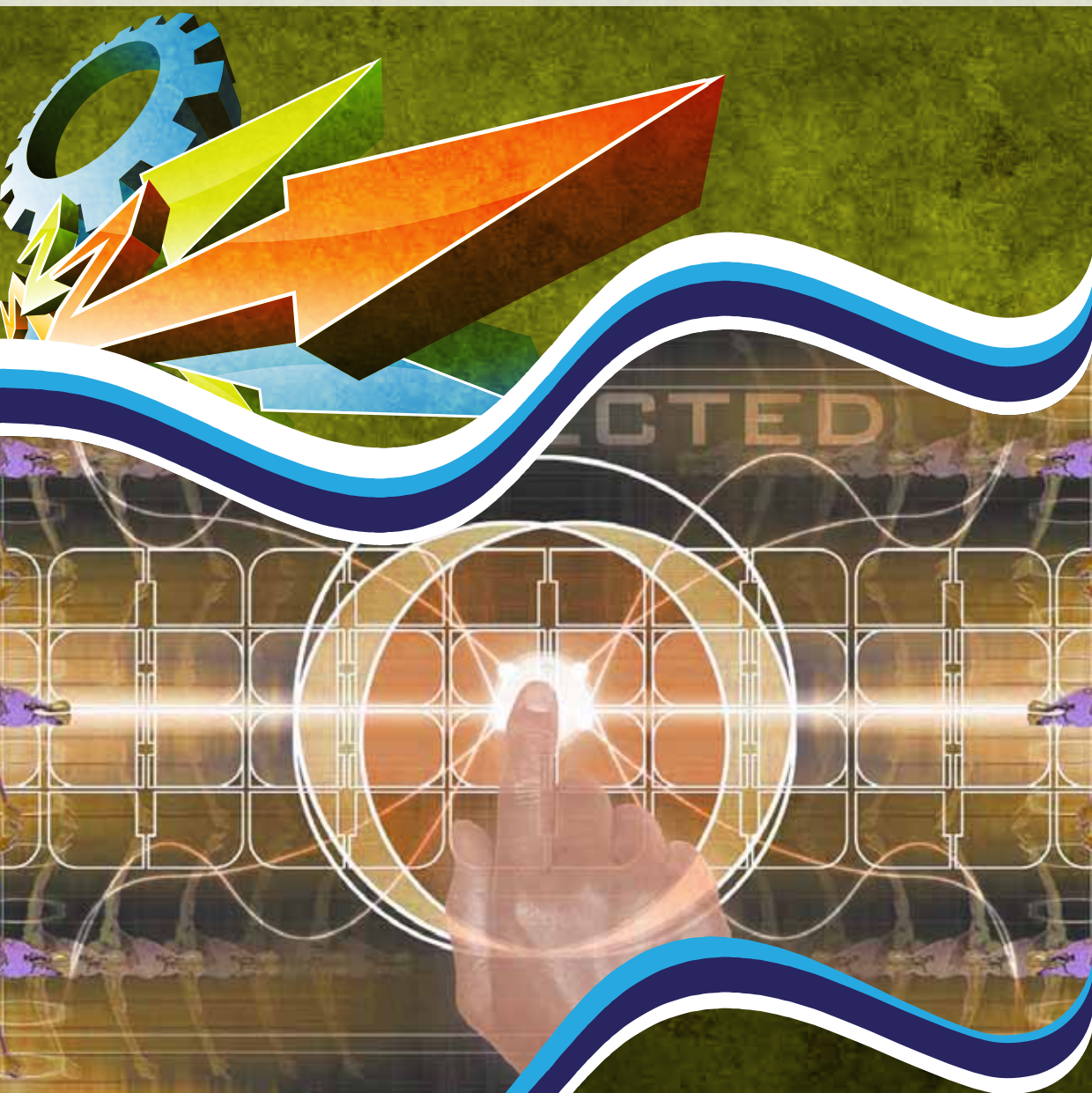# DOCTORAL EDUCATION IN INTERNATIONAL CONTEXT

CONNECTING LOCAL, REGIONAL and GLOBAL PERSPECTIVES

EDITORS Vijay Kumar • Alison Lee

Doctoral Education in International Context: Connecting Local, Regional and Global Perspectives

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Edited by:
Vijay Kumar & Alison Lee

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Sara Cotterall moved to Australia in 2008 to pursue her doctoral studies after spending three years as Associate Professor at Akita International University in northern Japan. Her PhD project explored the experiences of international doctoral students as they navigate the Australian university environment. Prior to working in Japan, Sara was Senior Lecturer in the School of Linguistics and Applied Language Studies at Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand, where she taught for 18 years. Sara has conducted research and published in the fields of second language reading, language learning strategies, learner beliefs about language learning, second language writing, metacognition in language learning, doctoral writing pedadogy and the role of emotions in the doctoral experience. From 1996 to 2002 Sara was co-convener of the AILA (International Applied Linguistics Association) Research Network on Learner Autonomy in Language Learning (http://ailarenla.org/). Sara's early teaching experiences were in France, the United Kingdom, Greece and China.

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Ian Green has a PhD in Linguistics, based on original field-work on Australian languages, and conducts research which is broadly concerned with the interface between language, culture and cognition. Currently located in the School of Education at the University of Adelaide, Ian has previously worked in senior academic positions at the University of Tasmania and the Batchelor Institute of Tertiary Education (Northern Territory), and with education.au (now Education Services Australia) as a national e-learning consultant. Ian teaches courses covering aspects of research methodology, online learning and cross-cultural communication, while also running the University's staff researcher education programs. Ian's recent research has focused on the changing contexts of doctoral education, researcher development and higher education leadership.

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Nelofer Halai is a Professor at the Aga Khan University, Institute for Educational Development, Karachi, Pakistan. She has taken a leadership role in developing the doctoral program in Education at the University and continued to play a lead role for eight years as the Head of the program. She chaired an International Committee with membership from Oxford and Toronto Universities to develop the program which started in October 2004 and now has 13 scholars studying in the program – 11 from Pakistan and two from East Africa. Dr Halai is also an active researcher with more than half a dozen national and international research projects to her credit with publications in national and international journals. Her research interests lie in three broad areas – science education, education of teachers and teacher educators and higher education. She has received many International and National awards, such as the Anna Marie Schimmel Award and AKU award for doctoral studies and the National Talent Award for Academic Excellence from the Punjab University. She has also received the *Outstanding Teacher* award from her peers. She teaches science methods and research methods at both doctoral and Masters level and has supervised more than a dozen and a half dissertations including two at the PhD level. Dr Halai is the founding member and first president of the Pakistan Association of Research in Education founded in 2007. The main aim of the Association is to enhance a culture of research in Pakistan. It is interesting to note that all this has been achieved together with raising two children: Sakina and Ali Asghar. She acknowledges the strong support and encouragement from her husband who has played a key role in her professional success.

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Susan Harris-Hümmert studied modern languages and has worked in both the German secondary and tertiary sector and in publishing. She completed her DPhil at the University of Oxford (New College) in 2009, where she examined the work of evaluators in German higher education. Her work focuses on international quality assurance processes and the methodology behind accreditation, evaluation and institutional audit. During her time at Oxford she also worked at the Centre for Excellence in Teaching and Learning on a longitudinal study that examined the academic identity of doctoral students in the social sciences (Next Generation of Social Scientists), and also provided a review for the University on the graduation process, results of which are currently being implemented. At present she is working as a quality manager for the University of Würzburg

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Geof Hill is the co-ordinator of Higher Degree Research (HDR) Supervision Professional Development at Queensland University of Technology, Australia. In this capacity, he moderates on-line and face-to-face Communities of Practice and Conversation Cafés for research supervisors at the university. He is the author of the wordpress blog - *the (research) supervisor's friend* (http://supervisorsfriend.wordpress.com/). Geof advanced the methodology of storytelling as inquiry in his own doctoral dissertation, and subsequently undertook several industry based research projects using storytelling as inquiry, including Brisbane Council Zero Harm project, the Education Queensland New Basics Curriculum project, Queensland Government Department of Communities Executive Development program and the Department of Health and Aging Positive Futures project. Geof's post doctoral research has drawn on the stories of research supervisors to deconstruct research supervision practice. He is currently investigating the ways in which research supervisors teach academic writing to their research students and the writing strategies that are utilized to embrace variations in the traditions of the research dissertation.

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Nick Hopwood is a Chancellor's Postdoctoral Research Fellow at the University of Technology, Sydney. He has been researching learning and practices for over eight years, developing and using a range of qualitative and ethnographic approaches. Nick's current research interests lie in child and family health practices, but he maintains a focus on doctoral experience and pedagogies. Nick remains a Research Fellow at Oxford University Department of Education, and an Honorary Affiliate of the Oxford Learning Institute. During his time at the Centre for Excellence in Preparing for Academic Practice, Nick was involved in a number of studies exploring graduate students' and early career academics' learning and experience, several of which contributed to the Next Generation of Social Scientists research programme, and included international collaborations across the UK, US and Canada, as well as a study looking specifically at Sub-Saharan African students' experiences of graduate study in the UK. Nick continues to be actively involved in doctoral pedagogic and

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Jennifer Jones has worked in the Centre for Learning and Teaching, University of Brighton (UOB) as a Research Officer since 2008. She adopted Appreciative Inquiry to research the influences of educational development initiatives on teaching and learning at the University in 2008/2009. Jennifer wrote two articles about her research into the experiences of Learning and Teaching Fellows' in communities of practice at the UOB, which were published in *Educational Developments* in 2009, and *Innovations in Education and Teaching International* in 2010. The latter was chosen by SEDA as the focus of its reading group meeting at the SEDA conference In May, and for online discussion beforehand. Recently, Ms. Jones has researched the experiences of international students, in the context of cross-cultural supervision; and international student retention. She presented her work on cross-cultural supervision with Gina Wisker at ICED in 2010. In 2009, Jennie ran a BAICE funded symposium for international doctoral students and supervisors from 7 English universities; as a discussion forum on the topic of cross-cultural supervision. Subsequently, she presented a paper at the BAICE conference in 2010. In 2010, Jennifer was also awarded funding from the HEA BMAF (Business, Management, Accountancy and Finance) subject centre to explore the experiences of first year international business students at a post-1992 UK university, in relation to student retention. The research will be published on the BMAF website in 2011. Jennifer and her co-researcher, Stephanie Fleischer, won a UOB Learning and Teaching Fellowship to extend this research across the University. Jennifer and Stephanie will present their research at the UOB Learning and Teaching Conference in July.

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Preface

Doctoral Education in International Context:
Connecting local, regional and global perspectives

In a world that is no longer able to maintain or sustain social or cultural enclaves, free from impact of global flows of capital, technologies and bodies, our lives have become more complex. People, events, governments and institutions such as education are increasingly interconnected. In universities, where the presence and influence of an ever-expanding world are particularly keenly recognized, ideas, information and knowledge increasingly cross national boundaries, enabled by digital media and geographical mobility for academics and students. Those of us concerned with doctoral education are increasingly involved in developments that allow and indeed require an international consciousness and an active reaching out to connect programs, knowledge and understanding about pedagogy, and knowledge production. Research and research education become primary sites for shaping the world.

The International Doctoral Education Research Network (IDERN) was formed in this context, to provide an avenue for researchers on doctoral education from around the globe to generate dialogue on knowledge creation and doctoral pedagogy. The aim of the network was to generate a collaborative, international research agenda for doctoral education; to build a research field in this most advanced form of educational provision, and to connect researchers from different national settings, as well as different disciplines and research perspectives. The network has been operating since 2007 and aims to meet for a research forum once every three years, as well as to use online technologies to share and disseminate information and research on the doctorate.

The title of this collection of essays, *Doctoral Education In International Context: connecting the local, regional and international in doctoral education*, was also the theme of the IDERN Invitational Meeting, Conference and Seminar held at Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM) in April 2010. This title articulates the web of connections aspired to through the network, building careful and respectful relationships and complementarities among local and regional interests and concerns, located within, and participating in, an international research and doctoral environment. The 2010 IDERN event was a testament to this exigency. The papers and discussions

highlighted the value of exploring and challenging comfortable cultural and social and educational categories through dialogic exchange across national boundaries.

This collection covers a range of issues that characterise such an intercultural exchange. Recognizing diversity has become integral, not simply in the world at large, but in specific fields and, in particular, doctoral education. Therefore, in dealing with situations that present themselves in the realm of research and supervision, it is necessary to identify the assortment of challenges that appear to be inevitable when we talk about generating and disseminating knowledge. The essays in this collection certainly deal with the multiple facets of such practicalities - from 'real-life' stories about supervisory and doctoral experiences to understanding the benefit of intercultural collaboration. Additionally, the essays engage with different but very germane topics such as specific supervisory problems, forms of writing, the subject of authorship and the publishing world. The essays provide insight either for starting an academic career or strengthening it, while taking into consideration the growing transnational needs of academia.

Ann E. Austin presents a big picture of the changing nature and purpose of the doctorate, which speaks to doctoral educators within very different national systems about the challenges to prepare students for taking up complex roles after graduation. She discusses the educational trajectory for producing students who are able to cope and prosper in their academic careers where supervision, institutional programming and multi-institutional networking contribute to the making of academics who are aware of their responsibilities and who form, at the same time that they are a part of, a community of scholars.

A particular feature of this collection of essays is the set of "country stories" which deal with doctoral and supervisory experiences in Malaysia, Pakistan, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa, providing a glimpse into the practicalities, challenges and actualities of doctoral education in accordance to location and cultural conventions. Set against these stories, Catherine Manathunga's account of postcolonial theory provides conceptual resources for better understanding the cultural complexities of doctoral education in post- and neo-colonial settings. In particular, Manathunga stresses the role of transculturation in improving the quality of supervision and argues the potential of particular postcolonial tropes for exploring the complex relations of power and knowledge in working with

students from different cultures. Cultural differences are also foregrounded in the chapter by Gina Wisker, Gillian Robinson and Jennifer Jones, who emphasise the importance of open negotiation and dialogue. Such resources allow for cultural specificities to become productive factors in supervisor-supervisee relationships where local circumstances intersect complexly with those from diverse corners of the globe.

The characteristics of what Liezel Frick calls 'doctorateness' are the topic of a set of essays that concern particular knowledges and capacities and the educational work of supporting their development. Frick argues that creativity and responsible scholarship are defining elements of doctorateness; hence these are essentially implicated in doctoral education. Ultimately, it is crucial, she says, to identify the particular elements of what she terms 'doctoral becoming' and to becomg better resourced to understand how to foster creativity in different disciplinary and cultural contexts.

Supervision is a primary site of pedagogical work in the doctorate and one that is changing rapidly. Cally Guerin, Ian Green and Wendy Bastalich, provide an account of the growing phenomenon of team supervision, drawing out the reasons for its relatively recent emergence and popularity as well as the predictable complications that ensue from it. For Geof Hill, too, supervision is a complex, dynamic and contested set of practices. His chapter offers a synthesis of literature conceptualising doctoral supervision, focusing on four models through which supervisors can analyse their own supervision practices and developmental goals..

Together with supervision, perhaps the most intense site of doctoral pedagogy is writing, Anthony Paré reiterates his call for an expansive engagement with understanding of doctoral texts as situated social action within a global research conversation. He suggests that students who wish to publish need to understand the various genres of academic texts: dissertations, book chapters and journal articles. Within the cultural dominance of the western, Anglophone academic publishing world, Paré encourages scholars from non-western cultures to become knowledgeable about how to participant in, and consequently enrich, academic conversations on a global level. In this way, a common theme in the collection is an enthusiastic attentiveness towards the dynamics of western and non-western, self and other, in the very real processes of establishing the orientation of research and of doctoral supervision in general.

In the context of academic publishing the dilemmas of authorship are often fraught and complicated. Suzanne Morris argues for students and new researchers to become aware of the international moves to generate policies and guidelines to address some of the historical anomalies and inequities associated with some academic publishing traditions. She identifies some of the practical problems that may arise in collaborative publications and outlines fair and just ways of determining author order, as well as also suggesting tactful methods for negotiating authorship.

The challenges of negotiating the experiences of being a doctoral student come through Paré's and Morris' chapters, in terms of the often secret and silent know-how that is difficult to acquire as a neohphyte. To augment this sense of the particularities of the lifeworld of doctoral students, Nick Hopwood, Patrick Alexander, Susan Harris-Huemmert, Lynn McAlpine and Sheena Wagstaff offer a rare account of the everyday experiences of doctoral students. They show us how there is no such thing as a "normal" student or a "normal" student week, indicating instead that doctoral experiences vary based on many different factors. This work reminds us of the still substantially undocumented world of the doctorate – of students, supervisors and the practices in which they engage.

In the end, this collection, produced within the context of a significant international conference in Malalysia, deals with both the 'high-order' and the everyday issues in doctoral education. The importance and the difficulty of cultural exchange are demonstrated through all of the chapters, together with a strong sense of a common endeavour of building knowledge about doctoral education across national and cultural boundaries.

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Preparing Doctoral Students for Promising Careers in a Changing Context: Implications for Supervision, Institutional Planning and Cross-Institutional Opportunities

Ann E. Austin

As demand for higher education expands in many countries, there is an increasing need for excellent, dedicated and well-prepared academic staff. At the same time, Governments want higher education institutions to produce graduates who can fulfill workplace needs and who have the knowledge and skills to contribute to overall societal well-being. Doctoral education plays a critically important role in preparing the next generation of academics who have the capacity to engage in the teaching and research missions of higher education institutions. Doctoral programs also produce graduates who enter other arenas of work where scholarly professionals are needed. Ensuring that doctoral graduates are well-prepared for their future roles and responsibilities is a concern of institutional leaders and academic staff, particularly doctoral supervisors.

This chapter considers the preparation of doctoral students, with particular consideration of the competencies (abilities, skills and values) they need to develop to be successful in their future work as scholars, teachers and researchers. It also considers ways in which supervision, institutional programming and multi-institutional networking can foster these competencies. To address these issues, the chapter is divided into four parts. First, it examines key contextual features in the environment that are especially relevant to the preparation of future academics and scholars. Second, it presents a set of competency areas which, it is argued, should be developed by doctoral students if they are to be adequately prepared for academic and scholarly careers. Third, it reviews key aspects of socialization theory that explains how doctoral education prepares students for their

professional futures. Finally, building on the first three sections, the chapter offers suggestions for enriching doctoral education through supervision, institutional planning and cross-institutional opportunities.

The Changing Environment for Academic Work

Several developments in higher education in countries across the world are creating new expectations, responsibilities and challenges for academic staff. Hence, higher education institutions are currently facing a period of major change and transformation (Gappa, Austin & Trice, 2007) and the work of academic staff is getting demanding. This section highlights five significant themes and trends with implications for the work of academic staff and, therefore, implications for doctoral education as preparation for academic careers. Some of these changes also affect the work of scholars situated in positions outside traditional higher education institutions.

More Diverse Student Bodies

As access to higher education increases in many countries, student bodies are becoming more diverse with regard to the backgrounds, prior preparation and educational needs of students (Gappa, Austin, & Trice, 2007). Additionally, academic staff members who are now faced with the challenge of educating large numbers of students are thus required to be both effective and efficient. Furthermore, they face the challenge of teaching classes with students who have different needs in terms of learning processes. Addressing gaps in prior knowledge, variations in language familiarity and different learning styles among students present challenges to academic staff. Teaching based on the assumption that all students learn in similar ways, and using the traditional lecture methods based on a transmission approach to learning is not likely to result in desired learning outcomes for the entire range of students. Instructors therefore need knowledge of different strategies to promote learning across a broad range of students with diverse characteristics.

Concerns about Quality and Accountability

In a number of countries in Asia, high unemployment rates are raising questions about student preparation for the working world. Employers claim that today's graduates do not have the necessary skills and attitudes

suited to workplaces striving for global competitiveness. In particular, employers note that graduates often have inadequate skills in English and in information and computer technology (ICT) (World Bank, 2009). Essentially, high unemployment is coupled with an insufficient supply of skilled workers.

These observations raise concerns about the adequacy of the current curriculum and the quality of teaching in higher education institutions. In response, many countries are now developing national qualification frameworks and quality assurance plans, including national standards, and calling for institutions to engage in internal monitoring of curricular and teaching quality, and the development of assessment systems (UNESCO, 2008). For example, in 2007 in Malaysia, the Parliament established the Malaysian Qualification Agency (MQA) to conduct accreditation exercises and to serve as a national regulatory body, with emphasis on international level standards for certificates, diplomas and degrees awarded by private universities (UNESCO, 2008). In this context of greater regulation and accountability, academic staff must be more attentive to demonstrable learning outcomes, and be skilled in conducting formative and summative assessment of students' progress toward achieving specified learning outcome goals.

Increasing Inter-Institutional and Cross-National Competition

Within countries, higher education institutions are competing for students and resources while across countries, competition is also increasing as each nation strives to develop their higher education institutions into world-class universities. Excellent research-productive universities require academic staff who are highly prepared and environments that foster and support collaboration and academic freedom (Altbach, 2010; Levin, 2010; Salmi, 2009). Even universities that are not pursuing world-class status strive to increase their research capacity as national leaders view research contributions as being important to drive innovation and national productivity (World Bank, 2009). Thus increased pressure to conduct and publish research is a prevalent theme in universities across the world.

To meet goals related to competitiveness and productivity, universities require a critical mass of research-active academic staff. Most higher education institutions have far to go to reach their goal of producing significant levels of internationally-recognized published research. In

pursuing this goal they will need to equip the next generation of academic staff with significant research skills. Research and scholarship also include pursuing questions pertaining to application and practice, as well as extending the boundaries of a field. Thus, the next generation of scholars must also include those who engage in the scholarship of engagement and application apart from those engaged in the scholarship of discovery (Austin & Barnes, 2005).

The Rapid Expansion of Knowledge and the Rise of Interdisciplinary Work

One of the widely recognized features of contemporary life is the exponential pace of knowledge creation and discovery. This rapid expansion of knowledge means that scholars and teachers cannot possibly hope to be knowledgeable about all the latest developments in their respective fields. Conducting research and teaching requires not only a solid foundation in the key principles, streams of thought and accomplishments in one's field but also the ability to constantly update one's knowledge, to know how to find knowledge as needed, and to think critically and analytically about the quality of the information acquired. This constant expansion of knowledge is seen to be accompanied by an increase in interdisciplinary work (Gappa, Austin, & Trice, 2007). Many of today's most pressing problems, such as, for example, issues related to food production, health and disease control, productive agriculture, homelessness and international conflict resolution, require the theoretical and analytical perspective as well as the knowledge base of multiple disciplines. Productive scholars need to be able to work both within the boundaries of their own fields as well as beyond, in areas where different fields intersect.

Technological Advances

The rapid advances in technology are felt throughout the world, although access and availability for individuals vary, depending on the country and circumstances. Nevertheless, technology in various forms is an essential and unavoidable element in higher education. Using technology, researchers can access resources and materials and conduct research in ways that were not possible even a short while ago. Lack of access to technological resources relevant to one's field or insufficient knowledge about the use of such resources is a serious handicap for scholars. In the teaching arena,

new technologies are used in traditional courses, online learning and hybrid courses, encompassing both face-to-face and technology-mediated instruction. This is seen across Asia, where the practice of distance learning is increasing rapidly (Altbach, 2004; Salmi, 2002). The growing influx of mobile phone usage, which is extended to areas where land lines are not available, is fostering new and innovative learning strategies that utilize mobile technology. Next-generation scholars and academics must understand the impact of technology on research practices in their fields, and also know how to use technologies to foster student learning (Gappa, Austin, & Trice, 2007).

Each of these trends, as well as others, contributes to an ever changing world for higher education institutions and the academic staff entrusted with the task of carrying out their missions. The next generation of scholars will be subject to high expectations, both national and institutional, exciting opportunities to make a significant impact and challenging new developments that will require considerable expertise, insightful thinking and deep commitment. Effective preparation of future scholars must recognize the needs of future academic staff and scholarly professionals which include a range of abilities, skills, knowledge and understanding which extends beyond that needed for professional and academic success today. The challenge for supervisors and others working with doctoral students is in helping them prepare for a professional world that is significantly different from the world which they inhabit today.

Competency Areas Proposed to Be Addressed in Doctoral Education

Given the current and the possible future demands on academic staff and other scholarly professionals in the higher education sector, what competencies (skills, abilities, understandings, and values) should doctoral students develop as they prepare for their future careers? While doctoral education typically addresses the development of disciplinary and research expertise, doctoral programs often do not explicitly focus on the development of other competencies (Austin, 2002; Golde and Dore, 2001). The inherent challenges in the working environment, as discussed above, suggest that future scholars are likely to require a broader repertoire of abilities and skills as compared to their predecessors. This section presents five competency areas which should be addressed in doctoral education if

graduates are to be prepared for the challenges and responsibilities they will face. (Many of the ideas presented in this section were first developed in Austin and McDaniels' [2006] analysis of doctoral student preparation.)

Disciplinary Knowledge

At the core of doctoral education is the development of disciplinary knowledge and expertise (Austin, 2002). Each discipline has a unique culture, which influences the questions asked, the research methods used, the theoretical perspectives guiding the work, the issues debated and the work behaviors and types of scholarly products of members of the discipline (Austin, 1990; Becher, 194, 1987). Much of doctoral education involves students learning about the history of the field, key paradigms guiding research, the central questions and concepts driving the field, the vexing debates within the field and the commonly accepted research methods for conducting research. Doctoral students must learn about the culture and distinguishing features of their disciplines, how it intersects with other fields and what questions are central as well as those at the borders of the discipline. A major outcome of doctoral study is knowledge and skill in participating and contributing within the norms of the disciplinary community and how to "be" a member of the discipline when interacting with those in other fields.

Research Competencies

Becoming a researcher within one's discipline is a key outcome of doctoral education. Thus, firstly, one of the most important research competencies to acquire is the ability to frame significant questions. Second, novices must learn how to design research studies, which include knowledge of appropriate research methods, accessing data and the criteria for excellence in research design evaluation. Third, they must learn how to collect and analyze data, and understand what methods are deemed acceptable in the field and the limitations and affordances of those methods. Fourth, doctoral students should gain experience in interpreting findings and presenting results to diverse audiences, where this requires them to understand how to communicate in different ways as appropriate to a particular audience. Fifth, doctoral students should develop skills in critiquing the work of others (peer review), receiving feedback on their own work and engaging in assessing their own work.

Pedagogical Expertise

As access to higher education expands, the need for excellence in teaching also increases. Research has shown that graduate students typically learn to teach by observing their own instructors, noting which strategies are effective and which are not. Typically attention to pedagogical instruction is not systematic, and thus, doctoral students often graduate without having had the opportunity to consider or develop pedagogical knowledge and skills (Austin, 2002; Nyquist and Sprague, 1992).

So what specific pedagogical knowledge and competencies should doctoral students develop? First, they should learn how learning occurs, what motivates students to want to learn and how to integrate motivating experiences into their teaching practice. Second, they should understand that individuals differ in learning styles and preferences, with adult students tending to have a different approach to learning as compared to younger students (Cross, 1981). Given the diverse needs of students, future academics should develop skills in using a variety of teaching methods and knowledge of the advantages and limitations of each method. In Asia, lectures tend to be the norm rather than discussion (Altbach, 2010). However, research indicates that learning is enhanced when students have opportunity to discuss, question and arrive at their own interpretations of what they are studying (McKeachie and Svinicki, 2006). Prospective instructors will benefit from acquainting themselves with current research on learning and the implications of such research for teaching practice.

In addition to becoming familiar with teaching methods, doctoral students should learn about specific issues and challenges pertinent to teaching in their fields—what Hutchings and Shulman (1999) call "pedagogical content knowledge." This kind of knowledge involves understanding the learning challenges unique to the discipline, and developing the skill to explain specific disciplinary concepts and to help students identify problems and questions unique to the discipline. As future teachers, doctoral students need several kinds of knowledge: disciplinary knowledge, pedagogical knowledge (developing a range of teaching methods) and pedagogical content knowledge (understanding the unique teaching issues relevant to one's field).

Doctoral students would also do well to learn to engage in curriculum design at the course and program levels, since academic practice requires such ability. Becoming familiar with various technologies and learning to effectively integrate these technologies into one's teaching practice is

another competency that would help them succeed in professional and academic work following their doctoral preparation (World Bank, 2009). Today, there is increasing demand for assessment of learning outcomes in most higher education institutions. Doctoral education that more fully prepares students for future careers would thus include attention to strategies for engaging in formative and summative evaluation of student learning.

Interpersonal Skills

Doing scholarly work often requires collaboration and interaction with others. Knowledge limited to one's field is therefore insufficient to accomplish the work expected of academics and scholarly professionals. Excellent scholarly professionals would also know how to communicate effectively with a range of audiences—including other scholars, community members, institutional leaders, and funders - in both written and verbal form (Austin, 2002; Austin and Barnes, 2005; Stark, Lowther, and Hagerty, 1986). They must be able to collaborate with others, which involves feeling comfortable with people from different backgrounds and disciplines, understanding group dynamics, recognizing multiple perspectives, and managing conflict.

Professional Attitudes and Habits

Doctoral students need to develop thier professional identity as scholars (which will continue to develop as they progress in their careers). Such identity involves perceiving oneself as a member of a scholarly community, with responsibilities to the community—such as reviewing the work of peers, submitting manuscripts and papers, and participating in conferences and other activities that advance the discipline. Having a scholarly identity also involves knowing how to connect to disciplinary and professional networks and colleagues, both within one's own institution and country as well as internationally. Knowledge of the range of positions and institutions in which one might work as a scholarly professional is another aspect of developing one's professional identity. Additionally, developing a commitment to ethical behavior and personal integrity is an essential outcome of doctoral education (Braxton & Baird, 2001; Stark, Lowther, & Hagerty, 1986). Developing scholars must learn to incorporate ethical

standards into their research, teaching and collaboration, including handling conflicts of interest, data management and intellectual ownership. They also need skills in recognizing and handling misconduct and dishonesty.

Socialization Theory

In addition to considering the competencies to be addressed in doctoral education, those involved in preparing future academics and scholars should also be informed about the learning methodologies adopted by doctoral students. The literature on socialization theory provides a useful perspective about the influences on learning during doctoral education. While other theoretical perspectives can also be used to ensure the quality of doctoral education, socialization theory is used widely to frame discussions on the preparation of professionals in various fields. The essay by Austin and McDaniels (2006) provides a review and discussion on socialization theory in relation to the doctoral experience. The discussion in this section draws on that earlier work.

Merton, Reader and Kendall (1957) defined socialization in relation to a profession as "the processes through which [a person] develops [a sense of] professional self…" More recently, Bragg (1976) explained that "the socialization process is the learning process through which the individual acquires the knowledge and skills, the values and attitudes, and the habits and modes of thought of the society to which he belongs" (p. 3). Through socialization, one becomes a member of the group, an insider rather than an outsider (Bullis and Bach, 1989; Corcoran and Clark, 1984; Staton and Darling, 1989; Van Maanen, 1976).

The socialization process that occurs in graduate school prepares individuals to be scholars, professionals, members of their disciplines, and in some cases, academic staff. Recent postmodern perspectives have critiqued the view of the socialization experience as a one-way process through which newcomers simply receive and acquire knowledge and are assimilated into the profession or employing institutions. Instead, the emphasis by theorists writing about socialization in the academic profession in more recent years has been on socialization as a two-way process through which both the individual entering the organization and the higher education organizations themselves transform and learn. The goal of socialization for new academics is thus not to assimilate newcomers into academe, nor to push newcomers to be homogeneous in their talents

and contributions, but rather to help novices learn about the organization and profession they are entering, while maintaining their own unique identities. This two-way process means that even as the profession and organization shapes the newcomer, the novice in turn also influences the organization (Antony, 2002; Austin & McDaniels, 2006; Tierney, 1997; Tierney & Bensimon, 1996; Tierney & Rhoads, 1994).

Weidman, Twale and Stein (2001) have offered a framework for conceptualizing and theorizing socialization within the graduate experience, drawing on an extensive body of scholarship on socialization theory. They argue that the socialization experience in graduate education involves three processes occurring simultaneously: knowledge acquisition, investment and involvement. Through knowledge acquisition, students develop a sense of the history, language, problems and ideology of the academic profession. At the same time, by investing time and energy in their fields, graduate students become more entrenched in the profession. Further, involvement occurs as doctoral students interact with professors, academic staff and advanced doctoral students, and through engaging in research, attending conferences and participating in academic life. Such involvement deepens students' understanding of the profession and their own identification with it.

Building on the work of Thorton and Nardi (1975), Weidman, Twale and Stein (2001) highlighted four stages in doctoral socialization. Of note, however, is that these stages do not necessarily follow a linear pattern. Instead socialization is shown to be a "dynamic" process, through which professional identity and commitment emerge and deepen (Weidman, Twale, & Stein, 2001, p. 40). The first stage, labeled "anticipatory", is when graduate students become aware of important characteristics of the group they are entering, including attitudes, behaviors and values. Much of this involves observing and interacting with academic staff, through which process doctoral students note what is important and valued, what academics do and what is not done. In the "formal stage," newcomers deepen their understanding of what it means to be part of the academic profession as they experience formal instruction and receive explicit feedback. Students continue to observe professors and academic staff, as well as those who play different roles in the profession. They also have opportunities to "try out" various research roles and to occasionally explore teaching roles. Learning through observation and interaction continues to be important. In the "informal stage," the process of interacting with and

observing professors and academic staff continues to be influential, but peer culture also plays a role as doctoral students interact, share information, discuss their observations and concerns and support each other. While peer culture of this nature is more prevalent in course-based doctoral programs, where doctoral students interact regularly, those working on non-course-based doctorate programmes can also find opportunities to discuss their experiences and share observations, interpretations and perspectives. The fourth stage, as explained by Weidman, Twale and Stein (2001), is the "personal stage," during which doctoral students internalize new roles and develop a new professional identity. During this stage, graduate students become more like colleagues to the academic staff, and are more fully engaged in the actual work involved in the profession.

Several key themes stand out in this brief review of socialization theory as related to doctoral student preparation and education. Firstly, the socialization process in doctoral education is non-linear, with a tendency for different stages to overlap. Secondly, socialization is not a one-way process through which doctoral students simply receive information, but rather a two-way, interactive process through which the newcomers are influenced by the profession and the institution and in turn put forward new ideas and approaches themselves. Thirdly, socialization in the scholarly profession occurs in a cultural context in which the academic program, the institution and the discipline play important roles. In fact, the different disciplinary cultures have great influence on all aspects of academic work, and thus the specific socialization experiences of doctoral students will, in many ways, be shaped by their particular disciplinary context (Austin, 1990; 2002; Becher, 1984, 1987; Clark, 1987; Kuh & Whitt, 1988; Tierney, 1990).

A fourth theme is that the socialization process involves observation and interaction (Austin, 2002; Austin & McDaniels, 2006; Staton and Darling, 1989; Staton-Spicer & Darling, 1986, 1987; Weidman, Twale, & Stein, 2001). Doctoral students observe the university environment and the academic staff with whom they interact, as well as the other students. They see how scholars spend their time, what they prioritize and enjoy and what they avoid, how they work with colleagues and students, what values they express and which they minimize. Doctoral students note both explicit messages (what is said to be important and valued) as well as implicit messages (what is not said but still salient). They may note, for example, that in some universities, the institutional leaders may claim that teaching is a strong institutional value, but that the academic staff who are most

appreciated and rewarded are those most productive in research, even if they are less committed to excellent teaching. In addition to observation, the students' interactions with their supervisors, other academic staff, and also with their peers, contribute to their understanding of academic work. Their interactions with professional communities and potential employers also play a role in their socialization within the academic circles.

Two important implications about supervision and peers are highlighted by this brief discussion of socialization theory as it relates to the doctoral experience. First is that supervisors play a very important role in helping to shape doctoral students' professional identities, the work they do and how they should prepare for it. While in general supervisors guide their doctoral students through the process of learning to be independent researchers, they play an even greater role in the socialization and preparation of future scholarly professionals as role models under the perceptive eye of doctoral students who are constantly reading the environment. They set examples, implicitly share values and convey messages about what is important in scholarly work. Thus, supervisors have the responsibility of considering the ways in which they impact their students and whether they are preparing these students to the fullest extent possible to assume the responsibilities and challenges they will face.

The second implication is that doctoral students also learn from peers and others in their professional and personal environment. Conversations with other students, and particularly interactions with more advanced doctoral students, aid them in making sense of scholarly work, values and careers. Opportunities to participate in communities that provide sense-making experiences—particularly opportunities that are guided by the more advanced members of the community—are very useful to novices in the academic profession. Doctoral students need support in interpreting and understanding what they are observe and experience, and the opportunity to mingle in communities where discussion and exchange can provide support. While this chapter has drawn on socialization theory to explain and highlight aspects of the preparation experiences of doctoral students, the theoretical work of communities of practice and cognitive apprenticeship is also pertinent to the preparation of doctoral students. Another paper (Austin, 2009) discusses the implications of this theory for doctoral education. Of relevance here, however, is that related literature also highlights the importance of participation in communities comprising scholars for the development of doctoral students.

Recommendations for Practice

This chapter has analyzed contextual challenges shaping academic work, suggested competencies that doctoral students should develop to be adequately prepared for the work they will do, and used socialization theory as a lens for considering how doctoral students learn. This final section offers practical suggestions for preparing future scholars and academic professionals for the changing contexts within which they will experience their careers. It emphasizes the important role of the supervisor in guiding students and providing opportunities for them to develop a full range of skills and abilities relevant to the demands and expectations they will face in a changing environment. It also recommends the creation of institutional and cross-institutional communities that support graduate student development and preparation. There are five suggestions made as follows:

Suggestion 1: Doctoral Education as Preparation for the Full Range of Scholarly Work

Doctoral education appropriately emphasizes immersion in the discipline and the development of research skills as the core of the doctoral experience. However, current practice does not usually explicitly prepare students for the full array of responsibilities they will have to undertake in the dynamic and volatile environment which characterizes higher education today. Recognizing this limitation, this chapter calls for those involved in doctoral education to consider what competencies doctoral students should develop to be more fully prepared for their careers and the experiences that will help them in attaining these abilities, skills and understandings. Supervisors, doctoral program directors as well as doctoral students themselves may find it useful to engage in a "mapping" exercise to discuss the important competencies to be developed and to develop a plan to determine how and where the student can develop each competency.

Suggestion 2: The Importance of Learning Communities

Doctoral students learn by observing and interacting with academic staff. They also learn from peers and through participation in communities of scholars. In view of this, some universities are creating opportunities for doctoral students to interact in structured learning communities. For

example, some graduate school deans are offering workshops aimed at getting students across disciplines to come together to discuss topics such as ethics in research and teaching, and the kinds of scholarly careers available within the academy as well as in other sectors and perspectives on doing interdisciplinary work. In such workshops and seminars, doctoral students and academic staff share experiences, ideas and questions. In some countries, some disciplinary organizations, as well as some cross-institutional organizations, are also creating opportunities, at conferences and meetings, for doctoral students to interact informally with peers and advanced academics in discussion groups or seminars. The discussion topics at these meetings pertain to various aspects of scholarly work (e.g. developing expertise as a teacher while also maintaining a strong research focus).

Suggestion 3: Structured Opportunities to Develop Teaching and Research Competencies

The experiences of doctoral students typically vary by individual in terms of the opportunities available to develop teaching skills and research skills. Some doctoral students have no opportunities to gain guided teaching experiences. In terms of research, while the dissertation is a guided experience, it does not always provide opportunities for students to experience all aspects of research activities. Writing grant proposals or participating in interdisciplinary teams which are also research tasks, for example, are often not included in the student experience. To address such gaps, some universities offer workshops and seminars for doctoral students on topical issues in teaching or research. For example, a seminar might focus on strategies for supervising (a skill future academics need to develop) or grant-writing skills.

Suggestion 4: Expanded Views of the Role of the Supervisor

Supervisors typically focus on guiding doctoral students through the process of dissertation design and implementation. It is suggested that supervisors would contribute in important ways to the development of doctoral students by also considering how they can help students prepare for the full range of expectations they will face as scholars. How might supervisors (already fully occupied with providing research supervision) take on this broad role? One way may be to schedule regular sessions (once

or twice a year) with each doctoral students to assess his/her progress and growth across various learning goals. Such conversations might also involve discussion of the different competencies that the doctoral student should develop in order to be fully prepared to assume a scholarly career, and how and where such competencies can be gained. Supervisors can also initiate conversations about their own careers, how they acquired the skills and abilities that their work as scholars demands, and the values that they bring to their work. Such conversations offer the doctoral students opportunities to reflect on the meaning of professional identity and the opportunities and challenges prevalent in a scholarly career, under the guidance of a trusted advanced scholar. Supervisors might also consider the implicit, as well as explicit, messages they convey to their students about academic work, scholarly careers and professional identity as a scholar.

Higher education institutions need dedicated, well-prepared academic staff members who understand the meaning and responsibilities implicit in an academic career, who have committed themselves to developing a professional scholarly identity and who have developed the necessary competencies to do scholarly work in a demanding environment. Supervisors and institutional leaders have the opportunity and responsibility to ensure that doctoral education provides these opportunities to the next generation of scholars.

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2

Excavating Differences: Stories of Experiences of Doctoral Education from Five Countries

Alison Lee

The following set of accounts was generated during a discussion session at the IDERN forum in April 2010. The purpose was to begin to 'excavate' beneath the surface of the most common accounts of national differences in doctoral education, where statistics provide 'across the top', or 'macro', descriptions of national systems (eg Nerad & Heggelund, 2008). Though these 'official' accounts are useful and necessary to build an international picture of the differences, similarities and changes in doctorate studies within different national contexts, they offer little useful insight into the actual realities or life-world of those involved in doctoral study within different national, political, economic, cultural, religious and linguistic environments, whether studying for a doctorate, supervising doctoral students or developing doctoral programs.

The framing for the sessions was taken from Margot Pearson's call, at the end of her 2005 article in *Higher Education Research and Development* for:

> approaches that can extend a comparative and globally relational understanding of higher education that can offer a way forward for framing research on doctoral education that is generative and integrative (p 130)

As argued by Pearson, 'macro-level' studies informing on policy development tend to assign the leading role in change to governments and institutions. At the same time, 'micro-level studies' of educational practice and the doctoral experience have too often credited disciplinary differences for the differences and variations. Pearson's view is important in that it

highlights the lack of carefully contextualized studies of the everyday world of doctoral practices within the rhetoric of globalisation, which assumes that the growing internationalization of 21st-century doctoral education produces a universal system, in some simple way, where the distinctiveness of local and regional differences are often assumed to be derivative of norms produced within the 'north'. Within this context, Pearson calls for:

> more complementary macro- and micro-level studies, more critical analysis grounded in empirical data, more fine-grained analysis of local activity and human agency, and more recognition of the broad range of stakeholder interests (p 130).

Such studies, she argues, would provide richer and more critical accounts of how doctoral practices are enacted, decisions made at many levels and changes accomplished. She also argues for a reconceptualisation of doctoral education as 'enculturation', in order to conceptualise diversity and change in other than purely economic or institutional policy terms and to allow for an articulation of 'multi-agent, multi-level local, national, regional and global interactions' (p 131). The potential of such studies will be to initiate the generation of a richer and more critical analysis of doctoral education in different countries, to evaluate their place in research education locally and globally, and to reflect on change in a more coherent, informed and sustainable way.

