Papers/Abstracts of Workshops received following the Conference appear below in alphabetical order by surname of author.

Bock, H., and Lewit, H.
Christie, F.
Drury, H.
Moorhouse, C.E.
Richardson, B.L., and Wuillemin, D.
Taylor, G.
Webb, C.
Wuillemin, D.
Zuber-Skerritt, O., and Rix, A.
HEAD COUNTING OR SKULL-DUGGERY

A CASE OF CAPUT MORTUUM?

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Helene Lewit has a B.A. Hons. in Linguistics/Philosophy from La Trobe University. She has just finished an M.A. thesis, entitled "On Definites and Indefinites in English" or "A Cure for Insomnia". She taught Linguistics at La Trobe University prior to joining Hanne Bock in 1982 as the Second Comic Actor in the School of Social Sciences. Professional interests generated by her job are best formulated as questions: What is good writing? and What are good ways of teaching good writing?
HEAD COUNTING OR SKULL-DUGGERY:
A CASE OF CAPUT MORTUUM?

A paper presented to the Annual Language and Study Skills
Conference, Deakin University, May 1984

by

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The concern of this paper is the views on the literacy and learning
problems of La Trobe students presented in the recent report "Head Counting
and Higher Education". The authors of the report, Robert Manne and
Michael James, are concerned with rationalizing their experience as
teachers of Social Sciences students. As some of you know, Helene and I
are language and academic skills teachers to the same students; you may
therefore find our rationalizations a useful mirror to Manne and James'.
Our views are based purely on our experience with students who have sought
our assistance with language and learning problems. The only testing
which lies behind our conclusions is their degree of usefulness in the
working out of effective teaching strategies. They are, if you like,
linguistic accessories after the fact.

Our first concern must be to establish what it is we are discussing.
Manne and James sum up the problems as deficiencies in "levels of literacy
and general knowledge, the conceptual capacity and imagination, the diligence
and persistence of... students admitted to universities like our own".
Earlier they point more explicitly to "absenteeism", "plagiarism" and "late
submission". In descriptive impressionistic generalizations, this is what
the problems look like from a "demoralized" (the term is Manne's) teacher's
perspective. What, then, is the situation from our point of view based on
our work with students who seek assistance with language and learning
difficulties?

There are problems with Manne and James' generalizations. They
create the impression that all students have all problems, rather than
that most students have one difficulty or another, which is closer to
the truth and hardly remarkable. We shall now consider these generalizations
under three broad headings: firstly, learning skills, where we take issue
with the idea that absenteeism and late submission are new problems,
specific to La Trobe and an unfailing indication of the absence of "the
habit of learning and intellectual curiosity". Secondly, we address the
problems of sampling in a discussion of the extracts of student writing
quoted by Manne and James. Leading on from that, we shall consider the
concept of "literacy".
LEARNING SKILLS:

For our students, absenteeism and late submission are often the expression of a difficulty in organizing their time. Pressed, some students will make the choice to neglect classes temporarily in favour of getting an assignment in on time. This choice may be quite prudent considering the extent to which lectures are taped and available for self-study, as well as the fact that friends tend to be prepared to take turns going to tutorials and to supply notes for each other. This far, at least, "group activities", "egalitarian behaviour" and "informality" are a positive part of university studies.

Other students choose to follow classes and instead submit late. Again, organizing time may be a problem, but it cannot be assumed automatically that motivation or scholarly aptitude is inadequate. Neither can it be taken for granted that the student who submits late in one subject is also the one who is behind in another, nor that only one factor is responsible. Generally, there are a number of factors working together, some of which relate to course structures.

Essay dates tend to fall close together across subjects, and students do have heavy loads. It is not unusual for a full-time student to have to produce about 20,000 written words during his first year at La Trobe. This is approximately equivalent in length to five scholarly articles. Further, a lecturer may fall sick, or underestimate the time required to cover certain materials, and the student who selects a particular essay topic may therefore have his long-term planning disrupted. Availability of library materials is another influential factor and so is the length of time a student may have to wait for the return of a previous essay.

Insofar as the student can exert any control over the situation, the choice of which essay to postpone is rarely a fortuitous one. A determining factor is often the teacher's perceived humaneness and approachability. Late submission may therefore be an indirect compliment to the teacher.

Most of our students have had the experience of being late with an essay because they have put too much work into it. Absorption in the materials to the exclusion of a realistic assessment of the task in terms of time, marks and competing demands is one of the common learning skills problems our students face. Late submission is thus in a number of cases due to all good scholarly virtues, as we are sure most university teachers would know from their own work.

Now if we can look at learning skills problems in a broader context: A survey carried out at Melbourne University in 1979 concluded that approximately 18% of Melbourne students were in need of assistance with some kind of learning skills problem. This was only half-way through the period of decline as measured by Manne and James; if their measure is correct, and if learning skills problems are caused by falling standards in secondary schools, the needs of Melbourne students should be considerably greater now.

In order to gain a realistic measure of the size of these problems, the Melbourne team found it necessary to isolate a number of factors which may occur independently or in various combinations as learning skills problems. The factors were:
In addition to "study skills", the ability to maintain study plans, to balance study and relaxation, to use free time constructively, to cope with pressure and deadlines and to find enough study time (all in the time and study organisation area)... Also necessary are motivation factors such as keeping up interest in studies, coping with exam-anxiety, knowing how much academic progress is being made, being able to speak in tutorials and seminars and to work without being monitored.

(Frederick et al., 1980:1).

If Manne and James had taken similar care in defining their terms, they would probably have found that the student populations at Melbourne and La Trobe are experiencing much the same kinds of learning difficulties, possibly with local variations in composition and predominance of certain problems.

No equivalent study has been done at La Trobe. The best we can do is to give you the figures from our unit in 1983. During that year, we gave assistance to 349 students on a variety of problems related to Social Sciences subjects. This figure constitutes 24% of the School's enrolment, but it includes an unspecified number of students taking one or more Social Sciences units, but enrolled in other schools. Approximately 80% of the students were self- or friend-referred; only about 20% of the 349 had been sent directly by their subject teachers. This last figure gives an indication of the students' levels of motivation as against the perceived severity of their problems among their teachers.

We could draw parallels to the experiences of our colleagues at other universities as well, but there seems little point in continuing. We will conclude that in the area of general learning skills, we have no evidence that a "gulf" exists between the "elite and the lower status universities"; and we note that Manne and James provide no comparative evidence to support the claim.

THE SAMPLES:

This problem: the lack of comparative material combined with suspect selection criteria recurs in Manne and James' attempt to prove that the "literacy" levels of La Trobe students have fallen since 1975. It is probably true, as they claim, that their five small extracts, from exams and essays, selected "more or less at random" (a contradiction in terms?) will contain little to surprise teachers at La Trobe, for the extracts illustrate nearly the complete range of errors we find in students' essays. They are not, however, representative of the error distribution we would normally find in essays.

While we have no doubts as to the honesty of Manne and James' intentions in selecting these extracts, we would suggest that they have been the victims of some common fallacies in the assessment of written work. Exam scripts cannot be placed in the same category as essays for the purpose of assessing literacy levels. In contrast to the demands of essay writing, students are urged to concentrate on getting their points down in an exam and not to worry about style. Legibility is the only demand to presentation. To judge a student on an exam script is equivalent to judging a professional writer on his first rough draft. The choice of
three exam scripts among the five samples may therefore have contributed to the concentration of errors found here.

All five extracts give the impression of being opening sections either of full papers or of arguments. This too may have caused a bias. Errors are non-randomly distributed with a tendency to cluster in particularly difficult sections. Students tend to find introductions particularly difficult, hence we often see a disproportionate number of errors exactly in introductions with a noticeable improvement as the essay proceeds. The number of errors in these extracts is therefore unlikely to be representative of the full essays or indeed to be a genuine indication of the students' literacy levels.

Topic statements are by definition general and can, when taken out of context, give an undeserved impression of naiveté. Consider, for example, the following statement which was used this year to introduce a full lecture course:

There are basically two dominant political systems in Europe: the parliamentary system and the communist system.

This kind of statement is commonly used in academic discourse to establish the field of investigation while implying a justification for the choice. Now compare the following extract cited by Manne and James ignoring its surface problems:

Vietnam and Bulgaria are undeveloped nations, who, although they differ in lifestyle, culture and history, share something, that being they are both communist systems of government.

This is essentially the same type of statement. It indicates an area and makes a claim which the paper will have to develop. There is nothing intrinsically naive about it.

The extracts were reportedly selected from among written work from "two of our first-year subjects". Both were, however, quite obviously Politics subjects. This raises the question whether five samples of topic sentences from three exam scripts and two essays in two Politics subjects can be in any way claimed to be representative of the general literacy levels of approximately 1,332 first-year students scattered across a range of Humanities and Social Sciences subjects.

In view of the non-random distribution of errors, the question is not an idle one. Manne and James themselves acknowledge that "a certain number of the students who fail or drop out of a first-year Politics subject will perform satisfactorily or even well in their other subjects". Quite so; and similar variations are often found in the quality of expression not only from one section of a student's paper to the next, but also from paper to paper. In order to piece together a useful picture of a student's language competence, one must look at full papers and at papers from the various subjects the student is studying.

Again, there is no comparative material to show that these extracts actually represent a fall in standards relative to 1975. And further, were these papers failed? If so, what kind of indication do they provide that standards are falling at La Trobe? Were they passed? If so, each paper as a whole must have had considerable compensatory values and the
quoted extracts can then not be representative of the students' actual achievement or indeed of their capabilities.

"LITERACY":

We have now arrived at one of the most fundamental fallacies of Manne and James' argument. They proceed on the assumption that literacy problems are synonymous with remedial problems and that consequently previous educational institutions can and should be made totally responsible for them. This is not the case. The literacy problems our students face are of a diverse nature. For one thing, it is not unusual for students to experience a drop in language performance during their first year at university. Based on symptoms alone, as they appear in university essays, this drop tends to be seen as a purely remedial problem. It is, however, far more often the temporary outcome of a number of stress factors: discipline orientated, language orientated, cultural and social.

The basic condition to keep in mind when discussing degrees of language performance is the fact that language competence only develops in the face of a need to communicate, i.e. we must all have a certain content to express in order to feel the need to learn to express it. Students are no exception. One of the most popular dictums about the value of university study is that it challenges the students' intellectual universe. Indirectly, it therefore also challenges their language. As new thoughts have to be clothed in words and strung together in sentences, the student's language competence will need considerable expansion and restructuring.

We may use plagiarism as a brief illustration. Manne and James single out this problem as an aspect of "remedial" language problems and an unscholarly, almost criminal practice; to a very large extent it is neither. It is largely a developmental problem, the depth and extent of which are not widely recognized, and advice offered, although repeated and stressed has as a consequence little effect. The problem therefore takes on greater proportions than it needs to.

Although a critical selection process is called for in secondary education, there is considerable emphasis on assimilation of facts. These requirements in turn affect requirements regarding style. In the process of building up a rounded store of information and rules from core texts, the term plagiarism has little meaning. Paradoxically, however, Manne and James' apparent call for a stronger 3R orientation in secondary schools is also a call to increase the unquestioned "facts" component of the curriculum.

To make this point more sharply: Where the aim in writing is the critical assimilation of knowledge seen as facts, essays based on texts will contain a selection of facts - or motifs - dyed in personality. The writing becomes a repetition of the creative act, so to speak, and the appropriate style will show a one-to-one correspondence between the writer, the selection and the views expressed. Subjectivity may reign absolute. When the aim becomes the creation of knowledge, "facts" become "views". Views are by definition personal and the need now arises for a style which will allow the assignation of views to others. Stylistic objectivity has been introduced to serve as a hand basin in which the writer, in good Pontius Pilate style, may wash his hands of responsibility for the elements he has brought together.
Both genres are perfectly legitimate; unfortunately both are known simply as "essays".

To demonstrate, I have brought some essays written by a student in our bridging course. The one which illustrates the subjective style in its purest form was written under conditions in which there could be no suspicion of an intent to plagiarize. The other two show first and second attempts to write to the directions set out in John Clancy and Brigid Ballard's book. To dispel any notion that the student's "conceptual ability" was at fault, let me add that this particular student had achieved the transition to a perfect Pontius Pilate style before the end of first term.

The point we want to make is: Learning not to plagiarize is not merely a mechanical matter of footnoting and bibliography which "diligence and persistence" will achieve. It is first a mental reorientation of self towards sources; it is also an analytical process reflected in a particular style: A new stylistic framework has to be developed which distances the writer from the views presented. As part of that framework, new distinctions have to be learned between verbs like "claim", "argue", "demonstrate", "illustrate", "find", "prove" etc. etc. and subtle differences in tense shifts which have little to do with keeping tense consistency but indicate degrees of endorsement with statements made.

The process of learning a style as complex in its determining elements as this may take time. It is actually achieved with remarkable speed by very many students. However, where there are problems, admonitions which imply criminal intent rather than educational reorientation will do little to promote learning. When it comes to style, in many profound ways the mirror of content, Manne and James show little awareness of the role of university studies in challenging the student's intellectual universe, although that role appears to be one of their main concerns.

Part of the problem with Manne and James' view of literacy is that they assume that there is only one way of writing good English. This is not so. As indicated in the previous example, it is very much the case that good writing is good writing in context. To give a striking example of this, let me quote from Douglas Bate's report, which canvassed the views on literacy skills of graduates among Government and industrial employers. The following complaints were made:

Graduates appear to have problems in writing reports and memos. There is a tendency to go into too much detail on minor points and therefore lose the main point. (2:13)

Most business situations tend to have an urgency factor, and the Pareto Principle of 80% right now applies. In their search for perfection new graduates tend to be verbose - and late. (2:21)

In other words, what is condemned as overgeneralizations in university essays is legitimized in the business context as the "Pareto Principle", and failure to live up to it is seen as a literacy problem. The passage continues:

An ability to condense the situation into critical factors with few but well chosen words is a prime need.
Separated from its context in this manner, the comment appears to refer to a skill that university students need to practise as well. But when it is recalled that it was the discussion of the Pareto Principle that prompted the comment, it becomes clear that it here refers to qualities quite different to those it would have referred to in a university context, and that consequently we are not being made aware of a continued failure to learn on the students' part, but of a need for reorientation in learning. If you read through the report, you will find a number of similar gems, all complaining of the absence of context-specific skills described, however, in terms of universal "literacy problems". In the tendency to use the term "literacy" without any attempt at definition, it has become a rubbish bag into which all sorts of problems may be thrown for the purpose of shifting blame.

It is for this reason that we prefer the term "literacy conformity". The situation is that at university, students are trained in a formal discourse style which is neither widely appreciated nor particularly useful outside the academic context. It would not therefore seem excessive to expect universities to take some responsibility for the teaching of it. A University-Or-Bust approach to the teaching of English in secondary schools, which appears to be what Manne and James are calling for, would hardly be in the interest of the majority of secondary students, or of the community.

What, then, are the literacy problems we meet among our students? To answer this question it is necessary to understand that although we can talk of academic discourse as a style distinct from a marketing report or a personal letter, it is a genre containing several variations which, however, cannot be used ad hoc. Each discipline has evolved its own register, i.e. general vocabulary plus subject-specific terminology, and shows a predilection for certain structures. Characteristic of our students' difficulties is the tendency for "remedial problems" to occur exactly in the integration of these two factors: the discipline-specific and the general, into sentence and paragraph structure.

For example, how does one construct a sentence around the word "contraposto" in Art History? Is "the rule of law" a tautology in Legal Studies? May the phrase "an overpowering force" be used descriptively in a Politics essay as it may in an English essay? Are differences in deductive and inductive analysis reflected in essay and paragraph structure? How do the demands to "plain and simple English" and the virtue of "coming straight to the point" apply to a carefully modified hypothetical proposition? And as John Clanchy (1981:22) has shown, the choice between passive and active voice, first or third person narrator is not determined by stylistic rules and cannot be predicted from the rules operative in "general rounded English". It is determined by the scholar/scientist's conception of knowledge and his relation to it.

Errors arising as the students come to terms with these issues would be better labelled problems in literacy conformity than literacy problems. Remedial problems they are not, if by that term we understand something the student has neglected to learn at an earlier stage of education. These styles, or elements of style, can only be learned together with the meaning of analysis and the process of arguing within a particular discipline. Style as conceptualization cannot be taught prior to its use.
Evidence that this is the root cause behind a substantial number of apparently remedial errors is provided partly by the fact that if we ask our students to write in a mode familiar to them, their writing will show a substantial reduction in errors relative to their university essays. Further, when we address our teaching to the problems as we understand them, certain types of "remedial" problems will diminish automatically. This is so for subject-verb agreement, sentence fragments, illogical sequencing (use of wrong adverb, conjunction, tense, etc.) and malapropisms. Certain other problems will remain and may require considerable drilling. Even so, residual problems have proved to be most effectively and efficiently resolved if the basic teaching materials are university texts. This means that insofar as students are transgressing general rules, the problem lies not in learning certain rules by heart, but in learning to recognize the presence of the conditions for applying those rules in a new - and far more sophisticated - context.

The fact remains, the newness of the situation, of the procedure as a whole is directly responsible for a significant portion of apparently remedial problems.

Another influential factor is the contrast between formal written academic discourse and the students' vernacular. It is conceivable, if not actually known, that students' competence in academic English may reflect somewhat the relative shift in emphasis towards oral expression as a communicative medium for learning in schools, as this shift favours automatically, and in our view legitimately, the vernacular. It is, however, also conceivable that the acceptance of the student's vernacular may have been instrumental in enabling a greater number of students to reach university entry levels by allowing them to develop intellectually within a more familiar medium. It may in short be necessary to concede that a shift in emphasis is not synonymous with a fall in standards. There is certainly irony in the fact that the students' oral skills are often lauded indirectly, when the quality of tutorial input of Australian students is compared favourably with that of students from educational systems overseas.

The international role of English academic discourse is not unlike that of Latin in the medieval world. Various figures indicate that the percentage of scholarly journals published in English is extremely high. Swales (1982:2) for example quotes a figure of 80% for Engineering. This is a position of tremendous communicative power, but also one which is held only at a cost. The basic structure, vocabulary and spelling of academic English has to be kept nearly static. Localized change must be avoided. Change and evolution must be proportionate to and follow upon conceptual change and evolution within disciplines, so that, in effect, change is explicable within the relevant literature itself.

Although university teachers tend to comply with this implicitly, both personally and in their demands of their students, only few rationalize their demands beyond the request that essays must be "easy to read", and in "correct English". In other words, familiarity with certain structures and registers becomes "ease and fluency", and a set of rules which apply only in a specific context becomes "correct", i.e. the specific is universalized and deviance is made a "literacy problem".

Some rules of written language have only limited application in the spoken. If we take the closest approximation to the written academic
discourse available, i.e. a formal lecture and transcribe the utterance, as distinct from reading the prepared manuscript, many so-called literacy problems will be found. This includes non-functional repetitions, false starts, subject-verb problems and so on. Even when the lecture leaves the impression of having been carefully prepared and fluently delivered, a significant number of such "errors" will occur. This is so despite the fact that spoken formal discourse is influenced by, indeed kept in check by, its written counterpart. Unless we want to argue that lectures are orally illiterate, we have to concede that not all rules are operative on both written and spoken forms of the same language.

Other spoken forms show, of course, greater rule divergence; and it would be counter-productive as well as futile to demand that they conform.

We now have the background necessary to understand the nature of another set of "remedial" problems in the essays of our students. They arise because there is insufficient recognition among teachers that some language rules apply only to one medium. The result is that some rules operant upon one are explained in terms of the other, thus reversing cause and effect. An example is punctuation. Its usefulness is restricted to its visual impact. Accordingly and despite widespread folklore, it conforms to rules within the written language alone. Corrections made in students' essays indicate an awareness of this, although the accompanying advice to students often is to "read aloud" in order to check "flow" and to punctuate where they "make a pause".

Now, "pausing" combines with a number of other devices, such as intonation, to convey a variety of complex meanings in the spoken language which punctuation marks cannot convey, or cannot convey alone, e.g. hesitation, irony, emphasis or ellipsis. In reading aloud, we make a pause and adapt intonation patterns to suit the punctuation, not the other way around. The marks are placed almost exclusively to indicate grammatical units, and in subconscious conformity with this, teachers will conclude from students' punctuation errors that they do not know what a sentence looks like. Nevertheless, the advice continues to be given: read aloud and place a comma where you pause for breath. We do not stop in our reading in order to breathe.

Some mistakes which appear in written work as remedial sentence constructions combined with lousy punctuation are attempts to follow this advice, attempts, that is, to bend the written medium to rules governing the spoken. The advice may conceivably cause no damage to a student whose language competence is predominantly visual, or to one to whom the spoken language is secondary to the written. But for a student with an uneven competence, with the balance tipped in favour of the spoken and/or a predominantly auditory orientation, the rule will counteract learning. In short, students who hear rather than see what they write are going to have problems with a rule which tells them to do exactly that.

We suggest that this has been part of the problem in the J.S. Mill and Stalin extracts, quoted by Manne and James. Listen, for instance, to the first sentence in the Mill extract:

J.S. Mill's conception of the House of Commons being a democratic body and the House of Lords, the aristocratic. Illustrates exactly the point I wish to make.
The punctuation marks separating "aristocratic" from the sentence of which it is a part, are meant to convey the meaning of the elliptic parallel structure. They substitute for a pause on either side of the word plus a dual emphasis on "democratic" and "aristocratic".

It is conceivable that if students in general increase their oral competence relative to their written, conceptual confusion in the formulation of rules such as just discussed will have a greater impact on their written performance. But are errors due to confusion of two media and the rules operative on either a remedial problem? If so, it implicates the teaching not only and possibly not even predominantly of secondary teachers.

A more specific set of problems in moving from vernacular to formal written discourse is faced by our students of migrant background. Their dialects will often contain structures transferred from their parents' native language - "frozen" structures, so called. (And please note that this full stop is wrong if you read, but correct if you read aloud). For a variety of reasons, these structures are rarely noticed in spoken communication. But they will surface in written discourse, where, unless they are recognized, they may be seen as remedial problems and/or reflecting a naive mind.

It is well-known, for example, that Asian students have problems with the articles in English, and allowances are made for that. What is not so well known is that students of Greek or Eastern European extraction often do too. Unfortunately, the impression created by the writing of such students is reminiscent of that created by the utterances of English pre-school children going through the naming stage in mental and language development. The unsuspecting, linguistically naive teacher may as a consequence perceive his student's conceptual ability in a coloured light.

It is true that there is a number of "clumsy" or "incorrect" structures of this origin to be isolated in the academic writing of our migrant students; but if we insist on calling them remedial problems we will not be able to teach these students much; neither can we claim to be a multicultural society. It is also true that our migrant students appear to be particularly prone to drops in performance of general language rules when they enter university; but experience in teaching has taught us that this is more usefully seen as an indirect effect of bilingualism than as a conceptual/remedial problem.

In general, bilingualism is complementary, i.e. competence in each language tends towards specific and complementary areas. The bilingual person's command of either language is thus as a rule more limited than the monolingual person's. Hence there is a greater susceptibility to confusion. However, the combined language competence of the bilingual person tends to be greater. Our bilingual students are no exception to this. Once the nature of their particular language competence has been recognized, its broad and varied base can be turned to advantage in further learning.

And now for a series of parting shots:

The word "remedial" implies a lack of growth or a cantankerous growth. It implies that something which should have been learned has not been learned. It implies that "corrective" measures are required.
teaching approach based on these assumptions and applied to the problems of Social Sciences students at La Trobe has limited results - and we speak from experience. The problems we face are best seen partly as a continuous developing process of language learning branching gradually into various genres and styles, partly as a set of contrasts in which spoken language stands against written, vernacular against academic discourse in its various subtypes, one professional jargon and one set of conventions against another. None of these problems is unique to La Trobe, although their particular composition may be.

We are now in a position to attempt a definition of the term "illiteracy". It is, in our view, the failure, for a variety of reasons, by a person or group to fulfil the rules of language use set by another person or group. Linguistics uses the term language deviance, which although it implies a stigma just as "illiteracy" does, nevertheless infers that conformity, not remedialism is the key factor in determining its application. In contrast, "illiteracy" or "remedialism" tend to universalize what is context-specific.

