Expectations and Experiences of Indonesian Postgraduate Students Studying in Australia: A Longitudinal Study

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ABSTRACT
EXPECTATIONS AND EXPERIENCES OF INDONESIAN POSTGRADUATE STUDENTS STUDYING IN AUSTRALIA: A LONGITUDINAL STUDY

This interpretive study examines the changing expectations and experiences of thirty-three Indonesian postgraduate students who were interviewed every three months during candidature in Australia. The aim of the study was to develop a better understanding of the impact of expectations and experiences on their lives and their research. The study argues that these postgraduate students experienced three major phases when living and studying in Australia. These phases were: 1) the initial expectations and experiences within the first six months; 2) the experiences of living and studying in a foreign country for much of the candidature following the first six months; and 3) the preparation and expectation of returning home following completion of candidature and initial experiences on arrival in Indonesia.

The methodology adopted in this study was an interpretivist theoretical perspective arising from a constructionist epistemology. This allowed for a phenomenographic approach to questioning and interacting with students so that their experiences and perceptions could be expressed from their perspective. The analysis and discussion of the emerging three major phases noted during the students' interviews include four case studies. The cases demonstrate the 'whole of life' experience of students rather than their academic experiences only and the varying extents to which some students changed.

The study concludes that the extent of the changes varied within the student group and was dependent upon factors which include: students' age, their previous academic experience, the award being undertaken, prior employment in Indonesia, and, to some extent, English language proficiency. As a result of the research the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study can be identified as *Transformers, Strategists* and *Conservers*. This significant finding derives from three distinctive characteristics of the study.

Firstly it addresses the issues of *learning* within the overall context of *living* in a foreign country. Secondly, this study follows the students throughout their candidature: it charts changes and developments over time rather than being a cross-sectional study as so many other studies of international students tend to be. Finally it addresses issues related to international postgraduate education whereas most other studies on international students in Australia tend to address undergraduate education.

PREFACE

This study examines the changing expectations and experiences of Indonesian students during postgraduate candidature in Australia. Thirty-three Indonesian postgraduate students[1] were interviewed every three months during their candidature in Australia to develop a better understanding of the impact of day-to-day experiences on their lives and their research. Throughout this thesis, the study will be referred to as 'the Adelaide Longitudinal Study.'

The Thesis

This study argues that these postgraduate students experienced three major re-orientations when living and studying in Australia during candidature. These re-orientations occurred 1) during the first three to six months after arrival; 2) during the period of living and studying in a foreign country for much of the candidature following the first six months; and 3) during the period of preparation for returning home and the initial experiences on arrival in Indonesia.

The study concludes that the extent of the changes varied within the student group and was dependent upon factors which include: students' age, their previous academic experience, the award being undertaken, prior employment in Indonesia, and, to some extent, English language proficiency. Through the conduct of the research it emerged that students could be clustered into three groups in terms of the changes they underwent. These three groups of students have been termed *Transformers, Strategists* and *Conservers*. This significant finding derives from three distinctive characteristics of the study.

Firstly it examines the issues of *learning* within the overall context of *living* in a foreign country. For example, during the study, four babies were born to spouses of students, two students married, two 'loves' were found then lost and four close family members died. Individuals experienced personal, academic and in some cases spiritual highs and lows. There were concerns over children and relationships, personal insights and changes, intellectual insights and changes, all of which occurred during their three or four year candidature. These factors were found to affect considerably the students' academic program. Secondly, this study *follows the students throughout their candidature:* it charts changes and developments over time rather than being

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[1]   Of the 33 students, 22 were research postgraduates and 11 coursework postgraduates.

cross-sectional study as so many other studies of international students tend to be. Finally, this study addresses issues related to *postgraduate education* whereas most other studies on international students in Australia tend to address undergraduate education.

It is important to note that this study is from the perspective of the students, and it does not attempt to argue the rights or wrongs of their position and perceptions. It is probable that some postgraduate supervisors who participated in this study would want to argue differently from their own perspective. This study does not attempt to put both sides of the argument. That is left for future research.

Study Structure

Part **One** (Chapter 1) provides an overview of the research project and my reasons for undertaking such a study[1]. Included are some explanatory notes of terms and expressions and other technical information regarding interviewing and reporting strategies to maintain anonymity. A diagrammatic representation of the structure is presented in Figure 1.

Part **Two** (Chapters 2 and 3) reviews the literature in developing the argument of this study. Chapter 2 examines the literature regarding students' experiences. As this chapter shows, the majority of the literature relates to students' initial experiences in a foreign country or where the stage of the students' candidature is not taken into account in the study. While there are three contemporary tracer studies involving Indonesian students, there is little in the way of literature that describes the change and development students undergo after the initial six to twelve months. The research reported in this study will go some way to extending our knowledge and understanding of this situation. In Chapter 3 a theoretical model of expectation is developed to describe how and why students hold the expectations they have, both implicit and explicit, and how the matching or mis-matching of those expectations can significantly influence a student's academic progress. Clearly supervisors also hold expectations and so an understanding of their expectations of students is significant in understanding how students' perceive their sojourn.

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[1] Given my intensive and long-term interaction with the students it is not possible for me to disassociate myself from what they say. Echoing Brenner (1985), this study was "the joint product of the questions as perceived by informants and the social situation circumstances within which the questions were put to them" (p. 154). Therefore, this report is written in the first person and in a style which tries to make the students and their experiences honest and real to the reader.

Figure 1. Diagrammatic presentation of the format for the study

Chapter 1 — Argument: that there are three phases, experienced to various extents	←	Why do the study?	Part One
Chapter 2 — Students' experiences of the three phases	←	Evidence from the literature relevant to the three experiential phases	Part Two
Chapter 3 — Students' expectations of the three phases	←	Evidence from the literature related to the theory of expectation	
Chapter 4 — Methodology appropriate to the study			Part Three
Chapter 5 — Method of conducting the research, including related research			
Chapter 6 — Initial findings and demographic data			
Chapter 7 — Phase One: First six months	←	Evidence from the interviews	Part Four
Chapter 8 — Phase Two: Feeling settled	←	Evidence from the interviews	
Chapter 9 — Phase Three: Finishing and going home	←	Evidence from the interviews	
Chapter 10 — Case studies illustrating the extent of the change in individuals and groups of students	←	Evidence from the interviews	
Chapter 11 — Summary, discussion and implications	←	The sum of the evidence from the literature and the interviews	Part Five
Bibliography, Glossary and Appendices			Part Six

Appendix A — Context for the study: Indonesia

Appendix B — Context for the study: Postgraduate education

Appendix C — Policies related to international/ Indonesian students

It will be noted in Chapters 2 and 3 that reference is made to the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study and in some cases they are cited as examples. While it is generally the case in doctoral theses that reference to the sample is not made until later in the report, due to the longitudinal nature of the study, I have adopted a different approach. The interviews with students were conducted over a four year period, the same period in which the literature was

constantly reviewed. It was deemed appropriate that when a students' reported experiences provided examples of the points being discussed in the literature that these experiences be cited.

Part **Three** (Chapters 4, 5 and 6) discusses the methodology and research design as well as providing some initial demographic findings. Chapter 4 argues the appropriateness of the methodology adopted in this study, that is an interpretivist theoretical perspective arising from a constructionist epistemology. The phenomenographic approach to questioning and interacting with students allows the experiences and perceptions of the students to be expressed from their perspective, albeit, through the eyes of the researcher. Case studies were utilised as a means of reporting the results. Chapter 5 describes the research design and how several studies that supported the central Adelaide Longitudinal Study contributed to the overall research findings. Chapter 6 provides details of demographic data and some overall findings from these studies that relate to the research in general.

Part **Four** (Chapters 7 to 10) presents the analysis and discussion of the emerging three major periods noted during the students' interviews and the varying extents of these changes. Chapter 7 analyses student expectations and experiences, and the interaction of expectations on experiences and experiences on expectations, in the first few months of their sojourn in Australia.

Chapter 8 reports how students move into Phase Two and become established as students who have 'found their feet' and are feeling more confident and secure in their ability to cope with the academic, social and personal challenges they face. Chapter 9 describes how students in Australia undergo changes in their own expectation of completing their study and returning home. Following that is an analysis and discussion of interviews with 50 Indonesian candidates who had returned after studying in Australia. The results of these interviews provide some reinforcement for the context which students are expecting when they return.

Chapter 10 provides four case studies of students as examples of change and development throughout candidature. The case studies are provided as a means of showing how change occurs over time, and that a study done at any one stage of candidature might have given a very different result from the overall picture. They also provide insights into a key factor of the study, that is, the individual nature of the changes experienced by students.

Part **Five** (Chapter 11) provides conclusions and implications based on factors which were isolated as having supported or negatively affected the experiences and expectations of students while in Australia.

Part **Six** comprises the References, Glossary and Appendices. Of particular note are Appendices A, B and C which provide context and background for the study. Appendix A gives background information about Indonesia and particularly the Indonesians education system and Civil Service, information which is considered important understanding for the reader. However, it is recognised that some readers will already have extensive knowledge of Indonesia and so may not need to read this appendix in detail. Similarly Appendix B provides background information on postgraduate education, particularly in Australia. Again this information is provided for the reader who may not have a detailed understanding of the issues involved and therefore their influence on the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study. Appendix C outlines policies and practices that relate to the Adelaide Longitudinal Study in the sense that the students in the Study had applied and had been selected in the light of the these policies. Again the information in the appendix provides a context for the overall study.

CHAPTER 1 OVERVIEW AND REASONS FOR UNDERTAKING THE STUDY

This chapter elaborates the thesis and explains the writer's motivation to undertake the study.

Thesis

> It is argued that the 33 Indonesian postgraduate students involved in this study passed through three phases during candidature in Australia, each of which affected their academic performance and that the extent of these changes vary considerably within the student group.

These three phases are as follows. Phase One occurs when students undergo the quite often, traumatic experiences during the first three to six months after arrival. Phase Two is the change to self-esteem, re-orientation to approaches to study, and then the day-to-day experiences of a postgraduate student, including home and social life. Phase Three involves the preparation for, and expectations[1] of, returning home and the initial experiences in Indonesia.

I further argue[2] that while there are discernible patterns in students' responses to each of the above phases, the most distinguishing factor is the individuality of each student in the study, particularly with regard to the extent of change experienced. Emerging from the research was a model which explained these varying extents of change.

The Research Questions

The research reported in this study addresses the following questions as they relate to students studying at the University of Adelaide:

- What are the expectations and experiences of Indonesian postgraduate students during the first three to six months of being in Australia?

- How do students' expectations and experiences change over time while in Australia?

- To what extent do students change and what are the factors that influence this change?

- Do these changes affect their expectations of returning home and the experiences they anticipate there?

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1   Chapter 3 will discuss the particular and different meanings of the words 'expect' and 'expectation' as they are understood in English and Bahasa Indonesia.

2   See Metcalfe (1996), for further discussion of argument in research. I aknowledge Dr Metcalfe personally in helping me to a critical understanding of argument and its role in this study.

The 33 students were interviewed every three months throughout their candidature. These interviews over time enabled in-depth information to be gathered as a result of a deepening and more trusting relationship between student and researcher, and allowed tracking of the development and changes of students over the period of candidature. Judgements are not made as to whether these developments and changes are necessarily good or bad, other than when the students comment. This matter will be addressed in Chapter 11. Interviews were also held with students' supervisors, other relevant academic and general staff in Adelaide and Indonesia and representatives of Australian funding and policy bodies.

Motivation for the Study

Motivations Arising from Previous Research

While this study was motivated by a number of personal factors outlined later in this chapter, the research literature indicated that a study such as the one reported here was well overdue and much needed for six identified reasons.

Firstly, the Australian literature on international students, particularly South-east Asian students has a tendency to stereotype these students. This is done, for example, by not defining the ethnic origin of students within a research cohort but describing them simply as South-east Asian or international students. As this study will demonstrate, not only are all South-east Asian students not the same, not all Indonesian students are the same. As Renshaw and Volet (1995) suggest, by grouping South-east students together one is reinforcing a stereotype and that:

> If a more positive and differential perception of overseas students is to emerge among Australian academics, there needs to be sustained research on the needs of these students (academic, social, financial and cultural needs) and an examination of their approaches to study that is sensitive to differences within and between groups. (p. 87)[3]

In light of the above, I considered it important to research a specific group of South-east Asian students. In this case Indonesian students were chosen[4]. At the same time I did not want to compare Indonesian students with say, Thai students or Singaporean students. If I had of course I would have found differences and similarities, but what would that have added to an understanding of these students who already come from a rich and varied ethnic background?

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[3] For the writing of this thesis, the style recommended by the American Psychological Association (1994) has been adopted. So, for example, where quotes are included in the text punctuation occurs at the end of the citation, whereas where quotes are blocked, the punctuation is prior to the citation.

Secondly, the research literature on international students tends to be dominated by a focus on 'problems,' either the problems encountered by the students or the students as the problem as seen by others[5]. Coupled with this is the *third* reason: that while there have been numerous studies related to international students studying in Australia the majority of these studies concentrated on undergraduate students and/or 'problems' experienced. There was little in the way of an understanding of postgraduate students, and even less on students' development and change as they overcame the problems described in the literature. Hence, the research issues identified above are: the need to focus on particular groups of international, and especially South-east Asian students; the importance of identifying ways in which students overcome difficulties and the contribution these students make to the life of the university and the general Australian community. The examination of these issues, particularly for postgraduate students, was the third motivating factor for this study.

A *fourth* reason for undertaking this study was my concern to understand how Indonesian students lived and studied within such a different cultural environment from their own and how university staff had, or could, assist students in doing this. The work of Lewis (1996), Triandis (1994) and particularly Hofstede (1986; 1991) in describing and comparing cultures and their effects on learning have provided a useful spring-board for this study to examine the issues relevant to Indonesian postgraduate students studying in Australia. Recognising these issues Senator Gareth Evans, then Australian Minister for Foreign Affairs, wrote:

> It is often said that it would be difficult to find two more different countries and societies as neighbours anywhere else in the world. In terms of political, economic, social and legal systems, language, history, religion and ethnicity the differences are significant. These differences have given rise to different perceptions and beliefs on a range of important issues such as the nature and role of leadership, the purpose of the state, national decision making processes, the role of the armed forces and the media and the handling of opposition and dissent within the political process. (Evans, 1991, p. 3)

Grant (1996), in the third edition of his book *Indonesia* agrees with Evans when he writes:

> Australia and Indonesia are as diverse a pair of neighbours as it is possible to find. One is a large, flat continent, thinly populated with, for the most part, Caucasians professing Christianity and individualism, essentially materialistic and scientific in outlook, instinctively part of the Western world. The other is an archipelago of

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4   See Appendix A for relevant background information regarding Indonesia.
5   This 'problem focus' are discussed in depth in Chapter 2.

mountainous islands, populated with Asians professing, for the most part, Islam and communitarianism, essentially mystic and spiritual, instinctively wary of Western values. (p. 207)

However, the focus of the current study has not been so much on comparison but rather the notion of seeking similarities, that is the experiences of one 'national' cultural group studying within another 'national' culture, as it may lead to more useful and positive suggestions for adoption by academic and support staff within universities. As Biggs (1997) suggests "Universal principles of teaching and learning apply across cultures. If you teach according to these principles, then all students will learn, given the usual prerequisites of intention to learn, and the appropriate content background" (pp. 2-3). Certainly culture shock, to be addressed in detail in Chapter 2, was experienced by students in the first few months of their sojourn and it was a significant issue. However, most moved past that stage within three to six months, but issues related to culture in a much broader sense remained with them throughout candidature.