The five stories from different nationalities published in this volume were presented at the opening sessions of the IDERN research meeting, and provided some insights in proceeding to explore the development of an international doctoral education research agenda that gave due consideration to local circumstances while striving to make connections and explore differences across the participants from ten different national cultures. The five stories are complexly positioned: a doctoral student researching the experiences of 'international' doctoral students studying in Australia (Cotterall); a relatively new supervisor (Kumar), recently graduated from doctoral study in another country (New Zealand) supervising students in Malaysia; an academic developer in New Zealand writing about a Samoan doctoral student studying in New Zealand (Wolfgramm-Foliaki); the leader of a new doctoral program in Pakistan (Halai); and a very experienced doctoral educator reflecting on transformative political and educational change over the course of her career in South Africa, during- and post-Apartheid (van Zyl).

There is a somewhat deliberately 'Southern' flavour to the accounts, reflecting the significance of holding the IDERN meeting in Malaysia, a South-East Asian country seeking to build its own doctoral presence and exercise leadership in doctoral education within the Asia-Pacific region. In a context where globalisation of the doctorate appears to draw most heavily from the cultural norms of the North, particularly the US and, more recently, Europe, through the reach of the Bologna Process, the Malaysian experience provides a counter-balance to the narratives of globalisation that so often construe Southern developments as being merely derivative of Northern ideas, models and pedagogies (Pearson 2005, Lee & Danby 2012), rather than as creators of new knowledge on doctoral education. At the same time, the IDERN research forum participants from the UK, Canada, the USA and Sweden ensured the international (bi-hemispheric) relevance of the issues and practices discussed.

The process of writing these stories has been a collective and iterative experience. Each story was circulated to all of the other authors who reviewed and provided commentary on the first draft. These commentaries contributed to a shared sense of purpose and the following brief comments provide a taste of the ideas exchanged during the review and discussion process. The complexity and intimate details of the cases and issues discussed in these papers is a significant feature of these stories. Susan van Zyl, for example, adopts a historical institutional focus from her perspective as the former Director of the Humanities Graduate Centre at Wits University in Johannesburg. Her account of the historical changes to the student body and the institution of Wits addresses and poses difficult questions on issues that are not well documented in the sparse literature currently available on South African doctoral education. Nelofer Halai considers, through a narrative of personal experiences, the complex intersections of gender, culture and religion within the Pakistani higher education system, grappling with the legacies of British colonialism in terms of doctoral education. Similarly, Vijay Kumar provides a personal account of the dilemmas of differences within the doctoral student population at his university in Malaysia, comprising Middle-Eastern students from different countries with diverse cultural and religious traditions, that impact on his supervisory relationships and practices which in turn offer contrasting perspectives compared to his own doctoral education experiences in another former British colony, New Zealand. 'Ema Wolfgramm-Foliaki presents the stress faced by the Pasifika doctoral student, Semisi, in

reconciling the conflicts between family and community commitments and the university's expectations of him as a doctoral student; while at the same time, she highlights the stress faced by his supervisor in considering how, when and if to raise various issues with him. Sara Cotterall's account of international doctoral students studying in Australia reveals the inequality of the opportunities provided to the six participants in her study, where the students have no explicit criteria of doctoral practice 'norms' with which to compare their experiences. These students therefore face difficulty in making complaints or requesting further opportunities, and the dominant attitude seems to be one of resignation and acceptance of the prevailing conditions. It is perhaps common that knowledge gained from studies, such as that by Sara, on racial harassment, bullying and other forms of disadvantage suffered by minority doctoral students studying abroad is rarely communicated to doctoral program leaders.

These chapters, taken together, provide a record of specific experiences and perspectives of individual writers. They do not represent the entire story of doctoral education within any one country and are not authoritative accounts in a simple sense. These narratives are also not all based on primary research but rather are reflections of personal experiences, which have been selected to be presented to an international audience. However, each personal account is viewed within the context of the national doctoral education system of which they are a part. Each speaks of some critical issue or dilemma faced by the individual and their colleagues at the local level, reflecting something of the national, regional and international complexity and inter-relatedness of the global scene of mobile policies, bodies and practices of doctoral education. The intention was to begin a dialogue about what an international doctoral education research agenda might look like if it addressed Pearson's call, as discussed above. What would research look like, that could genuinely 'extend a comparative and globally relational understanding of higher education, offer a way forward for framing research on doctoral education that is generative and integrative'? These country stories provide us with a means of debating that question.

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Supervising Postgraduate Students: Reflections from Malaysia

Vijay Kumar

Overview

In this chapter, I share my experiences as a supervisor in Malaysia and how my experiences in New Zealand as a doctoral student shaped my supervisory practices. First I provide a brief background of doctoral education in Malaysia and consider the implications of the government's target to increase the number of postgraduate students eight-fold in fifteen years. Following this, I reflect on doctoral education in one Malaysian institution, focusing in particular on the strategies used to support the development of student academic writing through the formation of a Writer Response Group. I then present a case study of the successful supervision of my first thesis student, noting how I emphasized regular writing, practised a peer-to-peer model of supervision and played an active role in her career development. My reflections on this experience highlight issues surrounding co-supervision, and shed light on the disjuncture between assessment and feedback. Finally, I present some of my aspirations for postgraduate education in Malaysia.

Higher education in Malaysia: National context

In order to understand the context of higher education in Malaysia, it is essential to know that in Malaysia, public universities are fully funded by the government. All universities come under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Higher Education and the Ministry's responsibilities include policy matters such as appointments of top management officials, internationalisation and massification of postgraduate numbers.

The Malaysian government has a long-term goal of developing the country. It aims for Malaysia to be among world leaders in education and a regional hub for quality education. This entails raising the standard of education in the country to international levels; a goal whose attainment hinges on the existence of a critical mass of researchers. Given that the current number of 8000 PhD holders is considered insufficient to meet its education goals and also to drive innovation and promote economic growth, the Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia launched a program called MyBrain 15 in 2008. The aim of this programme is to increase the number of PhD holders eight-fold, and to produce 60,000 Malaysian PhD holders in 15 years. Apart from the acquisition of traditional PhDs, the government is also targeting industry-based applied research PhDs to achieve the goals of MyBrain 15. Currently, 40% of government-sponsored students pursue their doctoral education locally, another 30% in Britain and the rest in countries such as Australia, New Zealand, Japan and the United States.

Doctoral Education in Local setting

Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM), a research intensive university, enrols a large number of postgraduate students annually. In 2010, it had an enrolment of over 9700 such students comprising 2800 doctoral candidates while the remainder were undertaking Master's level postgraduate studies either in the coursework or thesis mode. In Malaysia, students have to complete their Master's degree with a minimum CGPA (Cumulative Grade Point Average) of 3.0 to be admitted to a doctoral programme. The majority of doctoral candidates are international students from the Middle East.

Doctoral candidates have to complete a range of courses that include research methodology and discipline specific courses. The doctoral candidates are then given two options in pursuing their studies. They can work on a traditional format that involves research followed by submission of thesis, and this is the choice of a majority of doctoral candidates. Students following this format are also required to have submitted two papers to peer-reviewed journals before they submit their doctoral thesis for examination. One of these papers should have been accepted for publication and the other submitted for review. The candidates are supervised by three academic staff members and are expected to submit progress reports at the end of each semester. At the end of the first year,

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students have to defend their research proposal and then, at the end of the second year they must sit a comprehensive examination. An oral examination is compulsory for PhD candidates; it is also part of the programme for students pursuing a Masters by thesis.

The second option is a PhD by publication. Students who choose to pursue this mode have to publish at least four articles in citation-indexed journals and the articles must be derived from research that the doctoral candidate undertakes specifically for the degree. There is an expectation that the articles be published in ISI-ranked journals. The university will fund the publication fees.

The requirement to publish in quality ISI-ranked journals has been fruitful in the sense that both supervisors and candidates benefit from the high quality peer review process, thus shielding the thesis from unwarranted critical comments by the examiners. In addition, postgraduate students have the advantage of being inducted into publishing during candidature which adds value to their postgraduate qualifications. Even though this is the case, however, the requirement is demanding both for the candidate and the supervisor, and a number of issues must be raised in regards to it, most of which relate to authorship (Morris this volume) as well as to "premature publication" (Pare, 2010).

Language concerns

One main concern faced by supervisors of PhD students whether by thesis or publication is the language proficiency level of international doctoral students who are, as mentioned, mostly from Middle Eastern countries and non-native speakers of English. Apart from a recognised postgraduate qualification, the entry qualifications for international students include IELTS (Band 6) or TOEFL (550 or 79/80 – Internet based). Candidates without the minimum English language requirements, but who have fallen short of a few points (e.g. 500 – 540 for paper based TOEFL or 61-78, Internet based TOEFL or Band 5.5 for IELTS) are still accepted as students but on the condition that they enrol in a fee-paying programme known as the Tertiary English Programme (TEP). This is an 8 hours-per-week non-discipline specific English course that encompasses academic writing, academic reading and academic presentation skills. It is in fact the only postgraduate level English course available to doctoral students at the university. Malaysian students do not have to meet IELTS/TOEFL requirements. They are also not required to enrol in the TEP. This means

that both local students and international students, who are not required to enrol in the TEP, do not have any exposure to the genres of scholarly writing, reading and presentation, and this certainly is a matter that raises concerns.

For instance, cases of plagiarism are something that I have to deal with on a regular basis, both from international and local students. As a supervisor, I realise that students have to be taught about plagiarism and both supervisors and students have to understand the academic culture they are now involved with. Apparently, in some cultures, it seems copying a whole assignment without any writing is an acceptable practice (Davies, 2007).While Turnitin is used institutionally in the university as an anti-plagiarism tool, there is still the drawback that Turnitin does not detect ideas that are plagiarised or even sources from non-electronic resources. Students need to be inducted into academic writing, as the majority of them do not have sufficient exposure to the intricacies of discipline specific scholarly writing. To the best of my knowledge, most faculties do not assume the responsibility of conducting discipline specific academic writing courses or exposing students to the skills of process writing, which includes writing for a specific audience, and rewriting and revising as a process of discovery. Based on my conversations with supervisors, many seem to be unaware of doctoral writing pedagogies and thus, they struggle to provide students with effective feedback. Both local and international students seem to be of the opinion that it is the supervisor's responsibility to 'fix their language' while the supervisors, on the other hand, expect the students to have mastered academic writing skills at the postgraduate levels.

One strategy I used to overcome this language concern is the formation of Writer Response Groups (WRG). These groups, comprising the students I was supervising, have been called collaborative writing groups or even peer support groups by researchers in the field of writing. Initially, I trained these groups in the academic writing skills that I felt were lacking among group members. The training included reading student drafts and giving positive feedback before highlighting concerns and making suggestions (Hyland, & Hyland, 2001). The training sessions also incorporated discussions on issues such as paraphrasing, quoting, logic, cohesion, critical argument, referencing, structuring and paragraph development, and the group members were exposed to examiners' reports (for example, Holbrook, Bourke, Lovat & Dallyl, 2004; Mullin & Kiley,

2002; Johnston, 1997) which they studied and thus were able to model their responses on what examiners look for in a thesis. Once the group members were familiar with these aspects, I insisted that drafts of chapters be reviewed by the WRG before they were submitted to me for my feedback. The WRG considerably reduced the necessity for me to address surface level concerns, so I was able to focus on the scholarly development of the thesis. The students benefited too, in the sense that they took notice of the concerns and issues that were highlighted by the WRG and attended to the feedback that was given: this resulted in better quality drafts.

Supervision experiences

The national aspiration to increase the number of PhD graduates and the quest to place publications in high quality journals during the period of candidature makes the life of a supervisor challenging.

My supervisory practices were shaped by my personal experiences as a PhD candidate in New Zealand, in terms of the role of the supervisor and the system of supervision. I had two supervisors: one focused purely on my academic and intellectual development, constantly reminding me of the end product while the other supervisor emphasised on the process and journey as being more important than the product. My primary supervisor not only concentrated on my academic development but also ensured that I was exposed to generic skills training, which included lecturing, reviewing journal articles, applying for grants and presenting research at conferences. She ensured that I networked with appropriate people on campus, namely, academic trainers, postgraduate liaison committees, funding experts and, most importantly, student support groups. It was through these networks and collaborations with her on research projects that my interest in postgraduate development, in particular postgraduate supervision, surfaced.

In the following section, I share my experiences of successfully supervising my first thesis student, undertaken while working with a senior colleague as part of a supervisory team, and which included aiding the student's passage through the "mysterious" oral examination. The discussion highlights the reasons why my model of supervision does not work for students from different backgrounds and career aspirations.

Upon completion of my PhD and returning to UPM, within four months I acquired my first Master's by thesis student. At UPM, two modes of master degree are offered. In the first, a student has to take courses

and work on a mini project – this is called the master's by coursework programme. In the second mode, the student has to complete courses and also a thesis. The thesis mode involves team supervision, external examination and a viva (oral examination). I was a little shocked when I acquired my first thesis student as I had expected to be trained as a supervisor before taking on that role. I was under the impression that there would be some form of university-level, or at least faculty-level, supervision development programme. The notion of formal training for supervisors and the provision of structured support (Brew & Peseta, 2004) was, however, non-existent. So, for a start, I advocated a contractual form of supervision to mirror my New Zealand experience. I drew up the agreement and attempted to negotiate with the student. Being in an environment where a student hardly questions a teacher, it was relatively easy for me to get the student to sign on the dotted lines!!! In fact, my first thesis student was more than happy to be involved in such a structured and transparent form of supervision where goals were clearly identified and specified. The supervision agreement included aspects of supervision such as frequency of meetings, submission of drafts, conference presentations, participation in developmental workshops, when feedback would be provided, expectations of supervisor and supervisee, and also the matter of publications. Having supervised this student successfully to completion by adhering closely to the supervisory agreement, I am of the opinion that written supervisory agreements, with clearly articulated goals, may be the means of paving the way for timely completion rates.

In addition to the agreement, I employed strategies that I believed would promote appropriate learning and development during the student's research period, and thus help to bring a successful outcome for both supervisor and student. Some strategies that worked were asking the student to write regularly, advocating a peer-to-peer model of supervision, and mentoring her in career development.

Being a researcher in the field of academic writing, I insisted that the student do a weekly plan of her writing. I required the student to write at least 500 words a day (Murray, 2003). This writing was not necessarily on the research being conducted; it could be on anything she wanted to write about. This included her frustrations as a research student, her difficulties in finding journal articles, being lonely, etc. The requirement to write daily was to ensure that she developed a regular writing habit. Early in the week, we would meet to discuss her plan for the week, and at the end of the week

she would report what had been done and we would discuss any concerns. Due to this stringent insistence on regular writing in the early stages of her research, she became a habitual writer. My maxim '*do not find time to write but allocate time'* worked well. In other words, writing did not take place when she felt like it; instead, she wrote regularly until it became a habit.

A second successful strategy I used was to institute a peer-to-peer form of student-supervisor relationship. In my conversations with other postgraduate students and comparing these conversations with the literature on supervisory styles, I realised there was a wide range of supervisory styles in use/effect, but particularly the expert-novice, the 'master-slave' (Grant, 2008) and, the peer-to-peer collegial form. In the expert-novice model, the supervisor, who is considered an expert, guides the supervisee. However, in the master-slave model, the supervisor plays a dominant role in a hierarchical bond with the supervisee. In the peer-to-peer model, both supervisor and supervisee advocate co-construction of learning. I advocated a peer-to-peer model, as I believe that once a personal relationship has been well established, all else will fall into place. I put this into effect through the provision of dialogical feedback (Kumar & Stracke, 2007) that often included expressive feedback, that is, praise for what had been achieved and politely structured suggestions for improvement. Apart from providing feedback, I treated my student as a future colleague who needed to be inducted into a community of practice by means of mentoring, coaching and guidance. Waghid (2006) supports this notion of peer-to-peer supervision by arguing that higher levels of freedom and friendship should be prevalent in postgraduate supervision. Having said this, I believe there are also cases where supervisory styles may have to be negotiated, as some students may not wish to view their supervisors as their peers.

A third successful strategy involved me in taking a keen interest in my student's career development. As she wanted to pursue her doctoral education and become an academic, I ensured that she was exposed to the necessary career related skills such as leadership, publishing, writing research grants, research management, reviewing papers, networking and presenting at conferences. I also did not "forget the teaching" (Harland, 2010), that is, I trained her to be an educator. All these mirrored the experiences that my own supervisor in New Zealand had exposed me to. I gave her the opportunity to teach in some of my classes and provided feedback based on the comments received from the students. Whenever

I received a journal article to review, I asked her to also review it and then we compared notes. We attended conferences together every semester and that provided ample teaching/learning opportunities for both of us. She co-facilitated postgraduate developmental workshops that covered relevant topics such as publishing, presenting at conferences and managing postgraduate studies with me, and acknowledged that this gave her the confidence to present, interact and network in an academic environment. I guided her as she prepared publications and she was able to publish two articles in international refereed journals before submitting her Master's research for examination. In addition, before her examination, she had also presented at five international conferences (3 locally and 2 abroad). My ultimate goal was to guide her to develop competent autonomy, in the sense that she would be able to function productively as an academic in terms of teaching, research and service provision in an academic environment. I assisted with her the procurement of a doctoral scholarship to further her study.

The ultimate prize for this approach to supervision, one which incorporated a negotiated writing regime, a peer-to-peer model of supervision and taking an interest in the student's career development, was this student receiving a prestigious international scholarship to pursue her doctoral studies at my own alma mater, the University of Otago, New Zealand.

Co-supervision

Supervising my first thesis student (Master by research) entailed co-supervising with a senior colleague. While there are no official policies on joint supervision (i.e. regularity of joint meetings, job specifications, role of supervisory committee members), joint supervision for this student involved the candidate meeting the supervisors individually. The student usually wrote and submitted draft chapters to both of us for individual comments. Once my colleague had commented on the draft, I met the student to compare the written feedback and to negotiate how specific goals could be met. When there was conflicting feedback, I discussed with my colleague to resolve the issues. The feedback that my colleague gave the candidate assisted me in my conceptualisation of supervision practices. It was, in fact, the only form of supervision skills training I had at that point.

Upon reflection, one of the reasons why co-supervision was done this way, that is, the student meeting supervisors individually and not "both supervisors meeting the student on each occasion of a supervisory session" (Pole, 1998, p. 264), was because of hierarchical issues. The reality was that I was happy that I was not meeting the student with my senior colleague. Culturally, it would have been inappropriate for me to confront or disagree with my senior colleague in the presence of the student during face-to-face meetings. It was thus easier for me to discuss with my senior colleague in private. Most of the time though, I was not comfortable in confronting my senior colleague on any issues, it being a rule that the senior member of the supervisory team (the mentor) must endorse the thesis before it can be submitted for examination.

Thesis examination

Master's by thesis students and doctoral candidates in Malaysian universities have to undergo a compulsory viva (oral examination) relating to the thesis research. The examination committee comprises two colleagues from the same department and an external examiner: the examination committee chair is appointed from the candidate's department. My experiences with the viva were an eye-opener. Examiner reports were made available to the candidate and the supervisor only after the viva, thus allowing the candidate no opportunity to prepare a defence to present during the viva. Personally, I think this is not a healthy practice as, in normal circumstances, when one submits a paper to a journal one is given plenty of time to research, prepare and defend oneself against queries and criticisms. Since a postgraduate student is being inducted into a scholarly academic community, one needs to consider whether this venture into a mysterious journey is a humane form of induction into a community of practice. At the University of Otago, for example, examiner reports are given to the candidate some weeks before the viva to enable the candidate to prepare a defence. Any substantive issues in the examiner reports are disclosed to the candidate prior to the oral examination. The viva in Otago is less formal and less threatening than the UPM experience: it is conducted as if the candidate is having a discussion with the examiners to be inducted into a community of practice.

While I held numerous mock-viva sessions to prepare my student for part of a larger developmental experience that included possible

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publications, career development and collaborative research, the actual viva was more in the form of a pure examination and a focus on responding to criticisms without the candidate having the opportunity to prepare a defence. Also, the examiners' reports were more inclined to summative assessment than formative feedback, in the sense that there was a focus on the negative aspects of the thesis and an absence of praise for aspects well done or guidance for revision. (For a discussion on the disjuncture between assessment and feedback in doctoral examination reports, see Kumar & Stracke, 2011).

Furthermore, in an environment which predominantly consists of quantitative researchers, examination procedures, and in particular the viva, can become a nightmare in cases where the thesis is purely qualitative. It becomes an agony when there is an unwritten rule that says that one cannot be conferred a postgraduate degree without having done statistical analysis! Quite evidently, the power relations among examiners, supervisors and the candidate are problematic when basic/fundamental research orientations differ.

Reflections

My peer to peer supervisory style was not as successful with other students. Upon reflection this appears to be because many of them were not keen on pursuing an academic career but wanted, rather, to return to schools to teach. They were more interested in doing a master's degree by coursework which is less time consuming than a research degree, so I had to vary my goals for them. There is no necessity for masters by coursework students to publish or present at conferences. I am of the opinion that research is not complete if it is not disseminated but his view was not favourably received by some students. When I insisted that they publish and present at conferences, one student re-composed his supervisory committee and excluded me from it. This was a learning experience, and I realise now that it is important in supervision for the supervisor to understand the aspirations of a student and to work with each student to help him/her realise their aspirations. My first student, a full time student with a scholarship, wanted to be a university lecturer; that motivated me to help her reach for her dreams. However, with subsequent students, the goals have had to be negotiated as most of them just wanted to complete the "product".

Pleasures, Accomplishments, Aspirations

On returning to Malaysia after completing my own PhD in Otago, New Zealand, I started conducting seminars for supervisors and students. It is good to know that many supervisors at UPM and other Malaysian universities are making use of supervisory agreements with students to make their expectations clearer and also are seeking to understand the expectations of their own students. They are becoming aware that postgraduate study is a journey, and that it entails generic skills training as well as topic/subject/content research. In other words, supervisors are becoming aware that the value of postgraduate degrees materialises after students graduate – students are preparing for life beyond, and the PhD is part of the process. I have also started numerous workshops and training programmes to demystify the doctoral process. For example, students who attend my viva workshop feel more confident going for the oral examination as they have already been exposed to different types of scenarios including difficult examiners. A large number of students, too, have published in high impact journals after attending my workshops on publishing during candidature.

Bringing IDERN (International Doctoral Education Research Network) to Malaysia and exposing my colleagues in Malaysia to current world practices in doctoral education has been a huge joy and accomplishment for me. Through it, I have been able to showcase that doctoral education is a research entity of its own. Moreover, IDERN has had a significant impact at UPM especially in the sense that more supervisors are now aware of contemporary practices in supervision, practices that focus not only on the thesis but also on the processes involved. Students are now more aware of their rights in publishing (Vancouver Protocols) and are better able to negotiate authorship issues with their supervisors. The emergence of a large number of peer support groups as a result of exposure during IDERN, is another notable achievement.

It is my wish that the UPM and other Malaysian universities will place more emphasis on the students' learning process, rather than considering the doctoral journey as simply an end product. Most importantly, the master-slave notion needs to be moderated and replaced by more egalitarian and negotiated forms of relationship when it comes to authorship issues in publications. More generic skills and competency training needs to be incorporated to ensure the marketability and employability of future doctoral graduates. Students need to be provided with both intellectual

and social networking support. An additional suggestion is that Malaysian universities consider supervision as a form of teaching, and include it as part of the work load of a supervisor. Unlike some universities in New Zealand and Australia, in Malaysian universities supervision is not taken into consideration in the workload at this point in time. It is my strong view that supervision is indeed a form of teaching (Shannon, 1995) and entails a great deal of time and expertise; it should therefore be considered in the workload of a supervisor.

Supervisors need to be exposed to contemporary research-informed practices in supervision. Many supervisors that I have met are eager to learn from the experiences of others, and to know best practices based on empirical research. However, structured supervision training based on best practices is not offered at this time and many lament that current supervision training is too theoretical in nature. More sharing of experiences and, more research informed policies are certainly required to ensure that Malaysia's vision of becoming an education hub in this region becomes a reality.

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Becoming and Being A Doctoral Supervisor in Pakistan: A Lived Experience

Nelofer Halai

Pakistan is an agricultural economy that is attempting to leapfrog into the 21st century by rapidly converting into a knowledge-based economy. One of the strategies being implemented to achieve this goal is the increasing investment in higher education, which is intended to help to create a cadre of highly skilled people. Hence, higher education is seen as an engine for growth. To achieve this aim, funding for higher education was increased tremendously with the establishment of the Higher Education Commission (HEC) in 2002. One of the main aims of the HEC is to double enrolment in higher education by those in the 19 -23 age group from 2.2 % to 5% by the end of 2010. According to Laghari (2010, p. 4), the current chairman of HEC, this target is well within reach as enrolment figures reached 4.7% in the first half of 2010.

There has been a particularly significant infusion of funds to overcome the dearth of PhD-qualified researchers in Pakistan, within a human capital framework. According to HEC statistics, only 25% of those teaching in universities and colleges have doctoral qualifications. To overcome this shortage, 4500 scholars are being supported to undertake doctoral studies in Pakistan and 5000 to obtain their qualifications abroad, within the next five years (http://www.hec.gov.pk).

It is in this climate that I was nominated in early 2002 to Chair an International Working Party to develop a PhD in Education programme for the Aga Khan University, Institute for Educational Development (AKU-IED), Karachi. This Working Party included senior faculty members from AKU-IED and representatives from both the Universities

of Toronto and Oxford in Canada and UK respectively. The program was successfully developed in two years and admitted its first cohort of four students in October 2004. It was envisioned to be a small program that would admit a maximum of six students every alternate year. The greatest difficulty in selling the program to the Board of Trustees of the University was that the AKU-IED faculty, though highly qualified, had almost no experience in supervision at the doctoral level. In response, the then Director of AKU-IED, and I, as the Chair of the International Working Party, emphasized that unless we start a PhD program we would never acquire this experience – a catch-22 situation. The Working Party was strongly supportive of my point of view because AKU-IED, through a generous faculty development program, supported more than 20 faculty members to obtain their doctorates from Universities in North America and UK. At the same time the reservations expressed by the Board were understandable. At this juncture it was decided that, at least for the first two cohorts, an experienced scholar with successful experience in supervision of doctoral students, from an external (read Western) university, would be one of the three-member PhD Supervision Committee established for this purpose (Halai, Dean, Farah, Macleod, Shamim, Memon & Pring, 2004). AKU-IED was able to interest renowned academics from the UK, USA and Australia to become a part of the supervision committees of its doctoral students. This practice greatly enhanced both the credibility of the AKU-IED PhD Program and the work of the doctoral students and has been continued beyond the first two cohorts.

Becoming a Supervisor

Becoming a doctoral supervisor is a process. There is no coursework or degree or licensure exam that trains an academic to become a supervisor, at least in the context of Pakistan. At the same time, these matters are shifting in the international context. Increasingly, supervision development programs are gaining both attention and support in universities (Brew & Peseta, 2004; McCormack, 2009; Pearson & Brew, 2002). However, whether or not a university academic has undertaken some form of training, supervision is, I feel, a teaching skill that is better learned by going through the process with each experience of supervision adding to the repertoire of knowledge that makes an accomplished supervisor (Amundsen & McAlpine, 2009).

There is a great deal of literature on the different styles of supervision that supervisors demonstrate in practice (eg Lee 2008). I find that my style of supervision of students changes with the kind of program in which they are enrolled, their stage in the thesis process and their specific needs. With my masters students I take a *contractual* (Gatfield, 2005) and *functional* (Lee, 2008) stance, where I offer support to the project in a highly structured manner and tend to be less interested in the students and their personal problems. The main reason is that M.Ed. supervision spans a short period of 6-9 months. There is a lot of pressure to complete the thesis on time and, at least in my case, there is little time for general discussions and dealing with personal problems. The other reason might be that generally each faculty member is expected to supervise 2 - 4 students and in the initial stage at least, I meet all the students as a group where it is less likely that students will share personal problems.

In contrast, I often let doctoral students "muddle through" the first few weeks of the supervision process when they are engaged in the process of finding a problem to research. I encourage students to read widely and consider many "wild" ideas before settling on an area that they will have to live with for the next 4 - 5 years. Doctoral students are commonly older, more mature and have families and other responsibilities. Furthermore, in Pakistan, most doctoral students, including those at AKU-IED, in the absence of adequate financial support from either the government or the University, are able to study at this level only because they and their families are willing to make enormous sacrifices, both financial and personal. In such a situation, when problems arise in their personal lives, it inevitably affects their doctoral studies. Hence, even though by nature I am a task-oriented private person who does not want to get involved in the personal lives of students, I have inevitably had to engage and become involved with students' problems from time to time. For example, I have had to intervene or make concessions related to deadlines, or fight University/ HEC regulations, or create time off for family emergencies or help to make appropriate living arrangements for family, etc. Hence, I have slowly added to my repertoire of skills that enable me to offer pastoral support to my students. I do want to reiterate here that these are my own experiences based on my own personal style. Others in Pakistan and at AKU-IED may espouse a practice that might vastly differ from mine.

Building Relationships

Building a relationship is the most important part of supervision at the doctoral level and trust is a very important part of this equation. I do not think that it is possible to supervise a student without mutual trust. However, with almost all of my students there comes a time when this trust is sorely tested. I remember when one of my doctoral students felt ready for defense thinking that almost 90% of the work completed, whereas I felt that only 50% of the work was complete – there was a big gap in our understanding of what a complete doctoral dissertation should include. For a time it seemed that the student did not trust my judgment, and it took time and patience to restore this trust. One of the strategies I used was to enlist a University colleague with a similar cultural background to the student, who also had expertise in the methodology being utilized, into the committee with the agreement of the student. The purpose was to discuss work-in-progress and possible presentation to faculty and students. These discussions led to a three-way dialogue about the quality of work required for doctoral preparation and the consequence of not meeting the "standards".

This interaction also made me realize what a "black box" the terms *quality of doctoral work* and *meet the standards* must seem to the student when I myself, like many other doctoral supervisors, could recognize its absence but could not fully and completely articulate what it actually entailed (Trafford & Leshem, 2009). Consequently, I obtained copies of thesis of several highly regarded authors of journal articles and books that my student had referred to in his thesis report, from ProQuest. This allowed a view of some completed thesis in the niche area and helped in establishing understanding of the level of analysis and synthesis required. This was also of assistance to other students, as the AKU-IED has more than 350 M.Ed. theses but only a handful of PhD theses which made scholarly research in the form of doctoral theses available for guidance and consultation at the institution limited.

These experiences have also made me reflect on the many things that academics in the Western context take for granted – the availability of a collection of academic work of many generations at their fingertips (Canagarajah, p. 199). In Pakistan of the more than 140 private and public universities existing, only 8 are over 40 years old and only one in existence at the independence of Pakistan in 1947. AKU-IED itself celebrated its 17th birthday this year!

Claiming Expertise and Authority

I was initially nervous at the prospect of supervising a doctoral student for the first time. I was however aware that there always has to be a first time and that all the experienced supervisors that I had come across during my own doctoral studies and subsequently as the Chair of the PhD Working Party had at one time or another supervised their own first doctoral student. Since I had already supervised more than 18 Masters Students, the nervousness was not on account of the process but was an entirely different kind of concern, which I shall call *claiming expertise* and *authority*.

As a faculty member from a University in the developing world and a nation previously colonized by Great Britain, I carry a lot of baggage of postcolonial conceptions of where knowledge is created and who creates knowledge. All my life I have been learning about, from and through thinkers in the developed world. Hence, it was very difficult for me to claim authority and expertise as a supervisor of doctoral students, where one of the major purposes is to undertake original research and produce new knowledge. Academics in the subcontinent have for so long looked to the North to provide knowledge that it was difficult for me to put on the shoes of those considered creators of knowledge with ease and confidence. It reminds me of Willinsky's seminal work, *Learning to Divide the World: Education at Empire's End* where he writes:

> We need to learn again how five centuries of studying, classifying, ordering humanity within an imperial context gave rise to peculiar and powerful ideas of race, culture, and nation that were, in effect, conceptual instruments that the West used both to divide up and to educate the world (Willinsky, 1998, p. 3).

These 'conceptual instruments' of the so-called empire were still sapping my confidence and framing how I viewed myself.

The three-member committee structure, where at least one member was from an external university with experience in PhD supervision, made it easier for me to discuss and consult at critical junctures in the proposal/thesis writing process. Being a part of the same culture, many of the students, at least initially, considered the opinions and views expressed by the external member to be somehow more valuable than my views, despite the fact that I was the main supervisor with the full responsibility of advising the student till completion. In one case at least, the situation

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was resolved when the external member expressed to me and the student in no uncertain terms that, despite his general experience in the research area, expertise in the particular niche area and the methodology used was mine alone and that we – meaning the student and I – would be the ones to take the research and the intellectual exercise forward. That was greatly encouraging for me and helped me to claim authority over the expertise I had and also for the knowledge being created in the supervision process. Lack of confidence is a frame of mind I have had to struggle to overcome during the initial stages of the supervision process. Since then, this has been greatly reduced.

Gender Issues

In a highly patriarchal society like Pakistan, gender relationships are very important in any teaching/learning situation. As a female I have to be especially sensitive when supervising male students, but it is much more problematic for my male colleagues who are supervising female students. These issues are similar to those faced by colleagues in Malaysia and other developing countries. Thus, I am careful to always meet my students in my office in the University and not anywhere else. With male students, if I ever chose to go out of the campus for a meeting or on a site visit, it was always undertaken using official transportation requisitioned through the University, whereby a University owned car and driver would take us to our destination. It is not considered appropriate to use personal transport in cases where the supervisee is of the opposite sex. During social occasions I have tried my best to always include the spouse, especially in the case of male students.

However, issues relating to gender, as part of the research process, are in reality more difficult and complex than described earlier. For example, a male doctoral student interviewing female research participants always raises thorny issues. At one time I seriously considered the idea of having the student conduct interviews of female participants accompanied by his wife! However, the culture in Pakistan is very family-oriented and there is a strong tendency to invoke relationships to facilitate professional transactions where there is possibility of cultural (and sometimes religious) taboos. For instance, the student mentioned above, who needed to interview female research participants, ended up facing very little difficulty in conducting the interviews as most of the participants were older than him and he "became" their younger brother.

I am often called "apa" meaning elder sister and more often "ustad" meaning teacher, when faculty members, researchers and administrative officials of the opposite sex at research sites refer to me. A male faculty member meeting his female "ustad" immediately removes some of the stigma attached to male/female meetings in very conservative social settings. The reverse is equally true whereby more senior administrative officials and faculty members at research sites will call themselves my (or my students') "father" or "brother" or "Ustad" and thus in this way entry and access negotiations are smoothed over. In meetings in the urban or professional context, it is more common to make reference to qualification rather than relationships, and I am generally referred to as "Doctor *Saheba*." This title recognizes my status as a doctorally qualified person and reduces some of the reservations associated with my gender, as signified by the word *saheba* (lady). Despite these complexities, in the doctoral and masters research of my students or my own research, I have yet to encounter a situation where gender issues have made it impossible to continue a research project.

Following the Conventions of Academic Writing

A further great struggle is to teach students to follow academic conventions when writing their thesis and to learn this as a part of the research and writing process. My students have also felt that I am being 'nitpicky' and difficult when I raise concerns about thesis chapters being submitted to me with typographical errors, mis-spelt words and incomplete or missing references. They are always eager to get on with "substantive issues" and to leave the "editorial" issues for later. My position is that good language and accuracy are an integral part of scholarship and should be a part of the writing process from the outset. In fact, lack of care at this stage can create serious problems, such as being suspected of having plagiarized materials when that was not the intent.

I also find that, if students give me materials to read that is full of language errors, most of my attention is focused on putting the language right and thus I am unable to focus on the ideas expressed and follow the intellectual argument. Hence, lately I have begun to insist that students give me drafts that have been edited for language errors by reference to their colleagues as their editors and at a later stage even obtaining the services of a professional language editor. This practice raises two issues:

first, many students think that it is the responsibility of the supervisor to edit their language and hence resent my request. Second, it is very difficult to find editors who have a sufficiently sophisticated understanding of their craft to help doctoral students' writing and those that do are very expensive. This is a huge dilemma for supervisors, because, even if resources are available for language editing, it imposes a burden of time on the students. However, if the supervisor continues to edit language errors, he or she will be overwhelmed by the quantum of work involved. An additional issue is that the organization of the paper or chapters, developing an argument and providing literature backing are academic issues with strong language content and hence to expect an editor to be able to do that is not justified. While these issues are prevalent in most developed countries, in Pakistan, which is developing a culture of academic writing, this is a huge issue for which there may not be any easy resolution. The Graduate faculty at AKU-IED might want to consider setting up writing groups for students and encouraging the senior PhD students to take the lead.

Students in Pakistan are used to a system where authority mediates all knowledge; hence it is very difficult for them to comprehend the concept of plagiarism (Biggs, 2003). It is very natural for them to quote lengthy passages from seminal texts without quotation marks, as it is understood that students will use quotes from renowned authors to validate, substantiate and illustrate their own understanding of this knowledge. While these issues have been raised by different writers at different levels, Altbach (2007) has argued cogently that as the developing world is at the periphery of knowledge building and will remain so for a large part of this century, they have to adhere to the norms of scholarship developed by the North. One of my major tasks as a supervisor is to ensure that doctoral students understand issues related to plagiarism and follow a good system of making notes so that they are not inadvertently accused of plagiarism.

Ethics is another issue I have had to deal with, with a great deal of care. Pakistan has a very oral culture and, if I or my students ask permission to do something, more often than not it will be granted orally. If a request is made to give the permission in writing, it might be construed as both being disrespectful and a lack of trust for the individual. I deal with these issues in different ways. For instance, despite what research textbooks say, written permissions are generally left to the last. I encourage my students to give the permission letter to the research participant or anybody else from whom permission is required and not to request for the participant to

sign immediately. If oral permission is given to proceed, the student should proceed, but then come back to the issue of the permission letter tactfully at a later stage. With tact and diplomacy the letter does get signed in the end.

Quality Assurance

A substantive and original research study is the expected outcome of the doctoral program and the major mechanism for ensuring quality is through peer review by experts in the field. The HEC requires that the peer review be undertaken by two expert academics from the "technologically advanced countries" and to be based on criteria developed in the North. At AKU-IED almost all quality assurance at different stages seeks validation from experts from the North. Faculty from external universities are also part of the: (a) teaching team for the taught courses; (b) supervision committees of students; (c) external validation of student assignments in coursework; and (d) examination of thesis by two experts from "technologically advanced countries" as mandated by HEC (http://www.hec.gov.pk).

This raises two questions: (a) will such quality assurance processes allow the North to direct the knowledge generation process for the South?; and (b) will such quality assurance processes stifle the development of new and localised ways of knowing?

In debating these matters, in all fairness, I must mention that the presence the three-member Committee structure and the presence of the external supervisor has a number of distinct advantages, as it has added credibility both to the doctoral program and the research undertaken by the students. It has also allowed some students to undertake a study visit to the institution where the external committee member is based and has also provided opportunities for publication. However, at least some of these measures can be discontinued as the faculty gains confidence and experience.

Students Find A Voice

I am particularly fond of supervision as it allows me to see students who were initially dependent on me for development of their research skills and scholarship slowly but surely blossoming into independent scholars and becoming experts in their areas of study. Through my experience, I know that this will be close to the end of the writing period. However the

students are almost always taken by surprise when for the first time they realize that they know more about this particular problem than anybody else, including their supervisor. This is very empowering for the students and gratifying for me as the supervisor. At the end of the supervision period, I am proud that the students have not only completed a large and complex study but have also found a scholarly voice and presence on the sparsely populated landscape of higher education in Pakistan (Styles & Radoff, 2001). However, the reverse is also true. The students teach me a lot - both from a scholarly and a personal point of view. Their resilience, their struggle, the sacrifices they and their families make to achieve this big goal in their life is very heartwarming.

Financial Issues

At the heart of the many issues that affect PhD programs, whether they are in a university in the private sector such as AKU-IED, or in the public sector in Pakistan, are those related to financial assistance for students. Where is the money going to come from? Due to reasons beyond the control of the University and the government, such as the recession and the recent devastating floods, funds have been in short supply. The government has greatly reduced funding allocations to HEC, which has in turn affected the PhD scholarship program. The recession has affected funds coming to the University and hence reduced its ability to offer grants and scholarships to students as was done for the first three cohorts admitted to the program. Lately, it has been suggested that PhD students should study with professors who bring in money through their research projects. This is a physical science model that would be very difficult to implement within the social science structure in Pakistan at this stage. It is extremely difficult to obtain funds for social science research – the HEC itself has only very recently begun to support research and dissemination within the social sciences and still gives higher priority to science and technology. In such a scenario, it would be extremely difficult for academics to obtain sufficiently large grants that could fund a doctoral student, at least in the short-term.

Funding issues, particularly lack of funds, greatly affect the ability of the students to focus on their doctoral dissertations. At AKU-IED the PhD Program spans a four-year period and most funding and study leave arrangements are made on this basis. Hence, the funding crunch usually overlaps with the time that the students are deeply engrossed in their

analysis and writing their dissertation. It is very difficult for the student to cope with these twin problems at this critical time of their doctoral studies. I have found that the task of finding the funds for the student to complete the PhD program invariably falls in my lap as their supervisor. So far I have been fortunate enough to have been able to negotiate and persuade sponsors to support the student financially and extend the study leave until completion which is usually just a few months away. On further reflection, it seems that I might have accepted this role because, in addition to being the supervisor, I was also the Head of the doctoral program. Regardless of who has to take on the responsibility of finding more funds for the student, it might be worthwhile considering flexibility in extending the plan for the program to cover a duration of 4-5 years so that sponsors know that it is possible that the students may need more than 4 years to complete their doctoral studies.

Fitting Into The Larger System - Nationally and Internationally

It is strange to think that I have succeeded in integrating my students, albeit in a small way, into the international community, more successfully than in connecting them with the national community of researchers and scholars. This is partly due to the fact that I myself have undertaken all my graduate education in North America and hence do not have an indigenous community to which I belong, other than AKU-IED where I work. Secondly, the quality assurance measures, as already mentioned, require involvement of international experts at four different stages of the doctoral program. This policy naturally enhances students' engagement with academics outside Pakistan, rather than with those within the country. I think that as a supervisor it is my responsibility to encourage greater integration with intra-university and inter-university networks within Pakistan. Interaction with local scholars will help expose my students and their work both locally and globally.

Workload Issues

In the context of Pakistan, PhD supervision is very labor intensive. All the students are socialized in a system of education that privileges rote memorization rather than understanding and raising questions. It is a huge challenge to help students to 'unlearn' these traditional methods of learning and become independent learners and critical thinkers. In this

respect, the first year of coursework is very helpful in encouraging the uptake of the habit of skepticism and a critical stance to literature that is essential for doctoral work. However, I find that, as a supervisor, I have to contribute to this change process. This involves devoting a great deal of tutorial time to the students. The tutorials are also used to educate the students in another very important part of doctoral research – on using a library and internet resources and the HEC digital library. While the library staff themselves do offer some of these services they themselves do not have sufficient training. Like other supervisors all over the world, I have to teach both epistemological aspects of research and also the skills required to undertake research. Every year this becomes a more daunting task as it is very difficult to keep abreast of a rapidly developing field (Barry, 1997). However, at AKU-IED it seems to be very much a one-person job, as the University resources are not sufficiently developed to offer regular and on-going support in these areas. In addition, as already mentioned, a great deal of supervision time is spent reading drafts and making language corrections, with more time spent liaising with members of the PhD Thesis Supervision Committee members. All this takes a heavy toll on faculty time. Thus far student numbers are low and so the dozen or so graduate faculty have not been overly burdened by thier doctoral supervision roles. However, the same faculty members also teach in the M.Ed. program, take responsibility for leading major donor funded development projects and take care of their own research and publication. For myself I can say that the workload can eventually become rather daunting.