Last barrel - if you survive this you'll be right:

If the "conceptual confusion and naivety" which facilitates the equation between problems of literacy conformity and "remedial" problems is allowed to continue, such problems may indeed become intractable.
GENERIC STRUCTURES AND LEARNING TO WRITE

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GENERIC STRUCTURES AND LEARNING TO WRITE

A paper presented at the Australasian
Fifth Annual Study Skills Conference

Deakin University, 15 - 18 May, 1984

Frances Christie
School of Education
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I intend to argue in this paper that when we learn to write we learn 'ways of meaning' - ways of organising experience, information and ideas, all of which find expression in distinctively different language patterns. To use language in the terms being argued here is to construct meaning, or, to put the point another way, meaning is realised in language. The measure of this lies in the fact that different texts have distinctively different linguistic features: it is in these that meaning is realised.

There are of course many ways of making meaning available to us apart from those of language: dance, music, and the many other artistic forms found in our own and other cultures immediately spring to mind. Moreover, ways of meaning differ from culture to culture, and they also change over time, for they are socially created, and like other social phenomena, they are constantly subject to processes of transformation and change.

I want to suggest that successful participation in one's culture involves learning to interpret and employ its way of meaning, and that such a view has important implications for educational processes generally. Educational activities at any level from primary to tertiary, are really activities undertaken in the expectation that those being educated will be enabled to become successful participants in their culture.

In a sense the latter point may seem rather obvious. Indeed, when we consider the kinds of educational activities in which most of us engage as teachers, or when we consider for example the kinds of educational aims which find familiar expression in curriculum guideline documents in schools, it is clear that we do want those whom we teach to become successful participants in their culture.

In the Australian context for example, in common with other Western countries, we tend to value for those whom we educate the development of skills and capacities of many kinds. Moreover, these skills and capacities are valued across the full range of subjects or content areas, and in significant ways they are all seen to contribute to the development of the educated person. I refer to the development of such things as: methods of enquiry and of valuing, habits of critical judgment and discrimination, skills of reflection, analysis and speculation, or capacities to synthesise information and points of view.
These are all among the characteristics we value for those whom we educate, and it takes no great perspicacity to see that that is because they are among the characteristics valued in the wider community our educational institutions exist to serve.

Such characteristics and the many others we might easily identify if we took the time needed to do so, are developed in different ways of making meaning, including ways of making meaning in language.

The latter observation is not in itself an obvious one, yet it is this which lies at the very heart of my discussion. Methods of working, of reasoning and of argument, of valuing and of investigating, are frequently talked of in a manner which suggests they have an identity independent of the behavioural forms or patterns in which they find expression, including of course forms of language.

In this connection it should be noted, it is professional educators who are themselves frequently responsible for the serious confusions which creep into educational discussion, having unfortunate consequences for educational practices and hence for students' learning.

At all levels of education, as students acquire new information, learn new ways of working, develop new intellectual perspectives, or expand and extend those earlier developed, they engage in interpreting and manipulating differing patterns of discourse. As they learn to manipulate such patterns so they learn ways of meaning.

The difficulty in all this - the source of the confusion into which much educational discussion frequently plunges us - is that language itself is in an odd sense 'invisible' - the resource we most frequently use and hence most take for granted. Thus, when teachers focus upon what it is they intend their students to learn, they tend to focus, to some extent understandably, upon 'content', 'knowledge' or 'ideas' - all conceived of as matters which exist independently of language use. Get the 'content' right, seems to be the assumption, and the language will in some fashion fall into place after it. Yet what is 'content' or 'information' or 'ideas'?

I would suggest that such terms refer in a very general way, to complex sets of understandings, to methods of posing questions and investigating these, and that they are realised in distinctive patterns of discourse. When we
and our students use language we construct texts, and as we construct texts, so too we construct the meanings associated with the various aspects of human experience and endeavour which we call 'content areas'.

It was Halliday (1975) who first suggested that learning one's mother tongue was a process of 'learning how to mean'. It was a suggestion he made out of a study of one young child's early language development: he linked his observations of the young child's learning language to his view of the complete language system which the child would eventually learn. The one illuminated the other.

In learning to use one's mother tongue one learns to construct text as a part of the process of learning to negotiate and build relationships, understandings, attitudes and points of view. The latter constitutes the various kinds of 'content' of language, and both in speech and in writing the nature of the texts alters depending upon the kinds of 'content' involved.

What are the educational implications of such a view of language? Two implications seem to me worthy of being stated:

1. at any level of education we must recognise that when students learn, they are engaged in learning differing ways of constructing and organising meaning in texts;

2. that teachers need to be aware of the kinds of linguistic demands they make upon their students so that they may usefully guide and direct them, thus assisting them to learn.

Nowhere are these implications more important than when we consider the kinds of writing tasks students are commonly given to complete. Learning to write is a matter of learning to construct differing written texts - differing genres - having distinctive generic structures. The nature of these generic structures is culturally determined, for they are intimately linked to the various culturally created means of expression and articulation of experience available to us.

In my view, such an understanding does not familiarly inform practices in teaching writing at any level of education. On the contrary, two views, both of them largely unhelpful to students, have tended to prevail for a long time. The one, associated in particular with much English teaching practice, has tended
to emphasise 'creativity' or 'self-expression', and the need to allow students plenty of scope to express themselves in writing much as they want, with minimal direction from others.

The other view, associated with the teaching of most subjects other than English, tends largely to ignore language altogether and to suggest that what matters is that the 'information' or 'content' in the writing is appropriate.

The former view fails to acknowledge how it is that people become creative or self-expressive. Contrary to popular myth, creativity is not something individuals simply generate within themselves. Rather, I suggest, creativity is generated out of exposure to various modes of meaning found within one's culture. It is through manipulation of these, playing with the various genres available - that individuals do both express themselves and, sometimes, create new genres.

The second view of writing which I have suggested is associated with other teaching subjects, is, for reasons I have earlier addressed, unsatisfactory because it subscribes to a belief in an independence of form and content which is simply illusory. Meaning or 'content' resides in, or is realised by language, and students who struggle to make sense of new information or content in writing are actually struggling to deal with the language necessary to achieve an appropriate mastery of that content.

I propose to consider here three examples of writing by young writers. They were written by students much younger than those of most participants at this conference. I shall nonetheless argue that my general observations are relevant when we consider students writing at any age. I shall argue in particular that since patterns of language are culturally created, they are, like many other aspects of behaviour, learned. In addition I shall suggest it is the responsibility of teachers to have a much more sensitive regard for, and interest in the nature of language, and in particular the various kinds of generic structures their students must master in order successfully write in the various subjects or content areas of concern.

In examining each of the texts I intend to draw upon perspectives drawn from systemic linguistics, in particular in the work of Halliday (1984) and that of Martin and Rothery (1980; 1981).
Text 1: The kangaroo who lost its tail

A long time ago there was a kangaroo who did not have a tail and all the animals laughed at him and that made him sad. How did he get it back? He got it back by dipping his tail into lolly-pop sirup (syrup). The animals started to like him and then they played with him. Would you like it? I would not because it would be most annoying.

The End

Text 2: Sharks

"Sharks"! When people think of sharks they think of harsh, savage fish that attack at sight as a matter of fact they are completely wrong. Although there has been reports of shark attacks these are very rare. Most sharks won't even come near the shore so people swimming near the shore can consider themselves almost guaranteed safe.

Sharks have special sense organs that can sense things up to 1 mile away. The shark uses fins to balance itself and it has to keep swimming or else it will sink. The shark's teeth are razor blade sharp and although you can only see two layers of teeth there are many in the jaw. Usually smaller fish follow the sharks around in hope of gathering up scraps that the shark may leave.

Text 3: Character Study

Puberty Blues: Personality

Debbie was a girl who wanted to be with the top gang at the beach. She and her friend tried everything to get into the gang. She wanted to be tough and cool and have spunky boyfriends. She always lied to her parents so she could go to the beach. She smoked cigarettes and did the wrong things at school. One day she got into the gang. She was a top chick now. She could get a spunky boyfriend when she wanted. She went to parties and drank alcohol and cigarettes. One day she took drugs and started having them all the time.

Debbie lived in a huge red brick mansion. It was three storeyed and had a built in swimming pool. She hung around with the surfie gang and was cool and tough. The gang spent most of their time at the beach surfing. On weekends they would go out in panelvans to the drive-ins and dark streets. Sometimes they would go to someone's house when their parents were out.

Debbie wrote the book. It was written in the first person and told her feelings and what she did. At first she liked being in the group and being cool and tough and taking drugs. But after a while she became sick of it and left. She started surfing with her friend.
Text 1 is by a child in Grade Two, aged 7 years.

No-one here would have any difficulty identifying this as a story. The fact that we can so identify it is in itself significant. We do so because as successful participants in a culture which values storytelling we recognise a familiar generic structure, a way of constructing meaning in language. How do we know this is a narrative? What linguistic features in the text give it its distinctive character?

Consider first of all the schematic structure of the text:

Orientation: a long time ago there was a kangaroo who did not have a tail
Complication: and all the animals laughed at him and that made him feel sad.
Resolution: how did he get it back? he got it back by dipping his tail into lolly-pop siarp. The animals started to like him and then they played with him.
Coda: Would you like it? I would not because it would be most annoying.

This particular breakdown of elements of schematic structure comes from the research of Labov and Waletsky (1967) into spoken narrative. The coda - the storyteller's evaluative comment upon the story - they found did not always occur in narratives. While being careful to point out that many other kinds of narratives apart from those they examined required analysis, they found that narratives tend to introduce characters, placing them in some kind of setting, and also establishing some sense of time. They tend also to introduce some complication(s) and ultimately to bring about some resolution. In particular according to Labov and Waletsky a sequence of events temporally linked, and some kind of crisis or complication, appear to be the two most distinctive elements of narratives.

In table 1 I have set out a clause breakdown showing in particular conjunction and themes. Theme incidentally, in systemic linguistics simply refers to that which comes first in the clause. Note the opening theme - really a cliche in children's stories - 'a long time ago'. It has the function of establishing a temporal sense. Subsequent temporal sequence is provided by the use of 'and', in two cases where there is an implicit 'then', and in one case where it is explicit: 'and all the animals laughed at him and that made him sad'; and in 'the animals started to like him and then they played with him'.
The story is told in the past tense, a common though not invariable feature of narratives. The experiential processes found here are worthy of comment.

Processes - 'what is going on' as it were - are identified in English in verb structures. Some of the processes here are to do with attribution e.g. 'he did not have a tail'; others with behaviour e.g. 'they laughed at him'; others with action e.g. 'they played with him'. The processes of the coda by contrast are attitudinal: 'would you like it?'

Narratives, since they deal with the unfolding of events typically have a number of action processes. It is significant that this text has very few action processes. Their absence confirms the sense that the text lacks much in the way of event.

Text 1 is pretty rudimentary and Tables 2 and 3 help to demonstrate why we can make this judgment. Table 2 setting out reference chains across the clauses indicates how minimal are the references to characters other than the kangaroo. Table 3 indicates the principal lexical strings in the text. Under each of the headings I have identified it will be clear that the relevant items are few. In significant ways the text lacks detail.

Why is such an analysis useful? I suggest it is very useful because it focuses attention upon both the strengths and the limitations of the text. It is often very difficult as we all know, to identify in any precise way those linguistic features of written texts which account for their structures. Yet such information is essential if we are to be able to guide those whom we teach into achieving greater mastery of the genres they need to learn.

Now let us turn to Text 2 Sharks, an expository piece by a Grade 5 boy aged 10 years. This is a very different piece from Text 1. It represents a very different way of making meaning and its linguistic features offer a considerable contrast with Text 2. Probably no-one here would dispute that this is an expository piece, and that it represents an attempt to construct a scientific meaning. I would suggest that its schematic structure should be set out thus:
Sharks. When people think of sharks they think of harsh savage fish that attack at sight as a matter of fact they are completely wrong. Although there has been reports of shark attacks they are very rare. Most sharks won't even come near the shore to people swimming near the shore so people swimming near the shore can consider themselves almost guaranteed safe.

Sharks have special sense organs that can sense things up to 1 mile away. The shark uses fins to balance itself and it has to keep swimming or else it will sink. The shark's teeth are razor blade sharp and although you can only see two layers of teeth there are many in the jaw. Usually smaller fish follow the sharks around in hope of gathering up scraps that the shark may leave.

I suggest that the schematic structure should be set out thus because the first of the two paragraphs appears to have a different character and function from the second. It remains for finer linguistic analysis to demonstrate whether this is the case.

Look firstly then, at Table 4, where I have once again set out conjunction and theme for the whole piece is of course established with the opening: 'Sharks'. There are two conjunctions and one phrase having the function of a conjunction in the early clauses to 6b. I refer to 'as a matter of fact', which I have glossed as 'but', and to 'although' and 'so'. Their effect is to help sustain and develop expression of opinion about sharks. Three conjunctions are also used in the second paragraph - 'and', 'or' and 'and although' - more of which in this case may be said to support argument, though they certainly have the function of tying the paragraph together.

Collectively, the conjunctions here have the function of sustaining argument in paragraph 1 and description in paragraph 2. The 'connectedness' is thus not that of temporal connection which we saw applied in Text 1.

The text is written in the present tense, a familiar feature of expository and scientific writing, and the experiential processes are to do with attitude and attribution. Thus, in the first paragraph behaviour processes are present: 'think' used twice, and 'can consider'. Other processes are to do with 'being': 'are' is used twice and 'has been'. In general these processes relate to arguing about the claims made wrongly about sharks.
Processes in the second paragraph significantly include no behavioural processes which compare with those in the first paragraph, while there are a number of processes of attribution: 'have', 'has, and 'are' used twice.

Overall then, it is the processes and the conjunctions which together give this text its distinctive character, making it an expository rather than a narrative text.

Tables 5 and 6 provide at a glance evidence of the distribution of references and the distribution of items to do with sharks, attitudes towards them and their characteristics. The distribution set out in Table 6 confirms the claim that paragraph 1 is to do with attitudes and claims made about sharks, while the second paragraph deals with sharks characteristics.

Now let us turn to Text 3 - a character study on a character in the Australian novel Puberty Blues. I do not propose to set out a schematic structure here though I suggest if I did it would indicate that this text is a series of descriptions. It is of course, again as most of us would easily recognise, an example of literary criticism, though as Table 7 will begin to help explain, it doesn't satisfy as a piece of literary discussion.

Look in particular at the use of conjunctions and observe the absence of any to do with interpretation. You will find in fact that if you were to reverse paragraphs 1 and 2, you would not materially alter their meaning, since there is an absence of connection between them and indeed across the clauses within them. One might be tempted to think the essay is a recount of the details of the novel, a feeling supported by the use of the past tense which as I earlier noted is a frequent feature of narration. However, you will find no evidence of implicit temporal connections here as I suggested earlier you could in Text 1.

Most of the processes are to do either with action or behaviour. Debbie 'wanted to be tough and cool'; 'she drank alcohol'; she 'smoked cigarettes'; she and her friend 'tried everything to get into the gang'.

Now look at Tables 8 and 9. Table 8 reveals Debbie is the most frequently identified referent, the only other significant referential chain being to do with the 'top gang'. Table 9 sets out the principal lexical strings in the test. Note the high incidence of items to do with Debbie's desired associates and activities, but note also the very few to do with the book and its writing.
Such an analysis serves to demonstrate why on a first reading of the piece one is left with an unsatisfied sense that the text lacks much interpretative power, though the conventions of literary criticism and of character study really require that some interpretation be offered.

Conclusion

How then am I to bring the various elements of my discussion to a close? I hasten to say, if it is necessary to do so, that nothing I have said in analysing the three texts should be taken as criticism. They are all creditable achievements from the writers concerned. I have sought rather in my analysis to demonstrate some useful linguistic skills all teachers including those at the tertiary level, might well develop for considering the writing of those whom they teach.

Behind this necessarily quick demonstration of such linguistic skills and perspectives lay a number of assumptions to which I referred earlier, and to which I would return as I close. In creating written texts we construct meanings, selecting from the resources available within our language appropriate linguistic items, and these we fashion into different patterns to realise different meanings. The various patterns are culturally created, representative of the range of potential genres valued in the community, or valued at least by differing groups within the community.

When students learn to write they are actually learning ways of meaning - mastering the generic features of differing kinds of texts. It behoves us as teachers to develop as precise a sense as is possible of the linguistic features of such texts so that we may assist those we teach to learn.

Footnote

I am indebted to Mrs. Brigid Ballard for telling me after this paper was delivered, that the writing in Text 3 was very representative of the kinds of literary critical texts her Malaysian students produce at A.N.U. She pointed out that in her experience for many such students writing of this sort constitutes appropriate writing about literature. The observation is an interesting one, confirming the general point I have argued that ways of writing like ways of meaning generally are culturally created. Simon, who wrote Text 3, operates in a culture whose expectation in literary critical discussion is that some interpretation be offered of character.
References


Note

For permission to use the three texts thanks are due to the following people and their children:

- Mrs. Irene Hudson
- Mrs. Joy Frayn
- Mr. Ron Lewis
TABLE 1.

Text 1: The kangaroo who lost its tail

Conjunction and Theme

1. A long time ago there was a kangaroo
   2a. and who did not have a tail
   2b. and all the animals laughed at him
   and
   2c. and that made him sad
   3. how did he get it back
   4. he got it back by dipping his tail into lollypop sirup
   5a. the animals started to like him
   and then
   5b. and then they played with him
   6. would you like it
   7a. I would not
   because
   7b. because it would be most annoying.

TABLE 2.

Text 1: The kangaroo who lost its tail

Reference: identifying participants

Clause number

1. kangaroo

2. who

3. him animals

4. him

5. he

6. he

7. him animals

8. him they

9. you

10. I

11.
TABLE 3.

Text 1: The kangaroo who lost its tail

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<th>Tail</th>
<th>Kangaroo's feelings</th>
<th>Other characters</th>
<th>Other characters' attitudes</th>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 4.

Text 2: Sharks

Conjunction and Theme

1. sharks
2. when people think of sharks
3. they think of harsh savage fish
4.a that attack at sight
('but')
4.b as a matter of fact they are completely wrong
5.a although there has been reports of shark attacks

although
5.b these are very rare
6.a most sharks won't even come near the shore
so
6.b so people swimming near the shore can consider themselves almost guaranteed safe
7. sharks have special sense organs
8. that can sense things up to 1 mile away
9.a the shark uses fins to balance itself
and
9.b and it has to keep swimming
or
9.c or else it will sink
10.a the shark's teeth are razor blade sharp
and
although
10.b and although you can only see two layers of teeth
11. there are many in the jaw
12. usually smaller fish follow the sharks around in hope of gathering up scraps of food
13. that the shark may leave.
### Reference: identifying participants

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<th>Other fish</th>
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</table>
TABLE 7.

TEXT: Character Study from 'Puberty Blues'

Conjunction and Theme

1. Debbie was a girl
2. who wanted to be with the top gang at the beach
3. she and her friend tried everything to get into the gang
4a. and
4b. she wanted to be tough and cool
5a. so
5b. so she could go to the beach
6a. and
6b. she smoked cigarettes
and
7. one day she got into the gang
8. she was a top chick now
9a. she could get a spunky boyfriend
when
9b. when she wanted.
10a. she went to parties
and
10b. and drank alcohol and cigarettes
11a. one day she took drugs
and
11b. and started having them all the time
12. Debbie lived in a huge red brick mansion.
13a. it was three storeyed
and
13b. and had a built in swimming pool
14a. she hung around with the surfie gang
and
14b. and was cool and tough
15. the gang spent most of their time at the beach surfing
16. on weekends they would go out in panel vans to the drive-ins and dark streets
17a. sometimes they would go to someone's house
when
17b. when their parents were out.
18. Debbie wrote the book.
19a. it was written in the first person
and
19b. and told her feelings
and

19c. and what she did.
20a. at first she liked being in the group
20b. and being cool and tough and taking drugs.
20c. but after a while she became sick of it
20d. and left.
21. She started surfing with her friend.
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<th>Clause No.</th>
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<td>her friend</td>
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<td>17.</td>
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<td>18. Debbie</td>
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<td>27. Debbie</td>
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<td>29. her</td>
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<td>30. she</td>
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<td>31. she</td>
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<td>34. she</td>
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</table>
WORKSHOP:

THE SENTENCE IS BASIC

(See also Part I)

HELEN DRURY

LANGUAGE STUDY CENTRE

UNIVERSITY OF SYDNEY
THE SENTENCE IS BASIC

This workshop is based on the application of Functional Systemic Grammar (as developed by Professor M.A.K. Halliday) to the teaching of sentence structure.

The functional approach to E.S.L. teaching has been applied over the last 10 to 15 years with the result that teaching materials and learning situations have become more orientated towards language as communication. The emphasis has been on the meaning - the semantic system - where structures and lexis are chosen according to the function which the speaker wishes to perform or the ideas or notions which the speaker wishes to convey in a given situation. Since functional grammar is an attempt to describe the whole language system, not only written language but spoken as well, the functional idea has tended to be used in areas of language teaching where traditional descriptions have been weakest. That is, they have been widely used in teaching listening and speaking skills rather than writing skills. Where functional grammar has been applied to writing, it has been used more at the paragraph level, to teach, for example, paragraphs with the function of comparing and contrasting. Thus all the published courses which aim to teach sentence structure follow the traditional approach.

This workshop examines an alternative approach which has been used in 1hr./week classes in term 1 1984 at Sydney University. The classes aim to improve the sentence structure of overseas and migrant students enrolled in Sydney University. The Appendix, which is the agenda for the workshop, illustrates relevant aspects of the grammar and exercises which have been used in classes. It must be stressed that this course is in an early experimental stage and thus a lot of the materials are growing, developing and changing as the course is.

Each part of the Appendix will be discussed in turn.

Appendix 1 illustrates and contrasts the descriptions used by traditional grammar and functional grammar to analyse the same sentence. Most teachers and students have many complaints about traditional grammar but functional grammar would have to be considerably simplified if it were to be taught to and used by students.

Appendix 2 This exercise was used to introduce students to the clause complex. Students were asked to discuss the meaning of sentence 1 ('What it was about') and from their comments, words, groups and clauses were identified. Parts of the clause complex which could exist on their own or form a meaningful unit were labelled as being equal in value, whereas those which could not were labelled as dependent on a dominant clause. Thus students could see that a great variety of dependent relationships are possible and these can 'nest' inside each other. In addition, the importance of conjunction words in determining clause boundaries and signalling dependent or equal relationships was highlighted. In comparing sentence 1 and 2, students were asked to give examples of where they might find the 2 types of writing and also what differences they had noticed between sentence 1 and 2. Sentence 1 is more typical of spoken language and is characterised by a simpler nominal group structure, more frequent use of the conjunction 'and', the presence of more clauses and the use of the subject 'students' as theme. In contrast, sentence 2 is more typical of written language since it has longer and more complex nominal groups, nominalisation of processes, passive structures, fewer clauses and marked themes. Further practice in recognising complete clause complexes rather than fragments can be given in the form of nonsense sentences as illustrated in the next exercise.

Not only are clauses related in terms of their dependency but also in terms of their logical meaning. The idea in the first clause is either expanded on or used to project another idea. Clauses can be expanded on in three ways:
1. extension 2. explanation 3. elaboration
Appendix 3 illustrates exercises which were used to practice the relationship of explanation as well as exemplifying this relationship. This relationship includes both the aspect of equality and interdependence, hence both the traditional ideas of subordination and coordination. Thus it embraces a larger category than the traditional class of adjectival clauses whilst excluding defining relative clauses which in functional grammar are rank shifted to the group level where they qualify the noun and form part of the nominal group.

Students were asked to identify explanation clauses in part of a text. Then they had to link together the ideas in the last part of the text which were expressed in simple sentence form and use explanation conjunctions and structures to carry out this joining process. A possible answer for this exercise is given.

Appendix 4 An understanding of sentence structure involves analysis within the clause itself. The clause represents patterns of experience and we use the clause structure to build patterns of reality. The pivotal point of the clause is the process but processes always involve participant(s) and optional circumstances. The functional description of processes is far more helpful and accurate than that provided by traditional grammar. Students can be asked to come up with their own classification of the functions of processes from a random list of verbs. The three main categories are likely to emerge, i.e.; material, mental and relational. A tabular approach can help students to identify the nominal and verbal groups in a clause and also the prepositional phrases. Linking these with the functions of participant, process and circumstance helps students to come to a deeper understanding of the clause and its component parts and how these parts interact with each other.

