

Copyright is owned by the Author of the thesis. Permission is given for a copy to be downloaded by an individual for the purpose of research and private study only. The thesis may not be reproduced elsewhere without the permission of the Author.

**A Comparative Analysis of Student and Tutor
Expectations and Experiences within a University
Tutorial Setting**

A thesis presented in fulfilment of the degree of

Master of Arts

in

**Second Language Teaching
at
Massey University**

Dorothy Ann Dowds

1999

ABSTRACT

The changing face of tertiary education within New Zealand has brought with it new challenges. One of these challenges has been catering for the increasing numbers of international students that choose to study at Massey University. This study focuses on the needs of these students in their first year at university in the context of the university tutorial. The study compares the expectations and experiences of students with English as their second language with those of students with English as their first language. It also draws a comparison between the views of these two groups of students with those of the tutors involved in the course. Information was gathered from the three groups of participants, by a survey, on their expectations and experiences of learning that takes place within the interactive tutorial setting. Additional data was obtained by interviewing a sample of the students with English as a second language.

The study reveals that there is a pronounced similarity between the expectations and concerns of both groups of students. All students and their tutors support the need for interactive learning. Despite this acknowledgement, high proportions of the students were dissatisfied with their personal performance within the tutorial. Language limitations were an acknowledged barrier to interaction for L2 students but these difficulties were not confined to international students with many local students having equally strong concerns. Lack of adequate preparation was raised as a major factor in the student's ability to participate successfully within the tutorial. . Tutors need to have skills that provide a positive interactive learning experience the will lead to a higher level of academic achievement for all students regardless of diverse abilities.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

On completion of this thesis I would like to acknowledge the support and guidance from a number of people. A special mention is needed in recognition of my supervisor Dr. Margaret Franken for her time and effort. I am very appreciative of her continuing patience, professional encouragement and her unwavering ability to maintain my focus on the objectives of this study. I also wish to acknowledge the College of Education and Department of Educational Studies and Community Support for giving me the Advanced Study Award, which allowed me space to further this project.

I want to thank all the students who gave their input into this project especially the second language students who shared their concerns and experiences with me. I also wish to gratefully acknowledge the support of my teaching colleagues who not only participated in the study but also provided willing advice and support.

Finally, I wish to express my appreciation of the professional advice and personal faith of my husband Jack who provided invaluable moral support. I also wish to thank my children Adam and Rachel for their words of encouragement and their understanding of frequent absences. I also appreciatively acknowledge my daughter Rachel's invaluable assistance in sharing her superior computer skills.

Table of Contents

			Page
List of Figures			vii
List of Tables			viii
Chapter	1	Introduction	1
Chapter	2	Teaching across Cultures	
	2.1	Introduction	5
	2.2	International students	5
	2.3	Response of the Universities	7
	2.4	Issues of academic competence	9
	2.5	Academic staff and student expectations	11
	2.6	The learning context	13
		2.6.1 The lecture	13
		2.6.2 The tutorial	15
	2.7	Conclusion	19
Chapter	3	Barriers to Academic Competence in a New Cultural Context	
	3.1	Introduction	21
	3.2	Academic competence	22
	3.3	Influence of Culture shock	22
		3.3.1 Culture	22
		3.3.2 Culture shock	23
		3.3.3 Adjustment to the host culture	24
	3.4	Institutional shock	26
	3.5	Conclusion	28

Chapter	4	An Academic Culture: Expectations	
	4.1	Introduction	30
	4.2	Student expectations of the University as an academic culture	30
	4.3	Expectations: Academic tasks	32
	4.4	Expectations: The cognitive process	34
	4.5	Expectations: Interaction and the role of the instructor	36
	4.6	Expectations: Interaction and the role of the student	38
	4.7	Conclusion	41
Chapter	5	Investigation of Interaction within the Tutorial Setting	
	5.1	Introduction	42
	5.2	Research design	43
	5.3	The present study	44
	5.4	The research questions	45
	5.5	Data gathering	46
	5.6	Rationale for the questionnaire items	46
	5.7	The questions	47
		5.7.1 The respondents	48
	5.8	The interview	48
		5.8.1 The respondents	50
	5.9	Data analysis	50
	5.10	Summary	51
Chapter	6	The Results: L1 and L2 Students	
	6.1	Introduction	52
	6.2	The response of the students	52
		6.2.1 Evaluating the tutorial	52
		6.2.2 Interaction and participation	55
		6.2.3 Tutorial preparation	60

	6.2.4	The tutors' role	65
	6.2.5	Evaluating tutorial activities	72
	6.2.6	The contribution of international students	75
	6.2.7	Student difficulties	77
6.3		Conclusion	79
Chapter	7	Comparing the Results: L1 and L2 Students and their Tutors	
	7.1	Introduction	80
	7.2	The Response of the tutors	80
		7.2.1 Evaluating the tutorial	80
		7.2.2 Interaction and participation	81
		7.2.3 Tutorial preparation	83
		7.2.4 The tutors' role	84
		7.2.5 Evaluating tutorial activities	87
		7.2.6 Contribution of international students	90
		7.2.7 Student difficulties	91
	7.3	Summary	92
	7.4	Conclusion	94
Chapter	8	Deliberations	
	8.1	Introduction	95
	8.2	Evaluating the tutorial	95
	8.3	Interaction and participation	96
	8.4	Tutorial preparation	99
	8.5	Tutors' role	100
	8.6	Tutorial activities	101
	8.7	Contribution of International students	102
	8.8	Student difficulties	102
	8.9	Summary	104

Chapter	9	Conclusions	
		Introduction	106
		Pedagogical Implications	106
		Implications for further study	110
		Concluding remarks	111
Bibliography			113
Appendix	A		
		Records of International students at Massey University in 1998	128
Appendix	B		
		Records of International students at Massey University in 1999	131
Appendix	C		
		Adapted model for questionnaire categories	133
Appendix	D		
		Consent forms and background information for questionnaire	135
Appendix	E		
		Tables showing the results of <i>t</i> -tests	137
Appendix	F		
		Attributes for L2 student/tutor interaction	139

List of Figures

	Page
Figure 1: Number of Students Representing Main Ethnic Groups at Massey University 1998	6
Figure 2: Matrix Model for Questionnaire Design	47
Figure 3 Importance of Interaction for Students & Tutors	81
Figure 4 Comparison of Views on Levels of Student Interaction within the Tutorial	82
Figure 5 Perceived View of Tutors' Role within the Tutorial	84
Figure 6 Advantageous Attributes for Student/Tutor Interaction	85
Figure 7 Skills Gained in Tutorials	87
Figure 8 Student Skills	89

List of Tables

		Page
Table 1:	Optimal Setting for Academic Learning within the University Context	53
Table 2:	Responses to statements "Small group learning can be a most rewarding experience"	54
Table 3:	Rankings of Importance of Interaction	55
Table 4:	Expectations of Tutorial Participation	56
Table 5:	Expectations of Personal Participation	57
Table 6:	Understanding of Tutorial Content	59
Table 7:	Types of Tutorial Preparation	60
Table 8:	Importance of Preparation	61
Table 9:	Student Perception of Tutorial Preparation	62
Table 10:	Personal Preparation	63
Table 11:	Expectations of the Tutor	66
Table 12:	Responsibility for the Success of the Tutorial	67
Table 13a:	L1 Students' Response to Attributes for Student/Tutor Interaction	68
Table 13b:	L2 Students' Responses to Attributes for Student/Tutor Interaction	68
Table 14a:	L1 Ranking of Tutorial Activities	72
Table 14b:	L2 Ranking of Tutorial Activities	73
Table 15a:	L1 Ranking of Tutorial Skills Gained	73
Table 15b:	L2 Ranking of Tutorial Skills Gained	74
Table 16:	Responses to the Presence of L2 Students in Tutorial	75
Table 17:	Responses to Perceived Personal Difficulty with Understanding of Course Content	77
Table 18:	Responses to the Statement that Spoken Language is a Problem in Tutorials	78

Chapter One

Introduction

Tertiary education within New Zealand has gone through major changes in the last decade or so. Internationalisation has become one of the primary changes in the tertiary system. According to the Ministry of Education (1997), New Zealand is well advanced down a path of internationalisation and the increase in student mobility is reflected in the growing presence of international students at New Zealand educational institutions. In 1996 there were 7000 international students enrolled in formal educational facilities in New Zealand and despite the temporary stabilisation, due to the recent crisis in East Asia, these numbers are likely to rise.

New Zealand universities, which were already embracing the movement towards the philosophy of “user pays” proposed in the late 1980’s under a Labour government, have not been slow to recognise the potential of education as a marketable commodity. The Education Amendment Act, 1989, allows New Zealand like other western universities to look at the wider student market and enrol full fee-paying students. This policy combined with the current weakness of the dollar and the downturn in the Asian economy has made New Zealand an increasingly attractive destination to students from overseas. The movement into this international student market has been expeditious and has been largely driven by the high demand for tertiary education, particularly within the Pacific Rim nations. This shift has been strengthened by students and sponsors being prepared to suffer a significant financial burden for the belief, rightly or

wrongly, that the Western mode of education is the way forward (Biggs, 1997). Countries displaying an active preference for overseas graduate students have further reinforced the expansion of the educational industry within New Zealand. However, it needs to be noted that for future entrepreneurial development in the area of educational expansion New Zealand Universities would be advised to ensure that they maintain their perceived status within the competitive ranks. Maintaining that status will involve catering for the diverse student population.

The increase in students who are neither New Zealand nationals nor permanent residents of New Zealand, has brought to the fore the need for the universities to address the issues of academic performance and competence. The universities on their part need to offer quality teaching in an appropriate learning context. Quality assurance is maintained by the New Zealand Qualifications Authority within all educational facilities except in the universities where the New Zealand Vice Chancellors' Committee accepts responsibility for quality assurance. One way in which quality assurance can be examined is the potential mismatch between what students expect of a University experience and what they ultimately get.

This study will examine the academic expectations of students within the specific culture of the university. The expectations of the academic instructors will also be considered in order to gauge if there is a commonality or a disparity. The specific experience in the present study is that of the university tutorial. The following section provides an overview of how the study will proceed.

Chapter two will deal with the issues that surround cultural adaptation and how both the university and the international students struggle with learning and teaching of ethnically diverse students. Primarily the chapter identifies the scale of the issue within the context of Massey University. It will examine how universities attempt to cater for student learning difficulties. It will then examine the issue of academic competence in tertiary education. Following this, the area of the preferred mode of delivery in academic teaching will be explored, specifically looking at the most frequently used models of the tutorial and the lecture.

Chapter three provides a more in-depth examination of academic competence and identifies the barriers that limit the degree of competence that the students hope to gain. To achieve this, the chapter will explore both the issues of culture shock and institutional shock as they relate to educational accomplishment.

Chapter four specifically goes beyond the examination of the social and emotional barriers and explores the academic demands of the university in regard to student and instructor expectations. It also examines the educational issues in regard to the role expectations of both groups.

In chapter five, there is a review of the background literature specific to the present study which outlines the justification for the research design used in the study and the way in which data was collected; there is also a presentation of the methodology of the present study.. Three sets of data are discussed, namely the student questionnaire, the tutor questionnaire and the interviews with selected students for whom English is a second language (hereinafter referred to as L2 students; students for whom English is

the first language being referred to as L1s). The chapter explains how the sample consisted of a substantial number of local students, a smaller group of students who had English as a second language, a group of tutors and a limited number of international student interviewees who provided narrative reinforcement to initial questions in the questionnaire.

Chapter six contains the results of the questionnaire, incorporating a comparative analysis between the information gathered from local students and students who have English as a second language.

Chapter seven forms a comparison between the results gathered from L1 and L2 students and the information presented by tutors involved in comparative courses.

Chapter eight discusses the results of the previous two chapters in relation to the original research questions. While, chapter nine concludes with the main implications of the findings. It also seeks to identify the way in which the study could be expanded and used to improve the future understanding of both students and teachers in tertiary education.

Chapter Two

Teaching across Cultures

2.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to outline the scope of the issues facing both the student population and the university in relation to the cultural adaptation that has become increasingly necessary with the arrival of "international students". It aims to clarify what the term international students means in the context of the study and to identify the scale of the educational investment required by the university and its instructors to deal with challenges involved in teaching across cultures. It examines differing models of academic instruction provided by the university and also explores whether the problems of the international student are indeed linked to current western teaching styles.

2.2 International Students

International students could be described as educational clients or customers of the university but it would be erroneous to propose that there is an all-encompassing definition for these students within the university context. At best, international students can be broadly defined by being identified as a group who share the common experience of moving to another country in order to study. They can be further subdivided into those who are or are not learning in a language other than their first language.

According to the International Students' Office there were 748 students enrolled in studies at Massey University from countries outside New Zealand (1998). Of these 593 were undertaking undergraduate studies and 155 postgraduate studies. Students were drawn from 57 countries the largest intakes coming from Malaysia, Hong Kong and Thailand.

Breakdowns of the main ethnic groupings within Massey University in 1998 are shown in Figure 1 below.

Countries of origin	Total	Undergraduate	Graduate
Malaysia	170	159	11
Japan	67	66	1
Hong Kong	63	62	1
Thailand	52	36	16
Indonesia	46	30	16
Singapore	34	31	3
Taiwan	34	33	1
Korea	30	29	1
Fiji	23	22	1
Germany	19	4	15
Papua New Guinea	17	15	2
Solomon Islands	12	10	2
Samoa	11	8	3
China	10	6	4

Figure 1: Numbers of students representing main ethnic groups at Massey University, 1998 (from the International Student Office)

The 1999 figures to date display a similar ranking however; it is to be noted that the overall numbers of international students show a decline. This information is included in Appendix A.

These figures do not however, include permanent New Zealand residents who have English as a second language. This is a complicating factor for whereas international students require certain standards of English, permanent residents are not at present required to meet any specific language standards. It is therefore, apparent that there now exists a range of students with increasingly diverse cultural affiliations and a wide range of language abilities, within the university. This conglomeration of languages and culture brings with it an increasing range of communication challenges for both staff and students. This trend is not unique to New Zealand and has been repeated to various degrees throughout the English speaking countries of the world. In Australian universities, students of non-English speaking background have taken up 20% of total enrolment in the area of higher education (Farnhill & Hayes, 1996).

Many language and enculturation issues that impact on the academic success of these students are common to both new residents and students coming from overseas, the term international students will be used to encompass all students who have English as a second language.

2.3 The Response of the Universities

In response to the change in the student client base, it has been necessary to acknowledge with increased sensitivity, the diversity of the students' educational requirements. Indeed it can be argued that the arrival of international students has highlighted the problems that many students regardless of cultural background encounter en-route to achieving an academic qualification. While the realisation exists that specific learning needs have to be considered, there is also a parallel movement which demands a transparent 'quality' education. This movement towards

accountability is not a new phenomenon and has long been a part of the American higher education scene spreading rapidly to universities world-wide (Husbands, 1996). The drive to provide assessable 'quality education' in the tertiary sector is dictated by the wider social climate and has forced the universities to acknowledge their responsibility for the needs of all their students. It is therefore, within this atmosphere of change that the higher education sector has to acknowledge the problems faced by international students. Problems experienced by international students may go beyond the more obvious linguistic limitations. They may range from adjustment to academic issues such as study habits and teaching methods to adjustment to customs, culture, climate and even diet (McMurray, 1988). However, the universities have chosen to focus largely on language and associated communication issues.

The problem of communication from the perspective of language proficiency in the use of English has been identified as a barrier to student achievement. Massey University at the present moment requires international students to display a minimum level of English proficiency before being eligible for university entrance. The two most recognised tools used to ascertain levels of ability are IELTS (International English Language Testing System) and TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language). Massey University in 1997 required that scores of 6.5 (IELTS) or 550 (TOEFL) be produced before admission is considered. As these testing methods apply largely to passive skills such as listening and reading (TOEFL) or basic speaking, listening, reading and writing, it is not surprising that many international students are ill-equipped to cope with the academic demands required by university study (Walker, 1995). There have been many critics proposing the inadequacy of this system and proficiency in English as measured by standardised method has not been found to be a perfect

predictor of academic success (Kinnell, 1990, cited in Cownie & Addison, 1996).

2.4 Issues of Academic Competence

There is little disagreement that a major problem international students face within the new educational setting is language related. Cummins (1981) goes so far as to state that “lack of English proficiency is the major reason for language minority students’ academic failure” (p. 4). The ability of the student to function adequately in the university context involves mastery over basic language skills such as phonology, syntactic patterns, and vocabulary. Canale and Swain (1980) include the elements of grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence and discourse competence within the range of factors. Adamson (1993) further extends this area of research, exploring the idea of academic competence in his model of how ESL students accomplish their academic tasks. Like Canale and Swain, he proposes elements that move beyond basic linguistic proficiency to include components such as pragmatic knowledge, knowledge of how language is used, and background knowledge.

Samuelowicz (1987), whilst acknowledging the fact that language limitations are an important factor, also alludes to another complicating factor in the reason for student failure. In his exploration of this issue, he claims that there appears to be a discrepancy in learning styles between cultures. His comparative study between Australian and International students reveals that memorisation skills for example are considered as an academic strength by Asian educational institutions. However, Australian counterparts are wary of this skill and see its potential overuse as a barrier to the fuller critical understanding of study issues (Chalmers & Volet, 1997; Tang, 1993).

The cultural weighting given to differing academic skills strengthens the perception that student's learning styles are the result of socialisation "the process of acquiring adult roles, internalising the beliefs and values of society" (Corazzi, 1990, p. 57). Previous social and environmental influence has instilled into students the value of certain skills and behaviours, which become part of the cultural and cognitive make-up of the individual. According to Ellis (1985), behavioural psychologists explain these skills and behaviours as 'habits'. The habits ingrained in the learning processes of international students can impede the adoption of the new skills necessary for academic attainment.

It needs to be emphasised that struggles with the new cognitive and contextual demands of university are not the exclusive domain of international students. Perry (1968, 1970) documents the complexity of learning patterns in his study of Harvard University college students. He argues that the thinking and learning styles are part of a process that changes with time and exposure to environmental influences. He found that all the students in his study entered their new educational environment with preconceived ideas of how to deal with new information. They found it difficult to shift their thought processes away from the idea that knowledge is a "black and white" commodity and to accept a more flexible attitude to the acquisition of knowledge. University life has a certain pan-cultural quality and is often the student's first exposure to an active learning environment where they can legitimately develop and value their own ideas and perspectives (Silva & Nicholls, 1993).

International students have this conflict with the emergence of developmental learning processes added to the already cumbersome burden of social enculturation. Flowerdew and Millar (1992) claim that international students' experience is often limited to the

smaller classroom environment with a highly structured format. This makes the movement into the more expansive University culture an additional demand. Acculturation into this new intimidating environment is often conditional on language as a filter for “generalisations about the self derived from past experience that helps one integrate and explain one’s own behaviours” (Markus & Nurius, 1986, p.158).

2.5 Academic Staff and Student Expectations

As the students are influenced by their early socialisation, so are the academic instructors within the university. The educationalists within Western universities have their own pre-formed expectations on what constitutes the role of the student. The general perception is that the student will be required to adopt a critical, well-balanced view of subject knowledge that will enable him/her to usefully discuss and debate issues. However, in reality, they may be faced with students that see only one fixed point of view and rely on reproducing knowledge unable to form clear lines of argument (Cortazzi, 1990; Perry, 1970).

The mismatch of staff and student expectations can again be related to embedded cultural beliefs that direct the formation of each individual’s role. The perceptions of culture according to Hofstede (1983) are "rife with premature judgements" (p.305). Such judgements affect the process of how knowledge is presented and therefore dictate how the teacher teaches and how the learner learns. This is an illustration of Hofstede's concept of "power distance". Hofstede argues that it is the perceived distance between teacher and learner that controls the specific behaviour patterns adopted within individual countries. For high power distance cultures such as Malaysia and Philippines, it is understood that the instructor will be treated with respect and

deference whereas a low power distance culture such as New Zealand views its teachers as knowledgeable but not necessarily deserving of respect (Brislin & Yoshida, 1994). Therefore, depending on their cultural origin, students may come to the university context expecting instructors and institutions to fulfil a specific view of excellence. The almost inevitable imbalance in terms of the reality and student expectations may have serious consequences in student adaptation and often lead to lower self-concept, depression and underachievement within the student population (Hattie, 1995).

The availability and accessibility of academic and language support services are important issues within the international student community. Cownie and Addison (1996) propose that "English language support is one of the most important services which institutions of higher education can provide for the international students they are so keen to recruit" (p.230). Despite the declared need for language support services within the British higher education sector, Cownie and Addison (1996) maintain that many institutions are still not facing up to the language and study skills problems of the international students. Flowerdew and Millar (1992) are also critical of the lack of commitment displayed by some university lecturers to using teaching strategies that would extend the effectiveness of their teaching style.

Massey University does provide a centre for language support, which is available for students who feel that they require such assistance. The majority of the staff are on fixed-term contracts which according to Cownie and Addison (1996) indicates a lack of commitment to resources on the part of the institution and will impact on the services provided. The main focus of the service is to provide general academic language skills rather than cater for students requiring subject specific instruction. Again this is

indicative of scarce resources being used to provide blanket instruction for a wider audience rather than fulfilling student requirements for a particular course (Kuo, 1993).

2.6 The Learning Context

The traditional method of teaching in universities has been by the way of lectures and supporting tutorials. Studies in recent years have been critical of these models both as effective learning and teaching tools and in relation to their place in the teaching of overseas students.

2.6.1 The Lecture

Modes of delivery that are generally believed to facilitate learning in higher education have included the lecture, programmed instruction, and co-operative learning. Studies of pedagogical effectiveness in recent years, in regard to tertiary education, have tended to centre on the more common lecturing approach.

Limitations of Lecture Approach

Although the lecture situation has been historically favoured by universities (Benson, 1989), it has also been condemned as an ineffective mode of knowledge transfer (Shoenfelt, Eastman & Mendel, 1991). McKeachie, (1990) is more generous and maintains it is an effective mode of teaching in certain learning situations.

Studies in the limitations of this common form of delivery include, Flowerdew and Miller (1992, 1996) who specifically examine the effectiveness of the lecture comprehension experience of Hong Kong Chinese students involved in a course on ESL teaching methods. As well as, not surprisingly, isolating language issues they also

noted that the students held mixed views on the effectiveness of the lecture mode and this was often a symptom of their inadequate comprehension. The students' English, despite percipient fluency, was often not sufficient to cope with the English monologue presented.