Emerging from the experience of culture shock and consequent drop in self-esteem for many of the students was a *fifth* motivating reason. This is: what effect does a student's early experiences have on the supervisor's expectation of the student's academic performance? Rosenthal and Jacobsen (1968) in their book *Pygmalion in the Classroom* very clearly describe the effect of the self-fulfilling prophecy on student learning (see Chapter 3 for a discussion of this phenomenon). It would not be difficult to imagine the following scenario. An Indonesian student, experiencing culture shock, is having great difficulty understanding the supervisor's English, is feeling incompetent and unable to function adequately and is so homesick that she/he is unable to concentrate on even quite simple tasks. The supervisor, perhaps not well versed on issues such as culture shock, assumes that the student was poorly selected and incapable of performing well enough to complete a PhD. These messages (conscious and unconscious) that the supervisor sends to the student have an extraordinarily strong negative effect on the student's self-concept and ability to perform. Self-concept has a very powerful effect on learning as evidenced by the work of Phillips (1988) where he clearly indicated that students with poor English language skills but who were in a positive learning environment were more likely to be successful than those with good language but a negative environment.

Not to be overlooked was the *sixth* reason, that is, Indonesia's economic development which is considered to be closely linked with increased education, and hence potential reciprocal benefits of Indonesian students studying in Australia. As the then Director General of Higher Education in Indonesia suggested in 1991:

> As is well-known, good quality tertiary education has many different dimensions. A high calibre of academic staff is one of the basic requirements. This objective occupies the highest priority in government thinking and policy. Training at the post-graduate level for junior staff both in-country as well as overseas has been pursued vigorously. (Ranuwihardjo, 1991, p. 55)

In addition there is the importance of the steadily growing Australian-Indonesian international student market. This development has become an important economic matter for both countries. In 1997 the international students market brought $3.2b into Australia and through Australian educational aid to Indonesia "approximately 900 Indonesians from both the public and private sectors are studying in Australian universities under Australian Government scholarships" (Downer, 1998, p. 48).

If Australia and Indonesia are to benefit from Indonesian students studying in Australia then it is crucial that the experiences of students be understood and evaluated leading to more positive educational and economic outcomes. This study is a contribution to that understanding.

Personal Motivations for Undertaking this Study

Five significant personal experiences led to the decision to undertake this study. A recognition and understanding of these experiences is important in an overall understanding of the study and the assumptions and biases which inevitably arise from these experiences.

The *first* relates to my moving to Jakarta in 1989. I, an Anglo-Australian, experienced severe 'culture shock' in a way that I had not anticipated. Until accompanying my Australian husband to Jakarta where he was going to take up a new position, I had held a significant professional position in Australia. From all reports I was considered to be competent and capable; I had a wide network of professional colleagues and personal friends and I had travelled extensively. On arrival in Jakarta I spoke not a word of Indonesian, had few friends and was home all day attempting, and generally failing, to communicate with household staff. The impact on my self-esteem and ability to function adequately was extensive. Certainly had I been trying to hold

down a professional position, or study at a postgraduate level, my performance would have been far below my own, and others, expectations based on previous experience. Once I had recovered and started to appreciate living in such a contrasting city and country and was able to reflect on my experience, I became acutely aware of what many students must go through when they first arrive in Australia, particularly if they do not have appropriate support.

The *second* experience occurred after I had been in Jakarta about 10 weeks when I went to the supermarket near where we lived. I was looking for flour but did not know the Indonesian word for it. A very helpful and patient young shop assistant asked if he could help me. In my very fractured *Bahasa Indonesia*[6] I tried to describe what I wanted. Each time he would carefully and respectfully take me to an aisle where he thought it might be, while constantly encouraging my appalling use of the language. We finally discovered the flour and I went home to reflect on what might have happened if this had been an Indonesian person in a shop in Australia. Would this person have had the same patient and respectful attention after so many efforts to say the right words? Further, if asked to assess my 'intelligence' the shop assistant may have been less than enthusiastic.

The *third* experience was over a period of several months while I was working in the Jakarta office of The International Development Program of Australian Universities and Colleges (IDP)[7]. My work there was to encourage Indonesian students to choose Australia as their study destination and then assist with applications and finally with visa approval. Each student had to have an X-Ray for tuberculosis (TB). If there were signs of TB on the X-Ray, then it would be sent to a government doctor in Australia for a decision on whether the student would be permitted to enter the country or not. The heart-break of having to inform students that they were unable to go to Australia, despite selection, was one of the very difficult aspects of this position. To realise what this rejection meant to potential students and how it affected their future was very relevant to appreciating the pressures felt by students in Australia not to fail.

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[6]   When Indonesia gained independence in 1945 *Bahasa Indonesia* was adopted as the official language. Since that time there have been many changes to expression and spelling. In this study the method adopted is that, unless a direct quote, all *Bahasa Indonesia* words will be spelled according to contemporary usage. If in doubt, the Kamus Indonesia-Inggris. (Echols, J., & Shadily, H. 1989) and Kamus Inggris-Indonesia (Echols, J., & Shadily, H. 1975) will be used. If words are names of places or institutions, and not direct quotes, they will be spelled according to Department of Information Republic of Indonesia (1991).
[7]   At that time IDP with its Australian Education Centres was the main marketing organisation of Australian education in South-east Asia.

Following my time with IDP, I then worked in the Indonesian Department of Education and Culture in the Directorate of Technical and Vocational Education where I experienced the *fourth* interaction which motivated my research. I had an Indonesian counterpart, a very competent and capable woman, whose husband, also a civil servant, had been selected to go to Australia to study for a Masters degree. But he had to achieve a sufficiently high score on the International English Language Testing Scheme (IELTS)[8] and his early trial tests indicated that he was having difficulty. His wife and friends were very concerned so they arranged that each afternoon, when he came to pick up his wife from work, he would sit for about 45 minutes with me and practise his English, which he did with determination and drive. Talking with his wife it was clear that there were great individual and family aspirations attached to his successful selection and study in Australia. The dedication and determination of students such as this friend and the possibility of not completing the English training, not being approved for a visa, or not successfully completing the study in Australia, were made all too clear to me during this time.

The *fifth* major and memorable experience which brought about this research study was one back in Australia. Some months after my return I was taking a Masters level subject in Curriculum at Flinders University. The lecturer was one of the most creative and professional lecturers I had experienced. We had a group of twelve students, two of whom were from Indonesia. In the two-hour seminar-style session the Indonesian students rarely spoke. Toward the end of the semester, the lecturer and I met to talk over a range of matters and I raised the issue of the two Indonesian students. Being an enthusiastic and concerned teacher she was keen to know how she might have involved the students more effectively. We discussed the fact that she, and a number of colleagues, were keen to understand how they might better cater for overseas postgraduate students but often were not sure of strategies to adopt. She encouraged me to undertake the research as a means of enhancing this understanding.

With my appointment to the University of Adelaide it became clear from discussions with academic staff working with Indonesian postgraduate students that there seemed to be a disproportionate number of concerns about their students' ability and problems and yet most staff found them very pleasant and cooperative students, keen to do whatever was asked of them.

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8   The International English Language Testing Scheme (IELTS) was introduced to Indonesia in 1989 as the preferred alternative to the TOEFL test of English language competence used until that time.

So, what does all this mean for the research study undertaken? Fundamentally it means that I must acknowledge that I truly 'feel' for students in their first few months in Australia and I often re-live some of my own experience when talking with them. It also means that I feel enormous admiration for them: their courage in coming here, often leaving behind a partner and children, their commitment and hard work to have got here in the first place and their determination to succeed. I am particularly in awe of their ability to do postgraduate study in a language which is usually their third, and sometimes fourth.

The literature, to be discussed in detail in the following two chapters, also indicates that there is a real need to understand the expectations and experiences of particular groups of international students. While it might be tempting, it is not always profitable or useful to talk about 'all international students are…' or even 'all South-east Asian students are…' Hence this study relates to Indonesian postgraduate students, themselves a disparate group.

My experiences, supported by the literature, also lead me to believe that on the whole the students are the ones who are making the enormous adaptations and change needed for them to be successful in the Australian learning environment. On the other hand, the University, including supervisors, and support and administrative staff, on the whole are making relatively small changes to behaviour and expectation. Having said this, my experiences also lead me to believe that with the benefit of insight and understanding most staff are willing to make further change, if they understand 'why' and 'how.' These experiences and beliefs underpin this study and have been made explicit to participants in the study.

Location of Study

There are two reasons why what is essentially an education/social science thesis was undertaken in the Department of Applied and Molecular Ecology (previously Department of Crop Protection) within the Faculty of Agricultural and Natural Resource Sciences. The first is that at the time of enrolment my principal supervisor, the Dean of Graduate Studies, was working half-time as Dean and half-time in his designated department, that is Crop Protection, where he is an ecological bio-chemist. The position of Dean of Graduate Studies was made full-time some six months after my enrolment. The second reason is that the Faculty of Agricultural and Natural

Resource Sciences enrols over fifty percent of all Indonesian postgraduate students at the University of Adelaide. Given this figure, the faculty was keen to host such a study.

Chapter Summary

This chapter proposed the thesis that the 33 Indonesian postgraduate students involved in Adelaide Longitudinal Study passed through three phases during candidature, each of which affected their academic performance and that the extent of these changes varied considerably within the student group. To address this thesis the following four questions were posed:

- What are the expectations and experiences of Indonesian postgraduate students during the first three to six months of being in Australia?
- How do students' expectations and experiences change over time while in Australia?
- To what extent do students change and what are the factors that influence this change?
- Do these changes affect their expectations of returning home and the experiences they anticipate there?

The motivations for undertaking the study were categorised into those arising from the literature and those arising from personal experience. In particular as Chapter 2 will demonstrate, the literature indicated that there was a considerable shortfall in research related to postgraduate students, especially with a focus on particular countries (rather than the more general South-east Asian area). In addition, there was a dearth of research that followed students throughout their candidature. The literature on cross-cultural experiences linked with that on expectation also indicated that a study such as this was timely.

Personal motivations were clearly articulated for two reasons. The first was as a means of indicating the level of interest for the study. The second was to ensure that personal biases were identified and understood so that they were considered throughout the design, conduct, analysis and reporting of this research.

CHAPTER 2 STUDENTS' EXPERIENCES

Introduction

This thesis argues that there are three phases that most Indonesian postgraduate students move through when studying in Australia as demonstrated by the Adelaide Longitudinal Study. The *first phase,* usually within the first three to six months is typified by experiences such as loss of self-esteem and confidence, less than adequate academic performance, and culture shock. There is a good deal of literature on this phase, much of it discussed in this chapter. The *second phase* involves a re-orientation to study and to life in Australia, a sense of control and 'getting on top of things.' It is during this phase that most students begin to realise that they are competent and capable and that they have learned skills to assist them in the rest of their candidature. The movement from Phase One to Phase Two can be dramatic for some and gradual for others, but most students are usually well into Phase Two after twelve months. In terms of the literature being reviewed here, these two phases are categorised as *Early Experiences.* However, while the difficulties students encounter while studying overseas are widely researched and reported, these studies rarely make clear the distinctions as to whether these problems are changing during candidature and whether in fact many of them are overcome.

For most of the students the experiences in the *third phase* are of a transition-nature where students have found themselves to be successful academically and culturally in their new environment, but are needing to re-evaluate their new skills and attitudes in relation to returning home. The literature to support this argument is limited, however, that which is relevant to the experiences of students in Phase Three is described as *Later Experiences.* The results of the research reported as Phase One (Chapter 7), Phase Two (Chapter 8) and Phase Three (Chapter 9) indicate the distinctions between the phases and provide a schema indicating the different characteristics of each phase.

This chapter will first use the evidence from previous research to demonstrate that overseas students do indeed have some difficulties, some of which are similar to those of local students, and some of which are quite different. In later chapters it will be suggested that in many cases these difficulties are only 'initial' problems. The second part of the chapter will draw upon the

more limited research to argue that students have different sets of issues to address as they move toward the end of their sojourn and prepare to return home.

Background

As Table 1 indicates the majority of Australian studies since 1990 that have been related to international students[1] have tended to focus on problems, with most of the problems being attributed to the students, and only occasionally to staff. Although describing the British situation, Kinnell (1990) suggests in the 1960s, and I would suggest to a significant extent still in the 1990s in Australia, one response to the 'problems' associated with overseas students was:

> To offer prescriptive advice to students on adapting to British [and Australian] methods of study, including preliminary instructions on these methods, on study skills, the provision of orientation and supplementary courses and effective supervision. The viewpoint of this and much of the other literature on the problems faced by overseas students was that students were in need of and dependent on the knowledge and education which we in Britain [Australia] could provide: 'they' had problems with 'our' system (of a socio-cultural, linguistic, academic and practical nature) which 'we' could help them overcome. (p. 2)

This notion of 'identify the student's problem' tends to portray the students as having, or in some cases *being*, the problem, rather than the staff or institution having, sharing or perhaps even *being*, the problem. In addition, it casts international students in the light of being 'difficult' instead of focussing on the benefits and contributions of these students. Some recent work (Biggs, 1997; Chalmers & Volet, 1997; Radford, Ongkili & Toyoisumi, 1984; Renshaw & Volet, 1995; Todd, 1997; Volet, Renshaw & Tietzel, 1992) is beginning to query these views of 'international students with/as the problem' and will be discussed later in this chapter. Still the issue remains, much of the literature focuses on problems which assume a deficit model of the student (Kennedy, 1989).

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[1] In this report the terms 'international students' and 'overseas students' are used interchangeably. The term 'foreign students' common, particularly in the media until 1995 is used only when citing. The change in terminology took quite some time to be reflected in Australian newspaper reports where until quite recently the term 'foreign students' was used when referring to students from other countries studying in Australia (Connolly, 1994; Healy, 1995; Jones, 1993). 'Overseas student' has now become a more popular term, in the media headlines but not 'international' (Lloyd, 1997).

Table 1.   Some Major Studies Related to International Students (in chronological order)

Author and date	Focus	Major outcomes
Hodgkin (1966)	Problems of Malaysian & Singapore students in Western Australia. 238 case studies from 1500 interviews.	"There is the problem of how much they [the students] wish to become part of the host society, even if only temporarily" (p. 21). "Only six students out of 102 questioned about friendships specifically mentioned close friendships which have developed with Australians of their own sex" (p. 83).
Rao (1976)	Based on similar studies by UN Institute for Training and Research. 896 useable responses and 100 in-depth interviews.	Main problems • Separation from family (35%) • Lack of English fluency (32%)—Indonesian students (59%) • Homesickness (29%) • Financial difficulties (27%) • Loneliness while in Australia (26%) • Inability to adapt to Australian education programs (19%).
Radford, Ongkili and Toyoisumi (1984)	Sample of overseas students in 147 secondary and tertiary institutions in South Australia during 1983 and identification of problems.	Recommendations from the report included: • Information sent to students before they leave home—include Australian customs and culture. • Meet students at the airport/mentor scheme. • Identify language difficulties early in candidature. • Occasional student/staff seminars on problems. • Supplementary exams. • Government responsibility for overseas students coordinated into one department. • More Australian courses recognised overseas. • Positive approach to overseas students in media.
Bradley and Bradley (1984)	Study of students who began studies in 1977 and would have been completing by end of 1981.	Of 1273 students from all backgrounds 585 (46%) completed first course in minimum time, 94 (7%) completed with extra time, 367 (29%) still studying first course, 227 (18%) withdrawn. Of the 679 (i.e. 585+94) who had completed, 126 (18% of 679, 10% of total) studying for further qualifications in Australia.
Samuelowicz (1987)	Study at the University of Queensland.	Main problems faced by overseas students: English language proficiency, coping with Australian education system and its demands, cultural adjustment to life in a foreign country, & provision of support services and their usefulness.
Burke (1989)	Study of overseas students at the University of NSW in 1986.	Main difficulties experienced by students were: • cultural adjustments • finances and accommodation • living independently • language and communication • study-related concerns • being different (racism). These problems are not dissimilar to those of Rao, despite the gap of ten years between studies.