Appendix 5 Students own errors can be used to teach correct sentence structure. Here process errors have been grouped together. Students were asked to work in groups to correct the errors and to try to explain their corrections.

For example:
1. Here it can be argued that the quality of 'less likelihood' applies to the 'career goal' and therefore a relational process of being should be used to attribute this process to its participant. i.e.; 'which would BE less likely TO change' Note the comparison with 'which would HARDLY change'
2. 'criticize' is a verbal process and when the criticism is made explicit so must the process of 'saying' or 'arguing' that goes with it. i.e.; 'SAYING that Japan ....'
3. 'raise' is a material process an action process and it requires 2 participants; an actor or agent and a goal or medium (the participant that undergoes the process). The verb 'raise' is also a material process but here the single participant is the actor and the medium is; both the doer of the action and the undergoer (sufferer).
4. 'feel' is a mental process in this sentence and is responsible for projecting the idea that they were anti-communists etc. Therefore a 'that' clause is required i.e.; 'to feel that they were .......'
5. 'have' is often used in a metaphorical sense e.g.; 'have a headache' means 'to be ill with a headache'. This can sometimes be confusing. Here 'have' can be used for war experiences but not for persecution. To 'have' an experience is an accepted metaphorical usage. Persecution however must be suffered or experienced.
6. 'know' is a mental process of cognizing as is the acceptable alternative 'understand'. Perhaps the way to explain the acceptable version is to focus on the participant 'discontent' and ask whether this can be known. It can in the literary sense but otherwise it can be felt it it is our own or understood if it is somebody else's.

The last example illustrates some of the subtleties of the language and the difficulties involved in helping second language learners to come to an understanding of these.
AFTER THEY PASSED THE RESOLUTION, THE STUDENTS MARCHED INTO THE QUADRANGLE.

ANALYSIS USING TRADITIONAL GRAMMAR

SENTENCE

SUBORDINATE CLAUSE

(adverbial clause)

conjunction subject verb object

after they passed the resolution

MAIN CLAUSE

subject verb adverbial (prepositional phrase)

the students marched into the quad

preposition noun

ANALYSIS USING FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME (textual)</th>
<th>AFTER THEY PASSED THE RESOLUTION,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Theme marked BX</td>
<td>Theme: textual; topical conj.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rheme</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MOOD (interpersonal)</th>
<th>subject finite (past)</th>
<th>predicator complement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mood</td>
<td>Residue</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TRANSITIVITY (ideational)</th>
<th>Actor</th>
<th>Process (material)</th>
<th>Goal (medium)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>THE STUDENTS MARCHED INTO THE QUAD</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rheme α</th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Theme: topical</td>
<td>Rheme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subject</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

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<tr>
<th>subject finite (past) / predicator Adjunct</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residue</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actor (medium)</th>
<th>Process (material)</th>
<th>Circumstance of location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

NOTE: METAPHORICAL INTERPRETATION

pass a resolution = agree to a resolution. Therefore a material process is disguising a verbal process and the resolution is the range covered by the process of agreeing.
RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN CLAUSES: THE CLAUSE COMPLEX

IDENTIFY THE CLAUSES. WHAT ARE THE DEPENDENCY RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THEM?

1. The students decided to demonstrate at a lunchtime rally on the front lawn
   and then they marched into the quad and gathered in front of the Vice-Chancellor's office
   where they hung banners and signs over the windows and chanted slogans for a separate department of Political Economy.

2. After passing a resolution in favour of a demonstration at a front lawn lunchtime rally, the students marched into the quad, where banners and signs were draped over the window of the Vice-Chancellor's office and slogan chanting in favour of a separate department of Political Economy went on for some time.

WHAT ARE THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THESE TWO SENTENCES? WHERE WOULD YOU EXPECT TO FIND THESE SENTENCES?

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN CLAUSES
1. DEPENDENCY RELATIONSHIPS
   a) equal (coordination)
   b) dominant/dependent (subordination)

2. LOGICAL MEANING RELATIONSHIPS
   a) expansion
      1. extension +
      2. explanation =
      3. elaboration × (enhancement)
   b) projection
      1. verbal (speech)
      2. mental (thought)

WHICH OF THESE SENTENCES ARE COMPLETE?

MAKE THEM ALL INTO COMPLETE SENTENCES.

1. The pogs brattled the mindle
2. The pogs brattling the mindle
3. The pogs were brattling and the mindle
4. The mindle brattling pogs
5. Pogs which brattled the mindle
6. After the pogs had brattled the mindle
7. The mindle was brattled by the pogs
8. By the mindle brattled doonly by the pogs
9. Whenever the pogs wanted to brattle the mindle which they had caught.
10. Though the mindle brattled by the pogs
EXPLANATION

- the second clause doesn't add any new information but it explains more about the first clause by restating, clarifying, refining

1. EXAMPLES OF EQUAL RELATIONSHIPS
   a) The clock doesn't go; (in other words) it's not working (i.e.)
   b) He won many competitions; (for instance) he won the University medal (e.g.)
   c) I wasn't surprised; (in fact) it was what I had expected (viz)

2. EXAMPLES OF DOMINANT/DEPENDENT RELATIONSHIPS
   A) finite
      a) They decided to cancel the show, which upset everybody.
         (non-defining relative clause)
      Note the difference in meaning:
      The workers, who are on strike, are dissatisfied. (non-defining)
      The workers who are on strike are dissatisfied. (defining)
   B) Non-finite
      a) There was a fire there, blazing away brightly.

UNDERLINE THE EXPLANATION CLAUSES IN THE FOLLOWING NEWSPAPER ARTICLE.
ARE THEY EQUAL, DOMINANT OR DEPENDENT? CAN YOU FIND ANY EMBEDDED OR RANK SHIFTED CLAUSES? (ie: defining relative clauses)

Russians tell of acid rain threat

By THEODORE SHABAD
of The New York Times

NEW YORK, Tuesday: Acid rain is entering the Soviet Union from central and western Europe, Soviet scientists report.
Their findings, based on nearly 900 samples collected by monitoring stations along the Western borders over the past three years, appear to add a new aspect to the acid rain issue, which has been stirring international concern.
The environmental effect of acid rain, which is produced mainly by electric generating plants and other industrial sources, was long believed concentrated in eastern North America and in Scandinavia, where the water of lakes has become increasingly acidic.

In an effort to determine the source, Soviet meteorologists retraced the movements of cloud systems with the most acidic types of rains over a 49-hour period. This backtracking analysis, according to the Soviet report, suggested that the lowest pH values were associated with air masses moving out of central and western Europe.

1. non-finite dependent clause ........
2. rank shifted clause ........
3. finite dependent clause ...........
4. finite dependent clause ........
   (which is where)
5. rank shifted clause ........
The Soviet scientists found acidity in lakes.
The lakes are in the North West region of the Soviet Union.
They wrote a report.
The report said that acid rain was being added to local soils
The soils were naturally acid
The nutrient properties of the soils were low
These properties would be lowered

Soviet territory is affected by acid rain
900,000 sq. km. are affected
This area is along the western border of the Soviet Union

Acidity is determined by a chemical measure
This is called the pH index
The index for pure water is 7
Natural rain has a pH of 5.7.
Natural rain is slightly acidic
Acid rain has a pH of less than 4.7
The Soviet scientists found pH values below 4.7 in 42% of the samples

POSSIBLE ANSWERS

The Soviet scientists who found acidity in lakes in the North West region of the Soviet Union wrote a report saying that acid rain was being added to local soils, which were naturally acidic and also low in nutrient properties, with the result that these properties would be lowered.

The Soviet territory affected by acid rain covers 900,000 sq. km. adjoining the western border.

Acidity is determined by a chemical measure called the pH index in which ★ the index for water is 7.
Natural rain has a pH value of 5.7, that is, it is slightly acidic.
Acid rain, which has a pH value of less than 4.7, was found in 42% of the samples taken by Soviet scientists.★★
★ Note: this is a rank shifted clause expressing a circumstance. Therefore the relationship is elaborating.
★★ rank shifted clause
RELATIONSHIPS WITHIN THE CLAUSE: TRANSITIVITY ANALYSIS: PROCESS ANALYSIS

- the clause represents a process; our conception of reality; 'goings on'(doing happening, feeling, being)
- a process consists potentially of 3 parts
  1. process (verbal group)
  2. participants in the process (nominal group)
  3. circumstances associated with the process (adverbial group/prepositional phrase)

TYPES OF PROCESS

1. MATERIAL: John kicked the cat (doing, happening)
2. BEHAVIOURAL: John laughed. (physiological/psychological behaving)
3. MENTAL: John saw the stars (perceiving)
   John knows the answer (cognizing)
   John likes Mary (reacting)
4. VERBAL: John said he was hungry (saying)
5. EXISTENTIAL: There's a problem (existing, happening)
6. RELATIONAL: John is the leader (identifying)
   John is clever (attributing)
   John has a new car (possessing)

IDENTIFY THE CLAUSES IN THE FOLLOWING PARAGRAPHS. DIVIDE EACH CLAUSE INTO PARTICIPANTS, PROCESSES AND CIRCUMSTANCES PUTTING THEM INTO THE APPROPRIATE COLUMN IN THE FOLLOWING TABLE. LABEL THE PROCESS TYPES.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PARTICIPANT(S)</th>
<th>PROCESS</th>
<th>PARTICIPANT(S)</th>
<th>CIRCUMSTANCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(who/what? as subject)</td>
<td>(what's happening?)</td>
<td>(who/what?)</td>
<td>(when/how/where? etc)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>political economy supporters</td>
<td>demonstrate (behav./verbal)</td>
<td></td>
<td>in the Main Quad .... on Wednesday ....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a crowd ....demonst.</td>
<td>gathered (material)</td>
<td></td>
<td>in third year Econom ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>some</td>
<td>calling for (verbal)</td>
<td>a continuation ......</td>
<td>within the Faculty.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the number</td>
<td>demanded (verbal)</td>
<td>a separate dept. of P.E.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>other observers</td>
<td>was estimated (relational, ident.)</td>
<td>at about 600</td>
<td>by student organisers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>put (relational, ident.)</td>
<td>the crowd</td>
<td>at about 300.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Political Economy supporters demonstrate

A crowd of student demonstrators gathered in the Main Quadrangle outside the Vice-Chancellor's office on Wednesday, 15 June, calling for a continuation of separate Political Economy I and Economics I courses and for the availability of more Political Economy options in third year Economics. Some demanded a separate department of Political Economy within the Faculty of Economics. The number was estimated at about 600 by student organisers but other observers put the
CORRECT THE FAULTY PROCESSES IN THESE SENTENCES. WHY ARE THEY WRONG?

1. Students in those faculties have a much stronger career goal which would less likely change if student loans were introduced.
2. Some criticize these two arguments from the view of Real Politik that Japan is not likely to be attacked because she has no such sets of conditions of war.
3. Arms races raise as a result of political conflicts.
4. Communist led workers tended to feel them as anti-communists and therefore anti-labour.
5. As they had dreadful persecution or war experiences, there were fairly high rates of mental and marital breakdown.
6. But we can know the discontent of the well qualified people in such a book as Kunz's 'The Intruders'.
7. All of the displaced persons who came to Australia within the I.R.O. Mass Scheme were demanded to enter into at least 2 year indentures as a pre-condition of their resettlement.
8. But we cannot miss the government's consideration for the anti-semitic movement.
9. Immigrants have variety not only in their ethnic origins but also in their characteristics.
10. The term refugee reminds us specifically of the people who received the influences of World War Two.
11. This passive pacifism although most popular argument has a vital criticism.
12. The Japan U.S. Security Treaty went into effect at the same time as the self defence force.
13. Each human activity needs space which often occurs a conflict between different activities.
14. This makes the treatments of the dentists are more difficult.
15. Most students between these ages have had work where they experienced the taste of income which made them obtain luxuries.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Department of Linguistics University of Sydney
PURIFYING THE TRIBAL LANGUAGE

What do they know of English, Who only English know?

EMIRITUS PROFESSOR C.E. MOORHOUSE

(See also Part 1)
PURIFYING THE TRIBAL LANGUAGE

What do they know of English, who only English know?

(Say what you are going to say, say it, then say you have said it)

ON CONFERENCES, (Addresses and this address) 1-3

ON TITLES AND QUOTATIONS
   This Conference, My Title and Sub Title of Address, Huxley 4-8

ON MYSELF
   Language Interest,
   Uses and Joys of Language Studies 9-12

ON WRITTEN COMMUNICATIONS
   Own Activities 13-14

ON VISUAL COMMUNICATION 15-18

FINAL REMARKS (Two Quotations) 19
ON CONFERENCES

It is not uncommon for the presumably sympathetic outsider who has been invited to deliver an opening address at a Conference to express views on some topic dear to him, or her as the case may be.

These views may be vaguely related to the Conference Theme, and designed in addition to ensure some Press publicity, or they may disclose an expert and intimate knowledge of the material to be presented.

A further possibility is that an Opening Address may give a speaker the opportunity of mounting some hobby horse of his or her own with a captive audience.

(E.G. A few weeks ago now Professor Blainey, delivering the opening address at the Annual Conference of the Institution of Engineers, Australia in Brisbane, devoted rather more than half his remarks to the undesirability of unrestricted Asian immigration.)

This particular Conference, under the general heading of Study Skills, covers naturally enough, a wide range of topics, as the programme in front of you indicates, and provides for any of these approaches.

Judging from the abstracts and preprints I have so far seen, what the various sessions - whether language, or learning or both - appear to have in common is that they are based on professional activities undertaken by those who are contributing.

They can, perhaps, be aptly described as "Clinical Notes", related to experiences, and I rejoice to find too that many references to "future research" seem to be lacking.

While, in any of the professions, there are some practitioners who devote themselves primarily to theory and others to practice, all have to accept that a combination of theory and practice is an essential characteristic of a profession.
It can be necessary, on occasion, for a member of a profession to take some practical action without a full knowledge of all the relevant information - either because some facts are unobtainable or because the theory is inadequately developed - and immediate results are needed.

When the circumstances are unusual, and the practitioner has learnt something of interest and value, he or she has, I believe, an obligation to record the experience for other members of the profession so that they may benefit from it, or discuss and criticize the action taken in the light of their own experiences.

This I consider to be an important justification for the holding of Conferences like this one - and for papers such as that of Hanne Bock and Helene Lewit.

A second reason is that, as occurred after a UNESCO Seminar on Visual Education, a monograph may be produced, and I think this might be considered by a body such as this one.

From time to time it has occurred to me that something like Bruce Truscot's "First Year at University", but written for the present-day situation here in Australia and New Zealand and not limited to Arts courses, would be "A Good Thing" and some years ago I produced a proposal for a work "Problems of Transition" - only to be told by one publisher that the Secondary School Teachers consulted saw no need for it: (This last does not seem to be borne out by the programme items for this Conference.)

Apart from this however there is another function, of benefit in the Antipodean situation, and that is of fostering a Federal, (or International) ideal - which at times seems to require every possible assistance.

For these reasons I have always been a strong supporter of the Annual Conferences of two bodies with which I have been associated for many years - those of The Institution of Engineers, Australia and of The Australian College of Education, which are held in each State in turn - even though they are criticized by some as containing too few "research" papers and too many "social" events.
I hope that what I have to say to-day will have some relevance to the theme of this Conference and the pursuits of its participants and, also, that it may suggest an area which might be considered as suitable for a future one.

A few years ago, when presenting a paper 'Teaching Professional Communication' to an Engineering Conference I had occasion to express the view that professional engineers have much more writing to do than is implied by technical report writing and certainly much more than most school teachers, parents, and first year students appear to realize.

It was in Sweden that I met a teacher of engineering who told me that his students could cope with lectures given in Swedish, German or English. When I said that I had met Australian educators who felt that there were intelligent people who could not learn a foreign language he replied "That may be, but these are not the sort of people we wish to become engineers."

The general area of language and learning is, in fact, one that has a special interest for me because I have had to cope with the consequences of some illusions about the nature of engineering teaching which can best be illustrated by the following -

(i) One would-be student from Thailand who entered the University of Melbourne some years ago was rejected by the Faculty of Commerce on the grounds that his English was not good enough, and was sent along to Engineering by the Commerce Faculty's Secretary - presumably on the grounds that a lack of knowledge of English would be unimportant in our course. In the event, kindhearted though we were, he failed First Year.

(ii) Not long ago a Lebanese student, newly-arrived in Australia, who applied for a place in Engineering and was required to take an entry test, stormed out of the room when he found that it would not be conducted in Arabic.
Towards the end of my term of office in the University of Melbourne I volunteered for the position of Director of Studies in First Year Engineering - this involved many activities of a counselling type and drew heavily on what I had learnt from long acquaintance with the Student Counsellors of the University from the beginning of their activities in fact, and from my participation in the establishment and early operation of the University Teaching Project, and in 'Studies in other fields' in Third Year Electrical Engineering.

Time and time again I found myself listening with ever-mounting fury to statements such as "Teacher said that once I had done English Expression at H.S.C. I wouldn't have to worry about English any more."

(The Faculties of Engineering in Melbourne and Monash are now requiring a "D" (pass) in English as a pre-requisite.)

THE CONFERENCE TITLE

In passing I feel that there are two questions arising from the Conference title.

(1) Is learning possible without language?

(2) Is learning possible without a written language?

(The answers to these can I think be "yes" and also "no": a case of some sort can be made for either)

Having now commented on the Conference title I feel bound to explain the title and sub-title I have chosen for my address.

MY TITLE AND SUB TITLE

The title was suggested to me by Aldous Huxley's use of the phrase in an essay "Literature and Science" which I read over twenty years ago.

In it he was concerned with the questions - "What have poets, dramatists and philosophical essayists contributed to the study of man in the past?"
"What are scientists contributing now?"

All of us, he says undergo various kinds of experience - the impressions conveyed by the senses, the intellectual experiences of logical thought and the emotional experiences.

To those involved in a given set of events, the sense impressions and the intellectual experiences may be largely common, while the emotional experiences differ widely from one person to another.

The former experiences Huxley describes as "public" and regards as those of interest to science, the latter he considers to be "private" and the primary concern of literature.

He then proceeds to point out that common language is inadequate both for the scientist and the literary artist; describing each as being engaged in purifying it - a term whose particular sense derives for Mallarme's line.

"Donner un sens plus pur aux mots de la tribu."

The need for these purifying activities constantly arises -

"Change the wording of a scientific paper and as long as clarity is preserved no loss has been suffered.

Change the wording of a work of literary art however and it loses its apocalyptic quality." (This for me is applicable to the "Revised Standard Version").

I am an unashamed user of quotations, especially, in titles, and one who rarely thinks of saying 'and I quote' something which I fear is becoming more and more necessary as time goes on and there is less and less in the way of common reading experience. Many educational papers do seem to quote extensively but usually from themselves or fellow educators.
When someone has said something which conveys an idea better than I could it seems to me both desirable and efficient to use it and so at this stage I introduce some purified and apocalyptic quotations of some relevance to this Conference, including one from a Conference Paper.

(a) "Reading maketh a full man, conference a ready man and writing an exact man." (Too much of any maketh a fed-up man).

(b) "Men's thoughts are much according to their inclination, their discourse and speeches according to their learning."

(c) "Men use thought only as authority for their injustice and employ speech only to conceal their thoughts."

(d) "Words have two functions - on the one hand to state facts and on the other to evoke emotions."

Huxley concluded his essay by saying -

"That the purified language of science, or even the wider purified language of literature should ever be adequate to the givenness of the world and of experience is, in the very nature of things, impossible."

Two things occur to me on considering this statement:

On the one hand, from the point of view of communicating ideas the purified language of the scientist would lend itself to translation from one tribal language to another much more readily than that of the literary artist. Samuel Johnson's statement that it would not be necessary to learn another language if good translations were available is relevant here.

On the other hand it seems possible that the private experiences of individuals might be more universally conveyed by the use of the visual arts - by an extension of the process by which the symbols and diagrams which are used to convey some fairly abstract ideas in my own field are accepted by international agreement - although there are subtle
differences even here in the conventions adopted - those of the Frenchman
differ slightly from those of the Englishman.

My sub-title partly alludes to my belief that there are times when a
picture is worth a thousand words and could perhaps be better expressed
as "What do they know of any language who only writing and speaking know?"

There is however another reason for its present form which I chose partly
as a result of my experiences in the Home Tutor Scheme. In this one
conducts an hour's conversation once a week in English, with a recently
arrived migrant.

When I joined the Scheme I indicated, as requested, some knowledge of
languages other than English listing Spanish, Italian, French and German.

For some reason or other, however, I have found myself allotted Russian
and Polish migrants, (as well as one Hungarian), and made some, to me,
fascinating discoveries about the English language, and the differences
between the Romance and Slavic languages as a result.

It is not easy to explain to the intelligent and equiring Slavic language
speaker that in English many nouns have plurals in "s" while verbs only
use "s" in the present singular so that "dogs bark" and "a dog barks"
are the accepted forms.

Use of the articles "a" and "the" presents problems to those whose
language does not include them, as too does the use of past tenses, since
their ways of going about the description of past events differ from those
of English (and the romance languages), while the verb "to be" is commonly
omitted.

(I have the impression that "Ship here tomorrow" would be perfectly
acceptable when literally translated into Russian).
All this bears out a personal belief that the study of other languages helps in the use of one's own.

(There are occasions too when one realizes that some things have been better expressed in one language than another.)
SOMETHING ABOUT MYSELF

Having got this far when I was preparing this address I felt if forgiveable to say something about myself since at first sight it would seem unlikely that a Professor of Engineering would be giving it.

What follows can perhaps be described as a case study of a linguist manque.

In the unlikely event of applications having been called for the task of presenting this address, I could have put forward something like the following:

I went to school where it was considered normal for those showing any signs of intelligence at all to study French, Latin and Greek in addition to formal English grammar, beginning at what many educators now seem to regard as an unprofitably early age and with much of what is described, disparagingly nowadays as 'rote learning'. (Can one manage an Intellectual Exchange without some base?)

My family and my circle of friends contained members who had been to the same school, and had been treated in much the same way, and did not consider it impolite to refer to dictionaries in conversation, even at meals.

One result of this seems to have been the production of some three generations of amateur linguists - my grandfather having taken up French again with enthusiasm at the age of fifty, and my father, whose profession had made the study of Hebrew highly desirable took up that of Modern Greek at the age of fifty-five (with assistance from a local fishmonger) and that of Fijian ("a soft snap compared with Hebrew") at the age of sixty-five when resident in Levuka for two years.

They also regarded reading to be worthwhile occupation, to be indulged in undisturbed, and not as the last resource of the lonely.
I can recall that when I went home one day and said that a master at school had told us that after learning five languages the rest would come more easily there was general agreement that this seemed likely. I decided, at the age of twelve or thereabouts, that one day - when I had become and engineer - I would give the proposition a practical test.

This proposition I have come to suspect requires some qualification since, having studied Spanish while a demonstrator in engineering in the University of Melbourne, and German while in an engineering works in England, I found later that Swedish (which I made some attempt to tackle while visiting engineering works in Sweden for some six weeks many years later) did not come easily!
SOME USES AND JOYs OF LANGUAGE STUDIES

I found French useful in visits to Engineering Works in France, Switzerland and Belgium and at a Conference on Large Power Systems in Paris: but not, contrary to a UNESCO headquarters belief, of much value in Latin America.

German I used in Switzerland on skiing holidays, on a canoe trip down the Danube, and much later on in Heidelberg and Munich.

More recently, because of some twenty weeks spent in Italian surroundings - ten on an Italian ship (Galileo Galilei) and ten in Italy I made some study of Italian, reinforced by use of the language laboratory in the University of Bristol, and attendance at a term of first year lectures when I was a visiting Professor there.

(I also used its language laboratory to brush up my Spanish before spending a week in Madrid some years later when I was a visiting Professor again).

In passing I cannot resist including Francis Bacon's remark "He that travelled into a country before he hath some entrance into the language goeth to school and not to travel" - to which he might well have added that such a traveller "findeth it more costly".