Benson (1989), in his limited study of the listening ability of an overseas student, claims that the student was more concerned with relating to lecturers' viewpoints than actually acquiring necessary new knowledge. Flowerdew and Millar, (1992) in their survey of students' problems with the lecture mode, isolate the speed of delivery, introduction of new terminology and difficulties in retaining concentration, as the major issues for international students.

Smeby (1996), in an examination of university teaching raises the issue of communication in relation to subject matter. He proposes that lectures and laboratory work in the fields of mathematics and the sciences have a greater associated with codified language characterised by "stringent symbol system and a heavy use of mathematics" (p. 71). Such subjects are therefore more suited to the less interactive one-way mode of communication.

It has been advocated that students dependent on linguistic and contextual clues to aid their learning process will be disadvantaged by the limited 'context reduced' mode of delivery, which relies primarily on linguistic cues. Cummins, (1981) maintains that this one-way mode of delivery customarily provided by lectures, places greater demands and risks on the student than "context embedded" situation where social interaction, negotiation and feedback are present.

The discussion above serves to highlight the difficulties faced by overseas students in a lecture situation where cognitive linguistic skills are so necessary to attain maximum comprehension of the academic material presented. Equitable communication favoured by a context embedded situation is more common in the seminar and smaller group situations where there is a greater possibility of dialogue. The interactive component may be more necessary for students of the more traditionally "soft" fields of humanities and social sciences (Jacobsen, 1981). It would therefore seem likely that it is the international students studying these disciplines that will find the maximum communication and learning problems.

2.6.2 The Tutorial

Although most of research into co-operative learning has been carried out in the classroom there has been strong support for its significance at tertiary level (Cooper & Mueck, 1990; Purdom & Kromrey, 1992). Therefore, it would seem obvious that interactive group discussions and related activities, so highly advocated as mediums of teaching, should be readily available to all students. It is widely proposed within educational circles that quality learning although not entirely contingent on class size, is more likely to take place in the smaller group setting (Kumar 1992; Rivers, 1986). In this section the features of collaborative learning and the metacognitive skills that they facilitate are examined.

Benefits of the Tutorial Approach

Possibly one of the earliest proponents of learning through interaction was the Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky (1896-1934). He proposed that the maximisation of learning could be achieved by experiencing knowledge on two levels. The primary

mental process essentially occurs socially between people and is followed by the internalisation of that knowledge (Wertsch & Tulviste, 1992). It is this influence that shapes both experience and social interaction. It is this social interaction that Vygotsky sees as "the necessary and primary cause of the ontological development of knowledge in the individual" (Glassman, 1994, p.188). According to Vygotsky it is the interaction within the 'zone of proximal development' which is designed to lead students into a higher level of learning. Vygotsky's theory could be described as social where the individual acquires the "tools" or skills necessary for social competence. However, he also identifies that these outcomes that have a serious impact on cognitive potential. As Cummins (1994, p.376) explains, the zone can be simply described as the "interpersonal space where minds meet and new understandings can arise through collaborative interaction and inquiry".

DeVillar and Faltis (1991), illustrate this point by proposing that "the goal of interaction within the zone is to enable the child, through guided verbal exchange of ideas to take on the role of the knower" (1991, p.12). This concept can usefully be applied to the role of the student within the tutorial setting where the relationship between academic achievement is mediated, according to Vygotsky (1987), by the presence of existing concepts. It is within this setting that the student and educator will hopefully engage in reciprocal negotiation thereby creating a medium for interaction. Cummins (1994) proposes that it is here that critical enquiry will expand.

Educational and cognitive psychologists have in general held the view that teaching methods which actively encourage co-operative and collaborative learning will ultimately "allow for active and meaningful learning and promote long-term retention" (Kromrey & Purdom, 1995). The nature of that active and meaningful learning has

been variously described. Cannon (1992, p.22) for instance maintains that it is "higher level intellectual learning such as problem solving". Bertola and Murphy (1994,p.5) describe these cognitive outcomes as "analytical skills" and "deep approaches to the processing of information". In the learning context of a university tutorial, it is clear that the exchange and discussion of ideas with the particular cognitive facilitation that it brings is the recognised basis in the expansion of subject knowledge.

Smaller group settings are designed to provide a learning atmosphere in which the students should feel able to question, ask for clarification of study material. De Klerk (1995) saw this model of learning as an opportunity for students to not only gain from further explanation but also providing a forum enabling them to give and receive vocal confirmation of their academic progress.

Interaction within these smaller groups is seen by many writers not only to bring about positive cognitive outcomes but a number of other beneficial outcomes as well. One of these is the development of interpersonal and communication skills (Bertola & Murphy, 1994; Newble & Cannon, 1989). Bertola and Murphy claim that students acquire skills related to presentation, listening, debating, and responding to non-verbal behaviour. It is interesting to note that this is particularly relevant in small group interaction situation which "allows more eye contact", that Flowerdew and Millar (1996, p.30) identify these skills as playing a key role in determining students' attentiveness. Closely related to interpersonal and communicative skills is the notion that participants in interaction can develop personal skills management which include taking responsibility for their own learning and fostering beneficial habits such as participation and listening.

Lastly a factor of great significance is the social benefits. Bertola and Murphy (1994, p.5) identify these as skills in team work, co-operative learning, resolving differences and conflict resolution.

Limitations of the Tutorial Approach

Clearly the tutorial mode within tertiary institutions should provide students with a small group situation in which interaction can take place in a non-threatening environment. However, interactive group discussion so highly prized within the tutorial setting may be seen as an area of significant weakness for some international students.

It has been noted that there is a high degree of reluctance of international students to participate actively in tutorials (Adamson, 1990; Jones, 1995) which leaves them at a disadvantage in contrast to the more culturally expressive local student. This deficit in active participation is often interpreted as a lack of sufficient language skills. However, Brislin and Yoshida (1994) proposed that these spontaneous displays entail too great a risk for many international students and obviously poses a significant threat to the strong uncertain avoidant student, described by Hofstede (1986) who feels more culturally secure with rigid rules and constraints. Indeed many countries represented in the diverse student population, proposing a competitive cultural ethos, would not encourage co-operative learning (Saville- Troike, 1984).

The tutorial may also increase the chances of loss of face for many students. In the case of the Chinese student this concept of 'face' is an embedded characteristic and exposure to the risk of 'public evaluation' may present a cultural dilemma. Expression of ideas and opinions in a polite form must be balanced with the need to promote a positive image in the eyes of the teacher and fellow students (Gudykunst & Kim, 1984; Sato,

1990). In fact exposure to the demands of an interactive tutorial group must be “terrifying for international students unaccustomed to this style of learning” (Ballard & Clancy, 1988, p. 83).

The process of working within a group situation is dependent on prior experience and the ability to adapt the social interaction process into the learning environment. Although most students have a positive regard for the confidence that can be gained through group work and transfer of ideas there can often be little instruction on how this can be successfully achieved (Kemp & Seagraves, 1995).

Conclusion

This chapter began with an overview of the impact of international students on the University and the approach that the University has taken to dealing with the diversification of the student population. It then proceeds to a more detailed discussion of the two most frequently employed modes of teaching in the University setting: the lecture and the tutorial.

The lecture environment, as mentioned above, has been identified, as being less effective as it is restricted to a one-way mode of communication. In comparative studies with other teaching methods, the lecture is recognisably lacking in provision for meaningful interaction. Meaningful interaction can be identified as genuine communication where there is a "two-way flow of communication in which each possess something that the other wants or needs and has a right to request and a responsibility to share" (Pica, 1987, p.4).

This chapter has finished with an examination of the benefits and limitations of a tutorial type learning arrangement. To date there has been little evidence as to students'

overall evaluation of tutorials as an effective learning environment. The aim of the present study is to explore the expectations and experiences of its local and international students with regard to tutorials.

Chapter Three

Barriers to Academic Competence in a New Cultural Context

3.1 Introduction

The presence of international students within the university should be mutually advantageous to both the student and the institution. The increasing numbers of international students within higher education have brought to the fore a number of issues. Many of these students are not coping with the system and fail or drop out of academic study at significant personal cost to themselves and financial cost to the university and the students' sponsors. This highlights the concern that the expectations of the students entering university may or may not be being met by the institution, while the students themselves may not fulfil the academic expectations of the staff.

Problems facing international students are described by Furnham and Tresize (1983) as adjusting to the foreign culture, adjusting to their role as independent adolescents and facing challenges associated with their new educational environment (cited in Furnham, 1997).

This chapter aims to examine in greater depth the issues surrounding academic competence raised in Section 2.4. These are the barriers that specifically relate to the students' ability to function successfully within the academic tertiary environment.

3.2 Academic Competence

The term academic competence has been used to describe the knowledge and abilities that students require to gain academic success (Saville-Troike, 1984). Adamson (1993) further extends this concept to include in the case of content courses, background knowledge of relevant content and effective study skills. The student with previous experience and strategies carried over from own culture can be considered the most capable (Collier, 1989). It would therefore, seem that the international student with previous study skills would have limited problems on entering the university system of the "host culture".

However, there would seem to be other barriers, which hamper the achievement of academic competence in the area of university study. The barriers that hinder the adaptation of the student to the academic demands of university life can extend beyond the linguistic limitations into the realms of cultural values and preconceived expectations. This chapter proceeds beyond the linguistic competence area of cultural adaptation and examines the nature of culture itself. It also explores the idea that all students, including local students, are exposed to a degree of culture shock as they enter the new cultural environment of the chosen tertiary institute.

3.3 Influence of Culture Shock

3.3.1 Culture

Culture is generally thought of as a concept that encompasses the attitudes, values, and beliefs of a given society. The concept has often been utilised to fulfil some specific area of research or study. Matsumoto, Kudoh, and Takeuchi (1996) describe culture as

a “multifaceted construct with subjective, psychological elements and both objective and social elements”. Culture can be viewed as an abstract term which binds together groups by categorising their similarities and differences (Matsumoto, 1996). Hofstede (1991) describes culture as "the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another" (p.5). The difficulty of cultural adaptation is that failure to become part of host culture can be caused by an individual's culturally appropriate or inappropriate frames of reference, regarding the social norms and rules that govern actions.

3.3.2 *Culture Shock*

Researchers have long acknowledged that international students entering a new cultural environment are presented with a diversity of experiences generally considered negative which force them to re-evaluate their own identity. These common experiences can be categorised under the psychological condition that has been described as "culture shock".

Oberg (1960) coined the phrase culture shock, which characterised the anxiety that results from "losing all our familiar signs and symbols of social intercourse" and results in not being able to react appropriately in a differing cultural context (p. 176). He describes this psychological adaptation process as one involving senses of loss for friends and status, feelings of rejection of or by new culture, confusion in role definition and role expectations, confusion with self-identity and overall feelings of helplessness in the new environment. Furnham and Bocher (1986) further proposed that culture shock has been vicariously ascribed to a sudden shift in the contingencies that customarily reinforce social behaviour and to a lack of knowledge or uncertainty

about mutual expectations. There tends to be an implication that all processes of acculturation are remedial emphasising the need for the student to change their perceptions and values in order to blend with the perceptions of the host environment. This seems to emphasise the stereotypical differences that result from the culturally diverse expectations of both the students and the host country.

These compensatory type models have gathered critics for their negative approach to the adaptation process. In contrast some studies reveal that there are positive elements and that this period of readjustment for the student becomes a period of self-reflection (Aldler, 1975). Pederson (1985) proposes that it can be a period of personal growth and development, which may produce "positive and essential insights" (p. 2). These perceived "culture bumps" which occur when expectations are unrealised, have the advantage of forcing both the student and instructor to tackle the problem and, through reflection, come to a mutually beneficial solution. Indeed, forcing academic institutions to face up to these educational problems may in fact be instrumental in creating new advantageous educational opportunities (Biggs, 1997).

3.3.3 Adjustment to the Host Culture

The effort by the host culture to attract the eye of international students and their resulting revenue may be counter-productive for both the student and the educational institute. Expectations of the new environment by the student are often unrealistic and lead ultimately to a poor rate of adjustment. Furnham (1997) in support proposes that the "more accurate, objective and comprehensive a sojourner or migrant's expectations of the visited country, culture or university, the more successful that adaptation" (p. 23).

It has been argued that the cultural system is intrinsically linked with gaining of knowledge and that a society intentionally maintains the status quo by controlling the acquisition of knowledge. It is therefore the culture system that is essential to the maintenance of the organisational patterns of the host culture (Schultz, 1964, cited in Holliday, 1994). It is into this climate that the student, in order to succeed, must achieve some degree of adaptation. It is this point that the cultural system of the individual or group comes into conflict with the new educational and national environment and it is here that culture shock arises.

As members of their own culture, complete with their own cultural baggage, the students often have inaccurate, misinformed pre-conceived ideas of their new cultural environment. Matsumoto (1996) supports this possible inaccuracy by referring to the fact that culture cannot be assumed to be constant or consistent and cultural characteristics are often ill defined. This entry into an unsteady "foreign" territory and subsequent reaction factor may be a major factor in the academic success or failure of the student. This area of research has been given increasing prominence and legitimacy in the last few decades. The concept of culture shock is more than a single event but an ongoing process of adaptation, which must be traversed in order to achieve cultural integration. Loss of identity with one's own culture is identified as the inevitable consequence of the movement away from familiar cultural ties. The presence of this psychological state presents problems within all areas where cultures clash, but it is most damaging when combined with educational demands (Lutz, 1990). It has long been acknowledged by educationalists that this condition poses a threat to the successful acquisition of knowledge (Anderson, 1983; Schumann, 1978).

No matter how desirable, there is serious doubt cast on the process of enculturation being at all possible for non-native students. Enculturation, according to De Villar (1994) must be achieved in early development as a result of the socialisation process and is restricted to local groups. Acculturation, conversely, refers to a restrictive term exclusively reserved for non-native members of society aspiring to inclusion but has the negative element suggesting imposed selection. This nominates a form of "conceptual colonialism" which imposes values of culture or institution on those wishing to participate (Biggs, 1997).

3.4 Institutional Shock

Universities and other institutions of higher learning possess an academic culture of their own. Each institution can lay claim to its own attitudes, values, and beliefs surrounding the preservation of its academic capital. Cortazzi and Lin (1997) propose that these values encompass a set of expectations, which may be obvious to the instructors but remain hidden from the uninitiated such as international students. All students face the issue of adaptation and must become re-socialised into this new cultural environment. Welch (1994) refers to the successful inclusion in any institution as learning the correct rules of the game. Each institution has its own specialised codes of conduct which "stated or unstated, are an informal set of networks of individuals who interact with one another and evolve a shared set of expectations through institutional traditions" (p.57). It is into this 'foreign' territory that the new students find themselves having to cope. Universities as institutes of lifelong learning would like to claim that by their nature they unite all clients in the common intellectual goal of academic excellence (Ballard & Clanchy, 1991). However, it is more likely to be true

that students entering university are strangers needing to redefine their own world in the context of their new surroundings (Pajares, 1992).

Adaptation and accommodation are often perceived as a one-way process instructing and guiding students to become familiar with the demands of the institution and in the case of overseas students, the country. However, this may be a narrow politically motivated view of the situation that demands that the students' success is dependent on their successful enculturation into the university system. De Villar (1994) in his examination of US non-native students' ability to have access to quality education saw this as a flawed highly selective and racially based model. Historically student needs appear to be subordinate to the views of the dominant society. Enculturation, viewed as a desirable result of socialisation process, is beyond reach of most non-native students who may only aspire to the previously mentioned acculturation. Therefore, to gain success in the "mainstream", students must be re-socialised into the dominant system. Admission into the conforming body of the educational setting at present necessitates change within the student through exposure to the flavour and language of new culture.

Cultural patterns are embedded in not only the student but also the instructor. This gives each a psychologically differing approach to study expectations (Anderson, 1988, cited in Dash, 1988). Flowerdew and Millar, (1992, 1997) in their comparative studies in students and lecturer perceptions report three major concerns: discrepancies in appreciation of humour, difficulty in utilising interactive style, and inconsistency in obtaining verbal feedback. Such diverse expectations have serious implications for the ability of culturally unprepared instructors to provide an equal opportunity for all students (Dash, 1988). These concerns promote the argument that instructors need to

recognise the power of their own "cultural baggage" and its impact on their ability to remain impartial instructors and assessors of the diverse pool of students.

Whereas many instructors share concerns with students over teaching problems, there would appear to be a mismatch in strategic coping devices resulting in potential for dissatisfaction. Such primary concerns need to be addressed within the area of university training and development. All participants in the business of academic training need to "emphasise the dynamic and interactive changing nature of culture and guard against simplification" (Diaz, 1988, p.231).

Thorp (1991) highlights the significance of this mismatch in the "hidden culture" of the university or institution where expectations of student and staff may differ and therefore cause confusion. Students may be disadvantaged by the inability or perceived inability to adopt the values of an academic environment. Within these interactive situations evaluation and judgements are constantly occurring and resulting conclusions are tinted by culturally defined standards impacting on the academic assessment of students and their work (Philips, 1983). However, this accommodation of student needs is very much tailored by the perceived obligations of the institution or the country thus allowing limited and controlled enculturation.

3.5 Conclusion

Although there have been many studies into the specific cultural needs of tertiary students, little has been centred on the New Zealand context. This was highlighted by Mills (1995) whose study on the small group situation within New Zealand revealed that many stereotypical features were suspect when it came to student success within the multicultural environment. Kiwi and Malaysian Chinese students coping with

"culture shock" (Oberg, 1960) and "study shock" (Burns, 1991) would appear to have a greater degree of shared difficulties and self-effacing concerns than wider studies had previously endorsed. The present study will examine the expectations that both overseas and local students have of the tutorial setting and whether these expectations and resulting difficulties are shared by both sets of students. The study will also examine whether these expectations are in turn shared by the tutors involved with these students.

Chapter Four

An Academic Culture: Expectations

4.1 Introduction

Having explored the social and emotional barriers to successful integration and learning within the context of the university, this chapter focuses on the perceived expectations in regard to the communicative learning process of the key players in this new academic context. Firstly we will examine the educational demands within the academic culture of the university and the accessibility of these demands to the students. Then we will explore how these expectations are interpreted and applied to academic task demands within the university. Lastly we will look at the cognitive process within this learning culture and the role that interaction plays from the point of view of both the students and the instructor.

4.2 Student Expectations of the University as an Academic Culture

Universities are comprised of their own unique and embedded systems, which contain the cultural and learning expectations of that institute. Students entering this cultural context bring with them all the uncertainty and anxiety of a group embarking on a new group affiliation armed or burdened with their own unique set of values and expectations (Ballard & Clanchy, 1991). In the case of international students in addition to their cultural expectations they will bring with them predetermined ideas on what their chosen educational program has to offer.

This standard of proficiency is determined by conforming to the demands of the university and this is not always an easy task as student performance requirements are seemingly "obvious but are rarely made explicit" (Cortazzi & Lin, 1997, p.77). The expectations of the students and the 'host' educational setting despite active choice may not be compatible, resulting in major conflicts and concerns. Choices made by the students are mainly influenced by emotional, geographical or financial considerations. International student choices are also limited by consideration of promotional material produced by the university or the college. The University's historical legacy of the specific educational demands offered may affect the culture of the institution. This variation in institutional characteristics may be physical such as size, or procedural such as selectivity type, standardisation mechanisms, class size, quality of teaching, and even quality of social life. There may also be many factors which influence an individual's choice of institution such as educational aspiration, perceived academic performance and unfortunately the consideration of socio-economic status (Mallette & Cabrera, 1991).

It can be inferred that within this system many of the student body especially international students enter academic life with unrealistic expectations possibly fuelled by inaccurate information circulated by the institution. Possession of flawed information will often compound the already impractical expectations of the students (Kearney & Kearney, 1994).

4.3 Expectations: Academic Tasks

A reflection of wider social influences has ultimately changed the face of student demands and an element of financial awareness has become increasingly apparent in

students' expectations. It would seem that financial pressure has forced students to complete their study in the shortest possible time span with little potential for scholarly experimentation and deviation. Students now have differing expectations of their chosen fields of the study and they want their courses spelt out to them "with no surprises" culminating in the desired qualification (Child & Williams, 1996, p.11). This would appear to be even more prominent in the international student who seems to be obsessed with grades and the fulfilment of overseas scholarship requirements. Success is then measured in task interpretation, completion, and positive attainment scores.

Academic tasks are the key to optimal success and the University, according to Cortazzi (1990) is in possession of a set of hidden assumptions that influence the requirements for tertiary success. These assumptions which are not always readily accessible to students, include knowing and understanding others point of view, ability to critically evaluate alternative theories and approaches to knowledge, ability to arrive at balanced judgements and being able to present a clear line of argument. It has been acknowledged that many international students and in fact many native students do not possess these skills and are limited to the ability to consider only one point of view, reproduce lecture notes and describe rather than critically evaluate in an attempt to formulate a clear argument. The ability to employ abstract thought and problem solving strategies are indeed culturally influenced and varying with the availability of opportunities to develop these skills.

The University has therefore, to contend with a wide range of abilities within its student population. In an effort to cater for these needs, the University may seek to simplify the academic task requirements. However, such attempts to provide compensatory

action can also be problematic as it results in an over generalisation of student problems. Chalmers and Volet (1997) in their examination of international students entering Australia supported this view, claiming that the Asian students had to contend with many misconceptions surrounding culturally appropriate behaviour. The dangers are that remedial strategies may be imposed on a blanket basis to all international students taking little account of specific individual needs or requirements. Therefore, stereotyping and the emphasis on cultural differences have often been proposed as the key to understanding the problems of international students. Hargan (1995) perceived this approach as that of seeing the other cultures as "lacking or problematic" and therefore laden with many "impediments to sound academic performance", thus reinforcing the existence of educational learning and communication difficulties (p.224). Ballard (1987) has been critical of teachers who resent "wasting precious time...coping with inarticulate tutorial participants" (p.116).