(Table 1 continued)

Author and date	Focus	Major outcomes
Goold (1989)	Follow up study of 30 Indonesian women who studied in Australia.	Looked at problems experienced e.g. accommodation and language, and relation of education and values of Indonesian society and benefits e.g. increased knowledge and skills.
Wimberley, McCloud and Flinn (1992)	Study of 121 married students between 1969 and 1983 on AID program in the US.	Determined that indicators of postgraduate success were: • undergraduate Grade Point Average GPA and TOEFL scores; • presence of family; • quality and effectiveness of the students' graduate program.
Daroesman and Daroesman (1992)	Tracer Study Commissioned by AIDAB and IDP.	Identified issues related to allocation, selection, academic experience, employment entry and re-entry, and follow-up. Made 12 recommendations (discussed later).
Chappel, Gray, Head and O'Reagan (1993)	Based on Kinnell, (1990) Rao (1976) and Barker (1990) 23 Indonesian and Malaysian students in South Australia.	Students' hopes included: to expand knowledge and gain experience; improve English; travel. Concerns were very similar to students studying in Britain.
Phillips (1994)	Project offering training to faculty members for teaching overseas students.	Examined primary determinants of study success for Indonesian postgraduate students in Australian universities. Indicated whether students would do well in studies despite language score as a result of teaching approaches.
Mullins, Quintrell and Hancock (1995)	Local and overseas undergraduate students in South Australian universities.	Local and overseas students shared the same top concerns—either finances or stress related to study—but overseas students experienced problems to a greater degree.
Renshaw and Volet (1995)	Undergraduate full-fee students with 93% from Singapore.	Results indicate a high level of similarity between local and overseas students in all types of participation in tutorials. Contests the stereotype of South-east Asian students.
Wilkinson, Mahara and Quester (1996)	Undergraduate Asian students studying at South Australian universities.	Major problems of living in South Australia were understanding local speakers, loneliness, and overcoming homesickness. 'Fear of failure' and 'pressure from home' were significant problems for 40% of students.
Hasanah (1997)	Study of 26 Indonesian postgraduate students at South Australian universities.	Divided her responses into a) learning/teaching experiences, and b) social cultural experiences. Most of her students classified themselves as deep or achieving learner, with only a few surface learners.
Choi (1997)	Surveyed Korean students studying in Victoria (29 men and 18 women, 15 postgraduate and 32 undergraduate).	Difficulties categorised into three. Language (mainly speaking), teaching and learning (mainly discussion in class), and relationships (with Australian peers and teachers).

Early Experiences (Phases One and Two)

From the studies outlined in Table 1 the issues for international students, and by association, academic and general staff, can be categorised into the following domains: cultural and personal, language, educational/academic, and administrative. Cultural and personal issues, include, for postgraduates, the fact that they are often under greater pressure than undergraduate students to succeed due to age, seniority in employment, nomination by government, and the fact that they see themselves as ambassadors for their own country. In addition, the majority of the Indonesian postgraduate students, at least in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study, have families of their own, with all the traumas, commitments, responsibilities and joys that might bring. Language issues include understanding, expressing opinions, reading critically and writing style. Academic issues address matters such as learning style, pedagogy, curriculum, understanding academic expectations, organising study, and research skills. Postgraduates are likely to also experience being firmly bound in their home learning tradition from their undergraduate study and also have a significant period of time between undergraduate and postgraduate study. Administrative issues relate to such things as finances, accommodation, visas and scholarships. These four issues, culture, language, education and administration will be used as the organising structure for the remainder of this section.

Cultural and Personal Experiences

The thought of trying to define 'culture' is somewhat daunting when one reads, "Almost unbelievably, about 175 definitions of culture can be found in the social scientific literature!" (Lonner & Malpass, 1994, p. 7). To make a start, however, Geertz (1973) suggests that "Culture is the fabric of meaning in terms of which human beings interpret their experience and guide their action; social structure is the form that action takes, the actually existing network of social relations" (p. 145). Put another way:

> Culture...is analogous to knowing the 'rules of the game.' When one becomes socialized (through rule-governed learning and child-rearing practices) and enculturated (through subtle informal learning) in a specific society, he or she has learned a complex set of explicit, as well as implicit, rules concerning how he or she should behave among his or her fellows who share the same culture by virtue of being raised under the same rules. (Lonner & Malpass, 1994, p. 89)

An understanding of culture and how it influences one's expectations and actions is essential for this study. Students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study had to learn a new set of cultural 'rules of the game' and supervisors were coming to terms with potential misunderstandings arising from cultural experiences.

Describing Cultures

Cultures have been described in a number of different ways, particularly within comparative studies (Adamopoulos & Lonner, 1994; Argyle, Iizuka & Contarello, 1996; Bochner, 1972; Hofstede, 1991; Jahoba, 1978; Lewis, 1996; Lonner & Malpass, 1994; Triandis, Malpass & Davidson, 1971). Lewis (1996), for example, categorises various cultural groups in the following way. *Linear active*, refers to those societies where the members do one thing at a time and think they are more efficient for doing so. *Multi active*, are those that are very flexible and think they get more done because of this. *Reactive* cultural groups, he argues, are those that focus on listening, *data-oriented* cultures are ones that conduct research to produce information upon which to act, and *dialogue-oriented cultures* are those for whom developing relationships are a high priority. Each of these groups considers that the way 'they' operate is the preferable way. One could describe Australian culture as more towards the *data-oriented* category although Lewis (1996) suggests that "There is no manual [of how to interact cross-culturally] for correct behaviour in Australia as the country lacks a clearly defined social and conversational map" (p. 182). Indonesian culture, on the other hand, tends more towards the being *linear active* but with a strong focus on maintaining relationships (see Appendix A).

Taking a different approach to describing cultures, Hofstede (1991) argues that concepts such as power distance, individualism, gender bias and uncertainty avoidance can be measured across various societies and so be compared. There are small power distance societies, for example, where parents treat children as equals and large power distance societies when parents teach children obedience. The Power Distance Index (PDI) for Australia is 36 with a country ranking of 41 out of 50, indicating a high power distance, and Indonesia scores 78 and is ranked 7 out of 50, indicating a low power distance (Hofstede, 1991, p. 26).

Hofstede further suggests that it is possible to measure the Individualism Index (IDV) for a country. Individualism and collectivism can manifest in many ways. For example, the

individualist and collectivist societies view the purposes of education differently. For an individualist society the main aim of education is to prepare individuals to take their place in a society with other individuals. In a collectivist society the emphasis is more on the development of the attitudes and skill necessary to be a member of a group and to work toward the betterment of one's country. The differences are illustrated in classroom interactions:

> In the collectivist classroom the virtues of harmony and the maintenance of 'face' reign supreme....In the individualist classroom, of course, students expect to be treated as individuals and impartially, regardless of their background. (Hofstede, 1991, p. 62)

Australia has a score of 90 and ranks second in IDV (after the United States of America). Indonesia has a score of 14 and ranks 47/48 out of 50 (Hofstede, 1991, p. 53). When the PDI is correlated with IDV Australia is described as representing small power distance and is individualistic and Indonesia has large power distance and is described as collectivist. A comparison of the two Indexes for each country, adapted from Kiley (1998) is shown in Figure 2. While it can be argued that the use of such categories as PDI and IDV might lead to negative stereotyping both in Indonesia and Australia with their very mixed cultural heritages, these measures can give us insights into some of the approaches likely to be adopted by many of the people in the respective countries.

Figure 2.   Comparison of Power Distance and Individualism Indices for Australia and Indonesia
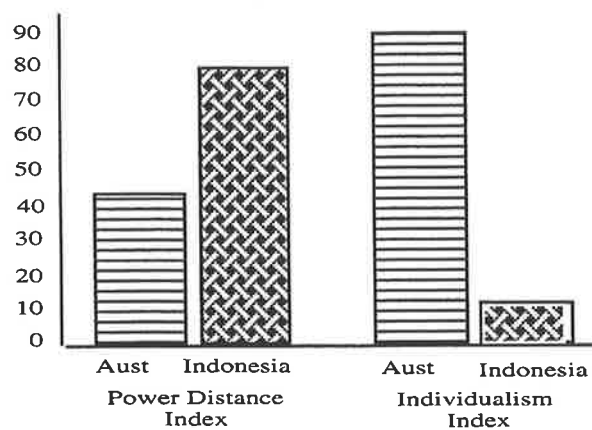
Hofstede's third dimension is that of gender roles that is, masculinity/femininity. While not talking specifically about men and women, but rather social conceptions of gender roles, this dimension argues that masculinity implies assertiveness, competitiveness, and toughness, and femininity implies concern with taking care of the home, of children and of people in general.

The Masculinity Index for Australia is ranked 16 out of 50, (with a score of 61) and Indonesia is ranked at 30/31 with a score of 47 (Hofstede, 1991, p. 84). Again, such a measure must be considered indicative, certainly not definitive.

The fourth dimension is uncertainty avoidance, that is the desire for order, predicability and structure. Cultures that score high on uncertainty avoidance are those where ambiguity, risk taking and relative individual freedom are not as highly valued as clarity, structure and organisation with clearly enforced rules. Hofstede argues that uncertainty avoidance and masculinity/femininity are not related to a country's wealth whereas high power distance and high collectivism are characteristics of countries with low Gross National Product (GNP) and low power distance and high individualism characterise countries with high GNP (Hofstede, 1986).

Another possible way of categorising cultures is proposed by Triandis (1994) who uses the collectivist/individualist paradigm but comes to conclusions similar to those of Hofstede. Triandis argues that there are four types of social behaviour patterns: *community sharing* (characterised by intimacy, cooperation, self-sacrifice); *authority ranking* (obedience, admiration); *equality matching* (taking turns, sharing equally); and *market pricing* (paying for what you want/getting what you pay for) (p. 170). *Community sharing* and *authority ranking* are similar to Hofstede's collectivist grouping, and the second two—*equality matching* and *market pricing*—are similar to the individualist grouping.

Suggesting that a country might be collectivist relies on the notion of "a homogeneous, simple culture," whereas "affluence is a major determinant of individualism" (Triandis, 1994, p. 170). Having said that, while historically much of Indonesia was made up of small peasant communities which could well be described as collectivist, there are areas of the country where this is now far from the truth. Hence the use of such measures and categories need to be viewed as possible indicators only.

Another concept which appears to be relevant to the Indonesian/Australian relationship is *harmony* where someone from a collectivist society would want to act 'correctly'—not necessarily as they feel but in a way that maintains harmony within the group. On the other

hand, while a person from an individualist society might believe that it is important to express views clearly and is likely to be more interested in what people think rather than what they feel.

In the collectivist society, "What an individual thinks is of no great importance when the group is all important" (Triandis, 1994, p. 172). The collectivist society was clearly reflected in Indonesia's founding as an independent state in 1945. When President Sukarno introduced 'guided democracy' as the basis for government within the new country, he was basing this on the traditional form of *musjawarah*, or mutual discussion and *mufakat,* or consensus. "There is a Javanese word *tjotjog* which means to agree or to fit…and the successful use of *musjawarah* results in a harmonious *tjotjog* of various elements leading to *mufakat*" (Grant, 1996, p. 127). Sukarno and the new independents also adopted the philosophy of *Pancasila*[2] as the basis for government. The five tenets of *Pancasila*[3] being: belief in the one and only God, just and civilized Humanity, the unity of Indonesia, democracy guided by the inner wisdom of deliberations of representatives, and social justice for all the Indonesian people (Department of Information Republic of Indonesia, 1991, p. 47).

An example of this collectivist nature of Indonesia was compared with the more individualist Australian culture by Bill Morrison AO following his recent retirement as Australia Ambassador to the Republic of Indonesia.

> A significant difference is that Australia tends to be a highly individualistic country and Indonesia a much more corporate country…I perceive in Indonesia a respect for authority. Contrast that with Australia which has no respect for authority whatsoever.
>
> We belong as Australians to a very confrontationist society…We have developed a creative confrontation if you want to have the best view of it, but that is very much part of our cultural identity. The Indonesians on the other hand seek a more

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2   *Panca,* a Sanskrit word meaning principles and *sila,* meaning five, provides the philosophical basis for Indonesian policy and administration.

3   When Bahasa Indonesia words are used they will be italicised. Where the meaning of the word is not obvious from the context it will be explained as a footnote or within square brackets [ ]. In Indonesia there also tends to be a practice whereby the names of organisations, institutions and functions are shortened, for example Depdikbud comes from Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan (Department of Education and Culture). As Freeman states, "The Indonesian practice of forming acronyms from lengthy titles is widespread, sometimes even using syllables from inside words to form a pronounceable acronym. Once formed, acronyms can enter the language as common words" (p. viii). The practice adopted by Freeman will also be adopted in this study where acronyms which have entered the language as 'words' will be italicised and in lower case. In the case of other acronyms they will be in upper case and not be italicised.

harmonious environment, the *musyawarah*, an attempt to bring together by consensus. (Morrison AO, 1989, p. 28)

Given these differences, what might then happen when a person from one county, Indonesia, moves to live and study for two to four years in the other country, say Australia? This study will provide insights to, and understandings of these experiences, based on the interviews from the Adelaide Longitudinal Study.

Culture Shock and Change

Certainly moving from one culture to another can be very stressful, and:

> As a broad generalization it can be said that intercultural contact tends to occur between *dissimilar* individuals; that contact between dissimilar individuals is stressful; and that the greater the dissimilarity the greater the stress experienced. (Bochner, 1994, p. 248)

From the descriptions above certainly there are some dissimilarities between Indonesian and Australian cultures. This stress, arising from intercultural contact, is sometimes defined as 'culture shock' and described as feeling as if "a series of props have been knocked from under you, followed by a feeling of frustration and anxiety" (Oberg, 1960, p. 177). Culture shock can manifest as a rejection of the host environment and a regression to where the home environment is glorified. For example, in the case of the Indonesian students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study, most experienced symptoms such as feelings of helplessness and despair, and longing to be with people who spoke the same 'language' both in the linguistic sense and the cultural sense. Furnham and Bochner (1986), however, go to considerable lengths to avoid the negative connotations of culture shock or the tendency they see in some writers to blame the sojourner for 'contracting' culture shock. They argue instead that the symptoms of culture shock, as described above, can be overcome through 'culture learning,' that is learning the appropriate and desirable social behaviours of the new culture. This issue, as it relates to the Adelaide Longitudinal Study, is discussed at some length in Part 4.

In his early writing Oberg (1960) describes four stages in the culture shock process, but notes that the length of time any one person might spend in each of the phases is varied and in fact, he suggests some people might never reach the later stages. Hofstede (1991) also suggests four phases in acculturation and these are compared with Oberg's in Table 2. Oberg's four stages

have also been described by Draine and Hall (1986) in a rather entertaining manner, in a useful little book for new expatriates living and working in Indonesia.

Table 2.   Stages of Culture Shock/Acculturation

Stage	Oberg (1960, pp. 178-179)	Hofstede (1991, p. 210)	Draine and Hall (1986, pp. 213-217)
Stage 1	The new arrival is fascinated by the new culture	Euphoria	"It's wonderful"
Stage 2	Characterised by a hostile and aggressive attitude of the new arrival to the host environment.	Culture Shock	"What happened to paradise?" and "Could I go somewhere else?"
Stage 3	New-comer is accepting of the situation, although sometimes with a sense of superiority and/or 'self-sacrifice.'	Acculturation	"I still don't like it and I want to go home... maybe."
Stage 4	When the newcomer accepts the customs and environment of the host country—and enjoys it.	Stable state. May be: negative (worse than before) neutral or positive ('gone native').	"I'm settled."