I conclude this chapter written about my personal experience of doctoral supervision by recognizing that becoming a supervisor is a process of learning. I thank my students for being able teachers.

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Six Outsiders and A Pseudo-Insider: International Doctoral Students in Australia

Sara Cotterall

Introduction

Australia is the world's third largest provider of degree-level international education (Novera, 2004). Of the 30,110 full time PhD students enrolled in Australian universities in 2008, 25% were international students (Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations, 2009) representing a 15% increase in international PhD enrolments from previous years (Data snapshot, 2010). These statistics reflect the importance of international doctoral students to Australia's higher education industry and economy. But how welcome does Australia make its international students? While most PhD students experience difficulties of one type or another during their studies (McAlpine & Amundsen, 2007), research suggests that international doctoral students face particular challenges (Kuwahara, 2008; Morita, 2009) due partly to isolation from their normal support networks.

I approach this discussion from my dual perspectives as a full-time doctoral student and a researcher of doctoral education in both the Australian and international contexts. In this chapter, I draw on interviews with six international PhD students studying in Australia, to present a snapshot of their lived experiences. While most of what they say is positive, our conversations suggest that their experiences could be enhanced in various ways. Given that the students are unlikely (principally for cultural reasons) to express any concerns to the university authorities, I have chosen to report here some of the stories of personal, academic and social tension that they have shared with me. I hope that these stories can illuminate

aspects of the international doctoral student experience in Australia that are seldom discussed, and that may resonate with the experiences of students studying elsewhere in the world, in countries other than their own. First I discuss and justify my use of the problematic term "international students", following which I report on the particular tensions experienced by four of the students, before discussing the surprising fact that none of these students have contact with any Australian students. I conclude the chapter by speculating on possible reasons for their experiences, and suggest strategies the universities could adopt to enrich the experience of international doctoral scholars in Australia.

Background

The experiences discussed here draw on my ongoing longitudinal study of six international doctoral students' lived experiences in Australia and my personal reflections on life as a doctoral student. Similar to the other participants in my study, I travelled to Australia in order to undertake doctoral studies; and in that sense, we are all outsiders. However, as a New Zealander, I am regarded as a local student by the university and the Australian government, which means that amongst other things, I enjoy certain financial benefits (such as half-price travel on public transport) which my international peers do not. In Australia, the term "international student" is used by the government and educational institutions to designate an individual who has travelled to Australia from abroad for the purpose of studying. However, clearly this term exemplifies the process of 'Othering' which refers to 'the ways in which the discourse of a particular group defines other groups in opposition to itself'" (Palfreyman, 2005, p. 213). Use of the term "international students" in Australia may therefore reflect an "Us and Them" worldview. The term is also associated with a tendency to discursively construct as deficient (Candlin & Crichton, 2010) the individuals it identifies. Writing about higher education in the United Kingdom, Goode reports that 'it is not uncommon to hear talk about "international students" as a whole as "hard work", both deferential and demanding ... leading to a generalised stereotyping for what is ... a heterogeneous group' (2007, p. 592). However, despite these negative connotations, I use the term "international students" throughout this chapter both because it is a formal descriptive category employed in the university where the study participants are enrolled and because it is commonly used in the discourse of higher education in Australia.

I recruited the participants for my (wider) research project in early 2009 and have interviewed them approximately every four months since. All interviews were recorded and transcribed, with analysis involving repeated readings of the transcripts to identify major themes. Three female and three male students, aged between 25 and 40, agreed to participate in my study. They come from six different countries and are enrolled in three faculties – Business and Economics, Human Sciences and Science. Four of the students are married and accompanied by family members and all speak English as an additional language. Although their biographies are important for the main project, in this report details will not be matched to individuals in order to protect their identities. The pseudonyms used in this chapter - Ariunaa, Dev, Emily, Jack, Journey and Mary - were chosen by the students.

All six students are linguistically and academically sophisticated. Four are multilingual, three completed Masters degrees outside their countries before coming to Australia, two are academics, two worked as professionals after completing their Masters degrees and one spent three years in a PhD programme in her country (where she published three papers in English) before coming to Australia. In terms of their exposure to different education systems and experience of varied cultural and social practices, these students are probably more sophisticated than many of their Australian counterparts.

Being an International Doctoral Student in Australia

In this section I first relate four stories which illustrate the kinds of personal and academic difficulties international doctoral students can face in Australia. Ariunaa talks about surviving a family trauma without a support network, while Jack, Mary and Dev discuss tensions in their relations with supervisors and administrators. I then discuss a more general theme identified by all the participants – their lack of contact with Australian students. Throughout this section, I compare the students' experiences with my own as a 'pseudo-insider'.

Personal Tensions

In our third interview, Ariunaa told me a harrowing tale of travelling to hospital by ambulance with her two year old son after he suffered a major seizure, five months after arriving in Australia. In her rush to leave home,

Ariunaa forgot her wallet and mobile phone. Consequently she spent three days in hospital unable to buy food or contact her husband. When her son was discharged on the third day, not having any means of getting home, Ariunaa asked a patient in her son's ward for help; this meant waiting until the patient's husband came to visit that evening. Ariunaa cried as she told me this story.

What does Ariunaa's distressing experience tell us? First, many international students are socially isolated. At the time of this crisis, Ariunaa and her husband knew none of their neighbours, were unfamiliar with the city and had limited financial resources. Stranded at the hospital, hungry and unable to contact her husband, we can only imagine Ariunaa's distress. Ariunaa's story also conveys the stress associated with having a child diagnosed with a serious illness while living abroad. As her husband speaks little English, Ariunaa manages all communications with health professionals, school authorities and childcare centre workers in relation to their two sons. She often has to travel long distances (by public transport) to attend medical appointments with her son. While Ariunaa finds this tiring, she is appreciative of the excellent medical care her son is receiving in Australia. Her story also reminds us that doctoral students occupy a number of different roles. While Ariunaa is positioned as a student when at university, she must also maintain her roles as mother, wife, daughter, friend and colleague. When I asked if she had told her supervisors about her hospital ordeal, Ariunaa replied: "No ... because that's just my life and I should ah manage my life" (Ariunaa, Interview 3, Line 2157). It is likely that Ariunaa's desire to project a positive, confident professional image dissuaded her from relating this experience to her supervisors.

While I have experienced nothing in Australia that compares to Ariunaa's trauma, we both struggled to find accommodation when we first arrived. This was partly due to our lack of familiarity with Australian procedures and, in her case, landlords' reluctance to accept tenants with children. I spent two stressful months looking for somewhere to live, dashing from one 10-minute appointment to another, being physically jostled by rivals determined to inspect the property first, repeatedly completing detailed applications and always handicapped by being unable to provide local bank statements and references. However, unlike Ariunaa, I made sure my supervisors were aware of my difficulties, particularly since my accommodation problems delayed the start of my project.

Academic and Administrative Tensions

Jack initially experienced friction in working with his supervisor. In our first interview, he spoke about his supervisor's practice of assigning him a large amount of reading (e.g. a 600 page textbook) and quizzing him on the content at their next meeting. Jack found this stressful and unhelpful, and seriously considered withdrawing and returning to the university where he had completed his Masters degree. However, after about six months, he began to understand his supervisor's approach and the relationship started to improve. When I asked why he did not object, Jack explained:

> I thought it wasn't of any point to keep arguing with him you know, like I just got to do whatever he wanted me to do, and just forget about it because you know when you're arguing with a professor anyway, the truth is you really have a lot to lose. For them they have nothing to lose (Jack, Interview 1, Line 275)

While Jack alludes to the power relations between himself and his supervisor, he is unwilling to challenge his supervisor's approach. This may reflect a culturally-influenced deference to authority, or simply represent a pragmatic assessment of the unlikelihood of his supervisor agreeing to modify his approach.

Mary also experienced tension in relation to one aspect of her relationship with her supervisor. She was frustrated by her Chinese supervisor's choosing to speak Chinese (their mutual first language) during their meetings. Mary had few chances to speak English in Australia since she lived with her Chinese husband, socialised exclusively with Chinese-speaking students and communicated in Chinese with her supervisor's post-doctoral student. (In fact, her principal reason for agreeing to participate in my research project was to practise her English!) However Mary was reluctant to challenge her supervisor:

> Yeah, of course it's negative because you don't have ... much opportunity to practise your English. But you can't ask for your supervisor to change her way (laughs) (Mary, Interview 3, Line 960)

The tension Dev experienced occurred as a result of what appeared to be a deliberate miscommunication on the part of the administrator at a clinical facility where he hoped to recruit research participants. After

delivering a number of documents related to his application for ethical clearance, to his surprise, Dev was informed that an additional (multi-page) application with signatures was needed. In our interview, Dev explained that he could not understand why the administrator had not mentioned the additional documents previously, especially since he had interacted with her via email several times while preparing his application. In addition, he found her comments about the importance of ethical standards in research conducted in Australia somewhat patronising:

> I didn't speak anything there ... but I was really frustrated ... and she would have told that millions of times you know "Australian research works like this, are you going to be a researcher in Australia? ... blah, blah, blah", I was like – ok, I'm here for like ... two years now and I know how it works ... she was trying to um say, you know, ok, these are solely procedures here, not like your country where nothing is there [laughs]. (Dev, Interview 5, Line 650)

It is difficult to avoid viewing Dev's experience as influenced by his outsider status. While he was convinced that 'an Australian student ... would have ... asked the administrator "Why didn't you tell me before?" (Dev, Interview 5, Line 612), Dev believed that if he had done so, she would have delayed the process further. Clearly, power plays an important role in all these situations (and possibly race in Dev's case). While Jack and Dev considered it risky to challenge authority, Mary thought it inappropriate; Jack also believed that challenging his supervisor was futile.

As a New Zealander living in Australia (and a mature student), I feel more comfortable in challenging authority as compared to some of my international colleagues. For example, I was recently interviewed by a panel of (Australian) academics for a funding grant, one of whom spent a considerable amount of time explaining how one should behave at an international conference in order to derive maximum benefits. It did not seem to occur to him that a doctoral student might have had previous conference experience. When he had finished, I thanked him for his advice and explained that I had been presenting at international conferences for many years. I believed it was important to resist the stereotype that all doctoral students are academic novices.

Lack of Contact with Australians

Strikingly, not one of my six participants has an Australian friend. In our first interview, Emily commented on differences between the way people greet and integrate newcomers in her country and her experiences in Australia. For instance, she observed that staff and students in Australia tend to eat lunch in their offices rather than invite others to join them. This behaviour may be linked to Australians' high levels of individuality (Hofstede, 2009) or could simply indicate that locals prefer to limit their lunch breaks so they can finish work earlier. Emily also had difficulty establishing academic relationships with peers:

> I've asked people here to read my abstract ... but no-one has asked me and I don't think they ask in between them. The cooperation here is difficult. (Emily, Interview 3, Line 901)

She also reported that there were no Australians in the PhD student discussion group she had established in her department. When I told her the same was true of the student seminar group in my department, Emily wondered if this might be because there were not many Australian doctoral students at the university. However, in fact, 63% of the doctoral students at the university concerned are Australians (Blinded Institution Higher Degree Research Office, 2010). I suspect that local doctoral students are 'invisible' because they prefer to work at home rather than on campus, and tend to maintain existing networks of family and friends rather than seek to develop new relationships.

Journey, Jack and Mary all reported that they did not know any Australian students. This did not prevent Mary from commenting that she believed that she was 'more focused on my research than domestic students' (Mary, Interview 4, Line 1384); in the absence of contact, negative perceptions can develop. While Journey did not explicitly state that he lacked contact with Australian students, all the contacts he mentioned were from abroad. Given her family commitments, Ariunaa did not seek contact with other students when she was on campus. However she did provide a clue as to why contact between international and local students might need to be facilitated:

> A ... now from few months ago one Korean and one Chinese girl they are sitting the same room with me and both of them are studying Master degree.

S   And are they friendly?

A   Usually friendly but you know usually we are Asian countries and not so open (laughs) ... if I don't ask something, they never start" (Ariunaa, Interview 3, Line 1735)

In stark contrast to this lack of *social* contact, Emily was delighted at how warmly she had been welcomed into the local research community:

I feel I'm lucky, I feel I'm being um taken care of in this [discipline name] community very well in Australia. I don't know what happened where exactly it came but ... but I feel they want to care about me. I don't feel it's everyone's case ... (Emily, Interview 4, Line 472)

In our fifth interview, Emily explained why she felt she was being so well cared for – 'I do think that the fact that I am white um helps me a lot compared to others ... I think I have more advantages than others.' (Emily, Interview 5, Line 451). A similar difference in the treatment of the only white student was noted in a study of the experiences of four linguistic minority students attending a research university in the USA:

We believe that it is not a coincidence that Elena was ... the only white student in the study. When comparing Elena with the other three students, it is clear that linguistic minority students, such as Elena, who are phenotypically white, benefit from their 'Whiteness'. The white status means that Elena was not necessarily labelled as a "foreigner", and when she was recognized as a foreigner, people would not immediately dismiss her because of her accented English. (Oropeza, Varghese & Kanno, 2010, p. 227).

Unfortunately, Journey, Ariunaa and Jack confirmed Emily's suspicion that not all international students enjoyed her advantages. Journey spoke openly of his disappointment at the lack of researchers on campus working in his area and his difficulty in forging academic relationships:

J   Yeah I also expected that ... those relationships that I have developed with people outside also available here ...

S   But are there ... many people in your area here at [name of university]?

> J   Not really but I know some people use the same theory although in different fields.
>
> S   And have you made an approach to some of those people?
>
> J   Ah, only a few. But we ... didn't really discuss, so we yeah like just work ….

(Journey, Interview 2, Line 591)

Ariunaa would have liked to be part of a student cohort so she could compare progress and seek advice informally:

> Yeah, if more students around I can more comfortable, because what they are doing now at this stage and comparing and discussion and I have the problem how to solve from where I can ask the help (Ariunaa, Interview 2, Line 958)

Jack characterised his PhD experience as studying 'solo' in contrast to the teamwork approach that doctoral students at an international conference had spoken of:

> Ok of course working as a team is easier because I mean in most of the prestigious universities like ... Oxford, you know what's happening there is people work as a research team, so if you have any question, you just ask your colleague, it's easy ... but here I mean you go to ask your supervisor and at times you think "Well should I ask that?" even before going to ask him, because he might look at it like you're stupid so [laughs] (Jack, Interview 4, Line 1371)

Jack's earlier comments about his supervisor explain why he might have felt more comfortable posing questions to fellow students instead. In fact previous studies indicate that students benefit from participating in peer networks in numerous ways (Deem & Brehony, 2000; Aitchison, 2010).

My experience as a student in Australia is similar to that of my participants. All the students I interact with, both academically and socially, are either international students or immigrants. These stories testify to the difficulty outsiders can face in joining existing social and academic networks in Australia. Where my experience differs is in my contacts outside university. It is likely that similarities between my personal and

cultural interests and those of Australians make it easier for me to meet locals as compared to my international peers.

Discussion

Universities can help international students adjust and settle in various ways. Experience suggests that all newcomers to Australia would benefit from practical assistance in searching for accommodation. In addition, life could be eased for students accompanied by their families if more generous financial support were provided. In Ariunaa's case, this would enable her to pay for childcare five days per week (instead of the current three), allowing her to spend weekends with her family instead of working at the university. Instituting a buddy system that pairs recently-arrived international students with local students, and introducing them to members of their own cultural community outside the university are other strategies which have been proposed to ease students' initial settlement issues (Sawir, Marginson, Deumert, Nyland & Ramia, 2008).

International doctoral students' orientation to the academic community needs to include opportunities to discuss cultural expectations surrounding supervision (Kiley, 1998). While international students' reluctance to challenge authority figures may not be surprising, they do need to know how to express their views appropriately, should they feel unfairly treated. Supervisors (and administrators), on the other hand, should be sensitive and respectful when communicating with students. This is no more than a statement of good doctoral pedagogy for all students, whether local or international.

The social isolation of international students in Australia is well documented (Sawir et. al., 2008; Owens & Loomes, 2010). A number of reasons have been suggested to explain this phenomenon. These include Australians' highly developed individuality and sense of privacy (Hofstede, 2009), differences in cultural knowledge associated with aspects of popular Australian culture such as sporting codes and social practices surrounding alcohol, Australian students' 'comparative disinterest and/or inexperience ... in relation to overseas study and study of second languages' (Owens & Loomes, 2010, p. 276) and religious differences including the lack of prayer facilities for Muslim students (Novera, 2004). It has also been suggested that international students may be so focused on addressing their and

their family members' fundamental physiological and safety needs that they have little energy to be concerned about social inclusion (Owens & Loomes, 2010).

Recently, links have been made between the social isolation of international students and concerns about their safety following a number of violent attacks on Indian students in Victoria and New South Wales (Quiddington, 2009; Marginson, Nyland, Sawir & Forbes-Mewett, 2010; Nyland, Forbes-Mewett & Marginson, 2010). While none of my participants reported experiencing threats to their security, neither did they report having any Australian friends or contacts. I believe the unusual combination of exaggerated informality (observed in Australians' dress, speech and behaviour) and apparent unwillingness to engage with outsiders can be deeply confusing for newcomers. In such a climate, expecting contact between international and local students to occur without assistance is unrealistic.

International students' lack of social and academic contact with local students is worrying for several reasons. First, international students who choose to study in Australia expect to have contact with local students as part of their experience of studying abroad. Much can be learnt about different ways of viewing the world from discussing theoretical frameworks and research approaches with colleagues from elsewhere. Second, the process of academic socialisation operates more effectively when students interact, formally and informally, with a wide range of individuals at all levels of the academic and research community (Duff, 2010). Students who relate only to their supervisors experience an impoverished scholarly apprenticeship. The community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998) framework frequently adopted to theorise doctoral learning implies a far richer range of opportunities for participation than that which five of the six students in my study seem to experience. Finally, Australian universities and their students are likely to miss out on potential benefits if they fail to actively engage their international students in the life of their departments and the wider university. Denson and Zhang (2010) have shown that local students may benefit more from experiences with diversity than international students, but these benefits can only occur when members of the two groups interact.

Much of the academic isolation reported by my participants may be due to the distinctive nature of the Australian PhD. Unlike the North American doctorate with its coursework structure providing opportunities

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for interaction with classmates, the Australian PhD is a predominantly individual experience. While this may work well for many locals, it may suit some international students less well. Australian university departments therefore need to develop structured opportunities for their doctoral students (international and local) to interact with each other, local academics and the wider research community.

Conclusion

By highlighting some of the challenges that international doctoral students face in Australia I do not in any way want to suggest that my participants feel negative about their overall experience. All have commented positively on the excellent supervision and generous funding that they benefit from. However, these benefits do not compensate for the absence of a stimulating learning community and vibrant social life. Furthermore, the singularity of Emily's positive integration in the local research community is disturbing. This chapter has sought to identify important issues which international doctoral students in Australia face but may be reluctant to voice. My interactions with the six participants confirm that efforts to create learning communities which genuinely welcome and value international researchers like them will benefit both the participants and the institutions that host them.

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A Day in the Life of Semisi, a Pasifika Doctoral Candidate Studying in New Zealand

'Ema Wolfgramm-Foliaki

Background Information: Doctoral Education at The University of Auckland

The University of Auckland (UoA) is a research-intensive university in Aoteoroa, New Zealand. Through its Doctoral Graduate Profile[1], the University expresses its aspirations by outlining a set of attributes considered "attainable of graduates of a leading research university". These include specialist knowledge, effective communication, intellectual capacities that demonstrate advanced critical, conceptual and reflective thinking, an ability to be an independent learner and thinker, and above all intellectual and professional integrity.

In the UoA Strategic Plan 2005 - 2012, the University expresses in Goal 4, how it aims to achieve 500 doctoral completions per annum by developing a high quality and internationally recognised graduate programme (The University of Auckland, Strategic Plan 2005-2012). In addition, UoA is also committed to raising the educational achievements of the Maori (the indigenous people of New Zealand) and other equity groups such as the Pasifika (the collective name given to people of Pacific Origin). The participation and achievement rate of both Maori and Pasifika(PI) peoples have historically been much lower than that of mainstream students. Thus it is critical that as an institution is committed to their educational outcomes.

[1] Retrieved from: School of Graduate Studies, (2009, p.1)., Graduate Profile: Doctoral Graduate. http://www.auckland.ac.nz/webdav/site/central/shared/about/teaching-and-learning/teaching-and-learning-principles/documents/2009-graduate-profiles-doctoral.pdf

Within the University of Auckland (UoA) there are both local and international students. Recently, the NZ government, together with the local universities, agreed to allow international doctoral students to pay local fees in order to increase the number of doctoral students. This has raised the profile of UoA in the international arena. Further, their partners/spouses are eligible for work visas and their children also receive the same educational benefits, such as paying the same school fees as local children. It is hoped that through this scheme UoA will become the preferred choice of university for study abroad. The majority of Pasifika doctoral candidates are local students with very few enrolled as international students. In the 2008 NZ census, there were approximately 122 Pasifika doctoral candidates enrolled in universities throughout the country.

There are approximately one thousand and eight hundred (1800) doctoral students currently enrolled at UoA. A small percentage of this is made up of Pasifika and Maori students. To be exact, 38 Pasifika students are currently enrolled as doctoral students and slightly more of Maori descent. Once enrolled, doctoral students begin their first year of study as a provisional year where they are expected to carry out the preliminary work on their projects and attend the mandatory 'Doctoral Induction' course before they can continue their studies. This course is taught collaboratively by the Student Learning Centre, the Library and the School of Graduate Studies, with the Dean of Graduates Studies facilitating the first part. Doctoral students, together with their supervisors, have to produce a progress report at the end of each year and the Dean of Graduate Studies has to sign this before they can proceed to the next phase of their studies.

Doctoral students at UoA receive administrative support from their Faculty by way of allocation of work space, where in most cases this comprises of shared space with a computer. Each student has a print account and an annual allowance that they can use for their work. Doctroal candidates often put this allowance towards funding travel and registration for a conference.

Each doctoral candidate is supervised by two academic staff members, with one taking the role of main supervisor while the other is the co-supervisor. The choice of supervisors is in most cases left up to the individual student. However, in some cases, students are assigned specific supervisors based on the nature of their research and the expertise that is available within each department. The Board of Graduate Studies

has developed the 'Senate Guidelines on Thesis Supervision' to provide guidance for appropriate supervision of thesis research students that have a supervised research component. This document is available online on the School of Graduate Studies webpage. Supervisors and students work out the arrangements for their supervisory meetings and new supervisors at UoA are required to do a mandatory supervision course. The Centre for Academic Development is responsible for providing this professional development for supervisors. Cross cultural supervision is one of the issues discussed in the course but is yet to be included as a session. I understand that it is currently being considered to be included as part of the course for new supervisors at UoA.

Semisi – A Pasifika Doctoral Candidate at UoA.

Semisi is a 34-year-old Pasifika PhD candidate at UoA. He obtained his first degree outside of NZ and came to live in Auckland nearly ten years ago with his family. It took him three years to complete his MA before enrolling as a doctoral candidate. Semisi is married with one child and lives with his family2 in the Southern part of Auckland. His parents live nearby together with his three younger siblings. Semisi is very committed to his studies, his family and the wider community. He is the eldest in his family and is the first to attend university.

Semisi's main supervisor is a Pakeha (of European descent) male senior lecturer within the Faculty of Education, where he has been a staff member for over ten years, and is considered to be one of the few experts in his field. He currently has five doctoral candidates including Semisi, as well as six masters students. Overall, his workload is divided into teaching, research and service. At UoA a typical academic staff members' fulltime contract is divided into 40% research, 40% teaching and, usually, 20% service. Supervision is counted within the teaching component of the contract. The breakdown of each staff member's contract can be negotiated with their Heads of Department and each component can vary according to each staff members' role within the department.

Semisi's second supervisor is of Pasifika descent and, although he is not an expert in the area of study, he is well respected in the Pasifika community and his role is mainly as a cultural advisor and a support person for Semisi. Semisi has meetings with his cultural advisor at least twice a month to talk about his research project and some of the challenges

that he faces in general. Not every student has a cultural advisor as their second supervisor, but in Semisi's case a cultural advisor has added value to his supervision.

Semisi's Dilemma

As a Pasifika person, Semisi is located within a wider network that extends far beyond himself and his immediate family. He belongs to a large extended family and is the eldest son of a family of four siblings. His family are members of the local Methodist church, where both his elderly grandfather and his father are held in very high regard. Semisi is also viewed by his church community as a role model and a potential leader. There are huge expectations from Semisi, both from his family and community, in anticipation of the completion of his doctoral studies. This was evident when Semisi was recently elected as a member of the Board of Trustees for his church, a position known to be held only by community elders. He is expected to uphold all of his family and community responsibilities while also being a full time doctoral student. For Semisi it is very difficult to delegate or turn down any of these responsibilities from his church and family, due to the expectations that have been placed on him.

Semisi is one of 38 Pasifika doctoral candidates at the UoA. There are 5 Pasifika students (including Semisi) within his faculty but he does not know them well and he does not see them that often. All of the Pasifika doctoral candidates are at different stages of their degree and this makes it difficult for Semisi to really connect with them. When he attended the doctoral induction day, he met doctoral students (non-Pasifika) from different faculties and they talked about setting up a writing support group. However, Semisi was not sure if he would be able to participate in this group and what it would mean in terms of his commitments and his time. Semisi is isolated, except for his work with his supervisors as he does not have much contact with anybody else on campus. This is one of the main challenges that Semisi faces.

Issues for Semisi's Supervisor

Semisi's supervisor has five doctoral students and six masters students. Fitting all of these students in for supervision meetings can be extremely difficult, given that most are at different points of their degree and have different commitments outside of their studies. This supervisor is

experiencing some issues in supervising Semisi. To begin with, Semisi has to be prompted for a meeting and during the meetings he does not have many questions. After several supervision meetings his supervisor felt that their discussions were rather one-sided. Semisi appears to be shy by nature, which makes it difficult for his supervisor to establish a rapport with him. The supervisor thought about forming a PhD group and getting Semisi to join but was not sure how Semisi would view this idea. He did not want to offend Semisi, although he felt that the support group would give Semisi the opportunity to sound out and exchange ideas with his peers.

Semisi submitted a first draft of his literature review and this highlighted a number of issues that the supervisor needs to address with him. Articulating his ideas and arguments seems to be difficult for him and in general he needs to work on his writing skills. Semisi needs to be proactive about his project. He needs to be more questioning of his field and to be prepared to defend his work. The analysis of his own cultural ideas and values needs to be in depth and strengthened by literature references. His supervisor acknowledges that this can often be a challenge for students whose work is grounded within their cultural knowledge and world views. In addition, he will need to check with Semisi if he is aware of the other support services on campus that are available to him as a doctoral student.

Semisi

On his way to campus Semisi got a call from his 68 year old mother, who needs a ride to her sister's house. She also wants him to pick her up and take her home later that afternoon, before 3pm, so she can be home in time for her grandchildren's return from school. When he picked up his mother, Semisi tried to explain to her (yet again!) that even though he does not have any 'classes' he is expected to do his work and to meet with his supervisors. He has a deadline to meet, or rather, a series of deadlines. His mother just smiled as she knows her son is very clever and in fact, he was often the topic of conversation in her women's sewing group at church. She was very proud of her son and what he had achieved. After dropping his mother off Semisi heads into campus for his supervision meeting, conscious of the time and that he also needs to be back to pick her up.

Semisi's Supervisor

In the meantime, his supervisor is becoming irritated as he has set time aside to meet with Semisi and now he is running late. In addition, the supervisor is pondering on how best to approach their meeting. In his opinion, the issues he has identified are critical to Semisi's progress and even more important, Semisi is at risk of failing to complete. The supervisor continues to ponder…..maybe it will be easier if Semisi is matched with a PI supervisor???

Further Dilemmas for Pasifika Supervisors

When supervising Pasifika students, a Pasifika supervisor faces a number of issues, which include the desire to assist these students over and above what is reasonable for a supervisor to do for a student. This comes from having a deep understanding and appreciation of the cultural background of the Pasifika students. There are anecdotal narratives which frame the expectations of Pasifika students on the assumption that a Pasifika supervisor will be a lot easier on them, due to their familiarity with the culture and personal circumstances of the students. The line of who is responsible for what in the supervisory relationship is often very blurred, made even more difficult by the fact that both supervisor and student come from similar cultural backgrounds, which makes the supervisor feel a deeper sense of responsibility for the student and his/her success. At the same time, the student often feels pressured to succeed due to personal contacts with the supervisor.

Concluding Reflections

This story highlights how the two worlds (academic and that of Pasifika people) view doctoral education and what it takes to succeed. In Semisi's world he is already accepted as an expert and a high achiever, evident by his appointment to the church Board. However, in academia he is considered an at-risk student who is lacking in specific skills critical to successful completion. It is difficult to pinpoint what can be defined as an 'ideal mix' in supervision. However, what is clear is that good understanding between both parties is critical to successful outcome. Further, it will benefit both students and supervisors if topics such as cross-cultural supervision are included in the training of new supervisors and in induction courses for

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students enrolled in research based degrees. There is also an argument to be made here on the role that cultural advisors play within supervisory relationships. Cultural advisors are critical in supervision as they can liaise with both parties and ensure there is good understanding of one another and of the supervisory relationship.

I think this paper paints a very clear picture of how difficult it can be for both Pasifika and Pakeha supervisors to supervise a Pasifika candidate because the institution and the degree are based on Western attitudes and values.

The South African PhD - In A State of Exception?

Susan van Zyl

Trying to write something about the PhD degree in my university in South Africa calls for the capacity to remember not only the dramatic changes and turning points in the country's history but also to register the inevitable continuities that enable educational institutions to remain relatively unchanged over time. The history of the institution that I have been a part of for over 40 years is marked by such visible and tumultuous change that it is certainly tempting to think that everything at Witwatersrand University (Wits) in Johannesburg today is fundamentally different from the institution I worked for over 25 years ago when its history was unavoidably linked to that of apartheid. In fact, I think that questions around the PhD in particular bring the complex mixture of continuity and change to the fore in especially interesting and unexpected ways. Wits has indeed changed dramatically in the last 16 years, but it could be said that here the doctoral degree seems to be surrounded by issues that relate to the demand for some continuity within all this change. It is as if our struggle around the nature of the doctoral degree acts as a reminder of all that our university should preserve from the problematic history apartheid imposed upon education in this country. What is at stake in the maintenance of the form and standard of the doctoral thesis and how should the ongoing debates around it be understood? In this seemingly imperiled state, should the South African doctoral degree in particular be regarded as an exception or is the PhD today confronting similar difficulties in many other countries in the world? I am not sure, but there is little doubt that higher education in South Africa has an exceptionally problematic history which still threatens to deform its future.

Wits Then

The University I experienced as a young member of the academic staff in the late nineteen sixties was very different from what its founders had envisaged. The University was conceptualized as an institution that did not discriminate on the grounds of race, religion or gender. However the place I joined had, for decade or more, been forced by the apartheid government to exclude students on the grounds of race. The Wits I was part of for 25 years was closed by law to black students (which meant black African, 'coloured' or mixed race and Asian students) and there were very few international students and certainly no black students from the rest of Africa.

Anyone who fell into the group described as black was forced to go to universities developed for their particular cultural group whereby there was a university for coloured students, another for Indian students and a number of what were sometimes called, with all the pejorative overtones of the term intact, 'tribal colleges' for black African students.

By contrast, Wits University was a very different institution and the education it provided for those who were allowed in was of a noticeably higher standard than that at the historically black universities. The majority of Wits students during these years were white and most came from financially secure, middle-class backgrounds and, although some of them had been educated at private schools, the education at the state schools for white South Africans was on the whole good, often very good. Although a relatively small number of white school-leavers went on to study at university, the majority of those who did go to university had few substantial academic problems, could afford to study without financial aid and were virtually assured of a good job after graduating. What is more, and perhaps even more important, they had not only been well taught at school but had been taught in their mother tongue by other native English speakers.

During these years, Wits university education was widely recognized as 'world class' and its graduates could, and did, hold their own almost anywhere in the world and in most disciplines. When taking a group of postgraduates to present at an international conference in the UK, I remember being asked, jokingly, by one of the senior conference organizers "How come you South Africans, in spite of the academic boycott, are so damn good? I, not so jokingly, replied "because we are all white and privileged and are working our behinds off so that when our

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universities are open to everyone and when we are, hopefully, not all white and privileged, we can all still be damn good."

In this context, my own experience as an academic who was also a 'doctoral student may not be typical. However, it may be revealing of some' of the ideas surrounding what it meant to do doctoral level research at the time. Starting in the middle of the eighties, when I was nearly 40 and had been an academic staff member for 15 years, I embarked on a doctoral project of a noticeably interdisciplinary kind about, in essence, the relationship between forms of knowledge and forms of writing, focusing on narrative. I did not have an official supervisor at Wits and the narratologist from another university asked to be an external/internal examiner came in at the last stages to look at what was by then almost a final draft. My thesis, which is just over 300 pages long (not very long for the time, or even today at Wits) took me seven years to complete, a length of time only partially explained by the fact that I had young children and had taken a year off to build a very unusual house designed by Wits student architects.

Those of us who believed that a doctoral thesis was something you only undertook when you had something substantial and, hopefully, original to say, may have been in the minority, but this was not such an unusual view especially in the humanities and social sciences. Very few people, except those who wanted to remain in the university, did PhDs, and those who were expected to do a PhD because they wished to be academics seldom did doctoral research when young. Even those of us who were clear that we wanted to remain in the academy forever felt that it might be presumptuous to do a thesis too soon and supervisors encouraged considerable independence in their students who were expected to complete the research with much less hands-on support than is given to doctoral students today. Certainly supervisors were not expected, to cite a now controversial example, to be responsible for guiding, checking or polishing their student's writing.

Importantly, and in academic terms as well as political and ethical ones, we should remember that Wits, and other English speaking universities in South Africa at the time, played a significant part in the struggle against apartheid. Staff and student activists were imprisoned, and campus life and learning took place in an environment of protests and interference by the police accompanied by tear gas and other forms of intimidation. Those academics and students who were not so actively engaged in struggle politics as to be arrested or detained read and taught Marx and other

political theorists (despite many of these texts being banned), debated the role of intellectuals in the struggle with their students and made it clear that a good education should involve teaching students, certainly postgraduates, to think like intellectuals rather than only as academics.

While the students came from privileged backgrounds, a number of them were aware, or were made aware, of the gross inequalities that South Africa generated and saw their education at the university as something that obliged them to consider and protest, where possible with and, if not, on behalf of, those who did not have the freedom to live, work or study in places of their choice.

Wits Now

A great deal what characterized the Wits of those years has changed. The size of the student body, its racial and cultural composition and, but to a lesser extent, the students' religious affiliations, are all different. The languages spoken in the corridors and on the lawns are different and many of the students come from communities very different from those of their white English-speaking and middle class predecessors.

Some figures may help to provide a sense of the extent of the change in the Wits context. 72% of the nearly 30 000 students registered at this university now come from the group broadly described as black and about 8% of these students are studying at the graduate level. 11 % of the total student body are international students, most studying at the postgraduate level, and almost all are from the other parts of Africa. A thousand PhD students are now registered at Wits, almost half of whom can be described as black African, with significantly larger numbers registered in Science and Humanities than in other faculties.[1]

However, accompanying so much change, some things remain the same and the PhD is one of the most prominent markers of continuity at Wits. On the level of formal requirements at least, and in the minds of many of the supervisors of doctoral students today, the nature of the Wits PhD has not, and should not, be changed. Drawing on its origins in the British educational system, the South African doctoral degree has always been and remains, awarded on the basis of a thesis only, and the expectations of the thesis itself remain very high. At the moment no viva is required of

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[1] These figures are taken from the Senate presentation version of the *Wits 2010 report: realities and perception.*

PhDs but there is talk of this becoming a requirement. Recalling that up until the late 1990s, South African masters degrees were also by research only, the present model seems (to many problematically and to others correctly) to continue to be based on the idea that PhDs should already have a substantial masters under their belts and that the doctoral thesis must significantly exceed the (research only) masters dissertation – even if it is now being undertaken by less experienced researchers, many of whom have only completed the more limited research report that forms part of the 'course work' masters degree requirement**.**

With this situation in mind, is it both right and realistic, that this view of the PhD degree should remain? Are there indeed exceptional circumstances to consider in the South African case?

The PhD Challenge at Wits and Around Us

When we debate whether, and if so how, to change the PhD at Wits, one of the most important and controversial issues relates to the question of whether the needs of developing countries, so often described as special, justify changing what is after all our highest qualification. In South Africa and in other African countries, as, I am told, is the case of Malaysia and Pakistan for example, there is increasing pressure to grow PhD numbers, from the state as well as from within Universities themselves. In fact, governments worldwide, and not only in developing countries, often explicitly link increasing numbers of doctoral degrees to economic growth – often without considering what is required to produce them, be it with or without, the lowering of standards.[2]

To return to conditions in South Africa and at Wits, let me begin with a question I will return to at the end, the apparently relatively simple one of supervision. 98% of PhDs in South Africa are produced by ten of the country's twenty-three universities and few of the academics in the remaining thirteen, especially in the historically black universities, have PhDs. Even at Wits, in many faculties (including Humanities at present), less than 50% of the academic staff have PhDs. There are also a worrying number of doctoral 'dropouts', some of whom cite inexperienced and/or neglectful supervisors as amongst the reasons for their failure to complete

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[2] This point is made by Heather Eggins in a 2008 keynote address for the DCU/ UNESCO Forum workshop entitled *Trends and issues in Post Graduate Education: A Global Review*

the degree.[3] Some would say that even more worrying is the slow doctoral throughput rate. Only 11% of PhDs are completed in 3 years fulltime while the national average of time taken to complete the degree is 4.8 years.[4] Most worrying of all, the state is now talking of reducing the number of years it will provide subsidy for PhDs to two years for fulltime students. If this happens, soon, unless something changes radically, no South African PhD will be completed within the official duration!

Acknowledging these complexities, Wits has continued to embrace one of the important goals in its Strategic Plan, that of increasing post graduate enrolment from 30% at present to 50% within the next five years. While not all this postgraduate growth will be at PhD level, it is obviously hoped that in meeting this goal the number of doctoral degrees will similarly increase and with it the number of black South African PhDs. However the last is a moot point. Some form of affirmative action in higher education must take place if the aim is to increase black South African doctoral graduates, as well as the number of black academic staff in our universities, who have PhDs.

The proportion of black South African undergraduate students at Wits, although not primarily as a result of affirmative action, is higher than at any historically white university, and it is at the undergraduate level (especially in first year) that the problems arising from apartheid schooling surface most vividly. However, the difficulties associated with underprepared students, who often also come from disadvantaged communities, are not confined to the undergraduate level. Some of the consequences of admitting less-prepared students at undergraduate level, not surprisingly, leads to the question of who to admit to honors (4-year) and masters degrees, especially when the masters by coursework and research has already proved to be so successful – at least in terms of numbers.

At Wits and elsewhere in the country there is an ongoing debate around whether universities in South Africa should admit, at any level, black students who are unlikely to succeed in their degrees. Against this position, however, it is often advocated that increased access to higher education, and with it higher degrees, is both a practical and moral imperative in a country with a history of extreme educational and political inequality.

[3] These figures are drawn from *The PhD Study Academy of Science of South Africa Consensus Report September 2010*

[4] *The PhD Study Academy of Science of South Africa Consensus Report September 2010*

Even a short period of exposure to higher education at undergraduate level, so the argument goes, has merit where there is such a problematic and unjust educational history. In opposition to this view, some say that failure is too high a price to pay, for both the students themselves and for the university. Increasing the access of previously disadvantaged students should only happen if the university takes concrete measures to substantially increase the likelihood that the students admitted (especially if by way of alternative routes) are properly supported and are thereby able to graduate. Universities, it is now often argued, cannot continue blaming the school system (South African state education can, almost all over the country and without exaggeration, be described as truly appalling) for not providing us with well-prepared students.

Against this background, the question is whether at post graduate level we should then set the bar high enough to avoid the negative, knock-on effect of admitting disadvantaged, often underprepared, students as undergraduates by ensuring that those admitted to higher degrees are significantly better prepared to undertake postgraduate work, especially research. If, as the argument goes, we admit more undergraduates who may graduate but with lower grades, we should be doubly sure that only those who have done exceptionally well in their undergraduate and masters degrees are considered for admission to the PhD level. There are, of course, the inevitable difficulties in determining where that bar should be set and at present students who achieve an average of 70 % for masters by course work and research, with a mark of at least 70% for the research component, are automatically admitted to the Wits PhD.

But what of those who do not have a Wits postgraduate degree? And what of the negative effect this may have on South Africans who did their previous degrees at historically black universities? Should those students only be admitted if they have acheived 75 or 80 percent pass rates? You cannot, some suggest, set the bar so high that only those who are definitely likely to clear it are allowed to try and, if you do lower the bar and open up masters and doctoral degrees, it is surely beholden upon the universities to provide increasing support for the research process in particular. If you want students to graduate with a product the university can be proud of, it must take an active role in ensuring that most students graduate. And this is the route Wits is at least trying to take.

Targeting the Research Process

As director of the Humanities Graduate Centre and someone who works closely with a similar, but University-wide, structure called the Postgraduate Project Office (PPO), supporting the process of postgraduate research is my job. So describing some of the activities of these two units may act as helpful examples of what this university (and, more recently, others in South Africa) is doing to support post graduate degrees, particularly those that involve research.

What is now called the Humanities Graduate Centre (previously the Graduate School) was established in response to the challenges of the new masters by coursework and research degrees. Initially it also housed the new disciplines or areas of study that Wits offered only at the graduate level, such as Forced Migration Studies, Journalism and Media studies and Tourism. These new degrees, perhaps because in new fields, attracted increasing numbers of what were sometimes referred to as non- traditional, graduate students. This in turn brought to light the extent to which more support, particularly for the research component of these degrees, was needed to meet the students' needs. As a result the then Graduate School then also acted as a faculty-level structure which organized and hosted a number of workshops relevant to research students, particularly on research methods.

This focus on research methodology has continued and grown and in 2010 the Humanities Graduate Centre organized a series of 22 workshops which were attended by 750 postgraduate students and academic staff - most, but not all of whom, came from the Humanities section. The workshop series (with a few additions as needed as new methods or approaches emerge) is repeated each year, roughly following the steps taken in the research process as it unfolds in each academic year. The topics in this series provide, I think, examples of the ways in which this support for postgraduates has been conceptualized. In the first semester of each year the focus is on research paradigms or approaches to research. The series begins with two workshops devoted to introducing a range of quantitative and qualitative research methods. Subsequent workshops usually include topics such Case Study, Mixed Methods, Action Research, Discourse Analysis and Ethnography.

In the second semester the series moves on to concentrate on what could be called 'How to' workshops, including 'How to do Thematic Content analysis', 'How to do Critical Discourse analysis', 'How to write

and theorize the results section of a dissertation' and 'How to structure the research product'.

