly lower than the OECD average of 70% (OECD, 2010). Tertiary Institutions are facing problems with the students from China to help them achieving their academic success even though institutions often provide special care to them. The main objectives of this study are to find out what other factors are underlying the academic achievement of Chinese students and to explore the perspectives of Chinese students in relation to international education.

II. Methodology

The purpose of the study was to gain insight of the attitudinal reflection of the students from China towards international education. The methodology of the study consists of samples, data collection tools, and data analysis strategies. The research involves a qualitative study which applies an explorative approach to discover the perspective of Chinese students in relation to international education.

Sample of the study

Twelve students, five teachers and two agents of a Private Training Establishment of New Zealand were interviewed in order to understand the perspective of Chinese students to international education. To collect data the researcher purposively selected one Private Training Establishment (PTE). The students were also categorised on the basis of their academic performances; namely category A (good), category B (medium), and category C (academically struggling) from 40 cities for example: Chengdu, Chongqing, Dongguan, Fuzhou, Guangzhou, Guizhou, Handan etc. by using stratified sampling.

Data analysis and interpretation process

For analysing and interpreting the data a 'triangulation' method was used in this study. Triangulation involves using multiple data sources in an investigation to produce understanding (Creswell, 2009). This triangulation was formed from the given data collected from students' interview, teachers' interview and agents' interviews and the case studies of students. The semi-structured interview is used for all cases (Appendix A, B & C). To get in-depth ideas and the unique characteristics of students' challenges three case studies are conducted.

III. Major Findings

The finding of this study mainly arise from three different sources: student, teacher, and agent interviews.

1) Student interviews

❖ **Family Background:** All students came from very well-off financial background. Most of their parents have their own companies or businesses. A few students have parents who do some official jobs such as manager of a company, working in the military and teaching. Most of them are the single child of their parents. A very few have brothers or sisters but they are not here; some of them are studying in other countries.

❖ **Causes to come to New Zealand:** Most of the students, especially the category C students mentioned that they came here as their parents wanted them to come to New Zealand. Four students out of 12 came here as they wanted to study at a foreign university. But, all of them agreed that it is very tough for them to enter university in China. A category C student came here as his parents had a very close friend in New Zealand and another student came here as his parents had some trade here. Some students had experience of other countries before coming to New Zealand.

❖ **Full time/part time job or business:** Most of the students do not have work experience either in China or in New Zealand. But, some of them have businesses in New Zealand with the support of their parents. One student even owns a real estate company and another student is involved in buying and selling cars. One student looks after an import-export business where his father has a share. All students get money from their parents to pay their tuition fees here and for their daily expenses.

❖ **Spending time after class:** It was found that the category A students spend time on reviewing their lessons after class and also spend time reading books, especially Chinese novels, at home. Two category A students mentioned that they spent some time in the library too. Two category C students mentioned that they felt tired when they went back home after class. They spent most of the time sleeping. Some of them liked to play computer games or to hang out with their friends, especially friends from China, after class.

❖ **Plan after completing the course:** The majority of the students want to go to University after finishing their study. A few of them want to find a job after completing their university study. One category B student wants to get permanent residency after finishing his study and he wants to stay in New Zealand. One category B and one category C student want to look after their parents' business in New Zealand after finishing their studies.

❖ **Overall impression about New Zealand and China:** All of them think that the environment of New Zealand is much better than China. Three students mentioned that it was very boring in New Zealand compared to China. The students, who came from big cities such as Beijing, think Auckland was almost similar to their city. All of them like New Zealand as they have more internet access than in China.

2) Teacher interviews:

From the teacher interviews, the following information was identified.

❖ All teachers agreed that the students from China have less motivation compared to the students from other countries.

❖ Students from China have lower passing rates than other students.

❖ Three teachers mentioned that the students' attitude in the classroom is not acceptable; sometimes they secretly use mobile phone in class.

❖ Teachers agreed that the language skill is not the only major factor for the poor academic performance of Chinese students but also there are some other underlying factors that have impact on their academic achievement, such as the one-child policy and the negative influence of socio economic status (SES). The excessive use of mobile phones and other accessories also diverts students' concentration.

❖ The majority of the teachers mentioned that Chinese students lack guidance. Usually, the students who live with relatives study hard. They are attentive and want to go to university. Two teachers mentioned that the students from China do not have proper guardians to guide them here.

❖ One teacher mentioned that there are different groups of students. One group think that their English is not good and they will not pass; a second group of students just come to class as their parents push ed them to come, and the last group have a resistant attitude that they will not do anything even when motivated by teachers.

❖ All teachers mentioned that the students from China do not have motivation for study because all of them are from overly-rich families. They have a careless attitude as they know that they can always get support from their parents.

❖ The majority of the teachers think that the one-child policy of China is one of the main barriers to achieving success in the students' academic performance.

❖ The majority of the teachers think that there is a huge cultural difference between China and New Zealand.

❖ Teachers agreed that the school management is trying to motivate students by taking different initiatives such as: extra homework classes, tutorial classes, and individual student counselling if they face difficulty with their studies.

3) Agents interviews

From the agent interviews, the following information was identified.

- ❖ All Chinese students came from very well-off financial backgrounds. They do not care about money to pay their tuition fees.
- ❖ As most of them are from one-child families, parents invest all of their money on him/her.
- ❖ Most of the Chinese students do not need to do part time work as their parents send enough money to them from overseas.
- ❖ The students, who do not have good academic results, mostly spend their time in cyber cafés or partying with their friends. One agent mentioned that there is a gambling problem amongst students.
- ❖ The education systems between New Zealand and China have significant differences. These may contribute to the reasons students have a lack of interest in studying.
- ❖ Both agents mentioned that Chinese students need extra care out of school. In China, parents determine their life plans. They decide which school they will go to, and after finishing school which university they will go; but when they come here, they do not have anyone to guide them i.e. there is a lack of direction.

4) Case studies

❖ **Category A student:** His name is Jack (for privacy purposes, a pseudonym is used here). He has completed three papers. Currently, he is doing three other papers. He came from Beijing. He thinks that Beijing is similar to New Zealand. Both of his parents are teachers. He chose to come to New Zealand by himself. He likes New Zealand as the environment is better than Beijing. He thinks that it is very hard to get into a public or private university in China. He lives with a homestay family. His homestay family is from Australia. They help him with his study sometimes. In relaxation time, he likes to play pool or read books. When he was 13 years old he went to the United Kingdom for six months to learn English. Before coming to New Zealand, he thought that it is a good country. He has the same expression as before. He feels comfortable here. The interesting thing in Auckland is the quality of life. It is better than his city as the population is not very high here. After class he goes back home and he does homework and reviews the content the teacher covered in class. He gets financial support from his parents for his study. He does not have a job. He wants to go to university in New Zealand after completing his study here.

❖ **Category B student**: His name is Bob. He came from the city called Henshui. It's very close to Beijing. It is very small city, not very popular. He did not go back to China for almost 3 years. It is not beautiful like New Zealand. He likes New Zealand as people are nice here. He has one older sister and one younger sister. He came from a rich family. His parents have an import-export business in electronic materials. He has some jobs here. He has a real estate business in New Zealand. Last year, he became interested in this business. His parents support him. He lives with his friend. He does not like computer games. After finishing class, he spends time doing research on his business and contacting customers and agents. He likes fishing. He came to New Zealand because his father told him to come here. He thinks that New Zealand is boring compared to China. His plan is to go to UNITEC or AUT to do some courses on project management as he wants to continue his business.

❖ **Category C student:** His name is Denny. He has taken six papers but the results are not good. He comes from Yantai city in Shandong province. The city is near to the sea and has similar weather to NZ. He is an only child. His father has an import-export company. He lives with a close friend here. After class he works for a car company and sells cars. He gets commission after selling a car. He does not feel homesick. He thinks that life in New Zealand is better than in China. He is not sure whether he will stay in New Zealand after finishing his course. His parents have a business with a honey company in New Zealand. He gets money from the company owner for his daily expenses. Sometimes he needs to look after the business. To account for his poor results, he thinks that he was not very serious before but he is trying harder now. After finishing his class, he spends most of his time on his job trying to find customers to sell cars to.

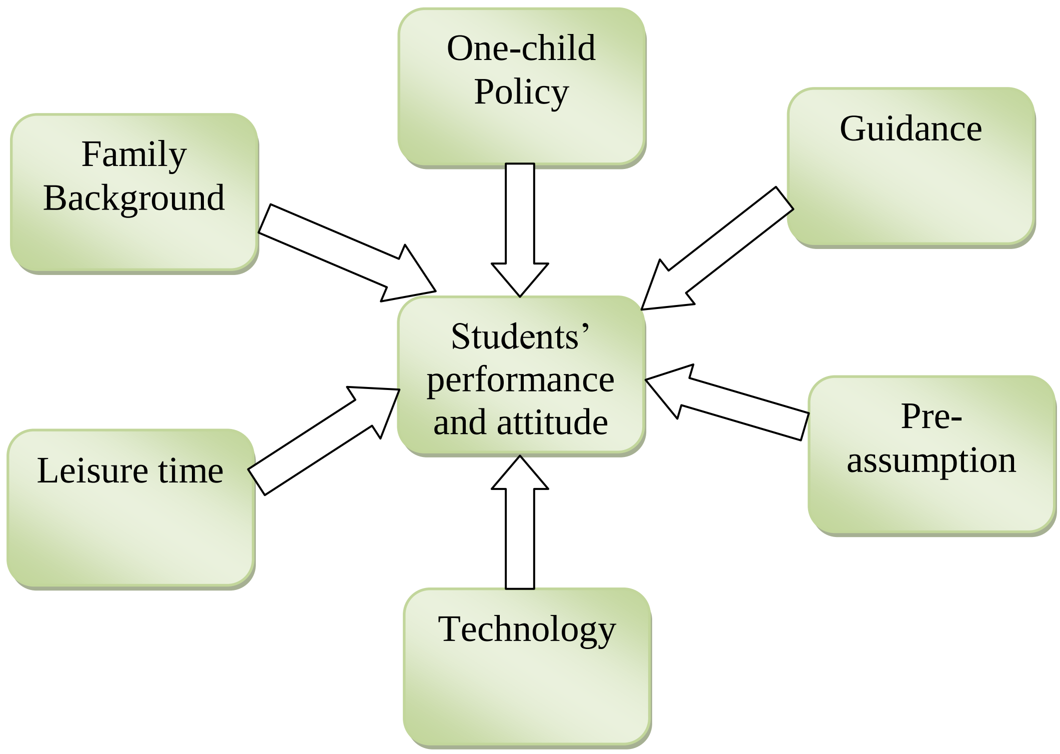
IV. Discussion and Recommendations

The students who achieved good results have parents who are in some sort of official jobs, such as teachers, government officials or in military service.

The students whose results are average have parents who are businessmen, resulting a very strong financial background. It is shown that the socio-economic background and parents' perception of life and education might have an impact on the students' academic performance and behaviour.

The students with poor academic performance spend most of the time playing computer games, hanging out with friends, and partying or other activities except studying. It seems that the newly-found freedom and lack of guidance are the main causes of their negative attitude towards studying. Some of the students have "fear of failure" as they think they cannot pass no matter what they do.