In this atmosphere there have been doubts raised as to whether any students are fully able to utilise their prior knowledge and fully transfer learning skills from one context to another. Kemp and Seagraves (1995) explored how communication skills are developed. The issue of content learning rather than language ability is perceived as the weak link in the ability of students to achieve optimal results. In this area it seems that tertiary instructors are lacking in the ability or eagerness to aid students in realising the essential communicative competence. It was Cortazzi (1990) who emphasised this mismatch of expectations and adherence to rules of success. The highly prized Western ideals such as critical evaluation and balanced argument are not cultural universals and hold little value to a society that sees criticism as unacceptable. He alerts academic institutions to the need to recognise that "many students have been socialised into an

academic approach based on reproducing transmitted knowledge where respect for teachers, scholars and those in authority is paramount and where to criticise culturally or politically is unacceptable" (p. 61).

There have been serious doubts raised as to the effectiveness of the learning support given to international students entering into the new academic environment. The diversity of the student intake is matched by the diverse requirements of chosen courses. The command of language particularly pertinent to international students is "intimately related to the demands of the discipline being taught" (Ballard, 1987, p.115). This emphasises the further potential for failure as support provided in isolation of course content often falls short in meeting the academic needs of the students (Mohan, & Lo, 1985). The traditional approach of intensive pre-inclusion programme with its emphasis on language proficiency may be inadequate and has been criticised for its suggestion that fluent English will ensure academic success (Richards & Hurley, 1988). This limited approach often fails to make the appropriate links between language skills and desired intellectual achievement (Crandall, 1987; Cummins, 1981; Tikunoff, 1985).

4.4 Expectations: The Cognitive Process

In the learning context of a university tutorial it has already been stated that the exchange and discussion of ideas is the recognised basis of expanding subject knowledge. This need to devise our own knowledge is a constructivist concept, which defines the act of communication as an event occurring between two or more people. These people need to have a mutually recognised intention to share and exchange messages (Applegate & Syphen, 1988, p.45). This model of communication would be

seen as an important element of any learning situation and would certainly be a component of the university tutorial. Accepting this model means that the level of communication and effectiveness of the participants become an all-important part of the optimal learning experience.

It must not be forgotten however that interaction is a two-way process and the interactive ability of the instructor has equal importance to that of the student. Interaction is especially important because it influences the perceptions that the participants have of each other. Teachers who do not share the same cultural background may, due to their own cultural limitations, "not communicate well with students or may tend to avoid interaction, including eye contact and physical contact" (Ortiz, 1988). Tarone and Yule (1989) raised this in highlighting the distance between speaker and hearer and the propensity for miscommunication to occur between the teacher and students who have incompatible life and learning experiences. Prior (1991) in his tertiary study discussed this mismatch between the goals of the instructor and the personal goals of the student in a graduate seminar. His study supported the view that "hidden cultural agendas" (Heath, 1993; Moll & Diaz, 1987) exist and perpetuate the inability of differing cultures to achieve common goals. Banks, Gao and Baker (1991) suggest that there is a likelihood that the intended meanings of the individual are in many cases not being "picked up" by the other participants during conversational exchanges. Errors in speech are serious barriers to effective communication and stem the flow of talk so essential in the discussion process. The experienced learner becomes capable of fine-tuning and adapting their own communication skills in order to fit in with culturally appropriate practices (Bardovi-Harlig, Hartford, Mahan, Morgan, & Reynolds, 1991). This could be related back to a need for a continuing

atmosphere of both student and teacher support.

Students often enter university lacking the discourse skills essential for the effective exchange of information and the organisational skills essential to success. According to Rorty (1979) there is a general agreement on the importance and relevance of academic contributions such as criticism and argument. However, Carlson (1984, cited in Rice, 1995) would claim that formal operational thinking skills involving abstract reasoning essential to academic excellence, are highly dependent on social experience. Cannon (1997) in his reference to interaction skills of Indonesian students highlights reasons such as "insufficient depth in ways of thinking, problem solving and communication that interaction in academic contexts requires; knowledge - yes, but skills - questionable" (p.67). The academic level at which students are engaged can also be a factor in expectations. Husbands (1996) perceives that the higher the academic standing of the students, the greater the degree of interaction anticipated.

4.5 Expectations: Interaction and the Role of the Instructor

Each culture has clearly defined roles or "identity used for designating two or more persons who presumably share one or more overt characteristics" (Biddle, 1979, cited in McCargar, 1993, p. 192). These roles are dictated by the expectations of society and cultural experience (Samuelowicz, 1987). Therefore, the role of educator carries with it a "mindset of assumptions and expectations" that reflect and reinforce the attitudes, beliefs and power base of the wider society and it is these that influence their ability to interact with their students (Cummins, 1994, p. 373). The instructors themselves have already successfully been acculturated into the university environment and are in possession of the values and skills that they see as requirements of success. It is these

educational qualities that they prize and seek to transmit to the students. It is in pursuit of these goals that instructors have been accused of soliciting unreasonable demands when it comes to international students.

The role of the tutor is to foster optimal learning in the students and in general like all teachers they tend to be encouraging to students, for whom they have high expectations. This encouragement is often displayed, in culturally specific, non-verbal behaviours such as smiling, leaning, and nodding. Responses to such behaviours rely on suitably informed interpretations. The expectations of students and instructor have the propensity to be driven by previous cultural exposure and knowledge. In an effort to cater for the learning needs of international students, teachers have been presented with a vast array of "do's and don'ts". Some of these do have reliable foundations, whilst others do not, and rely on stereotypical cultural characteristics. Pajares (1995) claims that all human perception is influenced by this generic knowledge structure and perception can be an unreliable guide to the nature of reality. This echoes the view of Ballard and Clanchy (1991) in reference to the cultural context of learning as they propose that students often possess a false sense of expectations in relation to university requirements.

Despite the fact that change appears to be occurring in some universities, there is still evidence that many instructors and faculties are clinging to conventional pedagogy. Husbands (1996) in his study of undergraduate students stresses the influence of teacher characteristics and cites academic status, gender, age, experience research productivity and amiability as "relevant discriminators" when it came to matching student and teacher preference (p. 197). De Klerk (1995) claims that gender has an impact on speaking turns and interaction in the small group setting at the graduate level.

This only emphasises the range of problems the instructor fields in an attempt to provide appropriate educational direction. Confusion can even be present in the simple act of silence that the international student construes as an instructional directive (Child & Williams, 1996).

There are increasing demands for instructors to respond to the dictates of cognitive psychology and acknowledge the student as the central figure in the learning process, thus adjusting their teaching style to encompass all students. There is also another school of thought that supports the viewpoint that there are universal principles of teaching, which can be applied across cultures (Biggs, 1997). This supports the case that the barriers to effective learning lie in the lack of effective teaching skills rather than ignorance of specific learner characteristics.

4.6 Expectations: Interaction and the Role of the Student

The role expectations of students are according to (McCargar, 1993) culturally defined and influenced by the variation in social and personal experience. These socially constructed expectations and interpretations can be described as a “function of knowledge, beliefs/attitudes, stereotypes, self-conceptions (including ethnolinguistic identity), roles, prior interaction and status characteristics” (Gudykunst, 1988, p. 130). These expectations in turn influence the nature of the behaviour that is exhibited in each individual context and can play a major role in what Tikunoff (1985) describes as “student functional proficiency”. This proficiency to activate the appropriate social and cognitive skills is termed as 'academic competence' by Adamson (1993) and allows the student to achieve an effective degree of success within the cultural and educational confines of the tertiary system. Adamson tends to see this as primarily an ESL problem

where the overseas students have limitations in their ability to participate in interactive activities. This viewpoint has been sustained by Corson (1993) who describes overseas students as "minority outsiders" who often "condemn themselves to silence in public settings for fear of offending norms that they themselves sanction" (p. 10).

Much research has been carried out in the area of cultural significance within the area of learning styles. However, the bulk of this work has been preoccupied with the identifying of group trends rather than individual learning preferences. In the area of education, Guild and Garger (1985) are adamant that learning preferences only becomes significant when the personality styles affect actual learning they then can be described as learning styles.

Young (1987) however, claims that there are indeed identifiably different learning styles exhibited by cultural groups. For example, Corson (1992) claims that Hispanic students show a distinct preference for an interactive classroom atmosphere whereas Chinese students want a more formal structured mode of teaching. Asian students are often portrayed as passive learners and in the small group or tutorial setting are often perceived to be embarrassed or uncomfortable (Wu Jing-yu, 1983). For Chinese students the 'wait time' (Rowe, 1974) in student and teacher interaction which involves the retrieval, translation and reflection of information and initiation of the completed response, (Stahl, 1976) and is a cause for concern. This cognitive process has serious implications for these students, who according (Sato, 1990) require a longer processing or wait time than western students because of their anxiety levels in appropriating the correct response. The "long wait" has been a documented feature of Asian students where the initiative is expected to come from the teacher rather than the student and is often apparent in postgraduate students where autonomy is expected (Ballard &

Clanchy, 1991).

Learning styles and individual learning preferences also vary according to the experiential cultural legacy. The effectiveness of students' strategies depends on the context of learning and on learners' own characteristics (Entwistle, 1991). Melton (1990) in her study of Chinese learning style preferences concedes that all academic classrooms, regardless of cultural mix, contain students with multiple learning styles. It would therefore seem that student difficulties in the area of interaction are not restricted to international students as Mullins, Quintrell and Hancock (1995) reveal in their comparative study of L1 and L2 students in relation to tutorial participation. This study discloses that many of the speakers specifically lacked the ability to apply the coherent organisational skills necessary for the presentation of academic ideas.

One of major problems within the university system is the failure rate within the first year of study and this has been the fuel for many of the subsequent studies into student difficulties (Entwistle, 1991; Meyer & Watson, 1991). These studies reveal that there is not always a direct correlation between success and learning but there is also evidence that student characteristics play a part in the effectiveness of learning outcomes. Students must take active responsibility for their own learning and take responsibility for their own metacognitive management (Romainville, 1994). This ability to reflect on their own cognitive strategies and streamline them into effective tools within the context of the tutorial setting still remains embedded in former experience. However, this argument also allows for a movement away from cultural stereotyping which places emphasis on the differences in student abilities and examines the similarities in student problems (Chalmers & Volet, 1997).

Furnham & Bochner (1986) enforce the view that the attitude change necessary for adaptation in a new culture is “primarily a function of participation, then observation and finally communication, in that order of importance” (p. 117). This supports the belief that the tutorial is often an important avenue for social as well as educational contact. This is especially important for international students who have limited access to such groupings. Therefore, the provision of opportunities within the tutorial setting to apply appropriate negotiated interaction is necessary in order to accelerate comprehension and production (Quintrell & Westwood, 1994). This would enable learners to move beyond their current culturally motivated receptive and expressive capabilities and fully utilise cognitive strategies.

4.7 Conclusion

A number of issues have been raised in this chapter as to student expectations of tertiary study. It would appear that many aspects of expectations of both task and learning process do not match those of their instructors. Cultural influence would seem to be a major factor for both the student and teacher, colouring their view of educational expectations. Ultimately it can be said that the “level of consumer satisfaction is primarily a function of the size of gap between expectations and performance” (Kotler, 1991; Mason & Ezell, 1993). This study explores the accuracy of the preconceived expectations that students and teachers hold in the context of the university tutorial. In comparing the ideas of the international students, local students, and their tutors it will reveal whether these misconceptions are a valid part of New Zealand cultural expectations.

Chapter Five

Investigation of Interaction within the Tutorial Setting

5.1 Introduction

A number of studies have considered the factors and interventions that may account for the degree of success or failure within the academic setting but the majority these have been school-based rather than tertiary-based. Notable studies of school-based children and their academic achievement include Saville-Troike (1984), Wong Fillmore, Ammon, McLaughlin & Ammon (1985), Nespor (1987) and Kraemar (1993). These studies examine the ability of school age children to function within the school context and accomplish academic tasks effectively. Post-school research has been considerably less abundant with the main studies for investigation of tertiary students' learning conditions coming from the Northern Hemisphere, in particular America and Europe.

This chapter discusses some of this research, particularly that which can inform the present study focusing on interaction within the University tutorial. In this way it provides a rationale for the chosen research design.

5.2 Research Design

The main method of gathering data on appraising the differing quality of students' tertiary expectations and experience has historically been through questionnaires. This form of assessment has been used extensively in the field of tertiary study by researchers such as Sato (1990), Samimy, & Tabuse (1992), Silva & Nichols (1993), Kern (1995) and Prior (1991). Prior explored graduate students' learning perceptions in an attempt to ascertain what drives student performance. This large-scale study of undergraduate students examined the field of shared grounds for communication between professors and students. However, Prior's initial questionnaire on task preparation and rate of enculturation for non-native speaking students was substantiated by the use of class observations, interviews, and text-based interviews. Flowerdew and Miller (1992, 1996) carried out a study of Hong Kong undergraduate students by means of questionnaires, diary studies, classroom observation, and interviews. Their findings, like Prior, involved an in-depth analysis of both student and lecturer perception of delivery methods in tertiary education, although it was confined to the area of graduate study.

In the Southern Hemisphere, Purdie (1995) considered the theme of disparity in learning perceptions between Australian and Japanese students using a small number of open-ended questions. The study identified differences as well as similarities in the study habits and strategies of the two groups of students. Burns (1991) used a questionnaire to survey a larger sample of 113 first year overseas students. Samuelowicz (1987) used a survey of Australian academics to assess their perceptions of the teaching of overseas students. Mullins, Quintrell, & Hancock (1995), were also prominent in the area of overseas student learning research, compared the perceptions held within three large Australian Universities. Using conversational analysis, Jones

sought to investigate the claims made by Sato (1981) and Smith (1986) that Asian students were less effective in small group discussions. His results indicated, contrary to many commonly held beliefs, students in the study had the potential to be participatory in tutorial or seminar setting as long as the teacher used effective strategies. Mills (1997) critical in her evaluation of the limited amount of published research within New Zealand, produced a comparative study of Malaysian Chinese and Kiwi students regarding interaction at Lincoln University using the survey method.

5.3 The Present Study

The present study focuses on the expectations and experiences of students in the specific educational setting of the university tutorial. The investigation was confined to first year students within the College of Education of Massey University. The purpose of the study was to form a comparison of three groups involved in the academic learning process. The groups were comprised of local students, international students whose first language was not English, and the tutors involved in the course. The participants were invited to participate in accordance with the requirements of the Ethics Committee.

The study seeks to examine the elements of interaction, task interpretation, and cognitive variables in relation to the respondents involved in the sample. The study seeks to estimate the degree of agreement between the expectations and experiences of L1, L2 students, and their tutors. The primary focus of this study is to estimate the value of interaction and how this process impacts on the effective participatory skills of both students and their instructors. This led to an analysis of the importance of the interaction to the students' perceived value of tutorial success. The examination of task demands and their contribution to quality of learning ensued. It was considered

whether the students were correct in their interpretation of task demands dictated by the instructor. Finally, the cognitive dimension was examined highlighting the wide variance in the ability of students to assimilate, use, and understand the information presented.

5.4 The Research Questions

To facilitate achievement of the above aim the study had the following research questions:

- a) What are the expectations, priorities, attitudes, and problems of international students in relation to interaction, task interpretation, and cognitive variables within the tutorial setting?
- b) What are the expectations, priorities, attitudes, and problems of local students in relation to interaction, task interpretation, and cognitive variables within the tutorial setting?
- c) What are the expectations, priorities, attitudes, and problems of university tutors in relation to interaction, task interpretation, and cognitive variables within the tutorial setting?
- d) What is the degree of congruence between the beliefs of the participants in the process, namely international students, local students, and university tutors?

5.5 Data Gathering

The research was undertaken using a questionnaire as the primary instrument for the study. The initial survey took the form of a written, structured questionnaire that

included a variety of question types: Likert-type items, semantic differential scales, multiple-choice questions and open-ended questions. The questionnaire also provided the opportunity for students and tutors to expand on their responses to selected questions. The questionnaires were distributed in an education lecture and 76 usable responses were returned to the researcher. The number of international students enrolled in the course was lower than the local students but reflected the overall proportion of the students enrolled in this paper. A secondary instrument was the use of face to face interviews with a small sample of international students to further allow for qualitative analysis of response data.

5.6 Rationale for the Questionnaire Items

The instruments for gathering data were devised by combining the parameters of two theoretical models. The first of these is the model from Richards and Hurley (1988) designed to account for curriculum demands in mainstream school classrooms. Three focus areas suggested by Richards and Hurley are interactional demands, task demands, and cognitive demands. Interactional demands refer to “the ability to understand and use the social rules of classroom discourse in interacting with both peers and teachers”(Richards & Hurley, 1988, p. 46). Task demands require that the students have the ability to understand not only the act of learning but also how this learning can be accomplished. Lastly, the cognitive dimension allows students to understand and assimilate the concepts and information essential to content learning. Rosset (1982, cited in Brown, 1995) provided a second dimension to each of the above demands. Rosset suggests that the significant aspects that shape students’ perception of learning experiences are expectations, priorities, attitudes, problems, and solutions.

The combination of the two dimensions can be represented as a grid (See Figure 2 below).

	Interaction	Task	Cognitive Dimension
Expectations			
Priorities			
Attitudes			
Problems			
Solutions			

Figure 2

The grid indicates that any aspect of the two dimensions can be combined so that for instance we can have expectations of interaction, problems in connection with interaction and so on. This dimensional grid guided the development of the questionnaire.

5.7 The Questions

A pilot survey was carried out involving a sample of tutors and students to ascertain the validity of the questions and to gauge whether the language used was comprehensive to both local and international students.

The survey was administered mid-way through the first semester to a group of first year students consisting of those with English as their primary language and similar students with English as their second language. The L2 group consisted of both International students and permanent residents with English as their second language. Ethical considerations as set out in the Massey Code of Ethics were addressed through

an information sheet and a consent form for all students and tutors. Participation was on a purely voluntary basis and students were informed that all information would be gathered on a confidential basis and participant identities would not be revealed. Feedback or queries concerning the questionnaire were welcomed. The students and tutors were free to cease participation at any point during the study.

5.7.1. The Respondents

The sample consisted of students in their first year of study taking an education paper but the sample varied in terms of sex, age, and university majors as was consistent with similar content courses. Students were invited to fill in the questionnaire with recent experience of tutorials in mind. The response rate for the questionnaire was 60%.

A similar questionnaire was also given to the tutors involved in the instruction of these students in order to gauge the commonalties and disparity in expectations of the university tutorial between these groups. The response rate for tutors was 100%.

5.8 The Interview

A follow-up semi-structured interview was devised to validate the research material gathered from the students. These subsequent interviews were targeted at the students with English as a second language to clarify their particular needs. The interview instrument was adapted from the Mullins, Quintrell and Hancock (1995) survey, which investigated student problems within three South Australian Universities. The adapted material concerned the comparative experiences and views of students in relation to the tutorial or small group situation. Areas of examination centred on the minor or major problems connected with student study needs. Also considered were the differences in

staff and student perceptions in terms of international students' learning problems. The participation of international students in tutorials was targeted for closer analysis. Interest was also directed towards the area of quality teaching and the value placed by students on this type of instruction. Another issue for research was the perceived accessibility of the tutor and the cognitive development of learning strategies of the students rather than concentrating on the linguistic limitations of the students.

The interview followed an initial structured format but the inclusion of several open-ended questions had the intention of allowing the subject the freedom to expand on areas of particular relevance. The interview material was then interpreted using interactional analysis. Such an approach integrates both quantitative information with qualitative information provided by the survey information. This type of analysis was used in order to gain access to the underlying cultural assumptions of the role they play in shaping awareness. The variety of data gathering techniques were intended to give a greater insight into the beliefs of the three focus groups specifically international students, local students and tutors.

The instruments used were designed to allow for both qualitative and quantitative element which would best compliment the "naturalistic perspective and interactive understanding of human experience" (Nelson, Treichler & Grossberg, 1992, p. 4).

5.8.1 The Respondents

Interview subjects were chosen to represent a sample of the international students present at the university. All interviewees were involved in the L2 student survey and were then invited to attend an interview session to expand on their initial responses. Using a more informal oral medium it was hoped that students would be able to

express their ideas and opinions in greater depth. All subjects had been born outside New Zealand and were learning in a language other than their native tongue.

5.9 Data Analysis

The data from the students was divided into two groups for the purpose of analysis. All students who stated that their first language was English regardless of their ethnic orientation were listed under the title L1 (English listed as their first language). The other group consisted of the students who stated that English was their second language and were titled L2 (English listed as second language).

Some of the responses in the questionnaire were then coded using SPSSPC to determine the frequency of responses and the statistical significance of the results. Because the samples were not large, the test of statistical significance applied was the *t*-test. Further tests were conducted to determine the degree of association between some of the responses by means of correlation coefficients.

Data from the interviews was then used to provide further narrative material to clarify and expand on the responses of L2 students.

5.10 Summary

This chapter has examined the approach that has been taken to the present study. It has examined the limitations of other studies in this area and justified the chosen research design in relation to the demands of the outlined research questions. The primary instrumentation utilised for data gathering was questionnaires, which were used to survey the three groups of respondents, namely the tutors, L1, and L2 students. The

data from the questionnaires was further supported by information gathered from interviews held with a proportion of L2 students.

Chapter Six

The Results: L1 and L2 Students

6.1 Introduction

This chapter will report on the data extracted from the questionnaire responses provided by L1 and L2 students. The primary data will be supported with additional narrative data provided by both groups of students in the questionnaire. Narrative data provided by the interview material supplied by a proportion of the L2 students will also be used when appropriate to enhance the students' responses.

The results are presented in seven categories: - evaluating the tutorial, interaction and participation within the tutorial, tutorial preparation, the tutors role, evaluating tutorial activities, contribution of international students and student difficulties.

The results presented are largely descriptive with t-test results being reported only where a significant difference was found between the two groups.

6.2 The Response of the Students

6.2.1 Evaluating the Tutorial

The question of whether the student perceived that more effective learning took place in a tutorial or in a lecture was put to the respondents. The results of this question are shown in Table 1 below.

Table 1 Optimal Setting for Academic Learning within the University Context

Mode	Number (%) of responses					
	L1		L2		Total	
Lecture	20	(45.5)	4	(44.4)	24	(45.3)
Tutorial	24	(55.5)	5	(55.6)	29	(54.7)
Total	44		9		53	

In the cases of both L1 and L2 respondents there was a preference for tutorials as a learning medium. This supported the comments on interaction as a positive element in the learning process. For L1, 45.5% of respondents felt that lectures were the main source of learning with 54.5% stating a preference for tutorials. L1 students provided the following comments to elaborate on their initial responses:

One to one learning is better than one to seventy.