Oberg used his four stages to develop a 'U' curve which is a diagrammatic representation of sojourners' feelings. Sojourners located near the top left 'arm' of the 'U' are depicted as being quite excited about their new environment, compared with sojourners who have 'gone down the curve' or are 'at the bottom' and who are experiencing difficulties. Sojourners depicted near the top of the right arm of the 'U' are considered to be feeling happier about their new home and have adapted successfully. However not all studies support the 'U' curve, in fact "support for the U curve hypothesis must be considered weak (Breitenbach, 1970) inconclusive (Spaulding & Flack, 1976) and over generalised (Becker, 1968)" (Church, 1982, p. 542).

Having said that, Everts and Sodjaksumah (1996) in their study of Indonesian students in Canada found that after the first few weeks of excitement had worn off students started to feel "uncomfortable, anxious and sometimes inadequate or frustrated—especially those who felt the program did not fit their needs" (p. 7). After a term, however, students usually begin to feel more confident and familiar with the environment although "this may not survive a shaky academic background, or, for some older students, the initial shock of being reduced to the rank of 'student' whilst holding a senior position at home" (Barker, 1990, p. 10). Generally after a year there appears to be only occasional stresses for most students. However, during the writing

up of one's thesis, some of the high-level stresses and anxiety experienced in the first few months might return (Barker, 1990).

As suggested above, culture shock can occur whenever one tries to live within a new and different culture. When describing my own experience of culture shock to a student in the study after he had been in Australia for approximately five months, he was very surprised. "You mean you have culture shocks when you [went to Indonesia]! I thought it only happens to people when they come from like the eastern countries to western countries" (Bunari2: 30-32)[4].

In discussing culture shock it is useful to distinguish between sojourners and settlers. Sojourners are people who are visiting, albeit often for a lengthy period, people such as students and business people. Settlers, on the other hand, are people who are making a permanent commitment to live in the new country. As a result of their intention, that is either to visit or stay permanently, different approaches to life in the new country are adopted. The settlers aim to become participants, whereas the sojourners tend to be observers. Although both groups experience culture shock they experience it in different ways as a result of their different intentions (Bochner, 1994). In her study of Indonesian migrants in Australia, Penny (1993) also suggests that for Indonesians it is not only a matter of intention but also ethnic origin. For example, one of the things that Javanese Indonesians in her study most admired about Australians "was their sense of public order and the infrastructure which allows for long-term planning, but they were most critical of coarseness—drinking and bad manners" (p. 356). Whereas those of Sundanese origin were "the most critical of the freedom allowed in Australian families" (p. 357).

While there are a number of issues related to acculturation[5] within a new culture two major ones have been defined:

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4   Throughout this report a different font from the rest of the text is used for transcripts of interviews.
5   Terms proposed by Penny (1993) suggest that: *adjustment* "refers to the response of an individual in establishing a relationship of harmony or equilibrium with his or her environment" (p. 14). Harmony is particularly relevant to Indonesians) adaptation: "implies that the individual changes in much the same way that living organisms, in order to survive an environmental change/" (p. 13). Whereas *acculturation* implies that "one culture is weaker than the other within that society, and the members of the weaker must adopt customs and values of the stronger" (p. 13). *Assimilation* is taken to mean to forsake the "original ethnic characteristics and adopt(ing) those of the dominant group in the new country" (p. 14) but *integration* "implies that change takes place in the society as a whole to accommodate the presence of newcomers" (p. 15).

(1.) maintenance and development of one's ethnic distinctiveness in society; deciding whether or not one's cultural identify and customs are of value and to be retained...[and] (2.) desirability of inter-ethnic contact, deciding whether relations with other groups in the larger society are of value and are to be sought. (Berry, 1994, p. 212)

As the Adelaide Longitudinal Study will demonstrate both of those factors were important for the students' life. Inter-ethnic contact does not mean that one has to give up one's own culture and adopt the new, rather "it refers to a comprehension of the rules that govern social intercourse in Australia, and some facility in playing the game according to the rules" (Bochner, 1972, p. 68). Findings from the Adelaide Longitudinal Study indicate that, in most cases, students were quite clear about, first, the need to 'play the game' and secondly, the need to learn the rules quite quickly in order to achieve their desired outcomes

While the stresses arising from adjustment are very real for most sojourners, they can be moderated by a number of factors. These include: the mode and phase of acculturation, the nature of the larger society, the characteristics of the acculturating group and the individual (Berry, 1994, p 213). For example, "If a person regularly received the message that one's culture, language, and identity are unacceptable, the impact on one's sense of security and self esteem will clearly be negative" (p. 214). Of particular relevance is the assertion that:

> Contact experiences may also account for variations in acculturative stress. Whether they are pleasant (or unpleasant), whether they meet the current needs of the individual (or not), and in particular whether the first encounters are viewed positively (or not) may set the stage for all subsequent ones, and affect a person's mental health. (Berry, 1994, p. 214)

The early experiences of international students, and in particular Indonesian students, are clearly significant in ensuring an effective two, three or four year study program. However, specifically related to international students' levels of cultural adjustment, the stress and anxiety that might accompany that adjustment depend on the student's intended purpose for the sojourn. Three possible intentions are suggested. Firstly, the student who goes overseas to study in order to enjoy the novel inter-cultural experience. For this student the emphasis is on cultural experiences. Secondly, the student whose aim is to obtain a qualification to help her/his own country and therefore the emphasis is on academic achievement and completing the course with cultural adjustments made only when necessary. Thirdly, the student who aims to assimilate into Australian culture (Bradley & Bradley, 1984, p. 256). However, intentions may well change

during candidature. For example, initially the Indonesian students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study could be classified mainly as the second group. This might reflect the fact that they were all postgraduate students and all but one on scholarship and so they felt a considerable degree of responsibility for focusing on their course and achieving results within the time defined by their scholarship and visa. However, as Chapters 7 to 10 will show, for many of the students their intentions changed quite significantly during candidature.

Research reported by Everts and Sodjakusumah (1996) of Indonesian students in Canada indicate that the adaptation and change of Indonesian students was a complicated process.

> All of them experienced culture shock, a lack of social support from co-nationals, difficulties in their adjustment to food and climate, low self-confidence, and low-satisfaction with host-national interactions. Most of them also reported facing problems due to lack of general cultural knowledge prior to coming to Canada, adjustment to Canadian social customs and norms, verbal and non-verbal communication with host nationals and difficulty in making social contact inside and outside their social academic environment. (p. 2)

The same researchers, Everts and Sodjakusumah (1996), compared Indonesian students studying in New Zealand and reported similar findings. All students had difficulty with language, food, weather, academic environment, leaving families and finances. Not surprisingly, those who had been overseas before their current sojourn felt more confident.

Despite often a difficult start, research indicates that the majority of international students adjust to their new environment and learn 'the rules of the game' and how to cope, generally within the first twelve months (Barker, Child, Gallois, Jones & Callan, 1991; Church, 1982; Volet, Renshaw & Tietzel, 1992). Attitudes, traits and abilities which affect adjustment include: language proficiency, age, sex (female students appear to have more adjustment difficulties than males), nationality, status, previous cross-cultural experience, health, and social interaction with host nationals, increased personal flexibility, realistic goals and expectations, and a low level of authoritarianism (Church, 1982; Hannigan, 1993). Language proficiency enables social interaction and therefore the likelihood of faster adjustment. In addition:

> Communication skills including listening skills, the ability to enter into a meaningful dialogue with others, to deal with communication misunderstandings and different communication styles as well as linguistic ability in cultures that have a different language from that spoken by the sojourner, and interaction competence in one's area of expertise, the ability to effectively communicate one's knowledge to others,

and the ability to deal with psychological stress are all components of successful cross-cultural functioning. (Hannigan, 1993, p. 267)

Language proficiency will be shown to be significant in the adjustment of students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study. With regard to age it appears that while "younger sojourners and undergraduate students have more social contact with host nationals both as friends and in their living arrangements…older sojourners and graduate students generally report greater academic and general satisfaction with the outcome of the sojourn" (Church, 1982, p. 57).

Good personal adjustment is often hard to manage, particularly if the student is without family. Difficulty mixing with Australians and having local students as friends is an issue frequently discussed in the literature, including studies of Indonesian students (Barker, 1990; Daroesman & Daroesman, 1992; Goold, 1989; Mullins, Quintrell & Hancock, 1995). Five barriers to communication, especially inter-cultural communication, are suggested "(1) language; (2) non-verbal communication; (3) perceptions and stereotypes; (4) the tendency to place different values on the same behaviour; and (5) high anxiety" (Barker, 1990, p. 11).

It is suggested in the literature that one of the reasons Indonesian students experience this difficulty is because, in line with Indonesian culture, the students wait for their host to initiate the interaction but the locals tend to expect the 'visitors' to initiate interactions (Everts & Sodjakusumah, 1996). Certainly students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study reported similar experiences where they were waiting as a 'guest' to be involved and the local students seemed to be assuming that it was the responsibility of the 'visitor' to make the effort to be involved. This tendency to adopt 'host' and 'guest' roles is concerning if it results in a negative 'introduction' to interactions, particularly as Volet and Ang (1998) suggest that, for undergraduate students at least, "students' preference/attitude for cross-cultural mix decreased/became more negative from first year to second and third year of undergraduate study" (p.6).

Bochner (1994) and Furnham and Bochner (1986) argue strongly that making friends with local students (host nationals as they call them) is vital for overseas students' culture learning during their sojourn. Their research indicates that overseas students belong to three groups: monocultural, bicultural and multicultural. Monocultural groups are those where students have co-nationals as friends who generally offer emotional support. Bicultural groups, where

sojourners make friends with host nationals, provide opportunities to "facilitate instrumentally the academic and professional aspirations of the sojourner" (Furnham & Bochner, 1986, p. 16). Multicultural groups, those made up of a range of international students provide mutual support and are often used for recreation. As Part 4 will demonstrate, some students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study had almost exclusively co-nationals as friends, whereas some others had very few Indonesian friends.

With regard to interpersonal skills Asian students are often so conscious of being in a new environment that they become very aware of norms and values, even more so than local students. "The students seemed prepared to adopt such behaviours [behaviours exhibited by local students], even though they were often not accustomed to acting this way in their home culture, and they doubted their English ability" (Barker et al., 1991, p. 83). Generally the greater the difference in culture the greater the degree of self-awareness of the sojourner "whose experience of culture shock will be severe enough to induce the self-questioning and cultural analysis required for increased self-awareness" (Church, 1982, p. 557). For Indonesian students who are very used to 'reading between the lines' and expect to have to work out what *is not* being said, more so than what *is* being said (see Appendix A) this is not surprising. In addition, Barker et al. (1991) and Bochner (1986) suggest these students realise that, even though it may not be their preferred behaviour, they are prepared to adopt those behaviours of the local students that they perceive have made the locals successful.

Task effectiveness is reflected in students quickly learning to approach their learning in a way which seems to be expected in their new environment. A study by Volet et al. (1992) compared learning of local and overseas students who were studying in the same course and institution. They found that by the end of the first semester the learning approaches of South-east Asian undergraduate students and local students had become more similar and more like the local students. This lead the authors to conclude that approaches to study were closely linked to specific learning situations rather than some inherent characteristics, and that the overseas students were learning from local students:

> The similarities in the patterns of change of South-East Asian and local students support the view that study approaches are influenced by students' perceptions of course requirements rather than determined by stable personal characteristics of individuals or cultural differences. (p. 20)

Here Furnham and Bochners' (1986) contention that international students learn the salient characteristics of the new culture might well have worked in a negative manner with regard to students' quality of learning. In terms of the Adelaide Longitudinal Study there were students who were concerned that they might lose their Indonesian identity if they adopted too many Australian ways of studying and living.

Racism

Surveys of overseas students in Australia, Britain, Europe and the United States indicate that a significant percentage of students experience some racism (Bochner, 1994; Hasanah, 1997; Jones, 1993; McMullen, 1992; Mullins et al., 1995; Opper, Teichler & Carlson, 1990). Penny's (1993) work with Indonesian migrants in Australia also provides insights into racism. Studies generally report from 40% to 54% of students experiencing racism to some degree with seven to ten percent of students experiencing racism as a serious problem. Hasanah (1997) reported one Indonesian student as saying "Being an overseas student means being second class in the campus society, especially in using facilities and encountering racism" (pp. 49-50).

It has been argued that sometimes it is difficult to define which interactions are racist:

> For example, a person goes into a shop and is treated arrogantly and rudely by the shopkeeper. The customer, because of his/her different race or colour, thinks the shopkeeper is racist. However, it could be that the shopkeeper is habitually rude and arrogant and treats everyone appallingly. Equally the shopkeeper may be responding to his/her perceptions of the customer's non-verbal characteristics. For example, she/he may behave rudely in response to the belief that the customer was rude first. (McMullen, 1992, p. 2)

An example from the Adelaide Longitudinal Study also indicates that when asked if they had experienced racism, students often replied with something like "I'm not really quite sure what it was they yelled at me from the car as it went past, but I 'felt' that it was negative, but I don't know if this is racism [my paraphrase]." This was in contrast to some quite clearly racist comments and actions in other situations to be discussed in Chapters 7 and 8.

McMullen's study (1992) casts some light on the reasons for variations in interpretation of possible racism and the reporting of it. McMullen looked at 'minority' groups of students such as Chinese students from Indonesia and Malaysia and 'dominant' groups, such as Chinese students from Hong Kong and Singapore and analysed their responses accordingly. McMullen

found that 54% of the total cohort thought that Australians were racist. However, only 37% of the 'minority' group considered that Australians were racist but 64.5% of the 'dominant' group considered them to be so. The author suggested that this might have been because students from 'dominant' groups were unused to being recipients of racist interactions in their home country whereas 'minority' students might have had considerable previous experience with racism at home. This result will be considered in relation to the Adelaide Longitudinal Study in Chapter 8. Penny (1993) reported that length of stay, socio-economic class, ethno-linguistic background and religious affiliations did not have a direct relationship to perceived racism. However, women in her study generally reported experiencing less, and men more, racism.

Stress and Anxiety

Many overseas students undertaking postgraduate studies are married, often with families, but in the first instance most of them come to Australia on their own. If, after a semester's work they are handling the demands of study, and if they feel financially capable of supporting their family in Australia, they then seek approval for the family to join them. It is generally during that first semester that students are likely to experience their greatest stress and anxiety and also to be without their family. Of course absence of family itself can provoke stress and may reduce social resources used to alleviate stress (Edmond, 1992; Wimberley, McCloud & Flinn, 1992).

However, students' reactions to stress vary. Where the student feels there is little that can be done, and in the case of being reunited with families, this is often the situation for six to 12 months or more, then the student is likely to adopt an emotional focus to the problem. However, when students feel there is something they can do to alleviate the stress they are likely to adopt the problem-focused approach or try to at least analyse the problem (Edmond, 1992).

A different way of coping with stress is suggested by Moos and Schaefer (1986) who argue for a five task model:

1. Establish the meaning and understand the personal significance of the situation.
2. Confront reality and respond to the requirements of the external situation.
3. Sustain relationships with family members, and friends as well as with other individuals who may be helpful in resolving the crisis and its aftermath.
4. Maintain a reasonable emotional balance by managing upsetting feelings aroused by the situation.
5. Preserve a satisfactory self-image and maintain a sense of competence and mastery. (p. 11)

The effects of stress and anxiety arising from having to operate within in a new culture for students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study are reported in considerable detail in Chapter 7.