My study of Spanish ("why not cash in on the Latin") proved to be by far the most rewarding linguistic activity since it was when I took Spanish I ("not for any degree or diploma") that I first met my wife while, later on, a knowledge of the language - of which I have remained an "aficionado" and revealed at a UNESCO Conference (on the Education and Training of Engineers, and held in Paris) led to two UNESCO assignments - one in Venezuela and another in the Dominican Republic.

On sea voyages over the years I have passed the time pleasantly with Hugo's "Italian in three Months", "Let's Learn Maori", and "Chinese for Beginners" (purchased in Shanghai) - (There are some interesting resemblances between some of the constructions in the last two of these). Flights do not give the same opportunities, but I did look through 'Instant Hawaiian' while crossing the Pacific.
In the early years of Deakin, as one of the very few members of the Interim Council who had some acquaintance with a language other than English, I was assigned the task of producing a memorandum on possible language studies for the Council's consideration.

A final comment in the language area, which may also be of interest in that of learning is that when lecturing in my own course in Melbourne I noted that the main questions brought up by earnest Continental and Asian students, just after a lecture, were usually on the points covered in the last quarter hour or so of it.

My own experience in Venezuela was illuminating because, when I was there, I had to spend some time attending engineering lectures given in Spanish and I found that about half way through a lecture a kind of fatigue set in, and I began to watch the formulae and diagrams as they were put up on the blackboard without attending at all closely to the accompanying explanations.
ON WRITTEN COMMUNICATIONS

Having indicated something of an amateur status in one of the professional fields of this Conference my application to give this address would perhaps have gone on by stating that I have had, as a teacher of engineering and formerly as a practising engineer for some ten years, a professional interest in the communication of ideas and the development of trains of logical argument by the use of words and phrases, of symbols and codes and especially by the use of pictures and diagrams of various kinds ranging from the somewhat realistic to the extremely abstract. I have also been heavily involved in what some would call pastoral care, and other counselling.

For many years I conducted classes in the University of Melbourne, and in Deakin, in Communication Skills for engineering students at various levels and with a major emphasis on the reading and writing of English; I still mark exercises in this area. I was also a member of Deakin's Literacy Committee.

On various occasions I have expressed the apparently heretical views that Universities should not expect schools to turn out finished writers and that Employers should not expect Universities to do so either. 'Continuing Education' is needed in this field also.

Again, in the University of Melbourne I was involved in the teaching of Engineering Drawing and in pointing out its relationships to other forms of representation in the early part of the course, while I organised oil painting classes for my Final Year Engineering students at RMIT and Swinburne for several years.

One result of this, was that I have long been a week-end painter myself and later became a member of the Victorian Artists' Society.

Another was my part in the development of Sixth Form Graphic Communication and yet another my continuing association with Art and Design here in Deakin.
It should by now be apparent that throughout my career I have never let being an engineer, or a teacher of engineering, prevent me from taking an interest in anything else and have found that there is, in fact, much in what I learnt from engineering that can usefully be applied in other areas - I am not a believer in the impossibility of transfer of training and have found that it is possible to make some contribution because of, and not in spite of, being an engineer. Here I find myself in complete agreement with Jaques Barzun when, in his "House of Intellect", he says that the superstition that understanding is identical with professional skill is a tacit denial of intellect.

There is, he says, a large field to which Intellect has access in its own right.

"With a cautious confidence and sufficient intellectual training it is possible to master the Literature of a subject and gain a proper understanding of it - of the accepted truths, the disputed problems, the rival schools, and the methods now in favour.

This will not enable one to add to knowledge but it will give an appreciation of what a particular discipline has to offer the world".

One can, I believe, also gain such an appreciation from considering the material presented and discussed at Conferences such as this.

Inspired by this many years ago now I conducted a subject designed for the Arts student "Engineering Study" in the University of Melbourne, and later I endeavoured, unsuccessfully, to interest the Engineering staff of Deakin in the production of an off-campus course of study "Engineering for the Citizen".

ON VISUAL COMMUNICATION

"In the name of education we teach people to read and we teach people to write, but we leave them to learn to see by themselves."
The theme of this Conference would appear, from the point of view of a would-be contributor, to invite the production of papers on the study of languages at the tertiary level and also on the part played by language in the learning process. I suspect that for the majority of would-be contributors the term "language" would imply written, and perhaps, spoken language - this is borne out by the nature of most of the sessions proposed on this occasion.

I should like, at this stage, to express some thoughts on "Visual language" and to suggest that some attention be paid to it in a future Conference.

In his introduction to "Pictures as Arguments" Hans Hess expressed the view that pictures may be propositions of reality.

"When we think of the expression of ideas we usually think of the written or spoken word which is the accepted form for the expression of thought. Yet we know that thought is expressed by scientists not in words but in a language of symbols which becomes the current equivalent of the reality it attempts to describe."

"In the same way," Hess says, "painters use a language not of words but of forms or symbols to depict a form of reality."

(It is worth noting here that Deakin's second level "Art" course of study has the title "Iconic Language")

My own activities and experience in the Visual Communication area, apart from its use in Engineering, have been with the introduction of Graphic Communication at Sixth Form level, in the production as editor of, and contributor to two books - Visual Education and Visual Messages - participation in a UNESCO seminar, Visual Education in the National Gallery Melbourne and the production of Visual Language, and of Iconic Language as off-campus courses of study by this University. I firmly believe that communication of this kind has an important part to play in what is becoming known as Distance Education.
Unfortunately it appears to be a widespread belief that visual messages are easy to produce and understand and so training in their production and use is unnecessary. Nothing could be further from the truth.

What any visual message - like any written one, - conveys to a given recipient is almost entirely governed by the viewer's background, training, and experience.

It can reasonably be said that communication of the graphic variety uses symbolic systems of one sort or another. To be unambiguous and effective visual messages must then conform to sets of conventions, known to, used by and subscribed to by all those concerned.

There must, in effect, be a "grammar" which has been acquired by both the producers and receivers of such messages.

At a Conference of the Australian College of Education, not long before the Introduction of Graphic Communication as a sixth form subject, recognised for selection purposes by the Victorian Universities, I presented a paper on the subject in question.

At that stage I was the Chairman of the newly formed VUSEB Standing Subject Committee, and had been responsible for much of the subject's design, for piloting it through Melbourne University's Professorial Board - with material assistance from the Professor of Fine Arts, - and the production of a suitable text.

On that occasion the Conference Theme was "The Educational Process" and I set out to explain what was meant by the title "Graphic Communication".

Here some knowledge of Italian proved useful, because I was able to draw heavily on Bruno Munari's "Design e Comunicazione Visiva" in which he begins by enquiring whether it is possible to define his term.

It can be said that everything which comes to our eyes is a visual communication of some sort and Munari's contribution to our thinking was in making a distinction between casual, or accidental, and intentional visual communication.
The former is dependent on the observer’s reaction to a chance occurrence such as a cloud formation, the latter on his reaction to a designed occurrence such as a set of smoke signals.

Munari went on to suggest two categories of intentional visual communication – that of aesthetic information and that of practical information – a distinction not altogether unlike that made by Huxley which I mentioned earlier.

My own interest in this area arose from my experience in the education and training of technologists at the tertiary level where I encountered, more often than not, students whose interests and previous education lay mainly in mathematics and the physical sciences – (and who seemed to have hoped to have finished with English!)

These students however, although admittedly only when sufficient external pressure was applied, showed some evidence of having acquired much more skill in the use of words than of visual messages.

Very few of them, seemed to be at all competent in the use of graphical devices – either for guiding their own thoughts or for illustrating their arguments and they were, in any case, painfully slow in producing them on the occasions when they had to do so. Those who are concerned with students in the liberal arts area will even more rarely, I suspect encounter students who are competent in visual communication.

Graphic Communication falls into Munari’s practical information category and is concerned with these messages which are conveyed by two-dimensional and stationary devices (unlike Body language) which can be lumped together as “drawing” and in this context may be of the kinds commonly described as representational, diagrammatic, and symbolic.

It is commonly used in mathematics – as one of the present Conference sessions will indicate – and the sciences, in architecture, economics, education, and engineering and in daily life in advertising, control of traffic, and in attempts to surmount language problems.
I was immensely cheered to find diagrams in a paper on Report Writing at this Conference.

In some areas visual communications of the graphical kind, properly used and understood, are sufficient in themselves and can be superior to the written or spoken word, in others they are chiefly of value in amplifying, enriching or "purifying" it.

Since such messages are becoming more and more commonly used in many fields of human endeavour and with some computers devoted to producing them it seems curious that so little attention seems to be devoted to consideration of their production on the one hand, and their interpretation and criticism on the other, in educational establishments or in Conference papers!

If "a picture is to be worth a thousand words" it has to be a "good" picture.

However - "Pleasant though it is to wander undisturbed through a garden of bright images, are we not distracting our minds from subjects of almost equal importance?"

What I have been saying about Visual Communication then, is something that might be kept in mind by the designers of some future Conference.

**FINAL REMARKS**

I use the phrase designedly, I doubt whether it is possible to draw "Conclusions" from what I have said and I have always found it difficult to produce them.

I therefore proceed to wind up this discursive discourse by using two fairly relevant extracts from the writings of others which indicate the things to be avoided - in Conferences especially.

The first on language comes from The Retroactive Existence of Mr. Juggins by Stephen Leacock.

"Juggins somehow never got far with his studies. For a time he studied French with tremendous eagerness. But he soon found that for a real
knowledge of French you need first to get a thorough grasp of Old French and Provençal. It proved impossible to do anything with these without an absolutely complete command of Latin.

This, Juggins discovered, could only be obtained in any thorough way through Sanskrit which of course lies at the base of it. So Juggins devoted himself to Sanskrit until he realized that for a proper study of Sanskrit one needs to study ancient Iranian, the root language underneath. This language however is lost."

The second, on not learning, is from The Rubaiyat of Omar Khayyam. An obvious case for study methods.

"Myself when young did eagerly frequent
Doctor and sage and heard great argument, about it and about
But evermore came out by the same door.
As in I went".

I finish by expressing the conviction that neither of these will be applicable to anyone attending this Conference and so I wish it every success.
COGNITIVE DIFFERENCES IN PROCESSING

OF WORDS AND PICTURES: A CROSS CULTURAL COMPARISON

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COGNITIVE DIFFERENCES IN PROCESSING OF WORDS AND PICTURES: A CROSS CULTURAL COMPARISON

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Forty Papua New Guinean subjects showed an unusual and significant reversal of effect in a picture-word Stroop-type experiment whereby pictures were found to interfere in word naming.

A similar effect was found for the Stroop colour-word experiment in which words typically interfere with colour naming (this was confirmed with our data) but colours do not interfere with word naming. However, for PNG subjects, colours did interfere with word naming.

These differences, between Papua New Guinean performance and that of subjects elsewhere, are not explainable in terms or poorer absolute or relative naming times of English words since PNG's naming times were not slower than those of the overseas subject and, like the overseas subjects, PNG subjects named words faster than either pictures or colours.

Instead, it may be that PNG subjects process English words as visuo-spatial stimuli for which right - hemisphere function is dominant. Since the same hemisphere is mostly responsible for colour and picture processing, interference between such aspects of a single stimulus is enhanced. For other subjects (with English as the first language) the words could be processed in the left hemisphere and pictures and colours in the right. Since words are named faster than colours or pictures and are laterally separated for processing, interference occurs in one direction only. Evidence for this idea is discussed.
Cognitive Differences in Processing of Words and Pictures: A Cross Cultural Comparison.

When 12 colour names are printed in black ink and subjects are asked to read these words aloud, they have no trouble in doing so. When the same colour words are printed in different colour inks (e.g., the word BLUE is printed in yellow ink, and so forth) subjects again have no difficulty, in fact it has been reliably demonstrated that naming colour words printed in incongruent colour inks is done as quickly and as accurately as naming the same list of colour words printed in black ink. However, when the task is to name the colour of the ink in which a colour word is printed (e.g., say "RED" when the word "BLUE" is printed in red ink) significant increases in errors and response times are observed (Stroop, 1935; Dyer, 1973).

This phenomenon is known as the Stroop Colour - Word effect and a similar effect is demonstrated when pictures are substituted for colours. The time taken to read aloud a list of 12 common nouns does not differ from the time taken to read the same list of words printed inside line drawings of objects (e.g., the word DOG printed inside the outline drawing of an apple). However, naming the pictures when words appear within is significantly slower (Smith and Magee, 1980).

Neither the colour-word Stroop effect nor the picture-word interference effect can be attributed to longer absolute naming times for colours and pictures because the colours in which colour words are printed take longer to name than do colour patches in a control condition (Dyer, 1973) and pictures presented with words inside take longer to name than do pictures alone in the corresponding control condition. (Smith and Magee, 1980).
Since words presented alone are named faster than either colours or pictures presented alone, it seems reasonable to hypothesise that when stimuli consist of a mixture of words and colours, or words and pictures, the interference occurs in only one direction because words are available for verbal response before either colour information or picture information. Thus, when the colour label or picture name is required as a response, the already available word name has to be suppressed until the colour or picture label goes through the processing system and finally becomes available as a response. This explanation of the colour-word and a picture-word Stroop effect is known as the response competition explanation and has received considerable support (Dyer, 1973).

When Stroop phenomena were demonstrated in psychology laboratory classes at UPNG, some unusual results were obtained. Papua New Guinean subjects showed the expected interfering effects of words when naming colours or pictures but it was also found that colours and pictures significantly interfered with word naming, that is, the effects were symmetrical. This has not been reported for subjects in Europe or North America who show asymmetry in the effect, as described earlier.

The research reported here was designed to investigate the symmetrical picture-word Stroop effect as observed in Papua New Guinea. From a theoretical standpoint, the finding is important since for Papua New Guinean subjects, both pictures alone and colours alone are named slower than words alone (this is also found elsewhere). Yet in PNG pictures and colours nevertheless interfere in word naming tasks (this is not found elsewhere). These results cast doubt on the adequacy of the response competition explanation. If pictures and colours are processed or named more slowly than words, how can they interfere with word-naming? It is also possible that our Papua New Guinean subjects process pictures, colours, and words in a manner very
different from that of their overseas counterparts. One way to investigate this possibility is to manipulate variables which have been shown to affect extent of word interference in picture naming and look for similar effects in PNG subjects who demonstrate interference of pictures in a word naming task. One such variable is the semantic relationship between pictures and words in a Stroop type list. Rosinski (1975) showed that latencies for picture naming increased with decreased congruence of picture-word pairs and Ehri (1977) found that nouns were more distracting than either adjectives or functionals.

If the symmetrical interference effects shown in Papua New Guinean subjects is robust and meaningful, its basis should be made clearer by an examination of the effects of semantic relationships between picture-word pairs in a Stroop situation.

METHOD

Subjects

Twenty male and twenty female undergraduate students served as subjects. All spoke English (the language of instruction in PNG schools and universities) but none learned English as their first language.

Materials

Five lists, each containing 12 different pictures of common objects, were prepared on separate sheets. One of these sheets (List 1) contained pictures alone (i.e., no words were written inside the pictures). The other four lists contained words whose relationship with the pictures varied as follows:

List 2: Pictures and words semantically related. Each picture-word pair came from the same conceptual
category (e.g., the word BOAT inside the outline drawing of a car; the word FISH inside the drawing of a pig).

List 3: Pictures and words semantically unrelated, i.e., from different conceptual categories (e.g., the word FISH inside the drawing of a hat).

List 4: 100% congruent picture-word pairs (e.g., the word GLASS inside the drawing of a glass).

List 5: 50% congruent picture-word pairs. Six of the 12 word pairs were congruent and six were not.

Five lists containing 12 different words denoting common objects, were also prepared. One of these was used for the word alone condition and contained no pictures. The remaining four lists contained picture-word pairs whose relationships was as described for list 2-5 above.

The target items used for the word lists were the same as those used for the picture lists. Thus, each subject named each item twice — once as a word and once as a picture.

Procedure

Half of the subjects were required to name all of the picture-target lists first and then all of the word target lists. For the other half of the subjects the order was reversed. Within each block, the 5 picture-target lists and 5 word-target lists were presented in random order, with a different random order for each subject.

Prior to the picture-naming block, subjects were given a practice list of 12 items consisting of pictures which were different from those used in the experiment. These were combined with words or presented alone such that
items from each of the 5 types of picture lists were represented. A similar practice list was shown prior to the word-naming block.

Subjects were asked to name either the pictures or words as quickly as possible (depending on the condition) and were asked to ignore the irrelevant aspect of each picture word pair. A hand-held stopwatch was used to time the subject's performance for each of the 12 item lists.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The mean times to name each list of 12 items were calculated for each of the 10 conditions -- 5 word naming conditions and 5 picture naming conditions. The effects of semantic relatedness and congruence of picture-word stimuli can be seen in Table 1 and Table 2 respectively.

Table 1

Means naming times (secs.) for pictures and words presented alone (control conditions) and pictures and words presented with semantically related or unrelated distractors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean Picture Naming Times</th>
<th>Pictures alone</th>
<th>Pictures with semantically unrelated words</th>
<th>Pictures with semantically related words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8.44</td>
<td>11.23</td>
<td>15.83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean Word Naming Times</th>
<th>Words alone</th>
<th>Words with semantically unrelated pictures</th>
<th>Words with semantically related pictures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5.15</td>
<td>5.92</td>
<td>5.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2

Mean naming times for words and pictures accompanied by 0%, 50%, and 100% congruent distractor items. (Note that the naming times for pictures and words with semantically related distractor items are included in this Table under the 0% congruence condition).

**Mean Picture Naming Times**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pictures with 100% congruent words</th>
<th>Pictures with 50% congruent words</th>
<th>Pictures with 0% congruent words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7.74</td>
<td>11.30</td>
<td>15.83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Mean Word Naming Times**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Words with 100% congruent pictures</th>
<th>Words with 50% congruent pictures</th>
<th>Words with 0% congruent pictures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.10</td>
<td>6.34</td>
<td>5.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Three dependent t tests were performed to determine the significance of the differences between the mean picture naming times shown in Table 1. Consistent with results found elsewhere, pictures with semantically unrelated words and pictures with semantically related words took significantly longer to name than did pictures alone. In addition, pictures with semantically related words took significantly longer to name than did pictures with semantically unrelated words.

Also consistent with previous research was the finding that picture naming times increased as congruence between pictures and words decreased as indicated by the results of three dependent 't' tests performed on the means for picture naming times presented in Table 2. For
all six comparisons, t (39) was calculated and each comparison was associated with a p value of less than .01.

These results confirmed that Papua New Guinean subjects experienced interference from words when naming pictures and that the degree of interference was a function of the semantic relationship and level of congruence of the picture-word stimuli. In this respect, these subjects showed a pattern of responding which was similar to that of western subjects.

The more important comparisons were between word naming times in Table 1. Although the difference between mean naming times for words alone (\(\bar{x} = 5.15\)) and words presented with semantically unrelated pictures (\(\bar{x} = 5.92\)) was small, it was nevertheless significant beyond the .01 level, as was the difference between the naming time for words alone and that for words in the presence of semantically related pictures. Very low variances contributed to these significant differences which, incidentally, were also significant using a sign test. Not surprisingly the difference between naming times for words presented with semantically unrelated pictures (\(\bar{x} = 5.92\)) and words with semantically related pictures (\(\bar{x} = 5.91\)) was not significant.

Word naming times with varying levels of picture congruence showed a similar pattern. Words surrounded by 100% congruent pictures were named at the same speed as words alone (\(\bar{x} = 5.10\) secs and \(\bar{x} = 5.15\) secs respectively). But the times taken to name words in the presence of 50% congruent pictures (\(\bar{x} = 6.34\)) and 0% congruent pictures (\(\bar{x} = 5.91\)) were both significantly longer than the time taken to name words alone. Again, p values were less than .01. As was found in the comparison of word naming times when distractors were either semantically related or unrelated words, no significant difference was found in word naming times for 50% and 0% congruence (\(\bar{x} = 6.34\) and \(\bar{x} = 5.91\) respectively).
How can these results be interpreted? Firstly, we can say that Papua New Guinean subjects show the expected increase in picture naming times when words are there to interfere. In addition we can say that words which are semantically related to the to-be-named pictures are more interfering than are words which are not semantically related. Likewise, we can say that lists in which words are 50% congruent with the to-be-named pictures produce less interference than do lists in which there is 0% congruence between the pictures and words. In this regard, Papua New Guinean subjects perform as would be expected on the basis of previous results from picture-word Stroop studies.

Secondly, we can say that significant interference from pictures is observed when Papua New Guinean subjects are asked to name the words and ignore the pictures. This symmetry of interference is not consistent with previous findings and is not consistent with the response competition theory.

An alternative explanation of the Stroop effect is based on processing interference or overlap of processing of the two aspects of the stimulus. According to such explanations the conceptual codes of the two aspects of a Stroop stimulus share many common features and time is required to "disambiguate" them and to select a single code for conversion into a (later formed) response. Some researchers have suggested a broad locus for processing interference in the cerebral hemispheres (e.g., Jorgenson, Davis, Opella and Angerstein, 1980; Tsao, Feustel and Soseos, 1979). Hemispheric difference studies have shown that in Western subjects both colours and pictures are processed primarily in the right cerebral hemisphere. When the task required is one of naming the colour or picture, the left hemisphere, largely responsible for language, is also involved. Word processing on the other hand seems to be almost entirely under the control of the left hemisphere.
Thus, when pictures or colours are to be named, the final processing stage (naming) will occur in the same area of the left hemisphere in which the accompanying word is being processed and interference between these two closely located activities will slow down the naming of the colour or picture. When words are the part of the stimulus to be named, on the other hand, the processing of the accompanying picture or colour, taking place in the right hemisphere, is unlikely to produce interference because of the cerebral distance between the two sites of processing.

This approach to processing interference in terms of proximity of cerebral processing sites, may provide an explanation for the symmetrical interference effects seen in Papua New Guineans naming picture-word and colour-word stimuli. In separate studies at the University of Papua New Guinea it has been found that an unusually high proportion of PNG's are right hemisphere dominant for processing English words (Wuillemin, 1984). In Papua New Guinea subjects therefore it is likely that a picture and word or colour and word presented together will both be processed in the right cerebral hemisphere prior to one or both aspects of the stimulus being named in the left. This explanation is supported by the results of colour-word Stroop experiments conducted on Japanese subjects. When tested in Kana (a syllabic orthographic form of Japanese language) the usual asymmetrical effects were observed, such that words interfered in colour naming but not the reverse. However, when tested in Kanji, a pictorial form of the language known to be processed in the right hemisphere, symmetrical interference was observed with interference from words in naming colours and the reverse. (Morikawa, 1981)

Although the symmetry of interference of words when naming pictures and pictures when naming words can be explained by the suggestion that Papua New Guinean subjects show a greater tendency to be right-dominant for English,
the failure to demonstrate the same differential picture-on-word interference as a function of semantic relationship or level of congruence is not readily explained. We have only recently begun to explore these issues and we hope to be able to provide more conclusive data in the near future.
References


READING AS INTERPRETATION: THE JEFFERSON SCANDAL

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Reading as Interpretation: the Jefferson Scandal

Gordon Taylor

... an inference of intention is a way of accounting for or explaining the generation of an utterance; it can never be a report.

- Morse Peckham

'How can I put into my own words something some scholar has already expressed so well?' 'How can I be expected to decide when the experts disagree?' These are two questions with which those who teach university students are familiar. They are questions to which it is not easy to provide straightforward and convincing answers. The first will commonly be met by a reference to plagiarism and the injunction to learn to summarize. The answer to the second is usually expressed in the rather general instruction to weigh the evidence critically and to give a considered opinion. Both these kinds of response rather evade the questions the student asks, since neither really addresses the How. Moreover, neither recognizes that the two questions are in fact closely interconnected, or that it might be better to tackle the second, more taxing, one first, so that putting others' ideas into one's own words then becomes a relatively minor problem.

Our students' questions look at first blush to be questions about writing. In a sense they are. But they must be faced squarely when the student confronts a book with a note pad at his or her side. Failure to solve these problems at this point can only partly be redeemed later on as the essay is being written. Notes are (or can be) preliminary sketches for some part of the finished work, just as the artist's charcoal sketches are the first attempts to make some sense of the subject beyond the easel. Reading is not - despite what manuals on the subject so often suggest - in the first instance a matter of efficiency, flexibility, speed or even of comprehending ideas and information. It is not even, again in the first instance, about skimming or scanning to find and identify the main ideas. Note-taking is not about "reinforcing" understanding. All these things
may be relevant to various stages and kinds of reading. But first, coming to
terms with a book and its author is a task in interpretation. Putting a text into
our own words is not a matter of "reporting" or "reproduction". The moment we
begin to desert the original text, to stop quoting, our paraphrase is an
interpretation of the author's meaning. And as soon as we begin to interpret,
we are making decisions, exercising judgement.