As the workshop programme expanded there was simultaneously an increase in activities designed to extend and enrich the experience of doctoral students, and more recently the Centre started to organize a series of four-to-seven-day, off-campus academic writing retreats designed to promote the research of academic staff and doctoral students working towards a publication (mainly journal articles) or on their PhD research proposals or chapters. In the last five years, over 200 academic staff and PhD students, in groups of 8 to10, have participated in 30 academic writing retreats – approximately 70 of whom were working on aspects of their PhD. The positive responses to these retreats suggest that participants valued dedicated 'time out' to work on their individual research, the presence of other people also working on research with whom they could discuss their challenges and successes and, perhaps most important of all, the presence of an experienced research mentor who read their work *as they wrote* and could provide almost immediate feedback.

In 2009, in response to what a number of my colleagues and I believe to be a concerted move away from the teaching of theory in our Faculty, the Graduate Centre introduced a series of lunch-time lectures entitled 'Keywords'. In the first series, entitled Keywords/Key concepts, twenty lectures were presented in three stands: *Sexuality*, *Identity* and *Discourse*. The series which continued this year, entitled Keywords/Keythinkers, included three lectures on Freud's keywords, four on keywords used by Foucault, and three related to the work of Vygotsky. The 2010 series also included single lectures: Louis Althusser on ideology, Marcel Mauss on the gift, Ashis Nandy on history, Stewart Hall on representation, Judith Butler on performativity and ended with a lecture on transnationalism and cosmopolitanism. The support from staff and senior postgraduate students is reflected in the fact that each year over 500 people came to the lectures. Most, but not all, are from the Faculty of Humanities.

While these activities relate to method and theory, it goes almost without saying that anyone concerned with doctorate education is aware that a key ingredient in the success of the student, especially today, lies with the supervisor. The Post Graduate Project Office in particular, pays increasing attention to research supervision, particularly at the doctoral level. In the interests of better and more productive supervision, it organizes a number of workshops for supervisors and their students with a

view to establishing an arena in which supervisors and students can share their experiences, talk about the supervisory challenges confronting them and learn from the experiences of some of the universitiy's most successful doctoral supervisors or from other PhD students working more or less unhappily with those supervising their research! The PPO also produced a substantial handbook on supervision which lays down guidelines for supervisors, emphasizing the importance of structuring this often complex relationship by means of a formalized agreement or contract between student and supervisor.

While most supervisors agree that surfacing and detailing the 'contractual' nature of the supervisory relationship is undoubtedly important, many comment on the importance of thinking about the nature of what may well be a changing, five-year relationship, on a deeper level, and value the contribution made by the PPO to an understanding of this relationship and the ways in which it can be made more productive and, if need be, less problematic.

Questions of the Product

Against the background of what I think can, in all fairness, be described as a responsive attitude to the challenges of PhD research at Wits, it is a doubly important point to ask if we are still thinking carefully about what we expect from the product. If we are doing all this in support of the doctoral research process, should we not be able to retain the expectation of a thesis of very high quality? Should the consequences of 'massification' of higher education be considered as something developing countries in particular must accept and does this acceptance include expecting a lesser PhD? In the case of the thesis-only doctoral degree, it is perfectly appropriate, so the argument runs, to accept that the thesis need no longer be the same thing it was around 20 years ago.

Something interesting related to this question seems to be happening at Wits. While the contrast between past requirements and those demanded of the doctoral student at the present seem to be surfacing everywhere in the world, it is also true that some institutions are more accepting of the changes than others. A number of Wits' external examiners, in the UK for example, suggest that far from dropping the standards of our research degrees, the historically white universities in South Africa are sticking, perhaps inappropriately, to past requirements and standards. In a similar

way, externals from the US often complain about what they see as the undue length of the South African PhD thesis. Taken in combination, the views of these (often world class) institutions call upon us to question whether our research degrees are in the best interests of our students – of the 'new' doctoral candidate in particular.

This debate is familiar to many. I share with a number of my colleagues in South Africa, the view that instrumental understandings of higher education, the effects of managerialism and the demands from state and capital, are indeed things to worry about. The loss of intrinsic, or idea-driven, conceptions of the PhD, especially in those considering an academic career should, we say, be unashamedly acknowledged as a loss. If we change the spirit of high-quality research and lower the standards expected of the thesis, are we not betraying our students? Should we not call for the same resistance to the totally inadequate, often patronizing, University education provided for black students in the apartheid period and for this reason alone resist the idea of lowering the high expectations we have of our doctoral degrees? Interestingly the Department of National Education in South Africa disagrees almost entirely with this view and is thinking of shortening the number of years required to complete the doctoral degree, and reducing the amount of subsidy given to Universities for the training of the very PhDs that are seen to be in the interests of development. The argument is that having more PhDs, even if we expect less of those who have them, is better than only having the small numbers that the universities graduate each year at present.

Those of us who are (basically) on the side of retaining the high standards of our doctoral degrees admit that it makes sense to compromise – if we can find a way of doing so without letting our PhDs down in subtle ways – but it does seem we are already letting them down at some level. It used to be unheard of for a PhD thesis to 'fail', for a thesis to get as far as submission only to be returned as inadequate, and not just by overseas external examiners. But this does happen now, albeit rarely. As the person responsible for quality assurance processes at the proposal level in the Faculty of Humanities, all the documents related to the proposed doctoral research come over my desk. What is worrying here is that many PhD proposals, despite the many workshops offered by the PPO and the Humanities Graduate Centre, are sent back by readers indicating that they are unacceptable or require substantial revision. And this is despite

the fact that, also in my experience, the majority of the Faculty's doctoral supervisors put a great deal of effort into assisting their students with their proposals.

Happily these quality procedures around proposals seem to be working, if by working we mean that we continue to evaluate proposed research thoroughly and query projects, and the candidates that present them, if they do not seem up to standard. However, I know that it is still the case that a small number of candidates are allowed to proceed with their research despite the fact that, even at the proposal level, the task has already presented them with a challenge they are unlikely to overcome at all or without much support, and one wonders if they will ever be able to supervise doctoral students adequately themselves. In these circumstances it is hard to feel confident of these PhDs' capacity to subsequently undertake or supervise high quality research themselves. Perhaps this explains why some Science faculties seem to have adopted what they see as a more realistic position, one which allows them to change the status of the PhD as marking little more than the end of apprenticeship and to move the bar, unashamedly, up to the postdoctoral level, 'where really independent science can only now be done.'

Last Thoughts

When I think about the way in which all these complex questions and conflicts around the extent to which the South African PhD is or is not, should or should not be, in a state of exception, I find myself returning to my own experience as a supervisor .

At the moment I supervise four PhDs and am co-supervisor of one other. Two of these are in the very last stages, one has just begun and two are somewhere in the middle of the process. Thinking about these candidates, I wonder whether I am personally really confronting the difficulties and uncertainties around the PhD that I have raised here. In all honesty I have to say that I am not sure my experience with these particular candidates confronts me with the same uncertainties and conflicts confronting some of my colleagues.

All of my students are mature professionals who have established and successful careers either in South Africa or, in the case of two students from other parts of Africa, and secure positions in education in their home countries – positions to which they already have, or can,

return. Perhaps most important of all, they all come from educationally strong backgrounds in that they have done post graduate study at 'good' universities in South Africa or elsewhere and, perhaps equally important, have all been educated in English-speaking institutions. Two of them who are white South Africans, and the other two students from other parts of Africa, clearly had good research and writing training before starting their doctoral research. All of them are likely to succeed, although none of them have, or are likely to, complete in anything close to the official time, despite receiving (at least!) regular and attentive supervision from me.

However, I think it important to say that having this particular group of students to supervise has not meant that I have never had to confront the thorny issue of what it means, in my own view, to complete a doctoral degree successfully at Wits. Three years ago I was confronted, in quick succession, with the very difficult task of excluding two mature students who, because they were classified as black (although not black African South Africans), would not have been able to do a PhD at Wits previously. Both of them were highly motivated and clearly set store by the idea of having a PhD degree. As they wanted to work in what could broadly be described as the area of sexuality, I was asked by the psychology department to supervise them.

Both had degrees from historically black universities with the required results at master's level to be admitted to doctoral candidature. At Wits, PhD candidates only achieve full candidature when they have had a proposal accepted by the Faculty and it was in the attempt to write a doctoral proposal of the standard required that the weaknesses of their previous postgraduate education became apparent. As they struggled to conceptualize and formulate the research proposal, and in ways which their good results from historically black universities did not suggest they would, one of the profound and unhappy ironies resulting from the apartheid educational policies and its inadequacies, came to the fore once more. In my eyes, these two South African students had less general academic preparedness, and certainly less competence in academic English, than almost all of the international students in the Humanities faculty that I often work with closely on writing retreats. These international candidates may come from less resourced countries in Africa where the educational systems were marked by colonialism, but they are often better equipped to undertake doctoral research than the black South Africans who went to historically black universities.

After no less than nine attempts at writing a proposal that took at least a year (during which I supported him as much as I could) one candidate was still unable to produce a proposal acceptable to the evaluating team of the school from which he came and, correctly in my view, had to withdraw. He was hurt and resentful, especially in relation to what he perceived to be my inability or unwillingness to 'teach him to write a doctoral proposal'. The second candidate regularly presented me with work plans and outlines, not just for the proposal but for the thesis itself, placing a lot of emphasis on the fact that she would graduate with a PhD within three years despite being the mother of a young child and working full-time in a demanding position. Despite these ambitious timelines she was unable to produce, again with support from me, anything approximating a draft proposal in many months and I, somewhat to her surprise and annoyance, said that I found myself unwilling to go on with the supervision. However, in her case I made my unwillingness to continue clear at an earlier stage in the process.

In the last few years I have thought about these potential PhDs quite often and have found myself wondering if perhaps my beliefs about the PhD in South Africa played too big a part in their not going on, at Wits at least (They may well have gone elsewhere and been accepted). In the case of the first student, I have no regrets. He really was not prepared for doing a PhD and attempting to complete one would not have been in anyone's interests. The second case, however, concerns me a little more. While I think she was underprepared for doctoral level research and very much doubted she would have received the marks she did get had her masters been submitted at Wits, what sometimes worries me is what role my belief in the 'right' kind of PhD and the 'right' kind of attitude played in my not being willing to continue to supervise her research. What role did an absence of what I earlier called 'a commitment to the research itself and to ideas' play in my decision? Should I find myself in similar circumstances again, will I continue to feel that the very workman like and pragmatic attitude that she displayed is grounds to reject a student, one who may in the end and with lots of support, in the end produce a workman like piece of research ?

I do not know the answer to this question, let alone to the others I have raised here, but I do know that the nature of the doctoral degree in South Africa should continue to give us pause for thought and that this thinking should, for some time in the future, be informed by a sensitivity to what apartheid, and apartheid education in particular, did to so many South African students.

3

Post-Colonial Theory: Enriching and Unsettling Doctoral Education

Catherine Manathunga

Introduction

Doctoral education has become an increasingly significant feature of higher education in most countries over the last two decades. To date, a great deal of literature on doctoral education has focused on practical suggestions about increasing supervisors' effectiveness. These texts often cast supervision as a form of rational and simple project management. While this work provides useful advice, supervisors, particularly those in the Humanities and Social Sciences, are often seeking to match their supervisory practice with particular educational philosophies and beliefs. This can be a challenging task when much of the dominant literature on effective supervision remains silent about the theoretical and philosophical perspectives it draws upon. Many supervisors experience the supervisory role as a complex and challenging pedagogy that cannot be easily depicted as project management, which reduces the utility of this standard advice about effective supervision. This is especially the case in intercultural supervision, where cultural differences can change the dynamics of supervision.

Consequently, many researchers investigating doctoral education have become increasingly interested in the role of theory in understanding postgraduate supervision. They have become more aware of the importance of explicitly situating their work within particular theoretical paradigms. They have also become committed to broadening the coverage of different theoretical perspectives in the literature on doctoral education. Researchers in this field have become aware that any theory which

foregrounds particular aspects of supervision tend to remain silent on other elements. This means that a richer, more complex understanding of supervision can be obtained by exploring it from many diverse theoretical angles.

This chapter seeks to map out the key theoretical paradigms already covered in the burgeoning literature on doctoral education, focusing on intercultural postgraduate supervision in particular. I then argue that post-colonial theory has some fresh insights to offer doctoral education researchers and supervisors interested in situating their practice within specific educational philosophies. After clarifying my approach to post-colonial theory, I select a number of key post-colonial concepts or tropes and post-colonial understandings of identity in order to demonstrate their usefulness in enhancing and unsettling our understandings of intercultural doctoral supervision. I argue that these features of post-colonial theory deepen and challenge our investigations of doctoral education. This chapter is targeted at those who research doctoral education and supervisors who are seeking to situate their practice within particular educational philosophies and beliefs. Hence, it is likely to appeal more to supervisors in the Humanities and Social Science sectors. I continue by outlining some of the implications that these post-colonial understandings have for intercultural supervision practice and finally, conclude with an invitation to international scholars to consider investigating what post-colonial theory might have to offer their research on doctoral education.

Current Theoretical Traditions in Research on Doctoral Education

Research into doctoral education has increased exponentially over the last few decades. Fortunately, researchers working in this area of higher education have drawn upon a wide range of theoretical paradigms and perspectives. This contrasts quite dramatically with many other areas within higher education research, which have retained a narrow, limited, often theoretical focus (Haggis, 2009; Tight, 2004). As a result, when I began researching doctoral education in the early 2000s, I was able to scope out the field as incorporating the full spectrum of theoretical paradigms generally used in broader disciplines like education and sociology (Manathunga, 2002).

Doctoral education has been explored by researchers taking up positivist and interpretivist traditions (eg. Firth & Martens, 2008; Ryan & Zuber-Skerritt, 1999), which also dominate other areas of higher education research. These contributions explored a range of issues in doctoral education with a particular focus on the importance of effective supervisory practices and providing research students with access to resources and a positive research culture. These contributions tended to focus on what Smith (2001, p 26) calls the 'administrative framing' of supervision and doctoral education. I argue that they represented liberal discourses. While this work was valuable in enhancing our understandings of doctoral education, they ignored how the issues of power, pedagogy, irrationality and the body impacted upon doctoral education (Manathunga, 2002).

There have also been contributions from researchers drawing on critical and postmodernist paradigms (eg. Green & Lee, 1995; Grant, 2003; Johnson et al., 2000), which sought to foreground these complex and challenging issues. Critical and postmodernist investigations of doctoral education have particularly sought to challenge the construction of all of those engaged in doctoral education, particularly supervisors and students, as white, male, English-speaking, middle class, able-bodied and heterosexual (Manathunga, 2002). These theoretical perspectives bring issues of the body, emotion and irrationality to the fore. They also open up more complex readings of doctoral pedagogy, which, as Lusted (1986) argues, includes the operations of power flowing between students, supervisors and knowledge (Lusted, 1986).

However, I believe that these explorations could be further enriched and unsettled by applying post-colonial theory to research on doctoral education. It is important that the field of doctoral education constantly seeks to extend and problematise its current understandings of supervision so that new insights become possible. To date, only a few other scholars have sought to draw on post-colonial theory to investigate doctoral pedagogy (Kenway & Bullen, 2003; Venables et al., 2001; Grant, 2010). These cultural aspects relate not only to ethnicity and to supervision relationships between Western colonial or settler supervisors or students and Indigenous or minority culture students or supervisors but also to issues of supervisor and student identity [re]formation and the operations of research cultures.

Locating My Approach to Post-Colonial Theory

The existing approaches to post-colonial theory draw upon different disciplinary traditions and continue to be highly contested. For example, Spring (2008) draws upon educational and sociological readings of post-colonial theory in his analysis. Utilising the work of other authors, including among others, Apple (2005), Brown & Lauder (2006) and Stromquist (2002), Spring (2008, p. 334) suggests that 'postcolonial analysis sees globalisation as an effort to impose particular economic and political agendas on the global society'. He argues that post-colonial theorists, therefore, write about the positioning of education in this inequitable system as 'an economic investment designed to produce better workers to serve multinational corporations' (Spring, 2008, p. 335). As a result, Spring's definition of postcolonialism appears to have more in common with anti-colonialism. In literary and historical explorations of post-colonialism, anti-colonialism focuses on opposition and resistance to colonial discourses, such as those used in contemporary debates about the economic impact of globalisation and the like. It also presupposes fixed and binary relations between the colonised and the coloniser (Ashcroft et al., 2000).

However, literary and historical understandings of post-colonial theory seek to capture the ambivalence in relations between the colonised and the coloniser and the ways in which these over-lapping, mutual (though highly unequal) historical interactions continue to shape the present. As Ashcroft and others (2000, pp. 12) argue, relations between the colonised and the coloniser encompasses a 'complex mix of attraction and repulsion'. For the colonised subject, this means that they are 'never simply and completely opposed to the coloniser … complicity and resistance exist in a fluctuating relation with the colonial subject'. So too, colonisers experience a 'fluctuating relationship between mimicry and mockery' because while, colonialism is built on the idea that the colonised people will adopt and comply with the habits and customs of the coloniser (mimicry), colonised peoples often parody and mock these traditions, which is highly 'unsettling to colonial dominance' (Ashcroft et al., pp. 12-13). This positioning is more similar to that defined by Spring (2008, p. 334) as 'culturalist theorist' perspectives, which he argues 'emphasise cultural variations and the borrowing and lending of educational ideas within a global context'.

Therefore, my approach to post-colonial theory draws much more on literary and historical disciplinary understandings, which map onto my own intellectual and disciplinary histories. In particular, as will be demonstrated below, I have drawn upon the understandings of Homi Bhabha, Stuart Hall, Mary Louise Pratt and Mikhail Bakhtin. I have also been influenced by revisionist histories that became common in post-colonial nations in the last few decades, particularly relating to Irish history which was the focus of my honours and PhD research.

Some Post-Colonial Concepts

I will now explore some of the theoretical concepts or tropes that I have applied to intercultural supervision and doctoral education. Trope is a word often used in post-colonial theory to represent a metaphor, a common pattern, motif or ironic diversion from the literal to the figurative (Pattern, 1998). I will also illustrate the relevance of these tropes for doctoral education with reference to examples from study I conducted on intercultural supervision (Manathunga, 2007) or from the limited literature available on applying post-colonial constructs to doctoral education (eg. Kenway & Bullen, 2003; Venables et al., 2001; Grant, 2010).

Liminality

Liminality is a trope that has been used to [re]think identities in a range of post-colonial ways. One of the key theorists to propose the notion of liminality was Homi Bhabha. To explain the construct of liminality, Bhabha (1994, pp. 3-4) draws upon the art work of Renee Green, an African-American artist who represented the stairwell as a 'liminal space, a pathway between the upper and lower areas, each of which was annotated with plaques referring to blackness and whiteness'. Bhabha depicts this liminal space as a way of discussing the threshold, in-between space where the 'colonised subject … [is located] between colonial discourse and new non-colonial identities' (Ashcroft et al., 1998, p. 130). Bhabha (1994) argues that this is a contested and unstable space where identities can be engaged with, interrogated and problematised, and where cultural change may take place (Manathunga, 2006).

In doctoral education and postgraduate supervision, liminality could be a useful concept to [re]think the identities of students and supervisors. As doctoral students are undergoing a [re]formation of identity as disciplinary

(or interdisciplinary) scholars, they are in a liminal, in-between space; caught between being a novice researcher and becoming an independent researcher.

Then there is an additional layer of liminality for culturally diverse doctoral students. If culturally diverse students are studying in Western universities, they may be developing new ways of engaging with Western knowledge (they may also resist it) and may select parts of Western thinking, knowing and being, to blend with their own cultural knowledge. So too, Western students studying in Eastern, Middle Eastern, African, Latin American or Indigenous universities may be engaged in a similar process, although the power dynamics may be different due to the hegemony of Western knowledge and the English language.

Supervisors engaged in intercultural supervision may also experience a degree of liminality as they work with doctoral students who are culturally different from themselves. These supervisors will bring with them a range of cultural, historical, social and political ways of thinking, knowing and being and, as they guide their doctoral students on their scholarly journeys, they may also learn culturally different ways to engage with knowledge. Their identities are, therefore, also subject to continual [re]formation. As Venables and others (2001, pp. 240-241) argue, 'the supervisor seldom occupies a stable, integrated subject position. As each separate [supervision] drama unfolds, I find myself addressing each time … the question "Who am I?"'.

Transculturation

Related to this idea of liminality, is the post-colonial trope of transculturation. Transculturation was a term first used by Mary Louise Pratt to describe how:

> subordinated or marginal groups select and invent from materials transmitted to them by a dominant … culture. While subjugated peoples cannot readily control what emanates from the dominant culture, they do determine to varying extents what they absorb into their own and what they use it for (Pratt, 1992, p. 6).

If we apply this concept to doctoral education, transculturation encapsulates the ways in which culturally diverse students have power and agency. In earlier work (Manathunga 2007), I discussed a number of

examples of how culturally diverse students were able to carefully select elements of Western knowledge and approaches and blend them with their own to create original knowledge. The most helpful example of this, I think, comes from an Asian supervisor who described how, as a doctoral student, she was able to use largely Western postmodernist theories about subjectivity and identity to resolve her discomfort with 'Western individualistic and rational approaches to research' (Manathunga, 2007, p. 103) and seek some form of reconciliation with her 'values about collectivity, reciprocity and holistic connections between her mind, body and spirit' (Manathunga, 2007, p. 103).

I have also argued that supervisors' identities may also change in the process of working with their doctoral students. This argument draws upon Pratt's contention that colonial groups' cultures impact upon those of dominant groups. I think this also links with Michael Singh's ideas about engaging pedagogically with our own 'cross-cultural ignorance' (Singh, 2009, p. 185). Venables and others (2001) also talk about their experiences of actual and scholarly migrations as supervisor and student. Even if they may be unable to develop different ways of thinking, knowing and being, supervisors working with culturally diverse students can at least learn that there are many different ways of engaging in intellectual work and value the students' own cultural knowledge and resources.

Contact Zone

The next post-colonial theory I would like to outline is also from Mary Louise Pratt's work. This is the very rich notion of the 'contact zone'. Pratt (1992, p. 4) describes the contact zone as 'social spaces where disparate cultures meet, clash and grapple with each other, often in highly asymmetrical relations of domination and subordination'. I have argued that supervision is a kind of pedagogical contact zone because there are asymmetrical power relations between supervisors and students. In particular, Barbara Grant's work has traced the operations of power in supervision, particularly in her insightful 2003 article. In intercultural supervision, these pre-existing power dynamics are overlaid by different cultural assumptions about pedagogy, relationships and communication (Manathunga, 2007). So too, as Bullen & Kenway (2003) have argued, previous colonial discourses, stereotypes, histories and practices may surface in challenging and perplexing ways in intercultural supervision.

In another very helpful article Kenway and Bullen (2003, p. 10) extend the idea of the contact zone to higher education, arguing that 'the goal of those teaching in … the contact zone is … to focus on … how students, texts or cultures might come together in productive dialogue – without glossing over differences'. I think this also resonates with Aspland's (1999) description of productive 'both-ways' intercultural supervision, where difference is generative of new ways of thinking. Therefore, I argue that supervision acts as a contact zone where transculturation is possible (Manathunga, 2007).

Unhomeliness

While transculturation is a valuable outcome in intercultural supervision, it is never without ambivalence, risk and tension. This is why I find the post-colonial concept of unhomeliness helpful. I have argued that unhomeliness can also be a feature of intercultural supervision for both students and supervisors (Manathunga, 2007). Homi Bhabha was the theorist who first used this concept. Bhabha (1994, p. 9) described unhomeliness as 'the estranging sense of the relocation of home and the world – the unhomeliness – that is the condition of extra-territorial and cross-cultural initiations' that migrant workers, refugees, Indigenous peoples and cultural minorities experience. So this trope seeks to depict 'the cultural alienation, sense of uncertainty and discomfort that people experience as they adjust to new cultural practices' (Manathunga, 2007, p. 98). Unhomeliness also tries to capture the overwhelming sense of ambivalence people may feel about their identities as they blur, change and re-form.

In intercultural supervision, both students and supervisors may experience unhomeliness. This may happen for all doctoral students but these feelings may be more intense for culturally diverse students studying in a culture that is not their own. This is because they are engaging not only with a new cultural environment and context but also with potentially different educational systems and implicit assumptions which supervisors and others may have of them. Similarly, supervisors may need to adopt (even temporarily) different and sometimes uncomfortable supervision pedagogies and roles in order to work with sensitivity with students whose cultures are different from their own. Cadman and Ha (2001), an Australian supervisor and Vietnamese student, speak of these unhomely experiences. Grant (2010) also explores these experiences in the context of

Maori supervision in Aotearoa/New Zealand. In particular, she highlights the 'unfinished tensions that structure settler-indigene (coloniser-colonised) relations' (Grant, 2010, p. 103).

Assimilation

Finally, the last post-colonial concept that I would like to engage with is that of assimilation. Assimilation is a concept that I have applied to postgraduate supervision pedagogy in attempts to capture approaches where Western knowledge and practices are regarded uncritically as universal norms (Manathunga, 2007). Originally, assimilation emerged as a key term in American and Australian race relations research and was initially used to refer to 'a unidimensional, one-way process by which outsiders relinquished their own culture in favour of that of the dominant society' (Penguin Dictionary of Sociology, p. 18). I have argued that assimilationist approaches to postgraduate supervision usually involve assumptions that the intercultural student brings very little of value from their original culture to their research and that they must fully conform to Western research norms. These approaches are often associated with a strident discourse about academic standards and students' English language deficiencies. Arguments about treating all students equally or the same are also commonly associated with assimilationist approaches to postgraduate supervision (Manathunga, 2007).

Post-colonial researchers appear to be more inclined to use the tropes of 'Euro-centrism' or 'Universalism' to capture these approaches. Euro-centrism is 'the conscious or unconscious process by which Europe and European cultural assumptions are constructed as, or assumed to be, the normal, the natural or the universal' (Ashcroft et al., 1998, pp. 90-91). The related concept of universalism is 'the assumption that there are irreducible features of human life and experience that exist beyond the constitutive effects of local cultural conditions' (Ashcroft et al., 1998, p. 235). These assumptions do not 'acknowledge or value cultural difference' (Ashcroft et al., 1998, p. 235) and are often features of liberal, multicultural policies.

Post-Colonial Approaches to Identity

Many of these post-colonial tropes allow us to rethink notions of identity, as I have indicated above. Given that doctoral study is very much a moment of identity [re]formation for students (Green, 2005) and that supervisors

are often challenged to rethink their supervisory positioning with each student that they work with, it is helpful to draw upon post-colonial notions of identity. Post-colonial theorists suggest that identity is not a stable, fixed or one-dimensional phenomenon. Instead, our identities are 'process[es] which are never completed – always 'in a process' … a process of articulation, a suturing, an over-determination' (Hall, 1996, pp. 2-3).

Through the processes of transculturation described above, we can engage in identity [re]formation that is, according to Bhabha (1994, p. 5), located somewhere 'between fixed identifications [which] open up the possibility of a cultural hybridity that entertains difference without assumed or imposed hierarchy". Another post-colonial theorist, Mikhail Bakhtin (1981, p. 360) goes as far as to suggest that the coloniser/colonised hybrid is not only double-voiced and double-accented … but is also double-languaged … two individual consciousnesses, two voices, two accents as there are [doublings of] socio-linguistic consciousness, two epochs … that come together and constantly fight it out on the territory of the utterance.

In some contexts, identity politics is so raw and over-determined that it becomes impossible to occupy more than one subject position. However, many postmodernists argue that identity is increasingly fluid and fragmented and that identity changes over time and in different social locations. As Hall (1996, p. 4) confirms from a post-colonial perspective, 'identities are never unified and, in late modern times, increasingly fragmented and fractured; never singular but multiply constructed across different, often intersecting and antagonistic, discourses, practices and positions'. As a result, post-colonial theorists have argued that identities are always shifting, blurring, changing, problematic and under erasure. I have argued that, in supervisory pedagogical relationships, this is even more so because it is such a crucial moment of identity [re]formation, especially for students (Manathunga, 2007).

Understanding and Unsettling Doctoral Education Research

Post-colonial theory extends other postmodern perspectives on doctoral education because it allows us to bring a sense of history into our thinking. How have our raced, classed, gendered identities been shaped by our colonial histories and positionings? How does this impact upon pedagogy and identity [re]formation in doctoral education? Post-colonial theory, however, allows us to go beyond the limits of the linear and often

progressivist notions of time associated with traditional histories. The 'post' in post-colonial can mean both a sense of being after colonisation in a linear sense, but also at or beyond the limit of colonial discourses and identities that continue to shape our world. So post-colonial notions of time or temporality are both linear and layered. Just as Grant (2003) uses to great effect the notion of a palimpsest to explore the complex layers of supervisor-student-thesis relationships, so too post-colonial theorists use a layered conception of temporality that demonstrates how echoes, fragments and unconscious emergences of the past glimmer below the surface and appear in the present in perplexing and complicated ways. As Ashcroft and others argue (2000, p. 174), 'the traces of earlier "inscriptions" remain as a continual feature of the "text" of culture'.

Therefore, when we study or supervise we bring with us our histories as classed, raced and gendered bodies. We also bring with us (whether we like it or not) the weight of our colonial histories. Our own positioning in relation to colonisation and culture is likely to have a profound, although mostly unconscious, impact on many aspects of our human interactions, especially in intercultural settings. In intense and complicated pedagogical relationships, such as intercultural supervision, this unconscious heritage may play out in confusing and surprising ways.

So too, we may also have ambiguous and contradictory [post-]colonial positionings that we bring to supervision. For example, I am a white Irish-Australian woman, representative both of the colonised people of Ireland and the non-Indigenous people who colonised Australia. I have been acculturated in a society where Western, Anglo-Celtic perspectives, attitudes and values predominate. I live, work and supervise in a culture which is still working out what it means to be 'Australian', particularly if you do not have an Anglo-Celtic heritage. I also supervise in a country that has never processed its guilt and shame about its colonial past. There are vast sections of Australian society that continue (or perhaps contrive) to remain ignorant not only of the terrible history of invasion but also of the ongoing injustices that its Indigenous and cultural minorities experience.

Students will also bring their own positionings in relation to colonialism and their own cultural contexts and identity into the supervision relationship. All of this is also likely to impact upon students' interactions with their supervisors, particularly if they come from less powerful, dominant cultural groups than their supervisors. Post-colonial ideas about the simultaneous compliance and resistance, mimicry and mockery that

are characteristic of colonial relations may also have resonances in all forms of supervision. Students often seek to comply with and mimic [inter] disciplinary discourses and identities but their renditions are not always that far from resistance and mockery, which is unsettling to the power and authority of supervisors. This is, however, also a necessary part of pushing the discipline into new understandings and approaches; reinvigorating and rejuvenating [inter]disciplinary constructions of knowledge.

Implications for Supervisory Practice

There are a number of key implications of these post-colonial understandings for intercultural supervisory practice. First of all, supervisors need to acquaint themselves with their own history and the history of the society in which they supervise. As I have shown, a critical knowledge of your own complex positioning in relation to colonisation is important in understanding not only how you consciously plan your interactions with your intercultural students, but also how issues and challenges may surface from the subconscious. So too, supervisors need to develop a critical awareness of the history of the society within which they work and to reflect on how this shapes their interactions with their culturally diverse students and those who may have been marginalised because of class or gender.

Drawing on the work of Bell (2004) and Jones (1999), Grant's (2010) research on Maori doctoral supervision emphasises the need for non-indigenous or Pakeha New Zealanders to learn more about the history of colonisation and race relations. In particular, supervisors from dominant groups need to recognise and deal with their own 'inability to hear the voice of the marginalised' (Grant, 2010, p. 107). Supervisors also need to develop some understanding of the personal and cultural histories of their students, although, as Jones (quoted in Grant, 2010) argues, that can sometimes involve accepting that you may not be allowed access to parts of this knowledge. Students' boundaries of privacy and choice about how much history to reveal need to be respected, particularly in intercultural settings. Even gaining a general awareness of the history of the land or culture from which your students come is helpful in working together sensitively.

These understandings of history and culture would need to involve both a linear and layered sense of time, as post-colonial theory suggests, as the past reappears in the present in strange and ongoing ways. The

injustices many indigenous and cultural minority groups have suffered in the past continue into the present. So too, in many countries, the atrocities and injustices of the past have never been acknowledged, recognised or dealt with, resulting in an ongoing sense of injustice among indigenous people and cultural minority groups, and a sense of guilt and shame among the settler/invader people. As Grant (2010) argues in the Aotearoa/New Zealand context, there is a great deal of unfinished business that continues to impact upon Pakeha-Maori relations. This is magnified many times over in Australia, where even less has been done to acknowledge and address the wrongs of the past so that they continue into the present. This can result in particular sensitivities and misunderstandings in intercultural supervision that supervisors need to be aware of and seek to deal with or understand, as Grant's (2010) research shows.

Post-colonial understandings also emphasise the need to position yourself at or beyond the limit of colonial discourses and identities. For supervisors and students this means that change or transculturation for both is possible and generative as they work and [re]think together. As I have indicated above, working with students from different cultural backgrounds can change supervisors' usual pedagogical strategies as they help students build a bridge between their way of thinking and Western ways of thinking that continue to dominate the university. Aspland (1999) calls this 'both-ways thinking' and Venables and others (2001) talk about how supervisors rethink their positioning with each student that they work with. Therefore, supervisors need to actively plan activities that will enable students to operate in both thinking/knowing registers.

The complex blending of compliance and resistance and mimicry and mockery that is characteristic of colonial relations are also present in doctoral education. While this may be uncomfortable or even threatening for supervisors, it is a necessary part of extending the discipline in new ways. All supervisor needs to be humble and able to critique and laugh at the discourses, rituals and practices of their discipline and to allow students to push [inter]disciplinary boundaries so that it can continue to grow and change. The balance of these positions also changes across the course of candidature. Supervisors need, firstly, to make explicit to students the rules and discourses of the [inter]discipline, providing them with opportunities to mimic and comply with them. However, as students' [inter]disciplinary confidence grows, it is important to encourage students to resist [inter] disciplinary assumptions and ways of thinking so that they can create new knowledge.

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Finally, post-colonial theory allows supervisors to understand that any supervision relationship, despite the best efforts of all involved, will have both moments of joy and trauma. Supervisors can then move beyond dichotomising such a complex pedagogy into either/or, good/bad, effective/ineffective experiences. In particular, the post-colonial tropes of transculturation and liminality enable us to explore the deconstructive possibilities inherent in the contact zone of intercultural supervision. Meanwhile, the concepts of unhomeliness, ambivalence and assimilation unsettle our thinking about this pedagogical contact zone and its complexities and tensions.

An Invitation …

Therefore, I believe that exploring postgraduate supervision through the post-colonial theoretical lenses can bring critical, fresh insights into cross-national and cross-cultural research on doctoral education. These insights will both enrich and deepen our understandings and unsettle and trouble us as we seek to investigate doctoral education. There are many generative lines of inquiry that can be pursued by drawing upon post-colonial theory as I have sought to demonstrate. So, rather than finishing with a conclusion, I would prefer to open out this chapter and invite those engaged in intercultural supervision and doctoral education research to think about the ways in which post-colonial theory may be useful in [re] thinking all the many aspects of supervision and doctoral education yet to be traced. I also invite supervisors to think about how their practice could be situated within a particular educational philosophy or theory and how this perspective might open up possibilities for further growth and understanding.

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4

The Culturally Inflected Voice: Negotiation and Recognition without Dumbing Down

Gina Wisker, Gillian Robinson, Jennifer Jones

In spite of identification of special supervisory requirements of international postgraduate students and their supervisors, policies and plans identifying the need for, amongst other priorities, development of cross-cultural understanding, recognition and support of cultural identity, there has been very little systematic response at institutional levels.
(Wisker, 2000)

Introduction

Doctoral student numbers are growing and international students who study in a country other than that of their origin are increasing in the UK, Australasia , Malaysia, South Africa and generally, worldwide. Doctoral students and supervisors are very mobile and hence the supervisor-student relationship is no longer necessarily that of supervisors from a 'host' university country and student from 'overseas', but are now very likely to be a much richer cultural mix which, we can argue, makes even more pressing the need for cultural awareness and appreciation of differences in learning approach, topics and methodologies with which students might engage.   In the UK we are told that 'Over 270,000 students enrolled for a postgraduate course in 2007 - 08, with the sector seeing growth of 27% in masters' degrees and 9% in doctoral degrees. However, 50% of masters' students and 44% of doctoral students are international students' (Postgraduate Sector Driven by Overseas Students, 2010).

Most research on international doctoral students and culturally inflected learning at doctoral level tend to consider issues of language

(Ryan and Twibell, 2000) learning differences, institutional provision (Gundara, 1997; Okorocha, 1997; Wu, Griffiths et al, 2001) and supervisory relationships (Aspland and O'Donoghue, 1994; Smith, 1999; Cargill, 1998; Wisker, 1998; Wisker, Robinson et al 2003). Other work consider the issues of international student experiences and settling in (Deem and Brehony, 2000; Guilfoyle, 2006). Most recently, research conducted by Sheila Trahar (2011) for the Higher Education Academy Education subject centre (ESCALATE) considers the experiences of international doctoral students studying in the UK and raises many issues similar to those in our own work.

Our research focuses on supervising international doctoral students in both the UK and other international contexts, where issues of cultural capital and the 'culturally inflected voice' affect students' choice of topic, context, research methodology and method and construction of knowledge. It is based on, and grows from three research projects. Two of these are long-term research projects, one of which began in 1998, and uses quantitative and qualitative research in an action research project to explore the learning experiences and feed into support for the learning of cohorts of PhD students from the Middle East. The second was funded by a UK National Teaching Fellowship between 2005 and 2010 and is founded on the theory of conceptual threshold crossing (Wisker, Robinson and Kiley, 2008; Wisker, Kiley and Aiston, 2006; Kiley and Wisker, 2010). This theory suggests that there are particular stages in a doctoral candidate's work when they make a shift or learning leap and work at a more complex, higher, conceptual, critical and creative level in their learning, accompanied by meta learning (Flavell, 1979). This research project uses qualitative research to explore the learning, supervising and examining experiences of UK-based and international doctoral students, supervisors and examiners, with participants from Canada, Sierra Leone, South Africa, Australia, New Zealand, South East Asia, Israel and the UK. The third project was conducted during the period spanning 2008 to 2010, by Wisker and Jones, and involved international doctoral students and supervisors at several universities in the UK, China, Saudi Arabia and Europe.

Several studies have considered the constraints upon and the enabling of international doctoral students (Kiley, 1998; Kiley, 2000; Wisker, 2000). Other studies on the effectiveness of the doctorate indicate development of self esteem, professional, social and cultural contribution, such as "an

altruistic sense of making a contribution and becoming a better, more critical professional" (Leonard et al, 2005, p.141), and there have also been a range of studies considering the impact of PhDs (Cryer, 1998; Dinham, and Scott, 2001; Doncaster and Lester, 2002; Evans, 2002; Boud and Tennant, 2006) but little on the cultural inflection of the work of international mid-career professional PhDs, and the potential impact of culturally contextualised and inflected work (Wisker and Robinson, 2008).

It is important in any recognition of difference in research approaches, conceptualisation, expression, processes and practices, not to 'other' the postgraduate student. We are mindful of the dynamic interactions between supervisors and students which, we argue, should resemble more of a dialogue (Wisker 2005), recognising the value of differences, and moving forward in a mutually agreed fashion, rather than any presumed superiority of the culturally inflected processes and practices of the supervisor or the host university, as such. Catherine Manathunga's (2007, p.93) well expressed terms for such engagements as 'intercultural postgraduate supervision' involving 'contact zones' emphasise that dialogue. We suggest that both supervisors and postgraduate students are likely to have and to develop or modify what we refer to as the 'culturally inflected voice', i.e., culturally contextualised, focused and conducted research processes and projects. For the postgraduates, their articulation of these can affect their choice of topic, their learning experience throughout the doctorate and the ultimate, often transformative impact of the PhD on social, scientific, commercial, political, cultural and professional work and practices in the doctoral graduate's home country. However, as MacKinnon and Manathunga (2003) indicate, issues of learning, literacy and assessment are culturally constructed and inflected by the dominant culture in which the postgraduate students engage with their research. We argue that, in worst case scenarios, this might marginalise doctoral students' work, see its expression as lacking, or force it into a Western mould which could limit its engagement and ultimate effect.

In the research discussed here, we focus on empowerment of the culturally inflected voice in a global context. We take into account culturally contextual issues and the potential for PhD impact, particularly where language, learning approaches, researcher identity, modes of interaction between student, supervisor and community, and ways of constructing or interrogating knowledge form parts of the learning dialogue. We need to consider issues of language facility, particularly tertiary literacy, and the

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language specific to higher level study in a discipline, where the need to develop the facility with these various forms of discourse might at least initially hamper critical thinking and expression skills. We also consider learning and interaction behaviours which are affected by culture and cultural difference, for both students and supervisors.

Here, what is important is to identify students' and supervisors' experiences of ways of negotiating differences, enabling the significant, contextual, new and useful, while avoiding cultural imperialism, deficit models of learning and 'dumbing down'. Manathunga's 'contact zones' (2007, p.93) and Trahar's (2011) comments on respectful recognition of difference are important here. For Trahar, there emerges the 'desirability of pedagogy that is respectful and inclusive, that celebrates the diversity of the academic traditions that we encounter, viewing them as rich opportunities to learn about each other rather than seeking to assimilate those from different cultural contexts into 'our' ways of doing things ' (2011, p.50) We would argue that this is even more pertinent when supervisors and students are from a variety of different cultures, and in some cases possibly working together in a host academic culture that is the origin of neither.

Methodology, Methods and Research Participants

Three studies form the basis of this chapter: one is part of an ongoing action research study conducted by Gina Wisker, Gillian Robinson, Yehudit Od-Cohen, Miri Shacham et. al., with a large Middle Eastern PhD cohort-based programme (1998-2010) at Anglia Ruskin University; the second is a National Teaching Fellowship funded project (2005-2010) with international doctoral students, supervisors and examiners, conducted internationally by Wisker; and the third is cross-cultural supervision research by Jennie Jones and Gina Wisker (2008-2010) at the University of Brighton. Our data is derived from specific research activity conducted across all three projects, involving face-to-face and email interviews with students and supervisors and focused on cultural inflection and the perceived related effect. Our research participants are largely on PhD routes. Further, more explicitly focused, research needs to be conducted over a wider range of international postgraduates studying in international contexts, including Professional Doctorates, whose research is likely to have explicit transformative aims.

For the purposes of this chapter we combine data across the three projects and look at what we define as 'the culturally inflected voice', which the student develops in their research and its outcomes. This focus recognises and values the impact of cultural difference on choice of topic and conduct of research and the cultural contextual inflections reported by postgraduate students, and suggests effective ways of enabling these cultural inflections in a cultural and a research context, which differs from that of the international student. Finally, it asks early tentative questions about the effects of culturally contextualised issues upon completion of the PhD. Two of the authors worked with others for 12 years on a Middle East/UK international doctoral programme, which has so far graduated nearly 200 PhDs. Most of the research evidence gathered in our first study concerns recognising the culturally inflected voice and derives from action research conducted alongside our work as supervisors, programme facilitators and co-researchers with graduates from the programme. Those on the programme were mid-career professionals, who studied part-time and at a distance. Others involved in the second study were also part-time mid-career professionals and those in the third were from all age ranges - 21+ - although most were also part-time mid-career professionals. Their discipline areas ranged from the pure sciences through health to business, social sciences and the humanities and arts.