I learn better by being able to discuss things rather than being told them.

Tutorials are more specific but I enjoy people interaction.

The L2 respondents were split, 44.4% considering lectures as a more effective way of gaining knowledge and 55.6% stating that they gained more from the tutorial setting.

The contrast is evident in the following two comments:

Lecture – the lecturer emphasises more and message is easily taken.

Working in small groups of 3 or 4 will enable me to go beyond my language barrier .

However, there seems to be a general appreciation within both groups of the students, which is reinforced by comments from both the initial questionnaire and the interview

material that both the lectures and the tutorials have a complementary role in the learning process.

Neither both effective in own way. (L2)

They are and should be complimentary though different. (L2)

I gain a lot of information from lecture but the tutorial just helps to clarify any unclear points I need to clock up on. (L1)

I learn most in a lecture but the understanding and ability to apply knowledge comes in the tutorial. (L1)

Lecture – information. Tutorial – explanation. (L1)

Respondents were asked to indicate their degree of agreement with the statement “small group learning can be a most rewarding experience”.

Table 2 Responses to Statement “Small Group Learning can be a Most Rewarding Experience”

Responses	Number (%) of responses		
	L1	L2	Total
Absolutely true	35	8	43 (61.4)
Partly true	22	2	24 (34.3)
Doubtful	0	1	1 (1.4)
Probably false	1	0	1 (1.4)
Absolutely false	1	0	1 (1.4)
Total number	59	11	70

Table 2 reveals that the vast majority of respondents regardless of whether they were L1 or L2 students considered this to be a true statement.

6.2.2 Interaction and Participation

With respect to interaction within the tutorials, it was revealed that over half of the respondents (55.1%) considered interaction in a tutorial to be ranked as very important (category 1). A further 21.7% and 14.5% thought that interaction itself was sufficiently important to be ranked as categories 2 and 3 respectively. In other words over 90% (91.3%) of all respondents, regardless of their first language, considered interaction in the tutorial setting to be of relatively high importance.

Table 3 **Rankings of the Importance of Interaction**

Ranking	Number (%) of responses				
	L1		L2		Total
1	30	(51.7)	8	(72.7)	38 (55.1)
2	14	(24.1)	1	(9.1)	15 (21.7)
3	9	(15.5)	1	(9.1)	10 (14.5)
4	0	(0)	1	(9.1)	1 (1.4)
5	4	(6.9)	0	(0)	4 (5.8)
6	1	(1.7)	0	(0)	1 (1.4)
Total	58		11		69

Note. Range indicates that 1 is the highest level of importance.

The question then arises as to whether there would be a statistically significant difference in the response to this question between L2 students and the L1 students. It is clear from Table 3 that a higher percentage of L2 students (72.7%) considered interaction in the tutorial to be very important (category 1) than was the case with the L1 students (51.7%). Extending this to include categories 2 and 3 it can be seen that 90.9% of L2 students rank interaction relatively highly while 91.4% of the L2 students consider interaction to be important. It would seem then that there is agreement

between the two groups of students on the significance of interaction in tutorials. The general feeling of students within both groups was upheld by such comments as:

The more people communicate, the more ideas are expressed, and greater understanding can be achieved . (L1)

Good opportunity to exchange ideas and build individuals confidence through interaction. (L1)

I find discussions and ideas within a tutorial group very beneficial to understanding of ideas and concepts. (L1)

A tutorial directly links between the students and the lecturer. (L2)

In regard to students' expectations of tutorial participation, the respondents were asked to indicate how often they expect to join in tutorials. Table 4 shows the frequencies of responses to this question. Overall, the majority of all respondents regardless of their first language declared that they expected to frequently participate in tutorials.

Table 4 **Expectations of Tutorial Participation**

Response	Number (%) of responses					
	L1		L2		Total	
Frequently	31	(52.5)	8	(72.7)	39	(55.7)
As frequently as the tutor	10	(16.9)	2	(18.2)	12	(17.1)
Infrequently	11	(18.6)	1	(9.1)	12	(17.1)
Only if you are asked	7	(11.9)	0	(0)	7	(10)
Not at all	0	(0)	0	(0)	0	(0)
Total	59		11		70	

For L2 students 72.7% expect to participate frequently compared to 52.5 % of the L1 students. The results of a t-test indicate that this difference between the two groups is significant. It is notable that despite possible language barriers, the L2 students have a higher expectation of their input in tutorials than do those with English as a first language. (See Appendix E Table 1)

As indicated by the responses to the activity levels the individuals displayed within tutorials, the majority of all respondents thought that they could participate more actively. Table 5 verifies that 78.6% of respondents thought that this was at least partly true. No marked difference was found to exist between the two groups with L1 and L2 students recording 78% and 81.8% respectively.

Table 5 **Expectations of Personal Participation**

Responses	Number (%) of responses					
	L1		L2		Total	
Absolutely true	18	(30.5)	7	(63.6)	25	(35.7)
Partly true	28	(47.5)	2	(18.2)	30	(42.9)
Doubtful	5	(8.4)	2	(18.2)	7	(10.0)
Partly false	5	(8.4)	0	(0)	5	(7.1)
False	3	(5.0)	0	(0)	3	(4.3)
Total	59		11		70	

Despite the overwhelming acknowledgement among respondents of the importance of interaction, a large sample of both groups perceived that they do not themselves participate fully in their tutorials. The explanations for this lack of student participation were outlined in supplementary material that was recorded in the questionnaires and the interviews. Reasons included the size of group, which the students still considered too

large. There was a distinct preference for smaller more intimate groupings where familiarity was seen as a determinant of interaction. Group dynamics were also cited as a contributing factor where the disparity of age, imbalance of contributions, and vocal evidence of prior learning and experience were perceived as possible barriers to productive group interaction. The tutor's role was seen as critical in actively structuring the tutorial to enable discussion and allowing sufficient time for discussion to develop. There was also a perceived need for the tutor to foster interaction by actively encouraging discussion within the group. Preparation was a major factor as many students acknowledged that their own lack of preparation hampered their ability to maximise their opportunity for participation. This issue is discussed in more detail in Section 6.2.3. There was also a desire expressed by the students for a greater prior knowledge of the intended tutorial content as displayed in the following comment:

a list of what the tutorial was to be about so we could prepare better and notes to consult

L2 students did cite language as a barrier to active participation but generally appeared to see the tutorial as a vehicle for airing problems and asking questions. Understanding of tutorial content was examined to gauge the proportion of the content that students realistically expected to understand. Table 6 indicates that 50% of all respondents considered that they should understand all of the content while a further 35.7% felt that they should understand most of the tutorial's content

It is clear that the expectation from the vast majority of the total sample of students is that they should at least comprehend most of the content, which is presented within the setting of the tutorial.

Table 6 Understanding of Tutorial Content

Responses	Number (%) of responses				
	L1		L2		Total
All	31	(52.5)	4	(36.4)	35 (50)
Most	20	(33.9)	5	(45.5)	25 (35.7)
Half	8	(13.6)	2	(18.2)	10 (14.3)
Total	59		11		70

Again comparing the two samples by means of a *t*-test it can be seen that there is significant difference between the two sample groups. L1 students reporting that they have less difficulty with the understanding of course content than L2 students. Results can be seen in Appendix E Table 2.

Summary of Interaction and Participation

The data demonstrated that both L1 and L2 students perceive the tutorial as being only slightly more effective as a vehicle of learning than the lecture mode. It was apparent that the students, regardless of language shared a general agreement that the lecture and the tutorial have differing but complimentary roles in the process of university education. However, the supplementary narrative material appeared to show strong acknowledgement between the groups that interaction, necessary for clarification and optimal learning, was more likely to occur within the tutorial setting.

Interaction within the tutorial was seen as essential in achieving full learning potential. Interestingly, despite language difficulties, L2 students display a slightly greater

appreciation of the importance of interaction in the acquisition of necessary subject knowledge.

The majority of all respondents regardless of their first language held the expectation that frequent participation in tutorials was desirable. This expectation was slightly more pronounced in the case of L2 students. However, it was clear that all students regardless of declaration of importance did not see their own participation as sufficient. Reasons given for this, were the size of the group, group dynamics and the effectiveness of the tutors' role. There was emphasis given to the ability of the tutor to foster interaction and encourage discussion.

6.2.3 *Tutorial Preparation*

When asked to indicate one preference for different types of preparation the students regardless of language background were inclined to tick more than one of the responses.

Table 7 **Types of Tutorial Preparation**

Types of preparation	Number of responses		
	L1	L2	Total
Reading Preparation	49	7	56
Notes from Lectures	41	6	47
Prepared Discussion Points	19	2	21
Prepared Discussion Questions	22	4	26
None	0	0	0

Note. Percentages are not included as multiple responses were indicated by students.

All students appeared to acknowledge the requirement for some degree of preparation for tutorials. The pattern for both groups of students displayed a similar preference for reading preparation and notes gathered in corresponding lectures.

A six-point Likert scale was used to gauge the views of respondents to the value of adequate preparation to their tutorials. Table 8 demonstrates that 28.6% of all students consider preparation for tutorials to be very important with a further 27.1 % considering preparation to within the next highest classification with another 27.1% of all respondents falling within the third classification. It can be seen that the majority of all respondents (88%) rank preparation for tutorials as being of at least moderate importance.

Table 8 Importance of Preparation

Responses	Number (%) of responses					
	L1		L2		Total	
1	13	(22.0)	7	(63.6)	20	28.6
2	17	(28.8)	2	(18.2)	19	27.1
3	18	(30.5)	1	(9.1)	19	27.1
4	8	(13.5)	0		8	11.4
5	2	(3.4)	1	(9.0)	3	4.3
6	1	(1.7)	0		1	1.4
Total	59		11	(15.7)	70	

Note. Range indicates that 1 is the highest level of importance.

Analysis of the responses shows that L1 respondents rate the importance of adequate preparation for tutorials lower than L2 students. The statements made by the students in conjunction with Table 10, shown later in section on personal preparation, reinforce

the view held by L2 students that preparation is an essential element in the learning process. The students acknowledge the importance of adequate preparation for successful interaction within the tutorial.

When asked their opinion on how many students adequately prepare for tutorials it was significant that no respondents considered that *practically all* students prepared adequately. Only 13% of total respondents felt that many students took the trouble to do so. Almost half of the total respondents (47.8%) felt that half of the students attending tutorials were adequately prepared. Almost 40% of respondents felt that few or none of the students attending tutorials were adequately prepared. The results of a t-test show no significant difference between the L1 and L2 students with respect to adequate preparation. Table 9, which follows, shows the response frequencies.

Table 9 Student Perception of Tutorial Preparation

Responses	Number (%) of responses		
	L1	L2	Total
Practically all	0	0	0 (0)
Many	7 (12.0)	2 (18.1)	9 (13)
About half	29 (50.0)	4 (36.4)	33 (47.8)
A few	17 (29.3)	5 (45.4)	22 (31.9)
Practically none	5 (8.6)	0 (0)	5 (7.2)
Total	58	11	69

When asked personally whether they adequately prepared for tutorials, the respondents were equally split between those who felt that they were adequately prepared and those who felt that they were not. The following responses outlined in Table 10, indicates the frequencies for this question

Table 10 **Personal Preparation**

Responses	Number of responses		
	L1	L2	Total
Yes	26	6	32
No	27	5	32
Total	53	11	64

The t-test result reveals no significant difference found between L1 and L2 students. Although, there appears to be an equal split between those who adequately prepare for tutorials and those who do not, the supplementary information regardless of language background suggests that students are not satisfied with their own preparation.

There is evidence of ambivalence and disparity in the following comments and explanations given surrounding the area of preparation:

The following comments display recognition of the need for preparation.

I always review the notes of lectures and then go to tutorials. (L2)

Sometimes I do and sometimes I don't depending on workload, assignments etc. (L1)

Sometimes I don't prepare at all and this really makes a difference to how much I can contribute and understand in the tutorial. Just reading relevant material is excellent tutorial preparation. (L1)

Not really. Sometimes I did but most of the time I just tried to catch up what was taught in previous lesson. (L2)

I usually only read the required things an hour before or at the actual tutorial. (L1)

Other comments display an increasing lack of concern for the necessity of preparation.

I could definitely do more reading to be informed enough to discuss important points. I often feel that others seemed to have picked up more than me. (L1)

I often arrive unprepared. (L1)

If I completed all preparation, attended all lectures, allowed adequate reading time to complete assignments etc. for all four full time papers I would get 2 hours sleep a night! This is true. I calculated it out! (L1)

It was noted that those who considered that they prepared adequately for tutorials also determined that they were more likely to understand the content of the tutorial. This would seem to be an expected association. Focussed preparation would enable the student greater perceived assurance of enriched, confident interaction. Students also considered that prescribed focussed preparation would enable them to have the confidence to discuss content material.

The amount of preparation was perceived as a major factor in the ability of the students to actively engage in tutorial interaction. Many students acknowledged their own lack of preparation as an inevitable cause of inadequate interaction. Students who considered that their personal preparation was adequate also considered that that they had a higher likelihood of understanding the course content.

Summary of Tutorial Preparation

The most preferred types of preparation were prescribed reading and consulting notes from lectures. The majority of the students saw the link between preparation and the success of the tutorial. L2 students appeared to perceive preparation as a more significant factor than did L1 students.

Despite the acknowledgement that preparation was an essential element in the interaction and subsequent learning process the majority of students considered that they and others do not adequately prepare

6.2.4 The Tutors' Role

The issue of students' expectations in regard to their tutors was explored. The respondents were required to indicate their expectation with respect to the tutor's. The options were: (a) explain lecture content; (b) summarise existing information; (c) bring new information; (d) go beyond topic; and, (e) encourage discussion. Although respondents were specifically instructed to tick only one option some ticked more than one. The result of the frequency analysis displayed in Table 11 suggests that an overall pattern does exist.

Table 11 **Expectations of the Tutor**

View of Tutor's Task	Number of responses		
	L1	L2	Total
Explain Lecture Content	31	7	38
Summarise Existing Information	28	3	31
Bring new Information	7	1	8
Go Beyond the Topic	10	0	10
Encourage Discussion	42	4	46

Note. Percentages are not included as students indicated multiple responses.

It can be seen then that the majority of respondents felt that the most important role of the tutor was to encourage discussion with a smaller majority believing that the tutor's main role was to explain the content of lectures. The major proportion of the respondents did not believe that the tutor should be introducing new material via the tutorial. Only just over 14% of respondents felt that the role of the tutor was to go beyond the topic.

In regard to who is responsible for the overall success of the tutorial, the respondents were requested to select the lecturer, the tutor, the student or other option. Despite being asked to tick only one of the choices, on many occasions more than one category was again chosen. However, a pattern emerged revealing that there was an equal split between the expectation of student and tutor responsibility.

Table 12 **Responsibility for the Success of the Tutorial**

Considered Responsible	Number of responses		
	L1	L2	Total
The Lecturer	2	0	2
The Tutor	34	8	42
The Students	31	5	36
Other	10	0	10

Note. Percentages are not included as students indicated multiple responses.

Additional comments appeared to overwhelmingly acknowledge that the responsibility needs to be shared between all those involved in the tutorial

Both tutor & students. The tutor needs to know how to run a tutorial so that everyone participates and the students need to participate if they are to benefit in the short time allowed. (L1)

Everyone – its interactive time. (L1)

If students don't put the effort in they lose out. (L1)

All are responsible, lecturer for content, tutor for how its run and student for willingness to participate. (L1)

Students need to prepare and discuss, but it's the tutor's to encourage discussion and mediate. (L1)

I think the success depends on both parties: the tutors have to be easy to talk to and the student must be able to express ideas/questions clearly. (L2)

The tutor is the person who organises the tutorial, answers the questions, and gives examples to relate to lecture points. (L2)

The attributes of a tutor that encourage interaction were examined and the respondents were given a choice of five characteristics being asked to rank these in terms of importance. On this occasion L1 and L2 students were analysed separately to gauge the viewpoints of both groups of students.

Table 13a L1 Students' Response to Attributes for Student/Tutor Interaction

Ranking	Number of responses				
	Age	Gender	Experience	Qualification	Personality
1	1	1	26	3	31
2	1	0	24	10	21
3	6	2	5	36	7
4	37	5	1	4	
5	4	40	0	2	
Total	49	48	56	55	59
Mean Ranking	4.08	4.92	1.66	2.85	1.59

Note. Range indicates that 1 is the highest level of importance.

Table 13b L2 Students' Response to Attributes for Student/Tutor Interaction

Ranking	Number of responses				
	Age	Gender	Experience	Qualification	Personality
1	0	0	4	2	6
2	0		5	1	4
3	1	1	1	5	2
4	5	2	0	2	
5	3	6	0	0	
Total	9	9	10	10	12
Mean Ranking	4.22	4.56	1.70	2.70	1.67

Note. Range indicates that 1 is the highest level of importance.

It was clear that the majority of respondents regardless of their first language background saw the issue of both age and gender as of no importance and the mean ranking of both groups displayed a similar perspective. Textual responses from the questionnaire and the interview material specifically mention this as displayed in the following comments:

The tutor needs to have the personality and experience to control the progression of the tutorial; age and gender don't feature as a concern. (L1)

Age and gender are irrelevant although age and experience are probably closely linked. (L1)

Age and gender are irrelevant unless the tutor is young and doesn't have the confidence to admit when they are wrong. (L1)

Students verified that they considered personality as being the most important attribute with experience coming second with these comments:

I doubt that age or gender has anything to do with it at all but I feel that personality wise if you feel comfortable with the tutor and the tutor feels comfortable with you we will tend to have a greater rapport with each other .(L1)

If you don't get on you won't learn. (L1)

Tutors personality greatly gives us courage and confidence to ask questions about things we don't understand and to communicate without hesitation at all. (L1)

The majority of respondents do not see qualifications as being as important a factor in interaction as personality or experience. The following comments indicate these views:

Experience and personality because you can have all the qualifications in the world but not be able to teach because you come across like a text. (L1)

Qualifications mean nothing in the CV of a dry academic who doesn't like people & has never lived outside academia. (L1)

A tutor without qualifications should not be a tutor at all in the university. (L2)

There was also a question, which sought to solicit the respondents' views on what makes for good interaction between international students and their tutors. Responses were sought from both L1 and L2 students. It was apparent from the responses that L2 students take a similar view to that of local students as to what is important for L2/tutor interaction, namely, that age and gender are not important whereas experience and personality are perceived to be important characteristics. It is clear that experience and personality are the major contributors to the successful interaction within the tutorial group regardless of whether respondents are L1 or L2 students. Age and gender are of little significance in determining the quality of interaction between students and tutors. See Appendix E. for results.

There were some comments in the supplementary material, which displayed both preconceptions and embedded cultural stances.

Depend on the origins of the students, these factors could be vital. But then perhaps getting used to totally new situations is part of the educational process both inescapable and possibly desirable. (L1)

As long as they understand English nothing should change. (L1)

Gender could be bigger issue for some overseas students. (L1)

I think that personality is important and dealing with students with English as second language. They will know how to get the point across. (L2)

My culture favours men as academics. (L2)

Summary of the Tutors' Role

The majority of students saw the role of the tutor as instigator or facilitator of interactive discussion with a smaller section seeing the tutor as one who clarifies the lecture material.

On the issue of who has the responsibility of ensuring that the tutorial was effective the students perceived that the student and the tutor should take equally important roles. It was clear that the L1 students generally felt that they shared goals and aspirations regarding tutorials with the tutors but those L2 students demonstrated little empathy with their tutors. Supplementary material displayed that cultural background was perceived to have some impact on tutorial content and interpretation with students exposing their preconceptions and attitudes

In regard to what tutor attributes are necessary to encourage interaction, L1 and L2 students saw both age and gender as of little significance. Tutor personality appeared to be of foremost importance followed by experience. The majority of respondents did not see level of qualifications as a significant issue. There was no significant difference in views held by L1 or L2 students.

6.2.5 The Evaluating Tutorial Activities

Tables 14a and 14b below highlight the fact that, for L1 students, discussion with the tutor is the primary function of the tutorial. Questions and discussion activities follow this with each being seen as relatively important. All students rank writing, in tutorials as being least important.

Table 14a L1 Ranking of Tutorial Activities

Ranking	Number (%) of responses									
	Listening		Questions		Discussion with tutor		Discussion with peers		Writing	
1	11	(19.0)	19	(33.3)	26	(44.8)	10	(17.5)	2	(3.5)
2	11	(19.0)	11	(19.2)	21	(36.2)	15	(26.3)	1	(1.7)
3	10	(17.2)	19	(33.3)	7	(12.0)	18	(31.5)	0	(0)
4	26	(44.8)	8	(14.0)	4	(6)	8	(14.0)	9	(15.7)
5	0	(0)	0	(0)	0	(0)	6	(10.5)	44	(77.1)
Mean Ranking	2.9		3.3		3.6		3.7		4.6	

Note. Range indicates that 1 is the highest level of importance.

L2 students saw discussion with the tutor as being important but it was ranked less important than listening and questioning. As was the case with L1 respondents the L2 respondents did not consider writing to be an important activity.

Table 14b L2 Ranking of Tutorial Activities

Ranking	Number (%) of responses				
	Listening	Questions	Discussion with tutor	Discussion with peers	Writing
1	6 (54.5)	5 (45.4)	3 (27.2)	1 (9.0)	1 (9.0)
2	1 (9.0)	2 (18.1)	3 (27.2)	1 (9.0)	3 (27.2)
3	1 (9.0)	4 (36.3)	2 (18.1)	3 (27.2)	0 (0)
4	3 (27.2)	0 (0)	3 (27.2)	2 (18.1)	2 (18.1)
5	0 (0)	1 (9.0)	0 (0)	4 (36.3)	5 (45.4)
Mean Ranking	2.1	2.2	2.5	3.6	3.6

Note. Range indicates that 1 is the highest level of importance.

When asked what they thought were the most important things to be gained from a tutorial both L1 and L2 respondents were in agreement that understanding in the subject area was the most important outcome. As displayed in Tables 15a and 15b neither group saw the ability to transfer knowledge to other areas of study as being important.