Hence judgement is at the root of reading and understanding. It is not the
final stage to be tackled when all the 'skills' of reading have been played out
and the reading manuals, their part of the job completed, are closed. 'How can
I decide...?' contains the question 'How can I use my own words...?' since, as
F.R. Leavis has pointed out, "a judgement is personal or it is nothing; you cannot
take over someone else's".2

How have we come to get the priorities reversed? The answer, I believe,
lies in the assumptions much modern positivism and behaviourism have made
about epistemic certainty, about the nature of the facts and evidence to be
"weighed", and about the nature of language. We were taught (and by and large
we continue ourselves to teach) that the language of academic discourse should
be either a transparent window on the reality it attempts to refer to, describe
and explain; or, similarly, that at its best it is a perfectly fashioned mirror held
up to reflect nature and society. Language that is not like this is not the
language of enquiry. Bertrand Russell's view that "Words have two functions: on
the one hand to state facts, and on the other to evoke emotions"3 neatly divides
the 'universe of discourse' into statements that can be verified and fictions (like
poetry, religion and metaphysics) that cannot. Stating facts has come to be
associated with the idea of certainty: all an 'average' reader needs to do is to
comprehend and learn these thoroughly verified facts. Russell also asserts that
language (rather than words) may serve to "alter the state of the hearer"4, the
function that allows for the development of argument and discussion. But this,
for most people, means no more than combining statements of fact in a logical
and persuasive manner. The doctrine that objective language "states facts" had
been questioned earlier, but was not widely doubted until the 1950s (by
Wittgenstein, Austin and others). It is still assumed by many.

What might students thus indoctrinated make of the question 'Was Thomas
Jefferson the father of his slave Sally Hemings's illegitimate children?' when
they discover that we shall probably never certainly know? It isn't that we are
short of hard facts, which can be quite clearly discerned through even a fairly
cracked and dirty linguistic window. It is that, however weighed, the evidence
does not support a clear answer. Nor can the students take refuge in this
conclusion, waiting upon further 'research' to produce the necessary facts.
Saving an archival miracle, such evidence will not now come to light. Yet the
question is a good historical problem, and it is one which has much exercised the
"experts", especially since the publication in 1974 of Fawn M. Brodie's Thomas
Jefferson: an Intimate History.

Brodie did establish a number of new facts. But her book is chiefly
remarkable, in the first place, as an attempt at forging a more subtle link
between language and fact than common positivism allows. In the second place,
it is remarkable as a rather good example of how this connection should not be
established.

Thomas Jefferson: an Intimate History is an exercise in 'psychohistory', in
which the language of Jefferson and others in this drama becomes a major
source of evidence. So far so good. The problems raised by language in such
a case are extreme: the student must learn to interpret Brodie's and other
historians' interpretations of the primary sources, which are themselves
linguistic artefacts. Moreover, the student is faced with the rather difficult
conceptual problem that, since Brodie's 'psychohistory' draws upon certain
techniques of psychoanalysis, many of the 'linguistic facts' she uses in evidence
are ultimately justified (if not created) by the psychoanalytical theory itself.
The problem of interpretation faced by the student - as by the more experienced
reader - is how to break out of the hermeneutic circle: one needs to understand
something of the general theory in order to interpret and judge the detailed
analyses of linguistic evidence; and one needs to understand the details in order
to judge the general theory or approach. What seems clear from these
considerations (and they apply equally to liberal, 'Whiggish' and positivist
approaches to history) is that one cannot interpret successfully without some
training in how writers approach the nexus between language and fact.

One further and related difficulty in the analysis of primary evidence in
historical problems such as the one we face is that much of it is testimony
rather than fact. Hence, as historians well know, the reader must make a
provisional judgement on the motives and intentions of the testifier before any
profitable use can be made of their words. This, together with the theory-
dependence of certain kinds of facts and linguistic evidence, calls for background
knowledge and reading skills of a high order. If language can be thought of at
all as a mirror, it is as a hall of distorting mirrors more reminiscent of those in Coney Island than a camera. One scholar, Merrill Peterson, writes in a now familiar metaphor that Jefferson is "a sensitive reflector through several generations of America's troubled search for the image of itself". The mirror is as apt to reveal the problems and preconceptions of those who hold it up as it is to reflect the facts of what is called the "Miscegenation Legend", the "Dusky Sally Story" (she was one-quarter black) and the "Jefferson Scandal".

Jefferson's wife Martha died in 1782, having made him promise never to marry again. In 1802, when Jefferson was in his first term as president, James Callender, a disgruntled former supporter of the President, published in the Richmond Recorder a story "well known" around Jefferson's home town Charlottesville, Virginia. Callender alleged that Sally Hemings's children were Jefferson's. The allegation was widely denounced as "filth" easily explained by Callender's own motives. Federalist and Republican newspapers, as well as the nation at large, debated the story for some years. It was dropped after a time, but revived again by the anti-slavery movement up to and during the Civil War. Jefferson, who died in 1826, never referred openly to the story, whereas he did admit to having as a bachelor "offered love" to the wife of one of his white neighbours.

Jefferson's family always denied the truth of the story. Indeed, not long before she died, his elder daughter sought to prove to her own children that one of Sally's children could not have been fathered by Jefferson. His official duties, she tried to show, had kept him away from home, where Sally lived, for fourteen months prior to the birth. This 'fact' has been exposed by Douglass Adair and Fawn Brodie, the latter of whom established beyond doubt that Jefferson was at his plantation, Monticello, nine months before the births of all Sally's children recorded in the Monticello Farm Book. On the other hand, one of Sally's sons, Madison Hemings, whose memoir constitutes one of the main primary sources supporting the allegation, claimed that his mother was pregnant by Jefferson when in 1789 they returned to Monticello from Paris, where Jefferson had been minister to France. There is no evidence in the Farm Book that Sally did have a child at this time. Douglass Adair concludes that there was no such child.

These, of course, are not the only significant facts in the case, but they do illustrate, first, that primary documents must be treated with some suspicion and interpreted carefully - rather than being read for their 'main points'. This
is a historian's truism. Secondly, they show that a secondary source, such as Brodie, can be quite inconsistent in its treatment of the same primary document, the Farm Book. When all the facts and main points are gathered in, we do not have even the beginnings of an answer to the question whether Jefferson fathered Sally's children. All we have is a list "on the one hand" and a list "on the other". The answer lies not in 'information reproduced in our own words' seen clearly through the transparent language of the sources, but in our interpretation of this less than transparent language itself.

If reading and note-taking cannot be simply a report of or reproduction of the content, but rather a matter of interpretation, we must ask in what interpretation consists. Clearly, any text - not just the difficult ones - will pose certain problems of understanding. Students recognize this, and many are therefore reluctant to depart too far from the author's text for fear of exposing their lack of understanding - that they haven't got it right. Getting it absolutely right is an illusory aim, however - there will always, in principle, be an indeterminacy in the meaning of a text. Understanding, as E.D. Hirsch argues, is "a process of validation", that is to say a process by which we construct a hypothesis about the meaning of a text and put it to the test of observation and argument. The result is not a report of the true meaning of the text, but a conclusion about its "best meaning". In similar vein Morse Peckham argues that the very fact that we ask what an utterance means is sufficient evidence that there is uncertainty in reading "and that a decision must be made". The language of our books and sources, in other words, needs to be tackled in the same frame of mind that the scholar or student will bring to any evidence or facts that can more or less clearly be separated from it. The language of the texts is itself evidence to be weighed, not merely a window on the factual evidence.

Evidence of what? It can't, of course, be direct evidence of or for the facts of what did or did not happen. The answer lies in rejecting those notions that to say or write something is always to state a fact or opinion and that the meaning of a statement can always be assessed in terms of its truth value. Since Wittgenstein's Philosophical Investigations it has become possible to see more clearly that meaning in many kinds of statement is determined by the use of terms in the language rather than by more formal considerations. The implication of 'use' is that there must be a user. Hence, we can conclude with J.L. Austin that "... the issuing of an utterance is the performing of an action - it is not normally thought of as just saying something". And that, if in
writing an author is performing something, then he or she must have some intention to mean. It will be seen that the emphasis in Wittgenstein and Austin is shifting away from the problems of the relationship between language and its subject-matter towards a view of language as a realization of an author's intention. In showing that speech-act theory (as Austin's approach is called) gives prominence to intention and therefore to the importance of mind, E.D. Hirsch concludes that interpretation must consist in part, at least, of "a guess about [the writer's] intention"\textsuperscript{12} (my emphasis). This guess is then subjected to examination by analysing the text. The text, therefore, is evidence of the author's intention.

That the reader should not attempt to take the author's intention into account (the Intentional Fallacy) has been one of the fundamental tenets of Anglo-American literary criticism since the 1940s. Many, if not most, university teachers of English still hold to the doctrine, and it can probably be assumed that secondary school English teachers - those who teach our students to read - have thoroughly absorbed the doctrine too. But the New Critics never questioned the applicability of using intentions in the criticism of "non-literary" language, much of the force of their argument resting on the supposed special nature of literary works of art.\textsuperscript{13} The effect of ignoring this important qualification, coupled with the widespread failure of university English departments to show any interest in non-fictional prose written later than the eighteenth century, has been that there is little systematic study of how to apply the considerable work on speech acts to describing intentions in academic prose. Those books on reading which do talk about the author's "purpose", do so in a rather imprecise and sometimes muddled way.\textsuperscript{14} Moreover, the new kind of specialist in reading with a background in linguistics or cognitive psychology has not yet attempted to apply speech-act theory or the theory of interpretation to the reading problems of university and college students in a way that would be useful either to them or to their teachers.\textsuperscript{15}

Yet to be able to analyse what an author is doing with and in his or her text is precisely what our student of Jefferson needs if the question I have set is to be answered. What follows can in the space of a short paper neither be an exhaustive account of what authors can do with their texts (were that possible) nor what the primary and secondary sources reveal about Jefferson's sexual life. Rather, I shall be schematic on both matters, merely suggesting how the one needs to be approached in order to make possible an answer to the other.
It might be helpful to begin by illustrating the effect of textual evidence on the kind of answer we might eventually arrive at. Dumas Malone, Jefferson's definitive biographer, draws this conclusion:

... it is virtually inconceivable that this fastidious gentleman whose devotion to his dead wife's memory and to the happiness of his daughters and grandchildren bordered on the excessive could have carried on through a period of years a vulgar liaison which his own family could not have failed to detect.16

Malone's facts, so far as they can be disentangled from the language, nobody disputes. Jefferson's wife, it seems, was a difficult woman, but his devotion to her is established. The affection between Jefferson and his daughters a reading of the letters makes clear. His grandson Thomas Jefferson Randolph became the trusted manager of Monticello. But whether the family detected a putative liaison with Sally is somewhat beside the point, since all America knew as early as 1802. What is important in reading this sentence is to pay attention to the diction as evidence of Malone's intention. "Fastidious gentleman", "devotion to his dead wife's memory" and "vulgar liaison" set up their own pattern of meaning which no doubt Malone intended as a reinforcement of his defence of Jefferson's 'official' reputation. It is not even so much a (somewhat miscalculated) appeal to the reader's emotion that makes the language work against this defence. It is rather the assumption that his reader will share his judgement that a love affair between Thomas and Sally is indeed a "vulgar liaison", and moreover, that the "fastidious gentleman" would have shared it too. On these matters the student reading Malone will have to make his or her own judgement.

Quentin Skinner has drawn a distinction between motives and intentions that corresponds fairly closely to the kind of difference I have just illustrated17. By and large we can think of motive as a more or less conscious or conventional intention. In the context of academic prose the conventional motives can probably be labelled relatively easily. Intentions are much more complex, but can still be systematised to some extent.

The general motives which govern most academic writing, and which students must learn to recognize, are these:

- **ACCEEDING TO, DEFENDING or CONFIRMING** a particular point of view;
- **PROPOSING** a new point of view;
- **CONCEDING** that an existing point of view has certain merits but that it needs to be QUALIFIED in certain important respects;
• REFORMULATING an existing point of view or statement of it, such that the new version makes a better explanation;
• DISMISSING another person's work on account of its inadequacy, irrelevance, incoherence or by recourse to other appropriate criteria;
• REJECTING, REBUTTING or REFUTING another's argument on various reasoned grounds;
• RECONCILING two positions which may seem at variance by appeal to some 'higher' or 'deeper' principle;
• RETRACTING or RECANTING a previous position of one's own in the face of new arguments or evidence.

These motives position the writer's point of view with respect to what else has been written on the subject. Dumas Malone's sentence, quoted above, is motivated by the desire to DEFEND the point of view that Callender's charge is baseless. (Furthermore - and this is a separable element - Malone is defending a particular view of Jefferson's reputation.) Virginius Dabney's book The Jefferson Scandals: a Rebuttal wears its motive on its dust jacket. In the process of rebutting the legend he does, however, have to CONCEDE certain points - for example that Brodie has demonstrated Jefferson's presence at Monticello at the time Sally's children were conceived. We see, therefore, that these motives can interact in various ways at different levels of the argument.

Intentions, though less consciously under the control of the writer, may resemble motives in their conventional quality, at least up to a point. The elusiveness of intentions stems primarily from the complexity of their interactions with motives and from their interactions among themselves. Of intentions it seems useful to discern three main kinds (the labels I give them here are only suggestive and provisional): analytical intentions, structural or rhetorical intentions, and affective intentions.

By 'analytical intentions' I mean those modes of academic discourse which may be employed to analyse or discuss the subject matter. I have not the space to justify or to expand on the list of intentions given below. An examination of the theoretical literature and the practice of scholars in a variety of disciplines, however, suggests that they are the underlying ones.

• EXHORTING or RECOMMENDING us to act, think, behave and so on in a certain way. These are a special kind of JUDGEMENT or EVALUATION which contain a modal like 'ought' or 'should' in their formulation and which may implicitly begin with a phrase like 'I
suggest', 'I recommend'. The converse of an exhortation would be a WARNING.

- THEORISING about and EXPLAINING how or why things are as they are.
- DEFINING terms and concepts by NAMING, STIPULATING, REFERRING to objects, CLASSIFYING individuals into classes and by DISTINGUISHING between and COMPARING similar classes by means of ASCRIBING characteristics to them.
- DESCRIBING the characteristic features of the object being enquired into.
- OBSERVING and IDENTIFYING the objects to be analysed.
- EVALUATING the adequacy of our observations, descriptions, definitions, explanations, theories and exhortations in the light of criteria appropriate to each.

The dominant analytical mood of the Malone sentence quoted above is some kind of exhortation. Fawn Brodie is rather more subtle. In April 1804 one of Jefferson's two surviving children, Maria, took ill and died at the age of twenty-five. Jefferson hastened home for Maria's illness. In describing these events Brodie pauses to offer an explanation of Jefferson's meaning when he wrote to his friend John Page that "I ... have lost even the half of all I had". Brodie writes:

Social protocol had always demanded public rejection in all cases of miscegenation with blacks. Many white men went further, and denied to themselves the reality of their paternity of the mulatto children by an unexpressed syllogism that was also a fantasy - often an unconscious one. "It is lust that results in children born out of wedlock. It is the black woman who lusts, and who has seduced me against my will. Therefore the children are hers, not mine." Jefferson very likely did not take refuge in the common defense against guilt. In the same letter to John Page in which he wrote of losing "half of all I had," he also said, "But whatever is to be our destiny, wisdom, as well as duty, dictates that we should acquiesce in the will of Him whose it is to give and take away, and be contented in the enjoyment of those who are still permitted to be with us." And there is important evidence that in this great crisis of bereavement he turned for solace to "those still with us," to the young black mother, the source of continuing life.

Sometime during Jefferson's visit home for Maria's illness - April 4 to May 11, 1804 - Sally Hemings conceived another child. A son, whom she named Madison, was born on January 19, 1805 ... 19

My first attempt to construe this passage was unsuccessful. There seemed no connection between the first and second halves of the long paragraph until
I realized that Jefferson - according to Brodie - was able to look on the bright side of his daughter's death by thinking not only of Martha, his older daughter (the other half) but of Sally Hemings too. Brodie explains Jefferson's resignation to Maria's death by identifying Sally among "those ... still permitted to be with us". Jefferson's intention might well have been to refer to Sally in the comment he made. To substantiate this interpretation would require the reader to examine many such similar cases in Jefferson's writings, bearing in mind the (textual) fact that Sally's name occurs nowhere in his correspondence.20

Turning now to what I have called the structural or rhetorical intentions of the author, we focus our attention on those more formal relations between the elements of a text that account for its coherence. Brodie provides us with examples of two characteristic stratagems in empirical writing. In the passage quoted above she first provides a generalisation or general interpretation and then goes on to adduce particulars which constitute the evidence. That Madison Hemings was born nine months after Maria's death is the "important evidence" in favour of the idea that Jefferson turned to Sally in "this great crisis of bereavement". The reader looking for coherence in Brodie's argument can hardly escape the considerable lacuna between general and particular here, since there is nothing but coincidence of circumstance to connect the two. No doubt the phrase "source of continuing life" is intended to supply the link, but the reader's acceptance of this is going to depend on whether Brodie has established that Jefferson looked on Sally in this light.

The converse rhetorical procedure is to take certain particulars and to build from them a generalisation. This Brodie does when she notes that Jefferson, in using the word 'mulatto' eight times in twenty-five pages of his journal to describe the soil of eastern France, Germany and Holland, must have been thinking of Sally Hemings, left behind in Paris.21 In his review of Brodie's book, Garry Wills has taken this interpretation apart very well.22 It is instructive to see how, the linguistic sophistication of his argument entirely eclipsing the simple equation between word occurrence and state of mind on which Brodie builds her case. First Wills points to the entry in the Oxford English Dictionary that shows 'mulatto' to have been an eighteenth century American term for describing yellowish-brown soil. Jefferson's usage was not therefore idiosyncratic. Then he examines Jefferson's use of soil-colour vocabulary, showing that 'mulatto' takes its place in a semantic field of eight
terms ranging from black to gray and white. Wills concludes that the repetition of 'mulatto' is no more than a reflection of the soil-colours Jefferson actually saw on his journey. Generalisations, the student must be taught, are not built simply on the noticing of a few particulars, whether those particulars are ones of language or of fact.

There are other common rhetorical intentions the reader needs to identify and to examine for their soundness. These I shall not illustrate. Facts, reasons, causes, effects, functions and so on can be ITEMISED in a list, the sequencing in which the student must be able to follow. Hence it becomes important to realize when an author is REPHRASING, EXPANDING, DIGRESSING and SUMMARISING, and when an examination of some situation or event is being used merely to EXEMPLIFY or ILLUSTRATE rather than to construct an empirical argument. Also, of course, INFERENTIAL arguments (if ... then) must be followed and analysed.

Finally, we come to affective intention. By this I mean something like what literary critics call the tone of an utterance. Here we are concerned in part with the author's attitude to the reader. Clearly the force of argument and factual evidence and the 'rhetorical devices' of prose are relevant to this intention. But beyond these matters are the much more elusive qualities of syntax, rhythm and diction, some hints of which we caught in the sentence quoted from Malone. I do not propose to try listing these things, since any list would amount to a rather useless catalogue of intellectual sensibilities. Instead, I shall examine briefly an example from a secondary source and then one from a primary source.

Virginius Dabney meets in part the charge that Sally travelled home pregnant from Paris thus:

Furthermore, in order for us to credit the story of Sally's having a baby soon after her arrival from France, we must believe that Jefferson, a conspicuously loving father by all the credible evidence, seduced a sixteen-year-old slave girl and traveled with her on shipboard, in an advanced state of pregnancy, in the intimate company of his two young daughters. Anyone familiar with his relationship with his children, testified to by scores of affectionate letters and every proof of adoration and concern, will find such a story altogether unbelievable.23

There are clear echoes in this vigorous prose of Dumas Malone's style of argument. Its vigour, nevertheless contains an element of anxiety. Does not Dabney protest rather too much? Does he not rather try to preempt the reader's more sober reflection on the attitudes and habits of an eighteenth
century diplomat, gentleman and father. It is a useful exercise to reread the passage on the assumption that Sally was pregnant (as servant girls at the time commonly were), not by Jefferson but by some Parisian rake. How much of the argument remains? One need not even be disposed to accept that Sally was pregnant in order to dismiss it. Dabney enters into a conspiracy with his reader ("Anyone familiar with his relationship with his children ..." - having described it elsewhere in the book), flattering the latter's knowledge of this point while circumventing any knowledge of Jefferson's attitudes to his slaves' pregnancies. (There is, so far as I am aware, no evidence that he frowned on the many illegitimate births at Monticello.) Dabney begins to sound rather shrill in the face of the most gentle questioning.

Dabney's tone here is remarkable in its similarity not only to Dumas Malone's but to that adopted by Jefferson's grand-daughter Ellen Randolph Coolidge, writing to her husband in 1858. The quintessentially nineteenth-century fervour of this prose is unmistakable:

But again I would put it to any fair mind to decide if a man so admirable in his domestic character as Mr. Jefferson, so devoted to his daughters and their children, so fond of their society, so tender, considerate, refined in his intercourse with them, so watchful over them in all respects, would be likely to rear a race of half-breeds under their eyes and carry on his low amours in the circle of his family.24

Ellen Coolidge's tone can be accommodated by the reader of the 1980s: she was after all a direct descendent of Jefferson and she has absorbed that moral tone of her times which was beginning to blurr the earlier distinction between sensibility and sentimentality. We can even overlook her reference to "a race of half-breeds" as perhaps excusable exaggeration when, as she must have realized, Sally Hemings's children were octoroon (one-eighth black) and therefore by Jefferson's own definition legally white.25 These things the modern reader makes allowances for in Ellen Coolidge. But in Dumas Malone and Virginius Dabney? True, Malone has replaced Coolidge's "low amours" with "vulgar liaison"; and both have wisely updated their diction to eliminate "intercourse". To raise a knowing smirk in the reader would be quite inimical to their intention.

It will be appreciated that the ability even to recognize an author's motives and the three kinds of intention I have set out above cannot be presupposed in the student who has successfully completed a secondary school history course and supplemented his or her work in history with a standard
course in reading or study skills. Much less can it be assumed that the student will be able to construct from the sources an answer to our question which responds sensitively to the complexities of the interconnections between motives and intentions in prose. These are intellectual skills which need to be taught, and which can best be taught in the context of an empirical problem such as that raised in this essay. It is, of course, necessary to generalise to some extent beyond the particular problems of interpretation posed by the sources in the Dusky Sally Story, American history or history as a discipline. This I have tried to do by setting out a provisional classification of motive and intention, within which the task of sorting out an answer to the question of Jefferson's paternity of Sally Hemings's children can be tackled. In this case, as I have tried to show, affective intention (or tone) becomes very important as a source of interpretative evidence. In other historical questions and in other disciplines it might be less so.

It seems to me that the inadequacies I have pointed to in the writings of Brodie, Malone and Dabney stem from a common cause - no matter that Brodie is a 'modern' psychohistorian and Malone and Dabney empiricists in the traditional mould, and no matter that Brodie on the one hand and Malone and Dabney on the other are violently opposed on the answer to the question. What both sides have in common is a naivite about the linguistic implications of the primary sources they use. For example, we saw Brodie failing to examine the history and structural semantics of the word 'mulatto'. Her interpretation of Jefferson's intention in using the word is almost certainly inadequate. Jefferson's reference was to the soil and not equivocally to Sally as well. Malone's and Dabney's error is of a commoner but subtler kind. In coupling a close examination of motives (such as the unhappy Callender's) with the intentions endemic in the prose of nineteenth century defenders of Jefferson's moral reputation, they have reduced their argument to an incoherent blend of stringent empirical enquiry and purely speculative moralising. Put another way, Brodie sees her subject through the roseate glasses of modern romanticism, Malone and Dabney through those of nineteenth century romanticism. Consequently, their writing on this question displays at times a remarkable similarity, the contrast in their views notwithstanding.