From the above discussion the following model has been developed to show some influential factors that have impact on the performance and attitude of Chinese students to international education.



Source: developed by the researcher based on the research findings

The recommendations to improve present perspectives are as follows:

- To provide extra care to students out of school;
- To collaborate more among schools, agents, teachers, students and parents;
- To provide an orientation programme to the parents;
- To persuade parents that they need to encourage their children to become more independent.

V. Conclusions

There are effectively two groups of Chinese students who come to study here. One group has a strong commitment to go on to further study after finishing their diploma course, and another group is here solely because their parents have pushed them to go abroad. Findings also suggest that there are some other factors that have influence on the students' performance and attitude. These factors include the students' educational background and experiences, activities after school, English language ability, family status, and cultural differences, amongst others. Teaching these students should be more embued with pastoral care. All the stakeholders involved need to work more closely together to create a supportive environment for these students, considering their time spent both in school and outside the school.

Acknowledgements

I am grateful to Mr. Ewen Mackenzie-Bowie, Chairman of ICL Education Group, for offering the opportunity to conduct this research. I am also grateful to Brent Hawkins, Programme Leader, ICL Business School, and especially to Dylan Li, administration staff, ICL, for providing me with valuable student data. I will always remember the Chinese students who, being the sample of my research, gave spontaneous information, and am also highly obliged to the teachers and the agents who gave their time to continue this research.

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Appendix A

Teacher's Sample Interview Checklist

1.	Techniques to use handling discipline problems.
2.	Techniques to use handling motivational problems.
3.	Teacher's philosophy regarding motivation.
4.	Rules they have in their classroom.
5.	Students' attitudes in class.
6.	Students' performance versus English language ability.
7.	One-child policy in China.
8.	Cultural differences between China and New Zealand.
9.	The initiative of school authority.
10.	Family status versus students' performance.

Appendix B

Student's Sample Interview Checklist

1.	Background of the family members
2.	Hobbies
3.	Friends
4.	Work experience (part time/full time)
5.	Who do they live with?
6.	Who influenced them to come to New Zeeland?
7.	What is the plan after completing this course?
8.	The most difficult thing(s) they face during their studies
9.	How do they spend time after class?
10	How much homework do they do each night?
11.	Interesting things about New Zealand and China
12.	Expectations before coming to New Zealand
13.	Actual experiences after coming to New Zealand

Appendix C

Agent’s sample Interview Checklist

1.	Background of the family members of students
2.	The sources of student’s educational support
3.	Job status of the students
4.	Who influenced them to come to New Zeeland?
5.	Career path of the students
6.	How do students spend time after class?
7.	Cultural differences between China and New Zealand
8.	The difficulties students face here

6 – Globalisation, Agricultural Trade Policy, and Poverty from the Perspective of the Poor: A Review of Issues from Bangladesh, Tanzania and Thailand

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Abstract

This paper attempted to analyse poverty from the perspective of the poor in the context of globalisation and agricultural trade reforms. Using secondary data, the paper analysed the impacts of globalisation on poverty with two scenarios: an individual country perspective and a global context. It carried out a comparative study on the impact of globalisation and agricultural trade reforms on poverty reduction in Bangladesh, Tanzania and Thailand. It argued that globalisation facilitated the individual country to integrate with the global economy through an increase in the flow of trade and investment. Globalisation created opportunities mainly for the rich; not much for the poor. So the rich gained more than the poor from this process. Globalisation widened the income gap between poor and rich countries, between poor and rich households and between rural and urban residents, both across economies and within an economy. It limited capital flow from the centre to the periphery – from rich to poor countries. On the other hand, it facilitated resource transfer from poor countries to rich economies through exploitation by foreign direct investment and corruption.

Key words

Globalisation, agricultural trade reforms, poverty reduction, inequality, income distribution, Bangladesh, Thailand, Tanzania.

Dr. Dayal Talukder is Lecturer of Business Programmes at ICL Business School. His teaching areas include economics and other business related papers including leadership, applied management, marketing planning & control, organisation & management and fundamentals of marketing. His research expertise includes total factor productivity growth, econometric analysis, international trade, regionalism, economics of international education, economic sustainability, macroeconomic policy, and contemporary development issues – globalisation, poverty, inequality, and foreign aid.

Dr. Love Chile is Associate Professor in the School of Social Sciences and Public Policy at AUT University. His areas of research, teaching and practice include community economic development, development studies and regional integration. He has supervised over twenty PhD and Master's candidates on a range of topics in these areas.

1. Introduction

Globalisation is a process associated with an increasing integration in the world economy through growing openness and economic interdependence. This process includes trade liberalisation, flows of investment, flows of services and transfer of technology and ideas across national boundaries (Nayyar, 2006). The world economy experienced a more noticeable acceleration in the globalisation process over the last three decades than ever before, because of the re-emergence of neo-classical orthodoxy as a new development paradigm in the early 1980s. This development paradigm was based on the arguments and beliefs that globalisation through economic integration and free trade would increase the benefits of the global economy and participating nations. Advocates of globalisation and free trade argued that trade would produce a convergence of relative prices of goods and services, thereby affecting the earnings of the factors of production. This convergence in turn would cause equalisation of relative prices of factors – converging the per capita income across nations (Krugman & Obstfeld, 2009). Therefore, all economies of the world would experience economic growth generating from the sources of technical progress, accumulation of physical capital, productivity of labour, quality of human capital, extent of trade openness, economic structure, institutional framework and integration of a national economy into the global framework through aid and debt relationships, patterns of trade, commodity price shifts, and access to improved technology (Taylor & Rada, 2007). However, the theoretical prediction of economic convergence and equalisation of per capita income was not observed in reality; rather the income gap between the poor and the rich was gradually widened over time. There were increasing differences in per capita income between poor and rich households and between poor and rich countries in the world. The significant differences in factor prices and per capita income across nations have been fostering the growing concerns regarding the impact of globalisation on income distribution and poverty reduction in the global economy.

Therefore, this paper attempted to explore the implications of globalisation on income distribution and poverty from the perspective of the poor. The aspects of globalisation are multidimensional and diverse in nature such as economic, social, political, cultural, etc. This paper confined globalisation to economic perspective andlimited to agricultural trade liberalisation and financial flows because of space limitation. Using the secondary data, it analysed globalisationand agricultural trade liberalisation in three selected developing countries – Bangladesh, Tanzania and Thailand – with a view to exploring the scenarios of poverty and income distribution in rural areas. Rural areas were selected because households there were predominantly dependent on agriculture for their income and employment and were more prone to poverty than that of urban households.

2. Globalisation, agricultural trade policies and poverty: a theoretical linkage

Agricultural trade liberalisation refers to reduction of trade barriers that were lifted up to protect domestic production from competition of foreign producers. These barriers included a complex and opaque assembly of instruments and regulations including various trade controls (such as tariffs, variable levies, imports and export subsidies, quotas and other non-tariff barriers), price support measures, income transfers, production subsidies, investment grants etc.(McCulloch, Winters, et al., 2003). Trade liberalisation has been gaining popularity since Ricardo's analysis of *comparative advantage* which explained how trade would benefit economies with differences in opportunity costs of production due to differences in productivity of labour.

Similarly, the Heckscher-Ohlin theory (Krugman, Obsfield, et al., 2012) argued that comparative advantage was influenced by the interaction between nations' endowment of resources and the production technology that influenced the relative intensity with which different factors of production were used in producing different goods. These theories suggested that both trading counties could experience an increase in real income from trade due to country's specialisation in production of goods and services in favour of comparative advantage. The Stolper-Samuelson theorem (Krugman, Obsfield, et al., 2012) also argued that trade could produce a change in relative factor prices; in turn it could change the relative earnings of factors, leading to changes in income distribution. Therefore, the owner of relatively abundant factor could gain because of specialisation of production in favour of it and the owner of relatively scarce factor might lose because of specialisation taken away from it, thereby adversely affecting income distribution and poverty reduction.

However, the effects of trade liberalisation on economic development and poverty reduction have been a subject of debate for centuries. Ever since Ricardo's critique on the Corn Laws through to the current debate on globalisation, few topics in economics have been more seriously contested as the importance of trade liberalisation for economic development and poverty reduction (Chang, Kaltani, & Loayza, 2005) The arguments in favour of openness were well known and date back at least to Adam Smith's analysis of market specialisation. The classical economists argued that free trade was an engine of growth while protections led to wasteful use of resources, thereby adversely affecting economic development (Ahmed & Sattar, 2004). On the contrary, the critics argued that openness had its costs and sometimes it could be detrimental to economic development (Chang, et al., 2005; Rodriguez & Rodrik, 1999).

3 Globalisation and poverty in Bangladesh, Tanzania and Thailand

3.1 Bangladesh, Tanzania and Thailand economies: an overview

According to the World Bank, Bangladesh and Tanzania were low income countries and Thailand was a lower-middle income country (World Bank, 2010). Among the three countries Thailand was the largest economy as measured by GNI of 247 billion US dollars in 2008 as shown in Table 1. On the other hand Tanzania was the smallest economy in terms of GNI of 18.4 billion US dollars as well as measured by GNI per capita of 440 US dollars in that year. Bangladesh had the largest population of 160 million and the highest population density with 1229 people per square kilometre (sq km) in the same year. On the other hand, Tanzania had the largest land area with 947,000 sq km but the lowest population density with 48 people per sq km in that year. Both Bangladesh and Thailand had the same life expectancyof 66 years at birth and Tanzania had lower life expectancy with 55 years in 2008. Thailand had the lowest and Tanzania had the highest infant mortality by 14 and 104 per 1000 births respectively. Similarly, Bangladesh had the lowest and Thailand had the highest adult literacy rate of 53 and 94 percent respectively in 2008. Comparing three developing countries, Thailand positioned the top and Tanzania positioned the bottom considering major development incisors in 2008.

Table 1: Basic Development Indicators: 2008

Indicators	Bangladesh	Tanzania	Thailand
Land Area (thousand sq km)	144	947	513
Population (million)	160	42	67
Population density (people per sq km)	1229	48	132
GNI (billion US dollar)	83	18.4	247
GNI per capita (US dollar)	520	440	3670
Annual growth of GDP (percent)	6.2	7.5	2.5
Life expectancy at birth (year)	66	56	66
Infant mortality (per 1000 live births)	54	104	14
Adult literacy (% of 15+ population)	53	72	94

Source: Adapted from World Bank (2010).

The service sector was the largest contributor (52 percent) to GDP in Bangladesh in 2008 as shown in Table 2. Agriculture contributed the largest share of GDP in Tanzania and the smallest share in Thailand by 45 and 12 percent respectively in that year. In Thailand, both the industry and service sectorscontributed the largest share of GDP by 44 percent in 2008. Considering the sectoral share of GDP between 1995 and 2008, the agricultural share slightly declined in Bangladesh and Tanzania. So, the share of both industry and service sector slightly increased in these two countries. In Thailand, the GDP-share of both agriculture and industry slightly increased, but the service sector's share slightly decreased during that period.

Table 2: Structure of the economy: 1995-2008

	Bangladesh		Tanzania		Thailand	
	1995	**2008**	**1995**	**2008**	**1995**	**2008**
GDP (billion dollar)	37	79	5	20	168	272
Sectoral share of GDP (percent)						
Agriculture	26	19	47	45	10	12
Industry	25	29	14	17	40	44
Service	49	52	38	37	50	44

Source: Adapted from World Bank (2010).