Table 15a L1 Ranking of Tutorial Skills Gained

Responses	Number (%) of responses				
	Knowledge	Sufficient knowledge for good grades	Understanding in subject area	Knowledge which can be used in other subject areas	Valuable skills for life
1	6 (10.9)	10 (18.1)	42 (71.1)	0 (0)	4 (7.2)
2	23 (41.8)	12 (21.8)	8 (13.5)	11 (20.3)	0 (0)
3	18 (32.7)	20 (36.3)	7 (11.8)	6 (11.1)	5 (9.2)
4	3 (5.4)	7 (12.7)	1 (1.6)	25 (46.2)	17 (30.9)
5	5 (9.0)	6 (10.9)	1 (1.6)	12 (22.2)	28 (50.9)
Mean Ranking	2.2	2.7	1.5	3.7	4.2

Note. Range indicates that 1 is the highest level of importance.

Table 15b L2 Ranking of Tutorial Skills Gained

Responses	Number (%) of responses				
	Knowledge	Sufficient knowledge for good grades	Understanding in subject area	Knowledge which can be used in other study areas	Valuable skills for life
1	2 (18.1)	1 (9.0)	11 (100)	0 (0)	1 (9.0)
2	7 (63.6)	1 (9.0)	0 (0)	1 (9.0)	2 (18.1)
3	2 (18.1)	5 (45.4)	0 (0)	1 (9.0)	2 (18.1)
4	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	8 (72.7)	2 (18.1)
5	0 (0)	4 (36.3)	0 (0)	1 (9.0)	4 (36.3)
Mean Ranking	2	3.5	1	3.8	3.5

Note. Range indicates that 1 is the highest level of importance.

Summary of Evaluating Tutorial Activities

The primary function of the tutorial was perceived to be interactive discussion for the L1 students. In contrast the L2 students, while acknowledging the importance of discussion, saw the ability to listen and ask questions as the primary focus. Neither group saw any relevance in tutorial writing activities.

Students regardless of language saw the understanding of subject content as the most significant tutorial outcome. The ability to transfer skills and knowledge to other areas of study was seen as of little importance.

6.2.6 The Contribution of International Students

The question of whether or not respondents felt that the presence of overseas students in tutorials affected them was raised. The response required was a 'yes or no' with provision for the respondents to explain their answer with supplementary text.

Table 16 Responses to the Presence of L2 Students in Tutorial

Responses	Number of responses		
	L1	L2	Total
Yes	14	6	20 (29.4)
No	43	5	48 (70.6)
Total	57	11	68 (100)

Table 16 demonstrates that in the case of L1 respondents a significant number felt that the presence within tutorials of overseas students did not affect them. However, the supplementary text displayed that many students saw the presence of L2 students as beneficial.

Everyone contributes –varieties of experience.

They contribute to the tutorial (if language not a problem) in a worthwhile way & often add a dimension not thought of because of their different background.

I've never really noticed – some are really quiet, others like to ask questions.

Too much of tutorial time is wasted in explaining English jargon.

If overseas student was not understanding because of the language barrier & took all tutor's time then it would affect me.

They can't keep up. Very quiet; don't participate so don't share knowledge

L2 respondents were almost evenly split with 6 believing that the presence of overseas students did affect them and 5 believing that overseas students within the tutorial did not affect them. It is to be noted that the term 'affect' was taken to have both positive and negative aspects as was clarified in supporting text.

They also come to learn, as long as they don't disturb me. Then there is no effect.

If there are some overseas students – good I can relate more about language because locals really don't understand what you are going through.

Other overseas students easily understand if I have problems in course.

The presence of overseas students in tutorials makes me more active and relaxed

Summary of the Contribution of International Students

The majority of L1 students did not perceive that the presence of L2 students in their tutorial groups posed any cause for concern. In fact in some cases, students displayed an appreciation of the diversity of experience that L2 students brought to the tutorial and therefore saw their contribution as a positive factor. However, a minority of students did see L2 students as detrimental to the pace of tutorial.

In the case of L2 students there was an even distribution among those who considered that the inclusion of L2 students in a tutorial had an impact. The perceived impact was generally reflected in positive rather than negative terms. Increased numbers of L2 students would create a more sympathetic, understanding and collegial environment in which L2 students could interact more freely.

6.2.7 Student Difficulties

Table 17 shows that the majority of L1 respondents did not feel that they have more difficulty understanding course content than other students.

Table 17 Response to perceived personal difficulty with understanding of course content

Responses	Number (%) of responses		
	L1	L2	Total
No	46	5	51 (78.5)
Yes	8	6	14 (21.5)
Total	57	11	65 (100)

The following comments provided by the L1 students indicate that they feel that they have some difficulties with the demands of course content.

My communication skills are my weaknesses both oral & written (as probably seen).

I do with speaking out or discussions

I have trouble remembering the info.

The L2 respondents are again almost evenly split with 6 thinking that they did have more difficulty understanding course content and five taking the alternative view. The following comments illustrate these views.

I have a good grasp of the English language. Being older my life experiences give me a better background to studies undertaken and probably make me more eager not to fail.

By reading over notes and reading relevant material plus attending tutorials I think I have a fair understanding of course content.

I couldn't understand what is meaning of every word. Therefore I need to take time to understand, especially new concepts.

Sometimes I feel if the lecturer explaining too fast its hard to grasp.

Table 18 Responses to the Statement that Spoken Language is a Problem in Tutorials.

Responses	Number (%) of responses		
	L1	L2	Total
1	2	2	4 (5.7)
2	2	2	4 (5.7)
3	5	2	7 (10.0)
4	3	1	4 (5.7)
5	16	3	19 (27.1)
6	31	1	32 (45.7)
Total	59	11	70 (100)
Mean Ranking	5.1	3.4	4.8

Note. Range indicates that 1 is the highest perception of difficulty..

It is clearly shown in Table 18 that the overwhelming majority of L1 respondents do not exhibit difficulty with spoken language. However, it is interesting to note that a small minority are willing to acknowledge that they do in fact have problems with expression in their first language. However, L2 respondents are less emphatic about this issue and a significant proportion considers expression of ideas in second language to be a problem. The following comments illustrate this point:

Sometimes the idea is in my mind but the difficulty comes when I try to express myself. Sometimes I find writing it down better.

Mostly I can understand because the tutor speaks clearly to explain.

It is hard to quickly organise a sentence when I have questions or I can't understand what the tutor says at all.

Summary of Student Difficulties

L1 students generally perceived that they held a good understanding of course content and had few problems with expression of ideas in tutorials. Whereas L2 students declared that they had some difficulties absorbing necessary content and made a link between this and language limitations. A proportion of L2 students expressed the need for more time to allow for reflection and consideration of content material. A surprising result however, was the fact that a small proportion of L1 students also voiced concerns about their communicative abilities in tutorials and how this has impacted on their understanding of the course content.

6.3 Conclusion

This chapter has presented the data gathered from the responses of L1 and L2 students. It has largely compared the responses of the two groups of students to examine whether there is any significant difference in their perceptions of issues addressed in the questionnaire.

Chapter Seven

Results

7.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the data provided by the tutors that were involved in the teaching of education papers taken by the students in the study were analysed. The tutors were requested to respond to a questionnaire that was similar in content to the student questionnaire but which also focused on certain teaching areas that required further clarification. This additional data from the tutors gave a more comprehensive insight into the issues of student interaction in regard to tutorial participation, preparation, participation in tutorial activities and expected role of the tutor in the tutorial setting. There was also a section designed to ascertain the tutor's reaction to the presence of L2 students within the tutorial. This chapter presents results from the tutors' responses and does so with reference to the results gained from both L1 and L2 students.

7.2 The Response of the Tutors

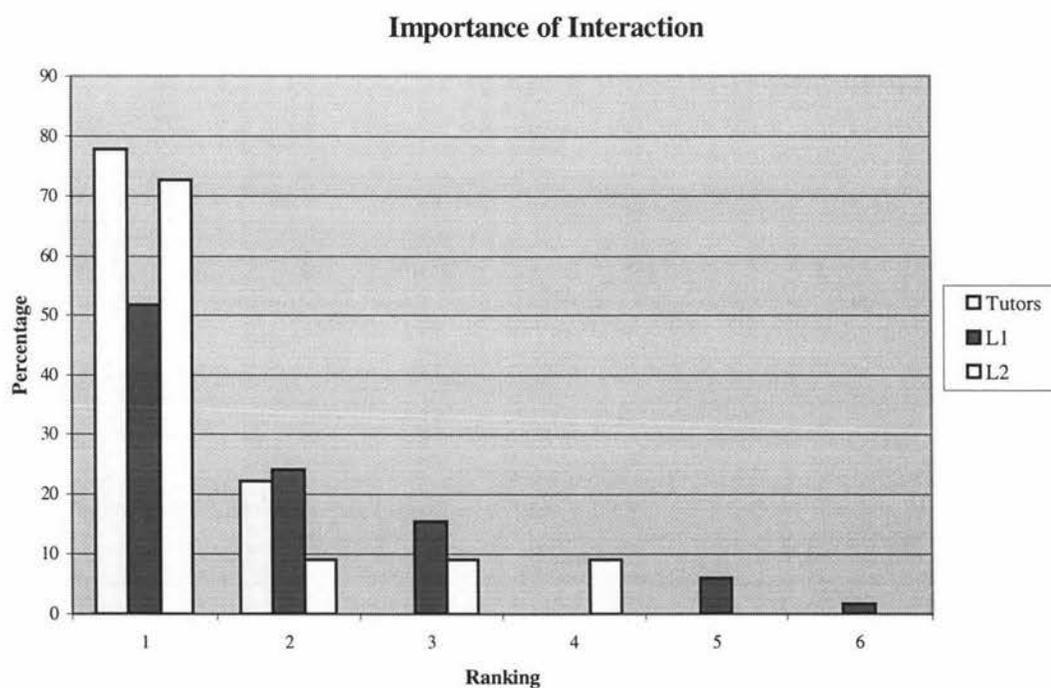
7.2.1 *Evaluating the Tutorial*

There was general agreement amongst the students that tutorial or small group learning was a worthwhile part of the tertiary education process. Tutors likewise saw this form of teaching as a rewarding experience.

7.2.2 Interaction and Participation

On the question of the value of interaction within the tutorial, the responses made by the tutors displayed many points of commonality with the opinions of both groups of students. Interaction in the tutors' opinion was a very important element in a tutorial with all the tutors' responses tending to cluster around the higher end of the scale. As displayed in Figure 3 responses from the three groups were closely aligned. However, L1 students had a greater distribution of views.

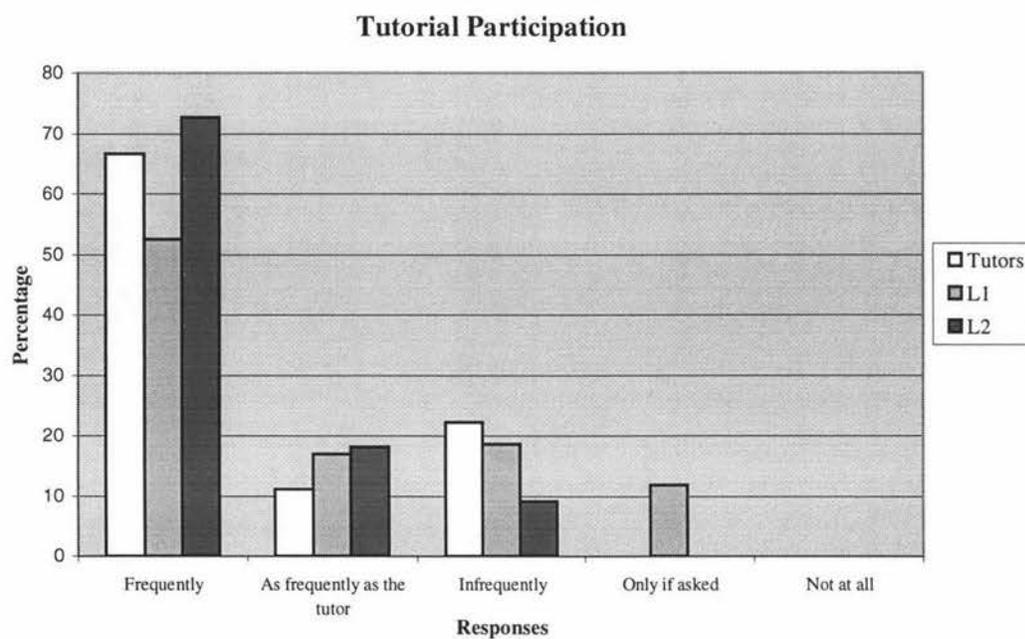
Figure 3: Importance of Interaction in the Tutorial



Despite all tutors in the survey acknowledging the importance of interaction in the learning process, 44.4% of the tutors thought that they could in fact do more to influence the interaction within their own tutorials. It was also acknowledged that the teaching style developed by the individual tutor did much to influence the interaction

within the tutorial group. On the subject of expectations of tutorial participation, Figure 4 again exhibits the general agreement between the participants.

Figure 4: Comparison of Views on Levels of Student Interaction within the Tutorial



All three groups saw that it was a requirement of the tutorial that students frequently participated. The wider range of answers came from some of the L1 students who demonstrated the possibility of infrequent participation on their part.

The following comments by the participating tutors confirmed that they believed in the effectiveness of tutorial teaching.

I am committed to interactive learning

Each tutorial is unique, using a variety of methods is important to encourage interaction.

However, the tutors seemed to be conscious of certain constraints, as the following statement would indicate.

You could always do more with more time.

7.2.3 Tutorial Preparation

There was little doubt from their comments that the tutors perceived that preparation was an essential element of the students' ability to benefit from learning within the tutorial. However, it was also widely reported that the degree of preparation undertaken by the students was considered by the tutors to be quite low. The tutors were asked to give their opinion on how many students adequately prepare for tutorials by marking their responses on a Likert scale with 1 being the highest proportion and 6 the lowest. The responses tended to cluster around the lower end of the scale demonstrating the low expectations of the tutors.

When questioned on the manner of preparation considered desirable a high proportion of tutors ranked reading preparation as of the highest priority, with 77.8% of the tutors ranking reading as one and 22.2% ranking it as two. This directly concurs with the opinion held by both groups of the students. The next priority was given to the reviewing of lecture notes with a high number of tutors (44.4%) agreeing with students' views. In relation to prepared discussion points and prepared questions tutors were in general agreement with students indicating that prepared questions were of less importance than prepared discussion points (55%).

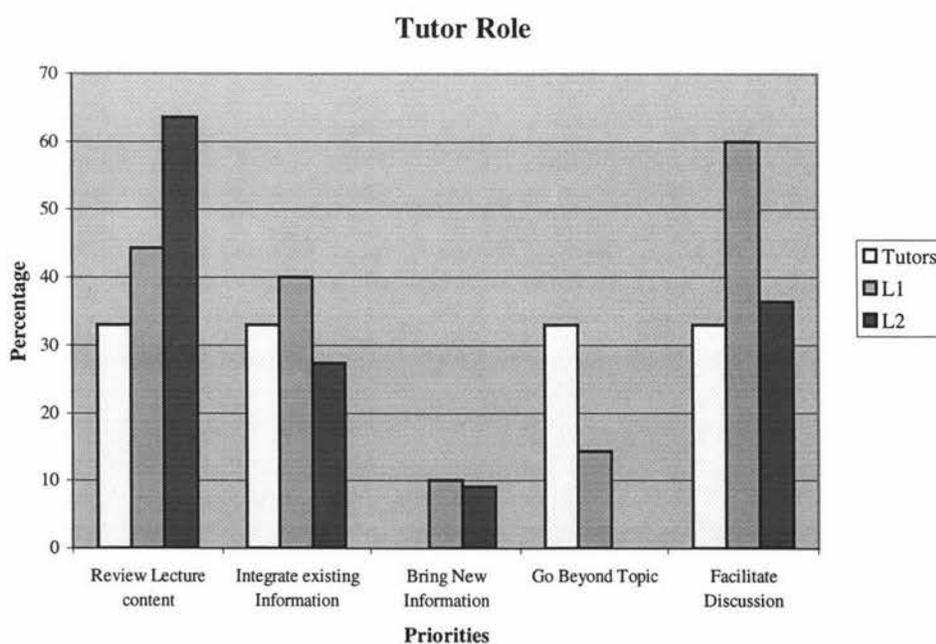
7.2.4 The Tutors' Role

A large number of the tutors (66.7%) believed that the responsibility for the tutorial lay solely with the tutor. The smaller proportion that saw it as a shared responsibility of tutor and student was only 11%. A statement such as the following expressed this surprisingly minority view.

A well organised and well prepared tutorial is the responsibility of the tutor but when it comes to being able to interact and partake in activities then both the student and the tutor are responsible.

This was echoed in the proportion that saw the responsibility as being split evenly between the lecturer, the student and the tutor. In the perceived role of the tutor, the responses clearly indicated that the tutors saw their principle task as that of reviewing lecture content, integrating their existing information and utilising the knowledge for further discussion. This is illustrated in Figure 5.

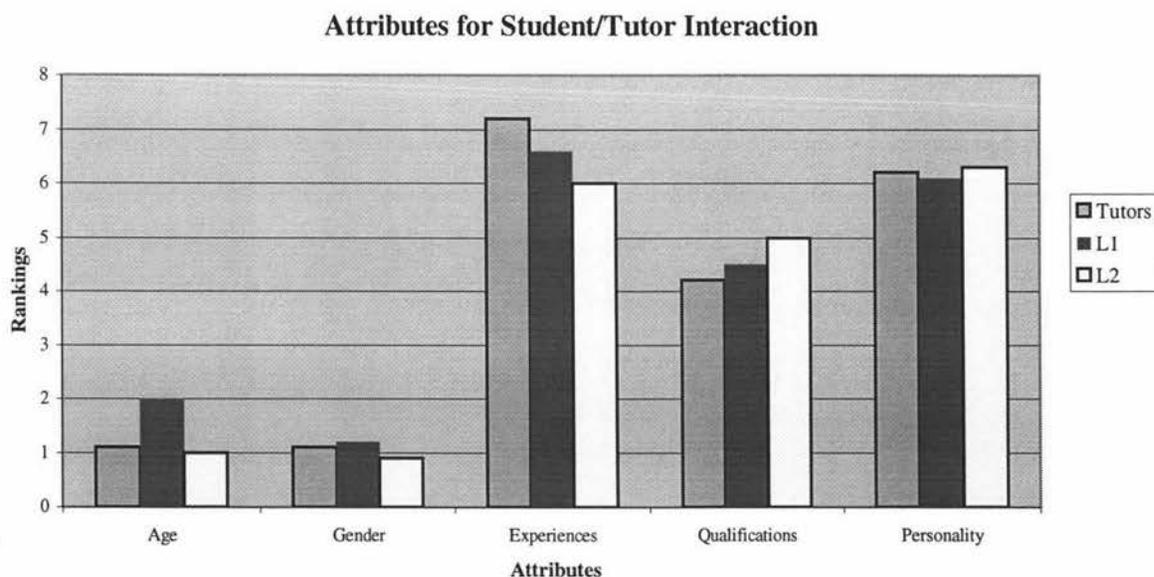
Figure 5 Perceived View of Tutors' Role within the Tutorial



Although the tutors clearly perceived that their role was evenly split between reviewing lecture content, integrating existing information, going beyond the topic and facilitating discussion, these views were not shared by the students. It is clearly illustrated in Figure 5 that L1 students predominantly saw the tutor's role as that of a facilitator of discussion within the tutorial. Whereas, the L2 students predominantly interpret the role of the tutor as a reviewer of information that has already been presented in tutorials.

In relation to the question of the personal factors that stimulate interaction within the tutorial group, again there was a high degree of congruence with age and gender being given a low ranking. In Figure 6 the mean ranking displayed that gender was in fact given the lowest ranking. Experience was clearly seen as being an important factor with 33.3% of tutors choosing this as the highest priority.

Figure 6 Positive Attributes for Student/Tutor Interaction



This viewpoint was closely echoed by the opinions of the two groups of students. Qualifications were ranked as highest by 11.1% while 88.8% of tutors ranked it as second or third. The issue of personality was given high ranking by 55.6% of tutors. The textual comments made by tutors gave further clarification of reasoning for these choices.

Experience allows a more effective use of limited tutorial time.

Personality affects interaction and the way the tutor relates to the students – this is the key to successful tutorials.

How the tutor approaches the tutorial session itself is picked up by the students and can make or break it as a positive learning environment.

The ability to relate to students is important and to make students feel part of the learning process.

When the three groups were asked to identify any attributes that were particularly necessary for situations that involved L2 students the response clearly indicated that necessary attributes were considered to be similar. These results are included in Appendix F. However, the comments made by the tutors clearly reinforced the need for experience in this area of teaching.

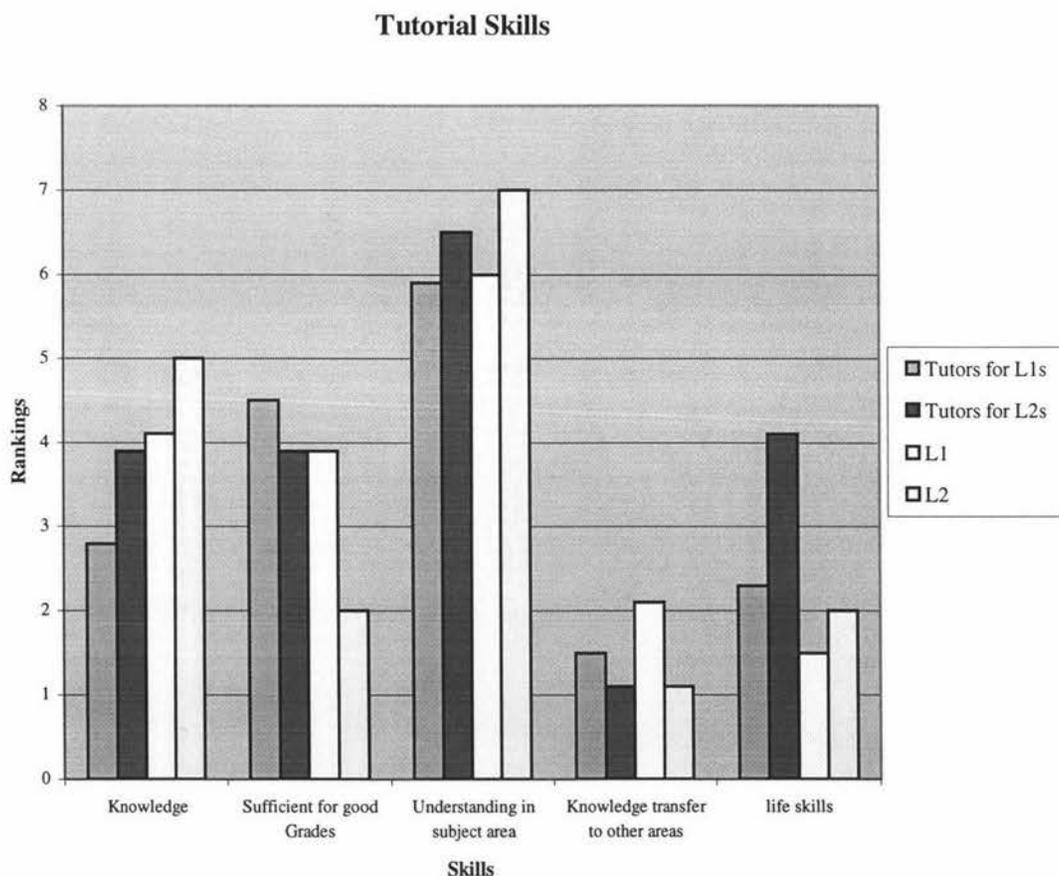
An inclusive, participatory style will have significant impact on the willingness of students to interact.