Homesickness

In an extensive study on homesickness, Fisher (1988) suggests that with a move to another location, in addition to separation anxiety and loss and interruption to lifestyle, there is reduced control "defined as mastery of the psychological environment. A person must learn about new places, people, routines and procedures" (p. 43). Students may also experience a sense of grief for the loss of family, friends, familiar objects and routines (p. 46). Defining homesickness as "any condition of unhappiness or malaise following the transition to a new environment" Fisher (1988) found that homesickness tends to be episodic, usually with episodes early morning (particularly for males) and late evening (particularly for females) (p. 46). For university students experiencing homesickness the degree of difficulty tended to correlate with the number of homesickness episodes per day (Fisher, 1988, pp. 47-49).

However, students who had moved away from home in their previous life history are less likely to experience homesickness than those for whom it is the first time (Everts & Sodjakusumah, 1996; Fisher, 1988; Hasanah, 1997). As Hasanah states it is clear that students who had studied abroad before, and in English, "have a competitive edge" (p. 32). The findings related to prior experience of study overseas by students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study and their experiences with homesickness will be addressed in Chapter 7.

Language Experiences[6]

English language skills are reported as a major issue for non-English speaking students and their supervisors during candidature in an English speaking university (Ballard & Clanchy, 1997; Cowrie & Addison, 1996; Everts & Sodjakusumah, 1996; Goold, 1989; Healy, 1997; Phillips, 1988). Although students seeking entry to an Australian university have to reach a certain language score according to a recognised test such as the International English Language

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[6] While it can be argued that language and learning are so closely integrated that they should not be separated in a discussion such as this, the fact remains that the literature generally addresses them separately and students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study frequently spoke of them separately.

Testing System (IELTS)[7] these scores do not necessarily guarantee that students will cope easily with the language system, particularly as Ballard and Clanchy (1997) suggest:

> Our broad theme is that many of the difficulties international students experience in their study derive not from 'poor English' (though lack of language competence is, in many cases, a real problem) but from a clash of educational cultures. (p. viii)

The English language testing system most widely used for students coming to Australia is the IELTS which consists of the following test components: Reading (55 minutes), Writing (45 minutes), Listening (30 minutes), and Speaking (15 minutes). Four Modules are available: Modules A, B, C or General Training. The different Modules depend on the proposed field of study, for example Module A is recommended for the Physical Sciences and Module C for the Humanities and Social Sciences (Kiley, 1993).

Studies indicate that language test scores and subsequent academic success have little correlation (May & Bartlett, 1995; Phillips, 1988) as there are a number of other factors determining student success, for example "country of origin, first language, areas of specialisation, and attitudes to learning" (May & Bartlett, 1995, p. 2). There are also other factors which influence students' language proficiency such as confidence and self-esteem. Phillips (1988) concludes that students with poor language but with a positive environment were more likely to be successful than those with good language but a negative environment.

Even if a language score such as one determined by IELTS were to provide some indication of possible performance, universities do not always adhere to their own requirements. For example "only 17% of [UK] institutions which lay down a particular standard of language proficiency for their international students are thought by our respondents to stick rigidly to that standard" (Cowrie & Addison, 1996, p. 230). This is also the case in Australia where some courses have agreed to accept significantly lower IELTS scores than the general university score. Healy (1997) reported in 1997 that it was recommended by the Council of Australian Postgraduate Associations that universities should set stricter English-literacy standards for overseas postgraduate students. The Association suggested that the "apparent fall in literacy standards

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7   The minimum IELTS score required for entry to The University of Adelaide is an average of 6.0, although there is one course which accepts students with an average of 5.5 and a higher level of proficiency required for some courses, e.g. Law.

was being picked up by employers in their home countries" (p. 17). As a result it was recommended that students should not be accepted for postgraduate study unless the university was prepared to provide intensive language support.

Having said that, while language support for students is important, the type of support is critical:

> It is an important function of English language support units to make explicit the hidden expectations of British academia, in order to allow international students to function as effectively as possible in their new academic surroundings. (Cowrie & Addison, 1996, p. 222)

Cargill (1996) in her article on the Integrated Bridging Program describes a program established at the University of Adelaide to support international postgraduate students. The aim of the program is to offer language-based support which is integrated within the student's discipline of study. In this case language is taken to include the aspects of structure, presentation, genre, discourse and referencing relevant to the student's postgraduate work. This program is far more sophisticated than simply trying to improve students' English. Evaluations of the Program indicate that students and their supervisors appreciate the breadth of the program.

In the next part of this chapter specific issues related to English language will be discussed under the following headings:

- Speaking and Listening which are under greatest pressure in the first three months (especially with the Australian accent and the use of slang);
- Reading—both linguistically and culturally;
- Writing—again, both linguistically and culturally.

Speaking and Listening

While the length of time in Australia seems to correlate with improvement in listening skills, there appears to be far less of a correlation between the length of time in-country and speaking skills. It appears likely that there are a range of other factors affecting the development of speaking skills (Bradley & Bradley, 1984) particularly as:

> The experience of the British Council is that, while the speed of learning varies from person to person, students need between 100 and 260 hours of study to improve their International English Language Testing Service [System] (IELTS) score by 0.5. (Cowrie & Addison, 1996, pp. 223-224)

Given the earlier references to contact with host-nationals as a means of learning the 'cultural tricks of the trade' it is clear that facility with spoken English is very important. In addition, Furnham and Bochner (1986), Furnham and Alibhai (1985), Jaspars and Hewstone (1982) and Nesdale and Todd (1993) all argue that friendships with host-nationals assist in reducing prejudice. For example, Jaspars and Hewstone (1982) argue that to reduce prejudice five conditions must be met. Firstly the members must be either equal status or the interaction must be between majority group and higher status minority group. Secondly the social climate or an authority figure must support and promote interaction. The third condition is that relationships between host national and sojourner are intimate rather than casual. Fourthly the interaction is pleasant/rewarding and finally the involvement revolves round a common task (p. 128). For students experiencing difficulty speaking in English some of these conditions will not be met.

In addition to speaking in social situations, in the academic environment students can have at least two problems when speaking in groups 1) the actual language and 2) their belief in whether it is a 'good' (virtuous) thing to do or not (Ballard & Clanchy, 1997, p. 67).

> While students knew that they were expected to express their own opinions; this form of behaviour was not expected in their home culture. They also felt they did not have the English competence to knowledge [*sic*] about how to participate actively in tutorials. (Hasanah, 1997, p. 83)

For example, many students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study expressed considerable distress when in groups, for example tutorials or seminars. On the one hand they found the discussion seemed to progress at such a rate that there never seemed to be a chance to 'jump in' and say something, particularly when they needed that additional split second to translate the discussion and formulate a comment. On the other hand some students reported that they thought Australian students spoke for the sake of speaking. Chapters 7 and 8 highlight the issues of speaking and listening for the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study.

Writing

Writing is one area of concern identified in a number of studies (Ballard & Clanchy, 1997; Barker, 1990; Cadman, 1997; Chappel, Gray, Head & O'Reagan, 1993; Goold, 1989; Hancock & Mullins, 1991; Kennedy, 1995) and particularly by students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study. While students had some sense of their writing improving over time, when it came to the

final stages of writing their PhD or Masters thesis, most still experienced considerable difficulty. There appear to be three quite distinct issues here. The first is writing in a grammatically correct manner. The second relates to the overall structure of the piece of written work and the third is writing in a critical, argued manner.

It is possible that students may not have a tradition of writing a great deal in the sense of an argued essay. Many Indonesian students, although they are likely to have had great deal of practice in taking many notes and making summaries, "had not written essays at all before coming to Australia; others had only written short ones, and had trouble with the longer and more frequent essays needed here" (Bradley & Bradley, 1984, p. 285). Certainly is would not be unusual to find Indonesian students who during their undergraduate years would not have had the experiences with writing that provided them with ideal skills for postgraduate work in Australia. As Rina in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study commented:

> It's different not only because I have to read English but because the pattern is different, just like in Indonesia the essay is just like you know, you can, you can write lot, anything you want just like the pattern is not so rigid, and the pattern is not so clear, just like you know you can [go] around and around and around and....yeah. Here is much more structured and much more, you know, to the point. So that when here...the student need [to write an] essay it's a certain number of words, the lecturer limited the essay by the number of words just like 6,000, 3,000 or whatever but in Indonesia generally...the lecturer never limited the essay by the number of words so just like you know when I was teaching I said to the student please do this essay at least ten or 15 pages, yet sometime student just do four pages or the other is 15 pages or whatever. And it give me headache. (Rina4: 60-73)

Given their lack of previous essay writing experience, Cadman (1997) suggests that:

> Non English speaking background students can quite quickly learn to recognize the genre landmarks of English and patterns of structural organization, and can often grasp their significance successfully. Their own writing by contrast, may 'improve' very slowly, still often remaining to their department's eyes derivative and uninspiring. (pp. 46-47)

Of particular significance and difficulty for virtually all the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study in the initial stages of candidature was the critical approach to reading and writing required in Australia compared with Indonesia. Critical thinking can be described as being able "to present, both orally and in writing, an argument which leads persuasively to a conclusion derived from...critical analysis" (Ballard & Clanchy, 1988, p. 12). There are two aspects to this

difficulty with being critical. The first is feeling in a position to actually criticise another person, organisation or program. The other is the critical approach to researching and writing which has become such an integral part of Western academic life:

> There is an expectation in Australian universities that students will not simply accept what they are told but question it and examine in [*sic*] critically, and this was something that all the Flinders [University] students had to get used to. In Indonesia, some people find it quite rude to be criticising others—not quite rude, very rude. (Donaghy, 1994, pp. 11-12)

Not only do students suggest difficulty with expressing views that are 'critical' of someone else, but the whole style of writing previously adopted by the students encourages a more circumspect and less analytical style. This view was supported by three other studies of Indonesian students in South Australia, (Donaghy, 1994; Goold, 1989; Hasanah, 1997). The experiences of being critical for students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study are detailed in Chapter 8.

Reading

As outlined earlier, reading for Indonesian students is not always as difficult as it might be for some other international students as many of the texts, particularly in certain disciplines, are only available in English at Indonesian universities. However, as with writing, many international students, including Indonesian students, have difficulty in reading critically (Ballard & Clanchy, 1997; Grabe, 1995; Parry, 1996). "The reason for this [plenty of reading but little critical comparison] is not, in most cases, an incapacity for critical reading but a simple failure to understand what was expected of them" (Ballard & Clanchy, 1997, p. 72).

This more general approach to reading can also pose real difficulties for students who feel they have to 'read everything.' Learning the various strategies that are not only efficient and effective but also culturally appropriate can be very time consuming and difficult for overseas students (and many local students). It is "the ability to use appropriate reading strategies and knowing when to use them and in what conditions, depending on different purposes and tasks" (Grabe, 1995, p. 45) which students need to develop to cope with the requirements of study in a culture other than their own.

Academic/Educational Experiences

Western Approaches to Learning

Early studies suggested that some South-east Asian students had inherent difficulties with learning in a Western educational environment for example Ballard (1989), Ballard & Clanchy (1988), Bradley & Bradley (1984) Burke (1989) and Samuelowicz (1987). These studies argued that students' prior experiences, conceptions of learning and knowledge, learning processes and language pose difficulties for students operating in a different learning culture. In terms of this study there are two dimensions to this difference, a Western learning environment and a postgraduate learning environment. Resulting from some of the early literature a number of stereotypes of South-east Asian learners have developed although some recent work strongly questions a number of these views (Biggs, 1989; Biggs, 1997; Biggs, 1998; Biggs & Moore, 1993; Chalmers, 1994; Chalmers & Volet, 1997; Kember & Gow, 1991; Mohamed, 1997; Renshaw & Volet, 1995; Volet et al., 1992; Watkins, Regmi & Astilla, 1991).

Four particular issues are questioned and discussed with regard to the co-called South-east Asian stereotype. These are that South-east Asian students are rote and surface learners; are passive, non-participants in class; lack analytical and critical skills; and do not easily to adjust to the academic environment (Chalmers & Volet, 1997). Each is discussed in turn.

With regard to rote and surface learning, there are two issues. The first is whether rote learning is also surface learning and the second is whether South-east Asians students are rote and surface learners. The confusion on the first issue seems to come from assuming that memorisation is the same as rote learning. Where students use memorising to support their understanding, or use repetition and refinement of concepts as a means of understanding, the learning activity could be described as repetitive or memorising, not rote learning. The activity of memorising with prior understanding indicates a deep or strategic approach to learning. On the other hand, where repetition is of facts, lists and such like isolated from an overall structure and a connective set of concepts, then the activity can be described as rote learning and the outcome is classified as surface learning (Bain, 1994; Biggs, 1990; Chalmers & Volet, 1997).

Whether South-east Asian students are in fact surface learners has been called into question by a number of studies, for example Chalmers and Volet (1997) Biggs (1997) and Volet et al.

(1992). These researchers suggest that South-east Asian students begin their study in Australia with a deep approach to their learning compared with local students who tend to adopt a more surface or strategic approach. However, due to the academic environment and assessment requirements, often within a semester the South-east Asian students are more closely reflecting the surface approach of the local students. Studies conducted in Indonesia also indicate that Indonesian students, particularly Javanese students, are more likely than Australian students to adopt a deep approach to their learning (Cannon, 1995; Meyer & Kiley, 1998).

With regard to the second 'stereotype', while South-east Asian students may *appear* to be passive, non-participants in class, as outlined earlier, at least for Indonesian students, this is not because they do not want to participate, but that they are still developing the skills to enable them to participate without undue embarrassment:

> Being quiet does not necessarily mean being mentally passive...[or it could relate to] students' beliefs of what is culturally appropriate when interacting with people of different status and other students and their concerns about use of language. (Chalmers & Volet, 1997, p. 90)

Indonesian, and particularly Javanese, students have a strong sense of when it is appropriate, or not to speak (see Appendix A). In Adelaide Indonesian students take time to learn the verbal and non-verbal cues to know when it is appropriate to 'join in' with a comment. Combine this with a sense of only speaking if one considers one has something worthwhile to contribute, it is little wonder that these students do not initially join the discussion.

The third stereotype, that is the matter of analytical and critical skills, is akin to the issue of students participating in class (Biggs & Moore, 1993; Chalmers & Volet, 1997; Donaghy, 1994; Hasanah, 1997). It is not that students do not understand that they are expected to be analytical and critical in Australian universities, but rather that they are yet to develop the skills. Certainly students interviewed in a number of studies, including the Adelaide Longitudinal Study realised the need to be critical and were keen to develop the skills. This topic is discussed in considerable detail in Chapter 8.

With regard to the final area in question, that South-east Asian students do not easily adjust to Australian learning context, Chalmers and Volet (1997) suggest that students adjust *strategically* to what is required of them, or as Biggs and Moore (1993) suggest:

[The students are]...continually monitoring the meaning of what others are saying, and being very careful about how one expresses oneself and checking others for signs of misunderstanding, an extremely metacognitive processes to have to do. Thus these students, at both secondary and tertiary levels and independently of country of origin, show more metacognitive awareness of their approaches to learning that do native English speakers, although their actual performance in likely to be inferior if tested in English. (pp. 317-318)

The reports from the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study will also demonstrate that while some might have initially appeared to conform to the stereotypes of the South-east Asian learner, this was certainly not the case for most by Phase Two.

Indonesian Students in Australia and their Reported Problems

In light of the general summary earlier in Table 1, some of issues specifically related to Indonesian students have been identified in Table 3. Barker (1990) and Moegiadi (1994) examine the Australian environment and Wimberley et al. (1992) the environment in the United States. As a result of, or despite, all the difficulties listed in Tables 1 and 3 Bradley and Bradley (1984) suggest that, in the main, survival is one of the most significant activities in which students engage. "As in the case of basic interaction, it is possible to learn gradually by living in Australia; but just surviving may take so much time that studies inevitably suffer" (p. 222).