Considering employment, all three countries had similar characteristics – agriculture was the largest sector in terms of employment– in 2008, as presented in Table 3. The ratio of female employment in agriculture was larger than that of males in Bangladesh and Tanzania suggesting that family labourers dominated by female workers did agricultural works in these two countries. On the other hand, both male and female possessed similar shares of employment in all economic sectors.

Table 3: Employment by economic sector 2008

Country	Agriculture		Industry		Service	
	Male	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**
Bangla-desh	42	68	15	13	43	19
Tanzania	71	78	7	3	22	19
Thailand	43	40	22	19	35	41

Source: Adapted from World Bank (2010).

As presented in Table 4, Bangladesh and Tanzania experienced an increase in average growth of GDP per year during 1998-08 compared to that of 1988-98; whereas Thailand experienced a decrease in average growth during that period because of its financial crisis during 1997-2000. All three countries experienced an increase in average growth in agriculture. Among them, Tanzania experienced a larger average growth in GDP than either of the other two countries during that period. Interestingly, all three countries experienced a decrease in average growth in exports, but a constant average growth in imports during the period 1988 - 2008.

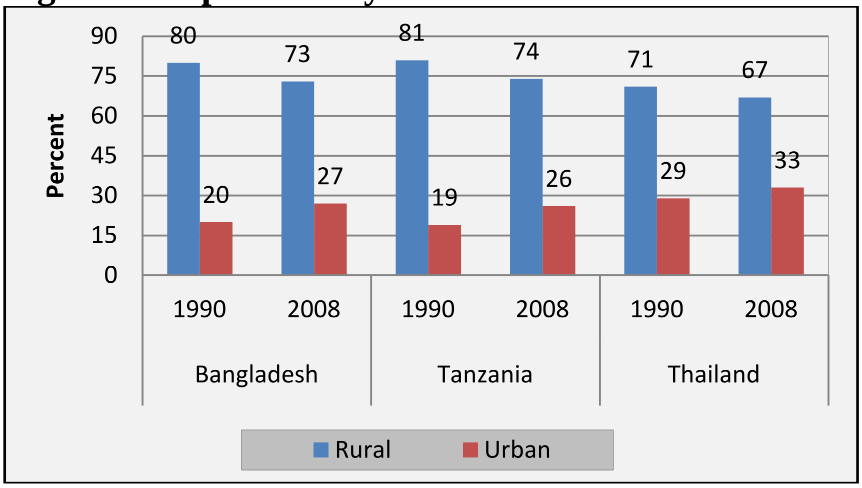
Table 4: Average annual growth (in percent): 1988 -2008

	Bangladesh		Tanzania		Thailand	
	1988-98	**1998-08**	**1988-98**	**1998-08**	**1988-98**	**1998-08**
Population growth rate*	2.07	1.67	3.06	2.68	1.11	0.90
GDP	4.6	5.7	2.8	6.5	6.9	5.0
GDP per capita	2.5	4.0	-0.3	3.6	5.7	4.0
Agriculture	2.7	3.5	3.2	4.7	1.8	3.0
Industry	7.2	7.5	1.8	8.8	9.2	6.2
Service	4.1	5.9	2.1	6.1	6.6	4.2
Exports of goods and services	13.3	11.2	12.4	11.0	11.3	7.5
Imports of goods and services	8.8	8.4	3.1	3.4	9.1	8.8

Source: Authors' calculation (*) and adapted from World Bank (2010).

The trend in growth of urban population in Bangladesh, Tanzania and Thailand was very slow and the majority of the population lived in the rural areas as shown in Figure 1. In 1990, the proportion of the rural population in Bangladesh, Tanzania and Thailand was 80, 81 and 71 percent of the total population respectively. Similarly, in 2008 the rural population accounted for 73, 74, and 67 percent of the total population in Bangladesh, Tanzania and Thailand respectively, suggesting that all three economies were based on rural sectors such as agriculture.

Figure 1: Population by urban and rural residents



Source: Authors' drawing based on data from World Bank (2010).

3.2 Agricultural trade policy reforms and global integration

The scenarios of agricultural trade reforms in Bangladesh, Tanzania and Thailand were presented in Table 5. These trade policy reforms facilitated them to integrate with the global economy. Bangladesh liberalised agricultural input markets, but put restrictions onrice (staple food) exportsdue to the fear of food security and macroeconomic insatiability arising from rice price fluctuation. Similarly, Tanzania also substantially liberalised agricultural trade, but imposed controls over the movement of food-grainson the food security ground. Among the three countries, Thailand liberalised agricultural trade in consistence with the WTO commitmentsstarting from 1995. It was a very open economy in terms of manufacturing trade, but its agricultural trade was highly protected before 1995.

Table 5: Agricultural trade reform summary

Country	Year	Scenarios
Bangladesh*	Phase-1 1972-80	Severe controls over both imports and export; high tariffs, non-tariff barriers; prohibitive; fixed exchange rate; nationalisation, price controls, input market controls
	Phase-2 1981-90	Initial reforms: tariffs and NTB relaxation; initial denationalisation; price controls removed, significant input market liberalisation
	Phase-3 1991-02	Substantial liberalisation of input markets and investment; flexible exchange rate; input market privatisation; rice export ban
Tanzania**	1967	Arusha Declaration: Co-operative and centralized grain marketing, control over crop movements
	Early reform 1981-92	Reforms under Structural Adjustment Programmes; series of currency devaluation; crop movement and price controls abolished; import liberalised; domestic food market liberalised; privatisation: food trade, input market
	1993	Similar to previous but more rigorous and intensive liberalisation; abolition of production subsidies
Thailand***	1995	WTO commitments, before: highly protected sector

Source: *compiled from Table 11, (Ahmed and Sattar, 2004: 11); ** text from (Cooksey, 2003; World Bank, 2000); *** text from (Warr, 2008)

3.3 Trade structure

Bangladesh, Tanzania and Thailand had large labour resources. Therefore, their exports were generally dominated by labour-intensive manufactures such as textiles, garments, and agricultural products. On the other hand, their imports were mainly dominated by intermediate inputs and capital goods. The structure of trade suggested that imports mainly dominated trade in Bangladesh and Tanzania whereas, exports and imports equally dominated in Thailand as shown in Table 6. Therefore, Bangladesh and Tanzania are large importers while Thailand is a moderate importer. The merchandise trade accounted almost 90 percent of Bangladesh’s exports and imports during 1995 and 2008. Similarly, Thailand experienced a large share of merchandise trade in both exports and imports in the same period. On the other hand, Tanzania’s merchandise and service trade covered very similar proportion of exports in 1995 and 2008 but the proportion of merchandise imports was much larger than that of service imports in these years. Therefore, the global link in terms of trade for these countries was mostly dominated by merchandise trade.

Table 6: Trade structure: 1995-2008

	Bangladesh		Tanzania		Thailand	
	1995	**2008**	**1995**	**2008**	**1995**	**2008**
Total trade (billion dollar)	**11.86**	**43.80**	**3.65**	**13.54**	**160.51**	**436.21**
Share of exports (percent)	33	37	34	37	44	48
Share of imports (percent)	67	63	66	63	54	52
Total export (billion dollar)	**3.97**	**16.26**	**1.25**	**5.01**	**71.09**	**211.24**
Merchandise exports	88	95	55	57	79	84
Service exports (percent)	12	5	45	43	21	16
Total import (billion dollar)	7.**89**	**27.54**	**2.40**	**8.53**	**89.42**	**224.97**
Merchandise imports	85	87	70	82	79	79
Service imports (percent)	15	13	30	18	21	21

Source: Authors' calculation from World Bank (2010).

As shown in Table 7, exports of Bangladesh, Tanzania and Thailand were mainly destined to developed countries in 2008. More than 77 percent of Bangladesh's exports wassentto the EU and USA. Similarly, more than 40 percent of Tanzanian exports were destined to the EU countries and its other main exporting partners were South Africa, China and Kenya. The major five exporting partners of Thailand were the EU, USA, Japan, China and Singapore. Driven by the export-led development strategies, these three countries expanded exports with rich-and-developed countries, not with developing countries. The main reason was that their merchandise exports were basically from export-oriented industries such as garments, which were established by foreign investors with foreign capital and technology, mainly in export processing zones. On the other hand, both developed and developing countries were equally important origins of imports of these countries in the same year.

Table 7: Direction of trade - five major trading partners: 2008

Country		Rank-1	Rank-2	Rank-3	Rank-4	Rank-5	%
Bangladesh	Exports	EU (51.2)	USA (26.7)	India (4.0)	Canada (3.5)	China (1.7)	87.1
	Imports	China (15.6)	India 13.2)	EU (9.7)	Kuwait (7.2)	Indonesia (5.1)	50.8
Tanzania	Exports	Switzerland (20.5)	Other-EU (19.7)	South Africa (9.5)	China (7.3)	Kenya (5.8)	62.8
	Imports	EU (17.7)	UAE (13.2)	SAfrica (10.1)	India (8.7)	China (7.0)	56.7
Thailand	Exports	EU (13.3)	USA (11.4)	Japan (11.3)	China (9.1)	Singapore (5.7)	50.8
	Imports	Japan (18.7	China (11.2)	EU (8.0)	USA (6.4)	UAE (6.3)	50.6

Note: figures in parenthesis are percentage share of exports and imports.
Source: data compiled from WTO (2010)

3.4 Integration with global economy

The most widely used measures for integration of a country with the global economy are trade to GDP ratio, flow of foreign direct investment (FDI), and the net flow of remittance. On the other hand, the net movement of people reflects the net transfer of resources to and from a country. As shown in Table 8, trade to GDP ratios in Bangladesh, Tanzania and Thailand were 49.1, 61.8 and 151.5 percent respectively, indicating high integration with the global economy in terms of trade-links in 2008. Among them, Thailand represented the highest degree of dependence on international trade with a large trade to GDP ratio. Despite a large domestic market with a 160 million population in Bangladesh, it had a strong trade linkage with global economy with a large trade to GDP ratio (49.1 percent) in 2008.

Among three countries, Bangladesh received the lowest FDI and the highest remittance in terms of their proportion of GDP in 2008. The FDI flows into Bangladesh, Tanzania and Thailand were 1.2, 3.6 and 3.6 percent of GDP respectively. Similarly, Bangladesh, Tanzania and Thailand received remittance by 11.3, 0.1 and 0.7 percent of GDP respectively in the same year. Considering the figure of net migration, a large number of people migrated from Bangladesh and Tanzania, whereas a large number of people migrated to Thailand from overseas. Interestingly, migration from Bangladesh was mainly labour exports to developing countries including Malaysia and the Middle East, not to developed countries. Similarly, net migration to Thailand was mainly from Southeast Asian countries. On the other hand, a large proportion of the population with tertiary education emigrated from Bangladesh, Tanzania and Thailand to OECD (developed) countries, reflecting a net transfer of resources in the form of tertiary education costs from the poor countries to rich countries. This analysis suggests that rich countries gained from globalisation through receiving highly educated people from poor countries without any expenses; whereas poor countries lost from this process in the form of educational expenses and resource transfer through migration of educated people in rich countries.