If the tutor has experience then the awareness of students from other cultures will make them vary their tutoring style to achieve a better level of integration and interaction.

7.2.5 Evaluating Tutorial Activities

In Figure 7 an understanding in subject area was clearly regarded as the highest priority for the students in the tutors' opinion with 100% of tutors ranking it 1 or 2 on a six-point scale. Viewed as least important was the gaining of knowledge that could be transferred to other study areas. The understanding in subject area was still considered by tutors (77.7%) as the most significant for all students regardless of first language and this was upheld by the students' responses.

Figure 7 Student Skills Gained from Tutorial Participation



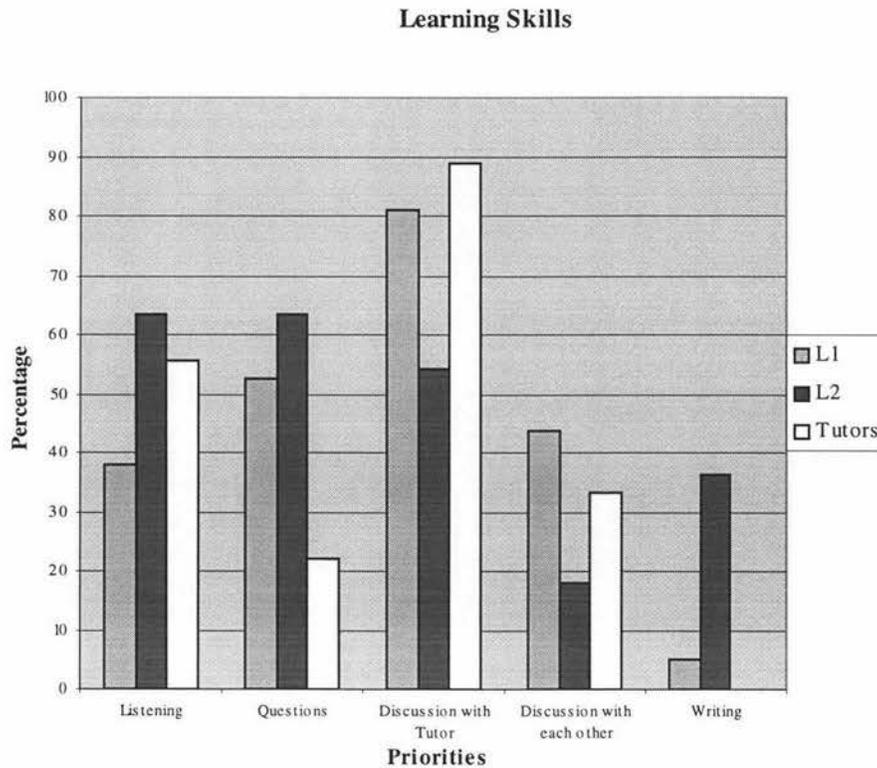
In the area of knowledge gain, L2 students saw this as of greater personal value to them than their tutors. Tutors perceived that knowledge gain was more important for L2

students than L1 students. In the area of receiving enough knowledge for good grades L2 students saw this as of less importance than L1 students and this was reflected in the tutors' views. Interestingly tutors saw lasting life skills as a more important gain than knowledge for L2 students although the L2 students did not share this view. This was reinforced by 77.7% of tutors having the expectation that a high proportion of the students will have a clear understanding of tutorial content.

The results of the tutors' responses to the ranking of the skills necessary for optimal success in tutorials are reported in Figure 8. The highest ranked skill was listening which was given a rating of one by 55.5% of the tutors. This was in sharp contrast to the opinion of L1 students who assigned little importance to it. L2 students however, shared more closely the opinions of their tutors.

The ability and opportunity to ask questions were given a low ranking by tutors with only 44% seeing it as important and 33.3% seeing it to be of moderate importance. The students directly concurred with this view. The active discussion between the tutor and the student in tutorials was very highly rated by tutors with 88.9% viewing it as a priority. Students did not share this view with L2 students seeing it as a lower priority than L1 students did. The importance of interactive exchange between student groups in the tutorial received a middling to low response by 66% of tutors, with only 33.3% regarding it as a high priority. Students generally appeared to share this view with the L2 students seeing it as of less significant importance.

Figure 8 Student Skills Perceived as Necessary for Tutorial Success



The opportunity to use writing as a skill within the tutorial was seen as of low priority by all the tutors with only a small proportion of L1 students giving it any value. However, it is notable that the L2 students see it as a more significant learning tool and in fact put it before the importance of peer interaction.

7.2.6 *Contribution of International Students*

A large portion (66.6%) of the tutors declared that the inclusion of L2 students within their tutorials had impacted on tutorials to a high degree. Tutors were also asked to consider what were the specific benefits for international students in the tutorial setting.

The following comments indicate an awareness of the needs of L2 students in the tutorial and the awareness of the positive learning experiences they may gain in this setting.

As much, perhaps more than the N.Z. students.

Hopefully – self-confidence, better understanding of course content.

Reinforces lecture content and provides the opportunity to clear up any problems

Personal contact important for L2 students. A chance for one to one contact and gives the tutor a chance to spot learning difficulties.

There was also an acknowledgement that the interaction that takes place within the tutorial setting has, for L2 students, a value beyond that of reinforcing course content. The following comments indicate a positive social dimension to intercultural interaction while acknowledging the limitations that lack of language proficiency may impose.

Apart from the obvious content knowledge, the ability to interact with other local students and gain vocal reinforcement

The opportunity to clarify things that they don't understand and possibly chance to interact with Kiwi students – although in my experience this is rare.

Listening to discussion of other students and tutor. They are usually wary of interaction.

Interact with other and use relevant language – although many are shy in a group setting.

However, the overall impact of L2 students within the tutorial did not appear to be a negative one with many tutors viewing it as having a positive influence on their teaching style as the following comments indicate.

Makes you aware of your own teaching limitations – a must to cater for all students.

It has made me aware of the need to speak clearly, to highlight important items in writing, and make myself accessible after class.

I try not to use complex sentences and colloquialisms when giving explanations.

All students have special needs but perhaps needs of L2 students tend to be more obvious and generally recognised e.g. language difficulties.

7.2.7 Student Difficulties

All the tutors considered that many L2 students lacked sufficient language skills to benefit from tutorial instruction and a high proportion (88.9%) of the tutors were of the opinion that L2 students would have difficulty understanding the course material presented.

Many L2 students use all their energy in trying to grasp enough knowledge to get through the course. Often their grades don't reflect the amount of effort they put in.

I don't believe that there should be different benefits for different groups of people – I do believe that many overseas students place a higher emphasis on good grades than their Kiwi counterparts.

Tutors were specifically asked to outline the skills that they considered necessary for L2 students to possess if they were to gain from tutorial participation. The issue of language competence was highly visible with all tutors listing it as necessary. However, it was clear that views on type of language proficiency varied between tutors.

Language, confidence, preparation.

Language as in specialist terms, the ability to ask questions and seek help.

Ability to express themselves and interact.

Sufficient language skills and bravery to speak-up and have their say

Language, listening and discussion skills.

Language and understanding specific demands of the institution

7.3 Summary

It is clear that all respondents in this study perceived that the tutorial or small group setting was advantageous to the students' learning process. The interaction that took place within this learning environment was deemed desirable if not always utilised fully by the students. Teaching style and the tutors' interpersonal skills were perceived as influential precursors for optimal participation. L2 students were recognised to gain more benefit than the L1 students in this interactive environment where clarification, reinforcement, and their specific learning problems could be addressed.

The need for preparation was given prominence by all three groups of participants and seen as a necessary component of the students' ability to initiate and participate in interactive discussion. Tutors as expected, emphasised the limitations of the ill-prepared students. The students regardless of first language echoed this point.

However, earlier data revealed that the students despite acknowledging benefits of preparation and consequences of lack of preparation did not adequately prepare.

There was a divergence of opinion not on the attributes of what makes a good tutor, but on who has the responsibility for ensuring that a tutorial is successful. Tutors seemed to see this as their responsibility whereas the students acknowledged that they were active participants in the success of this process. In the tutorial, the tutors understood that their role was shared between reviewing lecture content, integrating new information, going beyond the topic, and facilitating discussion. However, the L1 and L2 students were divided over this issue with L1 students clearly recognising that discussion facilitated by the tutor was the primary function of the tutorial followed by review of lecture content and integration of existing information. L2 students prioritised review of lecture material followed by discussion and integration of new material. Figure 8 reinforces this viewpoint where L2 students saw discussion with the tutor as less important than listening and asking questions.

Understanding in subject areas was considered as a priority for both students and tutors followed by knowledge and ability to gain good grades. Tutors expected that L1 students would have a greater interest in gaining knowledge than in good grades but the responses of the L1 students did not support this. However, it was the L2 students that reflected this pattern in contrast to their tutors' expectations.

There was little doubt that the inclusion of L2 students in the tutorial has had an impact on the learning environment of the tutorial. Language limitations were considered a major issue in allowing students to fully utilise the interactive approach advocated by the tutorial. It was also clear that language proficiency as a term needed clarification and held different meanings for different tutors. Some interpreted it narrowly as

language skills whereas others saw it more as an issue of academic competence. Despite linguistic concerns there was a general appreciation from both tutors and students as to the benefits of L2 students within the tutorial both to the dynamics of the tutorial itself and to the awareness of teaching strategies that would benefit all students.

7.4 Conclusion

It would appear from the responses outlined in the survey that both L1 and L2 students share many of the difficulties with regard to tutorial participation. The main difference was predictably that of language competence but even this was not perceived as an insurmountable barrier by L2 students. The degree of similarity between the students' expectations of tutorial demands, and personal responsibility for the learning outcomes of both groups of students would support the need to focus on effective teaching principles which would foster interaction in a diverse student population.

Chapter Eight

Deliberations

8.1 Introduction

This chapter will discuss the findings of the previous two chapters in relation to the original research questions. The purpose is to evaluate the findings of the comparative element of the study and ascertain the degree of congruence present in the expectations, priorities, attitudes, and problems of L1 and L2 students in regard to interaction within the university tutorial

8.2 Evaluating the Tutorial

There was a general agreement between all three groups of respondents in the study that the tutorial setting was a valuable part of the university learning experience. In regard to whether it was a superior medium to that of the larger lecture the students were not as emphatic in their certainty as the tutors. Students, regardless of first language were evenly divided as to whether the lecture had added value over the tutorial. As in the study by Flowerdew & Millar (1992) students displayed an appreciation of the complimenting role of both mediums of learning and it was evident that the students along with the tutors acknowledged the need for balance between these two mediums.

Tutors unanimously claimed that they found teaching in tutorials a rewarding and satisfying experience. They also perceived themselves as having a greater responsibility for the success of the tutorial. This was a view not shared by the majority of the students. The students openly acknowledged that success of learning within the tutorial was a responsibility shared by all participants not merely the tutor.

8.3 Interaction and Participation

It was clear from the study that all students and tutors were in agreement in their appreciation of the role of interaction in their learning process. This was consistent with Vygotsky's (1896-1934) perspective that learning primarily occurs through interaction. A high proportion of the students agreed with the views of their tutors and saw interaction as an essential element of the university tutorial. Exchange of ideas and communication were perceived as a clear route to a greater understanding of ideas and concepts presented in the course. It is also clear that L2 students saw the tutorial as a venue for listening and asking questions rather than a forum for discussion of the issues.

A vast majority of L2 students rated interaction as an important element in the learning process. This would support the idea that L2 students despite their linguistic proficiency expect to be actively involved in the interaction process within the tutorial and appreciate the link between interaction and learning. There is a strong degree of congruence between the value of discussion and expression of ideas in promoting the understanding of subject matter, between the L1 and L2 students. This contrasts with the previously held belief that international students "rely more heavily on

memorisation and less on understanding”(Samuelowicz, 1987, p. 123) than their local counterparts.

It is interesting to note that despite language barriers, the L2 students had higher expectations in regard to the need for personal participation. L1 students displayed a more complicated view, for while admitting the desirability of participation within the tutorial, they freely acknowledged that they themselves could be more active. Justification for these responses indicated that there were barriers in place that did not permit the students to fulfil their own expectations in regard to interaction. The predominant reasons given by the students for lack of participation were given as tutorial size, effectiveness of the tutor, group dynamics and lack of preparation.

Size of Tutorial

Students expressed the desire for smaller group settings feeling that they would be able to participate more freely in the more intimate setting. The size of the group appeared to play a part in the students' ability to actively participate with even groups of fifteen plus being seen as too impersonal. There surfaced a general consensus that any group over twelve was too large for effective participation. This view would be supported by Rivers, (1986), Kumar, (1992) and De Klerk (1995) who emphasised that the smaller groups allowed students to invite and receive vocal feedback in a more immediate form.

Group Dynamics

Some students saw the influence of group dynamics as a barrier to successful student interaction, particularly citing the dominance of certain students. These students were perceived to attract more of tutor's time and sway the content and direction of the discussion within the group. This would be consistent with the model proposed by Bailey (1983 cited in Ellis, 1985) who saw competitiveness as a major source of anxiety for students. This anxiety could have two functions one being withdrawal and ultimately impaired performance or alternatively it could cause increased effort that would enhance learning. Crebin (1994) identified many of the problems associated with group dynamics such as competitive attitude, personality clashes, dominant students, and unequal workload. However, it should be noted that the dominant students who posed a problem with the students surveyed could also be the students who adequately prepared for tutorials or used prior experience to articulate their views. Richards & Hurley (1988) highlighted the advantage of experience in the educational setting where, the students use this "to predict the new content of a lesson and to 'connect' that content to more familiar information" (p. 47).

Anxiety for many of these anxious and withdrawn students could be attributed to 'institutional shock', as students are often expected to participate in an interactional discourse with little instruction on how this can be achieved (Kemp & Seagraves, 1995). This would equally be true for L1 and L2 students and as highlighted by student responses the more experienced and therefore more vocal students would clearly have an advantage.

8.4 Tutorial Preparation

This was a major area of discussion as it was acknowledged by the tutors to be an essential part of the process of learning. The students also reinforced this opinion but here the gap between desirability and reality widened. The students while acknowledging that the lack of preparation was inclined to hamper their ability to actively participate in tutorials also acknowledged that few actively prepare for tutorials. Students were equally divided as to their own personal degree of preparation. Explanatory comments tended to list reasons for lack of preparation as issues involving time management. These reasons included the assertion of unrealistic study demands by university and lack of forward planning by student. This would be supported by Flowerdew & Millar (1992) who also allude to the fact that students freely acknowledge that if they pre-read appropriate materials then they have a better understanding of the information presented in tutorials and lectures.

This was an area of particular interest supported by Bouffler (1994) who noted in a survey of first year education students that “one third are at best minimalist readers only reading when forced to do so by assessment or tutorial demands”(p. 47). This would be consistent with the views held by the tutors who had very low expectations in regard to student preparation.

It was also evident that students who prepared adequately for tutorials considered that their peers did the same. However, students who did not adequately prepare were inclined to think that others also failed to do so.

8.5 Tutor Role

The most obvious feature of the expectations of students and tutors in regard to the tutor's role is that all groups held views that were closely aligned. Minor differences indicated that tutors were inclined to see themselves as interpreting or reviewing existing information rather than facilitating discussion within the group. This view is more closely aligned with L1 students who identify the tasks of the tutor as clarification of lecture content and ability to condense the necessary information. Whereas, the L2 students felt that it was the tutors role to respond to questions and explain lecture content to a greater degree than encourage discussion.

It was clear from the study that factors such as personality and experience were the most important elements according to the views of the students. This is contrary to the views of De Klerk (1995) or Husbands (1996) who indicate that student behaviour is determined by the gender of tutor. They would contend that the perceived power is greater for the male tutors who command a greater degree of respect from the students. There was little evidence to support this preconception from the responses of L1 or L2 students in the present study. In fact students saw gender and age as having a minor influence on tutorial success. It could be argued that this is reflective of the power/distance characteristics of New Zealand's cultural expectations proposed by Hofstede (1991). However, it does not account for the views of L2 students who, according to Hofstede, would generally be expected to fall into the more hierarchical, gender specific system and perceive the male educator as the one more likely to demand respect. This could indicate that L2 students are assimilating the ideas of the host

culture more readily than would be expected or that the preconceived ideas of the establishment are too generalised to be useful.

Qualifications were not generally perceived as significant but L2 students showed an expectation that these would be part of the necessary eligibility for the job as a tutor.

8.6 Tutorial Activities

The primary goal for all students and their tutors was emphatically the understanding of the course content. This common goal for all participants would naturally contribute to the attainment of reputable grades by the students. The students did not regard other areas, which covered knowledge transfer and life skills, as highly significant. This contrasts with the findings of an Australian study (Purdie, 1994) where Japanese students claimed to see learning as reaching beyond the classroom to personal fulfilment.

The fact that a significant number of students ranked 'sufficient knowledge for good grades' as high priority is probably not surprising but it does correspond with Child & Williams (1996) warning. They claim that higher education has become not a place for vigorous intellectual exchange but a place where "learning and teaching are characterised by dispensing and gathering bits of information which are used to purchase grades, degrees and eventually jobs" (p. 41).

8.7 Contribution of International Students

There was no doubt that the tutors saw the inclusion of L2 students as having a high impact on their tutorials. Limitations in language were raised as a prominent issue by tutors as this was seen as a barrier to full absorption of the course content. This is consistent with views proposed by Adamson (1993) who supports the idea that L2 students will have a negative impact on the learning environment and be described as problem students (Hargan, 1995) by their teachers.

Inclusion of L2 students although problematic was also observed as a positive element in the tutorial. There was a real appreciation of the variation in cultural experiences that these students could contribute. Biggs (1997) concurred with the belief of the students that inclusion of L2 students could be a positive force giving an added depth to the dynamics within the group. He also saw the new demands on the tutors as beneficial in requiring the tutor to employ new more effective teaching strategies that would enhance the learning experience for all students.

8.8 Student Difficulties

As previously stated L2 students all acknowledged that they had some degree of difficulty with language within the tutorial and that this influenced their ability to interact and express their ideas to their own satisfaction. An expression of the need for more time to process thoughts and formulate an argument was prominent. Sato (1990) indicated that this was a problem for L2 students as there was not sufficient acknowledgement granted to the need, of these students to be given sufficient time to answer and contribute to discussions.

L2 students expressed a desire for tutors to be aware of cultural differences and the requirements that accompany these. Silent attention to the tutor often gives the impression of inactivity in students whereas the students are often waiting to be called upon. This lack of cultural knowledge has implications for both the student and the tutors, for if tutors misunderstand the lack of student response then the interactional dynamics of the tutorial are at risk. Scollon (1999) supports this concern stating that teachers who feel that they do not get sufficient feedback from their students lower their expectations, simplifying language and using more direct questions. There needs to be greater understanding of L2 student requirements for the sake of both parties.

L2 students in the study did not demonstrate any envy or resentment in regard to L1 students' relationship with the tutor within the tutorials. This is in contrast to the findings documented by Wong & Filmore (1982, cited in Richards & Hurley, 1988) who claim that when there is a mix of L1 & L2 students within a class then the teacher predominantly focuses attention on L1 students and makes few demands on L2 students.

L2 students did comment that the presence of other L2 students within the tutorial gave them a greater degree of confidence as they shared the same problems. Volet & Kee (1993) support this view stating that equal numbers of local and international students allows the students to feel more comfortable and therefore willing to risk greater participation. Richards & Hurley claim that L2 students, given the opportunity, will interact more frequently with other L2 students and therefore increase their participation.

Chalmers & Volet (1997) refer to a lack of tutorial participation as the result of culturally appropriate beliefs and behaviours and perceived language concerns. This can be verified to a degree by the L2 student responses in this study and corresponds with the view of DeVillar & Faltis (1991) who emphasise the relationship between the individual student's success and social interaction. It is however, to be noted that the L2 students, as do L1 students, link their lack of preparation to inadequate subject understanding and the subsequent ability to interact, as strongly as the local students.

Tutors also acknowledged the fact that the amount of preparation and effort that the L2 student often puts into the course is not reflected in their final grade.

8.9 Summary

This chapter considered the opinions of the tutors and both groups of students in relation to the original research questions. L1 and L2 students and their tutors did display a strong degree of congruence on the expectations, priorities, attitudes, and problems in regard to interaction within the university tutorial. There was a general agreement as to the value of the tutorial and the interactive learning that takes place.

An acknowledgement was granted that L2 students do have language limitations that interfere with their ability to fully participate but it was also noted that L1 students perceive that they also have difficulty in fully participating for a variety of reasons.

There was a high degree of congruence between the groups on the role that the tutor has in the tutorial and the factors that influence the successful tutor. Personality was a factor for tutors and the students on the dynamics within the group. Preparation or the lack of preparation was also a factor that had a direct influence on the ability of the

student to function successfully within an interactive situation. This was acknowledged by all three groups in the study to have a negative impact on student performance. Students and their tutors appeared to be aware of this factor but showed little evidence of taking active steps to rectify the problem.