It is only when the reader appreciates this that he or she will be led to open up other lines of questioning and enquiry. More emphasis might be placed, for example, on the generally acknowledged interpretation that Jefferson was
pre-eminently a man of the eighteenth century and whose own use of language (and conduct of his life) was governed by the motives and intentions of an Enlightenment intellectual, politician, and, in American terms, aristocrat. Less emphasis might be placed on Ellen Coolidge's letter and on the testimony of her brother Thomas Randolph. Randolph's account contains statements inconsistent with his sister's, statements inconsistent with each other and at least one palpable lie. In certain places its tone is quite disingenuous.26

More emphasis might be placed on the testimony of Madison Hemings, first published in the Pike County Republican, an Ohio abolitionist newspaper, in 1873.27 Malone and Hochman28 have enquired closely into the circumstances of Madison's memoir, emphasizing the propagandist motives of the paper's editor, S.F. Wetmore. But, as they themselves concede, this does not impugn the sincerity of Madison's own motives and intentions. One major problem of interpretation that must be faced in dealing with this testimony is to decide how much of it is Wetmore and how much Madison Hemings. Dabney seems to think that little weight can be given to it because the "proficient use of English" demonstrates that the writing is Wetmore's.29 Wetmore says in his introduction that "we have given the old man's [Hemings's] story as he has given it to us", a clear statement that he has relayed it. Would not the tone of the narrative be entirely false if Wetmore had sought to use or imitate whatever dialect Hemings spoke? Look, too, at the censorious tone Wetmore adopts to Jefferson in his introduction:

While he never experienced many of the cruelties of slavery, we must say that the system was cruel, at best. To keep such a man as Madison Hemings in the condition of a slave, however well treated in other respects was a sin of very deep dye .... If he had been educated and given a chance in the world he would have shone out as a star of the first magnitude. But he was kept under, by his own father, an ex-President of the United States, and a man who penned the immortal Declaration of Independence which fully acknowledges the rights and equality of the human race!

Now compare this with the dispassionate voice of the testimony itself:

[Jefferson] was uniformly kind to all about him. He was not in the habit of showing partiality or fatherly affection to us children. We were the only children of his by a slave woman. He was affectionate toward his white grandchildren ...

This is not the abolitionist rhetoric of Wetmore's introduction.

It is by examining linguistic nuances of this kind in the context of what else is known about Jefferson that we might discover whether he fathered Sally's
children. Hemings's even temper is indicative of the ordered conventions of life on an eighteenth-century gentleman's plantation. He also implicitly confirms the judgement of Garry Wills, T. Harry Williams and other historians that Jefferson led a very ordered and compartmentalised life into which women were fitted at his convenience. We cannot accept, as Brodie would have us do, that Jefferson was in love with Sally Hemings, nor the high Victorian view of Ellen Coolidge, Malone and Dabney that such a liaison is inconceivable. Rather, we need to examine Wills's suggestion that Sally was a convenient concubine who would not compromise the ordered life of the massa of Monticello. That is an unromantic view. It is truer to the eighteenth century. To establish it would demand the linguistic analysis of many more texts, an analysis of the kind I have sought to demonstrate. Students who are taught to interpret textual evidence in this way should have little cause to ask the questions with which this paper began.

Higher Education Advisory and Research Unit
Monash University
1. It should hardly be necessary to document this kind of language. It is the common parlance of reading and study skills texts.


13. In the essay that formulated the doctrine the authors wrote: 'In this respect poetry differs from practical messages, which are successful if and only if we correctly infer the intention'. W.K. Wimsatt and M.C. Beardsley, 'The Intentional Fallacy'. Sewanee Review, LIV, (1946), pp. 468-488. Reprinted in Newton-de Molina. The sentence above appears on p. 2.

14. See, for example, Mortimer J. Adler & Charles Van Doren, How to Read a Book (New York: Simon and Schuster, Revised edition 1972), pp. 92-94. This "classic guide to intelligent reading" has been informing attitudes since 1940. Its section on 'Discovering the Author's Intentions' warns the reader against "the fallacy of thinking you can discover what was in an author's mind from the book he has written", and never quite recovers its poise sufficiently to say how or in what terms we can work out what an author is trying to do. We must not, it tells us, "psychoanalyze Shakespeare from the evidence of Hamlet". That is an injunction against some Freudian readings of texts, not against discovering an author's intentions.
15. R.J. Spiro, B.C. Bruce & W.F. Brewer (eds.), Theoretical Issues in Reading Comprehension (Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 1980) is a very large and rather wordy volume reporting heavily funded research at the University of Illinois. In it two papers (Morgan & Green; Bruce) take up some of the issues of intention and speech acts, and one (Brewer) takes up questions of literary theory and the rhetoric of texts in a psychological context. Morgan and Green hardly get beyond texts like 'Some linguists can't read', though their paper has other virtues. Bruce makes the useful general point (p. 380) that understanding an author's intentions marks the difference between minimal comprehension and "deep understanding" of a text, but is unable to suggest how the reader can achieve this depth of understanding. Brewer's section on exposition (p. 232-233) tells us little that the average freshman doesn't already know.


27. Reprinted in Brodie, pp. 471-476. Brodie does not, however, reprint the Pike County Republican editor's introduction to Hemings's memoir. This will be found in Malone and Hochman (note 27 below).


29. Dabney, p. 46.

I wish to thank Tony Wood of the Monash University History Department for the loan of Dabney's book, not held in an Australian library, and for bibliographical advice. He, Guy Powles and Jim Mackenzie of Monash and Ros Meyer of Deakin University made many helpful comments on drafts of this paper.
WORKSHOP:

IMPROVING STUDENTS' ESSAYS

(See also Part 1)

CAROLYN WEBB

LANGUAGE STUDY CENTRE

UNIVERSITY OF SYDNEY
IMPROVING STUDENTS' ESSAYS

Carolyn Webb

Workshop participants were asked to discuss the adequacy of a research essay written by a Thai student undertaking a Master Degree course in Education.

The discussion centred around how to guide the student to better writing. An outline of the Essay Writing Course being developed at the Language Study Centre was used as a basis for analysing the essential steps of effective writing grouped broadly into "what to say" and "how to say it".

Focussing on the level of "how to say it", participants then examined a typical writing exercise from this course and some samples of students' writing in response to the exercise.

During the discussion, a scheme for analysing the elements of cohesive discourse was proposed for participants to consider and attempt to apply to the samples of student writing in order to define more precisely the causes of error or inadequacy.

Finally some suggestions for using such an exercise as a teaching tool were offered.
M.A. Preliminary in Education

Essay by a Thai student on: "What do you see as the distinctive contribution of sociology and study of educational institutions and practices?"

Everyday the mass media, the press and broadcasting in particular, bring us news of disasters, conflicts and new problems to be solved. In sociology, we study the behaviour of people in a careful and scientific way and also the way in which a society is organised.

This essay attempts to explain the distinctive contribution of sociology and study of educational institutions and practices. It is obvious that sociologist approaches education at a level of abstraction which is essentially concerned with the social institutions of education, from peer groups through classes and schools to the system of education, with institutional compositions, structure, procedures, ideologies and functioning; such are working and outcomes, and with interrelationships between education and other institutions.

As a matter of fact, the educational system seems to be inefficient because of the inequality of opportunity of education in the society. Therefore, the concepts of social class is need to be considered since it basically underlines the equality or inequality educational opportunity in the existing society. Consequently, social mobility and social changes are discussed. Then, the sociological perspective theories towards education are explained. Two major theories are selected for the purpose of discussion here, on the one hand is the structural functionalism which traces schools as school system; on the other is social action theory which illustrates schools as social worlds. Lastly, is the discuss of educational changes which are effected by the economic changes (and social changes).

It is important to bear in mind that inequality and innovation are the two relevant issues in the contemporary sociology of the school. In fact, inequality is more likely to effect innovation, which is the most striking feature of schooling. Changes seems to be continuous with new curricula, new forms of organization and new teaching methods taking place inside new styles of building with new kinds of equipment.

First of all before attempt to discuss about the distinctive contribution of sociology and study of educational institutions and practices. The basic understanding of sociological concepts are important. Three important concepts of social class, social change and social mobility are selected here because of their relevance and interrelations.

In a society, classes are roughly or arbitrarily defined by sociologists into 3 different classes, they are upper classes, middle classes and lower classes. More importantly social class is the most significant in relation to the life chances and life expectations which an individual may have in society, so that a person's class position may determine standard of the type of education he receives. Occupation is vital here, mainly different sizes of income lead to differences in life chances. However, status tends to vary with occupation or income. Thus, social class influences the educational opportunity achievement motivation as well. According to SELFE, social class is the classification of the population into broad groups, which are ranked in socially superior and inferior positions on the basis of objective criteria; occupation, attitudes, life style.

In my country, Thailand, for example, the middle class children have more educational opportunity than the working class children. Basically, the parental

1. P.L. SELFE. SOCIOLOGY AN INTRODUCTORY COURSE, THOMAS NELSON LTD, 1975, p. 258
occupation or income both encourage them in schools. Many children from the working class do not have enough uniforms especially those in good quality. There are prevalent shortage of textbooks and stationery. Thus, the middle class children have more facility in learning and better chances to do because their parents can afford the money to support them in their schooling. Moreover, most of the middle class parents have good positions in their jobs such as public servants, clerks, teachers and doctors, whereas the working class parents whose occupations are labourers, merchants and farmers, are at a disadvantage socially and financially to support their children in schooling. Therefore, the middle class parents' higher income and occupational status are favourable for their children life chances and better educational opportunity.

Furthermore, social mobility extends a person beyond his or her existing social class or social status. It is the ability to move up or down through class or status groups.\(^2\) In most cases, the opportunity for individual to improve the level of his social class comes largely through education. For example, a working class boy could go to university to get his qualification and ends up being, raising himself from working class status to middle class status. Basically, educational achievement motivates social mobility as well. Therefore, it enables the individual to attain higher occupation as well as formal qualification. Let me give another example in Thailand, many working class children whose parents are farmers, they become lawyers or doctors. Despite their humble ways of life, they have higher educational and occupational aspirations. At the same time, social change which is overlapped or intertwined with educational innovations is the main factor for formulating educational policy or understanding the relevance of educational institutions such as education reform, education readjust in society, for examples, new curricula, new forms of organization and new teaching methods. According to SELFE (1975), there may be changes in attitude, fashion, or ways of behaving as a results of innovations by opinion of leaders who establish new trends. Basically, economic change affects social change and then educational change as well.

There are two sociological perspective theories that are most relevant for study of educational institutions and practices. The structural functionalism theory, on the one hand and the social action theory, on the other. The main objective of structural functionalism is to produce theories that emphasises other structural characteristic and individual behaviour.\(^3\) In contrast to the structural functionalism, the notion of the social action focuses more directly on the individual.\(^4\) Theoretically, the structural functionalism identified schools as social systems. It is obviously possible to see relationships between what people do, or do not do, at school, and income, style of life, occupation and social class in adulthood. Particularly, the teacher-pupil relationship is a form of institutionalised dominance and subordination.\(^5\) For examples, teachers represent the formal curriculum in the form of tasks and pupils are the material in which teacher are supposed to produce results. Therefore, pupils' roles as are subordinate to all teachers; that is accepting and carrying out what teachers say because they are teachers.\(^6\) Similarly teachers' roles are mainly concerned with the privacy of the classroom like autonomy, providing the teacher with the freedom to do what he believes to be right in his own rooms.\(^7\) In fact, pupils are human beings striving to realise themselves in their own way. Thus, teacher-pupil

2. Ibid; p.258
3. ROBERT HAGEDORN AND SANFORD LABOVITZ, AN INTRODUCTION INTO SOCIOLOGICAL ORIENTATIONS, JOHN WILEY & SONS, INC, SYDNEY, 1973, p.4
4. Ibid; p.8
5. IVAN REID, SOCIOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE ON SCHOOL AND EDUCATION, OPEN BOOKS PUBLISHING LIMITED, LONDON, 1978, P. 39
6. Ibid; p.57
7. Ibid; p.61
relationship seems to be underlying hostility because pupils are interested in their own worlds than which teachers have to offer. According to this, the educational innovations are discussed in the educational system.

But the social action identified schools as social worlds. It is concerned with social situations that what goes on in schools, for example, the interactional analysis between teacher-behaviour in the classroom, teacher's interest in educational research also type of teaching. The way in which pupils see and react to teachers and the basis on which they do, are of prime importance in understanding what goes on in classroom and schools. During my teaching practice experience in Thailand, in 1977, I was in charge of a grade-six class. I encountered a lot of discipline problems from the delinquent students in that class. They often disrupted the class, by making loud noises and gave no attention to the lessons, and their absence from the class were becoming regular. I, then, tried to understand their deviant behaviour and it took me quite some time to learn the reasons. Finally, I discovered that a lot of them came from families full of constant financial troubles which make me fully understand why they behaved in such a way, as it was their only outlets for their troublesome familial background. It is, of course, important that teachers and pupils are not viewed only in relation to each other, or only in the classroom. They both are related outwardly into the community and beyond to society. According to KEDDIE, teachers are viewed as educationists who help pupils to develop their thought, work and concept or ideal. Furthermore, teachers are viewed as teachers in categorising and evaluating pupils.

According to Marxist model, the educational system is economically important. The possibility of being mismatched between education and economy different rates of change is a major cause of educational change. Thus, educational adjustment is relevant to changing economic conditions. For examples, the standard of living is going up, in Thailand. Therefore, the educational institution such as schools have arranged some courses which are of vocational relevance. In fact, the problem of unemployment would be reduced if the relevance are fully achieved. In this way, questions of educational aim and policy bring about the educational change.

In looking at the educational innovation, new approaches of educational goal, new form of organisation such as new teaching methods, new curricular are considered. As Whiteside stated that innovation means the changes needed in schooling to bring it into line with a changing society and also the changes needed to allow its students to cope with a future society. The educational innovation in a part of social change, in particular, it is as progressive classroom practice. Innovative school is supposed to be famous at the present time because its flexible and adaptable programs. For example, in the primary schooling of Yimbilliko, it uses the innovative teaching methods, which the teacher gives guidance and the children are encouraged to seek answers for themselves. Moreover, it has flexible timetables, few rules which often decided upon by the pupils. Pupils do not wear uniforms because individuality is strongly stressed and there is less emphasis on competition and ranking children against one another than in common in conventional schools. Traditionally, the school has been established by groups of people, usually parents, teachers, and other educators who believe that a wide choice within the school system is healthy. However, conflict between teachers and parents seems inevitable in many alternative schools because strongly-held beliefs about education are what make a parent choose an alternative school in the first place.

Furthermore, the educational innovation is formed in another kind of changes. According to ILLICH (1971), he rejected the schooling system because it is an obligatory without skill learning education. In particular, it tends to the instruction and teaching. In fact, the idea of deschooling is being much criticized.

8. Ibid; p. 85
10. CAROLYN PARFITT REPORTS, EDUCATIONAL HERALD, May 29, 1979
11. IVAN ILLICH, DESCHOOLING SOCIETY, HARPER & ROW, NEW YORK, 1971, p.354
or debated, as ILlich has stated, was an undeniable human right that all those who want to learn should have access to available resources for learning at any time in their lives, for examples, museums, libraries and the establishment of 'school exchange' which are learners and who process skills. Therefore, deschooling is a new approach of educational innovation. Particularly, it emphasises learning by motivated student acquiring new and complex skill. In fact, deschooling as skill centre or market for all ages by matching right partners for learning.

By virtue of this nature above, D'Urso supported the idea of deschooling. Actually he explained that the 'hidden realities within Australian schooling are dominated by many teachers and administrators.' Thus, deschooling, that is, the disestablishment of schools and their substitution by inexperienced and informal learning networks organised through learning exchanges connecting who wishes to learn something with someone qualified and willing to teaching its.

Innovation in education do not exist in any changing, objective sense but are constantly being defined, changed as a result of experience. At any one point in time different people may have quite different perceptions of an innovation and over time the same person may change his perceptions of an innovation. Sociologists have been at pains to point out to innovators that they should not ignore the intention between the organisation of the school and the wider environment including social programs, economic growth.

Conclusion

This essay is about the distinctive contribution of sociology and study of educational institutions and practices. The most relevant issue in the contemporary sociology of the school is, the educational innovation. It is hoped that in this new role of educational change what would play a crucial role in strengthening progressive education. It is important to explore that what the role of this change would be. Would, for example, educational goal through social class being made have an equally facilities available. Would the questions of how working class children could achieve in the schools like middle class children be answered. We should also consider how social system defines class, in particular, how school is defined or fit in or being put in the context of a social system. Therefore, the study of educational innovation is central to most of the contemporary debates about the changing nature of schooling. It is likely to be of major importance to all who seek to understand the realities of change in the contemporary school.

In Thailand, 'Open University', is a new approach of the educational innovation. In fact, it generates widely range of subjects, student opportunity for studying. People can go to 'Open University' without any entry prerequisites or skills. It is left to them to choose their interesting subjects as well. Therefore, 'Open University', is hoped to give all levels of people their 'life chances' in the future.

Sociology of education is, then, best seen as a particular approach to the explanation of educational phenomenon. At the more general level, the sociology of education has contributed a demonstration of the relationship of teachers, pupils, and their activities with society and of how the social structure enters and effects the social reality of the classroom. Basically, it provides a view of education as a social process and institution. For example, schools as social system or social worlds. As we can see, educational system is mainly involved in social class, social change, social control. Therefore, educationists do not only know the academic knowledge and skill in relationships within the classroom, but also an understanding of the constructive relationships within community outside. In other words, educationists have to study social acts. Consequently, sociologists have to consider the nature of school culture, nature teacher personality. Or we can say they have to study human interaction or social groups as well.

12. Tom Whiteside; OP.cit., p.19
Coronary Heart Disease (CHD) is caused by the clogging and narrowing of the coronary arteries - the special blood vessels which nourish the heart muscle. It is due to an artery disease called atherosclerosis (hardening of the arteries). A heart attack or 'coronary' occurs if a coronary artery becomes completely blocked and prevents blood from nourishing part of the heart muscle. Thus coronary heart disease is really coronary artery disease. It is not due to disease of the muscle itself: Nor is it the inevitable result of aging. Atherosclerosis also occurs in arteries elsewhere in the body, and may affect the brain, kidneys, legs, etc. In total, artery disease accounts for more than 50% of all deaths in Australia.

(These two paragraphs are quoted from The Complete Australian Heart Disease Prevention Manual by Allan and John Borushek.

Based on the information given over the page, write a paragraph to fit in between these two paragraphs.)

Although there are some unanswered questions about coronary heart disease, there is substantial evidence to back up current recommendations. Furthermore, the simple, safe and common sense preventive steps recommended in this manual are also in harmony with a natural, holistic way of life. The earlier a healthy life-style is adopted, the greater the long-term benefits. For this reason, children should be taught to be critical of, and avoid, the various unhealthy influences around them.
CIGARETTE SMOKING
(A Major Risk Factor)
The risk of heart attack is doubled in heavy cigarette smokers. The risk of sudden death from heart attack is 5 times higher than for non-smokers. Fortunately, the risk for ex-smokers decreases to almost the same level as for people who have never smoked.

HIGH BLOOD PRESSURE (HYPERTENSION)
(A Major Risk Factor)
People with high blood pressure have up to 4 times the risk of heart disease. Even moderately raised blood pressure leads to a higher risk. About 1 in 6 Australians has high blood pressure, often without knowing about it as there are no early warning symptoms.

OBESITY
Obesity increases the risk of heart disease mainly by contributing to high blood pressure, high cholesterol levels, and diabetes. People who are more than 20% overweight have 3 times the risk of those slightly underweight.

DIABETES
Heart disease is more common in people with diabetes, and often occurs at an earlier age. Most diabetes occurring later in life is triggered by obesity. Diabetes on high fat, low carbohydrate diets are at greater risk of heart disease than those on vegetarian-style carbohydrate diets.

HEREDITY, AGE AND SEX
A family background of heart disease or high blood pressure may increase the risk. The chance of heart disease increases with age. Before their change of life, women are less prone to heart attack. However, women taking 'the pill', especially those who also smoke, are at greater risk.

HIGH BLOOD CHOLESTEROL LEVELS
(A Major Risk Factor)
While cholesterol in the body is essential to life, excess cholesterol and fats in the blood contribute to unhealthy arteries. Heart disease may result. Generally, the higher the level of cholesterol in the blood, the higher the risk of heart disease. Diet influences blood cholesterol levels.

SEDENTARY LIFESTYLE
Regular exercise strengthens the heart and improves the circulatory system. It also helps control other risk factors (e.g. raised blood fats, stress and blood pressure). Inactive males have a 2 to 3 times greater risk of heart attack than very active ones.

STRESS & BEHAVIOUR PATTERNS
Many heart attack victims are always rushed, over ambitious and easily agitated. This 'full speed ahead', or 'Type A' behaviour may be an important factor in heart disease. Prolonged anxiety and depression which occur in distressed people may also increase the risk of heart disease, as well as other ailments.

OTHER RISK FACTORS
There are probably some other risk factors that play a role in CHD. However, those so far identified are reliable indicators of CHD, and can predict who is likely and who is unlikely to develop CHD.

MULTIPLE RISK FACTORS
Combined risk factors do not simply add — they multiply the risk. A person with 3 major risk factors is about 10 times more likely to suffer heart disease than his 'normal' counterpart.
There are many factors to occur the heart attack. One of the major factors is that people have another disease. For example, high blood pressure, obesity, diabetes... Another fact is that someone has a bad habit, smoking, sedentary lifestyle and bad behaviour. It may also increase the risk of heart disease. A family background, age, sex and so on are also the factor which occur the heart disease. Finally, what is to be attention to is combined risk factors do not simply add; they multiply the risk. A person with 3 major risk factors is about 10 times more likely to suffer heart disease than his normal counterpart.

The major contributing factors which increases the percentage of deaths due to coronary heart disease are three, i.e., smoking, high blood pressure and high blood cholesterol levels. The risk of heart attacks is doubled in heavy smoking, while it is almost the same among non-smoker and ex-smoker’s. The heart disease caused by high blood pressure and high cholesterol is directly proportional to the level of blood pressure and levels of cholesterol in the body. Obesity and diabetes also leads to heart disease especially at later age. Lifestyle, behaviour of people, and age also contributes to heart disease but these chances can be reduced by regular exercise. Multiple factors simply can increase the chances of heart disease. There are some other factors as well which are yet to be identified. But factor identified so far are reliable.

The mechanism of atherosclerosis which can cause deaths > 50% of Australian is thickening of the arteries by accumulation of Lipoproteins around arterial walls. This disease apart from heredity, which shows us is a disease which human being they are not doing the right things about their life styles and their habits. In the other words, it is a mal-habit disease. Most of researches have been done to show a lot of factors which influence the disease, such as: The person who smokes cigarette heavily are in high risk groups, or The person whose blood pressure is high are likely to get the disease, or somebody who have high blood cholesterol level, who are in danger having the disease too.

There are some other factors as well, for example, obesity, diabetes, heredity, age and sex, sedentary lifestyle, stress and behaviour patterns which originate the disease but not as risk as hypertension, cigarette smoking, high blood cholesterol level.

So, people who live in civilize way of life they must know how to control their lives to avoid these sorts of things as much as possible.
In the light of the seriousness of this statistic, it is indeed fortunate that some major risk factors have been identified and that, in the main, they are controllable. Amongst the groups most at risk are heavy smokers, who double their risk of heart attack and multiply by 5 the risk of sudden death from an attack. Another large group at risk is of those with high blood pressure whose chances of heart disease is increased by 4 times. A third major risk factor is high blood cholesterol levels.

Along with these three major areas of risk, there are a number of other factors which can give an early warning of heart disease. Obesity, a sedentary lifestyle, and stress can all be controlled to some extent so that the risks associated with them are reduced. Diabetes, however, although often linked with obesity if it occurs in later life, is not as readily controllable. Quite beyond control, but happily less significant, are the factors of heredity, age, and sex, all of which will influence the risk of heart disease.

In considering preventative measures against heart disease, it is important to note that a combination of risk factors multiplies the risk such that a person with three major risk factors increases the chances of contracting heart disease ten-fold.