Table 3.   Problems for Indonesian Students Studying Overseas

Barker (1990)	Moegiadi (1994)	Wimberley et al. (1992)
• Use of language although suggests that many problems may be of degree rather than kind.	• English language—need for better bridging programs.	• Disliked overt competition in classroom.
• Cultural issues including gender, occupation, age and communication.	• Effectiveness of short-term training.	• Difficulty with problem solving (compared with expository papers).
• Educational concerns—study skills, learning styles, ways of presenting ideas.	• Delays in certificates—revisions etc	• Confused by the US norms of plagiarism.
• Difficulty understanding formal communication (language).	• Changes in supervision.	• Difficulty with the transition to being a student in US.
• Problems with expressing opinion (language).	• Teaching of Bahasa Indonesia in Australia (not the same as Malaysian).	• Confused by registration procedures.
	• Some universities, schools etc charge fees for children of overseas students to attend.	• Not accustomed to having to complete assignments outside class time.

Learning at the Postgraduate Level

Much of the research related to student learning at the tertiary level in Western education systems has been focused on four areas, *undergraduate students* for example (Bain, 1994; Biggs & Moore, 1993; Entwistle, 1991; Marton, Dall'alba & Beatty, 1991; Meyer & Sass, 1993; Nulty & Barrett, 1996; Taylor, 1997) or *adult-education classes* for example (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Cross, 1981; Knox, 1977; Kolb, 1993; Squires, 1993; Tennant & Pogson, 1995; Thorpe, Edwards & Hanson, 1993) or *workplace training* (Kirby, Knapper & Carty, n.d.); and *mature-age learners* (Richardson, 1994; Richardson, 1995; Richardson, 1998).[8] There is, however, only a small body of literature developing with a specific focus on postgraduate student learning (Cliff, 1996; Cliff, 1997; Hasanah, 1997; Meyer & Kiley 1998; Wisker, 1999). The question of whether postgraduate students learn in the same way as undergraduates is only just being addressed. Early indications are that there may be differences due to maturity, motivation and context—particularly the relationship with a supervisor—but the answers are unclear. This current study is the precursor of further research related specifically to postgraduate student learning.

A Quality Postgraduate Experience for Student and Supervisor[9]

Considerable focus has been given in the literature to the individual relationship between the postgraduate students and their supervisors (Ballard & Clanchy, 1997; Channell, 1990; Connell, 1985; Elsey, 1990; Moses, 1985; Phillips, 1994; Phillips & Pugh, 1987; Russell, 1996; Salmon, 1992; Yeatman, 1995). Despite significant work at some universities to train and develop supervisory skills in staff, surveys of postgraduate students—either during candidature or on exit—indicate that there is a consistent percentage of students who are dissatisfied with their supervision (Armitage, 1997; Chipman, 1998; King, 1997; Powles, 1988).

Student dissatisfaction can be categorised into four main areas: personality factors, professional factors, organisational factors, and facilities and administrative factors (Moses, 1985, p.4). Two

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[8] For example, Richardson (1994) suggests that one might expect that mature learners are more likely to adopt a 'deep approach' to learning compared with younger students and Entwistle and Ramsden (1983) suggests that "one of the main characteristics of people who have either had an extended education or had taken up studying again in adulthood, was the recognition that there are different types of learning appropriate for different sorts of tasks" (p. 12).

[9] See Appendix B for contextual information about postgraduate education in Australia.

Australian studies on student satisfaction, one at the University of Sydney and another at the University of Queensland, were examined by Powles (1988). The studies reported responses from a total of 879 students (119 and 760 respectively) and Powles estimated that about 205 (23%) of all research students are seriously dissatisfied with supervision. This figure was generally higher in humanities and social science. A third study by Russell (1996) surveyed 39 students (31% of the total research enrolment in the Faculty of Education, Humanities, Law and Theology at Flinders University) and 29 supervisors (40% of the total in the Faculty). One of the research issues was related to the constraints students experienced. The main constraint reported by 49% of students was lack of support. Others involved lack of materials and lack of time and time management skills. Table 4 compares the main areas of student dissatisfaction proposed by Moses (1985), the studies reported by Powles (1988) and Russell (1996).

Table 4.   Main Areas of Student Dissatisfaction

Moses (1985)	Powles (1988)	Russell (1996)
• personality factors	• personality clash • sexual harassment	• lack of support (encompassing a wide range of support) • personal problems
• professional factors	• professional disagreement • conflict over authorship/ patents • plagiarism by supervisor • inadequate critical feedback	• lack of encouragement, pastoral care and reassurance from the supervisor
• organisational factors	• availability of supervisor	• time and time management
• facilities and administrative factors		• lack of material (literature, computers and primary sources) • unavailable literature • funding

Other studies identify the resolution of discrepancy between student and supervisor expectations as crucial to the postgraduate experience of all students, and in particular international students (Ballard & Clanchy, 1997; Barker, 1990; Channell, 1990; Delamont, Parry & Atkinson, 1998; Elliott & Aspland, 1994; McMichael, 1992). An understanding of overall student dissatisfaction is important in placing into context the dissatisfaction reported by students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study.

The student-supervisor relationship is a complex one where the teacher-learner relationship is emerging based on an adult-adult interactions compared with the earlier undergraduate experience of adult-youth. Tennant and Pogson (1995) suggest that:

> The ideal adult teacher-learner relationship is not something [that] emerges naturally from an adult teaching and learning situation. Issues of dominance, dependency and control are as urgent in adult education as they are in school-based education. (p. 171)

Choi (1997) in her study which reported on 47 Korean students studying in Victoria, Australia suggested that one of the reasons Korean students had difficulty in developing close relationships with their lecturers was the different understanding of the student-teacher relationship. She suggested that in Korea the relationship develops from instructor-learner to teacher-student with the relationship often becoming being quite deep where teachers can be regarded as parents in some cases and where teachers acknowledge their responsibility (p. 274).

One cause of dissatisfaction rests with the conflicting views of the role of a supervisor. For example, is the essential role of the supervisor 'to chase up' and 'to bully'[10] or is it to support someone going through a personal journey which is painful, risky, exciting? If a student is looking for someone to keep them on track and keep them working throughout their candidature they might be expecting the 'bully.' On the other hand, for the student expecting someone to travel the journey with them and support them though it, then they would be expecting the second option (Salmon, 1992).

Obviously, the choice of supervisor by the student, or student by the supervisor, is very important. Most international students have little or no choice of supervisor. For example, at the University of Adelaide the usual practice is for an application from an overseas student for postgraduate research to be received by the International Programs Office. This application is then sent to the relevant Head of Department who generally circulates it to staff asking for anyone interested to so indicate. Most supervisors take international students based on the paper work which accompanies their application and very little other knowledge. Examples of exceptions to this include visits by staff to various trade fairs or other marketing activities where

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[10] While the term 'bullying' might sound inappropriate a number of students and supervisors interviewed in the study reported that sometimes 'bullying' to keep them on track was just what some students needed (and wanted) at certain times of their candidature.

they meet potential students or perhaps academic visits where staff might work with potential students or their colleagues. Another example might be where a staff member has close professional ties with a government department as a result of discipline-specific interests and so, over time, meets and gets to know potential students. Having said that, in most cases supervisors are nominated prior to the student's arrival, each with little knowledge of the other.

On the other hand local students are in a position where they generally know their supervisor(s) prior to enrolling (perhaps through Honours or their undergraduate study), or by reputation, and the student is often known to the supervisor. This discrepancy between international and local students is only one of many which tend to discriminate against overseas students. One or two departments at the University of Adelaide have tried to overcome some of this discrimination by providing overseas students with the possibility of two or three supervisors with whom they are encouraged to work for several weeks each, before both parties make a decision. Issues of allocation/choice of supervisor are addressed in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study, particularly with regard to the supervisor's appreciation of the student's culture and background.

Despite the focus on the individual relationship between student and supervisor, and not denying the importance of this relationship, for the quality of supervision to improve there must be a greater focus on "how to develop institutional and departmental quality assurance processes rather than a focus on individual student/supervisor processes" (Mullins, 1997 p. 1). A department/faculty which takes responsibility for its postgraduate students will: provide induction for new graduate students, have a research seminar program where research can be presented to an interested audience, provide adequate access to help and advice on computing, statistical and language matters, and provide a stimulating and supportive environment for research (King, 1997, pp. 21-22).

Having said that the provision of a quality supervisory experience is the responsibility of departments/faculties, the relationship between student and supervisor remains one of crucial importance. The role of the supervisor and ideal characteristics are very difficult to generalise, particularly as they tend to vary across disciplines. Also the student's needs, and therefore ideal supervisory responses, vary during candidature (Connell, 1985; Hockey, 1996a; Kiley, 1993a; Kiley, 1993b; King, 1997; Lee & Green, 1995; O'Rourke, 1997). In addition, a recent study by

Kam (1997) explored the way in which students' role expectation of supervision interacted with the way supervisors choose to supervise. Kam's conclusion was that expectations do in fact influence practice and that "appropriate research supervision had no set prescription" (p. 101).

However, the elements of supervision have been described by O'Rourke (1997) as: person centred *and* task centred; an instructional process *and* situation specific; "an intervention process involving unequal power" (p. 30); a two-way relationship, that is "an arrangement established on an accountable basis with certain obligations on both parties. Seeman (1973) views this as an informal contract which is a powerful tool for developing interpersonal relationships" (p. 31); and nurturing. Given these elements the qualities required of a supervisor include academic expertise, empathy with a research culture, being a skilful teacher and communicator, and being a skilful observer of behaviour. The qualities required of a student are high motivation, single mindedness, persistence, commitment, intellectual curiosity, independent thinking, maturity and self confidence (O'Rourke, 1997, p. 32).

Table 5 compares the results of four Australian studies related to postgraduate students' and supervisors' views on supervisor characteristics. The study by King (1997) was undertaken at Monash University. O'Rourke's (1997) work was at the University of Western Sydney (Macarthur), and Kiley's two studies (1993a; 1993b) were in a science department and social science department at the University of Adelaide.

The desirable characteristics of a supervisor can be summarised in descending order of frequency, as:

- Has academic expertise and knowledge of the research area;
- Is a skilful teacher and communicator;
- Provides guidance on the conduct of research;
- Has time and makes self available for regular student consultation;
- Is committed to one's students and is prepared to 'fight' on their behalf and is enthusiastic about their projects;
- Is able to identify students' individual needs and meet them;
- Has empathy with the research culture and is respected as a researcher;
- Is patient.

Table 5.   Comparison of Supervisor Characteristics

King (1997, p. 19)	O'Rourke (1997, p. 31)	Kiley (1993a, pp. 15-16)[11] Science Department	Kiley (1993b, p. 22) Social Science Department
• Shows a good knowledge of research area.	• Academic expertise.	• Enthusiastic, interested in project. (• Approachable, interested in students.)[12]	• Respected for abilities. (• Recognises each student has different needs.)
• Provides appropriate guidance on the conduct of research.	• Empathy with a research culture.	• Approachable, good inter-personal skills. (• Patient.)	• Prepared to 'fight' on their students' behalf. (• Available.)
• Provides a clear picture of what is required to produce a successful PhD thesis.	• A skilful teacher and communicator.	• Intelligent, able to think through problems. Good knowledge. (• Good communicator.)	• Approachable, & good communicator. (• Familiar with and interested in topic.)
• Is available for consultations when needed.	• A skilful observer of behaviour.	• "Lets you make mistakes but brings you on track." (• Stands-by students.)	• Knowledge of research area. (• Cares about student as a person.)
• Reads work in good time & in before meetings.		• Meets regularly. (• Recognises students as individuals).	• Reliable, punctual. (• Is rigorous without being destructive.)
• Indicates how work might be improved.			
• Overall provides satisfactory supervision.			

Significantly, the whole supervisory process can be seen as a sophisticated learning/teaching activity. "Supervising a research degree is the most advanced level of teaching in our education system. It is certainly one of the most complex and problematic—as shown by the very high drop-out rate of students at this level" (Connell, 1985, p. 38).

Where students, supervisors and departments recognise the learning-teaching nature of candidature the notion of an induction program being the beginning and end of any 'teaching' ceases to be reasonable. Instead, supervision is seen to involve all the ramifications of curriculum, methodology, assessment and evaluation, including induction. Lee and Green (1995) suggested that PhD supervision needs to be taken more seriously as 'teaching' and that:

11 For both studies by Kiley (1993a and 1993b) the top five characteristics rated by students are provided first with the top five characteristics rated by supervisors provided in parentheses ( ).

12 All supervisors assumed good technical knowledge as a prerequisite for supervising.

Teaching as such remains a marginalised and devalued activity in the Academy, not withstanding recent emphases through CAUT[13] and other agencies on improving the quality and effectiveness of university teaching. (p. 2)

Shannon (1995) also suggests that "supervision clearly involves research, but I would claim that it also involves teaching: teaching of a special sort" (p. 14). The notion that PhD supervision involves teaching indicates that there are skills which can be taught and which many students need to learn in addition to the discipline-specific knowledge, attitudes and originality that are integral to the area of research. In a project offering training to faculty members regarding teaching international students Phillips (1994) found that 52% of 108 staff were having difficulty coping with international students, which he suggested stemmed from differences between teaching styles, assessment styles and learning styles. Kennedy (1995) in an effort to remedy some of these difficulties suggested that the Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee develop "curriculum standards for overseas students [which] would be a guarantee that the content, pedagogy and outcomes of curricula would meet their needs as individuals as well as the needs of the countries from which they come" (p. 40).

One integral component of teaching and supervision is feedback to students, or as it is more formally referred to in teaching circles, assessment. Assessment takes many forms and has many purposes. In postgraduate research in Australia the most common form during candidature is feedback on progress, that is formative assessment, with the only summative assessment coming at the end with the Examiners' Reports (Ballard, 1996; Elsey, 1990; Johnston & Broda, 1994; Kiley, 1996b; Phillips & Pugh, 1987).

During candidature students are learning and developing a range of research skills such as critical thinking, academic writing and experimental design. However, it is unlikely that students will receive direct, specific assessment of these skills, but rather written or oral comment as part of their overall progress. For students who are embarking on perhaps their most sustained period of work on a single project, constant feedback that they are progressing along the right track, albeit not necessarily a straight track, is essential for their work and well-being (Powles, 1988). The results of a small-scale study of assessment at the postgraduate level are reported by

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13   Committee for the Advancement of University Teaching, funded by the Commonwealth Government of Australia.

Kiley (1996) in Chapter 6. These results indicate that yet again there are quite distinctive discipline differences in the assessment strategies adopted. Nevertheless, Chapter 7 will demonstrate the crucial significance of feedback, particularly early in candidature, for students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study.

Student and Supervisor Availability

One particular area of ambiguity between student and supervisor relates to availability (Connell, 1985; Grigg, 1996; Noble, 1994; Powles, 1988; Russell, 1996). "The commonest complaint of PhD students is that they never get to talk with their supervisors. The commonest complaint of supervisors is that their PhD students never come to talk with them" (Connell, 1985, p. 40).