Overall there was a supportive appreciation of the inclusion of L2 students within the tutorial setting and responses showed a favourable and accepting attitude towards these students.

Chapter Nine

Conclusions

Introduction

The principle aim of this study was to look at the problems that L2 students have to cope with in relation to content learning and how the tutorial medium is expected to support them in achieving academic success. In order to achieve this, it was necessary to contrast their expectations of the interactive learning that occurs within the tutorial with those of the L1 students. The final chapter will examine the conclusions that can be drawn from this study and the possible implications for further research in this area.

Pedagogical Implications

This study revealed that many of the problems that were faced by L2 students within the context of the university were not unique to those students but were present for many of the L1 students. Also it was clear that a majority of students shared the feelings of apprehension when faced with not only new subject content, but also an unfamiliar learning medium. Counter to expectations about the difficulty of the interactive tutorial, the context-reduced lecture was in fact a greater cultural shock for L1 students than L2 students who were used to the more formal type of education. Nonetheless a number of important issues surrounding tutorials were identified.

The tutorial setting, being a more intimate environment, should have been a more comfortable learning climate for all students. However, the ability to discuss, critique, and deliberate on issues did not appear to come easily to either group of students. These attributes are necessary prerequisites if the students are to develop skills that will allow them to broaden their learning experience beyond the mere absorption of knowledge. Given the absence of these skills it would seem to be a worthwhile exercise for both groups of students to be exposed to instruction in the ability to consider and contest theoretical assumptions.

Students' reasoning for lack of academic communication skills has been discussed in the previous chapter but however the issue of student expectations deserves further comment. L2 students have reason to enter the university system with an incomplete knowledge of what is expected of them, however, many L1 students also come into university life with the same unattainable expectations of their own. There is a lack of awareness of cognitive interactive and task demands that are required for academic success. It also need to be noted that the L2 students clearly expect to be actively involved in the tutorial and are not content to be silent participants protected, regardless of good intentions, from the rigors involved in the interactional learning process. Teachers not displaying equal expectations when it comes to the L2 students in their tutorials can often unwittingly reinforce poor participation from these students.

The reasoning for this lack of readiness for University study must go beyond simple lack of relevant information. The open entry university system, followed in New Zealand, eager to enrol all students seems to assume that all students are capable of surviving within an

academic environment. This study has highlighted the fact that it is not only the L2 student with language limitations that has difficulty but also the linguistically competent L1 student. Students who have little academic experience and unrealistic expectations can be seen to have similar problems in acclimatising to the institutional culture.

It would seem that most students would benefit from experience of the major modes of learning in universities before they began their academic year particularly in the area of preparation. It was apparent that the lack of student preparation was a barrier to the ability of students to gain fully from the interactional form of learning. This was evident in student responses and despite the view of the hardworking Asian student was documented in both groups of students. However, it is possible that the cultural view of adequate preparation could be different. Regardless of this it was clear that the majority of students, for whatever reason, were not fully participating in course requirements and this was hampering their tutorial performance.

Despite the fact that the data showed little in the way of culturally specific issues it would still seem valuable for all staff to be made aware of need to take account of cultural differences. At present new university staff are exposed to staff development courses that include an optional module on the specific needs of international students. Such programmes that focus on cultural awareness need to be a requirement for all staff, if the university hopes to cater for the planned expansion of international students. These are useful and appropriate areas of concentration but are we not really raising the issue of the need for fully trained and evaluated educators that need to be armed with rapidly evolving

teaching strategies. Strategies that will allow them to cope with the variation of students who may include those with English as a second language.

Regardless of the corresponding educational requirements of the two groups of students it seems clear that L2 students do have particular needs in the area of language support. In order to ensure they can gain equal opportunities in all learning situations they need access to appropriate learning support. Support for L2 students generally involves early assessment of language ability and then relies on the student recognising their own limitations and inadequacies and asking for appropriate assistance. L1 and L2 can access assistance in the form of academic skills such as note taking and writing skills. This assistance comes from a source that has little knowledge of course content or relevant demands. Effective support would need to come from informed inclusive personnel who could provide structured support allowing students to express knowledge in an appropriate academic form.

The foremost need would be the predominance of reflective teachers within the University who can assess and cater for the needs of all the students and are able to adapt the prescribed content material so that it is accessible to all students. This is no doubt a grand ideal for as this study has revealed it is not just the skills of the tutor that are important but also the commitment of the students.

These recommendations, however desirable, may be constrained by the reality of the present university culture. The student population, at present, contains students with a range of abilities, experience, and competence. This is especially revealed especially within the tutorial setting and requires skilled reflective teaching far beyond the

presentation of content material. Considering the contraction of tutorial time driven by semesterisation and the dropping of points value it would seem fair to consider whether these students, are becoming less likely to achieve their optimal potential. Indeed this study clearly displayed that all the students, regardless of first language, were aware of the advantage of more contact time with their educators.

Implications for Further Study

The present study was limited to one course within the College of Education so it would be useful to replicate it in other courses to ascertain if the expectations of the students varied. It would also be useful to replicate the study across Colleges within the University to ascertain if there is in fact a college culture in student attitude to interactive learning.

The number of L2 students in the study was relatively small in comparison to the number of L1 students so it would be useful to replicate this study with a larger group of L2 students, using equal samples of both groups to enable a more in-depth statistical analysis.

In the present study, the tutors in the sample were of mixed gender but all were of Western origins. In view of the high numbers of L2 lecturers and tutors in the University, it would be valuable to contrast their expectations with those of the L1 tutors. This could then be contrasted with the expectations of their students.

The present study took place in the context of one university course. A longitudinal study could contrast the expectations and attitudes of the students in their subsequent courses and years at the university to ascertain if the acculturation process allows the students to become progressively more academically attuned to the requirements of the university.

An issue that is also prominent is the link between students lack of preparation and their failure to actively participate and gain full value from their learning experience. It is unclear whether the students have a full understanding of what constitutes adequate preparation. Expectations of the lecturer may not be stated explicitly, may be too general, and rely on cultural preconceptions. It would seem that the teaching staff would themselves benefit from the standardisation of some of their practices.

The present study was descriptive. However, there is great potential in correlation research, which would establish relationship between the expectations and experiences of first year and such factors as the attrition rate for these students and range of grade achievement among these students.

Concluding Remarks

While there is no doubt that the L2 students within the university setting have interactional difficulties, it would seem that these have many shared elements with local or L1 students. In fact the similarities and problems that these students face tend to have more commonalties than differences. A common theme for all these first year students is the inaccurate or incomplete knowledge that they base their expectations of university life upon. Dealing with such issues demands a broad base of teaching strategies that can be effective in dealing with students of varied abilities and prior experience.

Interactional competence for all students would seem to be a desirable outcome for both students and their tutors. This is not only a measure of the understanding of course material but also an indication of the satisfaction of the student with their own success

within the course. This study has attempted to reveal insight into the reality of student expectations and how they converge with those of their tutors in the mutual goal of student success.

Bibliography

- Adams, B., & Howarth, P. (Eds.). (1991) *Socio-cultural issues in English for academic purposes. 1(2)*. London: Macmillan Publishing.
- Adamson, H.D. (1990). ESL students use of academic skills in content courses. *English for Specific Purposes, 9*, 67-87.
- Adamson, H.D. (1993). *Academic competence theory and classroom practice: Preparing ESL students for content courses*. New York: Longman Publishing Group.
- Adler, P.S. (1975). The transitional experience: An alternative view of culture shock. *Journal of Humanistic Psychology, 15*, 13-23.
- Anderson, R. (1983). *Pidginization and creolization as language acquisition*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.
- Anderson, A. (1988). Cultural patterns affecting teacher and student expectations. In R. Dash, (Ed.), *The challenge: Preparing teachers for diverse student populations*. (Roundtable Report, pp. 5-8). Washington DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement
- Applegate, J.L., & Sypher, H.E. (1988). A constructivist theory of communication and culture. In Y. Kim, & W. Gudykunst (Eds.), *Intercultural communication* (pp. 41-66). Newbury Park: Sage Publications.
- Argyle, M. (1982). Inter-cultural communication. In S. Bocher (Ed.), *Cultures in contact: Studies in cross-cultural interaction* (pp. 61-80). Oxford: Pergamon.
- Astin, A. (1991). *Assessment for excellence*. New York: Macmillan.
- Ballard, B. (1987). Academic adjustment: The other side of the export dollar. *Higher Education Research and Development, 6* (2), 109-119.
- Ballard, B., & Clanchy, J. (1988). *Studying in Australia*. Melbourne: Longman Cheshire.
- Ballard, B., & Clanchy, J. (1991). *Teaching students from overseas*. Melbourne: Longman Cheshire.
- Banks, S., Gao, G., & Baker, J. (1991). Intercultural encounters and miscommunication. In N. Coupland, H. Giles and J.M. Wiemann. (Eds.). *Miscommunication and problem talk* (pp. 103-120). Newbury Park London: Sage Publications.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K., Hartford, B., Mahan-Taylor, R., Morgan., & Reynolds, D. (1991). Developing pragmatic awareness: Closing the conversation. *ELT Journal, 45* (1), 4-15.

- Barnard, R. (1998). Non-English speaking background learners in New Zealand schools. *New Zealand Journal of Educational Studies*, 33 (1), 107-115.
- Belensky, M., Clinchy, B., Goldberger, N., & Tarule, J. (1986). *Women's ways of knowing: The development of self, voice and mind*. New York: Basic Books.
- Benson, M.J. (1989). The academic listening task: A case study. *TESOL Quarterly*, 23, 421-445.
- Berger, C. (1997). *Planning strategic interaction: Attaining goals through communicative action*. London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Bertola, P., & Murphy, E. (1994). *Tutoring at University: A beginner's practical guide*. Curtin: Paradigm Books.
- Biggs, J. (1991). Approaches to learning in secondary and tertiary students in Hong Kong: Some comparative studies. *Educational Research Journal*, 6, 27-39
- Biggs, J. (1997). Teaching across and within cultures: The issue of international students. (pp. 1-15) *Learning and teaching in higher education: Advancing international perspectives*. Taupo: HERDSA.
- Biggs, J. B. (in press). Stages of expatriate involvement in educational development: Colonialism, irrelevance, or what? *Educational Research Journal*.
- Bouffler, C. (1994). Reading and learning at tertiary level. In W. Crebin *Teaching in higher education : For active & lifelong learning*. University of Ballarat.
- Bourdieu, P., & Passeron, J. (1990). *Reproduction in education, society and culture*. London: Sage Publications.
- Brinton, D.M., Snow, M.A., & Wesche, M.B. (1989). *Content-based second language instruction*. New York: Harper/Newbury.
- Brislin, R., & Yoshida, T. (1994). *Communicating effectively in multicultural contexts*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Broadbent, F. (1995). Innovation and excellence in teaching. *Tertiary Education News*, 5 (6), 2-5.
- Brown, J.D. (1995). *The elements of language curriculum: A systematic approach to program development*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Brown, G., Malmkjar, K., & Williams, J. (Eds.). (1996). *Performance and competence in second language acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Burns, R.B. (1991). Study and stress among first year overseas students in an Australian university. *Higher Educational Research and Development*, 10 (1), 61-77.

- Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980) Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, 1, 1-47.
- Cannon, R.A. (1992). *Lecturing*. Australian Capital Territory: HERDSA.
- Cannon, R.A. (1997). Advancing international perspectives: The internationalisation of higher education in Indonesia. *Advancing international perspectives*. Taupo: HERDSA.
- Chalmers, D., & Volet, S. (1997). Common misconceptions about students from South-East Asia studying in Australia. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 16, 87-98.
- Child, M., & Williams, D.D. (1996). College learning and teaching: Struggling with/in the tensions. *Studies in Higher Education*, 21(1), 31-42.
- Collier, V.P. (1989). How long? A synthesis of research on academic achievement in a second language, *TESOL Quarterly*, 23,(3), 509-531.
- Conway, T., Mackay, S., & Yorke, D. (1994). Strategic planning in higher education – who are the customers? *International Journal of Education Management*. 8(6), 29-36.
- Corson, D. (1992). Teaching in a multicultural school. *SET*. 2(8), 1-8.
- Cortazzi, M., & Lin, L. (1997). Communication for learning across cultures. In D. McNamara, & R. Harris (Eds.), *Overseas students in higher education* (pp. 45-52). London: Routledge.
- Cortazzi, M. (1990). Cultural and educational expectations in the language classroom. In B. Harrison (Ed.), *Culture and the language classroom* (pp. 54-65). Modern English Publications.
- Cottrill, L. (Ed.).(1989). *For sale Australian education?* Canberra: Canberra College of Advanced Education.
- Coupland, N., Giles, H., & Wiemann, J. (Eds.). (1991). *Miscommunication & problematic talk*. Newbury Park: Sage Publications.
- Cownie, F., & Addison, W., (1996). International students and language support: a new survey. *Studies in Higher Education*, 21(2), 221-231.
- Craco, M.B. (1992). Communicative interaction and second language acquisition: An Inuit example. *TESOL Quaterly*, 26(3), 486-504.
- Crandall, J. (Ed). (1987). *ESL through content-area instruction: Mathematics, science, social studies*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Regents-Prentice-Hall.
- Crebin, W. (1994). *Teaching in higher education for active and lifelong learning: Multidiscipline problem solving in workplace setting*. University of Ballarat.

- Cummins, J. (1981). *Bilingualism in special education: Issues in assessment and pedagogy*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Cummins, J. (1989). *Empowering minority students*. Sacramento: California Association for Bilingual Education.
- Cummins, J. (1994). The socioacademic achievement model in the context of coercive and collaborative relations of power. In R.A. De Villar, J. Faltis & J. Cummins (Eds.), *Cultural diversity in schools: From rhetoric to practice*. (pp.363-389). Albany: State University of New York Press.
- Dash, R. (Ed.). (1988). *The challenge: Preparing teachers for diverse student populations*. (Roundtable Report). Washington DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement.
- De Klerk, V. (1995). Interaction patterns in post-graduate seminars: Tutor versus student. *Language and Education*, 9(4), 249-264.
- De Villar, R. (1994). The rhetoric and practice of cultural diversity in U.S. schools: Socialisation, re socialisation, and quality schooling. In R.A. De Villar, J. Faltis & J. Cummins, (Eds.), *Cultural diversity in schools: From rhetoric to practice*. (pp.26-56). Albany: State University of New York Press.
- De Villar, R., Faltis, J., & Cummins. (Eds.). (1994). *Cultural diversity in schools: From rhetoric to practice*. Albany: State University of New York Press.
- DeVillar, R. A., & Faltis, C.J. (1991). *Computers and cultural diversity*. Albany, N.Y.: State University of New York Press.
- Diaz, E. (1988). *Cultural patterns affecting teacher and student expectations*. Round Table Report.
- Diaz-Rico, L., & Weed, K. (1995). *The crosscultural, language and academic handbook*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Donald, J.G. (1994). Science students' learning: Ethnographic studies in three disciplines. In P.R. Pintrich, D. Brown & C.E. Weinstein (Eds.), *Student motivation, cognition and learning* (pp. 79-112). Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Doyle, W. (1983). Academic work. *Review of Educational Research*, 53, 287-312.
- Dunn, R. (1983). Learning style and its relation to exceptionality at both ends of the spectrum. *Exceptional Children*, 49, 496-509.
- Ellis, R. (1985). *Understanding second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Elton, L. (1982). Teaching and tutoring international students. In: S. Shotnes (Ed.), *The Teaching and Tutoring of International Students*. London, United Kingdom Council for Overseas Student Affairs Workshop Report.

- Ely, C.M. (1986) "An analysis of discomfort, risktaking, sociability and motivation in the L2 classroom", *Language Learning*, 36(1), 1-25.
- Entwistle, N.J. (1991). Approaches to learning and perceptions of the learning environment: Introduction to the special issue, *Higher Education*, 22, 201-204.
- Farnill, D., & Hayes, S.C. (1996). Screening higher-education students for English language problems: Development of Australian tertiary-English screening test. *Higher Education Research and Development*, 15(1), 61-71.
- Finnan, C. (1987). The influence of ethnic community on the adjustment of Vietnamese refugees. In G. Spindler & L. Spindler (Eds.), *Interpretive ethnography of education: At home and abroad* (pp. 313-332). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Fisher, R. G. (1993). Quality assurance within higher education in the United Kingdom. In D.L. Hubbard. (Ed.), *Continuous quality improvement: Making the transition to education*. Maryville: Prescott Publishing Company.
- Fisher, D., & Cooper, C.L. (Eds.). (1990). *On the move: The psychology of change and transition*. Brisbane: John Wiley & Sons.
- Flower, L. (1990). Negotiating academic discourse. In L. Flower, V. Stein, J. Ackerman, M.J. Kantz, K. McCormick & W. Peck (Eds.), *Reading to write: exploring a cognitive and social process* (pp. 40-52). New York Oxford University Press.
- Flowerdew, J., & Millar, L. (1992). Student perceptions, problems and strategies in second language lecture comprehension. *RELC Journal*, 23(2), 60-79.
- Flowerdew, J., & Millar, L. (1995). On the notion of culture in L2 lectures. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29(2), 345-373.
- Flowerdew, J., & Millar, L. (1996). Lecturer Perceptions, problems and strategies in second language lectures. *RELC Journal*, 27(1), 23-41.
- Freire, P., & Macedo, D.P. (1995). A dialogue: Culture, language and race. *Harvard Educational Review*, 65(3), 377-402.
- Furnham, A., & Bochner, S. (1986). *Culture shock: Psychological reactions to unfamiliar environments*. London: Methuen.
- Furnham, A. (1997). Being an overseas student. In D. McNamara & R. Harris (Eds.) *Overseas students in higher education*. London: Routledge.
- Gass, S.M., & Varonis, E.M. (1991). Miscommunication in non-native speaker discourse. In N. Coupland, H. Giles & J. Wiemann (Eds.), *Miscommunication & problematic talk* (pp. 121-145). Newbury Park: Sage Publications.
- Giroux, H. (1983b). Theories of reproduction and resistance in the new sociology of education: A critical analysis. *Harvard Educational Review*, 53, 257-293.

- Glassman, M. (1994). All things being equal: The two roads of Piaget and Vygotsky. *Developmental Review, 14*, 186-214.
- Gudykunst, W.B., & Kim, Y.Y. (1984). *Communicating with strangers: An approach to intercultural communication*. New York: Random House.
- Gudykunst, W.B. (1988). Uncertainty and anxiety. In Y. Kim & W. Gudykunst, (Eds.), *Intercultural communication*, (pp. 123-157). Newbury Park: Sage Publications.
- Guild, P., & Garger, S. (1985). *Marching to different drummers*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Gumperz, J. (1982). *Discourse strategies: The conversational analysis of inter ethnic communication*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hall, J.K. (1999). A prosaics of interaction: The development of interactional competence in another language. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Culture in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 137-151). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hanna, N. (1993). *Exporting New Zealand education services*. Unpublished master's thesis, Massey University, New Zealand.
- Hargan, N. (1995). Misguided expectations: EFL teachers' attitudes towards Italian university students' written work. *Language and Education, 9*(4), 223-232.
- Harris, G., & Jarett, F. (1990). *Educating overseas students in Australia: Who benefits?* Sydney: Allen & Unwin.
- Hattie, J. (1995) *Self-concept*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Haworth, P.A. (1996). *Cultural perceptions of learning situations: Overseas students in their first year of teacher education in New Zealand*. Unpublished master's thesis, Massey University, Palmerston North: New Zealand.
- Heath, S. B. (1983). *Ways with words: Language, life and work in communities and classrooms*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Higgins, C., Reading, J., & Taylor, P. (1996). *Researching into learning resources in colleges and universities*. London: Krogan Page Limited.
- Hofstede, G. (1983). Dimensions of national cultures in fifty countries and three regions. In J.B. Deregowski, S., Dziurawiec & R.C. Annis (Eds.), *Expiscations in cross-cultural psychology* (pp. 335-355). Lisse Neth: Swets and Zeitlinger,.
- Hofstede, G. (1986). Cultural differences in teaching and learning. *International Journal of International Relations, 10*, 301-320.
- Hofstede, G. (1991). *Cultures and organisations: Software of the mind*. London: McGraw-Hill.

- Holliday, A. (1994). *Appropriate Methodology and Social Context*, Cambridge: Cambridge Language Teaching Library.
- Hubbard, D. L. (1993). *Continuous quality improvement: Making the transition to education*. Maryville, MO: Prescott Publishing.
- Husbands, C.T. (1996). Variations in students' evaluations of teachers' lecturing and small-group teaching: A study at London school of economics and political science. *Studies in Higher Education*, 21(2), 187-206.
- Jacobsen, D. (1981). *Methods for teaching: A skills approach*. Columbus: C.E. Merrill Publications.
- Jones, J. (1995). A cross-cultural perspective on the pragmatics of small-group discussion. *RELC Journal*, 26(2), 44-61.
- Kamimura, T. (1996). Composing in Japanese as a first language and English as a foreign language: A study of narrative writing. *RELC Journal*, 27(1), 47-87.
- Kearney, G., & Kearney, T. (1994). *Transfer student expectations and satisfaction: Predictors for academic performance and persistence*. Paper presented at 1994 Annual meeting of Association of Higher Education Tucson, Arizona.
- Kemp, I.J., & Seagraves, L. (1995). Transferable skills-can higher education deliver? *Studies in Higher Education*, 20(3), 315-328.
- Kern, R. (1995). Students' and teachers' beliefs about language learning. *Foreign Language Annals*, 28(1), 71-92.
- Kim, Y.Y., & Gudykunst, W.B. (Eds.). (1988). *Theories in intercultural communication*, Newbury Park: Sage Publications.
- Kinnell, M. (Ed.).(1990). *The learning experience of overseas students*. Buckingham, SRHE/ Open University Press.
- Kotler, P. (1991). *Marketing management* (7th Ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Kraemar, A.J. (1978). *Cultural aspects of intercultural training*. Paper presented for the 19th International Congress of Applied Psychologia, Munich.
- Kraemar, R. (1993). Social psychological factors related to the study of Arabic among Israeli high school students: A test of Gardner's socioeducational model. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 15(1), 83-105.
- Kromrey, J.D., & Purdom, D.M. (1995) A comparison of lecture, co-operative learning and programmed instruction at college level. *Studies in Higher Education*, 20(3), 341-349.
- Kumar, K. (1992) Does class size really make a difference? - Exploring classroom interaction in large and small classes. *RELC Journal*. 23(1), 29-47.