The Participants, Their Research, Interviews

Cultural context and learning background affect ways in which knowledge can be questioned, challenged, constructed and articulated and so affect research processes. Students and supervisors from different cultural contexts might work in culturally inflected ways in terms of research and learning behaviours; choose culturally and contextually inflected areas to work in, and the students, who are our focus in this research, might intend their doctoral research to make changes which are culturally significant. Many can make those social, cultural, political and scientific changes in their own cultural context because of the PhD award, which provides credibility and the right to speak.

Interviews conducted with doctoral students on all three projects focus on the issue of enabling the 'culturally inflected voice' of the student. This has produced data which leads us to determine a range of issues, difficulties and several positive, supportive practices that are seen to aid the support and success of international students involved in culturally inflected

research. This leads to some suggestions of what could be developed to encourage and support the 'culturally inflected voice' through to success in a broader range of cultural contexts. Interviews are combined across all three projects and numerically labelled. Given the increasing number of international doctoral students worldwide, and the engagement with professional practice, social and cultural, as well as scientific change, such findings and suggestions should be useful to many who are supervising and examining the work of international doctoral students.

Findings and discussion: What can we do to ensure avoidance of cultural imperialism and to enable transculturalism?

While the culturally inflected learning backgrounds and the culturally inflected voices of both supervisors and students are equally important in the contact zone of learning dialogues between them, here our focus is more on the student. A fundamental question driving our research and related work is what we can do to support and empower the student's culturally contextualised voice, recognising both their authority to focus on local issues (if they wish) and the global, as well as local effect of such research. Issues related to identifying and supporting students' choices of culturally contextualised research, the underpinning modes of knowledge construction and the cultural inflection, include the importance of identifying context where it indicates the originality of the work and its potential for impact; the topics themselves - where they might be highly original in one context and less so elsewhere; the inflection of different terminology in a cultural context and the ways in which this leads to interpretations of the research topic and findings; modes of research learning where these may differ culturally (MacKinnon and Manathunga, 2003; Grant, 2008); and issues about the impact or effectiveness of doctoral work where this might lead to transformation in the country of origin. However, as one of our supervisor participants and research colleagues pointed out, seeking the culturally inflected voice alone might well be a limiting factor since:

> I believe that in almost every research we have to search for universal contribution to knowledge as we are living nowadays in a "global world" and not in a local culture. (Miri Shacham, interview 27).

Topics 'these people...!'

Considering an international student's proposal which explored a culturally contextualised issue, one member of research degrees committee started their critique with 'these people!'. It might be unfair to jump to the interpretation of this as a veiled racial slur, but it sounded that way at the time, and one wonders how often unvoiced or voiced prejudices about topic and design might affect decisions even at such an early stage. While we should assume that supervisors and research degrees committees deciding on topics and proposals always have the student's best interest, the research cohesion and the do-ability of the research in mind, we have experiences of extensive querying which springs from the decision-maker's own cultural comfort zones. When considering students' research topics, research methodology and methods, and finally even the completed thesis presented for examination, it could be tempting to apply a culturally contextualised lens to censor or reconfigure the topic and research question. This at worst misunderstands the contextual importance of the focus of the research, considers commonplace what is actually unusual in the differently inflected cultural context in which the student undertakes their research and will apply their knowledge; and considers inappropriate the transformational intentions, the research methodology and methods and the 'voice' of the student if they do not easily fit or comply with what we feel safe within our own context. Topics that have been popular in one cultural context -- such as the failure of girls in school or bullying in the kindergarten playground, and have produced considerable research literature -- might be highly original in the context of another culture and the cultural inflection could shine new light on familiar issues. For this reason, as with other reasons of equity, it is important to consider each topic as arising from the research literature and student interest, and where appropriate, the effect of or implications of the cultural context in which the research is being conducted. A study of women's empowerment groups in Sierra Leone or Iraq might well be seen as likely to produce quite different knowledge, and be used to inform quite different changes, than a study of such groups in Canterbury, Kent, for example. Emotional intelligence training for the police in Tel Aviv must represent some similar but some very different contextual inflections to police training in Bury St Edmunds, Suffolk. The context in which the topic is explored offers the opportunity for new knowledge. Some other topics are produced directly out of cultural difference and their conduct and findings can

directly inform change. One of our students on the first project explored the particular needs and issues around Muslim Arab women students and PE (physical education) classes where location, clothing, security and the gender of the students and trainer were all sensitive issues.

Some culturally inflected and contextualised topics undertaken by the students in our studies reflect their transformational aims, and include: women's empowerment groups in Israel; cultural and professional effects of educated Muslim women in Sierra Leone; emotional intelligence in developing police personnel in Tel Aviv (particularly in relation to the removal of settlers from the West Bank); the influence of belief in the Virgin Mary on the identity of immigrated Irish women; Arabs learning English (through Hebrew) as a foreign language and settling in; and experiences of Chinese postgraduate students studying in the UK. These and other research areas, which focus on issues such as coping with trauma from specific hostilities, enabling access to higher education from more marginalised cultures or those whose religious and other beliefs prevent such access, which are local and specific in focus, generate insights and new knowledge, and suggest practices which can be transferred to and interpreted by other cultural contexts. In responding to questions about cultural inflections of topic and methods, Miri Shacham notes both the importance of foregrounding local, culturally contextualised concerns, and ensuring that the research enables a broader readership to inform and, where appropriate, effect change:

> People living in a small country (7 million) and a young culture (60 years) such as in Israel are very involved in local problems. Sometimes they see these problems as being very significant to their society, culture, life and profession. Maybe sometimes they refer to their country needs more than to the universal context. This indeed can seem odd to an outsider reader.

> I think that when writing research about local issues, student has to be aware of it and make effort to explain this local issue in a broader context -- what aspects or factors in this research is similar or significant in other countries or cultures? What does this research contribute to universal knowledge? (Miri Shacham, Interview 27).

Forms of supervision and research as culturally inflected learning and teaching

An issue that has infused all our work with culturally varied students is that of the relationship between cultural context and possibly different ways of constructing and representing knowledge. Manathunga's (2007) notion of 'unhomeliness' can be used to identify both students', and supervisors' sense of the culturally inflected expectations on their development of learning and their learning dialogues, which might differ from those which are more familiar, 'homely' perhaps unquestioningly culturally inflected, from their own learning backgrounds. One argument is that if a doctoral student chooses to study in a Western/European originated culture, they should expect to conform to the ways in which knowledge is perceived and constructed in that culture, which affects the acceptability of ways of relating to reading, deference to authority and research methods. Another view is that the constructions and representations of knowledge which students bring with them from their home culture needs to be respected in the host culture, which would lead to supervisors exploring ways in which knowledge is defined, located, explored and constructed in the varied cultures from which their students come. Such respect or enculturation would lead to different forms of supervision. Manathunga's (2007) 'contact zones' and Trahar's (2011) further development of transculturalism offer opportunities for supervisor-student dialogues based on mutual respect and learning across cultural differences, which can be mutually enriching and make something 'new'.

Simultaneous with the topic, the academic research practice, process and skills, we need to ask fundamental questions about:

- How far are learning and teaching and research methods and approaches culture free and just good practice?

- How far might we be insisting on a Western /masculinist/ positivist/post-positivist or other learning/teaching or research paradigms, just due to familiarity?

- Is such insistence a form of cultural imperialism? Or an enabling strategy for students to learn about diversity and flexibility of approaches and conceptualisation, presentation etc.? Why does it matter?

- How can research both enable the culturally inflected voice and local influence, and also have more widespread, even global, relevance and influence?

Some cultures consider that knowledge developed and constructed is shared, so we might enquire about the impact on the Western construct of the individual PhD (Grant et al, 2010). Some cultures consider it insulting to argue with elders or authorities, which affects critical debate (Biggs, 1992) while some students might not easily gain access to their population, or 'truths', because of differences in culture, status or insider/outsider position.

Concerns

We have discovered some concerns voiced by both students and supervisors, about the ways in which knowledge is received, challenged and constructed. On the part of the student, some of the challenges or factors may be defined as culturally inflected experiences of education and higher education, which relate to:

1. Learning approaches which may be:
   - accumulative/meaning oriented
   - deferential/critical or questioning
   - dependent/independent
2. Research approaches which may be biased towards particular methodologies and epistemologies:

   e.g. quantitative/qualitative
3. Expected levels of tertiary literacy in reading, writing and speaking
4. Expected academic standards
5. Religious beliefs
6. Pride, hierarchy and status

(Wisker, 2000; Taylor, 2007)

In institutional terms more broad concerns that have emerged include:

- Lack of support and training for supervisors
- Cultural discrimination

- Lack of respect for other cultures
- Lack of cultural empathy
- Lack of cultural awareness
- Supervisors' beliefs that they are academically superior
- Inability to hear the student's voice
- Communication difficulties
- Misunderstanding
- Difficulty in adjusting or changing practice to meet the varied needs of international/culturally diverse postgraduates (Wisker *et al*, 2003)

We asked both supervisors and doctoral students about their expectations and experiences of research learning in the UK. All reported some expectations, surprises, joys and issues, some of which might be worth sharing with supervisors supervising students from culturally inflected backgrounds other than their own, and with students working with supervisors from culturally inflected backgrounds other than their own. They should also be of interest to universities seeking to put training and support in place for successful transcultural interactions that hear and nurture the culturally inflected voice.

Supervisor expectations

Supervisors were asked about their experiences of the effects of culturally inflected learning and research backgrounds in relation to their students. Several reported a disjunction in the expected modes of research and studying in the UK for postgraduates whose origin was outside the UK:

> I think some international students find the need to work and study independently very hard because there is a very wide spectrum of what people expect from a PhD in the UK. That is very hard for people who come from a culture where everything is documented. (Interview 10).

> She found it difficult to be critical and to do critical analysis and would take things very much at first glance. She had very fixed notions, which were impossible for us to change. (Interview 10).

Another supervisor commented on the mutual awareness of the demands both of the research learning journey – the learning of technical terms, research processes and expression, and the effect of cultural difference on these with regards to previous learning and different perspectives. Some supervisors identified benefits and/or needs in relation to culturally inflected research learning practices, and forms of expression, brought by or encountered by the postgraduate students. One supervisor notes:

> The use of specific terminology poses two challenges. The first is of introducing the candidates to a whole new range of terms and concepts that they have never encountered, and the second is of transmitting the meaning of such terms from one culture to another. (Interview 24).

Research learning approaches also present issues:

> There are also the cultural differences where approaches and expectations are different from the two sides. I remember some comments made by my cohorts such as "the English want it done this way", or "they do not understand this issue like we do". (Interview 24).

This supervisor sees mutual learning and exchange as a way forward, both recognising cultural inflection, and enabling a dialogue across cultures:

> It is my impression that the way to surmount these cross-cultural difficulties is by a fully engaged dialogue which is fluid and continuous all along the duration of the process. (Interview 24).

Miri Shacham notes the importance of recognising different ways of conducting literature reviews, asking research questions, interviewing subjects and engaging in arguments, all of which are culturally inflected and affect the cultural voice of the student, whether queried or enabled. In her experience, the international student might well be more able to take a global perspective and involve a wide range of literature and perspectives on knowledge construction than a student who had only experienced a specific, seemingly culture free, but essentially limited range of literature and perspectives:

I assume that students' cultural context affects their literature review for their research: I assume that American students would search mostly for American and Western culture researches relevant to their own topic. Students from Israel, for example, as coming from the Israeli culture (Israel is a country integrating people from many different countries and cultures) will read many researches from other countries and cultures and their literature review will include different points of view. Maybe this will characterize students coming from other cultures than the American or European have benefited from the differences, the challenges and the support offered by their supervisors in the UK context one. (Miri Shacham, Interview 27).

This undercuts the deficit model of international postgraduate students and recognises not merely differences, but the potentially broader global perspective and range.

Postgraduate experiences

There is a host of factors influencing choice of topic, research design, knowledge construction and the power inflected relationships between research supervisors and students. However, in this context, many students who have chosen to undertake culturally inflected topics using, in some cases, culturally inflected research processes, take their constructed knowledge back into their communities and enable change. Instead of being overwhelmed and silenced by difference, several of the students studying in the UK context were pleasantly surprised at the engagement with ideas, dialogue and independence expected of them:

from discussions with doctorate level students in Israel, I anticipated that I would be asked to do a bit of research that interested my advisor; this in addition to course requirements.

The approach which places responsibility on the doctoral candidate to be an expert in his field appealed to me. This, coupled with the detailed and graded materials dealing with research and methodology suited me personally. (Interview 23).

There are also interesting perceptions about language and style that go beyond the more commonly argued concerns about tertiary literacy. Instead, they concern approaches, tone, attitude, address, which are themselves culturally inflected. One postgraduate talked of the way in which in Korean culture the writer will circle round the main arguments and philosophise before developing any kind of argument, while Miri Shacham comments on the Israeli culturally inflected voice that:

> From my experience as a researcher, I had found that cultural context affects Writing Style. I assume that Israeli students, for example, would write in a more direct way, sometimes feels the need to say thing openly or with a little impertinence.

> Writing style can be indirect, cautious in discussing sensitive issues, trying to be politically correct and I believe that some of these features of writing style are affected by life experiences and culture differences. (Miri Shacham, Interview 27).

Students commented on the way in which they had to bridge the gap between the knowledge of their supervisor and their own contexts, particularly when it comes to the writing of the thesis:

> It's like that I give someone to read and I know that he is not from Israel so I write it for myself, at the beginning I wrote for the supervisor and I know that he is not Israel so it forced me so that he would understand. It is always in my head. He is not an Israeli reader. And also because I think it's international because of the violence in the World, I understood that I must go also out from Israel. (Interview 28).

Students report on the difference their culturally inflected PhD has made to their sense of identity and career development:

> 1 (*Women's empowerment groups*) The main thing that was changed, was the feeling that now I have to be good enough. The feeling that I need to write and analyse materials in a meta-level. As to say I felt much more obligated to quality.

> 2 (*Literature*) As a researcher I feel that doors have opened for me, that my ideas and research are taken more seriously, as if having that degree entitled me to more serious consideration than just my MA.

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3 (*Physical education*) The close society – family and colleagues – appreciate this, including my students who are proud of their lecturer who is perceived as a role model. A role model in the practical area and in the cognitive area -- a doctor and a professional. Usually, when I publish or when I participate in conferences, professional development courses or workshops then the title is meaningful.

Carrying out culturally situated and inflected research has changed the self-image, the confidence and the status of these doctoral students/ graduates. The achievement of their PhD has enabled them to take their findings and recommendations directly back into their own context and to effect changes built on the base of their new standing as doctors in their community. In these cases, the sense of achievement, usefulness and right to make suggestions for improvements is palpable in their comments. The PhD really makes a difference, and it does so because of the recognition of culturally inflected context, topics and modes of research.

Some effective practices

Increased awareness of, adjustment to and, where appropriate, foregrounding of *culturally different contexts, learning styles, expectations and behaviours:*

- Acceptance of and support for *different learning approaches and research modes,* where this is appropriate
- Need to ensure that students have appropriate access to *tertiary literacy support -- for writing, and examination*

Ideas and questions

- How can we help students develop critical, problematising questioning approaches?
- How do we find out about culturally different contexts, issues, learning styles, expectations, behaviours?
- How much do we adjust our supervision? How?
- Should we 'accept' 'encourage' 'enable' 'empower' different learning approaches and research modes? What does this mean? When is it inappropriate? How can we do it?

• How can we put students in touch with tertiary literacy support if needed - what sort of support? What are the issues? How much do *we* need to 'work with their English?'

However, it is important to note that successful PhD students often wish to subsume the cultural context into the doctoral achievement, so one notes:

it transcends the cultural setting it doesn't invalidate (Interview 29)

Achievement

Achieving the doctorate has widespread effects on one's sense of self-worth, empowerment and the effect on local change. As one respondent said:

As a researcher I feel that doors have opened for me, that my ideas and research are taken more seriously, as if having that degree entitled me to more serious consideration (Interview 20).

Research in all three projects revealed issues that can broadly be categorised under three thematic areas which indicate the parts played in any difficulties or success of:

Personal – self-image, emotional wellbeing, confidence, friends and family

Learning – culturally inflected learning, teaching and research differences, learning development, working conceptually, in their own voice, on a do-able and effective project, cultural contextualisation of the project and transformational nature of it in alignment with manageable research design.

Institutional – expectations, information, rules, clashes -e.g. plagiarism, visa timed out, support, tertiary literacy, supervision, advocacy and clarification.

Some strategies involve the need to find out how and if cultural diversity is likely to affect:

• Choice of area of research,

• Ways of constructing knowledge,

• Approaches to research,

• Access to population,

• Ways of articulating ideas and arguments,

- Engagement with the literature,
- Ways of writing up, presenting and defending the findings and the thesis.

Some effective practices

- Increased awareness of, adjustment to and, where appropriate, foregrounding of *culturally different contexts, learning styles, expectations and behaviours*
- Acceptance of, respect and support for *different learning approaches and research modes,*where appropriate
- Acceptance of, respect and support for *culturally inflected and contextualised research questions and areas*
- Acceptance of, respect and support for the *culturally affected adjustments students make to conduct their research*
- Need to ensure that students have appropriate access to *tertiary literacy support - for writing and examination*
- Provision of *translation and editorial support and translator present at the viva stage to enable clarity of communication*
- Appropriate selection of supervisor and examiners who have *cultural sensitivity to issues which grow from culturally affected topics, context and expression*

Ideas and questions remain and include:

How do we find out about culturally different contexts, issues, learning styles, expectations, behaviours?
How can we enable and support students' focus on culturally inflected work?
How can we help students develop critical, problematising questioning approaches?
Should we 'accept' 'encourage' 'enable' 'empower' different learning approaches?
How can we nurture transculturalism in the supervisor and student interaction and knowledge construction?

Conclusions

Supervisors and students both report on the importance of avoiding any form of 'othering' and of instead maintaining a mutually respectful dialogue in the development of the relationship and the research. Part of this mutually respectful dialogue is based in awareness of the culturally inflected learning approaches and expression of both students and supervisors, and ensuring that those differences feed into enrichment and development in the 'contact zone' of the relationship and the research project.

Concerning the relationship between supervisor and candidate, one student remarks:

> Foremost in my mind is the level of trust that should exist between them. In my opinion this is one of the most important issues that a supervisor can attend to. It is relevant in general but more so in cases where the supervisor and candidate operate in different cultures.

> In my experience, cross-cultural interaction, when conducted with care and commitment, can be an immensely enriching experience for all participants. I can attest from my own personal experience that I fully enjoyed this interaction with my supervisor and her colleagues. (Interview 15).

Our early work, reported here, extends research into cross-cultural or 'transcultural' supervision, international postgraduates' research as learning, and the impact of doctoral work in and from differing cultural contexts. We begin to develop the notion of the 'cultural voice', the culturally contextualised, focused and conducted research projects and processes, and the postgraduate's own articulation of these, which can affect the ultimate, often transformative impact of the PhD on the social, scientific, commercial, political, cultural and professional work and practices in their home country. We also challenge the 'dumbing down' and cultural deficit models within which international students' learning, including research learning, is often placed. Instead, we show supervisors' and students' perceptions about extending their research repertoire, while conducting the specific research for which they have a culturally inflected angle and voice. In many cases they are able to acknowledge

the UK or other Western context in which they are studying and move beyond it into engaging with a wider range of international literature and research practices and making the very locally focused, individually and authoritatively theirs and yet simultaneously more global in its applicability. We argue, using Manathunga's (2007) 'contact zones' and Trahar's (2011) development of transculturalism, that mutually respectful dialogues offer learning opportunities for supervisors and students across cultural differences, which can be mutually enriching, can empower the 'culturally inflected voice' and make something 'new'.

Further, more explicitly focused research needs to be conducted over a wider range of international postgraduates, including Professional Doctorates and EdDs whose research is likely to have explicit transformative aims, and among doctoral students studying in a wider range of international contexts.

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5

Facilitating Creativity in Doctoral Education: A Resource for Supervisors

Liezel Frick

Doctoral study is inherently creative, as doctoral work has to be original, extending the knowledge boundaries of a particular discipline. This expectation seems to be a worldwide trend (see the definitions of a doctorate as proposed by the Association of American Universities 1998, in Lovitts, 2005; the Australasian Qualifications Framework Advisory Board, 2007, the New Zealand Qualifications Authority, 2001; and the United Kingdom Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education, 2008). The United States of America Council of Graduate Schools (1977, as quoted in Bargar & Duncan, 1982:1), goes so far as to proclaim the main purpose of a PhD as a preparation for "a lifetime of intellectual inquiry that manifests itself in creative scholarship and research".

However, creativity is not well defined within the context of doctoral education (Whitelock, *et al.*, 2008), even though it underlies the notion of *doctorateness* (as defined by Trafford & Leshem, 2009:305). It is therefore not surprising that Austin and McDaniels (2006) and Belluigi (2009) found that there is often a lack of systematic and developmentally organised learning experiences that specifically encourage creativity. Lovitts (2007) also points to the lack of explicit expectations and feedback on creativity in doctoral education. Belluigi (2009), and Lizzio and Wilson (2004) argue that processes underlying creativity need to be made explicit, if they are to add value to the development of students' awareness and control in implementing their knowledge creatively in an unpredictable professional setting.

In this chapter I therefore firstly aim to propose a conceptualisation of creativity that is applicable within the context of doctoral education. Secondly, I will argue that creativity forms an integral part of students' doctoral becoming, and thirdly I will explore the role of the supervisor in guiding the student through the process of arriving at eventual 'doctorateness'.

The conundrum of doctoral creativity

"The more I think about creativity the more I realise how little I know about it" (Parks, 1970:81). Parks' words highlight the difficulty in finding a concise and functional definition of creativity. Part of the difficulty may lie in that it is often used synonymously with terms such as originality. For example, Barron (1995) sees originality as a component of the complex phenomenon of creativity, and the work of Lovitts (2007) positions originality as an eventual outcome of the (creative) doctoral process. The conceptual distinction MacKinnon (1970) and Sternberg and Lubart (1999) make between the creative process and the creative product may be more useful and will form the basis of the conceptualisation of doctoral creativity in this chapter.

Dewett *et al.* (2005:14) define creativity as "a protracted process of creative engagement with many intermediate stops in the journey towards creative products", while Sternberg and Lubart (1999) argue that creativity extends beyond the generation of novel ideas – it also includes an evaluative component in terms of problem solving as part of the creative process. MacKinnon (1970) summarises that creativity extends from simple problem solving, to the full realisation and expression of a person's potential. In doctoral education, the tasks of identifying and describing a research problem, selecting an appropriate approach to investigate the problem, collecting and analysing data, as well as writing research proposals and papers form part of the creative process (Dewett, *et al.*, 2005).

The creative product (according to Sternberg & Lubart, 1999) is an original and appropriate contribution that has value and purpose, and these can be judged according to some external criteria. Creative products result from purposeful behaviour, and often lengthy and arduous processes (Hennesey & Amabile, 1988; MacKinnon, 1970; Sternberg & Lubart, 1999). In doctoral education, the creative product may manifest in the doctoral dissertation itself or in refereed journal articles, book chapters

and conference papers. Literature suggests an emphasis on the creative product (Dewett, *et al.,* 2005), but Pope (2005) challenges definitions that only apply to the creative product as reductionist, and proposes a more contextualised understanding of the creative process. Figure 1 provides an overview of how doctoral creativity may be conceptualised:
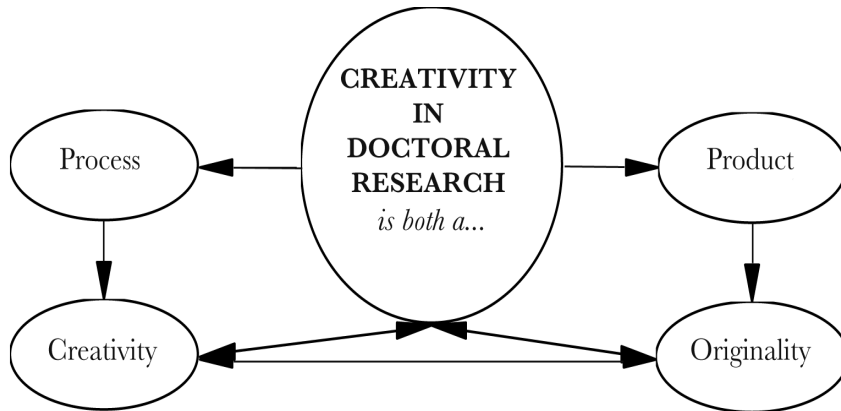

Figure 1 A conceptualisation of creativity in doctoral research

If we conceptualise doctoral creativity as the interplay between process and product, the question arises: what is the doctoral student becoming through the doctoral experience? Part of the answer may lie in how we conceptualise the idea of doctorateness.

Creativity as part of doctoral becoming

The purposes of a doctorate (and by implication what the doctoral student needs to become) are described in a variety of ways, including:

- the development of professional researchers (Bourner *et al.,* 2001);

- the conceptualisation, design and implementation of projects (United Kingdom Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education, 2001);

- conducting original research that results in a significant contribution to knowledge and/or the application thereof within a specific discipline (Australasian Qualifications Framework Advisory Board, 1998:53);

- the production of independent contributions to knowledge through original research and scholarship (Association of American Universities 1998 in Lovitts, 2005);

- developing both breadth and depth of knowledge that requires more than just acquiring the knowledge base of a specific discipline, but also skills that enable the student to think and act beyond the knowledge boundaries of the discipline (Alpert & Kamins, 2004; Kember & Leung, 2005; Leonard *et al.* 2005) – including personal effectiveness, communication skills, as well as networking and team-working skills (United Kingdom Research Council, 2001);

- the development of both skills and knowledge necessary for an original contribution to knowledge through research or scholarship – as judged by independent experts employing international standards (New Zealand Qualifications Authority, 2001); and

- the preparation for a lifetime of intellectual inquiry that manifests itself in creative scholarship and research, completion marking the transition from student to independent scholar (United States of America Council of Graduate Schools, 1977, in Lovitts, 2008; United States of America Council of Graduate Schools, 1995:9)

Doctorateness forms part of a process within which a student becomes a responsible scholar (Barnacle, 2005), whom Freire (1970, in Lin & Cranton, 2005:458) describes as a person who "has the courage and confidence to take risks, to make mistakes, to invent and reinvent knowledge, and to pursue critical and lifelong inquiries in the world, with the world, and with each other". MacKinnon (1970) agrees that courage characterises the creative person – courage to question generally accepted notions, and courage to be destructive in order to create an improved notion of reality – what Jones (1972:61) refers to as "the dignity of doubt". Notions of creativity, innovation, collaboration, problem solving, ethical conduct, interpersonal communication, interdisciplinary understanding and entrepreneurial initiative are embedded within responsible scholarship, and therefore also doctorateness (Campbell *et al.*, 2005; De Rosa, 2008; Lovitts, 2005).

The creative process and product cannot be isolated from the creative person (MacKinnon, 1970) and this positions creativity as both an innate and a learned quality. Killen argues that becoming doctorate requires

quality learning, which entails understanding (rather than memorisation), diversity (rather than conformity), initiative (rather than compliance), challenge (rather than blind acceptance), and – importantly – creativity (rather than reproduction). Sternberg and Lubart (1999) identify a variety of aspects that may influence creative development and that form the foundation on which doctoral students' prior creative learning is founded. These aspects include:

- cognitive processes;
- social/emotional processes;
- past and current family aspects;
- formal and informal educational preparation;
- characteristics of the domain and field;
- socio-cultural context; and
- historical forces, events and trends.

No single one of these aspects is solely responsible for the development of creativity (or a lack thereof), but rather they create the complex context within which creativity is either fostered or hindered.

Frick (2010) adds another dimension to doctoral becoming, arguing that doctoral becoming requires an alignment between how students view themselves in relation to the research process of becoming a scholar (**ontology**), how they relate to different forms of knowledge (**epistemology**), how they know to obtain and create such knowledge (**methodology**), and how they frame their interests in terms of their values and ethics within the discipline (**axiology**). As such, doctoral becoming is an ontological, epistemological, methodological and axiological concern, and supervisors need to help students position themselves accordingly in order to become doctorate.

Doctoral becoming can be seen as an ontological concern since the process of becoming is not clear-cut, even, linear or mechanical (Archer, 2008; Batchelor & Di Napoli, 2006) – but neither is the research process itself. Furthermore, the process of becoming sometimes leads to conflict, feelings of in-authenticity, marginalisation and exclusion, even though ontological insecurity is a necessary part of the process of becoming (Lovitts, 2008). Batchelor and Di Napoli (2006: 13) describe becoming as a (research) *journey into the unknown*, and research as *a voyage of vulnerability*.

Frustration and uncertainty are inevitable elements in the development of original research and students who are able to cope with uncertainty are more likely to succeed (Lovitts, 2008). The following questions may help supervisors to guide their students in thinking about ontology:

- Who are you [the student] as a researcher?
- Who do you [the student] want to become?

These ontological questions are framed against the backdrop of helping students find themselves a researcher.

Becoming is also an epistemological concern, as doctoral becoming forms part of and being eloquent in an epistemic community demands the acquisition of both formal (knowing *that*) and informal (knowing *how*) knowledge (Lovitts, 2005). Lin and Cranton (2005: 449) eloquently describe this concern as, "[b]eing educated is [often] associated with knowing lots of things rather than knowing how to think about those things". Questions supervisors can ask to help their students think about their epistemological positioning include:

- Who [which authors] are you reading?
- How are these authors influencing your ideas?

Such questions are focused on helping students find their place within the epistemic community.

Becoming as a methodological concern is important since students often decide on methodological preferences before properly conceptualising research questions, with little understanding of the underlying philosophical assumptions of the chosen methodology (Paul & Marfo, 2001). The consequence is that such students may struggle to find their own scholarly voice, identity or confidence – a vital step in becoming a responsible scholar (Lovitts, 2005). Supervisors therefore also need to focus on asking questions that help students to think about their methodology, for instance:

- Where do you [the student] position your research idea?
- How do you intend to pursue this idea?

These questions may help students to find their place in the world of research.

Additionally, becoming is also an axiological concern. Andresen (2000) argues that students' individual identities are established at the micro level (within the discipline), through a self-regulating community of peers. Students' public identity (at the macro level) on the other hand, extends beyond discipline-based research, which points to the importance of the disciplinary environment. The disciplinary environment has been described as the tribe (Becher & Trowler, 2001), or an invisible community (Enders & De Weert, 2004:135), but remains important as it forms the values and epistemic basis on which interaction with the wider scholarly community is built (Henkel, 2004). Scholarly identity is thus a product of an individual's values and beliefs, as well as institutional culture and positioning of the particular discipline (Harris, 2005). Supervisors often form the interface between the discipline and the student, and therefore may want to help their students think about axiology in the following ways:

- What is the discipline in which my [the student's] project is based?

- What type of [research] stories does this discipline most often tell?

- What values and ethics are evident in these stories?

- What does work across disciplines, including this one, look like?

These questions can be phrased as "finding your friends" within the wider academic community, and positioning yourself (as a doctoral student) accordingly.

Doctoral becoming can therefore broadly be conceptualized as an interplay of factors, in how students position themselves ontologically, epistemologically, methodologically and axiologically, as depicted in Figure 2.
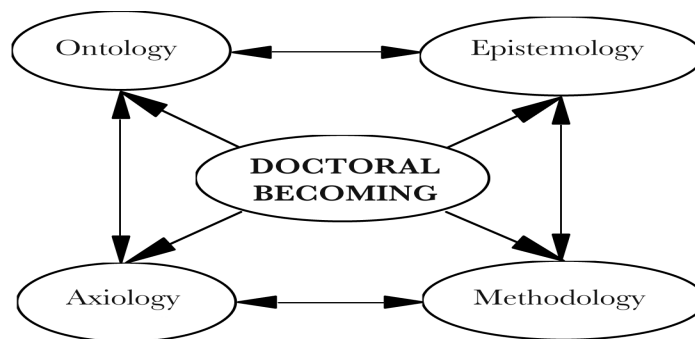

Figure 2 Aspects of becoming

Becoming implies movement over time, progression and transformation within all aspects of doctoral becoming, which Batchelor and Di Napoli describe as, "[y]our voice for being and becoming, as a person, as well as your voice for knowing". Turner (1979, in Kiley, 2009) describes three stages in the transformation process:

- **separation** (moving away from what was fixed or known),
- **margin** (a state of ambiguous liminality), and
- **aggregation** (settling into a new state of being).

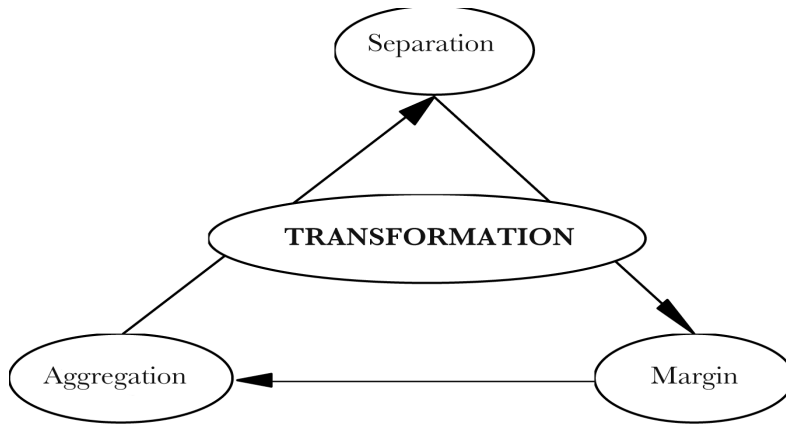Transformation can therefore be visually conceptualised as follows (Figure 3):

Figure 3 Aspects of transformation

If students do not reach a state of aggregation, they either become stuck or may resort to mimicry – mimicking the language, behaviour and presentation of the perceived desirable understanding or outcome (Kiley, 2009). While mimicry can be useful in terms of initial socialisation into a domain, long-term use keeps students suspended in a state of uncreative liminality. Students' constant movement through these stages, throughout the doctoral process, can be described as the rites of passage, which enhances understanding of doctoral becoming.

Facilitating creativity in doctoral education

How can creativity be facilitated in doctoral education? Clegg (2008: 223) rightfully asks, "Is it possible to find the intellectual space to develop an authentic social engagement with students, and to act as midwife to students' creativity?"

Students may experience transformation through creatively engaging with the interrelated phases of the research process. Wallas (1926), MacKinnon (1970) and Torrance (1988) identified five phases in the creative process that we can relate to the ways in which Nickerson (1999) proposes creativity can be enhanced, and the questions asked by McPherson (1964) on facilitating creativity. Supervisors may find the alignment between the creative learning process and the characteristics of the scientific process useful in developing facilitative strategies to enhance doctoral creativity. Table 1 provides an overview of how this alignment may be conceptualised.

The permeable boundaries within Table 1 signifies that supervisors and students do not need to approach the creative endeavour of doctoral (co-)becoming in a neat, linear manner, but may return to particular aspects, as the process requires, in a more flexible fashion.

Conclusion

We need to acknowledge that doctoral education varies between systems, countries, cultures, disciplines, and timing (part-time versus full-time study), and that "[t]here is no gold standard model of graduate supervision which can be applied in all situations, across all disciplines. For supervision to be effective, it must be an evolving process that concentrates on meeting the needs of different students, programmes and administrative structures" (Egan et al. 2009).

However, if doctoral students only experience a certain kind of learning, such candidates will be ill-prepared to practice in other settings (Le Grange *et al.*, 2006), or make an original contribution. Students' learning outcomes are influenced and sometimes determined by learning environments (Deem & Brehony, 2000). Creative growth cannot be forced, only facilitated by giving the student the power and opportunity to take *creative leap(s)* (Jones, 1972:25). Supervisors can foster or hinder creative growth, as Pope (2005: 66) describes creativity as a process of *co-becoming*. Effective supervision is crucial in decreasing postgraduate frustration,

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Table 1 An alignment between the processes in creativity and doctoral research

Doctoral research process	Creative process (Wallas, 1926)	Conditions for the enhancement of creativity (Nickerson, 1999)	Facilitative strategies for the development of creativity (McPherson, 1964)
Preparation of proposal, which requires background reading and demarcation of the research question. In other programmes this aspect may entail coursework	Phase 1: Preparation Period of preparation during which expertise is gained in order to pose a research problem	Establishing purpose and intention Building basic skills Encouraging acquisition of domain-specific knowledge	**Make explicit** that creativity is acceptable/rewarded **Provide examples** of long-term problems that defy a quick solution Try not to provide all the answers through teaching, but rather the **generation of questions** that cannot necessarily be answered **Encourage** students to ask questions **Reward** questions as an intellectual activity, even/especially those that the supervisor are unable to answer
Refining methodologies and conducting fieldwork (empirical research), or textual analysis (conceptual and philosophical studies), or preparation of artefacts (creative studies)	Phase 2: Concentrated effort Period of concentrated effort to solve the problem, which may be frustrating	Stimulating and rewarding curiosity and exploration Providing opportunities for choice and discovery Building motivation, especially internal motivation Encouraging confidence and a willingness to take risks	**Encourage** students to respect intuition as a genuine thought process, balanced by a thorough knowledge of the field **Provide** sufficient materials or models so that students may manipulate materials and experiment

Table 1 (*continued*)

Challenging period often experienced by doctoral students when starting to write up their dissertations.	Phase 3: Incubation Incubation period, often characterised by withdrawal and rejection of the problem, also described as a state of *liminality* (Van Gennep, in Trafford & Leshem, 2009:312)	Providing balance when students experience discomfort when in a liminal state Focusing on mastery and self-completion when students get stuck	**Allow time** for reflective thought in order for creative ideas to emerge **Encourage** students to intersperse different types of work to allow for incubation necessary for the development of creativity **Teach** students that they may find a variety of unique ways that foster creativity within themselves
Insight gained from aligning the problem posed with a paradigmatic approach used to study the problem, and the eventual result into a coherent whole and an original contribution to knowledge in the field	Phase 4: Moment of insight	Developing self-management (metacognitive) skills	**Provide** students with data incompatible with conclusions earlier reached, in order to develop the ability to integrate new data **Encourage** students to consider what would happen if their recommendations were implemented **Ask** students to combine old ideas in order to develop something new **Ask** students for alternative uses and/or explanations for existing theories, findings or products
Assessment of the doctoral work by peers, followed by scholarly publication targetting the relevant academic community	Phase 5: Verification, evaluation, elaboration and application Period of verification, evaluation, elaboration, and application of insight	Promoting supportable beliefs about creativity	**Teach** students that creativity may result in resistance and negative responses **Prepare** students for handling critique **Reward** creativity when performance is measured

alienation, and attrition (Egan et al. 2009), and is responsible for students' socialisation into the academic community (Merton *et al.,* 1957). They provide access to and the opportunity to challenge, social systems within disciplines (Csikszentmihalyi , 1999), which Austin (2009: 175) refers to as "cognitive apprenticeship" that makes experts' thinking processes in understanding and addressing problems visible. Creativity needs to be developed and fostered over time in an atmosphere that allows exploration and expression, regardless of the discipline or programme format (Jones, 1972). As supervisors, we need to encourage students to recognize their innate creativity and to build learning environments for students to expand and showcase their creativity.

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6

Big Love: Managing a Team of Research Supervisors

Cally Guerin, Ian Green, Wendy Bastalich

The last decade or so has seen policy moves towards less relentlessly dyadic supervisory practices, with 'team' supervision becoming part of the higher education institutional agenda in Australia and elsewhere. Team supervision, used here to refer to two or more supervisors sharing responsibility for a PhD candidate's progress, has sometimes been welcomed as the answer to the varied problems that have dogged research supervision (Cullen 1994; Pole 1998). Institutional motivation for team supervision has been mostly pragmatic: to enable novice supervisors to learn from more experienced supervisors, and to provide the student with a 'multi-faceted support network' across the course of candidature (see for example, in the UK, the Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education 1999). Team supervision is also a response to the increasing specialisation of knowledge, cross-disciplinary projects, and professional doctorates, which require a diversity of expertise (Malfroy 2005; Manathunga, Lant & Mellick 2006; Watts 2010; Peelo n.d.).

Understanding of how team supervision works, and what its consequences are for the field of doctoral education, lags behind coalface practice. Although team supervision is widely advocated at the institutional level, the small pool of existing research on the topic is more tentative in its support. Kinzie et al. (2007) observe that a diversity of perspectives within a research team brings complex questions to the research process, challenges as well as opportunities, and research outcomes characterised by tradeoffs. Others observe that different models of joint supervision exist within the social sciences and the natural sciences, with teams generally

being more common and larger in the latter than in the former, cautioning against prescriptive regulations across the board (Pole 1998).

The means by which students negotiate research outcomes within a team of several supervisors has not been explored in the literature in any detail. This is probably not only because of the relative newness of the team model, but also because existing supervision research focuses on the supervisor's role as manager of the research project rather than the student's role (see, for example, Lee 2008a). Existing scholarly literature on supervision emphasises the supervisor's style, skill, responsibility and management as key to successful research outcomes, with little comment as to what the student brings to the relationship (see, for example, Delamont, Parry & Atkinson 1998; Styles & Radloff 2001; Grant 2003; Danby 2005; Gatfield 2005; Anderson, Day & McLaughlin 2006; Emilsson & Johnsson 2007; Lee 2007; Lee 2008b; Amundsen & McAlpine 2009; McCormack 2009). Perhaps this reflects traditional supervision constructs populated by some prevalent and enduring metaphors, most prominently journeying, apprenticeship/discipleship and familial conceptions of parent/child (Lee & Green 2009). These metaphors not only focus on student—supervisor pairs, but also place little to no emphasis on the capabilities the student brings to the research project, preferring to depict the student as a neonate, embarking on the difficult process of acquiring complex knowledge, a process orchestrated by the knowing supervisor.

Equally, it remains unclear whether unrecognised legacy discourses of dyadic supervisory practice inhibit, or even perhaps undermine, moves towards implementing more collaborative supervision models and practices. With respect to this Pole (1998: 265) notes that a senior supervisor usually takes overall responsibility for the student, though not a lead role in supervision, and that it is rare for supervisors to meet together, with the emphasis 'placed much more on the individual student seeking out members of the supervisory team when necessary'. Pole (1998: 265) notes further that 'the supervisory team was not a relationship of equals and this may be reflected in the differing status of those involved and in their involvement with the student'.

We aim, in this chapter, to explore student experiences of team supervision, providing an analysis of eight semi-structured interviews with research students working in team supervision settings. Students were recruited by direct invitation and took part in one-on-one interviews (in one case, two students from the same discipline were interviewed together).

Interviews were transcribed and summaries focusing on their experience of and approach to team supervision are presented below. Interviews took between 30 and 60 minutes and the project had been approved in advance by the Human Research Ethics Committee of the university in which the study was undertaken. All names and distinguishing information have been changed or removed in order to ensure anonymity of participants. The students were known to two of the researchers from their previous participation in academic development workshops run by the researchers. None of the researchers are on the interviewed students' supervisory panels. There is a clear bias within the sample towards students who are proactively involved in research student development workshops and local research communities, and who take responsibility for 'managing' supervision, than is likely to be typical of research students in the general cohort.