While some students, local and overseas, are attracted to prestigious supervisors, the more prestigious the supervisor, the more likely she/he is to be travelling or involved in matters which make availability to students a difficulty (Ballard & Clanchy, 1997; Powles, 1988). Having said that, there is some research to indicate that supervisor availability and adequacy of meetings are very subjective measures. For example, Grigg (1996) and Russell (1996) indicate that supervisors report that they meet with students more frequently than students report and that supervisors comment that they contribute more to the student's thinking and development of the thesis than students report. These results are understandable if one appreciates that students may well come with quite different expectations of their supervisor which, in most cases, the student will not have made known to the supervisor and vice versa. For example, if students come with an expectation of being able to meet with their supervisor perhaps weekly and that the supervisor will provide close and detailed advice regarding the steps to be taken and the supervisor has the expectation that the student will 'get on with it' and arrange a meeting only if there is a specific problem, then lack of congruence in reporting is a likely outcome.

Of course, frequency of contact is in itself not necessarily a measure of satisfactory or unsatisfactory supervision. Powles (1988) cites the results of a University of Queensland study where 64% (n=486) of students saw their supervisor at least once per month (or when required) and 86% were satisfied with this supervisory arrangement. Kam (1997) also concluded that regularity of meetings had:

Absolutely no effect on the quality of supervision, regardless of the level of dependency on all three dimensions [of the study]. However, the number of meetings in an academic year...as well as the length of each meeting,...and hence the total time of meeting in an academic years...do show some significant relationship with respect to all three factors [of the study]. These findings suggest that it is not the periodicity of meetings that counts, but the frequency and time of contact which matter. (p. 97)

However, what is of concern is that Australian Postgraduate Award (APA) Scholarship students report more frequent meetings with their supervisors than do Overseas Postgraduate Research Scholarship (OPRS) students (Grigg, 1996, p. 56). One might be able to argue that international students 'feel' that they do not meet frequently (at least frequently enough for their needs) and local students 'feel' that they meet frequently enough for their needs, hence the difference in (perceived) response rate. Be that as it may, if international students are not only expecting a situation which is not the case, and they are meeting less frequently than their local peers (or even feeling that they are) then dissatisfaction and concern are likely to be exacerbated.

A Supervisory Expectation Rating Scale (Kiley, 1998) has been adapted for use at the University of Adelaide (see Chapter 7) and was used with students and supervisors in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study. This scale has been used successfully by other student and supervisor pairs to identify areas where expectations about supervision, including meetings, can be shared and perhaps resolved.

Academic Support

The University of Adelaide has a Structured Program for its all its research students (Kiley & Liljegren, 1999) and an Integrated Bridging Program for International students (Cargill, 1996) both of which are generally undertaken within the first six months of Candidature.

The Structured Program comprises *Core* and *Directed Studies* activities which meet the discipline-specific needs of its students.

> Within the *Core*, which comprises the knowledge and skills for all research students, some of the specific areas which the *guidelines* suggest each Department should address included:
> - Introduction to the requirements and expectations for successful PhD research at the University.
> - Issues to be considered in the identification of a research topic and the structure and content of a research proposal.
> - Preliminary identification of research topics.

- Relevant departmental procedures.
- Introduction to University facilities to aid research.
- Exposure to research methodologies and technologies and the critical analytical skills required in the discipline.
- Skills needed to write and publish research papers and theses in the discipline.
- Techniques for effective seminar presentation and participation.

The *Directed Studies* component of the Structured Program provides opportunities for students and supervisors, in consultation, to determine specific knowledge and/or skills which the students need so that they can effectively conduct their proposed research. (Kiley & Liljegren, 1999, pp. 67-68)

For a number of overseas students, including Indonesian students, the need to audit or pass various undergraduate subjects would be part of a student's Directed Studies component of the Structured Program. The Integrated Bridging Program for International Postgraduate Students (IBP) is classified as a Directed Study for all international students.

> The IBP aims to show clearly what is expected of students in their Department in terms of: academic writing; oral presentation skills; and the Australian 'culture' of postgraduate study. Students in the IBP develop and practise their English language skills using the concepts and vocabulary of their own discipline area....Research students in the IBP do two core modules of 1.5 hours per week for 13 weeks, each leading to production of a research proposal and seminar. Additional short modules (optional) address particular needs of the group and individual consultations with staff are available. (Kiley & Liljegren, 1999, p. 68)

The Structured Program and IBP were introduced to the University within a year of each other and only just before the Adelaide Longitudinal Study was commenced. As a result, it is not surprising to note that many staff and students confused the two programs. It was common for staff to consider that because students were involved with the IBP, an intensive program provided by staff outside the department/faculty, that they were not required to ensure that the student was also provided with a Structured Program from within the department/faculty.

Administrative Experiences

Financial problems are often reported for international students (Burke, 1989; Everts & Sodjakusumah, 1996; Hawthorn Institute of Education, 1988; Mullins et al., 1995). For some, the worry over whether scholarship payments will arrive on time, or whether a scholarship will be extended to allow for completion, is such that it significantly affects their work. For many, the cost of living is much higher in Australia compared with their home country. The issue of finances for students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study was somewhat different, particularly in the first few years of the study prior to the Indonesian financial crisis in 1998. As Chapter 7 will

report, the majority of the students were financially more comfortable in Adelaide than they had been in Indonesia.

All students on scholarships are required to furnish regular reports to their funding body. These reports are generally prepared by their supervisor(s) and can, on occasion, be a cause of concern between student and supervisor(s) as the time for the report draws near. Indonesian students are also required to report to their local consular representative.

Students are also provided with a student visa when they come to Australia to study. The conditions on this visa require that the student must attend classes, engage in paid work for only a certain number of hours per week, and leave the country as soon as the study is completed. For research students candidature is considered to be completed as soon as the thesis is submitted, *not* when the examiners' reports are received and any revisions completed. One change to the visa policy was made some years ago following the Tienamien massacre in Beijing. Chinese students on student visas in Australia were able to apply to stay in Australia after their study if they sought asylum. While some groups of students have a fairly high rate of over-staying their visa (Chinese students in particular other than those above), Indonesian students have a very low rate of not returning at the completion of their study (Daroesman & Daroesman, 1992). This could perhaps be because many are on scholarship, because of their strong sense of duty—to family, institution and country (Meyer & Kiley, 1998)—and because of their desire to be with family and friends. The visa requirement has another component to it, and that is the pressure students feel under to complete their study in the time permitted on their visa. This pressure as the students reported it in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study will be discussed in detail in Chapters 8, 9 and 10.

Student support services, other than language services, are generally not extensively used by international students compared with local students. (Everts & Sodjakusumah, 1996; Hasanah, 1997; Kennedy, 1995; Kinnell, 1990; Mullins & Hancock, 1995; Quintrell & Westwood, 1994). One of the main reasons proposed for the relatively low use of services is that many had trouble identifying where to go for help.

Summary of Early Experiences

As the previous discussion indicates there is considerable literature related to some aspects of international students' experiences in Australia. It was suggested, however, that most of the literature related to postgraduate education focussed on the student-supervisor relationship and issues related to dissatisfaction, with very little available on postgraduate student learning. Further it was argued that most of the literature on international students focussed on undergraduate students with problems and in the first two phases of their sojourn in Australia. The next section will demonstrate that there is limited research that assists in the understandings of students in Phase Three

Later Experiences (Phase Three)

It was proposed at the beginning of this chapter that there was little in the literature that described the third phase argued in this study, that is students' change in the way they view their study as part of life and the shift in expectation about returning home and how they view this change. There is research, however, on reverse culture shock (Berry, 1994; Draine & Hall, 1986; Hickson, 1994; Oberg, 1960; Polita, 1990) which indicates that returning home, for some people, can be as stressful as the initial move. Hickson (1994) describes her own experience in an article on culture shock. Prior to moving from the United States to South Africa she went to great pains to prepare for the anticipated culture shock and apparently the move went relatively smoothly. However, her return to the United States was anything but smooth:

> It never occurred to me that my expectation concerning my return home would not be met...I now realise that the adjustments I had to make in order to live in South Africa left me a *changed* person. Now certain other adjustments have to be made in order to function in my original society. (p. 255)

To demonstrate the return home, what is generally called the 'W Curve,' an extended version of the 'U Curve', is used. The 'W Curve' takes into account adjustment on return home. AusAID[14] and the Indonesia Australia Language Foundation[15] (IALF), where many of the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study had spent some time with pre-departure English

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14 Australian Agency for International Development (AusAID). This name was changed from Australian International Development Assistance Bureau (AIDAB) during the study. The terms used through the study will reflect the source and/or the chronological stage where appropriate.

15 Note that the correct term is 'Indonesia Australia' not 'Indonesian Australian'.

language training, use the 'W Curve' to prepare students for what was likely to occur on arrival and then on return[16]. One of the main reasons for experiencing culture shock on re-entry is that "While sojourners expect to be members of the out-group or minority in the foreign country, they expect to feel at ease and accepted members of the in-group when re-entering the home environment" (Polita, 1990, p. 86). As a result, having returned to a changed environment, and where they had changed while they were away, returnees are likely to feel as if they are strangers in their own country, when they were anticipating that all would be 'right', once they returned. Fifty Indonesian returnees from studying in Australia were interviewed as part of this study and, as reported in Chapter 9, most of them commented on degrees of reverse culture-shock, particularly for their children.

What is available about Phase Three for students can be extrapolated from the literature that traces students on their return home. Three particular studies for Indonesian students are useful, Daroesman and Daroesman (1992), Gardner and Hirst (1990), and Goold (1989).

Daroesman and Daroesman (1992) in *Degrees of success: A tracer study of Australian Government sponsored Indonesian fellowships 1970-1989* reported a tracer study funded by AIDAB and IDP in 1991. The purpose of their study was to evaluate the success or otherwise of the Australian Government's Fellowship Program from 1970 to 1989. The study drew an interview sample of approximately 18% of the identifiable data base resulting in 251 postgraduates(p. 9).[17] The findings of their study were, to say the least, disappointing from the point of view of the Australian and Indonesian Governments. Individuals reported personal benefits from their study in Australia, for example, increased confidence, increased income, longer working hours (being equated with being more efficient), increased time management skills and punctuality and enhanced use of facilities. However, despite the Australian Government's rhetoric (Jackson, 1984) it was obvious from the study that where there were only a few returning students at any one institution and there was little evidence of the institutional

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16 Bunari who was the student reported earlier who thought that culture shock only occurred when moving from east to west was one of the few students who had not studied English at the IALF.
17 The authors discovered very quickly that there was no single source of data about the number of Fellowships offered to Indonesians over a twenty year period and estimates ranged from 4,500 to 10,000. However, they determined that approximately 1,200 to 1,500 of the total of approximately 3,000 Fellowships awarded were for postgraduate study.

strengthening and enhancement that had been one of the major aims of the fellowship program (see Appendix C). Few of the interviewees were able to comment on any 'critical mass' effect in improving their institution. It was rare for government staff or university teachers to be immediately re-absorbed into their work on return home and it was common for them to return to work with little or no notice. Few of the returnees had kept in contact with Australians, other than in some cases their supervisor, reverse culture shock was particularly high and there was little mutual assistance of returnees once back in Indonesia. Examples of this sense of isolation and lack of support experienced by participants in the Returnee Study are provided in Chapter 9.

Among the sample of 251, 10% had not received their award parchment (not including those who had not completed or withdrawn) and it was common for returnees to comment on feelings of isolation and lack of interest by the aid agency and their Australian institution. The sample included people who spent up to four years or more studying in Australia, yet it is clear that there is little expectation of systemic support and development, but rather individuals were left to rely on themselves.

Gardener and Hirst (1990) in *Returning home after studying in Australia: The experiences of Malaysian, Indonesian and Hong Kong students* reported a smaller-scale study that traced students who had graduated from the University of New South Wales from 1984 to 1987. This study included undergraduate and postgraduate students and private as well as sponsored students. The differences between private and government sponsored students are illustrated in the finding that while 90% of the private students reported that their training was in constant use, only 78% of sponsored students reported this. Ninety-four percent of the total reported that their English language training had been particularly helpful, yet 30.8% reported that they felt they had been discriminated against by local employers by having been overseas for study. As with the Daroesmans' study, students reported a high need for support on returning home. For those who had that support, and certainly not all did, it came mainly from family and friends. Again there was little indication of institutional or systemic support from either Australia or Indonesia and a re-entry program for returnees was strongly recommended.

Goold (1989) in *The return home: A tracer study of Australian trained Indonesian women,* reported the experiences of 30 Indonesian female graduates from Flinders University in South

Australia. In this study Goold attempted to examine the problems encountered by the women while in Australia and how their experiences related to education and values in Indonesian society. The women reported that individual benefits included: increased knowledge and skill (100%); better career opportunities (70%); promotion on return (60%); cross-cultural experience (47%); and the opportunity to travel overseas (43%). Perceived benefits to the country arising from the women's study abroad were reported by a significantly lower percentage of the women and included: the opportunity to pass on knowledge (53%); being better qualified for their work (50%); and improving the existing standards of work (23%). Few of them reported being able to implement change in their work-place with the main reasons being lack of technical information, limited budget, resistance by senior staff and resistance by younger staff. Also the classification and promotion system adopted in the Indonesian civil service mitigates against change being made, particularly by more junior members of staff. Again we can see that the benefits of study in Australia focus more on individual benefits rather than institutional or systemic ones.

The results of the Adelaide Longitudinal Study being reported will indicate that toward the end of their sojourn in Australia, students' thoughts turn to what is awaiting them on return. Most were excited at the prospect of seeing family and friends having been away from their workplace long enough to perhaps overlook, minimise or forget many of the difficulties that are inherent in their work situation. However, as Chapter 9 will demonstrate there is considerable reinforcement of the outcomes noted above.

Chapter Summary

It has been argued in this chapter that while there is considerable research to support the concept of Phase One in an Indonesian student's sojourn in Australia, there is significantly less related to Phases Two and Three.

The discussion of previous research was categorised under cultural, language, academic and administrative experiences. For Phase One cultural experiences were seen to be strongly related to culture shock and its antidote, culture learning (Bochner, 1972). While it was suggested that students adjusted to their new environment within the first 12 months one of the factors assisting this adjustment was language proficiency. This factor will prove to be an important one when

discussing the Adelaide Longitudinal Study. Linked with culture shock was the discussion of homesickness, another Phase One phenomenon, which it was argued was experienced to a lesser degree by students who had travelled away from family one prior occasions. Be that as it may, homesickness and culture shock were argued to contribute to stress and anxiety in students, particularly during Phase One. This stress and anxiety was not only caused by being away from family and friends but the very resources generally available to assist in overcoming stress and anxiety, that is family and friends, were not available at this crucial time.

The literature regarding racism was also addressed under the heading of cultural and personal issues and covers both Phases One and Two. Of particular concern was the figure of between 40% to 54% of students reporting racism with seven to ten percent experiencing racism as a serious problem. As the Adelaide Longitudinal Study will indicate there was considerable support for these finding within the small cohort of 33 students.

Culture, of course, is more than culture shock and the effects of culture were clearly seen in the literature related to language and learning. Students' ability to participate in groups and to write in a manner proposed by their supervisor was seen as being very strongly based in prior cultural experiences. While listening, speaking and writing were of particular concern in Phase One, writing, it was argued, continued as a problem into Phases Two and Three.

While there is a growing body of research to call into question the South-east Asian learner stereotype, particularly with regard to rote learning and non-participation in groups, there was little in the way of research specifically related to Indonesian students. The study being reported here is a contribution to a better understanding of Indonesian and postgraduate student learning.

The student-supervisor relationship was discussed under the heading of academic issues, particularly with regard to the clarification of expectations in Phase One. Supervisor availability, it was suggested, remained an issue for some into Phase Two. The significance of expectation and expectation ambiguity will be developed in Chapter 3 and noted throughout the Adelaide Longitudinal Study.