Table 8: Global integration

Main Category	Sub-category	Year	Bangladesh	Tanzania	Thailand
Trade ratio (%)	Trade	2008	49.1	61.8	151.5
	Merchandise	2008	49.3	47.9	130.9
	Services	2008	7.2	18.4	29.5
International finance (% of GDP)	FDI inflows	2008	1.2	3.6	3.6
	FDI outflows	2008	…	…	1.0
	Remittances received	2008	11.3	0.1	0.7
Movement people	Net migration (thousands)	2005	-700	-345	1411
	International migration stock (%	2005	0.7	2.0	1.5
	Immigration with tertiary educati	2000	4.4	12.1	2.2

Source: Adapted from World Bank (2010).

3.5 Poverty and inequality in Bangladesh, Tanzania and Thailand

Although Bangladesh, Tanzania and Thailand experienced a strong global link and considerable economic growth, the reduction of poverty was not as much as expected. This was due to the distribution of benefit of globalisation and economic growth in favour of the rich, not in favour of the poor, thereby leaving a high level of poverty in these countries as presented in Table 9. Considering the national poverty line, 40 percent of Bangladesh's population lived in poverty in 2005. Considering international poverty lines with 1.25 and 2.00 dollars a day, this figure was much larger – 49.6 and 81.3 percent respectively in the same year. Similarly, in Tanzania, the headcount rates of poverty with both national and international poverty lines were high. On the other hand, the rate of poverty in Thailand was low considering both national and international poverty lines, but considerably higherby 13.6 percent with national poverty line in 1998 and by 11.5 percent with international poverty line (2 dollar a day) in 2004. This analysis suggests that the impact of globalisation on poverty reduction in Bangladesh, Tanzania and Thailand was not as much as they experienced economic growth as presented in Table 4.

Table 9: Poverty in three selected countries

Country	National poverty line		International poverty line		
	Survey Year	Population below poverty line (%)	Survey Year	Population below $1.25 a day (%)	Population below $2 a day (%)
Bangladesh	2000	48.9	2000	57.8	85.4
	2005	40.0	2005	49.6	81.3
Tanzania	1991-92	38.6	1991-92	72.6	91.3
	2000-01	35.7	2000-01	88.5	96.6
Thailand	1994	9.8	2002	<2.0	15.1
	1998	13.6	2004	<2.0	11.5

Source: Adapted from World Bank (2010).

In fact, the rate of the rural poverty was much higher than that of the urban poverty for all three countries as shown in Table 10. This was an indication that globalisation created a significant income gap between the rural and urban households; urban households gained from economic growth much more than rural households.

Table 10: Poverty by rural and urban residents

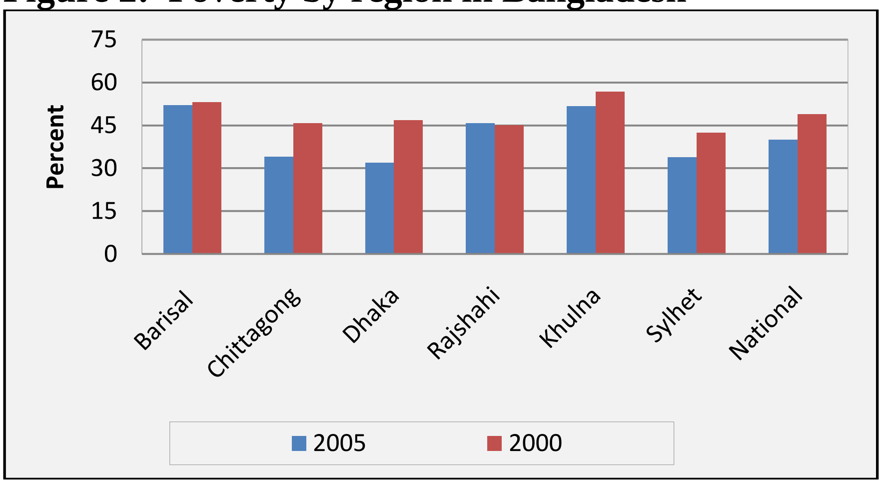
	Bangladesh*		Tanzania**		Thailand***	
Population below national poverty line (%)	**2000**	**2005**	**1991-92**	**2000-01**	**1998**	**2002**
Rural	52.3	43.8	40.8	38.7	13.2	17.2
Urban	35.2	28.4	31.23	29.4	4.8	3.4

Source: Data compiled from - *BBS (2003; 2005); ** World Bank (2010); *** (Warr, 2004)

Similarly, the distribution of poverty across regions in Bangladesh was asymmetric; the poor regions had to bear a larger incidence of poverty than that of the rich regions. This scenario was presented in Figure 2.

The distribution of poor households in Bangladesh was uneven across six regions (divisions) in 2000 and 2005. The incidence of poverty in Barisal, Khulna and Rajshahi regions was distinctly evident having more poor households than the national level. The rate of poverty in all regions was very similar in 2000, but Chittagong, Dhaka and Sylhet experienced a larger reduction of poverty than that of other three regions in 2005. Therefore, the intensity of poverty varied across geographical regions depending on their intensity of economic activities and natural calamities. For example, Barisal and Khulna regions were more prone to natural disasters including cyclone and floods; and Rajshahi region was more affected by drought than any other regions in Bangladesh. Recently, there was a remarkable development in industrialisation (garments and other export oriented industries) in Bangladesh. These industries were mainly located in Dhaka and Chittagong regions. They generated employment and income for poor families. On the other hand, Sylhet region received a large amount of foreign remittance. Therefore, the benefits of globalisation and economic growth were not distributed evenly across geographical regions, thereby gradually widening a gap in incidence of poverty between poor and rich regions in Bangladesh.

Figure 2: Poverty by region in Bangladesh



Source: Data compiled from World Bank (2010); and BBS (2005)

The education gap between the poor and the rich in Bangladesh and Tanzania was distinctly evident as shown in Table 11. The rich performed better than the poor in terms of enrolment, average schooling, completion rate and children out of school in primary education. This was an indication that the poor had lower access to resources and opportunities for primary education than the rich, thereby resulting in a gap between the rich and the poor in achieving primary education.

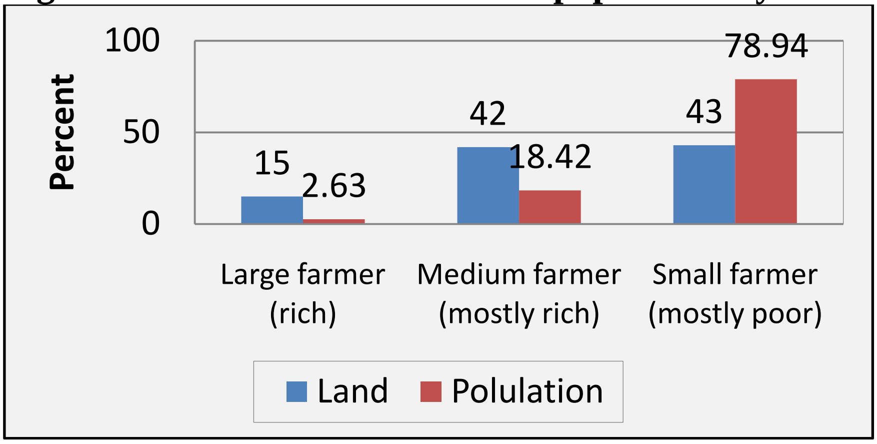
Table 11: Education gaps by poor and rich in Bangladesh and Tanzania

Relevant age group	**Bangladesh: 2006**		**Tanzania: 2004**	
	Poorest quintile	Richest quintile	Poorest quintile	Richest quintile
Gross primary enrolment rate (%)	96	105	82	119
Average year of schooling	8	13	5	7
Primary completion rate (%)	65	97	32	108
Children out of school (%)	12	6	44	15

Source: Data compiled from World Bank (2010).

As revealed in a Household Survey 2010 in a village of Bangladesh conducted by the authors, 86.7 percent of the rural households were farm households and the rest 13.3 percent are non-farm households. Among them, 50 percent were small farmers (0.05-2.49 acre), 11.7 percent are medium farmers (2.50-7.49 acre) and only 1.7 percent were large farmers (7.5+ acre). The agricultural labours consisted of 23.3 percent of the total rural households in this year. Interestingly, the most important resource of the rural economy, the land, was distributed in favour of the rich – the large and medium farmers as shown in Figure 3. Among the farm households, 78.94 percent were small farmers but they owned only 43 percent of total arable land. On the other hand the large farmers were 2.63 percent of the farm households but possessed 15 percent of total arable land in 2010. Both the large and medium farmers were rich households in the rural economy of Bangladesh. They jointly covered 21.05 percent of total farm households but owned 57 percent of total arable land. The inequality in distribution of productive resources (land) between poor and rich households generated significant gap in income distribution in the rural economy. Therefore, gains from globalisation and agricultural trade reforms were seen to go to the rich not to the poor, thereby achieving a low level of poverty reduction from a high economic growth resulting from globalisation and agricultural trade liberalisation in developing countries like Bangladesh.

Figure 3: Distribution of land and population by farmer types: 2010



Source: Authors' calculation based on data from Household Survey – 2010 conducted by authors.

4. Globalisation, income distribution and poverty: a global context

4.1 Income gaps between rich and poor

Globalisation widened the income gap between the poor and rich both across nations and within a nation in the global economy. As presented in Table 12, the GNI per capita for low-income, middle-income and high-income countries were 260, 1400 and 10320 US dollars respectively, indicating a huge gap in per capita income (GNI) between the poor and rich countries in 1980. This income gap gradually widened during 1980 - 2008.

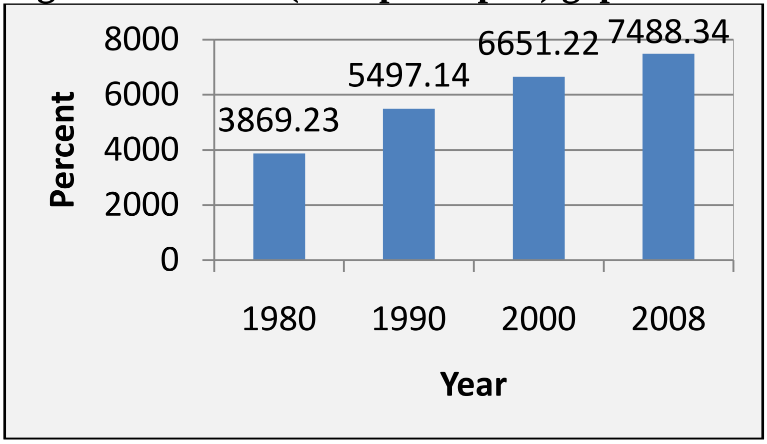
Table 12: GNI per capita (in US dollar)

	1980	1990	2000	2008
Low-income	260	350	410	523
Middle-income	1400	2220	1970	3251
High-income	10320	19590	27680	39687
Bangladesh	130	210	370	520
Tanzania	280	110	270	440
Thailand	670	1420	2000	3670
USA	11361	21790	34100	47930
Japan	9890	25430	35620	38130

Source: Compiled from World Bank (2010).