A 50% that could well be reduced if we are prepared to accept that habits of living have a great deal to do with the incidence of coronary heart disease, for example smoking, a major risk factor and which if stopped may dramatically decrease the smoker's risk of death. Obesity a not uncommon problem in today's modern Australian society; a problem that will send blood pressure sky-rocketing which in turn will almost certainly lead to hypertension and thereby coronary heart disease. Also, a too sedentary lifestyle undeniably comfortable and tempting, but inhibiting efficient blood circulation, and preventing the heart to operate at full capacity, if allowed to continue would be detrimental to a person's well being. A further risk factor which is sometimes difficult although possible to control: stress and behaviour patterns. Should a person approach life (especially the aggressive, 'full speed ahead' person otherwise known as 'Type A' personality) in a calmer frame of mind, and for those of extremes of temperament, trying to ride out the highs and lows of depression would allow less likelihood of suffering coronary heart disease. There are of course other factors: diabetes, hereditary, age, sex, high blood cholesterol levels, but if we at least avoid the easy but bad habits knowing that combinations of such risk factors do not simply add, but in fact multiply the risks: persons with 3 major risk factors have 10 times more chance of suffering sometimes lethal heart disease than their normal counterparts.
Death from coronary heart disease or the hardening of the coronary artery may be due to a number of factors which influence arterial health. In general, these factors are connected with our living habits. There are three major risk factors. Firstly, the presence of high blood pressure increases the risk of heart attack four times. High cholesterol levels are a second factor which contribute to unhealthy arteries. Lastly, the risk of heart attack doubles in heavy smokers.

As well as the above factors, there are other risk factors which are connected with our lifestyle, health, and heredity, age and gender characteristics. For example, those who lead a sedentary life or a stressful life have an increased risk of heart attack. Also, people who suffer from obesity or diabetes are more prone to heart attack, as well as those who have a family background of heart attack.

Although these factors are the most important there are probably some others that play a role in coronary heart disease.

The chance of suffering from Atherosclerosis can be prevented by following a healthier lifestyle, which includes giving up smoking, doing regular aerobic exercises, and eating a more balanced diet. Research has shown that cigarette smoking, high blood cholesterol levels, sedentary lifestyle, and obesity increase the risk of atherosclerosis. High blood pressure (or hypertension), diabetes as well as stress and behaviour patterns also increase the risk of atherosclerosis. It is therefore advisable to have regular medical checkups as well as to learn to cope with anxiety and depression. Heredity, age and sex too play a role in atherosclerosis or coronary heart disease, they cannot be changed or treated as the other factors already mentioned. However, these innate factors help to identify the person whose heredity, age or sex characteristics make him/her more susceptible to atherosclerosis. For such people, the need to follow some of the preventive measures outlined above is greater. Some other risk factors too influence the risk rate of atherosclerosis. However, those so far identified are reliable indicators of atherosclerosis, and can predict who is likely and who is unlikely to develop the problem.
There are some risk factors which trigger coronary heart disease. One of the three major risk factors is high cholesterol. The higher the level of cholesterol in the blood, the higher risk of heart disease. Another risk factor is high blood pressure. People with high blood pressure have up to 4 times the risk of heart disease. Still another major factor is smoking. The risk for ex-smokers, however, decrease to almost the same level as for never smoked people. Other risk factors are obesity, diabetes, inactive lifestyle, heredity, age and sex. These risk factors are also reliable indicators of coronary heart disease - they can predict who is likely to develop coronary heart disease.

The risk of having coronary heart disease can be minimised if people pay more attention to their daily lives. As reported, cigarette smoking, hypertension and high cholesterol level are the three detrimental factors contributed to coronary heart disease. Therefore, cigarette smoking habit should be gave up and hypertension treated as early as possible. Less fat and cholesterol intake should be avoided as well. It seems that obesity people and diabetics have a higher chance of getting coronary heart disease. Furthermore, since obesity, hypertension, high blood cholesterol level and diabetes have been reported to be closely related to each other, they act together as multiple risk factors to increase the incidence of coronary heart disease. Interestingly, people under stress and depression may be easier to get coronary heart disease but too easy a life with a sedentary lifestyle will get the same end. There are also some other risk factors which are not very clear now. The unavoidable risk factors for everyone of us include heredity, age and sex which are still rather puzzling.

As it is well-known that the more Australian died by the artery disease, it should be studied that what the risk factors are, in order to prevent the coronary artery disease from continue raising. There are three major risk factors: firstly, "cigarette smoking": the smokers died by heart attack is 5 times higher than non-smokers, so the heavy smokers are easy get the artery disease; secondly: "High blood pressure", people with high blood pressure have up to 4 times risk of heart disease, so high blood pressure leads to a higher risk; thirdly: "High Blood Cholesterol levels": the excess cholesterol and fats in the blood also get heart disease. Besides, another factors: such as obesity, diabetes, age and sex, sedentary lifestyle, stress and behavioural patterns and some other risk factors.
Cohesion

Theme

Modal Adjuncts

- probability
- frequency
- opinion
- admissive
- assertive
- presumptive
- desiderative
- provisional
- validative
- evaluative
- predictive

Conjunction

- implicit
- explicit

internal → i.e.

internal → e.g.

external → additive
external → alternative
external → contrastive
external → similarity
external → simultaneous
external → successive

Reference

Lexical Cohesion
EXERCISES FOR CLASS WORK ON "HEART DISEASE" PASSAGE

A. WORKING OUT WHAT TO SAY

Draw up a rough plan for writing your passage, considering:
(a) whether you will use all the information or only some of it
(b) whether you will give equal emphasis to all the information you choose, or give particular emphasis to part of it
(c) whether you will classify the information into groups or make each point separately
(d) what relationships you will present between and amongst the points you make

B. WORKING OUT HOW TO SAY IT

Discuss the effectiveness of the following sentences as introductions to the passage, considering:
(a) their relationship to the previous paragraph
(b) the way in which they predict the passage will continue

* The mechanism of atherosclerosis which can cause deaths in over 50% of Australians is thickening of the arteries by accumulation of lipoproteins around arterial walls. (passage 3)

* There are some risk factors which trigger coronary heart disease. (passage 8)

* As it is well-known that so many Australians die from artery disease, it is vital to study what risk factors are in order to reduce the incidence of the disease. (passage 10)

* There are three major contributing factors which increase the risk of death by coronary heart disease.

Complete the following introductory sentence, keeping in mind its relationship to the previous paragraph and the way that it predicts the passage will continue:

* In the light of the _______________ of this _______________, it is indeed __________ that some ______________ have been identified and that, in the main, they are _________________. (passage 4)

Write a sentence that will follow on from the one above.

etc. etc.
AGE OF ACQUISITION: A DETERMINANT OF HEMISPHERIC

DOMINANCE FOR LANGUAGE PROCESSING IN PAPUA NEW GUINEANS

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Age of acquisition: A determinant of hemispheric dominance for language processing in Papua New Guineans

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Simple English words were tachistoscopically presented to either the left or right visual field of 62 Papua New Guinean University students. All subjects were right-handed, proficient in English, and multilingual. Their mean response times to read out the words presented to the left and the right visual fields were calculated and the percentage of subjects who were thus classified as left or right dominant for English was determined. When percentage of subjects who were left dominant for English was plotted as a function of age of acquisition of that language a linear relationship was obtained, such that 100% of subjects who learned English prior to 5 years of age showed left hemisphere dominance and only 38% of subjects who acquired English at age 12 appeared to be left dominant. Neither number of languages learned prior to English nor number of years between testing and the time at which English had been acquired showed any relationship to hemispheric dominance.

A comparison of these results with those obtained using Western bilingual subjects, suggests that early exposure to a written language may predispose the left hemisphere to accept later learned languages. Many Papua New Guineans are not exposed to a written form of language until they learn English and if this exposure does not occur early enough it is possible that the brain treats these words as visuo-spatial stimuli which are more appropriately dealt with by the right hemisphere.

In Papua New Guinea, as in many Western countries in recent years, educators have been concerned about the standard of English used by school and university students. The problems of learning English are greatly exacerbated in Papua New Guinea by limited schooling facilities. Only 70% of school-aged children are able to enter first
grade. Children in remote villages simply cannot make the journey to school each day because of the distances involved and the mountainous or swampy terrain which makes modern transport impossible. Boarding facilities are limited and families are reluctant to be parted from their young children for long periods. Of those who enter school, usually at age 7 or later, less than 30% will reach high school.

In primary schools the teaching language is sometimes Tok Pisin or a vernacular (Tok Ples) in the early years, although nearly all students are exposed to English by the time they leave primary school. Approximately 5% of the students we have encountered in first year at university were not exposed to any English until they were 12 years old. At high school level, teaching is almost entirely conducted in English, although the standard of English used by teachers is sometimes questionable.

The focus of this paper is not on the broader problem of educational opportunity, as briefly outlined above, but on the performance of the advantaged 2% who have access to university education. The poor standard of English, the only teaching language at university level, is well recognized, as indicated by the presence of a compulsory first-year course 'Foundation English' offered at the University of Papua New Guinea.

The members of the Psychology Department at the University have tried to define the problem of 'poor English' more specifically by examining study skills, cognitive functions, perceptual skills, reading ability and neuropsychological aspects of language processing. It is this last aspect that will be addressed primarily in this paper.

The divided visual field study to be reported here involves one of several commonly used techniques for inferring which cerebral hemisphere takes the major role in processing various types of visual material. The results of such studies have been validated by comparison with clinical findings. The logical basis for divided visual field studies is straightforward. The two cerebral hemispheres are divided laterally into left and right, connected by the corpus callosum and other small commisures. Stimuli on the left side of the perceiver's visual world will be transmitted via the retina of both eyes to the right hemisphere, while those on the right side go to the left hemisphere. Thus, by having a subject fixate a particular point and arranging for stimuli to be presented to the left or right of the fixation point, we can be certain that these stimuli will be initially transmitted to only one of the cerebral hemispheres. The speed or accuracy of the subject's response to such stimuli can be referred to the hemisphere which received the stimuli.
Using the above method many researchers have determined that the left hemisphere has superior processing skills for various verbal tasks. For example, right handed subjects have shown right visual field advantages (superior left hemisphere processing) for letter recognition (Bryden 1973, Bryden and Rainey, 1963), for word/nonword judgements (Bradshaw, Nettleton and Taylor, 1981) for word recognition (Phippard, 1977) and word naming (Levine and Banich, 1982). See Beaumont, (1982) for a recent review of this area. However, in poor readers the right visual field advantage for verbal material appears to be absent or substantially reduced (Olsen, 1973; Marcel, Katz and Smith, 1974; Pirozzolo and Rayner, 1979).

Studies of bilinguals, using divided visual field techniques, concurrent tasks, and dichotic listening tasks, have generally shown a left hemisphere superiority for both languages. The subjects tested include English-Hebrew bilinguals (Gordon, 1980; Shanon, 1982), Spanish-English bilinguals (Galloway and Scarcella, 1982), English-German and English-French bilinguals (Sewell and Panou, 1983) and Portuguese-English bilinguals (Soares, 1982). A few studies, such as Sussman, Franklin and Simon (1982) have shown bilateral control for later learned languages in bilinguals. Unfortunately, many of the above studies have failed to take into account the age at which the second language was acquired and to relate this to subjects' performance.

The present study was designed to determine which cerebral hemisphere is primarily involved in verbal processing in Papua New Guineans. Because of the apparent difficulty with English in Papua New Guineans, English words were chosen as stimuli and age of acquisition of English was considered in analyzing the results. It should be borne in mind that the results obtained apply only to this language and that no inference can be drawn about the processing of the subjects' various native languages.

**Method**

**Subjects**

Forty-seven male and 15 female first year university students participated in the study. All were right-handed and were verbally fluent in up to 7 Papua New Guinean languages as well as English. The ages at which the subjects had first acquired English ranged from infancy to 12 years. At the time of testing subjects were aged between 18 and 38 years.
Apparatus and Procedure

All subjects were required to fill out a language background questionnaire and handedness inventory before the experiment.

Each subject was seated in a darkened room and asked to place their chin on a small rubber pad in front of them. The chin rest ensured that all subjects maintained a constant distance of 60cems from the center of the projection screen. A microphone placed close to the subject’s mouth was connected to a voice response timer (Lafayette, model no.63040) which measured the time from onset of the stimulus on the screen to onset of the subjects response. Two Kodak Ektographic slide projectors (model no. AF-2k) fitted with tachistoscopic shutters were aligned so that they both projected onto the same area of the back of the screen. The projectors were synchronized so that a fixation cross in the center of the screen was constantly exposed using one projector, but switched off automatically for 100 milliseconds while each word was exposed using the other projector. The words were placed such that their center was 3.7cems to the left or right of the center of the cross, forming a visual angle of 3.5° from the center of the subject’s line of vision.

Subjects were told that words would appear briefly on the right or left side of the screen, but that they should attempt to look at the cross in the center of the screen at all times, making no effort to look directly at the words. They were instructed to say each word out loud as quickly as possible. Immediately before each word a ‘ready’ signal was given verbally.

Three words were presented, once to the left and once to the right of fixation, for practice. This was followed by 10 test words, presented once to the left visual field and once to the right. Order of presentation of the words and of left and right visual field exposure was randomized with the constraint that no word appeared twice in succession. The words used were all common 4-letter English words such as book, coat, fish and tree.

Results

Subjects' response times were recorded for each word and a mean response time for LVF and RVF presentations was calculated. Trials on which subjects made errors were few and times for these responses were not included. Subjects were assigned to groups according to the age at which they first learned English. For each group the percentage of subjects whose response times were faster for RVF presentations (implying superior left hemisphere performance) was calculated (see figure 1).
As no subject had identical LVF and RVF mean scores the percentage of subjects whose response times were faster for LVF presentations (superior right hemisphere performance) is the inverse of that shown in figure 1.

Figure 1. Percentage of subjects who were found to be left dominant for naming English words for each age of acquisition of that language.

It is quite apparent from figure 1 that the likelihood of left hemisphere superiority for processing of English words declines with increasing age of acquisition and that the right hemisphere plays an increasingly important role in such processing.

In order to determine whether there were factors other than age of acquisition which may have contributed to the above findings information about number of languages learned prior to English (taken from the language background questionnaires) and length of time that English had been spoken by each subject were analyzed. There was no significant difference between subjects designated as right and left dominant for either of these factors indicating that neither number of languages learned prior to English nor length of time that English had been spoken could account for the shift from left to right dominance.
These findings then raised the question of whether there were any differences between the right hemisphere of right dominant subjects and the left hemisphere of left dominant subjects in their ability to process words. The type of data collected in this experiment does not allow a detailed analysis of the nature of processing. However, a t-test comparing the response times for LVF presentations for right-dominant subjects with RVF presentations for left-dominant subjects indicated that the left dominant subjects were significantly faster at naming words than were right dominant subjects when the words were presented to their dominant hemispheres. While response time is only one measure of processing skill, the results suggest that subjects who are right dominant for naming English words are less efficient at this task than left dominant subjects.

Discussion

The findings presented here indicate that for Papua New Guineans, which cerebral hemisphere becomes the dominant one for processing English words is related to age of acquisition of English, and that cerebral dominance may in turn affect efficiency of processing. The results also indicate that hemispheric superiority for processing English is not determined by either the number of languages learned prior to English nor the length of time that English was known by the subjects.

Why do Papua New Guineans show an increased tendency for right hemisphere language processing with increasing acquisition age of English, when previous studies (e.g., Shanon, 1982; Galloway and Scarcella, 1982) of bilinguals typically report left-dominance for both languages regardless of when the second was learned? The most obvious difference between the languages learned by Papua New Guineans and those of subjects in previous studies is the form in which their languages are learned. Although young Papua New Guinean children may be verbally fluent in several languages at an early age, they are unlikely to know how to read or write these languages. In fact, for some languages, used by small groups, there is no written form of language. It is not until they are exposed to English that most Papua New Guinean children learn to read and write. In order to understand how this lack of exposure to written material may contribute to the development of right-hemisphere language processing, it will be necessary to briefly consider how the two cerebral hemispheres are involved in the development of language.
Early babbling in infants and the more refined speech sounds produced by young children appear to be controlled by Broca's area (the center for motor control of speech) located in the left cerebral hemisphere in neurologically normal individuals. It is likely that this area is genetically pre-programmed specifically for this task. Also, evidence of a right-ear advantage in dichotic listening tasks in children as young as 3 years of age suggests a left-hemisphere advantage for processing spoken language. This also may be genetically determined and present at birth but it is not possible to test young infants for language processing ability in order to confirm this. Thus the area for producing speech lies close to the area for receiving speech in the left cerebral cortex. In the process of learning language the child must make frequent comparisons between sounds that others produce and sounds that he produces in order to refine his own speech, and meaning must be attached to these utterances. The area involved in understanding speech, i.e., attaching meaning to words, is usually located further back in the left temporal lobe.

In most societies the child is exposed to a written form of the language he has already begun to master, and initially meaningless squiggles become associated with the sounds they represent, so that with several years exposure, letters and groups of letters can automatically access a phonological code, and words for which the meaning is not known can nonetheless be pronounced. This skill can also be transferred to other languages providing that they are written in a familiar alphabet so that children and adults alike are capable of pronouncing foreign words, albeit with a poor accent, without knowing the word's meaning. Thus in bilinguals and multilinguals there would be no reason to assume that the areas of the brain responsible for producing speech sounds and associating these with written representations for the first language would not also serve later languages.

But what happens if the young child is not exposed to written language? If the sounds of language are not associated with any written representation then the link between letter and sound which gives letters their linguistic status cannot be built up. It should be remembered that words, as a class of visuo-spatial stimuli, have a special status only because of the sounds we have learned to associate with them and the meanings we ascribe to collections of those sounds. It is conceivable that if associations between spoken and written language are not learned early enough, then the brain will not recognize writing as language, reserving the language processing centers of the left hemisphere for the verbal form of communication to which it has become accustomed. Words would also be treated in the customary way, as visuospatial material more appropriately dealt with, by the right hemisphere. Links between written words and their speech sounds would still be built up with repeated exposure, but they would be between rather than within hemispheres.
This explanation, when applied to the results of the present study, would suggest that a greater proportion of subjects are found to be right dominant for naming English words as age of acquisition increases because written words are treated differently (i.e., more visuo-spatially) in these subjects, from those who have had earlier exposure to written language. Spoken language; on the other hand, would be processed in the left hemisphere regardless of whether it was English or an earlier learned local language.

The results of a concurrent finger-tapping and speech task (Wuillemin, unpublished data) support this split in processing of English between the left and right hemisphere in some Papua New Guinean subjects. While the overall results of greater right hemisphere involvement with increased acquisition age were replicated, many of the right dominant subjects showed some left hemisphere involvement (presumably in the speech output stage) while reading out text-book passages written in English.

While the finding of a relatively high proportion of right hemisphere English language processing in Papua New Guinean students cannot be invoked to explain all of the difficulties these students have in using English it may at least in part account for some of the performance deficits and unusual results produced by earlier researchers. These include poor performance on reading tests (Price, 1973), interference in naming words in the presence of pictures or colours in Stroop-type tasks (Richardson and Wuillemin, in a separate paper presented at this same conference), reduced recency effect in recalling lists of words (Wuillemin and Richardson, unpublished data) and poor recall of important details, as opposed to less relevant information, from stories (Moore and O'Driscoll, 1983). These latter two findings may be related to the global, spatial nature of right hemisphere processing as opposed to the analytic, sequential type of processing exhibited by the left hemisphere.

This paper has provided data indicating an unusually high proportion of right hemisphere language processing for English in Papua New Guineans and has raised the possibility that early exposure to written language is an important component in developing 'normal' left hemisphere laterality for language processing. To what extent problems in using English as a teaching/learning language result from this is not clear. Further research on spoken English and local languages is presently being conducted with a view to providing a clearer picture of language localization in multilingual Papua New Guineans and the role this plays in language proficiency.
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DEVELOPING POST GRADUATE RESEARCH SKILLS

O. ZUBER-SKERRITT

AND

A. RIX

GRIFFITH UNIVERSITY
Developing Postgraduate Research Skills

Zuber-Skerritt, O. and Rix, A.

Griffith University, Brisbane
(Presented by Ortrun Zuber-Skerritt)

Three years ago I presented a paper to this conference at La Trobe University on 'The integration of student study skills into a first-year programme at Griffith University'.

Meanwhile departments or schools at other Australian institutions of tertiary education have introduced workshops on learning skills or study methods as an integral part of their first-year courses.

Today I would like to talk about the integration of a workshop component on postgraduate research and writing skills into a Master-by-Coursework programme at Griffith University(1). My colleague, Alan Rix, the convenor of this Masters programme, and I are not aware that such an integrated, practical course on postgraduate research skills exists anywhere in Australia, although research studies have documented that a large proportion of postgraduate students need more help with developing research skills.

Traditionally, in universities it is up to the individual supervisors to decide how much help they provide to their students in developing thesis research and writing skills. In most cases the development occurs accidentally rather than systematically.
WHY WAS THIS INTRODUCTORY WORKSHOP COURSE ON DISSERTATION RESEARCH AND WRITING NECESSARY?

It was introduced for the first time in 1984 on a voluntary basis, as an experiment to help alleviate problems experienced with earlier dissertations in this programme and generally identified in the educational research literature.

The Master-by-Coursework programme in the School of Modern Asian Studies (MAS) is an example of a postgraduate programme which attracts people from a variety of academic and employment backgrounds (business executives, high-school teachers, army officers, etc., some of whom have not undertaken formal study for many years) and of different age groups (from twenties to late sixties). For most of them, dissertation research and writing is a completely new task. It is no wonder, then, that a relatively high percentage of the first intake of students in 1981-82 experienced serious problems in research and writing the dissertation and in the assessment they received. The following example from an MAS examiner's report in 1982 highlights the problem:

More disturbing ... was the general lack of scholarly awareness... For example, there is a tendency throughout to make assertions and not to document them, to use impressions as the premises for arguments, to guess at motives rather than analysing and investigating them. My experience in supervising another Masters student as well as in examining this dissertation leads me to wonder whether our expectations for these students are too high. In these cases of which I have had first-hand experience, there is a general lack of the fundamentals of scholarship which are drummed into honours students as a matter of course. If my impression is correct, and if it goes beyond these two students, then I suspect we need either to modify our expectations of what they should provide in these dissertations or to insert a more rigorous methodological component into the Masters course work programme.
Reports like these led the Postgraduate Coursework Board to make the following decisions:

- to restructure the programme and to include an introductory course on dissertation research and writing conducted jointly by staff of MAS and CALT(2);
- to revise the aims and standards of the dissertation and to communicate them to students in the information booklet and GU Handbook, and to examiners in the MAS School's 'letter to examiners' (explaining the role and weighting of the dissertation in this programme and with an attached assessment guide stating the criteria to be used;
- to hold a meeting of supervisors to discuss the responsibilities and functions of supervisors (based on the results of a CALT survey), dissertation standards, workshops, etc.

A meeting of supervisors in November 1983 discussed these matters. The questionnaires on the 'Functions of Supervisors' and 'Postgraduate Supervision: Role Perception Rating Scale', designed by Ingrid Moses, TED1, conducted by CALT, and completed by nine supervisors, provided an excellent basis for detailed discussion. Finally, supervisors agreed on a framework and realized that students needed advice and guidance, particularly in the early stages of their dissertation research and writing.

As to the standards of the dissertation, it was agreed that we should try to reach as high a standard as possible (perhaps to the level of an article in a middle range journal). The minimum acceptable standard should be as laid out in the letter to examiners.
It was also agreed that supervisors should meet their students in the following two weeks in November:

- to assist in defining the expectations which each had of the other. (Supervisors might or might not wish to exchange with their students TEDI questionnaire forms regarding the role of supervisors);
- to set tasks and directions for work over the summer; and
- to refer students to the set textbook by Anderson et al (1982).

The problems in the MAS Masters Course are by no means unique to this course or to this university, but indeed are common in postgraduate education at other universities in Australia and in other parts of the world.