- Kuo, C. (1993) Problematic issues in EST materials development, *English for Specific Purposes*, 12, 171-181.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (1991). Second language acquisition research: Staking out the territory. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25(2), 315-340.
- Lewis, M. (1993). Current concerns: Local and international. *TESOLANZ Journal*, 1, 61-66.
- Lewthwaite, M. (1996). A study of international students' perspectives on cross-cultural adaptation. *International Journal for the advancement of counselling*, 19, 167-185.
- Lieven, E. (1994). Cross-linguistic and cross-cultural aspects of language addressed to children. In C. Gallaway & B. Richards (Eds.), *Input and interactions in language acquisition* (pp. 57-73). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Lutz, R. (1990). Classroom shock: The role of expectations in an instructional setting. *Georgetown University Round Table on Languages and Linguistics*.
- Mak, B.S.Y. (1996). *Communication apprehension of Chinese ESL students*. Unpublished master's thesis, Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand.
- Mallette, B., & Cabrera, A. (1991). Determinates of withdrawal behaviour: An exploratory study. *Research in Higher Education*, 32, 179-194.
- Markus, H., & Nurius, P. (1986). Possible selves. *American Psychologist*, 41, 135-160.
- Mason, J.B., & Ezell, H.F. (1993). *Marketing management*. New York: Macmillan Publishing Co.
- Matsumoto, D., Kudoh, T., & Takeuchi, S. (1996). *Culture and psychology*. London: Sage Publications.
- Matsumoto, D. (1996). *Culture and psychology*. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks Cole.
- May, S. (1994). *Making multicultural education work*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.
- Mayhew, L. B., Ford, P.J., & Hubbard, D.L. (1990). *The quest for quality; the challenge for undergraduate education in the 1990's*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- McCargar, D. (1993). Teacher and student role expectations: Cross-cultural differences and implications. *The Modern Language Journal*, 77,(2), 192-207.
- McKeachie, W.J. (1990). Research on college teaching: the historical background. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82, 189-200.

- McKnight, A. (1994, March). *The business of listening at university (or do international students learn by "not" listening to lectures?* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Baltimore, MD.
- McMurray, C. (1988). The special problem of graduate students. In L. Cottrill (Ed.), *For sale-Australian education*. Canberra: Canberra College of Advanced Education.
- McNamara, D., & Harris, D. (1997). (Eds). *Overseas students in higher education: Issues in teaching and learning*. London: Routledge.
- Melton, C.D. (1990). Bridging the cultural gap: A study of Chinese students' learning style preferences. *RELC. Journal*, 21(1), 29-47.
- Meyer, J.H.F., & Watson, R.M. (1991). Evaluating the quality of student learning. *Studies in Higher Education*, 16, 251-175.
- Mills, C. (1995). *Two sides of a coin: An exploratory comparison of Malaysian Chinese and Kiwi students' perceptions of classroom interaction*. Paper presented at fourth national conference of community languages and ESOL, Christchurch: New Zealand.
- Mills, C. (1997). The lived-in realities of internationalisation. *Learning and Teaching in Higher Education: Advancing International Perspectives*. Taupo: HERDSA.
- Ministry of Education, (1990). *New settlers and multicultural issues*, 1(1), 45-46.
- Ministry of Education, (1997). *Quality teachers for quality learning: A review of teacher education*. Wellington: Ministry of Education.
- Mohan, B.A., & Lo, W.A. (1985). Academic writing and Chinese students: Transfer and developmental factors *TESOL Quarterly*, 19(3), 515-534.
- Moll, L.C., & Diaz, S. (1987). Change as the goal of educational research. *Anthropology and Educational Quarterly*, 18, 300-311.z
- Mullins, G., Quintrell, N., & Hancock, L. (1995). The experiences of international and local students at three Australian Universities. *Higher Education Review*, 14(2), 201-231.
- Nelson, C., Treichler, P.A., & Grossberg, L. (1992). Cultural studies. In L. Grossberg, C. Nelson & P. A. Treichler (Eds.). *Cultural studies* (pp. 1-16). New York: Routledge.
- Nespor, J. (1987). Academic tasks in a high school English class. *Curriculum Inquiry*, 17(2), 203-228.
- New Zealand Vice-Chancellors Committee (1997). *Code of practice: For the provision of educational programmes and services for international students by New Zealand universities*.

- Newble, D., & Cannon, R. (1989). *A handbook for teachers in Universities and Colleges: A guide to improving teaching methods*. Kogan Page.
- Nunan, D. (1993). From learning-centeredness to learner-centeredness. *Applied Language Learning*, 4(1&2), 1-18.
- Oberg, K. (1960). Culture shock: Adjustment to new cultural environments. *Practical Anthropology*, 7, 153-82.
- O'Grady, G. (1996). Tutor training - just how useful is it? *Tertiary Education News*, 6(2), 8-9.
- Ortiz, F. (1988). Hispanic-American children's experiences in classrooms: A comparison between Hispanic and non-Hispanic children. In L. Weis (Ed.), *Class, race and gender in American education*. Albany: State University of New York Press.
- Pajares, M.F. (1992). Teacher's beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up a messy contract. *Review of Educational Research*, 62(3), 307-332.
- Pedersen, P. (1995). *The five stages of culture shock*. London: Greenwood Press.
- Perry, W.G. (1970). *Forms of intellectual and ethical development in the college years: A scheme*. New York: Holt Rinehart and Wilson.
- Phillips, S. U. (1983). *The invisible culture*. New York: Longman.
- Pica, T. (1987). Second language acquisition: Social interaction and the classroom. *Applied Linguistics*, 8(1), 3-21.
- Pietrykowski, B. (1996). Knowledge and power in adult education: Beyond Freire and Habermas. *Adult Education Quarterly*, 46(2), 82-97.
- Pintrich, P.R., Brown, D.R., & Weinstein, C.E. (Eds.). (1994). *Student motivation, cognition and learning*. Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Prior, P. (1991). Contextualizing writing and response in a graduate seminar. *Written Communication*, 8(3), 267-310.
- Purdie, N. (1994). *What do students think "learning" is and how do they do it? A cross-cultural comparison*. Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the Australian Association for Research in Education, Newcastle.
- Purdom, D., & Kromrey, J. (1992). *A comparison of different instructor intervention strategies in co-operative learning groups at college level*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, CA.
- Quintrell, N. (1992). *The experiences of first year international students at Flinders University, 1989-1991: responses to surveys*. Adelaide: Flinders University of South Australia.

- Rice, P. (1995). *Human development: A life-span approach*. (2nd ed). Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.
- Richards, J., & Hurley, D. (1988). Getting into the mainstream: Approaches to ESL instruction for students of limited English proficiency. *New Settlers and Multicultural Issues*, 5(3), 44-53.
- Rivera, C. (Ed.).(1984). *Language Proficiency and Academic Achievement*. Multilingual Matters Ltd. Clevedon England.
- Rivers, W. M. (1986). Comprehension and production in language learning. *Modern Language Journal*, 70(1), 1-7.
- Roberts, P. (1996). Critical literacy, breath of perspective and universities: Applying insights from Freire. *Studies in Higher Education*, 21(2), 149-163.
- Roberts, T. (1993, October). Responding to student feedback. *Dialogue* 1, 3-7.
- Rohrlich, B.F. (1993). *Expecting the worst (or the best). What exchange programs should know about student expectations?* Occasional Papers in Intercultural Learning (No.16). Syracuse University, New York: Division of Intercultural Programs.
- Romainville, M. (1994). Awareness of cognitive strategies: The relationship between university students' metacognition and their performance. *Studies in Higher Education*, 19(3), 359-366.
- Rorty, R. (1979). *Philosophy and the mirror of nature*. Princeton: Princeton University Press.
- Rorty, R. (1989). *Contingency, irony and solidarity*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Rowe, M.B. (1974). Pausing phenomena: Influence on the quality of instruction. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research*, 3(3), 203-224.
- Samimy, K., & Tabuse, M. (1992). Affective variables and a less commonly taught language: A study in beginning Japanese classes. *Language Learning*, 42(3), 377-398.
- Samuelowicz, K. (1987). Learning problems of overseas students: Two sides of a story. *Higher Education Research and Development*. 6(2), 121-134.
- Sato, C. (1981). Ethnic styles in classroom discourse. In M. Hines & W. Rutherford (Eds.). On TESOL '81. Washington: TESOL.
- Sato, C.J. (1990) "Ethnic styles in classroom discourse". In Scarella, R.C., Anderson, E.S., and Krashen, S.D. (Eds.), *Developing communicative competence in a second language* (pp. 107-328). New York: Newbury House Publishers.

- Saville-Troike, M. (1976). Cultural foundations. In Foundations for teaching English as a second language: *Theory and method for multicultural education*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Saville-Troike, M. (1984). What really matters in second language learning for academic purposes? *TESOL Quarterly*, 18(2), 199-219.
- Schumann, J.H. (1978). *The pidginisation process: A model for second language acquisition*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.
- Schumann, J.H. (1986). Research on the acculturation model for second language acquisition. *Journal of multilingual and multicultural development*, 7(5), 379-392.
- Scollon, S. (1999). Not to waste words or students: Confucian and Socratic discourse in the tertiary classroom. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Culture in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 13-27). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Shoenfelt, E.L., Eastman, N.A., & Mendel, R.M. (1991). *The relative effectiveness of training methods for training objectives: Current opinion of training practitioners*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the South-eastern Psychological Association, New Orleans, LA (ERIC Document reproduction service No. ED 329879).
- Silva, T., & Nicholls, J. (1993). College Students as writing theorists: Goals and beliefs about the causes of success. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 18, 281-293.
- Singh, A.H. (1963). *Indian students in Britain*, Bombay: Asia Publishing House.
- Smeby, J. (1996). Disciplinary differences in university teaching. *Studies in Higher Education*, 21(1), 69-79.
- Smith, K. (1986). *The distribution of talk: A preliminary needs assessment of turn-taking skills in an ESL college level discussion group*. MA qualifying paper, ESL Program, University of Minnesota.
- Smithson, I., & Ruff, N. (1994). *English studies/culture studies*. Chicago: University of Illinois Press.
- Spanbauer, S.J. (1992). *A quality system for education*. Milwaukee: ASQU Quality Press.
- Stahl, R.J. (1976). *Innovation or renovation?: Lecture, commentary and discussion in the pre-college psychology classroom*, Washington D.C. (Ed130940).
- Tang, K.C.C. (1993). Spontaneous collaborative learning: A new dimension in student learning experience? *Higher Education Research and Development*, 12(2), 115-130.

- Tannen, D., & Saville-Troike, M. (Eds.). (1985). *Perspectives on silence*. New Jersey: Ablex Publishing Corporation.
- Tarone, E., & Yule, G. (1989). *Focus on the Language Learner*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Tarone, E., Gass, S., & Cohen, A. (Eds.). (1994). *Research Methodology in Second-Language Acquisition*. Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Thorp, D. (1991). Confused encounters: differing expectations in the EAP classroom. *ELT Journal*, 45(2), 108-118.
- Tikunoff, W.J. (1985). Developing student functional proficiency: A teachers' casebook Part 1. Teacher Training *Teacher training project for Bilingual & English to speakers of other languages teachers.* (Monograph, No. 2.) Washington DC: Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs (Ed.).
- Tuffs, R., & Tudor, I. (1990). What the eye doesn't see: Cross-cultural problems in the comprehension of video material. *RELC Journal*, 21(2), 29-44.
- Volet, S.E., & Kee, J.P.P. (1993). Studying in Singapore-studying in Australia: A student perspective. *Occasional paper No.1*. Murdoch University Teaching Excellence Committee.
- Volet, S.E., & Renshaw, P.D. (1995). Cross-cultural differences in university students' goals and perceptions of study settings for achieving their own goals. *Higher Education*, 30, 407-433.
- Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Vygotsky, L. (1987). *The collected work of L.S. Vygotsky: Vol. 1*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.
- Walker, J. (1995). *An investigation into international students' perceptions of quality of service in the faculty of business studies at Massey University*. Unpublished master's thesis, Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand.
- Ward, L. (1967). Some observations of the underlying dynamics of conflict in a foreign student. *Journal of the American College Health Association*, 10, 430-440.
- Watkins, D.A., Regimi, M., & Astilla, E. (1991). The Asian-learner-as-rote-learner stereotype: Myth or reality? *Educational Psychology*, 11, 21-34.
- Weinstein, C.L. (1994). Strategic learning/strategic teaching: Flip sides of a coin. In P.R. Pintrich, D. Brown & C.E. Weinstein (Eds.), *Student motivation, cognition and learning* (pp. 257-274). Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

- Welch, D. (1994). *Conflicting agendas: Personal morality in institutional settings*. Cleveland: Pilgrim Press.
- Wertsch, J. (1991). *Voices of the mind*. Harvard: Harvard University Press.
- Wong Fillmore, L., Ammon, P., McLaughlin, B., & Ammon, M.S. (1985). *Final report for learning English through bilingual instruction*. National Institute of Education.
- Wright, T. (1990). Understanding classroom role relationships. In J.C. Richards & D. Nunan (Eds.), *Second language teacher education* (pp. 82-95). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Wu, Jing-yu, (1983). Quchang Buduan: A Chinese view of foreign participation in teaching English in China. *Language Learning and Communication*, 2(1): 111-116.
- Young, D.J. (1990) "An investigation of students' perspectives on anxiety and speaking", *Foreign Language Annals*, 23(6): 539-553.
- Young, R. (1987). The cultural context of TESOL: A review of research into Chinese classrooms. *RELC*, 18(2): 15-30.

APPENDIX A

*Records of International Students Enrolled at Massey University in
1998*

International Students Office

1998 INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS BY ETHNIC GROUP				
		Post	Under	
At 5/3/99	Number	Graduate	Graduate	
Argentina	3	3		
Bangladesh	2	2		
Bhutan	1	1		
Botswana	2	1	1	
Brazil	10	9	1	
Brunei	1		1	
Cambodia	4	4		
Canada	2		2	
Chile	5	4	1	
China	8	3	5	
Colombia	1	1		
Cook Is	1		1	
Denmark	1	1		
England	5	1	4	
Fiji	28	3	25	
Finland	1		1	
France	3	2	1	
Germany	25	23	2	
Hong Kong	60		60	
India	4	4		
Indonesia	56	29	27	
Israel	1		1	
Jamaica	1	1		
Japan	78	4	74	
Kenya	2		2	
Kiribati	2		2	
Korea	25	1	24	
Lao	1	1		
Malaysia	180	11	169	
Mexico	12	12		
Micronesia	6		6	
Myanmar	2	2		
Nepal	6	6		
New Caledonia	1		1	
Nigeria	1		1	
Niue	1	1		
Pakistan	1		1	
Papua New Guinea	33	14	19	
Peru	2	2		
Philippines	10	10		
Russia	2		2	
Seychelles	1		1	

Scotland		1		1		
Singapore		34	31	3		
Solomon Islands		12	10	2		
South Africa		1	1			
Sri Lanka		9	6	3		
Sweden		2	1	1		
Switzerland		2	2			
Taiwan		34	33	1		
Tanzania		2		2		
Thailand		52	38	16		
Tonga		15	13	2		
Tuvalu		2	1	1		
USA		12	9	3		
Uzbekistan		1		1		
Vanuatu		8	8			
Vietnam		7	4	3		
Unspecified		29	17	12		
57 Countries	TOTAL	748	593	155		

APPENDIX B

*Records of International Students Enrolled at Massey University in
1999*

1999 International Student Statistics

Undergraduate/Postgraduate Enrolment by Citizenship
(Figures as at 10/4/99)

10/5/99

Country	Number	Post Graduate	Under Graduate	Country	Number	Post Graduate	Under Graduate
Argentina	3	3		Scotland	2		2
Australia	3	2	1	Singapore	77	2	75
Bangladesh	4	4		Solomon Islands	13	2	11
Barbados	1	1		South Africa	1		1
Bolivia	1		1	Sri Lanka	8	5	3
Botswana	2	1		St Lucia	1	1	
Brazil	5	4		Swaziland	1	1	
Brunei	1		1	Sweden	2		2
Canada	5	3		Switzerland	2		2
Chile	5	4		Taiwan	31	2	29
China	18	5	11	Tanzania	3	3	
Colombia	2	1		Thailand	44	30	14
Cook Is/NZ	1		1	Tonga	41	22	19
Denmark	1	1		Trinidad	1	1	
England	2	1		Tuvalu	3	1	2
Fiji	27	2	25	Uganda	1	1	
Finland	1		1	USA	14	2	12
France	5	4		Uzbekistan	1	1	
Germany	23	20		Vanuatu	16	1	15
Hong Kong	64	4	60	Vietnam	8	2	6
India	7	5		Zambia	1	1	
Indonesia	52	26	26				
Japan	66	10	56	Total	838	343	495
Kenya	1		1	Percentage	100%	41%	59%
Kiribati	3	1	2				
Korea	31	3	28				
Lao	1	1					
Macau	2	2					
Malaysia	137	30	107				
Mexico	8	8					
Micronesia	6		6				
Myanmar	4	4					
Namibia	1	1					
Nepal	1	1					
New Caledonia	1		1				
Niue	1	1					
Pakistan	2	1	1				
Papua New Guinea	25	6	19				
Peru	3	3					
Philippines	11	11					
Portugal	1		1				
Russia	2		2				
Samoa	29	18	11				

College Enrolments		
Business Studies	444	53%
Education	16	2%
Humanities & Social Science	144	17%
Science	234	28%
Total	838	100%

APPENDIX C

Adapted Model for Questionnaire Categories

Areas of Investigation	Interaction	Task	Cognitive Dimension
Expectations			
Priorities			
Attitudes			
Problems			
Solutions			In what way could the tutor do more to help you in tutorials?

APPENDIX D

Consent Form and Background Information for Questionnaire

Tutorial Interaction Questionnaire

My name is Ann Dowds and as part of my studies towards a Masters Degree in Second Language Teaching I am Conducting a survey which investigates the value placed by students and tutors on tutorial participation and interaction. Information gained may assist in clarifying the changing needs of students within the University system. I am also interested in examining the additional difficulties which may be experienced by overseas students. To assist me in the development of this study I would appreciate you filling in the attached questionnaire. The questionnaire should take no more than 10 minutes of your time.

All information will be treated as confidential and participation is purely on a voluntary basis.

For any queries or further information I can be contacted at
 Department of Educational Studies and Community Support.
 Direct Line 3513366

Background Information

Would you mind providing the following background information:

what is your country of origin?

what Ethnic group/s do you belong to?

what is your first language?

what is your second language? If you have more than one list them?

APPENDIX E

Tables Showing the Results of t-Tests

Appendix E

Table 1 **t-test**

L1 and L2 Students' Views on Understanding of Tutorial Content

t-test - How often students expect to join in tutorials				
Variable	Cases	Mean	SD	SE of mean
L1	59	1.8983	1.094	0.142
L2	11	1.3636	0.674	0.203
mean difference = .5347				
Levene's test for equality of variances : F=5.941, P=.017				
t- test for equality of means				
Variiances	t-value	df	2-Tail Sig	SE of Diff
Unequal	2.15	21.34	0.043	0.248

Table 2 **t-test**

L1 and L2 Students' Views on the Importance of Preparation

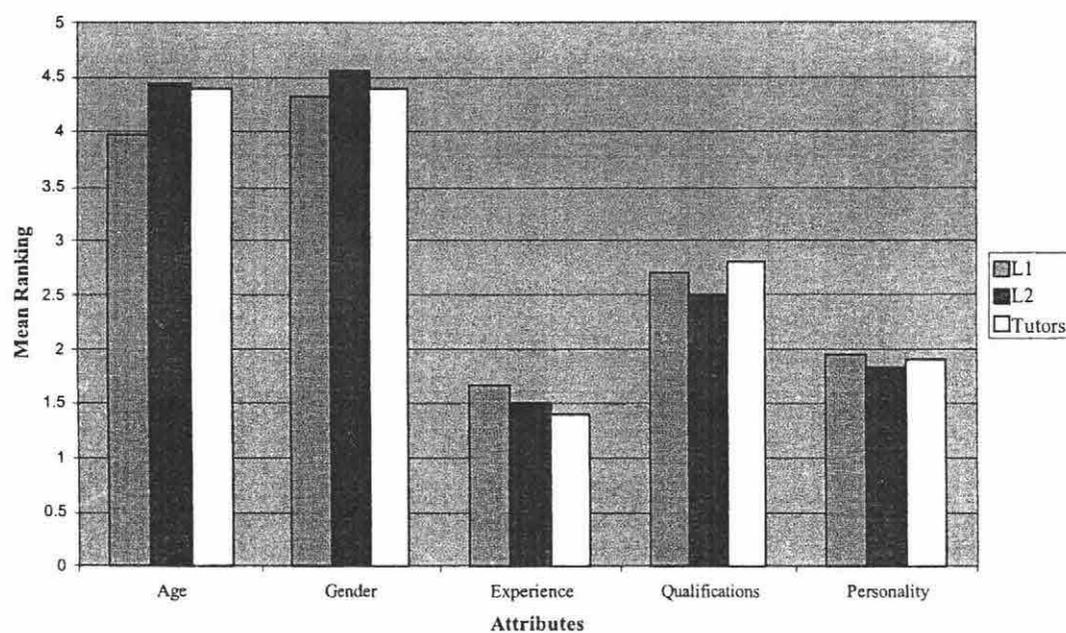
t-test - How often students expect to join in tutorials				
Variable	Cases	Mean	SD	SE of mean
L1	59	2.5254	1.18	0.154
L2	11	1.7273	1.272	0.384
mean difference = .7982				
Levene's test for equality of variances : F=.049, P=.825				
t- test for equality of means				
Variiances	t-value	df	2-Tail Sig	SE of Diff
Unequal	2.04	68	0.046	0.392

APPENDIX F

Attributes of L2 Student/Tutor Interaction

APPENDIX F

Attributes for L2 Student/Tutor Interaction



Data relating to student and tutors' opinions on what attributes are necessary for the success of L2 students in tutorials.