The gap of per capita income (GNI) between low and high income countries was 3869.23 percent in 1980 and it became wider as moved from 1980 toward 2008– gradually more widening the income gap between the poor and rich countries in the world as shown in Figure 4. As calculated from World Bank (2010) database, the per capita income of high-income (rich) countries was 39.69 times larger than that of low-income (poor) countries in 1980 and this figure increased to 75.88 times in 2008.

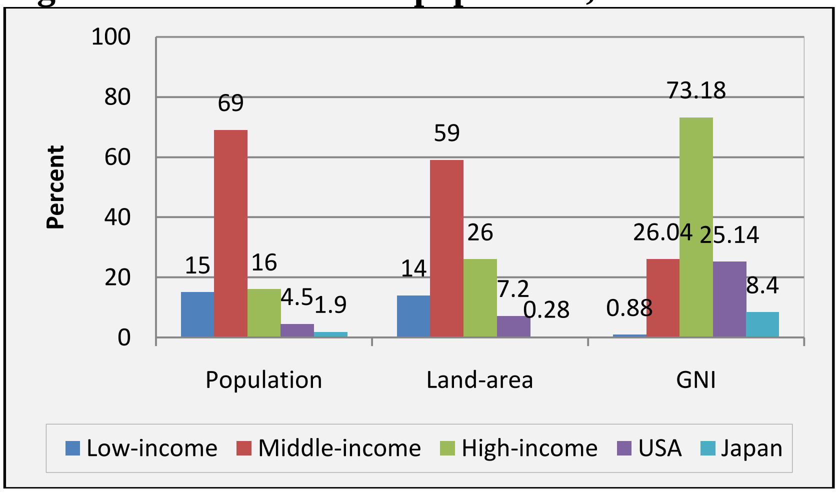
Figure 4: Income (GNI per capita) gap between low and high income countries



Source: Authors' calculation from World Bank (2010).

The distribution of income between the poor and rich countries was highly uneven and the degree of concentration of the world's income in developed countries was large as presented in Figure 5. In 2008, low-income countries covered 15 percent of the total population and 14 percent of total land area of the world but received only 0.88 percent of the world's total income. On the other hand, high-income countries captured global population and land by 16 and 26 percent, respectively but received 73.18 percent of the world's total income. The USA – the largest economy of the world – captured 25.14 percent income with 4.5 parent of the total population of the world in 2008. The two largest economies – the USA and Japan – jointly covered 6.40 percent of the world's population butreceived 33.54 percent of the world's income in the same year. This analysis suggests that the distribution of income in the global economy was highly uneven, resulting in a huge income gap between the rich (centre) and the poor (periphery) of the world.

Figure 5: Distribution of population, land-area and GNI: 2008



Source: Authors' calculation from World Bank (2010).

The patterns of income distribution within both developed and developing countries were very similar, characterised by high income-gap between the rich and the poor as shown in Table 13. Among three developing countries with the worst scenario of income distribution was thassociated with Bangladesh, where the bottom 10 percent received only 2.0 percent, but the top 10 percent received 37.6 percent of total income in 2005. The worst situation of income distribution among three developed countries was found with the USA – the bottom 10 percent received only 1.9 percent, but the top 10 percent received 29.9 percent of total income in 2000. These situations were reinforced by Gini coefficients – the largest inequality (with higher values of Gini coefficient) between the poor and rich was found in Bangladesh among three developing countries and in the USA among three developed countries. Considering quintile income distribution, the highest income gaps between the poorest 20 percent (Q1) and the richest 20 percent (Q5) households were found with Thailand among three developing countries and in the USA among three developed countries. Interestingly, Thailand and the USA were the richest economies among three selected developing and developed countries respectively in terms of per capita income. This analysis suggests that the income gap between the poor and the rich was widened not only across the economies but within an economyboth in developed and developing countries.

Table 13: Income distribution by quintiles: some selected countries

	Developing countries			**Developed Countries**		
	Bangladesh	**Tanzania**	**Thailand**	**USA**	**UK**	**Italy**
Latest survey year→	**2005**	**2000-01**	**2004**	**2000**	**1999**	**2000**
Income groups						
Bottom 10%	2.0	3.1	2.6	1.9	2.1	2.3
Top 10%	37.6	27.0	33.7	29.9	28.5	26.8
Quintiles						
Q1	9.4	7.3	6.1	5.4	6.1	6.5
Q2	12.6	11.8	9.8	10.7	11.4	12.0
Q3	16.1	16.3	14.2	15.5	16.0	16.8
Q4	21.1	22.3	21.0	22.2	22.5	22.8
Q5	40.8	42.3	49.0	45.8	44.0	42.0
Gini coefficient	**0.467**	**0.346**	**0.425**	**0.408**	**0.360**	**0.360**

Source: Data compiled from World Bank (2010); and BBS (2005)

4.2 Globalisation limited capital flows from centre to periphery

In the post-World-War-II period, one of the most important development issues in the world was the widespread poverty in developing countries. While the rich (developed) countries grew remarkably affluent, a large number of low-income (poor) countries in the world were facing severe poverty and shortage of financial resources to address such development issues (Bjerg, Bjørnskov, & Holm, 2010). In this situation, there was a growing criticism regarding the rich countries' accumulation of huge world's wealth and not sharing it with the poor countries for poverty reduction and economic development. Therefore, in 1970 the world's rich countries agreed to give 0.7 percent of

GNI as official development assistance (ODA) or foreign aid annually (Shah, 2010). Since then, rich countries rarely met their actual promised targets of foreign aid(Shah, 2010). Despite globalisation facilitated rich countries to faster accumulate world's wealth, the shortfall of their promised aid to low-income countries was much criticised as to rich countries' commitments towards reduction of world's poverty and sharing wealth with poor countries, that is gained from free trade and globalisation. As presented in Table 14, the shortfall of promised aid was large and far below from the target of 0.7 percent of GNI both in 2000 and 2008. This analysis suggests that globalisation facilitated rich countries to faster accumulate wealth, but failed to facilitate poor countries to have a proper share of that wealth for poverty reduction and economic development.

Table 14: Flow of Official Development Assistance

	2000	**2008**
Commitments ($ billions)	84.57	149.02
Gross disbursement ($ billions)	82.18	128.76
Net disbursement ($ billions)	74.54	115.63
Net disbursement (% of GNI)	0.22	0.31

Source: Compiled from World Bank (2010).

4.3 Globalisation facilitated capital flows from poor countries to rich countries

Globalisation facilitated rich countries to channelise resources from poor-developing countries because of widespread corruption in developing countries. According to the Transparency International's *Corruption Perceptions Index (CPI) 2009*, countries with low incomes, but high political instability suffered from corruption mostly. The corruption perception index (CPI) indicated the perceived level of public-sector corruption in a country. As shown in Table 15, out of 180 countries in the world, Bangladesh, Tanzania and Thailand ranked 139, 126 and 84 from the bottom in terms of CPI in 1009. The widespread corruption in developing countries created opportunities for developed countries to transfer resources from developing countries. For instance, US involvement with transferring a reconstruction fund worth billions of dollars from Iraq to the USA generated serious criticism. The Special Inspector General for Iraq Reconstruction (US govt.) carried out eight audits over first quarter of 2010 and found that corruption continued to plague Iraq (Mekay, 2007). One audit found that 96 percent of a reconstruction fund from Iraqi oil revenue entrusted to the Pentagon was misappropriated by US defence forces (Weber, 2010). In one instance, 150 billion dollars reconstruction fund of which 65 percent coming from Iraqi oil revenue was misused and that money was transferred by Americans from Iraq (UPI, 2010).

> The allegedly corrupt transactions involve banks, loan payments, even payments to casinos.... some of the transactions involved people suspected of mailing tens of thousands of dollars from Iraq to themselves, or just having stuffed the money into luggage when leaving country. Other involved millions in wire transfers,

with suspects allegedly using money to buy cars, jewellery or pay of massive casino debts (UPI, 2010, p1).

Table 15: Corruption in three selected developing countries: 2009
(CPI range: 10-0; 10 = no corruption, 0 = 100% corruption)

Country	Corruption Perceptions Index (CPI)	Corruption Rank
Bangladesh	2.4	139
Tanzania	2.6	126
Thailand	3.4	84

Source: Transparency International (2009).

In the globalisation era, foreign direct investment (FDI) was a new way of exploitation of cheap labour in developing countries by multinational corporations of rich countries and transferring wealth from poor countries to rich economies. Multinational corporations supplied capital, intermediate goods and technology. They organised and managed production and marketing processes for absorbing the largest possible amount of profit from them. Thus, profit went back to rich countries where FDI came from. Because of faster global economic integration FDI also increased very quickly over the last two decades and this scenario is presented in Table 16. The flow of FDI in the world increased by an average of 35 percent per year between 1995 and 2008.

Table 16: Flow of FDI, world and selected developing countries
(in million dollars)

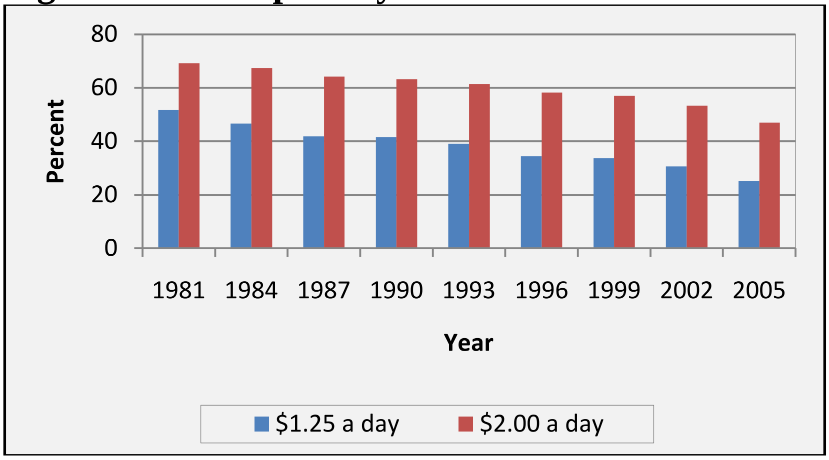
	1995	2008
Bangladesh	2	973
Tanzania	120	744
Thailand	2068	9835
World	328496	1823282

Source: compiled from World Bank (2010).

4.4 Scenarios of world poverty

The reduction of poverty was slow and insignificant between 1981 and 2005 as shown in Figure 6. Considering the lower poverty line (1.25 dollar a day) poverty reduced from 51.8 percent in 1981 to 25.2 percent in 2005. Similarly, with the upper poverty line (2.00 dollar a day) poverty reduced from 69.2 percent in 1981 to 47.0 percent in 2005. Over the period of 24 years poverty reduction was by an average of around 1 percent per year, thereby leaving a larger proportion of the world population in poverty.