The chapter is divided into two parts. The first provides a description of each team supervisory case, highlighting the active role of each of the students within the team supervision process. The second part explores the extent to which the dominant supervisor model has been superseded by a more equal distribution of engagement with the student. The second part also outlines the key elements of supervision management including those related to relationships, conflict, feedback and communication. In continuity with the familial metaphors often used to describe supervision, we liken team supervision to the polygamous arrangements in the drama 'Big Love' (2006-10) in which the husband, much like our students, must skilfully and sensitively manage multiple relationships with very different partners.

Case studies

Peta

Peta's flat-structured supervision team comprises three members from different disciplines, one of whom is significantly less experienced as a supervisor than the others, but whose contribution Peta greatly values. Peta explains that each supervisor brings different strengths to the team: '*It depends on what I need at the time, so they all serve different functions'.* Despite the advantages of the team composition, Peta says she sometimes finds herself in the frustrating and awkward position of managing inconsistent advice from the three supervisors. She explains how, having spent a great deal of

time responding to feedback from one supervisor on one draft chapter, she then received feedback on the changes from the other supervisors, who indicated that the redraft was inappropriate. Peta comments: '*I didn't know where to go from there, and it was also quite defeating*'. In response she has initiated a strategy to deal with the situation: '*That's probably where I've had the most heartache but I think also the most success in actually working through that.*' She explains how she has changed the feedback process: '*I only want face-to-face feedback and I want it to be in a group setting in relation to each chapter... so if you have conflicting advice you can actually determine that there and also argue it out amongst yourselves. So then I can come away with some clear advice*'. This arrangement has worked for Peta because all supervisors now reach consensus before she expends precious time and energy reworking chapters. While the process of renegotiating supervision arrangements has been difficult ('*that caused me a huge amount of stress*'), the outcome has been successful. Peta has managed to establish a collaborative relationship between all members of the team, organising the group to work together to make decisions about the direction the thesis should take. The sense of being the one holding the reins in the team is clearly empowering for this PhD candidate.

Melissa

Melissa's team comprises two supervisors from the same discipline, one administratively nominated, with more responsibility than the other, although '*they both, I think, have an equal support in my work*'. Melissa makes strategic decisions about how to use the supervisors' skills to advance her project: '*they both have different strengths … they really complement each other*'. Half-way through her candidature, at the time of interview, Melissa describes her satisfaction and enjoyment in the process of research: '*Everybody says a PhD is an isolated experience but I don't see that at all. I love talking to people and collaborating*'. Melissa says that her supervisors ensure that she forms networks both within and beyond her local academic area. Melissa expresses a sense of equality with her supervisors: '*We have the type of relationship where I'm not scared to challenge him … I know he's a professor, but ... we're really honest with each other*'. While she happily acknowledges that she has plenty to learn, she also expresses faith in her ability to succeed and to find a fulfilling career in research and teaching following her degree.

Susan

Susan's research team comprises three supervisors, two of whom are located in industry and a professional body outside the institution. Susan has come into her PhD after several years of working as a research project manager in industry. She has worked with and for all three supervisors in her previous capacity as a project manager, and she perceives the current arrangement as a continuation of previous relationships and responsibilities. Her research is on a topic closely related to her previous job. Susan transfers the skills and management techniques she learned as a member of a research team directly into her PhD research: *'It's helped me a lot, the fact that I've come from a working environment into a PhD ... I know I structure things differently and come from a different point of view'*. For example, she circulates agendas and summaries of meetings in a business-like manner, ensuring all members of the team are kept informed about her progress. She expresses a strong sense of accountability to the individuals and institutions involved, and works efficiently to meet their various requirements and timelines: '*got to make sure this project is moving, that it's progressing and that the Board's getting outcomes frequently ... that pushes me a lot harder ... does keep me very structured and organised on a day-to-day basis*'. In addition to the professional, well-organised and conscientious approach to meeting reporting deadlines and balancing her responsibilities to her employer, industry funding body, and to the university, Susan also actively maintains team cohesion. She takes responsibility for ensuring the team is '*harmonious'*, making sure '*everyone's on the same page*', and that the collaboration progresses smoothly. Like Peta, Susan explains that her supervisory team members have '*each got strengths in different areas'*, although they were chosen for their affiliations with different institutions and industry bodies, rather than specific disciplines. Nevertheless, they bring different expertise to the project and work together in a flat structure—there are '*no egos*' in this team. Interestingly, Susan notes that the principal supervisor defers to one of the assistant supervisors who had been her supervisor on a previous project.

Nurul

Nurul sits at the centre of a complex team of five supervisors. Each supervisor has been appointed to cover the varied expertise Nurul needs for an interdisciplinary research project. Although the members operate in a relatively egalitarian manner, all finally defer to the principal supervisor.

Nurul interprets her role within the team as one of mediator between the parties, responsible for diplomatically pleasing everyone. She describes meetings of the whole team as challenging: '*a bit intimidating, I usually feel let down for that day, really stressful*'. Perhaps reflecting her Malaysian culture, Nurul explains that she agrees with the contradictory opinions often put forward during meetings, and then has the delicate task of tactfully explaining why she does not take up all of the suggestions: '*So they will see the point why I don't choose this and that*'. She describes her principal supervisor as helpful and supportive in explaining research directions, and also the final arbiter in any disagreements that arise between team members about the progress of the project. Despite a range of strong opinions and paradigms present in the group ('*They're usually busy talking to each other, they like to discuss*'), the overall effect, according to Nurul, is one of harmony. A large part of this appears to be due to Nurul's careful management of the group to ensure that everyone remains involved, feels listened to and respected.

Ahmed

Ahmed has two supervisors from the same discipline, one more senior than the other. He has little access to his principal supervisor, and relies heavily on the junior supervisor. Ahmed has returned to academic life after many years working in industry. He finds himself struggling in this environment rather more than he had expected ('*I think the first year was frustrating for me*'; '*I feel that I'm letting them down, actually, in a way*'). He is apologetic about his lack of achievement: '*Sometimes I blame myself because I didn't have a defined problem*'. Although the reasons for his project delays are complex and multi-factorial, he cites an ongoing issue as the conflicting advice he receives from his supervisors. The problem is not in itself, however, in managing the advice, so much as the hierarchical relationship between the principal and co-supervisor. For Ahmed this plays itself out in ways he finds deeply undermining. During rare meetings with the whole team, the principal supervisor insists on returning to discussion of the basic assumptions underlying the entire project, discussions that Ahmed believes to have been resolved in previous meetings—and resolved more than once—but, Ahmed says, the supervisor appears to have forgotten earlier decisions. This constant return to the beginning is experienced as demotivating, and Ahmed perceives that the co-supervisor automatically defers to the more senior colleague, therefore failing to stand by decisions previously made together: '[he] *couldn't support me in the way I thought he would*'. The result is a

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dedicated but disheartened PhD candidate who is battling on, trying to get the work done, but who is rather lost in the system and discouraged by the hierarchical team relations that fail to affirm his efforts.

Matthew

Matthew's supervisory team comprises three supervisors who work in an egalitarian manner, although the principal tends to lead meetings, and the others defer to her expertise on matters of methodology. Matthew describes the supervisors as being poles apart in personality and methodological approach, and this sometimes results in incompatible advice. Matthew does not see this as engendering 'conflict'; rather, he views it simply as difference. He explains that a team dynamic has arisen where, in such instances, one of the supervisors (not always the same person) will adopt a pragmatic role, seeking to determine what overall directions can be formulated from the divide for the research. When commenting on his observations of conflicting opinions among supervisors, he feels himself distanced from the discussion: '*It feels like they'll be having a conversation and I'm an observer ... at other times I'll voice [my opinion] if I feel strongly'; 'Sometimes [I'm] somewhat absent from the conversations, which I don't mind in some ways because something usually comes out of that at the end rather than adding another voice that makes a lot of noise'.* He regards the opportunity to observe conflict within the team as a chance to learn the protocols of academic debate. Like the others, Matthew actively engages and manages the team of supervisors, critically choosing what to take from debates. He says he is also aware of the ways in which supervisors attempt to dodge responsibility for the provision of feedback on his writing ('*Being a team takes the pressure off other members of the panel*'). In response to this he takes specific measures to ensure he receives the feedback he needs from the different supervisors.

Gita

Gita has three supervisors brought on board to provide specific expertise for an interdisciplinary project. All are clear about their roles within the team and the contributions they are expected to make. Gita is a mature-age PhD candidate with an extensive professional career behind her. She has worked as part of an academic team in the past, and has a strong sense of who she is as an academic and as a researcher. When faced with conflicting advice from team members, '*I just give importance on my own ideas*

which one *I* have to take' and '*make it [the issue] disappear in the next meeting*'. Like many of the other students, she has well-established processes for ensuring that absent members of the supervisory team are kept informed of meeting decisions, sending all members a summary of her progress in the absence of normal fortnightly meetings.

Carol

Carol started her PhD with just two supervisors, then specifically sought out a third, and then a fourth, in order to build the requisite suite of disciplinary specialisations and methodologies required as the research program evolved and took on new directions. Carol finds herself in the delicate position of being a colleague and co-worker of the original three, with the fourth being brought on board to fill a knowledge gap that the other three, finally, agreed was needed. The original three supervisors had been reluctant to engage the fourth member of the team, but Carol's insistence that this was necessary eventually prevailed. '*There is a* lot *of expertise in this team*', Carol remarks, '*the question is whether* I *can integrate it all successfully*'. One supervisor has now largely dropped out of the process, but he perhaps may be '*someone who can look at [the PhD] with fresh eyes at the end*'. Carol puts a lot of effort into meeting with, and coordinating the work of, her supervisors, both jointly and separately. According to Carol, the result has been very successful; the open-mindedness of the supervisors and their commitment to getting productive outcomes has enabled the project to advance, despite their very different research paradigms. Carol sees herself as very much working between opposing disciplinary cultures, where while one supervisor encourages her to '*build up the stories*', another warns her not to '*elaborate*'. Carol deals with this at team meetings by '*having a good laugh*' about the contradictory advice, after which differences are worked through and resolved. Although Carol sees the supervisory team as a necessary response to transdisciplinary PhD projects, she recognises the managerial burden it necessitates. She says that while transdisciplinary work is the '*most informative and useful research that you can do*', there are still enormous problems for PhD students in trying to talk in a coherent way to more than one group of '*silo dwellers*'. In the higher education sector '*we just don't know how to do that yet*', she says. In retrospect, Carol says, she believes it would be preferable to have just one supervisor throughout, as the demands of managing a large team add to the complexity of undertaking a research degree.

Level of engagement and hierarchy in team supervision

Each supervisory team in the sample operates in a slightly different way. Some teams have a pyramid structure in which the principal supervisor has the final say on any decisions regarding the project, as well as final responsibility for the candidature, whereas others work along more flatter and more egalitarian lines. As might be expected, though, these varied structures overlap in complex ways.

Teams that have developed a pyramidal hierarchy can form out of groups that are constituted for reasons of cross-disciplinary expertise, complementary expertise, or to meet pragmatic or institutional requirements. In some cases the principal supervisor provides clear leadership for the team, effectively drawing on other members' expertise to support the project, but controlling the overall direction of the research. In these teams, the principal supervisor is seen as the senior party and final decision maker, to whom others finally defer. The interviews reveal the potential for even a nominal supervisor, who is quite distant from the day-to-day running of the project, to wield this kind of authority; and, unfortunately, this can occasionally be experienced by students as disruptive and demoralising. It is also quite possible within the hierarchical structure for the bulk of the actual hands-on supervision to be provided by more junior supervisors, so that 'principal' here refers more to an administrative title rather than the level of practical contribution.

More often, students in our sample experienced the supervisory team as operating in a more collaborative and less hierarchical manner. Again, this is the case regardless of the reasons for selecting the members of the team. The students describe their supervisory arrangements in terms of a group of peers in which authority, status and decision-making is shared, where all members of the team are perceived as equal contributors to the project. It is possible within this structure, however, for some principal supervisors to take a leadership role at certain points in order to guide discussions. There are also instances reported where the mediating role in debates is taken up by different individuals at different times. In other situations, although the student regards the team as a group of equals, some members are in fact less engaged and/or regard themselves as taking a more junior, 'training' role.

Clearly, 'team supervision' refers to a range of structural and operational types. At one end of the spectrum, team supervision retains at its heart the principal/student dyad, keeping intact the construct of the

controlling supervisor, while allowing for some visibility and moderation of her/his instructions. At the other end of the spectrum, team supervision involves a multi-pronged, collaborative approach to the student's research program, dispensing with many of the traditional notions of supervisory mastery and control.

Managing the team

Managing team relations

A number of key points can be drawn from these student experiences. First, in contradistinction to the prevailing perspective within much of the supervision literature, it is not simply the supervisor's interpersonal skills that are critical for successful research outcomes, but also those of the student. Nor are these gleaned in the research process, but skills they bring with them when they enter the institution.

1. *Team composition*. Most of the students in the sample report that they had sought out supervisors for their team, rather than passively waiting to be assigned supervisors. Their priorities were to establish a team in which compatible members contribute complementary, relevant expertise. Remote supervision, while not regarded as ideal, is acceptable if supervisors meet the other criteria.

2. *Team cohesion*. Having established a supervisory team, students actively work on the cohesion of that team—the 'big love' of our title. This includes ensuring that each supervisor knows that their contribution is respected and appreciated (even if the advice of individuals is not always followed); that communication is maintained across the team; and that conflicting views are resolved in a group setting.

Managing conflict

Team supervision exposes students to more conflict and alternative viewpoints, and undoubtedly this is an additional impost in respect of time, energy and, for many, emotions. Nevertheless, the students in our sample actively respond to the variety of perspectives, collating and balancing conflicting opinions, and finding resolutions that are satisfactory to all team members. On the whole, our interviewees seem to benefit, at least in the long run, from observing academic debate, provided there is team commitment in arriving at agreement about how to proceed. None of the

students we spoke to complained that the research had been compromised as a result of this conflict.

1. *Personality clashes.* It is an advantage if team members have previous professional or personal/social connections with one other, and have already established workable relationships. Students who come into research degree programs from an Honours stream may have a home ground advantage in this respect, having already established rapport with staff and developed some knowledge of their particular strengths and weaknesses. This suggests that team composition should take into consideration not only expertise, but also the quality of relationships among the individuals on the team.

2. *Paradigm clashes.* Based on our small sample, it appears that cross-methodological/cross-paradigm and cross-disciplinary supervisory teams can be viable as long as the individuals on the team are willing to engage in respectful debate, and accept that perspectives that differ from their own can offer something of value to the student and to the project. Part of what comprises a successful team is not necessarily therefore paradigm consensus, but paradigm tolerance, or the willingness of members of the team to openly engage with one another, including at theoretical and methodological levels, to achieve excellence in research outcomes.

3. *Differing opinions on project direction.* The interviewees who manage this successfully use a variety of tactics. Some describe themselves as listening to differing advice, but following the advice of the principal supervisor. Others intervene in discussions by summarising the main points to clarify divergent views, and then inviting the team to assist in reaching a clear direction. In some cases, conflicts trigger students to take control of decision-making, effectively forcing them to assert their independence and enhancing confidence in their abilities.

4. *Differing advice on writing.* Feedback on both structure and expression of written drafts was frequently inconsistent, a cause of particular concern for whom English is an additional language. An effective way students dealt with this was to approach feedback as suggestions rather than orders. Students who manage this well make active decisions about what to take on board and what to disregard, trusting their own opinions as to the validity of the advice. Sometimes these decisions are explained to the team, but not always.

Managing feedback logistics

Finding effective ways of receiving timely feedback on draft chapters is seen by students as key to the success of the project. A common problem in team supervision, as mentioned above, is that individual supervisors proffer advice which conflicts with feedback from co-supervisors. The interviews reveal three main systems for avoiding this problem.

1. *Simultaneous multiple feedback.* One successful strategy involves sending a chapter to all members of the supervisory team, and insisting that all team members meet to provide verbal feedback simultaneously. Thus, any differences of opinion can be openly aired and debated until a resolution is reached. Another strategy is to take copies of all feedback to combined meetings to reveal how advice differs and to work towards consensus. However, one student feels that sending drafts to all supervisors simultaneously has the undesirable effect of allowing each of them to think that the others will take the initiative, resulting in slow, or even no, response from some supervisors.

2. *Serial feedback.* A second system is to send a draft chapter to the principal supervisor, who marks suggestions in track changes and passes it on to the next supervisor, who then sends it on to the next supervisor and so on around the circle. This has the advantage of other supervisors being able to see the advice that their colleagues have given and to respond to that, and has efficiencies in that they do not need to repeat the same advice, but is a lengthy process from the student's point of view.

3. *Selective feedback.* Other students are selective about who they send particular sections to, sometimes showing drafts only to the supervisor with relevant expertise for a given aspect of the research. Some discuss the basic structure and organisation of a chapter with one supervisor, but then make use of another supervisor's writing skills and editing expertise to refine drafts before presenting the final polished version to the original supervisor. In cases where supervisors are on the team to fulfill institutional rather than intellectual requirements, the expectation is that they will not provide developmental feedback, but are kept in reserve to read the final thesis version with fresh eyes, almost as pseudo-examiners.

Managing communication

Email is generally the preferred form of communication outside face-to-face supervisory meetings. Students in our sample typically work actively to ensure that all supervisors are kept well informed and up to date about their progress. The practice of providing every member of the team with written, current versions of decisions and progress effectively avoids much potential miscommunication. Interviewees describe three main aspects of this area of team management.

1. *Circulating agendas* before formal meetings, including notes from previous meetings. This is regarded as an efficient way of reminding team members of the current status of the project and ensuring that any necessary preparations can be made in advance (e.g., searching for an obscure reference planned for discussion, or reading a relevant document).

2. *Sending summaries* of meeting discussions to any supervisors who are unable to attend a meeting. Coordinating meeting times with a group of busy academics can lead to delays if one waits until all concerned are available. This system allows the project to progress while also keeping all parties up to speed.

3. *Reporting content of other discussions* is also seen as valuable to keep all parties in the communication loop. The substance of casual conversations with one supervisor outside of formal meetings, the questions raised and decisions made, are emailed to all others. This is particularly important in situations where the student and one supervisor work in close proximity with significant opportunities for casual discussion, and where the other supervisors' offices are located elsewhere.

Conclusion

Team supervision is sometimes offered as a utopian solution to dilemmas in research training, although in practice it is more complex and demanding for participants, and especially for students, than is typically imagined. However, team supervision does solve some of the persistent issues present in the dyadic model, such as supervisor absence, insufficient breadth of expertise, and unmediated supervisor authority. On the other hand, team supervision raises new issues and challenges that require considered

attention on the part of research supervisors and students, as well as others working in the research training environment.

The clearest finding of the research is that team arrangements, when they are successful, demand significant skill and proactive management from students. Students may of course be managing their supervisors in similar ways within the dyadic relationship in order to succeed. However, within the team setting, the complexity of the dynamics involved, and the centrality of the student within the team, means that the student, rather than the supervisors, must assume the role of project manager.

This suggests the need to revise the assumption that the supervisor is the director of a passive novice. While students may lack expertise in the field and in research, they frequently bring considerable organizational know-how, personal assertiveness, self-confidence and interpersonal skills that contribute to successful management of the project. The bias in our sample was towards extroverted, highly networked individuals. It can be expected that not all students will prove as adept, at least from the outset, at managing their supervisory team. Skill development in team and project management, as well as interpersonal communication, may well be helpful to doctoral candidates. Project management theory (e.g., Cleland & Gareis, 2006; Ireland, 2006; Noakes, 2007) could prove to be a useful resource in this endeavor. It is also important for supervisors to be aware of the different requirements upon students in the team situation and to actively facilitate appropriate skill development. Researcher development programs, for both supervisors and students, should also incorporate discussion on the changing nature of supervision, and of team supervision in particular. We recommend that the management strategies outlined above be disseminated through such workshops.

The findings suggest that what is required from supervisors is not so much more skilful management, as receptivity and flexibility in responding to student needs within a multi-skilled team. Images arising from uneven opposing dyads might be replaced with an image of the supervisor as situated within a larger collaborative space in which the direction of seniority is unpredictable and negotiated within unique and fluid arrangements. This requires students to distinguish between what is a minor inconsistency or issue within the team process, and what is a significant concern that needs to be addressed in order to achieve a successful research outcome.

In the same way that the new milieu alters expectations of supervisors, so must our perceptions of appropriate responsibilities and skills of

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students be readjusted. Instead of thinking of the student, and encouraging students to think of themselves, as awaiting and following instruction, we suggest a rethinking of the student as active coordinator and manager of supervision resources. An essential part of this is a shift away from the view of the supervisor as manager of the supervisory team, to a view of the supervisor as a resource to be selectively tapped.

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7

Diffracting the Practices of Research Supervision

Geof Hill

Abstract

There are ever-increasing demands and expectations in the research world that are related to the quality of research supervision. It can be difficult for an individual research supervisor to recognize the quality of their own research supervision. On top of this are the added challenges of trying to improve that quality of research supervision.

Reflective practice is consistently identified in literature as a means of developing professional practice in research supervision. This chapter offers a number of frameworks to facilitate reflective practice about research supervision. It does not propose to solve the problem of quality research supervision but rather, to provide ways in which a research supervisor can reflect on this aspect of their professional academic practice and begin to plan ways in which their practice can improve.

Context

In response to major increases in the number of students enrolling for research degrees, there has been a concomitant growth in interest in research supervision. It is one of the many practices in the repertoire of practice of a university academic. Where governments have encouraged higher degree research with incentives based on completions, these agendas have helped to focus on the quality, or the lack thereof, of research supervision, adding to the ongoing conversation on higher education. In recent years, these investigations began to identify specific practices that can be seen as either *effective* or *good* research supervision, and which are likely to lead to research degree completion.

James and Baldwin (1999) identified eleven practices associated with *effective* postgraduate supervision:

- Ensuring the partnership is right for the project.
- Getting to know the students and carefully assessing their needs.
- Establishing reasonable agreed expectations.
- Working with students to establish a strong conceptual structure and plan.
- Encouraging students to write early and often.
- Initiating regular contact and providing high quality feedback.
- Getting students involved in the life of the department.
- Inspiring and motivating students.
- Helping if academic and personal crises occur.
- Taking an active interest in students' future careers.
- Carefully monitoring the final production and presentation of the research.

Brew and Peseta (2004, 21), in an appendix to their paper about professional development strategies for research supervisors, identified a range of practices under their criteria for *good* research supervision:

- Interest in and enthusiasm for postgraduate research students.
- Appreciation of good practice and an understanding of what constitutes a productive research environment.
- Establishing clear goals for the student in the light of university requirements.
- Regular and productive meetings with the student that provide support and guidance in their research.
- Managing the process to produce timely and successful completions.
- Developing a partnership with the student that introduces them into the research community.
- Open communication that contains supportive and challenging feedback on their progress.
- Utilising a repertoire of strategies to achieve supervision.
- Evidence of systematic evaluation of one's supervisory practice
- Using literature to improve supervision pedagogy.

These lists of research supervision practice overlap. They also provide evidence of the complexity of the practice and substantiate why there are so many problems associated with learning or improving research supervision.

Developing practice through reflection

Within this general agenda of seeking to name specific research supervision practices, researchers have also examined the question about how best to develop these practices. Consistently these discussions indicate the importance of reflective practice both in recognising good research supervision and in improving it.

Reflective practice has a long provenance with learning and professional development. It is reputed to have been advocated by Plato in the Ancient Greek schools (Schrag, 1992). In contemporary educational philosophy, it has been encouraged by John Dewey (1933), who, like Plato, encouraged people to reflect on their belief systems. Similarly, Donald Schön (1985) advocated reflective practice as a significant professional practice for all professionals.

There are similar arguments for reflective practice within the discourse of research supervision. Johnston (1995) advocated reflective practice in the context of action research for research supervisors wanting to improve their research supervision practices. She contrasted this with the then traditional and well established methods of professional development that often comprised one-of workshops in which supervisors listened to each other talk about their theories and literature about research supervision. This, she criticized, was removed from the site of the practice which gave little chance for implementing new skills or ideas. Brew and Peseta (2004), acknowledging the importance of reflecting on research supervision practice, encouraged supervisors to write about their own experiences of being supervised, as a catalyst for reflecting on and identifying what constitutes *good* research supervision. Manathunga (2005) emphasized that research supervision is often a *private* practice that requires reflective practice.

All research supervisors can benefit from reflective practice. For the novice research supervisors, who often draw on what they observed as being part of research supervision practice during their own candidature, it is all the more important that an agenda of reflective practice be brought to bear so that observed experiences are evaluated in the light of

discussions about *good* research supervision. Despite a clearly theoretical need for reflective practice, the reality of academic practice and lack of adequate time to reflect, along with the complexity of research supervision practice, hinder the practical application of reflective practice.

This chapter proposes four models to assist with reflection on research supervision.

Model/Exercise 1: prior knowledge of research supervision

Kandlbinder and Peseta (2001), Pearson and Brew (2002) and Brew and Peseta (2004) have observed that many neophyte research supervisors draw on their own experiences as research students to set their agendas for the emergence of research supervision. In this regard, novice research supervisors begin their practice with a repertoire of research supervision practices, modeled after their own supervisor, someone whom they see as an expert in research supervision. This repertoire is thus often accepted without question. Reflective practice opens these observations to evaluation and at times revision. One way to reflect is by exploring the following questions:

Think about your own research degree experience:
When I was doing my doctoral studies the best thing about it was……………
The most troubling thing about it was…………………………………………………………….
Together, these two things give me a research supervision agenda of….……..

This exercise helps to name otherwise unnamed capabilities by recognising that both good and bad experiences inhabit one's research degree candidature. It sets in motion a process to review strategies in the light of current literature about what constitutes 'good' research supervision; and to help to marshal practitioners away from the 'that was a bad dream…lets forget about it' response, into an identified agenda that can in turn be articulated into a research supervision professional development plan.

Model/Exercise 2: Observing the research supervisor mentor

For many novice research supervisors, their first experiences of supervising a student are in the context of a co-supervision model (Phillips and Pugh, 1987, p. 109; Bourner and Hughes, 1991, p. 23). This arrangement for research supervision has advantages in terms of supervisor continuity for the research student and also lends itself to research supervision mentoring.

Co-supervision also has potential for abuse. There can be unresolved power issues between the experienced supervisor and the novice supervisor. There can be modelling of *poor* research supervision practice from a presumably more experienced supervisor and a lack of experience on the part of the novice supervisor such that poor supervision is mistaken for the normal practice (Spooner-Lane, S., Henderson, D., Price, R. A. and Hill, G., 2007).
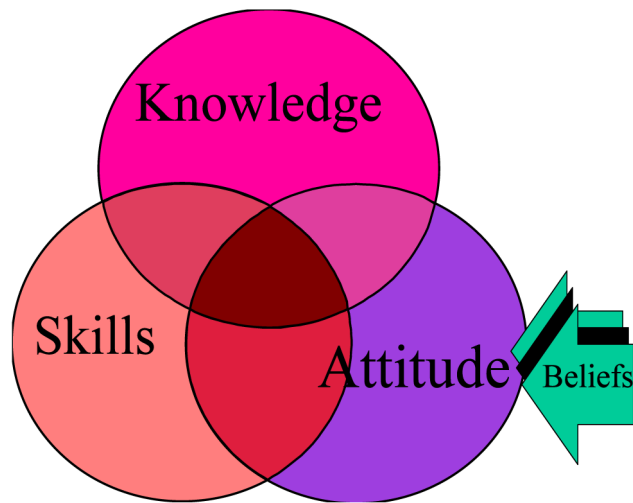
One way to reflect on these experiences of research supervision is by exploring the following questions:

Think about your first research supervision experiences:
What was something that you observed the supervisor do that you felt helped you in advancing your knowledge of research supervision?.........
What would you have liked to have been better explained by your mentor?……
What was the most troubling things about what you observed? ……..

Model 3: Examining practice – a competency model

In addition to the two models/exercises already discussed, the practices of research supervision can be reflected upon in a more holistic way.

The competency model (Diagram 1) presents any practice as the amalgamation of Skills, Knowledge and Attitude. Skills and Knowledge are acquired over time through both formal education -- the purposeful pursuit of knowledge about that practice -- and informal learning or experiences -- by doing the job. A person's attitude about their practice -- how they think about it -- is underpinned by beliefs. Often a practitioner is unaware of the beliefs which feed their attitude about their particular practice. These beliefs can be:

- Their beliefs about themselves as a practitioner
- Their beliefs about the stakeholders in the practice, and
- Their beliefs about the particular practice

Diagram 1 Practice as competencies

In the case of research supervision, the stakeholder is often the research student.

Also in the case of research supervision, the research supervisor's own belief system about research may have an impact on their beliefs about supervision. For example, a research supervisor with an epistemological belief that knowledge arises from practice may let this carry into their research supervision and support a further belief that the student already knows something about research practice. This may generate a research supervision strategy of drawing out what the student knows before addressing what they do not know.

Recognising one's belief systems underpinning practice can also bring to light incongruence between stated beliefs and actual practice. For example, a research supervisor, in a well-intentioned way, might tell their student what needs to be done to complete the research. Without reflection, the supervisor may fail to recognize how this practice could contribute to the student's subservience rather than empowering them.

Model 4: Constructs of research supervision

Research supervision encompasses a complicated repertoire of practices. Framing the extensive literature about research and research supervision provides a way of breaking this complexity down into smaller elements, making understanding of the practice more accessible.

In my own practice as a research supervisor, I have come to frame the literature in four constructs (Diagram 2):
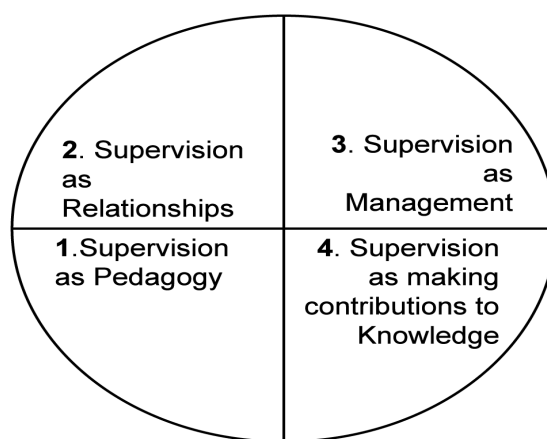

Diagram 2 A map of knowledge about research supervision (Hill, 2007a):

1. **Research supervision as pedagogy**

   My own review of the literature on research supervision was in the context of a doctoral investigation into research practices (Hill, 2002). At that time, a large portion of the literature advocated the view that research supervision was teaching. Research supervision has been viewed from the context of an academic's other teaching practices as early as Connell's (1985) personal account of research supervision. This view has continued through to current times (Pearson and Brew, 2002) although contemporary literature tends to use the term *pedagogy*.

   The term pedagogy is a well debated term. For some (Bruce and Stoodley, 2009) the term when used in the context of research supervision, is defined broadly to include discussion about philosophy, relationships and teaching strategies. In this text, I have restricted my definition of *pedagogy* to just teaching strategies.

2. **Research supervision as relationship**
    For as long as there has been discussion about research supervision as teaching there has been discussion about the supervisory relationship. Moses (1985) and Shannon (1995) both commented on the supervisory relationship and the shift from the medieval expert/novice relationship to one more attuned to a more experienced (academic) professional mentoring one less experienced. James and Baldwin (1999) give substance to some of the ways in which the student/supervisor relationship can be developed. Green (2005) progressed these discussions by articulating the idea, often referred to in practitioner talk about research supervision, but not mentioned as frequently in the literature, that there is an inequality in research supervision due to the fact that the research supervisor is often more knowledgeable about the process of university investigations than the student, and sometimes also more knowledgeable about the topic or selected methodology.

    As with any relationship, there is a need to consider what happens when there are conflicts, and with research supervision, this has prompted a migration of interpersonal communication strategies into research supervision literature, as strategies for resolving conflict within research supervision.

3. **Research supervision as management**
    Not all research supervisors accept the notion that research supervision is pedagogy, and an alternate viewpoint is that research supervision is management and administration (Vilkinas, 2002). Such a view is not that surprising, given the use of the term supervision within human resource management practice. The idea that Research Supervision is Management embraces the notion that research is an extended project that requires management, both of resources and deadlines. As a result, many research supervisors adopt a range of project management strategies within their research supervision practice.

4. **Research supervision as facilitating contributions to knowledge**
    A final construct for understanding research supervision is to view it within a context that research makes a contribution to knowledge. This view of supervision draws on the provenance of both research and teaching that existed with the pedagogies in Ancient Greece. Acknowledging this provenance illuminates the significance of

ontology (truth) and epistemology (knowledge) within research practice. Sometimes, these philosophical roots are overlooked, particularly when a research methodology has been chosen on the basis of previous experience with the topic, rather than being initiated through epistemological and ontological considerations.

This idea of research supervision advancing knowledge is also evident in contemporary discourses about how research is evaluated and how consistently published research is used to develop constructs of quality research.

Using these constructs to provide professional development support

These four constructs of research supervision generate a map of the field of knowledge about research supervision and of resources within the field. This map provides a scaffolding to refer research supervisors to resources to assist them in their research supervision. When supervisors respond to the Model 1 questions about their research supervision exposure during candidature, they reveal the nature of research supervision constructs that they are embracing and from this point, they can be directed to specific resources that they can apply in their practice.

Resources for research supervision as relationship

When it is evident that a supervisor has a *relationship focus* in their supervision, they can be directed to resources such as, Moses (1985) Role Perception rating Scale, Supervision Contracts (Ryan, 1994; Sankaran, 2009), the conflict resolution network web site (http://www.crnhq.org) and the learning styles website (http://www.businessballs.com/kolblearningstyles.htm).

Moses (1985) Role Perception rating Scale is a useful resource in the initial stages of a research supervision relationship to ascertain the expectations the student has about research supervision. It helps to bring to the surface differences in expectations that, if unchecked, could lead to more serious conflict about the quality of research supervision.

Supervision Contracts (Ryan, 1994; Sankaran, 2009) are useful to initiate conversations about the expectations a student has regarding their research supervision. Although once thought to be a binding contract

(Ryan, 1994), these are now more likely to be a tool to facilitate discussions about what is expected and what can be expected in a research supervision relationship (Sankaran, 2009).

The conflict resolution network web site provides resources for resolving conflict. Three particular interpersonal communication skills that are useful in resolving conflict are Reflective Listening (Nelson-Jones, 1986, p. 168), Reframing (Egan, 1975, p. 173) and using 'I' messages in assertive language (Nelson-Jones, 1986, p. 62).

The learning styles website can help research students begin to consider how best they learn and, with this consideration, what sort of research supervision they might best respond to.

Resources for research supervision as management

When it is evident that a supervisor has a *management focus* in their supervision, they can be directed to resources such as Perry's (1994) five chapter model for doctoral dissertations, which offers a framework for planning the research process. In my own work, focused on helping students to develop their academic writing skills (Hill, 2008), I have developed a project plan for the early stages of candidature.

Resources for research supervision as contributions of knowledge

When it is evident that a supervisor has a *focus on contributions to knowledge* in their supervision, they can be directed to resources such as the The fIRST (www.first.edu.au) site which contains resources for developing a research proposal[5] or Bruce's (1996) resources for developing the Literature Review. In addition to these, Brown (1994, 96) has also developed a set of questions that help a research student marshal their knowledge around their topic and develop a research proposal. These questions provide scaffolding for the complex task of writing a research proposal:

1. What did you do?
2. Why did you do it?
3. What happened?

[5] The fIRST site is a password protected site. The site is operated by the Australian Technology network of universities.

4.   What do the results mean in theory?

5.   What do the results mean in practice?

6.   What is the key benefit for the readers?

7.   What remains unsolved?

When these questions are used to scaffold academic writing, Brown (1994) suggests that the first five questions add up to a working abstract. The sixth question is one which evolves with the research document and helps the writer to keep in mind the potential readership. Answers to these six questions need to be confined within certain word limits to help the research student be concise. The seventh question deals with what is unknown and is the site of the greatest learning in the research project. Brown (1994) suggests that there be no limit for the final question.

Resources for research supervision as pedagogy

When it is evident that a supervisor has a *pedagogy focus* in their supervision, they can be directed to a number of general and specific pedagogical practices. An example of this is Vygotsky's (1962) notion of 'scaffolding' in which a complex task is broken up into simpler less complex tasks, whereby the general practice can be applied in the specific context of research supervision, for example breaking up the complex task of writing a dissertation into a number of less complex tasks, such as writing individual chapters.

Some resources have been specifically written with the context of research practice and research supervision in mind, such as Anderson, Day and McLaughlin's (2006) description of the dissertation as a defensible product, and their advice on how to strengthen the defensiveness of the dissertation; and Winter's (1996) historical view of the dissertation, which discusses how changes in the genre of the dissertation can be linked to certain social revolutions. Resources of a similar nature include Diezmann's (2005) notion of cognitive apprenticeship as an approach for developing academic writing abilities, and Caffarella and Barnett's (2000) suggestion of developing skills in critiquing for research students by encouraging them to give feedback to each other on their academic writing and thus being able to recognize these same issues in their own writing.

In my own reading of the agenda of research supervision as pedagogy, I have noted a dearth of specific pedagogies to apply to the research supervision context. Hence I have drawn on a pedagogy framework, common in the non higher education settings, called Productive Pedagogies (Education Queensland, 2001) and applied these well established pedagogies to the higher education settings of research supervision.

The first of these is the notion of **background knowledge**, which is defined as teachers providing explicit links between the work currently being studied and the student's prior experience. The prior knowledge referred to may include community knowledge, local knowledge, personal experience, media and popular culture sources.

When a research supervisor invokes this pedagogy, they establish what the student knows at the outset of their candidature and uses this as the foundation on which to build more knowledge. I achieve this by asking three questions of a research student in their initial conversation with me, to help the student begin to develop their epistemology and understand the epistemology of the topic/issue/question they are investigating:

- What do you know about your practice?
- What do you know about investigative practice?
- What do you know about university based investigation and academic writing?

Drawing out this prior knowledge affirms the knowledge that has already started to formulate their investigation (Hill, 2008).

The second is the notion of **explicit (quality performance) criteria** which is defined as the teacher providing frequent, detailed and specific statements about what the students have to do in order to achieve. When a research supervisor invokes this pedagogy they provide frequent, detailed and specific statements about what constitutes *good* academic writing and *good* research. The dilemma with this agenda is that, at the doctoral research level, there are few articulations about what constitutes *good* research. Sheehan (1994, 17) is one of a few authors who attempted to make explicit the assessment criteria for academic writing. He suggested that the following principles affected the quality of a thesis:

1. Quality (vs. quantity)
2. Succinctness.
3. Perfect format.

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4. Critical tone.

5. Sound methodology.

6. Freedom from statistical errors

7. Meeting objectives

8. Impartiality

When a research supervisor can elaborate on their assessment criteria for *good* research, they can use this to formulate their feedback on their student's writing, such that the feedback provides statements of what constitute the assessment criteria for a dissertation. In my own exploration of this pedagogy (Hill, 2007b) I have attempted to make explicit the assessment criteria I use when I examine practice-based research.

A third application of the productive pedagogy framework is evaluating the research supervisor/student conversations to determine whether they constitute **substantive conversations.** A substantive conversation involves:

- **Intellectual substance.** The talk is about the subject matter and the discussion encourages critical reasoning such as making distinctions, applying ideas, forming generalisations and raising questions. There is an emphasis on clear definitions of the terms being used.

- **Dialogue.** There is an emphasis on sharing of ideas and interaction between participants.

- **Logical extension and Synthesis.** The dialogue builds on the ideas of all the participants such that there is an improved collective understanding of the issue.

- **A sustained exchange.** There is a series of linked exchanges and discussion rather than simple question and answer or question and comment.

These four criteria provide the benchmarks for evaluating the conversations between supervisor and student to determine whether the conversation is one which is directive, i.e. the research supervisor telling the student what to do, or one that can be deemed to be pedagogical in terms of a substantive conversation.

Using the model to identify my own research supervision strategies and to review other lists of strategies.

With this construct map I found that I described my own research supervision more elaborately (Hill, 2007a).

Good teaching
- Making everything explicit and using micro skills to teach both academic writing and research practice.

Good management
- Agreements about deadlines and clear expectations, for both my student and myself, about what is involved in undertaking a research degree

Good relationships
- Good relationship between my student and myself.

Good contributions to knowledge
- These are evidenced in dissertations that incorporate well articulated investigative practice as well as good writing practices.

I have also used this map to review other author's lists of *good* or *effective* research supervision practices. For example, the two lists mentioned at the beginning of this chapter can be represented using the format of this map:

Good Teaching
- Encourage students to write early and often

Good Management
- Take an active interest in students' future careers

Good Relationships
- Ensure the partnership is right for the project

- Get to know the students and carefully assess their needs

- Establish reasonable agreed expectations

- Initiate regular contact and provide high quality feedback

- Get students involved in the life of the department

- Inspire and motivate

- Help if academic and personal crises pop up

Good Contributions to Knowledge
- Work with students to establish a strong conceptual structure and plan
- Encourage students to write early and often
- Carefully monitor the final production and presentation of the research
  James, R and Baldwin, G. (1999) - reworked

Good Teaching
- Utilising a repertoire of strategies to achieve supervision.
- Evidence of systematic evaluation of one's supervisory practice
- Use of literature to improve supervision pedagogy.
- Appreciation of good practice and an understanding of what constitutes a productive research environment.

Good Management
- Management of the process to produce timely and successful completions.
- Establishing clear goals for the student in the light of university requirements.

Good Relationships
- Interest in and enthusiasm for postgraduate research students.
- Regular and productive meetings with the student that provide support and guidance in their research.
- Development of a partnership with the student that introduces them into the research community.
- Open communication that contains supportive and challenging feedback on their progress.

Good Contributions to Knowledge
  Brew, A. and Peseta, T (2004) – reworked

Conclusion

These models, the construct map of research supervision practice, and the sets of intervention strategies, are just a start to a research supervisor advancing their practice and becoming more aware and more reflective about this important element of academic practice.

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In my own ongoing work supporting research supervisors with strategies for research supervision I have used the framework described here, as the foundation scaffolding for a series of blogs (http://supervisorsfriend.wordpress.com/). These blogs attempt to illuminate a number of issues related to research supervision and are drawn from my own practice as a research supervisor. Some of the blogs have been inspired by the conversations I have had with fellow research supervisors regarding problems and concerns they have about their own research supervision.

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8

Publish and Flourish: Joining the Conversation

Anthony Paré

Success for a researcher depends on getting published. Most people who seek work as researchers within or outside the academy are expected to conduct studies and report their findings—either in the various academic genres, such as articles, chapters and conference papers, or in the so-called "gray literature" that circulates in private industry, NGOs and government agencies. Publication makes your work available to your research community, and is the chief means of influencing your discipline's ongoing debates. Failure to publish will impede career progress. This is the stark reality that leads to the old cliché, "publish or perish" – a threat that hangs over every young scholar. And although failing to publish is usually not fatal for doctoral students, competition for postdoctoral positions, research funding and employment is getting tougher, and so PhD students around the world are feeling increasing pressure to publish (Aitchison, Kamler & Lee, 2010).