Relatively little research has been done in postgraduate education (as compared to research in undergraduate learning and teaching), but there are a few studies which demonstrate that most problems arise from the lack of understanding and communication between students and supervisors. Moses (1981) summarizes some problems identified in the literature in this field:

Welsh (1978) in the UK has found that in general, students' perceptions of the supervisor's role are similar to the supervisors' perceptions, i.e., to counsel, advise, and guide. This is confirmed by Battersby (1980) in New Zealand. But Rudd (1975) has found that students in different disciplines have different needs. For example, table 1 shows that social sciences students wanted more/better supervision, more/better lectures, more instruction in research methods etc.
Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Improvements desired (Percentage of students suggesting change)</th>
<th>Arts</th>
<th>Social Studies</th>
<th>Pure Science</th>
<th>Applied Science</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>More instruction in research methods</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More/better lectures</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Broadening background knowledge</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More/better seminars or other opportunities for discussion</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More/better supervision</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More people working on same problem</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Better physical working conditions</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Rudd (1975) has also found that there is a consistent percentage (up to 25%) of postgraduate students who are dissatisfied with the supervision they are receiving. The five main difficulties are:

1. neglect;
2. clash of personality;
3. misinformed or ignorant supervisor leading student on wrong track;
4. inexperienced supervisor;
5. overcommitted supervisor who was willing, experienced or competent, but had no time.

We believe that for Master-by-Coursework students, a well-designed workshop course with supervisors' participation can mitigate most of the above problems.
Table 2 shows, among other things, that more than half (55%) of Social Science students wanted closer supervision.

Table 2
Consultation with supervisor during initial reading/planning stage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Percentage of students (N=669)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Arts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) Wanted closer supervision</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Wanted it less close</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) Satisfied</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Apart from the Sydney study (Ibrahim et al, 1980) which identified two main problem areas, i.e., excessive standards and inadequate supervision, there is no Australian study predicting success of postgraduate students. But we know from Welsh (1980) that there are certain variables affecting success as can be seen in table 3.

Table 3
CHARACTERISTICS OF THE 'SUCCESSFUL' STUDENT
Science faculty student (especially if an MSc taught course)
Male
Aged less than 30 on entry
Overseas origin
Student status
Full-time student
Indirect admission to PhD study

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE 'UNSUCCESSFUL' STUDENT
Arts faculty student (especially if for MLitt by research)
Female
Aged 30 or more on entry
Home origin
Staff status
Part-time student
Direct admission to PhD study

Moses (1981) has found at the University of Queensland that one of the main problems is the lack of written regulations and guidelines related to postgraduate research. Table 4 shows the number of departments (out of 50 surveyed) giving written advice on the areas listed.
### Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Information Included</th>
<th>No. of Departments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Research/supervision areas of staff</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Departmental rules relating to courses, procedures, enrollment not covered in University of Queensland Higher Degree Handbook</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resources for research available to postgraduates</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current or past thesis topics of postgraduate students</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial assistance available to postgraduate students</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mention of supervisor responsibilities</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guidelines for research and/or thesis construction/presentation (plus one compiled by students)</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of course, when reading the information (Moses, 1981: 42-76) you will notice that the quality and quantity of advice varies a great deal. However, we hope to have shown with this very brief excursion into surveys on postgraduate supervision that problems have been identified elsewhere and some steps taken to alleviate them (e.g., the written advice provided by some departments and the 'Check List for Good Supervisory Practice' by SERC, 1983). Yet we are not aware of any systematic courses on practical postgraduate skills integrated into the programme. We therefore designed a workshop course which dealt with skills generally needed for writing a dissertation, but also specifically needed for research projects in 'Australian-Asian Relations', and tailored to the perceived needs of a varied group of largely mature-age students.

Since we believe that similar workshop courses could be beneficially introduced for other groups of students at tertiary institutions elsewhere, the aims and procedures of our three three-hour workshops are outlined below.
The First Workshop

Aim

The aim of the first workshop was to discuss dissertation standards, expectations, and individual students' research proposals.

Procedure

1. Introduction: The role and purpose of the workshops; the workshop programme; the place of the dissertation in the degree, and standards expected.

2. Problems of earlier dissertations; problems identified in educational research; discussion of the results of the CALT survey on the supervisor's role; trigger film; discussion between supervisors and their students on each other's expectations; video programme: 'The Supervisors' Viewpoint'.

3. The dissertation proposal: discussions in three groups (according to study areas) of individual dissertation proposals. Each student was asked to explain to their fellow students and supervisors in their group:
   - what their central question or problem is;
   - why this problem is important and worthy of study; and
   - how they will go about it (research methods and underlying assumptions).

4. Homework: to write a critique on a given article following given guidelines.
The Second Workshop

Aims

The aims of the second workshop were to help students
- to analyse a text critically
- to structure their dissertation
- to organize their time
- to discuss problems they have personally encountered in their research (with support from group and supervisors).

Procedures

1. Analytical Critique Exercise (6). Purpose of the critical analysis exercise.
   Small-group discussions on individual critiques (Cf. written homework) and generally on the given article, following the 'Guidelines for the Analytical Critique Exercise' (5).
   Reports from the three groups to the plenum. Plenary discussion.

2. The structure and time-tableing of the dissertation. Examples of dissertation structures; two extreme examples of a 'Contents' page; dissertation timetable for 1984 and advice on each stage.

3. Problems students have encountered in study and research. Large group discussion on problems of using and interpreting primary and secondary sources, biases, subjectivity, objectivity, etc. Small-group discussions on individual problems.

4. Homework: to read Anderson et al (1982), pp. 10-14 and to prepare a 'Notes' card for the given article.
Aims

The aim of the third workshop was to discuss the 'nuts and bolts' of dissertation research and writing, such as the use of sources, note-taking, style-sheeting, writing and presenting the dissertation.

Procedure

1. Finding, indexing and note-taking from research materials.
2. Use of sources: analysis of contradicting sources.
3. Exercise in transposing statistical data from a text into a table and a diagramme; reading graphs critically to avoid manipulation on the writer's part and misinterpretation on the reader's part.
4. Stages of writing; style sheets (e.g., Anderson et al., La Trobe University and the Harvard system); references and footnotes; writing and presenting the dissertation.
5. Questionnaire survey obtaining feedback from students and supervisors on their benefit from this course.

Evaluation

In order to obtain feedback and to assess the success of these workshops, a mixture of formal and informal, qualitative and quantitative methods of evaluation were used: class observations by the workshop leaders and their informal discussions with staff and students; a survey of students' and supervisors' perceptions of the course by questionnaires; and the use of video.

General Observations

On the whole, the workshop leaders, the supervisors and the students thought that these sessions were needed, useful, helpful, successful and
well worth while. Attendance might be seen as a criterion for success. Most students attended all sessions. As well as the two workshop leaders, seven supervisors attended the first workshop; eight attended the second; and four came to the third workshop (although they were not expected to attend this last one because it dealt with the nuts and bolts of dissertation writing). Apart from achieving the intended objectives (e.g., to support supervisors in their tasks of helping students develop dissertation research and writing skills in a more systematic manner, and to provide a forum for discussion among students, among supervisors and between students and supervisors), other side effects turned out to be just as valuable for postgraduate research and dissertation writing: for example, the students' increased motivation and confidence through a feeling of support and through group discussions.

The common problem of 'isolation' and 'loneliness' (social as well as intellectual loneliness) which Welsh (1979) identifies as a major difficulty for postgraduate on-campus students in their departments and as a reason for discontinuation of study, is likely to be aggravated for part-time students like the students in this Master Coursework programme. They have full-time occupations unconnected with universities and they pursue study part-time, either for intrinsic reasons or for career purposes to upgrade their qualifications and to extend their knowledge and skills in Australian-Asian relations. Some students intimated that they had been uncertain as to whether they were on the right track and going in the right direction, but that the workshop discussions clarified a lot of this vagueness.

Thus, the process of learning through group discussion and interaction in an unthreatening, supportive environment was seen by many to be as important as, or more important than, the content and skills taught in this introductory course. The course proved to be, not only supporting the
individual student-supervisor work relationship as intended, but also ful-
filling additional group functions which could hardly have been achieved
individually.

The above general observations by the workshop leaders were confirmed
by students and supervisors in their responses to the survey questions at
the end of the third workshop and in a video-recorded discussion five weeks
after this last workshop.

Positive Feedback

All responding students, without exception, answered 'yes' to question
4: they found the workshops of benefit in preparing for their dissertation.
In their own words, their reasons were:

- They (i.e., the workshops) provided a forum for discussion on
  the planning and writing of the dissertation. It was useful to
  hear about the expectations of the school/university re the
  dissertations and suggestions for planning and thinking about
  what was to be done.
- Prior to the workshop, the dissertation was a vast, amorphous
  obstacle which lay before me which I was unable to address
  effectively. The workshops helped me to delineate the tasks
  involved, and to clarify my methods of approach. It still
  frightens me but now I know more clearly why.
- They were an excellent motivational and organising force. The
  content of each was highly relevant and the opportunity to ask
  questions and clarify points was appreciated.
- The workshop has been particularly useful with regard to the
  formatting and other formal aspects (structure, referencing) of
  a dissertation.
- They cleared fogged perceptions of what was required.
- Areas of method - timetable, format, conventions very well covered.
  Major pitfalls warned against.

Further reasons were given in response to question 7a, i.e., what
they appreciated most about these workshops:

- I appreciated the concern felt by MAS and CALT that the develop-
  ment and presentation of the dissertations should prove a worth-
while and stimulating experience for us. It is often assumed that later year and post-graduate students know how to prepare and write a thesis and of course, we didn’t know. These sessions helped to clarify procedures for us and allowed us to discover with fellow students and staff some of our problems.

- Assistance in organisation, the workshops gave a feeling of great support and concern for the students in their tasks. An atmosphere of sympathetic yet practical guidance.
- The workshops were very specific in their aims, and set out to explain in organised fashion a number of problems (or rather, the solutions to problems) faced by neophyte writers such as myself. The leaders appeared to understand well the difficulties faced by the students, and approached questions that were uppermost in our minds.
- The opportunity to discuss in open forum the problems we have experienced so far, in our dissertation. The opportunity to carry out practical exercises and then review them in a group. The opportunity to view problems of earlier dissertations. The presence of so many supportive and contributing staff members - their ideas were good to hear, and view, as was the case with the video.
- All the hard work that the organisers have done in preparing and conducting this workshop.
- I needed to know more about the format expected in the dissertation. I appreciated this information.

Supervisors, in response to the same question, also appreciated the workshops for the following reasons (quoted verbatim):

- Exchange of ideas amongst attendants - gave all a much wider perspective than would otherwise have been the case. Small group session very useful. Provided excellent framework for students and supervisors to work from.
- The chance for all of the standard problems in dissertation writing and in the supervisor-supervised relationship to come up in an impersonal context. Second, the chance for the students to work together a bit, see their common problems and hopefully to put themselves in a position to provide help and support for one another.
- Appreciated the opportunity to identify and establish in my own mind, requirements and standards of the masters programme; CALT’s contribution, particularly segment using the video: it was thorough, thought-provoking and, essentially, healthy as it exposed both student and supervisor alike to the ideas of others; workshops contributed to lessening the loneliness of the long-distance writer.
- Perhaps the best aspect of the workshops was the fact that it increased the awareness of the type of problems generally found in thesis writing i.e., - a sufficiently narrow topic that is appropriate for a Master’s dissertation, - forcing students (and supervisors) to structure a thesis in a manner that permits the thesis to be written in a sequential manner, - indicating to students that they had common problems, that it is a difficult task to structure a thesis and to maintain an argument over some 20000 words.
Six out of eight supervisors stated that these workshops helped them in their own supervision:

- They gave me a clearer idea of what students and staff do or should expect.
- Helped to clarify/give a structure to my own views on roles of student and supervisor; gave a perspective to problems of dissertation-writing wider than that of myself as supervisor - raised issues the two of us may not have thought of until much later in the piece.
- All in all I thought that this was very useful and expect that it really will pay off when we look at the final products.
- Absolutely, they placed expectations (mine and students) within a context related to standards, demands (on both students and staff members) etc, I don't doubt it will prove to be a solid 'yardstick' over ensuing months.
- Brought a greater awareness of students' difficulties and the lack of clarity in their thinking with respect to the thesis topic. It was also helpful to indicate to the students that they had specific deadlines to meet - this makes them start with the writing process.
- Led me to thinking about role of supervisor and clarifying this in my own mind, the timetabling of writing of thesis.

Negative Criticism

Only two students expressed criticism relating to three problems of the course which the workshop leaders had identified, too: (a) the session on statistics, (b) the timing and (c) the physical setting of the workshops.

(a) The exercise in statistics (see procedure 3 in the third workshop) was only useful for four students who had never done statistics before; but for the other students it was too simple.

(b) It was suggested that one or two workshops should have been held in November/December on the dissertation design and rationale (before students started research over the Christmas break) and two workshops on formal aspects of dissertation writing in March.

(c) The lecture room was not conducive to small group discussions.
Supervisors provided the following criticism:

One staff member reiterated the students' criticism of the lecture theatre and the data analysis session; three lecturers agreed with students criticism of the timing of the workshops. Two supervisors suggested that 'a good deal more could have been laid out on paper' referring especially to the analytical critique exercise(7). Two other lecturers were conscious of the time factor involved in these workshops:

- The major criticism is that they were a bit long. Some of the discussion groups became repetitive and would have been improved if a time constraint had forced the students to deal only with the central issue of the thesis. I also doubt if the video sessions were of much help.
- Could we either compress things a bit or else roster the supervisors in some way that each of us only had to come twice instead of three times.

Suggestions for Improvement

Some of the above criticisms imply suggestions for improvement:

- to schedule two workshops in November/December and two in February/March;
- to select a better room for small-group discussions with movable chairs and desks;
- to delete the data analysis exercise;
- to roster supervisors, or at least to schedule those issues together which relate to matters of use to them;
- to revise the analytical critique exercise to provide more examples for analysis.

A 'Revised Programme for Workshops' has been designed as the result of the above feedback, criticism, and suggestions for improvement, provided by students and staff.
The use of Video

The use of video (3) proved to be an interesting tool of evaluation, especially the programme entitled The Supervisors' Viewpoint screened in the first workshop. The video-recorded interviews demonstrated prevailing views on the role of the supervisor held by faculty in the School of MAS and represented by the MAS School Chairman, the convenor of the Coursework Master programme and another senior academic experienced in P/G supervision. With the exception of one supervisor and one student, all workshop participants found this programme 'useful' or 'very useful'.

Other uses of video were video-self-confrontation for recall and analysis and video recording of an evaluative discussion. For example, the use of video recording and analysis for the analytical critique exercise was preferred as a tool of evaluation to other instruments (such as class observation, interview, questionnaire, etc.) because it provided a fuller record of the discussion during the workshop and had the additional advantage for students after a few weeks to look at themselves (in an edited version), to be reminded of, and to revise, the knowledge gained from this experience: critical thinking and analysis are the most important skills to practise when using primary and secondary sources for one's arguments in a thesis. After the recording of the exercise, students themselves suggested to meet for another session in seven weeks time in order to view and discuss the video programme.

After viewing this programme some students and supervisors discussed the value of these sessions. They evaluated what it was they had gained from the workshops which they could not have gained from individual supervision. This evaluative discussion was video recorded again and shown at a meeting eight weeks later (see footnote 3, Feedback on a Workshop Course).
Conclusions

After recognizing the major problems in this Master by Coursework Programme (similar to those in other postgraduate programmes identified by educational researchers) the series of workshops has partially solved those problems.

There are four sets of related issues we have been concerned with:
1. issues related to 'inadequate supervision' (Ibrahim et al, 1980; Rudd, 1975) due to the supervisor's lack of time, knowledge or experience;
2. issues related to students' 'lack of the fundamentals of scholarship' (see examiner's report, p. 2 above) due to a lack of background knowledge, training or experience in research methods;
3. issues related to a lack of understanding and communication between supervisor and student (Moses, 1981; SERC, 1983); and
4. issues related to an institution's or department's lack of written regulations and guidelines (Moses, 1981).

This workshop course on 'Dissertation Research and Writing' integrated into the MAS Masters Coursework programme was able to attack all four sets of problems by:
1. supporting supervisors in their practical tasks of supervision and in the mechanics of ensuring that students could make good progress (Cf. SERC, 1983);
2. developing postgraduate students' skills generally needed for writing a dissertation and specifically needed for their research projects in 'Australian-Asian Relations', and tailored to the perceived needs of this diverse group of largely mature-age students from varied professional backgrounds;
3. facilitating discussions among supervisors, among students, and between students and supervisors, especially to understand and communicate dissertation standards, and expectations which each has of the other;
4. distributing to and discussing with both supervisors and students written regulations, guidelines and practical advice.

Apart from achieving these intended aims, the course turned out to fulfill additional needs; it helped to overcome these students' social and intellectual 'isolation' or 'loneliness' identified by Welsh (1979); it also helped increase their confidence and motivation to study and to complete their dissertation within the given time limit and to the required standards and expectations of the University. The supervisors and workshop leaders as well benefitted from this systematic approach to discussing dissertation research and writing, not only for their tasks as supervisors of dissertations, but also for their own research or PhD theses.

The final test, of course, is still to come. We shall not really be able to fully evaluate the effectiveness of this workshop course until all dissertations have been examined.

Another open question remains: whether our revised programme for workshops can be transferred, in an adapted form, to other P/G programmes, to other institutions, or to other countries.

It might largely depend on the success of the course convenors and workshop leaders, and on the extent to which they will be able to involve their colleagues in this team-work, and hence on the extent to which students will become confident and motivated to upgrade their dissertation research and writing to their highest personal capacity.
NOTES

1. A full report on this introductory workshop course, entitled *Dissertation Research and Writing*, has been prepared by the authors with appended materials used in the workshops.

2. The following abbreviations are used throughout:
   - GU Griffith University
   - MAS School of Modern Asian Studies
   - CALT Centre for the Advancement of Learning and Teaching
   - TEDI Tertiary Education Institute, University of Queensland
   - P/G Postgraduate

3. The following video programmes were produced by Ortrun Zuber-Skerritt with staff and students from the School of Modern Asian Studies at Griffith University, 1983 and 1984:

   *The Role of the Supervisor in Postgraduate Research*

   1. Trigger (2 mins)
   2. The Supervisors' Viewpoint (17 mins)

   These programmes are edited versions of video-recorded interviews with supervisors who responded to three questions:
   
   - What is the role of the supervisor?
   - Who is responsible for the quality and presentation of the final thesis?
   - How can skills in dissertation research and writing be developed?

   *Dissertation Design and Rationale* (20 mins)

   Excerpts from a video-recorded workshop with postgraduate students discussing their individual research proposals in small groups in response to three questions:
   
   - What is your central question/problem?
   - Why is this problem important and worthy of study? (Significance)
   - How will you go about it? (Research methods and underlying assumptions)

   *Analytical Critique Exercise* (22 mins)

   Excerpts from a workshop on critical text analysis. An inter-active programme for students intending to develop skills in critical analysis and following suggested guidelines.

   *Dissertation Research and Writing - Feedback on a Workshop Course* (20 mins)

   Excerpts from a video-recorded evaluative discussion with some students and supervisors on the workshops in which they had participated. The problems addressed in the workshops are outlined in a brief introduction. The discussion brings out the effects of the workshops which staff and students thought useful and could not have been achieved by individual supervision.

   *Note:* These programmes are not commercial, staged productions, but edited versions of simple video recordings of normal classroom activities, intended for educational purposes only.
4. Students were asked to have read chapters 1-3 in Anderson et al (1982) before this workshop and to complete their dissertation proposals (along the lines of the three questions given) to the satisfaction of their supervisors by the end of the third workshop.

5. The 'Guidelines for the Analytical Critique Exercise' are based on an article by Furedy and Furedy (1983) and included in our report mentioned in footnote 1.

6. This exercise was video recorded and edited for a programme entitled *Analytical Critique Exercise* (see footnote 3).

7. However, with hindsight, other supervisors and students in the evaluative, video-recorded discussion five weeks later maintained that these workshops could not have been substituted by written material or individual supervision to the same effects. (see footnote 3: *Feedback on a Workshop Course.*)
List of References


Furedy, C. and Furedy, J. (1983) 'Ways to promote critical thinking in higher education' *HERDSA News* 5 (1) 3-4


Welsh, J. (1978) 'The supervision of postgraduate research students' *Research in Education* 19 77-86


Welsh, J. (1980) 'Predicting postgraduate performance' *Notes in University Teaching* 1, Aberdeen: UTC, University of Aberdeen 1-4
REPORT ON A WORKSHOP

ON 'DEVELOPING POSTGRADUATE RESEARCH SKILLS'

held at the Third Annual Learning Skills Conference
at Deakin University, 17 May, 1984, 1.30 - 3.00 p.m.

After a half-hour presentation (see attached abstract), followed by
some questions, answers and video illustrations, the audience,
consisting of about 50 conference delegates and 50 postgraduate
students at Deakin University, split up into three groups (although
they were asked to form small groups of 5-6 members). Several students
left after the presentation and did not participate in the discussions.

Reports from the three groups to the plenum revealed that the post-
graduate (P/G) students had come to this workshop with the expectation
to be trained in research and thesis writing skills and, of course,
they were disappointed to find that only the issues of P/G supervision
and training were raised and discussed.

**Group 1**, consisting of some conference members, but mainly of P/G
students at Deakin University, reported that the latter group had
other expectations of this workshop. They said that the big turn-up
of students at this conference session proved that there is a great
need for something like the Griffith University workshops; there is
a lack of directions, guidelines and contact. Contact only occurs at
the administrative level. Some students had never met their supervisors.
They felt that the supervisor should not be the only one a student
deps besides. There should be an academic co-ordinator overseeing
students' needs and arranging workshops or facilitating help where
needed.

**Group 2** reported that they could see the value of the 'Griffith
University model'. They reiterated the great need for study guides
in dissertation writing and the opportunity of workshops and seminars,
particularly on: choosing a topic, looking through earlier theses,
discussions with other supervisors, especially on assessment criteria
and the preparation of a 'defense' of a thesis. Supervisors should
also learn skills for conducting individual meetings with their
students.

**Group 3** stressed the need for a clearer understanding of the
supervisor's role and a better and more systematic training of
P/G students in the production of a thesis. They suggested that
a change in the university structure is necessary for these things
to happen and initiatives to be able to be carried out. For example,
at the moment, students' topics are approved at different times
(sometimes it takes very long until a topic is approved) so that
not all students in a course or program would be ready for these
workshops at the same time.

In conclusion, the series of practical workshops integrated into
the MAS Master-by-Coursework program, was seen as a 'model' for
alleviating problems and needs which exist at most Australian
tertiary institutions.
ABSTRACT

Developing Skills in Dissertation Research and Writing for Postgraduate Coursework Programmes

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This paper discusses the design, implementation and evaluation of a new workshop component on 'Dissertation Research and Writing' integrated into a part-time Masters Coursework programme.

The workshops started from the premise that most problems of postgraduate supervision and dissertation writing (generally identified in educational research studies and particularly experienced by previous students in this programme) can be alleviated by a more systematic approach, by structured workshop activities, group discussions, and interaction among supervisors, among students, and between students and supervisors.

As an extension to the traditional work relationship between the individual student and his/her supervisor, this workshop course had the purpose of supporting supervisors, rather than interfering, in their practical tasks of supervision and the mechanics of ensuring that students made good progress (cf SERC 1983).

An excellent response by both students and supervisors (e.g., through a very high attendance rate and positive feedback/evaluation in a survey) indicated that the intended aims had been achieved by the following activities and processes:

- establishing a clear framework; discussing dissertation standards and staff/student expectations;
- discussing individual dissertation proposals (e.g., central question/problem, rationale, research methods, etc) in small groups with other students and supervisors;
- analytical critique exercise; the use of sources: analysis of contradicting sources;
- the 'nuts and bolts' of dissertation research and writing (e.g., the structure and time-tabling of the dissertation; note-taking; style-sheeting; writing and presenting the dissertation).

The process of learning through group discussion and interaction in an unthreatening, supportive environment was seen to be as important as the content and skills taught in this course. Apart from achieving the intended objectives, the course turned out to fulfill additional needs; it helped overcome P/G students' social and intellectual 'isolation' or 'loneliness' identified by Welsh (1979) and it helped increase their motivation and confidence.

The oral presentation, in demonstrating materials used in the course, will be illustrated by OHP transparencies and video excerpts.

Discussion will be invited on questions of transferability of this (revised) course to other institutions and countries; and on institutional boundaries, barriers, problems and possible solutions.

References