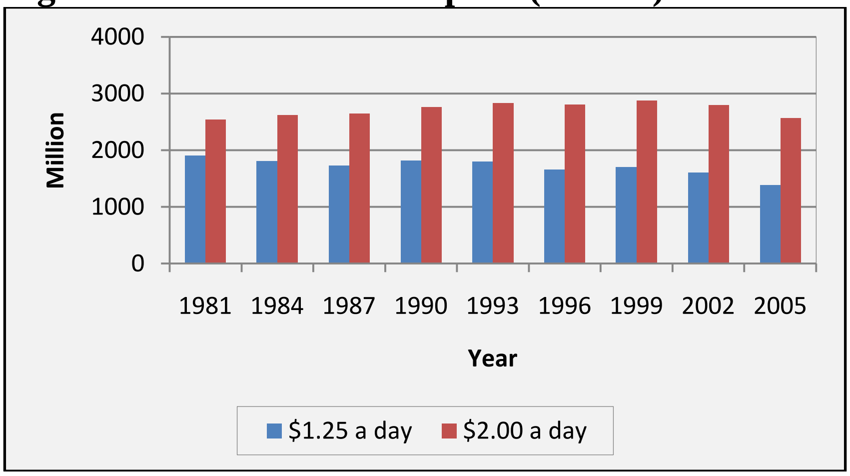
Figure 6: World poverty: headcount index



Source: Adapted from (Chen & Ravallion, 2008).

In fact, the number of poor population increased in that period as shown in Figure 7. Considering the upper poverty line, the trend of the world poor population was increasing; although with the lower poverty line, it slightly decreased. This was a clear indication that world poverty did not decrease in absolute terms over last two decades, rather the number of the world's poor population increased.

Figure 7: Number of world poor (million)

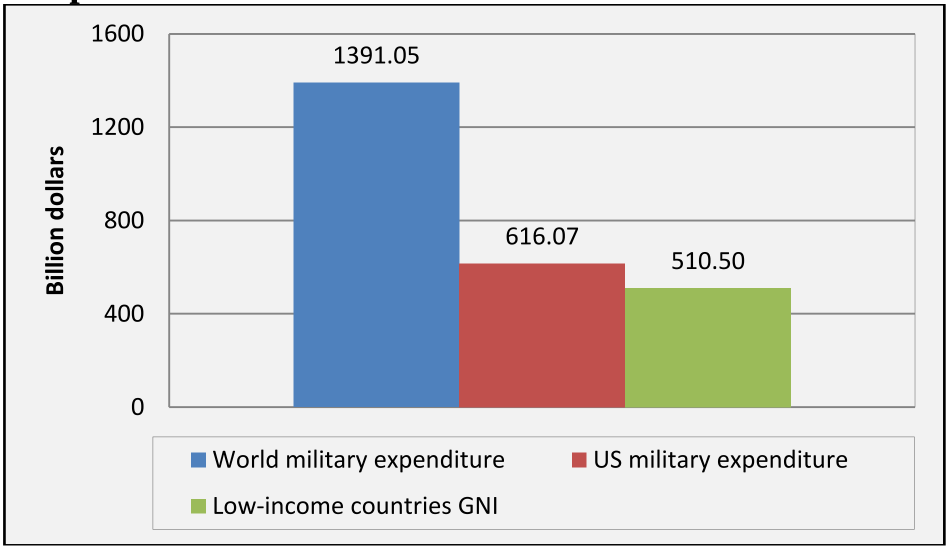


Source: Adapted from (Chen & Ravallion, 2008).

4.5 Is the alleviation of world poverty possible?

The total GNI of 84 low-income countries was 510.50 billion dollars, but the US military expenditure was 610.07 billion dollars, 21 percent greater than the GNI of low-income countries in the world in 2008, as presented in Figure 8. The world total military expenditure was 1391.05 billion dollars in the same year. Military spending was considered as one of the most unproductive government expenditures and wastage of resources. Even if half of this military spending was redistributed to poverty reduction, the world would be free from poverty. Therefore, the alleviation of poverty is not a myth, but a reality and could easily be attainable through redistribution of income in favour of the poor both across the nations and within an economy. Therefore, although globalisation facilitated the world economy to grow faster, the benefit from it was not distributed evenly, resulting in a huge gap in income between the poor and the rich.

Figure 8: Military expenditure and low-income countries GNI in 2008: a comparison



Source: Adapted from World Bank (2010).

5. Conclusion

The above findings and analyses suggest that globalisation could not benefit the poor and rich equally; rather the rich gained much larger than the poor from this process, thereby widening the income gap between poor and rich households across nations and within an economy. Therefore, the theoretical prediction of convergence of per capita income across global economies was not observed in reality over the past decades; although all economics experienced a considerable growth resulting from the higher global economic integration. The income gap between the poor and the rich was so widened that a high economic growth could not contribute to a significant reduction in poverty. Thus, a large proportion of the world's population was in a poverty trap; and the number of poor people in absolute term was on an increasing trend over last two decades. In fact, rich countries including the USA and Japan were using their resources and power to accumulate more benefits through transferring wealth from the poor countries by means of exploitation and corruption. The global economy could have experienced a poverty-free world a long time ago if world resources had been redistributed evenly across the economies. Hence, from the perspective of the poor, globalisation and more economic integration were considered as a process of exploitation and resource transfer by the rice from the poor both across economies and within an economy in the world. The commitment of rich countries to poverty reduction was falling short consistently and deliberately in the past. Therefore, the reduction of poverty was a serious challenge for the poor economies and achieving the goal of a poverty-free world in the future will more likely to be as difficult as in the past.

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7 – The Student Voice on Academic Dishonesty and Integrity

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Abstract
This paper aims to uncover the real causes of plagiarism among students. It further explores and identifies the factors that lead students to plagiarise in spite of all reminders about the policy and the consequences if the policy is violated. Students involved in plagiarism cases served as key informants.

Based on the reported reasons for violating the policy and the factors that led students to plagiarise, strategies, techniques and tools for embedding institutional academic integrity policy and practice were formulated along with practical techniques for developing academic integrity skills among students. The respondents were asked to tell their stories about their "plagiarism" experience and share their insights and lessons learnt. From their self-reported thoughts and feelings associated with their academic lack of integrity, their future perspectives on how to promote awareness of academic integrity in diverse student cultures were discussed. Concrete approaches and practical techniques were derived from the stories that were shared. What can educators learn from the growing number of allegations of plagiarism which happen not only in the classrooms but in government, business and media?

It is hoped that this investigation is a step ahead of the process of taking the right path towards a more proactive way of promoting academic integrity by recommending affirmative action to educational institutions while pinpointing the possible motives for committing academic dishonesty and the factors that precipitate or lead to it.

"*Integrity without knowledge is weak and useless, and knowledge without integrity is dangerous and dreadful*."- Samuel Johnson (1709-1784)

Key words
Academic integrity skills, academic dishonesty, plagiarism, precipitating factors to plagiarise, authentic assessment.

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Introduction

This paper aims to uncover the real causes of plagiarism among students and explore the factors that lead students to plagiarise in spite of all reminders about policies and the sanctions for any violation. This researcher's curiosity was aroused by the "recent events in the media that have highlighted concerns felt across the world with the types of assessment services being offered to students over the internet" (The Chronicle of Higher Education, 2010, p.1). In May 2013, the New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA) sought information from all tertiary education providers about "processes in place to detect cheating/fraudulent activities." "Each education provider is responsible for the integrity of its assessments and should implement practices that are appropriate to the individual context of that organisation" (NZQA, 2014 p.1). In view of this, the researcher decided to find out the reasons why students cheat, plagiarise and engage in fraudulent practices and trace the possible cause(s). This study focuses on the student voice regarding plagiarism in the hope that education providers would be better able to: a) craft and execute more effective strategies in dealing with academic fraud, embedding institutional academic integrity policy and practices and b) develop academic integrity skills among students.

Method

Thirty international students who were found guilty of plagiarism served as key informants. They were enrolled with non-university tertiary education providers, taking Level 5, 6, & 7 Diploma programmes in Business and Computing. They were selected randomly from a list of "offenders" who had consented to individually participate in a "storytelling session" about their "experience of plagiarism". Each one was asked to share their stories on "plagiarism "and their insights and lessons learnt after the case was investigated.

From the students' self-reported reasons for engaging in plagiarism and factors that led them to plagiarise, their perspectives on how to promote awareness of academic integrity in diverse student cultures were discussed. Concrete approaches and practical techniques were derived from their stories. What can educators learn from the growing number of allegations of plagiarism which happen in the classrooms but can also happen in government, business and media?

This investigation attempts to progress along the right path towards a more proactive way of promoting academic integrity. By pinpointing the motives and precipitating factors causing academic dishonesty, educational institutions may opt to employ affirmative action to address this issue.

Results and Discussion

The running theme of the stories of thirty respondents revealed that plagiarism is resorted to as a hopeless impulsive response to their fear of failure without realising that plagiarism will actually result in instant failure. A third of the respondents' stories implied their insufficient knowledge and understanding of plagiarism and their seeming lack of awareness that they were committing it at that instance. They claimed that they had unknowingly done it, without any intent to do so. They did not have a clear understanding of the term "plagiarism". During the story-telling sessions, most of them now realised that plagiarism means "submitting material, wholly or partly, that is not their own work without citing the source." They did not know when to give credit, or cite, when they use another person's ideas, opinion, theory, fact, statistics, etc., or any information that is not considered common even if they have used their own words or paraphrased them. Almost all alleged that they were unable to correctly reference their paper when they wanted to acknowledge the source because "they did not learn APA style well enough." They all admitted that "they lack research skills."

The respondents all cited that the assessment tasks given were contributing factor to plagiarism. The learning outcomes were not clear, and seemed meaningless and irrelevant to them. They were ill-prepared to do the tasks and unable to cope with the stressful situation of finishing their assessment within a given time frame. On the other hand, they admitted that "they had too many priorities other than their studies, e.g. their part time jobs, sightseeing, leisure time with friends and classmates, etc." A third of the respondents candidly admitted that due to their poor time management, they cut corners and resorted to cut and paste from the internet. It was easy and convenient to do that because their attitude was "My writing is not that good, so it is safer to cut and paste." The lack of confidence in their own research and writing skills overshadowed their obligation to cite the references when they cut and pasted. Due to time constraints, most of the copied materials was never edited and processed to suit the requirement of the assessments.

Further, respondents who came from diverse educational/cultural backgrounds stated that they were unfamiliar with the type of assessment or questioning techniques. In most of the stories shared, the respondents felt guilty of the offense then enlightened after the investigation process. They highlighted the crucial role of assessment in preventing academic dishonesty. When asked what academic dishonesty meant to them at this point in time, they replied that they now realise that academic dishonesty comes in many different forms, such as cheating and plagiarism. They cited specific instances from their experience, namely: copying an assignment, lifting answers from a classmate's exam, having notes or other resources not allowed by the teacher, including any comments or key words written on small "cheat notes" hidden inside their long sleeves or entered into their mobile phones or calculator memories. Each one shared from their experience lessons learnt like "never to turn in any assignment that was created by another student as their own work" or "to purchase papers from websites or other students on campus," never to "re-cycle a paper or assignment they have written for another class as 'new' for a different class." They elaborated, further citing other specific instances, such as "skipping a test or turning in an assignment late, making false excuses to avoid penalty or point reductions" or cooperating on a take-home test or other assignment designed to evaluate an individual, not a group, performance."