However, despite the very real incentive that competition creates, an even more compelling reason for young researchers to seek publication is the effect it can have on their sense of engagement with the discipline's ideas and debates[1]. Much student writing—up to and including the dissertation—is reiteration or reportage, the main purpose of which is to display knowledge of a discipline's debates to professors who weigh the

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[1] This chapter takes a somewhat different stance on publishing from the position I present in Paré (2010), where I argue that – for doctoral students – rushing to publish before one is ready may cut short the rich and unconstrained thinking that writing can promote when concern for readers is diminished, and can push people into their disciplinary conversations before they are ready. While I believe that is true, I also feel that working toward publication can be a profound learning experience for students and is, of course, essential for junior faculty.

accuracy and currency of the students' accounts. Top grades go to the best eavesdroppers. Publication, however, requires participation: authors must speak *with* and *to* other members of the disciplinary community, they must take a stance, and they must anticipate responses to their contributions. In other words, authors must position themselves *within* the conversation. This move from observer to participant fundamentally alters writers' ways of thinking and their relationship to ideas, both their own and others.

In this chapter, I consider the nature and role of some key academic genres. I focus primarily on the journal article, book chapter and conference paper, but must emphasise that many of the general principles of scholarly writing that I describe are also applicable to other genres and to publication outside the academy. In addition, my comments will be most relevant to writing in the humanities and social sciences—books and book chapters are rare genres in the physical sciences—but again many aspects of my analysis have bearing across disciplines. That analysis is based on over 30 years of fascination with the human practice of writing. As a writing researcher and teacher, as director of a university writing centre, as the editor of a journal, and as a constant writer myself, I have seen and experienced the struggle that people go through to produce effective texts.

With that in mind, I have three goals in this chapter: first, to provide a brief and simplified theoretical perspective on writing, drawn from rhetorical genre studies (e.g., Miller, 1984; Freedman & Medway, 1994; Coe, Lingard, & Teslenko, 2002); second, to view some of these key academic genres through that theoretical lens in order to reveal the place and function of those texts in disciplinary practice; and, finally, to offer some suggestions on how doctoral students and junior faculty might employ this knowledge of academic genres in their efforts to get published. I hope, too, that my suggestions might be of some value to doctoral supervisors in their attempts to help students publish.

Before beginning, however, two key issues need to be addressed. First, I am writing from and about a particular and highly privileged cultural, rhetorical and intellectual location—the western, anglophone academic world. As scholars such as Pennycook (1994) and Canagarajah (2002; 2006) have argued, the conventions and expectations of that world have become a global standard, imposing on scholars from other places and traditions, a rhetorical hegemony that continues the colonial project. While I do not address the implications of that insidious dynamic in this chapter, it must be acknowledged. What should also be acknowledged, however, is a growing

awareness of and openness to what is often called "World Englishes" (e.g., Canagarajah, 2006), and more thoughtful and critical attention to varieties of rhetoric (e.g., Atkinson, 2004; Connor, 2004)[2]. The towers of western academe may have seemed unassailable until quite recently, but there is now a growing chorus of voices from the global south, from indigenous scholars, and from other once-silenced communities.

Another issue that must be recognized concerns the very conditions which make publication so critical to advancement in academic work. Again, this chapter offers no analysis or critique of the institutional and economic imperatives that have pressured doctoral students and junior scholars to seek publication, but the environment those imperatives have created must be acknowledged. Publication in prestigious journals or with well-recognized publishing houses is the primary exhibit in all judgements of worth during hiring, tenure and promotion decisions. Number of publications, impact factors, citation counts and other quantitative data are measured to determine the value of scholars within the increasingly competitive world of higher education. At the same time, declining state support for education in many parts of the world has deepened institutional dependence on research funding, and money for research is usually doled out first to those scholars with successful publication records. Within our institutions and scholarly associations, we need to raise this issue of professional assessment and the ways in which measures of accountability shape our practice. While doing that, however, the urge to publish can and should come from our own curiosity and the desire to engage colleagues in the burning questions of the day.

Although this chapter is not centrally concerned with those issues, what I hope to offer is a primer on some of the discursive customs and conventions of the western, anglophone academic community, not as a way to legitimize its dominance, but as a tool that scholars might use to enter its conversation. And when they are heard, I hope that scholars from other places will continue to challenge and change those traditions. After all, what must also be acknowledged is the still-urgent need for scholars in non-western locations and communities to get published in western journals and books. I hope the analysis offered in this chapter helps in that regard.

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[2] The sixth Conference on Intercultural Rhetoric and Discourse was held in Atlanta, Georgia, in June, 2010.

The rhetoric of genre: Writing as social action

The term *genre* is a French word meaning *type* or *kind*, usually used to refer to repeated instances of some cultural form. So, for example, the *film noir* is a film genre that includes a relatively stable set of particular elements (e.g., black and white photography, characters on the margins of society, stark imagery and language), and the English sonnet is a poetry genre that exhibits a limited range of variation from one instance to the next (e.g., 14 lines, iambic pentameter, final rhyming couplet). However, this sort of typification is common across all areas of human activity. Organizations, institutions and disciplines develop and maintain standard text types that make their work possible. In business, regular and repeated texts include sales letters, advertising brochures and annual reports; in law, there are court orders, contracts, subpoenas and many other documents; while in social work there are intake sheets, closing summaries, progress notes, psychosocial assessments, and so on. In the research fields, there are proposals, abstracts, articles, books, manuscript reviews, chapters and conference papers. The obvious distinction between one text type and another is the physical make-up—their customary content, organization, style, layout, perhaps even font type and size.

Consider, for example, an application for research funding. Across a selection of such texts, you would expect to find a number of common elements: a literature review, research questions, a proposed budget, anticipated contributions, perhaps, and a list of the author's publications. In fact, regularity of format is imposed in many cases by providing fill-in forms with pre-set headings, which guarantee similarity in content and sequence. Furthermore, an analysis of the style of these texts would reveal the typical features of academic prose: citations, claims and warrants, hedges and boosts, summaries, definitions, and specialized terminology (Giltrow, 2002; Hyland, 2004).

However, theory and research in rhetorical genre studies paint a larger picture of repetition, in which the physical text is part of a more extensive pattern of social typification. By broadening our focus beyond the text to the context within which the text operates, we can see that repeated text types sit at the centre of a web of recurring activities, attitudes and relations: aspects of the production, distribution and use of standardized texts are repeated. To fully understand a text type, then—the journal article, for example, or the funding application—we need to see how its standard

features are shaped by setting and circumstance and by the function of the text within its context. Bazerman (1998) describes this broader notion of genre:

> A genre consists of something beyond simple similarity of formal characteristics among a number of texts. A genre is a socially recognized, repeated strategy for achieving similar goals in situations socially perceived as being similar. A genre provides a writer with a way of formulating responses in certain circumstances and a reader a way of recognizing the kind of message being transmitted. A genre is a social construct that regularizes communication, interaction and relations. (p. 62)

If we re-visit the funding application to consider its wider context, we can see that it is part of a collective or disciplinary "strategy," to use Bazerman's word, designed to produce what is hoped to be the fairest and most thorough assessment of multiple requests for research funding, so that the best of those requests may be identified[3]. Once the applications are submitted, a chain of events begins that is designed to produce the desired consequence: those events might include the distribution of applications to individual reviewers, along with guidelines that seek to standardize the ways in which reviewers read and assess the applications; individual scoring of applications, perhaps on a score sheet grid; meetings of the reviewers to compare assessments, to negotiate differences, and to rank order the applications; and finally, notices of some kind to applicants informing them of the reviewers' decisions.

As Miller (1984) has argued, "a rhetorically sound definition of genre must be centered not on the substance or form of discourse [i.e., its standard features] but on the action it is used to accomplish" (151), and unless we go beyond the form of the application genre to examine the "action" or outcome it is meant to produce, we cannot fully understand the text. What is generic in the action of the application includes, for example, the individual reader's attitudes toward the text. Since the situation calls for a particular type of reading—comparative, evaluative, judgemental—a type of reading that is further supported by assessment guidelines, scoring rubrics and negotiation among reviewers, then each reviewer approaches

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[3] To return for a moment to the politics of discourse mentioned above, the question of fairness is clearly contentious: who decides what is "good"? Using what criteria? Allowing for what range of methodologies, ideologies, rhetorical styles?

the text in a similar way. In other words, among other repeated factors, the readers' relationship to the text (and the writer) is to some extent pre-determined by the situation.

The physical similarities in repeated texts are part of an extended pattern: text types such as the funding application enter into, but also help create, the recurring circumstances within which they operate. Once communities develop successful strategies—that is, actions that produce desirable outcomes—they seek to regulate and repeat those actions. Next year's review of funding applications will be much like last year's and this year's processes, with perhaps some minor changes designed to improve the quality or efficiency of the decision-making action, in which the texts play a central role. While some generic situations, text and context, are extremely stable, others vary from one instance to another. As Schryer (1994), puts it, genres are "stabilized-for-now" (p. 108). The journal article, for example, is an extremely robust genre which can trace its roots to 1665 and the first English research journal, the *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society* (Bazerman, 1988). Over nearly 350 years, the article's material form and rhetorical function have remained remarkably stable.

What, besides the physical document, are the generic elements of any situation involving written text? There is, of course, the writer (or writers) and the readers, but there is also the need or demand to which the text responds (called the *exigence or exigency*[4] in rhetorical theory), there is a topic of some sort, a set of constraints that shape the discourse in a variety of ways, and the outcome desired by the community. The constraints within which genres operate range from those that restrict the physical text (e.g., page length, mode of distribution, publishing formats) to those that shape the kinds of argument permitted. So, for example, legal regulations determine what can and cannot be said in certain documents, and the conventions of science indicate how strongly a given knowledge claim can be made. These elements of the rhetorical situation are captured in this question: Who writes to whom, why, about what, and with what limitations[5]? In summary, then, genres are social, rhetorical strategies meant to produce certain kinds of actions, and they become genres, or repeated actions,

[4] Bitzer (1968) defined exigence as "an imperfection marked by urgency; it is a defect, an obstacle, something waiting to be done, a thing which is other than it should be" (p. 6).

[5] The nature of the rhetorical situation has been the topic of much debate in rhetorical theory, beginning in the contemporary period with Bitzer (1968) and Vatz (1973). I present here a somewhat simplified representation of the concept.

because they produce outcomes that the community (or some influential part of it) finds useful.

This brief explanation of genres gives us an analytical framework within which to examine three common academic texts—the journal article, the book chapter and the conference paper—and should help us to determine the nature and function of these texts in their respective contexts. However, since no situation is ever precisely repeated, and every instance of a genre has its own unique and often very subtle differences from others in its category, rhetorical genre theory also allows the writer to critically assess a writing task and to shape the text that is suitable to that task. In that sense, a rhetorical theory of genre provides a meta-discourse: a way to think and talk about discourse in action and, as a result, to become a more effective participant in that discourse.

The key genres: Articles, chapters and conference papers

In this section, I will present a rhetorical analysis of three important genres of academic writing—the article, chapter and conference paper— and offer suggestions to new scholars about how they might employ the analysis to write more effective texts.

The article

First, the journal article, which remains the most prestigious of the academic genres[6]. What is the nature of the rhetorical situation known as the journal article, and how is the text at the heart of that genre shaped by its situation? Although the physical location of the article is the academic or research journal, the wider context is the disciplinary community, or that portion of the community that reads a given journal. Over recent years, the number of scholarly journals has skyrocketed[7], and many of them have a rather narrow focus, as specializations have developed and disciplines have spawned sub-disciplines. Whether broad or narrow, paper or electronic, the journal serves as a community's "forum," a

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[6] Hyland (2004) has suggested that the scientific letter (also known as the "squib" or "quick report") has supplanted the article in some areas of scientific discourse, and his description of that genre (pp. 85-103) would be useful to anyone writing in one of those fields.

[7] The publishing house Elsevier produces 2452 journals, Taylor and Francis prints over 1,000, Sage publishes 560, and there are many other journals published in English, both from commercial publishers and scholarly associations. A review of journals available in other languages would likely reveal a similar proliferation.

location for exchange. As Porter (1992) notes, "The forum is a *trace* of a discourse community, a defined place of assembly or means of publication for discourse communities. Each forum has a distinct history and rules governing appropriateness to which members are obliged to adhere" (p.108).

The first thing to consider about the research article is its exigence—that is, the need or demand to which the article responds, its impetus or motivation. Generally speaking, the article responds to a discipline's need for progress or development in its knowledge-making[8]. Simply put, articles report new knowledge within a field of study. The evidence and arguments used to support claims of new knowledge naturally vary enormously across disciplines, but novelty is essential everywhere. Moreover, the contributions tend to be relatively small and narrowly focused, compared, for example, to a dissertation. In most disciplines, the journal article represents incremental growth in both the author's program of research and in the field as a whole. Knowledge claims are therefore relatively modest; they challenge or extend or complicate some aspect of prevailing theory by adding or rejecting information and ideas, but very rarely do they significantly alter dominant paradigms.

This restricted goal explains a number of typical features of the academic article: the consideration of theory tends to be relatively local—some part of a larger conceptual framework—and only complex enough to locate the specific questions posed in the research; where a more comprehensive presentation of theory is required, it is usually nonetheless brief and assumes shared knowledge with readers; the literature review is not extensive but, rather, includes only those papers that are most pertinent to the article's topic; the methodology section is brief and rarely includes much of a justification for the methods employed, as dissertations frequently do; the article is positioned strategically within the most relevant disciplinary conversation, and often displays allegiance with some colleagues and, possibly, disagreement with others; and, finally, the article clearly identifies the contributions it has made to the discipline's ongoing conversation on the topic in question. In summary, then, the article responds to a demand for new knowledge on a relatively limited topic.

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[8] It can be argued that the journal article also responds to the researcher's need to get published, and that much scholarly writing is not widely read. Certainly, the publishing imperative created by the academic tenure and promotion system leads to texts that may have an extremely limited readership.

One error new scholars make, especially those attempting to publish out of their dissertations, is to report large-scale studies and to make sweeping claims about their contributions. As a journal editor and reviewer, I can often identify a manuscript that attempts to summarize a large and long-term doctoral study within the word limits set by the journal. The research questions are too ambitious for a brief report, the parentheses bulge with too many references, the discussion of theory is too extensive and elaborate, and the methodology section presents the philosophical underpinnings of the author's research method. As a student-produced text, the dissertation necessarily includes demonstrations of knowledge that are meant to prove expertise rather than instruct readers. The article, on the other hand, assumes much common or shared knowledge. The dissertation sprawls, the research article focuses[9].

A consideration of the typical readers of articles gives further insight into the form, function and content of the genre. First, the audience is likely to be highly specialized and expert on the article's topic. Although some journals cover a broader spectrum of a discipline's current debates than others, even those with more general interest will assume a considerable amount of shared knowledge among their readers. Highly specialized journals may well be impenetrable to anyone outside a small circle of experts. Assessing and addressing the correct level of expertise becomes an important task for the author, and an unusual rhetorical problem for doctoral students and new scholars. Throughout our student lives, we are asked to write to a reader—the teacher—who ostensibly knows more than we do. She or he is the expert, and we are neophytes. However, the author of a journal article is an expert writing to other experts; indeed, the author may be more of an expert on her/his topic than any potential reader. As a result, self-representation becomes a very tricky rhetorical task for the new scholar. The academic author's persona might best be described as humble but knowledgeable—not an easy balance to strike. On one hand, expertise often leads to an authoritative tone; on the other hand, that tone can sound arrogant or aggressive if poorly managed. The balance may best be found by seeing scholarly work as an ongoing collective project: all contributions add to a group discussion, and no sole contribution will end it.

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[9] See Peters (2011) for a close study of the differences between school-based and published texts within the same discipline.

Just how collective scholarly work is can be seen once a manuscript is submitted: before the journal's readers see an article, it undergoes a review process. Like the readers of the funding application described above, journal reviewers begin with a critical or judgemental stance. Generally speaking, reviewers are experts on the paper's topic, and their task is to determine if the paper adds anything new to the discipline's conversation. Figure 1 (see Appendix 1), is a fairly typical—that is, generic—evaluation rubric for reviewers; note that it asks reviewers to read for certain traits or qualities (relevance, significance, currency), and thus positions them as assessors or judges. This gate-keeping function is not uncontroversial in the research fields, but it remains the chief means for determining the acceptability for publication of manuscripts submitted to journals.

A final comment on the journal article concerns generic constraints. As noted in Figure 1, the *McGill Journal of Education* requires manuscripts to follow the APA *Publication Manual* (American Psychological Association, 2009), and most journals will designate a particular style guide, as well as restrictions on word or page length. These and other limitations are normally contained in a note to potential authors, which can be found at the journal's web site or in a print issue of the journal. Some journals provide mission statements detailing their objectives and preferred methodologies, along with much else. To repeat Porter's comment from above, "Each forum has a distinct history and rules governing appropriateness to which members are obliged to adhere" (1992, p.108)[10].

So, how do researchers go about determining the right journal for what they want to say, and how do they then go about shaping a contribution that meets the standards of appropriateness held by the journal's editors, reviewers and readers? Young scholars will have a sense of the journals that matter most in their disciplines—the ones considered prestigious—but may have to search further afield to find less competitive journals. Further, with so many new journals and developing areas of interdisciplinarity, the older, more established journals may be considered too conservative and too single-minded in their focus. Before submitting a manuscript to a journal, researchers should become thoroughly familiar with it. Most journals these days have a web presence, even those that continue to

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[10] As Giltrow (2002) notes, decisions about style are never about the surface of a text only; guides such as the APA *Publication Manual* contain conventions that have a profound effect on a text's rhetorical action. See Chapter 9 of Bazerman (1988), which is titled "Codifying the social science style: The APA *Publication Manual* as a Behaviourist rhetoric" (pp. 257-277).

publish on paper, and as noted above, you will generally find there is a note to contributors that offers detailed advice about what constitutes a suitable contribution—everything from acceptable length, style and methodology to epistemological and ideological biases.

Next, aspiring authors should do a careful review of the journal's contents, at least over the past few years, to get a sense of the conversation they hope to join and influence. What topics come up again and again? Which authors and other journals are most frequently cited? What are the research methodologies favoured? What words or phrases seem most carefully defined? What controversies and conflicts are apparent? Regular readers of the journal will share some sense of the history of their community's debate, and will recognize a timely and relevant contribution, but they will also easily spot a *non sequitur*—a comment that does not follow from the ongoing conversation. The point here is not to alter your own interests and approaches to fit with a community in which you do not belong, but, first, to determine the nature of the community for whom the journal serves as a forum and, second, to decide if you can add an original contribution to its discussions. It is a waste of time—your own and others'—to send a manuscript to a journal that falls too far outside your research interests and approaches.

When you have settled on a journal, next, study individual articles that appeal to you or come closest to your area of work. How formal is the journal's style? Do authors use the first person pronoun, contractions (e.g., *can't* instead of *cannot*), highly specialized vocabulary? Is there a standard organizational structure to which authors adhere—for example, problem, method, findings, discussion? If there seems to be variation in structure, are there recognizable patterns nonetheless? Do authors announce their intention or goal and forecast the structure of their paper at the start, or do they jump right into the topic? What do conclusions do in the journal: link the research to practice, pose questions for further research, summarize findings, list limitations?

Again, some journals have a narrower mandate than others; those that cover a broad range of disciplinary topics may also welcome a general treatment of one of those topics, but those that serve as a forum for a specialized research area and a close-knit community of researchers will expect a tightly focused report on a relatively limited topic. They will

also expect to see how the research fits into the community's growing understanding of a phenomenon[11].

Finally, expect to revise the paper a number of times even before submitting it, and then again after it has been reviewed. Prior to submission, find friends and/or colleagues who will read your drafts and give you tough, honest feedback. If you are trying to get published in an English-language journal, and English is not your first language, seek out native or highly proficient speakers of English and ask for a careful proofreading of your paper. In an increasingly multilingual world, minor errors in English may not bias reviewers against your paper, but too many errors will try their patience, and poorly edited papers imply a lack of concern or commitment. Remember, reviewers are volunteers; although academics are expected to offer service to their disciplinary communities, and journal reviewing is considered an important contribution, they may quickly become overly critical if papers are too flawed.

The book chapter

Another common genre for researchers in some disciplines is the chapter in edited collections. Book chapters differ in some significant ways from articles—differences that might not be apparent from a casual glance. The primary difference concerns the rhetorical exigence, or need, to which the texts respond. As discussed above, articles respond to a need for current and original contributions to a discipline's knowledge. However, whereas the research article must add something new and timely to the conversation, the chapter has a broader range of rhetorical possibilities. Moreover, while articles tend to be somewhat narrowly focused on research findings, chapters are free to address larger issues of practice, policy, history or theory.

The first step to understanding the rhetorical work that chapters perform is to consider how collected editions act as a disciplinary or collective strategy. What do they *do*? What influence do they attempt to exert? How are they used by members of the discipline or sub-discipline for whom they are intended? There are no single answers to these questions, but a review of introductions or prefaces to some edited collections would offer a hint

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[11] In their review of journals, researchers should note whether other genres besides the research article are welcomed. It is not uncommon for journals to publish book reviews, brief notes on theory or practice, opinion pieces, or other types of text.

of the variety of purposes these books serve. Some edited collections are part of a series of books on a particular topic—workplace learning, for example—or for a specific sub-set of a disciplinary community—feminist literary critics of Shakespeare, perhaps. Such collections might have introductions from both the series editor and the editor(s) of the individual volumes, and they will have their purposes or goals explicitly stated in these introductions.

A chief benefit of edited collections is that they bring together a range of perspectives and voices on the issues in question. In this regard, they are something like the special or themed issues of journals, which contain articles devoted to a given topic or problem. Books, however, might have a mixture of conceptual papers, research reports, and chapters on the implications of theory and research for practice. Some chapters might locate the book's main topic in historical perspective, tracing its emergence over time; others might be bibliographical essays, surveying the relevant literature on the topic; some chapters might be directed primarily to researchers while others are addressed to practitioners. This multiplicity of exigencies and audiences suggests another purpose for collected editions: occasionally, they deal with newly emerging topics on the border between disciplines, and their chapters represent the first stages of an interdisciplinary conversation. In effect, such books create a forum in which people with mutual interests, but different traditions, teach one another and map out areas for further work.

Another key difference between articles and chapters is that the opportunity to publish a chapter usually comes from an invitation. Although some book chapters go through a rigorous review process, others receive relatively light critical attention prior to publication, and only a few are subject to the full double-blind peer review process, which is the main reason they are considered less significant than research articles in the eyes of university administrators and others concerned with weighing the impact of publications. Nonetheless, an invitation to submit a chapter for a collected edition generally indicates that your work has been noticed by colleagues, which is both gratifying and confirming. That notice, however, is not likely to come early in your career, and generally comes only after you have published on a particular topic and spoken about it at conferences. In other words, once you have established yourself as a scholar with expertise and an ongoing interest in some area, you will be identified as a member of a group with some common curiosity and

purpose. One way to discover like-minded colleagues is to join the special interest groups that form in large disciplinary associations. For example, the British Educational Research Association lists 30 special interest groups on its web page, the Australian Association for Research in Education lists 19, and the American Educational Research Association has over 100 such groups. Other disciplinary bodies show similar specialization.

A further difference between the genre of the article and the genre of the chapter is the audience. Books tend to reach a wider audience, which often contains practitioners and others not primarily concerned with research. More importantly, however, book readers have quite a different attitude to the genre. As mentioned, readers of articles expect new, research-produced knowledge that advances a disciplinary agenda by refining, extending, or challenging some aspect of currently dominant theory. Chapter readers on the other hand, are open to a variety of reading experiences, and are likely to read less critically, or at least less challengingly. They expect to see papers that reflect on professional practice, speculate about developments in policy or pedagogy, generalize from long personal experience, or chart a new area for research or practice by introducing an unfamiliar theoretical framework. An analysis of book chapters would reveal more flexibility and variety in rhetorical and stylistic features than can be found in journal articles. For example, chapters might have a narrative structure, theory building might proceed from practice rather than data, anecdotes and personal reflections would not be uncommon, and the language would likely be less dense, less specialized and less abstract.

Edited collections frequently start with one or more editors setting out the plans for a book, recruiting possible authors, and proposing the book project to a publisher. The proposal will include such things as a statement about the purpose of the book, description of its likely audience, a list of competing books on the topic, and abstracts of the various chapters. Publishers will be most concerned, of course, with likely sales of the book, so a collection that might be adopted as a course text would appeal to them. Likewise, a book on a topic of wide interest is more attractive than one for a small, specialized audience. In any case, publishers will want a book that has strong cohesion—that is, one in which the separate chapters augment and complement each other. If you are thinking of proposing a book project, it would be wise to ask senior colleagues if they have examples of book proposals.

The conference paper

The final genre I will consider is the conference paper, which may or may not ever be published, but certainly represents a key public text for researchers. Ideally, conference papers are developed into articles, chapters or proceedings, but before they are those things they are part of their own rhetorical strategy with particular demands on the researcher. Since public speaking is such a traumatic experience for many people, and since a poorly prepared or delivered conference paper is a very public failure, it is worth considering the genre carefully and understanding its rhetorical action.

Again, the first thing to consider about the conference paper is its exigence: to what need does the paper respond? And further questions, prompted by rhetorical genre theory, arise: of what strategy is the conference paper a part, and what outcomes does it seek to produce? The conference paper, like other scholarly genres, varies somewhat across and within disciplines. In the more research intensive disciplines or sub-disciplines, conference papers bear some resemblance, rhetorically speaking, to journal articles. Often submitted in advance of the meeting and subject to blind review, they are usually very brief reports of research, and respond to much the same need as the article: to advance new knowledge. Unlike the article, however, papers may report work-in-progress or findings considered too insignificant or limited for an article. Where conferences are open to less research-based presentations, particularly where practice is a regular topic of presentation—as in fields such as social work, nursing, and education—conference papers may more closely resemble the book chapter. In what follows I concentrate on the more formal style of paper, where new research or theory is the primary focus.

The first question many ask about conference papers is if they should be read from a prepared text or guided by notes and slides. As a long-time conference attendee, my preference is for the well written and presented paper, although some people are capable of presenting excellent talks using only notes. A number of factors should be considered: the nervousness that public speaking causes can make the less scripted, more spontaneous presentation difficult to manage, whereas the fully written paper can serve as protection against anxiety; conference presentations are timed—usually between 15 and 20 minutes—and a talk guided by notes may run out of time, while a paper may be rehearsed and timed to the minute; the speaker using notes may digress, miss a key point, or under-present an important

topic, but the reader has the rehearsed text to keep her on track; finally, the written paper serves as a draft that might be developed into an article or book chapter.

If you choose to write a conference paper, however, you must be sensitive to its situation. Listening to a paper is very different from reading a paper. The listener cannot re-read a sentence or paragraph, stop to look up the meaning of a word, or see the non-verbal written cues that help the reader *see* textual structure, such as paragraph indentations and headings. Conference papers must therefore be more repetitive and less dense than papers that readers will have in front of them. Generally speaking, sentences should be shorter, key terms should be briefly and clearly defined, and main points should be re-stated. Frequent signals about the organization of the text—including a forecast of the whole paper at the start—can keep the listener oriented. Such meta-discursive remarks as "in the next section," "I will now address," and "in summary" are helpful, as are words that signal logical, temporal, or causal relationships, such as "however," therefore," "as a result," and "finally."

It is crucial that the conference paper last no longer than your allotted time. Speakers who run out of time part way through their presentations show disrespect to their audience, as do speakers who are clearly poorly prepared. Audience members spend money and time to attend conferences, and deserve thoughtful and well-written presentations. Practice and time your presentation. A double-spaced page takes approximately two minutes to read, so a 10-page, double-spaced paper can take 20 minutes, read at a reasonable speed. If the paper is too long and you must read quickly, you risk losing the audience. It helps to rehearse the paper with an actual audience—friends and colleagues who can offer feedback. Failing that, recording yourself and listening back can help you identify problems. Avoid a flat and lifeless delivery by reading with energy and modulation. Again, practice is essential.

What about the ubiquitous PowerPoint? Slides can be a useful addition to a conference paper, but they can also be a terrible distraction and irritation. The warnings have been made so often they have become cliché: don't put too much on any one slide; use font that is large enough for people sitting in the back of the room; be silent when you want your audience to read a slide; don't put a slide up until you want your audience to look at it (they will be reading while you try to talk); leave slides up long enough for them to be read; don't use animations unless they truly

add something. Be certain that slides augment your paper. If they merely repeat what you are saying, they are repetitious, and if they are distracting or confusing, they will weaken the force of your paper.

Finally, it is good to remember that the conference paper is part of a collective strategy that includes the opportunity for face-to-face discussion with colleagues. As it is shorter and, to an extent, less formal than a written genre, the conference paper is an ideal genre for reporting work in progress or initial ideas on a larger project. Interaction allows for feedback. Make certain to leave time for questions, and seek connections with colleagues who appear to share your interests. Many young researchers report that they began to feel like a member of their disciplinary communities when they attended their first conference. Suddenly, they were physically and intellectually immersed in their communities.

Conclusion

Getting published is a challenge for new researchers, but it is also gratifying and inspirational. If we are enthusiastic about our areas of research and can communicate that excitement to readers, we are in turn confirmed and encouraged when we receive positive feedback. We start with the deep basic desire to tell our stories, to engage others in conversation, and to share a way of seeing the world. Having something to say and really wanting to say it are essential. However, that urge to speak is insufficient if we cannot get heard because our contributions are considered ill-formed, poorly timed or off-topic.

The research genres we produce and participate in—articles, chapters, proposals, abstracts, conference papers, and so on—are strategies our disciplinary communities have devised and maintained to get our work done. New members of a discipline need to ask basic questions about their customary texts: What do the texts do? To what need do they respond? What part do they play in the life and work of the community? What consequences or outcomes do they produce? Who reads the texts and why? What topics are relevant? What limitations apply? These are questions about the rhetorical action of the texts—the part they play in a community's collective activity. Only when we have a broad understanding of the generic text as one piece in a larger pattern of social interaction will we be able to make appropriate decisions about the content, style and strategy of any given instance of that genre. And only then will our contributions be seen as relevant and welcome.

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Appendix 1

REVIEWER EVALUATION

(This evaluation will be sent to the author/s)

PLEASE RATE THE MANUSCRIPT ON THE FOLLOWING CATEGORIES:

	POOR	MARGINAL	ADEQUATE	GOOD	EXCELLENT
I CONTENT					
a. Relevance or significance of topic	O	O	O	O	O
b. Up-to-date references (if applicable)	O	O	O	O	O
II PRESENTATION OF INFORMATION					
a. Data analysis (if applicable)	O	O	O	O	O
b. Methodology (if applicable)	O	O	O	O	O
c. Cohesiveness of ideas and logic of conclusions	O	O	O	O	O
d. Discussion, interpretation and/or summary of ideas	O	O	O	O	O
III WRITING					
a. Clarity of expression	O	O	O	O	O
b. Style of writing					
c. Use of grammar, punctuation, etc.	O	O	O	O	O
d. Citations & references follow APA style manual	O	O	O	O	O

IV **PLEASE GIVE YOUR OVERALL EVALUATION OF THE MANUSCRIPT.** Identify any errors of fact, faulty logic, and/or ways in which the organization might be improved.

Figure 1: Evaluation rubric for McGill Journal of Education reviewers

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Taking The Angst Out Of Authorship Dilemmas

Suzanne E. Morris

Introduction

A supervisor made the following statement to a doctoral student during a regular fortnightly meeting: "I noticed you are yet to write up the results from the survey you completed earlier this year. Can you please send me your data and analyses and I'll write the first draft of the paper and therefore be first author?" After leaving the meeting and speaking with his friends, the student realised that his supervisor was preparing her application for promotion and needed to increase her number of first-author publications to be considered in the next promotion round.

How would you manage this situation if your doctoral supervisor or senior colleague asked you to send them 'your' data and analyses? You have several options: (1) agree to send the data and analyses to your supervisor/ colleague without question?; (2) challenge your supervisor/colleague that the data is actually yours and only you have the right to write the first draft of the paper?; or (3) tell your supervisor/colleague that you would like to consider their request more thoughtfully and reconvene once you obtain more information regarding authorship guidelines?

For students and researchers faced with this situation, option 3 would be the most desirable for resolving the problem, but for many, it is not even considered as viable. This chapter will explore some of the authorship issues that arise during the preparation of publications from collaborative research projects. It will provide useful suggestions for handling a range of authorship dilemmas to encourage ethical behaviour in research collaborations, particularly those relating to doctoral student/supervisor interactions. Moreover, it will provide the necessary facts about authorship

policies and guidelines so that doctoral students can feel more confident in choosing option 3 in the event of a dilemma such as the one outlined above.

Authorship issues in context

Doctoral students and academic counterparts alike can find it difficult to determine authorship and author order on their research publications. Doctoral students and early career researchers (ECRs) are typically poor authorship negotiators, as they have had little or no experience in this area. For junior researchers in particular, and more experienced researchers applying for grants, promotion or tenure, adding another (first-author) publication to the list could mean securing a job after their doctorate, or the ability to illustrate to their interview panel that they are worthy of receiving the grant or promotion.

Authorship disputes among research collaborators, including doctoral students and their supervisor/s, can permanently damage relationships. The outcome for students who encounter issues in authorship assignment may be withdrawal from postgraduate studies and, for researchers, an unwillingness to collaborate or indeed publish in the future (Morris, 2008a). Given that research conducted by doctoral students can account for up to 70% of university research (Siddle, 1997), at least in Australia, it is essential that research institutions and senior colleagues provide good policies, practical guidelines and appropriate training to educate their junior researchers in appropriate ways to approach publishing and authorship discussions with collaborators (Morris, 2008a; Wilkinson et al., 2010). Sadly however, not all research organisations have authorship policies in place (eg., Morris, 2010), and no institution routinely provides comprehensive training to researchers on the complex nature of authorship negotiations. With this in mind, in the remainder of this chapter, I will explore some of the authorship issues that arise in collaborative research projects, and some of the good policies and guidelines that have been developed around the world.

Authorship issues in practice

In disciplines such as arts and humanities where single authorship is the norm (Street et al., 2010; Wuchty et al., 2007), determining authorship of publications appears to be a straightforward process. However, in the

sciences and engineering fields, teams increasingly dominate over solo authors in knowledge production (Wuchty et al., 2007). In extreme cases, collaborating researchers are publishing papers with thousands of authors. For example, the current world record number of authors in a single publication is 2,512. This record was set by The ALEPH collaboration et al. in 2006 for the article "Precision electroweak measurements on the Z resonance" published in *Physics Reports*. This article surpassed the previous world record of 2,458 authors that was set in 2004 for a paper published in the medical field.

With the increase in both team-based research and multi-author publications, it is not surprising that issues of authorship assignment occur and are increasing (Benos et al., 2005). There are several major reasons why authorship disputes arise amongst collaborators. The first of these is a (real or perceived) power differential amongst collaborators. Many authors have discussed the power differential and inequality in the student/supervisor relationship (eg., Fine & Kurdek, 1993; Manathunga, 2007; Morris, 2008a), with some authors reporting the student/supervisor power relationship to be a major critical determinant of a graduate student's success (Aguinis et al., 1996; Bargar & Mayo-Chamberlain, 1983). I also argue that this power relationship poses a similar impediment for relationships between ECRs and their supervisors. In this regard, an interesting intervention is the University of Hong Kong's inclusion of a statement in their *Policy for Ethical Practice in Research* on the serious matter of senior staff abusing their power:

> 3.5.2 One of the particularly serious offences consists of senior staff (such as heads of department or supervisors) coercing colleagues or students into allowing the former to pass off the research in question as their own, either wholly or partly. This is a failure of leadership and of moral responsibility (The University of Hong Kong, 2010).

The Computing Research and Education Association of Australasia (CORE) also highlights the issue of power struggles in the student/supervisor relationship, stating in their *Guidelines on Research Practice in Computer Science* that "in no circumstances should a supervisor use their position to force a student to include him/her as an author" (CORE, 1999).

The second major reason why authorship disputes arise amongst collaborators is inadequate communication. In Australia, the *Australian*

Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research stresses the importance for "collaborating researchers [to] agree on authorship of a publication at an early stage in the research project and should review their decisions periodically" (National Health and Medical Research Council et al., 2007, p. 5.1). Again, this advice is relevant for all collaborative research projects, including student/supervisor collaborations.

Self-help books such as *Getting a PhD: An action plan to help manage your research, your supervisors and your project* (Finn, 2005) also stress the importance of discussing authorship with supervisors ahead of time:

> The important point is that you need to discuss and agree on the issue of authorship with your supervisors (and other potential co-authors) well in advance of producing a manuscript. Unfortunately, deciding on authorship can sometimes be awkward and occasionally controversial; when this occurs, disputes about authorship can be extremely divisive (Finn, 2005, p. 141).

In addition to power and inadequate communication, the two other major issues of authorship disputes in collaborations arise when collaborators are determining (i) authorship and (ii) author order on their publications (Jones, 1999). The disputes in relation to authorship and author order are discussed in detail below.

How do researchers define the term author?

There are many ways to define an author. For example, the Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary (2009) defines an author as "one that originates or creates", whereas the Farlex (2010) online source defines an author as "the writer of a book, article or other text; one who writes or constructs an electronic document, such as a website; or the originator or creator of a theory or plan".

Researchers themselves have developed their own working definitions for 'author', and have devised a plethora of strategies for establishing authorship on joint publications. Some of these strategies include (from Morris, 2010):

- giving authorship to anyone who did 'work';
- giving authorship to those people who did the writing, conceptualised the research question, reviewed the literature or provided intellectual input;

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- my supervisor/boss told me who the authors were;
- my supervisor/boss was an author because he/she was my supervisor/boss;
- doing deals; and
- tossing coins.

The idea that doing 'work' is a criterion for establishing authorship on joint publications is worth exploring. The term 'work' has many different meanings including "sustained physical or mental effort to overcome obstacles and achieve an objective or result"; "a specific task, duty, function, or assignment often being a part or phase of some larger activity"; and "something produced or accomplished by effort, exertion, or exercise of skill" (Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary, 2010). With such a variety of meanings, someone who did 'work' by photocopying relevant journal articles from the library may qualify as an author.

As discussed by Morris (2010) and Street et al. (2010), the different strategies used to establish authorship on collaborative research projects can partly be explained by discipline or cultural differences. For example, in Street et al.'s (2010) study, participants from the social sciences described single authorship as being common, with supervisors rarely included as authors on publications arising from a student's research project, even if they had actually done 'work' on the project. However in the clinical sciences, multiple and guest authorship were common practice, as was inclusion of supervisors on publications arising from a student's research project.

How do researchers determine author order?

There are also a variety of ways in which researchers determine author order on collaborative research projects. To highlight the different methods used to establish author order, researchers and doctoral students attending an authorship management workshop were asked the question 'How have you determined author order on your previous publications?' The following list provides a general description of their responses (from Morris, 2008b):

- alphabetical;
- decreasing order of contribution;

- decreasing order of academic seniority;

- my supervisor/boss decided the order;

- my supervisor/boss was first, followed by others in decreasing order of contribution;

- the person who did the work/writing was first;

- the person who obtained the funding was first; and

- we did a deal.

Again, these varied methods can be partly ascribed to discipline or cultural differences, and indeed, within disciplines, there has been a shift in the way that author order is determined. For example, in the ecological and environmental sciences, "traditionally, the first author contributes most and also receives most of the credit, whereas the position of subsequent authors is usually decided by contribution, alphabetical order, or reverse seniority" (Tscharntke et al., 2007, p. 13). However, a push from the biomedical sciences, and an increase in the amount of interdisciplinary work being conducted, has changed the way that author order is determined in the ecological and environmental sciences, so that now, "the last author often gets as much credit as the first author, because he or she is assumed to be the driving force, both intellectually and financially, behind the research" (Tscharntke et al., 2007, p. 13).

The kudos that comes from being the first or last author is also changing the way that external bodies or committees view publications; for example, "evaluation committees and funding bodies often take last authorship as a sign of successful group leadership and make this a criterion in hiring, granting, and promotion" (Tscharntke et al., 2007, p. 13). As the idea of 'last author equals group leader' is not uniform across disciplines, "sometimes last authors 'mistakenly' benefit when they actually are not the principal investigators" (Tscharntke et al., 2007, p. 13). To avoid mistaken identities and misunderstandings about author positions in the by-line, a universal approach is needed to establish author order across the disciplines. We will return to this idea later in this chapter.

The guidelines for determining authorship

Having discussed how authorship is determined in practice, I now introduce the 'rules' or guidelines for determining authorship. There are several existing guidelines, codes and policies that span international, national and

institutional boundaries to determine authorship on collaborative research projects. Several associations and organisations have also developed guidelines for authorship of publications arising from a student's research project.

International authorship guidelines

The most widely recognised method for determining who should be an author on a publication is the *Vancouver Protocol*. The *Vancouver Protocol* was developed by the International Committee of Medical Journal Editors (**ICMJE, 2009**) and states that authorship credit should be given to researchers who:

1. substantially contributed to conception and design, or acquisition of data, or analysis and interpretation of data; and

2. drafted the article or revised it critically for important intellectual content; and

3. approved the final version of the article to be published.

All authors should meet all three conditions to be listed in the by-line. Moreover, the *Vancouver Protocol* also states that (**ICMJE, 2009**):

*   Acquisition of funding, collection of data, or general supervision of the research group alone does not constitute authorship;

*   All persons designated as authors should qualify for authorship, and all those who qualify should be listed; and

*   Each author should have participated sufficiently in the work to take public responsibility for appropriate portions of the content.

Importantly, for research collaborations involving doctoral students and junior researchers, the *Vancouver Protocol* specifies that authorship credit does NOT include: participation solely in the acquisition of funding or data collection and general supervision of the research group (I also argue that this should include general supervision of doctoral students too).

Other internationally accepted guidelines for determining authorship include those established by organisations such as the American Psychological Association (APA):

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8.12 Publication Credit

(a) Psychologists take responsibility and credit, including authorship credit, only for work they have actually performed or to which they have substantially contributed. (See also Standard 8.12b, Publication Credit.)

(b) Principal authorship and other publication credits accurately reflect the relative scientific or professional contributions of the individuals involved, regardless of their relative status. Mere possession of an institutional position, such as department chair, does not justify authorship credit. Minor contributions to the research or to the writing for publications are acknowledged appropriately, such as in footnotes or in an introductory statement.

Source: APA (2010)

In July 2010, participants at the Second World Conference on Research Integrity (WCRI) (2010) met to develop an all-encompassing *Singapore Statement on Research Integrity*. This Statement aims to establish a much-needed agreement on the basic principles that should inform all research, wherever it is undertaken, and represents the first international effort to foster greater integrity in research (WCRI, 2010). The Statement identifies four principles of responsible research, and outlines 14 responsibilities of researchers and research institutions that must be upheld in research conducted in any country. One responsibility listed in the Statement is authorship:

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6. Authorship

Researchers should take responsibility for their contributions to all publications, funding applications, reports and other representations of their research. Lists of authors should include all those and only those who meet applicable authorship criteria.

Source: WCRI (2010)

Other authorship policies

There are several existing national and institutional authorship codes and policies that research staff and students in those countries/institutions are expected to abide by. Additionally, many journals also have their own criteria for determining authorship. Some of these national, institutional and journal authorship guidelines and policies are discussed below.

Example of a national policy

In Australia, the National Health and Medical Research Council (NHMRC), the Australian Research Council (ARC) and Universities Australia, jointly developed the *Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research* (the *Code*) (NHMRC et al., 2007), in an effort to promote research integrity and responsible research practices among researchers, Australian universities, and public sector research institutions. The *Code* applies to research conducted in all discipline areas and institutional compliance with the *Code* is a prerequisite for receipt of NHMRC and ARC funding, which jointly provided over $1.036 billion in research funding to Australian institutions over the 2009-2010 period (ARC, 2010; NHMRC, 2009).