One of their most significant learnings from their experience was that "when in doubt about referencing or citing source, cite sources, learn well the APA style and develop good research skills." In addition, they mentioned other ways to avoid plagiarism, such as developing good time management skills. Lack of time led them to "cut corners". "Always make sure they understood the goals and expectations of the assignment and again when in doubt, ask the lecturer for clarification and guidance." "Being organised in order to keep track of sources and keeping draft copies of their work as they come handy when their work is lost" was also mentioned as part of the lessons learnt. Moreover, the respondents also mentioned that joining study groups before exams made them feel more prepared and confident and therefore, less likely try to cheat. "Group learning fosters respect." "It will not do any good to cheat during the exam." There was one additional practical tip that is often taken for granted –"protecting computer files so that other students cannot copy one's work." This tip came from someone who was a "victim" of this circumstance and he had to suffer the consequences of being guilty of academic dishonesty.

Recommendations

From the gleanings of the respondents, academic institutions could pick up some affirmative actions to consider. Their insights suggest the need to develop academic integrity skills to ensure academic success. These skills support the academic expectations placed on academic work. They are the reading and writing skills that are used everyday, such as: reading critically, understanding complex texts, discovering one's own ideas, synthesising research, using proper citations, paraphrasing and quoting appropriately, and writing style.

In general, tests and assignments are not always welcome and students felt negative about them. If the purpose of assessment is to improve learning outcomes and teaching strategies, then the type of assessment has to be authentic (The Economic Network, University of Bristol, 2013). Based on the experience of the 30 cases studied, most assessments did not fulfil this purpose. Teachers expect authentic answers from their students, yet they do not write authentic assignments (Howard, 2002). These students thought that if the assessments were done well and the feedback process was effectively implemented, the learning relationship with the teacher would fully develop.

At this juncture, the implications from the findings point to the need to seriously consider authentic assessment as a preventive measure to plagiarism, cheating and other forms of academic dishonesty. What then is authentic assessment?

Authentic assessment refers to assessment tasks that resemble reading and writing in the real world and in school (Hiebert, Valencia & Afflerbach, 1994; Wiggins, 1993). It aims to assess many different kinds of literacy abilities in contexts that closely resemble actual situations in which those abilities are used. Authentic assessment values the thinking behind work, the process, as much as the finished product. (Pearson & Valencia, 1987; Wiggins, 1989a; Wolf, 1989).

Working on authentic tasks is a useful, engaging activity in itself; it becomes an “episode of learning” for the student (Wolf, 1989). From the teacher’s perspective, teaching to such tasks guarantees that “we are concentrating on worthwhile skills and strategies” (Wiggins, 1989a). Students are learning and practising how to apply important knowledge and skills for authentic purposes. Performance assessment is commonly used in place of, or with, authentic assessment. It requires students to demonstrate their knowledge, skills, and strategies by creating a response or a product (Rudner & Boston, 1994; Wiggins, 1989b). Students might demonstrate their literacy abilities by conducting research and writing a report, developing a character analysis, debating a character’s motives, telling a story and the like. According to Daniel Callison (1998), authentic assessment is an evaluation process that involves multiple forms of performance measurement reflecting the student’s learning, achievement, motivation and attitudes on instructionally-relevant activities. Examples of authentic assessment techniques include performance assessment, portfolios, and self-assessment. Performance assessment consists of any form of assessment in which the student constructs a response orally or in writing. On the other hand, portfolio assessment is a systematic collection of student work that is analysed to show progress over time with regard to instructional objectives. Student self-assessment offers opportunities for the student to self-regulate learning, and the responsibility of appraising his or her own progress.

The increased interest in authentic assessment is based on the major issue that current procedures do not assess the full range of essential student outcomes, and teachers have difficulty using the information gained for instructional planning. O’Malley and Pierce (1996) have categorised common types of authentic assessment and their examples include oral interviews, story or text retelling, writing samples, projects/exhibitions, experiments/demonstrations, open-ended questions, teacher observations and portfolios.

Frey et al. (2012) stated that a commonly-advocated best practice for classroom assessment is to make the assessments authentic. Authentic is often used to mean the mirroring of real-world tasks or expectations. Authenticity is defined as assessment that is real in terms of processes and products, assessment conditions or the presented context, and true to life beyond school, curriculum and classroom practice or learning and instruction. Ekbatani and Pierson (2000) argue that a test is authentic if it is learner-directed and acts as formative assessment. They agree with Paris and Ayres (1994) that assessments that provide feedback to students and allow for self-assessment are authentic.

Archbald and Newman (1988) defined authentic assessment as measuring products or performances that have meaning or value beyond success in school. The three dimensions of authenticity are the context of the assessment, the role of the student and the scoring. Rubric scoring complements authentic assessment.

The degree to which an assessment task mirrors some reality outside of the classroom is a critical dimension of authenticity. Paris and Ayres (1994) describe authentic assessment as supporting classroom instruction, collecting evidence from multiple activities, promoting learning and teaching among participants and reflecting local values, standards and controls. Wiggins (1990, 1992, 1993) continued to emphasise that authentic assessments act as instruction and skill-building opportunities, not merely as tools of evaluation. They are also contextualised meaningfully, providing connections between real-world experiences and school-based ideas and are connected to students' lives. Hirvela and Pierson (2000), Montgomery (2000) and Valencia, Hiebert and Afflerbach (1994) among others asserted that authentic assessments should provide multiple examples, student ownership and revision and include tasks that represent meaningful literacy use. Assessments are only authentic if they have meaning or value beyond the score or grade that participation might produce. In other words, the assessment task itself should be meaningful. This suggests that assessments that require behaviour or cognitive operations that are not intrinsically meaningful are not authentic. Conversely, the definition suggests that assessment tasks that are interesting, require complex thought, and require high levels of student participation are authentic. Wiggins as the "father of authentic assessment", along with Archbald and Newman support a definition that poses an intellectually interesting and personally meaningful problem or task. Authentic assessment is supposed to engage the student; it works when the student has found it to be rewarding for its own sake. Complex tasks, interesting or creative cognitive activity, that are meaningful or useful to students, are the very tasks that are likely rewarding and reasonably considered authentic. It also suggests that student involvement in establishing scoring rules and self-evaluation of their own work adds to authenticity because it will increase student ownership and commitment to the task. The students are deeply involved, both in terms of cognitive complexity and intrinsic interest and are meant to develop or evaluate skills and abilities that have value beyond the assessment itself. It is this type of assessment experience that is realistically authentic.

The findings implied the need to ensure that the **assessments are for learning**, (Black & William, 1998) based on real life situations in order to make learning more meaningful to students. The focus should be on life-long learning, not just achieve a pass; therefore, the motivation to learn will change in perspective. Feedback on student performance from their assessments reinforces the motivation to learn and improve learning. In the long run, plagiarism and any other forms of academic dishonesty could be avoided or prevented.

Developing academic integrity skills and designing authentic assessments for life-long learning are two affirmative actions derived from the student voice on perspectives of plagiarism. These two challenges to educators will hopefully address the causes and precipitating factors that lead to academic dishonesty and ensure that assessments are for learning indeed. Assessments should not only be valid and reliable, they must be "true" (Palm, 2008).

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8 – Reflections on a Curriculum Renewal Project in a New Paradigm

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Abstract
This paper chronicles the Auckland English Academy (AEA) English Communication course curriculum renewal project instigated in May 2013. The main outcome of the project was achieved within the year: a full set of curriculum and syllabi linked to the Common European Framework of Reference for English Language (CEFR) with progress and achievement assessments for two six-week teaching blocks, for five levels of intensive English learning. In addition supporting documentation was designed including teaching schedules, a teachers' manual, assessment and moderation processes, evaluation documents and quality assurance schedules. Throughout 2014 the syllabi were expanded to cover two teaching blocks of 12 weeks with alternate sets of course-books and resources. In the process professional development for the team of teachers was a beneficial and welcome offshoot.

Keywords
Curriculum renewal, CEFR, CEFR alignment, framework, criteria-based reporting, assessment, moderation, syllabus, course-book, SGID, English teaching.

Jan Zane has a Master's in Applied Linguistics from Waikato and a Graduate Diploma in Language Teaching from Unitec. She spent many years as programme leader and head of school at Unitec and then went to Bahrain Polytechnic, where she managed a large team of teachers. Jan has published journal articles on IT in literacy and language teaching.

Research Background

Auckland English Academy (AEA), a private tertiary institute specialising in English as a foreign language to international students, has been offering English language tuition for over 25 years and we pride ourselves on our ability to maintain the highest standards of teaching and learning. Teachers and administrators provide a caring, welcoming environment, and the student voice via various evaluative tools is a vital informant to continual improvement.

At AEA every individual is appreciated as unique: students' needs are constantly monitored both formally, in student output and testing, and more informally in teacher-student one-to-one motivational meetings where students are guided to articulate and achieve precise language goals. Teachers follow the communicative methodology of active teaching and learning, characterised by pair and group work, high student response, and the use of a variety of linguistic manipulative techniques; all of which are the bread and butter of 'good teaching' in our discipline.

Teachers are appropriately qualified and experienced and committed to providing well-designed, language rich learning. Like the best teachers all over the world, they naturally become involved in the successes and struggles of their charges. They like teaching and they like their students.

Levels and Course-Books

Over the past 40 years or so of communicative teaching practice 'levels' of proficiency have been coined as 'Beginner, Elementary, Pre-intermediate, Intermediate, Upper Intermediate and Advanced'. Likewise course-books have been written to gear programmes of study to the appropriate level, and the major publishers of educational books such as Cambridge, Oxford, Pearson Longman, and Macmillan, have produced course-books, with frequently updated issues, in all these recognised levels.

These 'levels' have long been universally accepted and understood by practitioners as being discrete and recognisable by their linguistic features. It was however, only a few years ago that a team of linguists from Cambridge University and Oxford University, U.K. completed a five-year trialled project to fully define and articulate measurable linguistic markers in all language skills, over numerous functions in a six-part framework (A1, A2, B1, B2, etc.). Functions were coined 'Can Do' statements in a descriptive model of linguistic competencies. Finally, we had a set of criteria with which to more confidently claim progress and achievement of an individual's functional, communicative competencies. This project was approved by the Council of Europe and named: The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) sometimes referred to as the CEF.

The CEFR: A New Paradigm

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages is the result of many years of research and consultation by the Council of Europe. The framework has had a variety of definitions and explanations, but it can also be defined by what it is not. It is not a rating scale by which learners are measured. The developers of the framework advise that it should not be 'defined by what it is but by what it does', (Council of Europe, 2014). In an essence it is descriptive not prescriptive. It describes, it does not set targets. Various explanations of 'a language framework' include reference to sequential linguistic acquisition:

> A language levels framework is a series of language descriptions arranged sequentially to indicate an expected order of language progression or development over time. (O'Loughlin, 2007, p. 24)

Auckland English Academy: A Team Project in Curriculum Renewal

Early in 2013, the Principal of Auckland English Academy saw the need for specific leadership in the area of academic quality to complement the existing leadership of the Senior Teacher and administrators. In April 2013 I was fortunate to be given that responsibility and a period of time before beginning my 0.6 teaching load to scope for needs, wants, issues, and challenges, as well as for talents, attributes, and good practices. There were plenty of the latter and some of the former. Initial one-to-one meetings with each teacher revealed two common issues of need: a) updated materials, especially course-books, and b) a more structured afternoon programme to support the morning course.

In addition, irrespective of the obvious wealth of experience and fine calibre of the staff, the informal processes of judging student achievement, and test standardisation practices, were likely to be seen as invalid by auditing and reviewing authorities. The school was due for both an audit by English NZ and an NZQA EER. In response, a full curriculum renewal process emerged and developed.

The Team

The teachers were accustomed to meeting fortnightly for professional development sessions, often involving outside speakers giving presentations or leading workshop sessions. It was decided that we continue these fortnightly meetings but they would take the role of curriculum development and renewal sessions to allow teachers to provide input, feedback and critique in every change of the process, and in newly generated documentation. It was imperative that teachers 'own' their courses, and feel empowered by the process, as well as supported and respected.

Curriculum Document and CEFR Alignment

The school already had a fully articulated Curriculum Document with guidelines for learning methods, and the learning outcomes for each level, from Beginner to Upper Intermediate. From this we mapped a grid of alignment of each level to the CEFR.

Documents were then produced to give concise descriptors for each of our levels in the following skill areas: Overall (often known as 'Global'), Reading, Listening, Speaking, Writing, and Interactive listening.

Portfolio Schedule and Course-books

Using the Curriculum Learning Outcomes and the 'Can Do' statements of the CEFR, a schedule of 'portfolio' writing and oral presentations was designed and teachers began to trial this idea. Teachers were encouraged to change the output tasks to better match the needs and interests of their current class or course-book topics. Samples of student written output are photocopied and kept with a student's personal file to show progression of ability over time.

The series of course-books chosen was 'New Total English' for the following reasons:

1. The series is relatively up to date (i.e. published in 2011) with readings of real people and events so that wecan also use internet materials,
2. Each unit has a video on the topic, with photocopy allowed activity tasks, and supplementary activities.
3. Each unit has a practice 'review' and a 'progress test'.
4. The series also has mid and end of course 'achievement tests'.
5. Each unit is headed with the grammatical structures covered, and a CEFR 'Can do' task from the appropriate level descriptors, which also relates to the structures and topic.
6. The main commendation however, was that the book was written to align with the CEFR.

The Syllabi

The next task was the development of a morning (9.00a.m. to 12.00p.m.) syllabus for each level from Elementary to Upper Intermediate. At this stage the first level, Beginner, was not included as their teacher was doing a fine job of tailoring needs to individual levels of competencies. In time, this was revisited with the help of the teacher, an expert practitioner, in another rewarding collaboration.

Each syllabus was drafted in line with the New Total English course-book and given to those teaching at the level to critique. Some changes were suggested at this point, and revisions made immediately. It was important that teachers had input into every stage of the development and in every supporting document.

In early June 2013 the morning syllabi were launched to suit the structure, already in place, of five full weeks of teaching, followed by a ‘test week’. The new syllabi and course-books spanned two blocks of teaching which we then labelled ‘Cycle One’ and ‘Cycle Two’. With the practice of flexible entry, placement of students involves care in the Cycle Two phase as course work in the latter half of each book is definitely at a higher level than in Cycle One.

Supporting Documentation

As the need became apparent, various supporting documents were generated. For example, a Teacher’s Manual became a recognised need as so many processes had been revised or newly written. There was a lot for any new teacher, or relieving teacher to learn. The manual has proved to be effective. Copies are kept in staff rooms and loan copies ready for new teachers. A Quality Assurance Schedule was also written as a checklist reminder to senior staff members as well as teachers.

Criteria-based reporting

The launch of the syllabi with clearly defined alignment to the descriptors of the CEFR, now meant the need for clear criteria with which to evaluate student output in our ‘Week Six Tests’ of Speaking and Writing. Criteria-based evaluation forms which also doubled as individual student reports, were prepared for every level, using both the CEFR and our syllabi target vocabulary and structures. As each was drafted, it was given to the teachers of that level to critique and provide feedback. In some cases it was not until teachers were using the new forms in test week that need for revision became clear. The changes mainly related to grading down the language of the criteria based assessment feedback reports, so that students could more readily understand them. Thus it was at Elementary and Pre Intermediate level that this was necessary.

Reports

End of cycle reports were a long practice for our students, so there was a need to revise these also, in line with the new syllabi, the CEFR and the tests. The first draft was trialled at the end of the first block, but found to be too complicated. Again teacher feedback helped provide a more useful tool. The new report document allowed for affective comments for portfolio tasks (extra writing and speaking tasks) and such observations as participation in class, effort, weekly progress tests, etc. Hard data is noted only for the actual achievement tests in Reading, Writing, Speaking and Listening. The final report documents have a simple, clear format with the level CEFR global descriptors only.

Leaving Report

The final report document to be drafted was a final summary report for each student leaving AEA. This is drafted by their current teacher, and reflects the student's competence in each skill area. The reverse side of the document has all the global descriptors for each level from A1 to C2. The report was drafted to meet all NZQA requirements.

Evaluation

Meetings were held with each team to evaluate progress. Accordingly, it became clear that there is an urgent need for the evening syllabi to be drafted to support the morning programme. In addition, an upgrade of technology support in the classrooms in the form of new speakers linked to CD players or computers in every classroom was required.

Team Curriculum Project on Evening Coursework

Teachers, by this time, were well versed in the alignment of coursework and student output to CEFR descriptors, and also knew their former, and still much appreciated texts, especially the English File and Face to Face series. Having hardcopies of their morning syllabus, each pair of teachers for each level, morning and afternoon, worked together to find material in their chosen alternative texts where the content matched and/or supported the morning target structures. Teachers were encouraged to select sections of units which encouraged free practice output tasks such as writing, speaking, dialogue build and other follow-up activities.

The hand-drafted afternoon syllabi were formatted into tables with the morning syllabus target structures and 'can do' statements beside the afternoon references for support work. After two cycles, the teachers requested an amendment: to have the afternoon support tasks one week after their matching morning input sessions.

Assessment and Moderation

With both the morning and afternoon programmes documented and established, it was time to attend to the end of block assessments in Reading, Writing, Speaking and Listening. Until this time, teachers had used their own, or course-book tests and marked to traditional customs. Now used to CEFR descriptors and the newly formed criteria-based assessments, the team was comfortable with the idea of more formalised, standardised processes of assessingand reporting. In order to do this, pre-moderation and post-moderation forms were written, introduced and used in a curriculum development session to moderate actual tests. By doing this as a team, teachers were able to work together to discuss the process and the effectiveness of the moderation documents. It was soon apparent that the documents needed simplification to be practical useful tools. The simplified forms were then used with success and tests modified and prepared for the next iteration. The full set of curriculum documents was almost complete.

A final post moderation tool was produced. After each set of six weekly achievement tests, teachers enter tally marks to plot the achievement of their students in various percentage ranges. This proves to be a valuable and easy to use tool to indicate anomalies. Most tests resulted in the expected bell curve of achievements, but two tests indicated that they were far too easy. This information added to post-moderation checks resulted in modified tests for the next offering.

Course Evaluation

AEA already had an excellent ongoing process for collecting student feedback and for analysing it as a current 'snapshot' of success and concerns, and as a longitudinal check for past analyses. As part of an overall quality assurance plan AEA also instigated the use of Small Group Instructional Diagnosis (SGID) meetings. These were useful in talking to small groups at each level to gather their consensus views on courses, course materials, study facilities, and the like, via conversations. This is a tool which seems to be effective with second language users, allowing them to have the confidence of working as a group to express feelings and opinions and to question meaning.

Information from the SGIDs is referred to teachers, managers, and other stakeholders as appropriate. Student opinions are sought on such things as the use of course-books, preferences of different texts, or paper-based lessons compared with textbook ones, and where possible tangible changes are made, or not made, as advised.

SGIDs were also carried out with the teachers in level specific groups. Again this provides opinions and perspectives that would not necessarily be expressed by single individuals, or by busy teachers who feel they may be isolated in their view. One such view was that a previously used text, 'English File' was preferred over the new series chosen: 'New Total English'. In investigating this further, it was discovered that the teachers had felt reluctant to voice their views strongly to a new 'Senior Teacher'; myself.

In time, the choice was revisited, especially at pre-intermediate level where the new course book was proving far too complicated, and the favourite, 'English File (3rd Edition)' was reinstated. At last the team felt heard and a stronger bond was created. We are currently working on an alternative course-book for each level, so that after each twelve week teaching block, the alternative course-book is used. This is also to provide ongoing interest for those students who are repeating a cycle.

Reflections

On reflection, it seems that one of the major benefits of the curriculum renewal project was not so much what happened for the students, although that was a positive flow-on effect, it was what happened to the team of teachers. Comments such as, “You have made a difference”, “Things are much better than before”, “We have got clear processes now”, are rewarding.

It was only well into the renewal, that we realised we had in fact, embarked on a team ‘action research project’. Processes and documents were written or revised, and always put out to the teachers to trial and/or change. Changes were then critiqued, both informally and through formal moderation processes. During that phase learning happened while the group developed into a more cohesive team. The evidence is found in the willingness of team members to utilise the new documentationand processes such as end of cycle reports and student feedback, to critique these honestly, and in their appreciation at being able to give constructive input and be heard.

In the first two weeks of being appointed Senior Teacher (Academic Quality) being able to meet each teacher for a one-on-one meeting was beneficial from the relationship point of view, and to discover common areas of concern for us to work on. Those meetings assisted in the formation of a cohesive project team to work on the curriculum review.

Two weeks after initial meetings, a plan was presented and seemed to have a positive impact with comments from the team of approval and hope. One relief teacher remarked, “I was going to leave, but if you can produce these changes in two weeks, I want to stay.” From that point on the project was truly a collaborative action research.

This is not to say that everything went smoothly. The errors and revisions along the way were several. However the close collaboration of teachers with me as curriculum writer meant that immediate change was, and still is possible, and problems corrected satisfactorily. Initially, in order to drive this project forward, I believed there was need for a quick decision about the choice of course-books. The lack of consensus threatened team collaboration. Since then teachers have had input into all processes even if it is more time consuming in the short term. Team collaboration has now become a valued and successful practice in our team.

Today, permanent teachers and relief teachers remark on the usefulness of the structured syllabi and that the quality of the documentation has improved. Comments in meetings show an increased understanding of assessment and moderation, and moderation exercises throw up fewer anomalies. An exercise of external moderation is planned for this year. All teachers have understood the rationale, and collected evidence for this.

With the AEA practice of continuous improvement, the 'outcome' remains fluid as is best practice in regards to curriculum and delivery of language learning. New texts, new research and technological advances mean we continue to enrich, develop and revise decisions. We are currently exploring alternative texts with a much more open team approach. Teachers are now comfortable with the formal processes we have introduced especially in terms of moderation, assessment and reporting. Importantly, the spirit of continuous improvement and the age-old 'love of teaching' remain evident in the chatter in the tutor room. The real 'proof of the pudding' is that students are glowing in their thanks and farewell speeches each Friday assembly. It's very satisfying even though it's informal feedback.

Conclusion

English learning and teaching practices were remodelled by linking courses and assessments to the Common European Framework of Reference for English Language in line with best practice and industry standards. The project also promoted additional professional development as teachers adopted more formalised practices of moderation, assessment and reflective evaluation. With the AEA practice of continuous improvement, the 'outcome' remains fluid as is best practice in regards to curriculum and delivery of language learning. The syllabi have now expanded to cover two alternate twelve-week teaching blocks over all levels: a set of sixteen syllabi. New texts, new research and technological advances mean we continue to enrich, develop and revise decisions.

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