The *Code* clearly outlines that Australian institutions must have a policy on the criteria for authorship consistent with the *Code* in an effort to minimise disputes about authorship and help resolve any issues arising.

Section 5. Authorship

To be named as an author, a researcher must have made a substantial scholarly contribution to the work and be able to take responsibility for at least that part of the work they contributed.

Attribution of authorship depends to some extent on the discipline, but in all cases, authorship must be based on substantial contributions in a combination of:

• conception and design of the project

• analysis and interpretation of research data

• drafting significant parts of the work or critically revising it so as to contribute to the interpretation.

The right to authorship is not tied to position or profession and does not depend on whether the contribution was paid for or voluntary. It is not enough to have provided materials or routine technical support, or to have made the measurements on which the publication is based. Substantial intellectual involvement is required.

Source: NHMRC et al. (2007)

Institutional authorship policies

In addition to national guidelines, research institutions generally have their own authorship policies such as those contained in the University of Oxford's *Publication and Authorship* guidelines, and the University of Hong Kong's *Policy for Ethical Practice in Research*:

Authorship

Generally, an author is considered to be someone who has made substantive intellectual contributions to a published study. This includes anyone who:

• made a significant contribution to the conception, design, execution or interpretation of the research study

• drafted or substantively reviewed or revised the publication

• approved the final version of the publication

Source: University of Oxford (2004)

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3.5 Improper Ascription of Authorship

3.5.1 The over-riding principle for authorship of a research output is an intellectual contribution to the research process and not merely administrative involvement. Author and co-author(s) should have significant participation in conceiving, executing or interpreting at least part of the research reported. The research team should decide which individual should be named as co-author(s). …

3.5.3 Misleading ascription of authorship includes the listing of authors without their permission, attributing work to others who have not in fact contributed to the research, and the lack of appropriate acknowledgement of work primarily produced by a research student or any associate. …

3.5.4 Each author must be able to endorse the whole work. The authors of the research output should read the final paper and agree that each of them has met the minimum requirements for authorship. It is unethical to claim authorship without reading and approving the final draft in its entirety. All of the authors are equally responsible for the contents of the research output; if the contents are bogus then all authors carry the blame. Responsibility cannot be shifted from an academically senior author to an academically junior one.

Source: The University of Hong Kong (2010)

Journal authorship guidelines

In addition to national and institutional requirements for authorship determination, authors are also required to comply with the authorship criteria set by the publisher or journal. The following exert from *The Plant Cell*'s *Instructions for Authors* outlines the journal's policy on authorship determination:

> ### Authorship
>
> Contribution to a manuscript must be substantive in order to justify authorship. An author is responsible for major aspects of the research that is presented. All other contributors should instead be acknowledged appropriately in the Acknowledgments section. Optionally, after Acknowledgments, include a section titled Author Contributions to detail how each author contributed to the research or the writing of the manuscript. Note which of the following tasks each author performed: designed the research; performed research; contributed new analytic/computational/etc. tools; analyzed data; or wrote the paper.

Source: *The Plant Cell* (2010)

Publications arising from student research projects

"The ethical dilemmas that arise when faculty collaborates with students on work worthy of publication stem from the unique nature of the faculty-student relationship" (Fine & Kurdek, 1993, p. 1142). As mentioned earlier in this chapter, these ethical dilemmas commonly arise due to the unequal power relationship between a student and supervisor. Furthermore, with the student's research being important for the supervisor's own development (Johnston, 1999) and with "postgraduate students [commonly contributing] directly to the supervisor's research output" (Johnston, 1999, p. 24), it is understandable why students and supervisors have authorship disputes (Morris, 2008a).

To clarify the decision-making processes for authorship negotiations between students and their supervisors, several associations and institutions have provided guidelines for determining authorship on publications from a student's research project. For example, the APA include a specific statement on student authorship in their *Ethical Principles of Psychologists and Code of Conduct*:

> ### 8.12 Publication Credit
>
> (c) Except under exceptional circumstances, a student is listed as principal author on any multiple-authored article that is substantially based on the student's doctoral dissertation. Faculty advisors discuss publication credit with students as early as feasible and throughout the research and publication process as appropriate. (See also Standard 8.12b, Publication Credit.)

Source: APA (2010)

CORE also includes several statements on published work from student research projects in their *Guidelines on Research Practice in Computer Science*:

> Published work that is generated during the course of a postgraduate degree is often jointly attributed to both student and supervisor. It is usually the case that the student has undertaken the bulk of the task: capturing some idea in text, conducting experiments and creating the paper that describes the idea. However, it is often the case that the paper would not have existed without ongoing input from the supervisor, and that the conception and initial development of the idea is due to the supervisor. In these cases student and supervisor should both claim authorship. This practice of shared authorship does not diminish the student's final work, and it helps to prevent the supervisor from limiting their responsibility to the student and to the quality of the research. …
>
> A supervisor who has only minimally met the requirements for authorship should consider choosing instead to be acknowledged. … A supervisor [should not] assume that he/she is automatically an author of a student's paper - authorship should always be explicitly discussed.

Source: CORE (1999)

Procedures for determining author order

Unlike establishing authorship, there are no clear guidelines for determining author order on publications. Author order determinations can become particularly complex when deciding the order of authors for work published from a student's research project. Statements such as this

one from the National University of Singapore, are useful for highlighting the complex nature of author order considerations related to student's research, but provide little guidance on how to resolve the matter:

6. Research Publication Credit and Order of Attribution

In general, credit for joint authorship between supervisor and student should follow ordinary notions of fairness, and should always reflect the relative weight of the contribution of the authors. Supervisors should not be entitled to claim first authorship merely by virtue of their having pioneered a particular field of research.

Source: National University of Singapore (2004)

Several models have been proposed for equitable assignment of author order including Winston (1985), Verhagen et al. (2003), and Beveridge and Morris (2007). Further, possibly to resolve or avoid authorship disputes amongst collaborators, it is becoming increasingly common for authors to share first (or last) positions on the by-line. *Pediatric Neurology* is one journal that has developed a guideline on joint first authorship: "For multi-author contributions, up to three authors can be designated as jointly first author status if they have shared equally in the work" (*Pediatric Neurology*, 2010).

It is important to remember that regardless of the method used to determine author order, all researchers have a responsibility to accurately assign credit for contributions to a research publication or outcome. Furthermore, a consensus decision-making process that involves all authors conducted in an open and transparent way is most desirable. Of the models proposed to date, the most fully developed process that has been used across disciplines is that devised by Beveridge and Morris (2007). The multi-criterion decision making tool proposed by Beveridge and Morris (2007), which is now termed authorder™, enables a rational and manuscript-specific account of all factors that led to the publication and so is of particular use to students, interdisciplinary teams with different experiences and at different stages of their careers, and research and education providers. The authorder™ process is outlined below.

authorder™ process

Once authorship has been determined using the *Vancouver Protocol* or similar guidelines, authors can use the authorder™ process for determining the order of authors on a manuscript.

The main principle of the authorder™ process is that it allows a set of alternative options to be weighed against a set of multiple, possibly competing, criteria. The authorder™ approach consists of five major steps. To commence the authorder™ process, the eligible authors discuss and decide on the items that are contained in the manuscript (Table 1.I). Items could include experiments that led to preparation of the figures or tables, the ideas or concepts behind the publication including development of the research question, and the manuscript writing. The second step in the process is for the authors to score how much they contributed to each item as a percentage (Table 1.II). Factors such as critical preliminary work that led to the design of experiments presented in the manuscript should be considered. The ideas or concepts behind the research may best be considered last as relative contributions may be difficult to substantiate. As authors may occasionally find it difficult to agree on exact percentages, a range may be assigned that the authors can 'agree to disagree' on.

After percentages have been assigned to each item, authors should attribute a category that represents the relative importance of each item to the manuscript (Table 1.III). Each category should then be given a percentage weighting that represents the relative importance of each category (Table 1.IV). Finally, each author's relative contribution to each item is calculated (Table 1.V).

For qualitatively-focussed researchers who do not routinely use numbers in their data analyses, the authorder™ approach can readily be adapted for author order determinations by following the steps outlined above but without assigning actual percentages or numbers to author contributions.

Table 1 Allocating authorship order using the authorder™ process. Roman numerals and arrows within the Table indicate the order in which the process is followed. In this example, authorship would be assigned in the order of Les, Chris, Jo, Sam, Lee and Jess.

I			II					III		IV
			Authors (% for Item)							
Paper Content	Les	Jo	Chris	Jess	Lee	Sam	Category		Relative Weighting
Fig 1	20	30	50	0	0	0	A		*15*
Fig 2	100	0	0	0	0	0	A		*15*
Table 1	50	0	0	50	0	0	B		*12.5*
Table 2	60	0	0	0	40	0	B		*12.5*
Supplementary data	0	20	20	20	20	20	C		*10*
Data in text on xyz	100	0	0	0	0	0	D		*5*
Manuscript preparation	50	20	5	5	5	15	A		*15*
Concepts	15-20	15-20	15-20	0	10	40	A		*15*
V *% of Total*	*46.5-47.25*	*11 -12.25*	*11.75-13.25*	*9*	*9.25*	*10.25*			*100*

authorder™ features

By using the authorder™ approach, the relative merit of contributions by authors, and therefore authorship order, is defined entirely by their contributions that led to the specific manuscript in question. This approach has an advantage over other points-based systems (such as Winston, 1985) that may be too discipline specific. Moreover, it focuses on the central concept of equity and the relative merit of different contributions. Where author order is not initially obvious, or where a potential conflict may arise, the authorder™ process could be followed verbatim for the benefit of equal power distribution and transparency.

Strategies for negotiating authorship and author order

We now return to the doctoral student's dilemma posed at the beginning of the chapter, keeping in mind that such issues or comparable issues, could arise for any researcher during their career. It is highly likely that

this dilemma arose because of inadequate communication between the student and supervisor. In particular, they had not previously discussed the processes for establishing authorship and author order in their collaborative relationship, as is commonly the case in other authorship dilemmas (eg., Morris, 2008a). Completion of a role perception rating scale adapted from that proposed by Aspland et al. (1999), would provide a framework for students and their supervisors to discuss authorship matters early in the collaboration. Whatever method you use to discuss complex matters with your students/supervisors, it is suggested that up-front written agreements about the processes of authorship and author order determination be formulated in collaborative work so that all researchers, including doctoral students, understand the process of authorship and author order determination for publications arising from the project. There are also added educational benefits for having early authorship discussions: students and junior researchers can learn the significance of what is involved in being designated as an author, and experienced researchers can unpack some of their unexamined assumptions related to what it actually takes to be an author. Importantly, these agreed processes should also be discussed with others joining the research group at a later date.

Even once authorship and author order are established, it is important to review the group's decision at each major iteration of the manuscript in question, particularly after peer review. This is important as each major change to the draft manuscript may require addition of new 'work' or removal of superfluous 'work', which in turn, may change the composition of the by-line authors and their order.

It is also likely that the student and supervisor in the dilemma raised above were unaware of existing protocols, policies, guidelines and models, such as the *Vancouver Protocol* and authorder™, for determining authorship and author order on their publications (eg., Street et al., 2010). Raising awareness of these existing frameworks through a combination of good policy, guidelines and training, should "significantly reduce tension in collaborative research projects and encourage ethical authorship practices amongst researchers at all stages of their careers" (Morris, 2010, p. 25).

In summary, by (1) discussing the meaning of authorship early in a collaboration; (2) encouraging all authors early on, to agree to a process for establishing authorship and author order in their work using appropriate guidelines; and (3), by reviewing authorship and author order at each major iteration of the manuscript, you should be able to take the angst out of authorship dilemmas.

Further information and resources

There are many online resources available to help you navigate the road to a successful authorship experience. Some links to a few sources of useful information are as follow:

- authorder™: www.authorder.com

- How to handle authorship disputes: a guide for new researchers (T. Albert & E. Wager). *The COPE Report* 2003: http://publicationethics. org/files/u2/2003pdf12.pdf

- International Committee of Medical Journal Editors: www.icmje.org/

- National Postdoctoral Association: www.nationalpostdoc.org/ publications/toolkits/rcr-toolkit/117-rcr-toolkit-authorship

- Online Ethics Center for Engineering and Research: www.onlineethics. org/CMS/2963/modindex/auth.aspx

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10

The Hidden Realities Of Life As A Doctoral Student

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Introduction

This chapter is about the daily experiences of doctoral students. It discusses findings from studies conducted in three countries (UK, Canada, USA) by an international team of researchers, providing case studies from the UK project. Existing literature suggests that everyday experiences are significant, variable, but rarely investigated, documented or acknowledged. This chapter makes explicit aspects of students' work and lives that are often hidden from view, either because students feel reluctant to discuss such issues, especially with supervisors or other faculty members, or because institutions, perhaps inadvertently, contribute to unrealistic stereotypes of 'normal' students.

We hope that this chapter offers students (and their supervisors) a chance to reflect on their work habits, study challenges, and on the relationships between academic work and other aspects of their lives. We are mindful that a significant segment of the audience for this chapter may be located in South East Asia, while our research was conducted in the UK and North America. While the multinational nature of our research gives us some grounds to expect a broadly similar picture in other parts of the world, we do not assume that our findings neatly generalise to other contexts. This is partly because doctoral experience always takes the form of *local particularities* that reflect national systems, institutional practices, and students' personal backgrounds, interests and approaches to work. Issues relating to national, cultural and religious diversity add further complexity and richness to the picture in any one location. We would encourage readers to consider the extent to which the findings we

report here are reflected in the particulars of their own context (national, cultural, institutional, personal etc.) and, if not, what the differences might mean.

Our research was conducted with students in the social sciences. Existing research has shown that experiences vary considerably across disciplines, and contrasts are often drawn between laboratory-based sciences and the other less structured, more individualised work in social sciences and humanities. Nonetheless we think it will still be useful for readers working in any research area to understand some of the hidden realities we report here, and to consider the extent to which their discipline affects their everyday experiences.

By providing four case studies, we illustrate the variations in how doctoral students approach work and give meaning and order to their lives. It is likely that some readers may find their own experiences to match none of these, or only parts of them. This would be consistent with our research – in fact, one of the important messages is that 'normality' is not a useful benchmark for comparison.

Relation of study to existing literature

Doctoral education research now constitutes an established and global research field. Despite this, however, there remain considerable gaps in what is known about doctoral students, their experiences, how they learn and work, and how the doctorate fits in (or perhaps not) with other aspects of students' lives. Green (2009) identifies a need for studies on 'what goes on' in doctoral education, and the research reported here is a start in addressing this gap.

Existing research has explored a wide range of issues, with some studies indicating the importance of students' wider lives. Postgraduate study cannot be isolated from other aspects of life, and a holistic concern for doctoral candidates as people, and not just students, requires a range of personal, family, non-academic, faith, health and social aspects to be recognised (Araujo, 2005; Gardner, 2008; Humphrey & McCarthy, 1999; Pearson et al., 2004, 2008; Wright, 2003). Neumann and Rodwell (2009) argue that such issues require further research attention:

> The broad spectrum of demands across each of the facets of a candidate's life may need to be considered in future research, including study, work and family demands. (p. 66)

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National policy frameworks have been criticised for failing to recognise diversity among the doctoral student population, in particular basing funding structures, time limits and curriculum on assumptions that PhD students are typically young (recent graduates, in their early twenties), studying full time, with little or no prior workplace experience, and geographically mobile (able to shift locations independently of family commitments or other ties to particular places). However, doctoral education and doctoral students currently enjoy relatively high profiles in policy developments and debates in many countries, including across South East Asia. Findings from research such as ours may be helpful in informing such developments, at institutional, faculty or departmental levels.

We conclude this chapter by highlighting additional literature that may be relevant to those who wish to undertake further reading in this area.

Research context

The research on which this chapter is based took a different approach from that of many of the survey or interview studies already conducted. Our approach was distinctive in two ways: (1) we captured the everyday, mundane aspects of doctoral students' lives; and (2) we extended data collection longitudinally so that we could see how experiences varied over time. While existing studies have tracked students over time, or asked questions about routine experiences, these two aspects have not previously been combined. Our research was also novel in that we used the same methods for data collection in three related studies, each in a different country (the UK, Canada, and the USA).

We asked students to complete a written log once a month, for at least six months; some students continued participating for up to 18 months. Each log was about one week of their experiences (including the weekend). Students were asked how much time they spent on their doctorate, what else they did, how they felt about their work, who helped them, difficulties they encountered, what they did about these difficulties, and what would have made their lives easier. Many found completing the logs helpful to them in thinking about their work habits, progress and sources of support, so we have developed a version of the log for students to use on their own (this is available online[1]).

This chapter focuses primarily on data from the UK study (led by McAlpine and Hopwood). Here we recruited 32 doctoral students across 3 universities, representing 13 different departments and interdisciplinary

research centres within the social sciences (eg. anthropology, economics, education, environmental studies, geography, management, sociology, and social policy). In total these students provided 156 logs, each representing one week of a particular student's experiences. Of the 32 students, 20 were female, 12 male, 17 from the UK and 15 from other countries. All were registered as full time students (though as we will show, this did not mean that they did not have significant other commitments including work and family). Some were in their first year of study, others doing fieldwork, and others focusing on writing their thesis. For other reports of findings from this study see Hopwood (2010b), Hopwood and Paulson (2012), Hopwood et al. (2009), and Paulson et al. (2009).

The Canadian study was led by McAlpine and used the same log-based methods with 20 mainly Canadian doctoral students from one university, all in a faculty of education. Three quarters of the participants were female, reflecting the gender profile of this discipline. A second institution was involved, but the methods were slightly different, preventing direct comparisons. Similarly to those in the UK, while most were registered as full-time students, they also had family and work commitments, and most had completed the coursework components of their programmes. Overall they completed 163 logs. Findings from this study have been reported elsewhere (Jazvac-Martek et al., forthcoming; McAlpine & Amundsen, 2007, 2009; McAlpine & Asghar, 2010; McAlpine, Jazvac-Martek, & Hopwood, 2009; McAlpine et al., forthcoming).

The study in the USA, led by Solem and Hopwood, focused on one discipline: geography. Thirty-one doctoral students from 9 universities participated in the study. This sample was broadly representative of the national graduate student populations (slight under-representation of racial minorities and over representation of female and international students) and included students at all stages in the doctoral process. They provided a further 170 logs and a full analysis of all the data is reported by Solem, Hopwood and Schelmper (2011).

In total across the three studies we received 489 logs from 83 doctoral students studying in 13 universities across 3 countries. Log data were supplemented by interviews, but for the purpose of this analysis, we will focus on the log data.

Findings

We present and discuss findings first at an aggregate level, highlighting patterns across the larger data set, including the Canadian and US study data where relevant. Then in order to illustrate individual variations in experiences we focus on four case students in the UK, with respect to their engagement in doctorate-specific work and the wide range of other activities they were engaged in. Those familiar with doctoral education, perhaps as supervisors or researchers in the field, may not be surprised by these findings. Our point is that while many aspects of the doctoral experience are intuitively known to those who work with them, these aspects are rarely acknowledged, shared publicly with students, or properly recognised in institutional policies. Our purpose is not to make claims that are entirely novel, but to make a contribution by documenting what is known but often remains silent. In this way, student readers might better understand how their experiences relate to those of the wider population. We hope that institutions use these findings as a basis for refining policies and procedures. However, given that this chapter is primarily written as a resource for students, we do not elaborate in detail on policy implications.

Key patterns in the dataset as a whole

In each log students were asked to write how many hours they had spent on work *relating directly to their doctorate*. Figure 1 shows the general patterns for each of the three studies. Care should be taken in interpreting these data. First, the lines do not represent like-for-like comparisons, as the nature of samples and disciplinary bases in each study were different. Students may have differed in what they regarded as work relating directly to their doctorates: for example some may have included attending research seminars, while others may have not. However additional data from the logs enabled us to ascertain that overall students interpreted and answered this question in a similar way, making comparisons for general indicative purposes valid. Finally, it should be noted that the hours counted here are those reported by the students, and it is possible that the students may have over- or under-estimated the time spent on doctoral work.
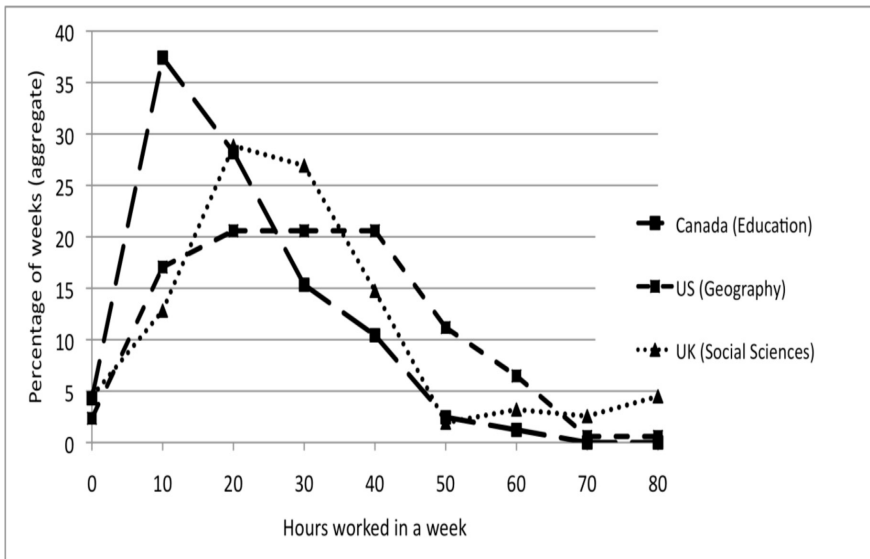
Figure 1 Hours spent on work relating to the doctorate (aggregate data
for all students)

Bearing in mind the need for care in interpreting this data, we can
nonetheless highlight a number of important features shown in Figure 1.
Critically, working few or even no hours was not uncommon – students
across all three studies sometimes had weeks in which their doctorate
did not take priority, or in which they were not able to devote significant
amounts of time to their doctoral work. The three lines are not identical.
Rather than indicating variations at a national level, this perhaps suggests
that aggregate patterns in doctoral working hours reflect combinations of
national, disciplinary and more local factors (eg. variation over time due to
program expectations or other responsibilities). The lines show that while
some students reported working a high number of hours in a week, many
worked between 10 to 40 hours per week: while there is no 'normal', the
trend is towards a more moderate range. This time was often used for
writing and reading (both crucial to developing thinking) while for some
students fieldwork created periods of intense focus on doctoral activity
(Jazvac-Martek, Chen, & McAlpine, forthcoming).

In an attempt to set the data on doctoral working hours in context,
we asked students what else they did each week. Some of the other
activities reported by the students related to academic work or study more

broadly. In the UK study, students attended lectures or seminars in 29% of weeks, worked part time on other research projects in 28% of weeks, did some form of university teaching in 24% of weeks, and institutional administration or committee work at just under 10% each. These students commonly used their time to participate in activities not directly related to their doctorates (the time spent in these activities were therefore not included in their calculation of the hours discussed above), but *nonetheless were essential to developing an understanding of academic work*. Often these provided sources of income (research and teaching assistantships, for example), or means to gain experience in a wide range of academic roles (particularly valuable for those intending academic careers in the longer term). Broadly similar kinds and frequencies of activity were evident in the Canadian and US studies.

Importantly, the students also recorded a wide range of non-academic activities. These included socialising, caring for others (children, spouses, parents, relatives), spending time with family, sports and fitness pursuits, domestic work (household chores) and leisure activities. Even among the 'full time' students in the UK study, it was not uncommon for them to be engaged in paid non-academic work. It was not clear whether the students were consistent in reporting these activities, so we place less weight on the numerical values attached to them. Instead we stress the need to recognise that doctoral work is only part of doctoral students' experience: doctoral students are also parents, siblings, daughters/sons, and friends; they have other interests to pursue, health and fitness to maintain, and domestic lives to run. This may seem an obvious point, but in our experience, and as the literature in this area suggests, such basic facts are often ignored, or left unspoken in situations where doctoral pedagogies and policies (eg. regarding time to completion) focus on doctoral work as if it takes place in a vacuum.

Contact with other people

Some studies, especially those situated in social sciences and humanities, suggest feeling isolated as being common among doctoral students. Our data suggests that the doctorate can in fact be a highly social experience, but that this is by no means always the case. We briefly highlight some relevant data showing that doctoral students need: (1) to be able to access support from a wide range of resources when needed; but also (2) to

recognise when challenges can be dealt with by oneself, with the rewards and satisfaction this may bring (see Hopwood & Sutherland, 2009).

We are interested here not so much in the number of people that a particular student interacts with in a week, but in the different kinds of people they draw on for support. Supervisors are an obvious group, and were cited as sources of support by students in all three studies. In the UK, supervisors were the most frequently mentioned group, while in the US study other students within the department were most likely to be named as a source of support. In the Canadian study, family members and friends were reported with equal frequency to supervisors, followed closely by other students. Overall we are struck by the important role played by a range of others, not just supervisors, in supporting students in their doctoral work: departmental peers, friends and family, other academic staff, and students in other departments and institutions. In light of this, we suggest that it can be instructive to explore who doctoral students draw on for support and the kind of support each provides (Jazvac-Martek et al., forthcoming).

We expect that if we had included students in laboratory sciences, contact with postdoctoral researchers and other academics would be much more notable than is seen in our social science sample. Importantly, too, in some cases students said that 'no-one' helped them in a particular week. This was most common in the UK (21% of weeks across the whole group, in contrast with 10% in the Canadian data), and perhaps reflects the absence of structures such as coursework or classes for many students studying social sciences in the UK (particularly after the first year).

In order to understand what lay behind these responses, we looked elsewhere in the logs at answers the students gave about the progress they made and the challenges they faced in particular weeks. In some cases students reported that no-one helped them in weeks when they felt they made good progress, and either encountered no significant challenges or were able to cope with these by themselves. Elsewhere, students were frustrated with their progress and felt the need for help but were unable to access support, either because (i) the people they asked were unavailable; (ii) they did not feel they could ask for help; or (iii) they were not aware that help might be available from particular sources. While a doctorate can indeed feel like an isolating journey, sustained isolation is unlikely to be conducive to progress, particularly if one recognises the important social dimensions of learning. Both institutions and students have a responsibility in relation to support: institutions to provide supervision and a culture of support

from other academics, and students in seeking support and providing it for each other. Being physically alone can be productive, and is necessary and sometimes desired, but our data suggest that the doctorate can be a highly interactive process and that students play key roles in instigating a wide range of interactions to help them with their work.

Everyday challenges of doctoral work

The doctorate itself is by definition challenging, and many of the 'big' challenges or hurdles relate to knowing the literature in a field, designing and justifying research, analysing data, writing, and ultimately making significant contribution to knowledge. These are well-known and common features in public discourses about the doctorate. Perhaps less familiar, but no less significant, are the day-to-day difficulties faced by students, and the ways in which the bigger challenges are manifest in and shape the daily routines and experiences of doing doctoral work (see also McAlpine, Jazvac-Martek, & Hopwood, 2009). In each log students were asked to describe any difficulties they encountered and what they did about them. By far the most common response across all three studies was a lack of time, reported in 28% of weeks by our UK participants, 37% of weeks by those studying in Canada, and 69% of weeks by those in the US. It is all too easy to take a zero sum or inelastic view of time, and to suggest that these students' complaints of needing more time stem from the multiple other activities they engage in (as discussed above). However, when we looked across the data we found no clear relationship between fewer hours devoted to doctoral work and a lack of time, nor between the range of other commitments and time problems. Time problems have complex origins, reflecting institutional constraints (a doctorate should take X years full time), other features of research that have significant time dimensions (eg. needing to conduct fieldwork within particular dates, having to await ethics clearance), other factors which shape what time is available (illness, family matters, work commitments), and students' own sense of the time they need or want to spend on their work (perfectionism is not uncommon).

Emotional difficulties were the next most frequently reported in all three studies. These were indicated through students' reference to stress, anxiety, anger, frustration, sadness, boredom and loneliness. (We should note that in other aspects of the study we also found evidence of the positive emotional side of doctoral work: satisfaction, pride, exhilaration,

excitement, anticipation, feeling valued among peers.) Both our research and experiences of engaging with wider doctoral communities suggest that supervision is often not seen or used as a space in which emotions are discussed or emotional difficulties addressed. The appearance of confidence and competence among peers and academic colleagues often seemed to be important. However our data show that the emotional investment in doctoral work and the difficulties inevitably encountered during the process render it a highly emotional endeavour. Students should not feel alone when experiencing emotional lows (and highs), and we would hope that there are suitable spaces in which emotional aspects can be openly shared and worked through, perhaps with friends or peers, if not supervisors.

Pragmatic issues such as access to resources (books, hardware, software, equipment, information, fieldwork sites etc) as well as difficulties relating to study itself (writing block, intellectual dead ends, lack of creativity), relationships (availability of supervisors, problematic interactions with supervisors), and health issues were also mentioned by students in all three studies.

While difficulties are not the primary focus of this chapter, it would be inappropriate to conclude this section without considering how our participants responded to the difficulties they reported. We categorised their related responses into four types: strategic, sacrifice, engaging others and nothing. Strategic responses involved tactics such as prioritising aspects of work, planning what to do and when, and choosing a different focus if they were struggling with writing. Sacrificial responses involved working more hours, giving up other commitments (such as sport, family time), or sleeping less. Engaging others involved the range of sources of support described earlier. Doing nothing could mean that students accepted a difficulty as part of the process, or it could mean that they felt nothing could be done or no support could be sought. Learning when to respond in particular ways is a key skill, but one that is not often explicitly discussed as part of doctoral pedagogy. While sacrificing other activities including sleep is an almost inevitable reality of doctoral experience we were concerned to see patterns of this response being repeated regularly by individuals, and at times evidence of its consequences was apparent when students suffered ill health and severe fatigue. Just as encountering challenges is a part of everyday doctoral experience, so is responding to them. There is no automatically 'best' response, but hopefully by sharing the experiences of our participants, we can help readers reflect on their own coping strategies.

Case studies: Atmor, Acme, Lucy and Poppy

We will now revisit some of the key issues discussed above with reference to four students who participated in the UK study. They were chosen partly because they each provided 12 or more logs. This means we have a good sense of their experiences over time, enabling us to get a sense of the extent to which study habits, challenges and social contact are similar or vary week-to-week. This proved highly significant, as we found considerable variation not only between students, but also with respect to particular individuals over time. There is no 'normal' student, and no 'normal' week. These students are also useful as cases because they represent many of the 'wider life' features that were reported across our data as a whole. By looking at the cases in detail we can explore how these come together in different combinations. As case studies these descriptions should not be taken as a basis for extrapolating directly to wider populations. We are not proposing that these individuals exemplify commonly found types of doctoral students. Rather, these cases are presented to show how the aggregate patterns described in the previous section actually relate to individual students.

The four students chose the aliases to be used instead of their real names, and details about them are provided in Table 1. We focus here on how they used their time, but it is noted that their approach to seeking support, difficulties encountered and responses to them varied not just from student to student and but also from week to week for a particular individual.
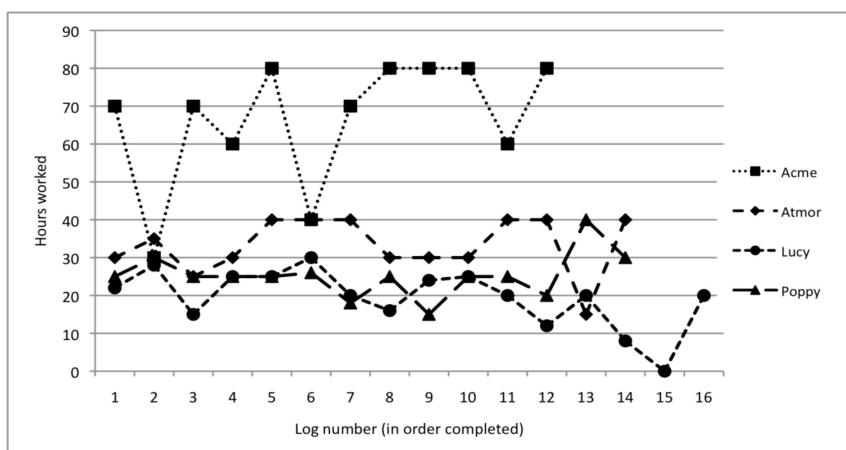

Figure 2 Working hours for the four case students

Table 1 Introducing the four case students

Student	Demographics	Area of study	Prior study	Prior work
Acme	Female, age 29, USA	Interdisciplinary environmental sciences	BSc Electrical & Mechanical Engineering, MSc Civil Engineering	Series of jobs as professional engineer, consultant
Atmor	Female, age 33, Greece	Interdisciplinary education/ economics	BA Psychology, MSc Counselling, MA Psychometrics	Counsellor, University tutor (statistics)
Lucy	Female, age 25, UK	Economics	BA Economics, MSc Economics	None
Poppy	Male, age 43, UK	Education	BA Drama & English, PGCE English & Drama, MA Publishing in Education	Drama teacher (UK secondary), Head of Drama, Deputy Head of School

These students' work habits varied greatly from person to person: from an average of 20 hours per week for Lucy to 60 for Acme (this high average reflects a sustained period of fieldwork). All four were registered as 'full time' at their institutions – clearly 'full time' does not denote a straightforward consistent commitment to study.

We also found evidence of variation within each student's own working practices. Figure 2 shows the hours worked on the doctorate as a longitudinal curve, with a separate line for each student. The horizontal axis denotes the number of the log in the order received – these do not represent back-to-back weeks (there was usually at least a three-week gap between logs).

Acme's work patterns are highly variable, often in the 60-80 hour range, but sometimes dropping down to 30 or 40. Other log data show that the 'lows' reflect weeks where her other commitments (discussed below) required intense and sustained focus, while in general she regarded 60 hours focused on her doctorate as quite normal. The lines for Atmor and Lucy are comparatively flat. Both demonstrate one-off dips; in Atmor's case this was due to ill health, while Lucy spent an entire week helping her boyfriend move house and did no work on her doctorate during this time. Poppy's line is perhaps the most consistent, and this reflects his habit (as

explained in an interview) of treating his PhD 'like a job' and not working in the evenings or on weekends.

The working weeks of full-time doctoral students may be very different. These differences occur between students and with respect to particular students over time. Rather than suggesting that some students are lazier or less productive than others, our data show that progress on the doctorate is achieved in very different ways, and that 'full time' work is shaped by a range of factors which vary from week to week. In order to understand this better we must attend to the other activities and responsibilities which feature in the everyday lives of doctoral students.

Three of the case students (all except Acme) reported spending time in some kind of paid academic work which was not directly related to their doctorate. Atmor had regular undergraduate teaching commitments which included running workshops and marking assignments. These were mainly confined to term time, although she did spend time planning her teaching during vacations. About mid-way through she acquired an additional role of professional development coordinator for graduate students in her department. Lucy worked as an undergraduate tutor on a number of courses, and her commitments also included exam marking, which peaked in demand at the end of each academic year. Poppy had no teaching commitments, but worked intermittently as a part time research assistant for academic staff in his department. This work was varied in its duration and timing, and not confined to term time.

All four students engaged in some kind of unpaid academic activity in addition to working directly on their doctorates. Acme regularly attended departmental seminars; occasionally, though over a lengthy period of time, she mentored other students; and from time to time she reported relatively intense work in co-authoring a paper with an academic colleague on work unrelated to her doctoral research. Atmor, Lucy and Poppy attended committee meetings (usually once a term or more), normally as representatives of the graduate student body. Not only did Lucy regularly go to seminars, but she had the (unpaid) responsibility of convening a series of weekly seminars during term time for a whole academic year. Poppy, like Acme, devoted time to co-authoring papers (unrelated to his doctorate) with other academic staff in pulses of activity associated with drafting, submitting, waiting for responses and revising a manuscript.

Two of the four case students reported undertaking paid non-academic work. Atmor had a part-time job throughout her participation in the study

(documented in every log), while Acme reported several periods of intense consultancy work (described as not relating to her academic work).

The logs also demonstrate a range of other activities and responsibilities that feature in the daily lives of these students. In every log Acme described her unpaid role as a senior partner in a non-governmental organisation involved in supporting engineering projects in less economically developed countries. This took considerable time but was central to her values and commitment to helping others less fortunate than herself, and to her identity and ambitions as someone who maintained a grip on the 'real world' rather than becoming exclusively focused on academic work and research. During her studies her father became increasingly ill, and on her trips back home to the USA she reported spending time caring for him. Her logs also document a strict exercise routine (daily gym work outs), and commitment to salsa dancing. Similarly, Atmor reported a regular gym regime and sports activities, and in every log mentioned socialising with friends. Lucy's logs also document socialising and sports, but also commitments to a student club and time spent with her boyfriend. Poppy drew clear boundaries between work and non-work time, spending his evenings and weekends socialising, running, gardening and completing domestic chores. All these students also reported taking 'time off' at some point from their doctoral work, whether due to ill health, to go on holiday or spend time with family.

Discussion

Although our studies document relatively mundane aspects of doctoral life, they raise important questions regarding the categories we use to describe doctoral students and assumptions made in policy and by institutions about the nature of doctoral work. In particular we think our findings suggest the need to think carefully about what designating students as 'full' or 'part' time might mean. Much is determined for and assumed about doctoral students on the basis of whether they are registered as full or part time (fees, supervisory arrangements, expected completion times), yet the everyday lives of our four full-timers may not look very different from what one might expect of part time students in some respects.

Many of the practical consequences of the notion of 'full time' students rest on assumptions that they are free of the external commitments associated with 'part time' students that warrant a longer timeframe for

completion. We have seen that those registered as full time are not likely to be free of other work, personal or domestic commitments. These are not challenges to inconsequential uses of terminology – the designation one way or the other has very real consequences for doctoral students and their institutions. The idea of 'full time' is ingrained in many policies and practices, and yet continues to go unquestioned by universities and funding bodies as a useful means to understand and respond to differences among students and the relationship between their doctoral study and other aspects of their lives. The use of such terms would benefit from a better understanding of how doctoral study time is constructed and experienced by students within their wider life contexts.

That doctoral students and their institutions are under pressure to ensure 'timely' completion of theses is nothing new, but these pressures relating to doctoral completions have intensified around the world. Such changes have been subject to strong criticism for their imposition of arbitrary timeframes and for encouraging safe projects, and creating an aversion to risk taking and creativity (eg. McWilliam, 2009; Neumann, 2007). With completion times made so consequential, they have become the target of relentless institutional attention. It is understandable that under such pressures institutions wish students to focus more on their thesis work and less on unrelated activities. However, attachment to this narrow notion of timely outcomes leads to a naïve assumption that activities compete with each other, or that there is a straightforward relationship between time spent, progress made and preparation for the future. Our data add further weight to Araujo's (2005) argument, that the doctorate must be understood as a 'phase', where the timing of this within a student's life and career trajectory, as well as its relationship with other phases (family life, episodes of ill health, employment) are recognised.

While time should not be treated as infinitely elastic, it is equally problematic to see the path to 'timely' completion as a journey that can be ensured as long as students are not distracted by other things. Other studies (Hopwood, 2010a, 2010c; McAlpine & Asghar, 2010; McAlpine & Amundsen, 2007, 2009; McAlpine et al., 2009) suggest that different activities are often not in competition with each other. Other commitments, whether academic or otherwise, can play a significant role in contributing to students' personal and professional well-being and development, their feelings of belonging, sense of identity, and ability to devote their energies in accordance with their values. Given the frequency with which students

in our study mentioned sports/fitness activities, and the incidence of ill health, it is important to remind ourselves that doctoral students have bodies as well as intellectual brains to maintain. Daily exercise can be as much part of the doctorate, and as much part of the production of a doctorate as an hour in the library.

Conclusions

We introduced this chapter by suggesting that there are a number of aspects of doctoral experience that frequently remain hidden from the public view. In making these explicit and sharing them with students (and those who support them), we have developed a more nuanced and empirically grounded sense of what being a doctoral student involves. In our experience we have often found that students harbour anxieties in terms of how they compare to their peers. Such comparisons are frequently made in relation to an imagined 'normality', from which students tend to feel they differ. Our data suggest that such ideas of a 'normal' student or working week on a doctorate are actually difficult to define empirically. While there are certainly several common features and clear patterns emerging across our three studies, it seems to us that the hidden reality often concerns a lack of anything 'normal'.

In summarising our key findings we would therefore highlight:

i.   That the everyday lives of doctoral students vary greatly from individual to individual – there is no 'normal' student;

ii. For particular students, working patterns and time spent on other activities vary from week to week: there is no 'normal' week;

iii. Although often rumoured to be isolating, doctoral experiences can involve interactions with a wide range of people. These are not guaranteed and reflect institutional provisions and students' own agency in making them happen. There is no 'normal' pattern for interacting with others – interactions vary from person to person and from week to week;

iv. While it *is* 'normal' to experience challenges or difficulties on a regular basis during the doctorate, particularly in relation to time and emotions, responses to these challenges vary between students from week to week for particular individuals.

Further reading

We have not done justice to the vast literature on doctoral education in the citations in our chapter. The following may be particularly useful as further reading for students. Aitchison, Kamler, and Lee's (2010) book is an excellent resource supporting doctoral writing. Hopwood (2010a, 2010c) and Nyquist et al. (1999) are especially useful for those considering academic careers, while Lee and Williams' (1999) paper gives a moving account of the emotional turmoil that may be involved in a doctorate. Kearns, Gardiner and Marshall (2008) describe strategies students and universities can use to cope with time difficulties, as well as a very resonant account of a 'busy' day in which not much writing gets done!

Notes

[1] A version of the log we used, designed to help students reflect on and manage their work, can be downloaded from http://www.cetlrecord. ox.ac.uk/resources/resource09.php?reURL=../themes/toolkit.php
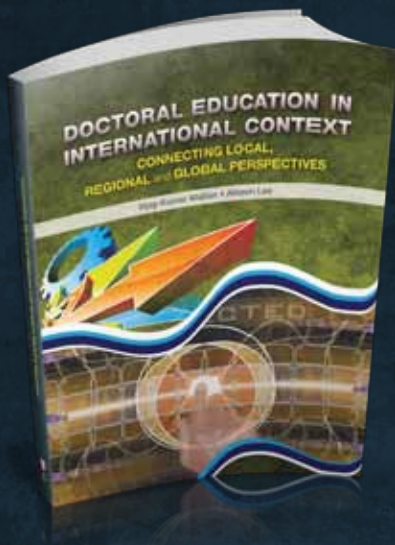
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As the doctorate becomes increasingly international, communities of educators, researchers and policy makers are being formed who can consider the international trends, patterns and issues facing universities, supervisors and students in these changing times.

Doctoral Education In International Context was produced in the context of the 2nd International Doctoral Education Research Network (IDERN) conference in Malaysia. It is addressed directly to doctoral supervisors, students, doctoral program coordinators and policy makers and discusses many key issues arising in the changing doctoral education landscape. It provides useful theoretical underpinnings and insights into the complexity of contemporary global doctoral education and how these issues are negotiated across boundaries. Key areas this book explores are:

- the changing nature of the doctorate
- glimpses of "real-life stories" about supervisory experiences in Malaysia, Pakistan, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa
- transculturation, negotiation and dialogue in doctoral supervision
- creativity as an element of doctrateness
- the opportunities and challenges of team supervision
- the role of doctoral writing in global research conversation
- authorship dilemmas in publishing
- everyday engagements of doctoral students

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