Discussion of the experiences of Phase Three was limited by the relatively small amount of research published on this topic. While reverse culture shock is quite well documented the

support for students experiencing reverse culture shock was limited. The main studies related to students returning home after study, that is, Daroesman and Daroesman (1992), Gardner and Hirst (1990), and Goold (1989), were also limited in that they spoke about returnees experiences in Indonesia but there was little in the way of discussion about students' last few months in Australia or their changing expectations of returning home. The results of the Adelaide Longitudinal Study go some way to redress the lack of research about this third phase of the students' sojourn and to provide additional insights into Phases One and Two.

CHAPTER 3 STUDENTS' EXPECTATIONS

Introduction

It is proposed in Chapter 3 that students arrive in Australia highly motivated (Andressen, 1993; Andressen & Keichi, 1996; Biggs, 1989; Biggs, 1997; Cannon, 1995; Gatfield & Gatfield, 1994; Nasoetion, 1992) to undertake their study. This is in part due to expectations[1] they have developed about how the successful achievement of their award will assist in fulfilling the important academic, personal and career goals. As the literature, and the Adelaide Longitudinal Study suggest, shortly after arrival these expectations of goals being achieved are often seriously undermined by initial experiences resulting in strong feelings of anxiety and stress. These feelings remain until students can re-build their expectations and gain a new sense of confidence about achieving their goals. As the literature, discussed later in this chapter, and the results of the Adelaide Longitudinal Study, will show, the degrees of anxiety and stress are dependent on a number of factors. These include: the expectations students have of themselves and of their supervisors and the role they will play during candidature; feedback on progress; whether students attribute success or failure to internal or external factors; students' approaches to learning and beliefs about what constitutes learning; and the spoken and unspoken responses supervisors make to students in terms of supervisors' early perceptions about students' ability to successfully complete their degree.

The mismatch that occurs between expectation and experience is usually exacerbated by the fact that on both sides many, if not most, of the expectations, are implicit rather than explicit. In fact often neither party is actually aware of holding expectations, thereby leading to additional ambiguity and misunderstanding. In addition, universities as institutions often have different expectations of the service that they can/should offer overseas students compared with what students can/should expect in terms of resources, support, administration and the ability of the university to meet the students' academic requirements.

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[1] The Macquarie Concise Dictionary (Delbridge & Bernard, 1988) provides the following definition of expectation...n. 1. the act of expecting. 2. the state of expecting: wait in expectation. 3. the state of being expected. 4. an expectant mental attitude. 5. something expected; a thing looked forward to. 6. (oft. pl.) a prospect of future good or profit: to have great expectations. 7. the degree of probability of the occurrence of something. (p. 329)

Phrases such as "That's not what I expected!", and "I thought that you were going to..." are not uncommon in the supervisory relationship (whether they be explicit or implicit) and the literature on expectation[2] provides insight into this key feature of the study. Chapter 2 presented evidence that international students do experience problems, at least in their first six months or so, although a number of these problems diminish over time. In much of the literature these problems have been explained as being due to language difficulties (Barker, Child, Gallois, Jones & Callan, 1991; Samuelowicz, 1987); culture shock (Barker, 1990; Berry, 1994; Bochner, 1994); or differences in learning style (Ballard, 1989; Phillips, 1994; Zubir, 1988). In this chapter, however, it will be suggested that one of the reasons behind many of these difficulties is the expectation gap. That is, the ambiguity between students and supervisors and their expectations or the ambiguity between the institution' policies and practices and overseas students' expectations.

Ambiguity of Expectation

Both students and supervisors start a period of postgraduate research study together having numerous and diverse expectations of each other. While these expectations have a superficial similarity at the general level, it is highly unlikely that these expectations will be sufficiently similar for all students and supervisors for them to be able to construct realistically a single supervisor's role. Indeed, it is these differences in expectations for each individual and for each project that are likely to be most important in determining whether or not the supervision is seen as satisfactory for the student and for that matter, whether or not the student's performance is seen as satisfactory by the supervisor. (Walford, 1981, p. 48 cited in (Powles, 1988, p. 40)

Ambiguity of expectation can lead to unhelpful or even dysfunctional behaviour such as wishful thinking and anticipatory face-saving which may increase to the extent that they distort one's perception of the probability of success (Jones, 1977, p. 149). This problem of differing

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2   The term 'expectation' is very closely aligned with the word 'hope' and tends to refer to positive outcomes (Le Pan, 1989) and in *Bahasa Indonesia*[2] for example, expect and hope have the same root word, *harap*. The verb is constructed with *meng-kan*, leading to *mengharapkan*, **1.** to hope for something, **2.** expect, **3.** with the approach of. With the addition of *-an*, one has *harapan* **1.** hope, **2.** expectation and then with *peng-an*, there is *pengharapan* meaning **1.** hope, **2.** placing one's hopes, reliance, expectation (Echols & Shadily, 1989, p. 205). Therefore, we can conclude that in *Bahasa Indonesia*, the *lingua franca* of the students in the study, 'expect' and 'expectation' are akin to hope and "Hope can...be regarded as a shorthand term of an expectation about goal attainment" (Stotland, 1969, p. 2). As a researcher it has been necessary for me to be aware of the probability that the Indonesian students in this study were likely to understand questions such as "Is this how you *expected* living/studying in Adelaide to be?" as "Is this how you *hoped* living/studying in Adelaide to be?" Certainly when I asked the students in the study to talk about the verbs 'to hope' and 'to expect' they commented that to them the two words meant the same.

expectations is exacerbated when students come from different cultures and different educational environments from their supervisor and peers.

In order to handle this ambiguity, students call upon different resources. Some students are likely to be more resourceful than others and can be classified as 'high resource' students, with the others classified as 'low resource' students. 'High resource' students are more likely to be helped by others than are 'low resource' students (Edmond, 1992). Hence, some students will take action through other students, advisers or even directly with their supervisor in an effort to overcome any lack of clarity of expectation. Other, less resourceful students, are likely to become more and more anxious, less and less able to act, and less and less likely to receive help.

Stress and Anxiety arising from Expectation Ambiguity

Expectancy-value theory (Darley & Olsen, 1993; Feather, 1982; Jones, 1977; Murphy Berman & Sharma, 1986; Stotland, 1969; Weiner, 1986) argues that the level or intensity of one's expectation of achieving one's goals relates directly to the value or anticipated benefit of their achievement. "The concepts of expectation and perceived value that we use are framed at the level of subjective reality and is what is held to be important for understanding a person's behaviour" (Feather, 1982, p. 398). In addition, motivation to achieve is positively linked to the "perceived probability of attaining the goal and of the perceived importance of the goal" (Stotland, 1969, p. 7).

As suggested earlier international students tend to be very highly motivated particularly as the expected outcome is generally highly valued (see Appendix A). Biggs and Moore (1993) suggest that there are four main types of motivation. *Extrinsic motivation* arises from the thoughts of rewards and/or punishment. For example it might be the anticipation of promotion and increased income on return for students in this study. *Social motivation* is that which comes from relying on the views and opinions of others. *Achievement motivation* is the student's own sense of pride in achievement, for example, the sense of having completed a postgraduate degree and having done so in a foreign country (see Appendix B). The fourth form of motivation is *intrinsic motivation* that reflects a desire to achieve for its own sake. The motivation of students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study is outlined in Chapter 7. These motivations were strong enough to cause students to leave family for anything up to four years while they gained an

overseas qualification. It will be noted, however, soon after commencement of candidature students are forced to come to terms with experiences that do not always accord with their expectations.

While expectation can be positive, anxiety can build up and even become extreme if one perceives, through current or past experience, a lessening of one's expected ability to achieve the goal or if the goal itself is increased or barriers to achievement heightened. For example, despite strongly desiring a goal, one's life-time of experience might indicate that its achievement is highly unlikely. Another example would be the sudden imposition of a shorter timeline for completion or lessening of funds, thereby increasing obstacles to successful attainment of the goal. Anxiety can also increase when 'action' is lessened, that is, if the person is confined or unable to take action. For example, if one is taken ill. However, students' goals and their anticipation of achieving those goals are very influential in their academic performance. Therefore, in this current study it could be anticipated that the value or intensity that students placed on successful (or unsuccessful) outcomes of their study in Australia would have a significant effect on their experiences during candidature and the congruence of these experiences with expectation.

In addition, it is argued that an understanding of anxiety and possible coping measures are likely to assist students take action with a subsequent increase in self-confidence and ability to cope:

> The international student who lacks this information and understanding [about anxiety, stress and culture] attributes the difficulties experienced to personal failings or weaknesses and therefore hides the shame so thus becoming increasingly isolated and vulnerable. (Edmond, 1992, p. 8)

Examples of anxiety can be seen with the student group in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study. When suddenly asked by a supervisor to rewrite a section of a thesis when the student only has a matter of weeks left on a visa, or when illness or family commitments mean that a student is unable to study for a period of time, significant levels of anxiety develop. Students also experienced considerable anxiety when they were not sure what it was they were supposed to be doing or what it was their supervisor expected of them. In these cases students often worked harder and harder to meet what they considered should be the expectations, even if they were not, in fact, what the supervisor really expected.

To summarise, the greater the desire of attaining the goal the more likely is the individual to act to attain the goal, give more thought to how to attain the goal, and give more selective attention to aspects of the environment relevant to attaining the goal. In addition, the more important the goal, the more likely the individual is to attend selectively to aspects of the environment relevant to attaining it, engage in more overt action to attain it, and give more thought to how to attain it (Stotland, 1969, p. 17). On the other hand, the perception that one might not achieve the goals set can lead to considerable levels of anxiety.

Postgraduate Students and Expectation

Postgraduate students generally are older than undergraduates—the mean age of students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study was 32 years. Postgraduate students are frequently married and have children, they have been in the work force for up to 15 years and they have already had experience of studying at university. Postgraduate students, due to age and experiences, are also likely to have had greater knowledge of the cultural, social and political life in which they have been working, studying and living. Postgraduates, particularly older students such as the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study, also have very high levels of motivation as described earlier. The work of Richardson (1994; 1995; and 1998) indicates that older students are more likely than younger ones to adopt a deep approach to their learning, particularly as a result of their previous learning experiences. However, while the section on postgraduate learning in Chapter 2 suggested, specific work in postgraduate students' approaches and conceptions of learning is very limited it is a reasonable assumption that students undertaking postgraduate study are likely to have had successful positive experiences as undergraduates.

Unlike undergraduate education, the postgraduate experience is very closely linked with the supervisory relationship. As an undergraduate it is possible, albeit not necessarily desirable, to graduate without ever having had more than a passing relationship with one or two of the university lecturing and tutoring staff. For a postgraduate research student the supervisor is central to the experience, an experience that can be very rewarding, or very traumatic for both parties, and can influence student learning and development in ways that are generally rare at the undergraduate level.

In other words, postgraduate students are likely to have qualitatively different expectations from undergraduates which, when combined with cultural, social and political experiences, as in the case of the Indonesian students, can result in specific and different expectations developing.

Expectations of International and Indonesian Postgraduate Students

One of the few studies of postgraduate international students expectations is a British one by Elsey (1990). While it can be argued that the mix of international students in Britain in the late 1980s would be different from the mix of international students in Australia in the late 1990s (Opper, Teichler & Carlson, 1990) the hopes and fears of the students surveyed indicate strong similarities with those interviewed in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study and the supporting Pre-departure Study (see Chapters 5 and 6). Elsey's study involved 204 students at Nottingham University and 354 at Loughborough University who had recently arrived from outside Britain, to undertake their courses.

In South Australia a study by Chappel, Gray, Head & O'Reagan (1993), which was largely based on the study by Elsey, involved 23 undergraduate Malaysian and Indonesian students. Despite the similarity in nationality with the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study, the fact that these were undergraduate and not postgraduate students was clear from their responses. For example the main hopes of students in the British study were: acquisition of knowledge; academic qualifications; development of English skills; making the most of the opportunity; developing skills, approaches; and updating specialised knowledge, all similar to the Adelaide Longitudinal Study. For the Chappel et al. study, on the other hand, the main hopes were: good grades/certificate; finishing course on time; having enough time to socialise; better job and higher salary on completion of study and travel round Australia. However, the fears for the three groups of students (Elsey, Chappel et al. and the Adelaide Longitudinal Study) were strikingly similar. That is, failure; language difficulties; inadequate knowledge; coping with teaching and learning; exams; and communication with lecturers/supervisors. These fears were not dissimilar to those of local students which is in accord with the findings of Mullins, Quintrell and Hancock (1995) who found that differences between local and overseas students were generally more a matter of degree than of type.

Where the expectations/hopes of students were met and their fears overcome they were generally successful in their studies. Many in the Elsey study reported having assistance from supervisors who understood their needs, with a major component of this teaching was time taken in discussion as it was:

> Seen as a definite aid to understanding, particularly of difficult aspects of a subject requiring extensive explanation and where the free exchange of ideas stimulated fresh thinking....The value of discussion as a very personal learning experience should not be underestimated. (Elsey, 1990, pp. 53-54)

Postgraduate students, due to age, previous academic, personal and professional experiences, are likely to have qualitatively different experiences from undergraduate students. International students, and in this case Indonesian students, will have a particular group of expectations that reflect their cultural experiences and motivations for study. Supervisors also hold expectations of themselves, the student and the relationship with the student. Often these expectations are implicit (for both parties) with the resulting potential for the expectations of each not to be met.

Student and Supervisor Expectation

Of particular concern to students and supervisors in the initial stages of candidature is the relationship that they are establishing and the ways in which that relationship develops. Tennant and Pogson (1995) propose three dimensions to the ideal adult-adult learning relationship. The first is the political dimension, for example, the distribution of power within the relationship. The second is the philosophical dimension, that it, how the relationship serves the purposes of those involved in the relationship. The third is the psychological one, "the attitudes, expectations, and actions of teachers and learners toward each other" (pp. 171-172). These three dimensions are observable in the following discussion of the student-supervisor relationship.

Writers have described the student-supervisor relationship in a number of ways. Hockey (1996b) cites Rapport et al. (1989) who suggest that supervisors and students are in a very special relationship akin to tutorship where "the significance of the relationship stems from its duality; the co-existence of intimacy, care and personal commitment on the one hand, and commitment to specific academic goals on the other" (Rapport et al, 1989 reported in Hockey, 1996b, p. 363).

From this description Hockey suggests the following types of postgraduate supervision which is a clear reflection of Pogson's political dimension: 'informal'—where the notion of a contractual agreement and trust are of equal importance; 'comradeship'—where trust is more important than the contract; and 'professional'—where the contract becomes more important than trust. He reports that the majority of supervisory relations in the United Kingdom are more in line with the 'comradeship' model or verging on 'informal' and there are very few which could be categorised as 'professional', that is, as being based on a contract system.

There is anecdotal evidence that many supervisors and students, at least at the University of Adelaide, enter the supervisory relationship with a sense of trust that each party will do *what is expected* (although rarely is 'what is expected' defined or discussed) and that the whole experience will be a positive one. (There are few cases of students and supervisors entering a contract situation, other than following a grievance or investigation.) Expectations can include the roles and responsibilities of both parties, expectations about the students' motives for undertaking postgraduate research and supervisors' reasons for undertaking supervision.

While the trust is maintained on both sides—in some cases as a result of good luck rather than good design—the relationship flourishes. Student and supervisor work together in an implicitly agreed environment. However, when one or both members of the relationship break that trust— possibly unwittingly, assuming that the expectations were never made explicit—then the relationship can quickly become fraught with difficulty. Generally, there are three options: a) struggle along as is; b) draw up a contract with very clear roles and expectations; or c) end the relationship by changing supervisors. Where 'contracts' are drawn up they are still generally informal. For example, the student might agree to write up the discussion of each meeting, highlighting actions and providing a copy to the supervisor within a given time. Part of this contract would then be that both parties ensure that actions are completed and by the agreed date. Examples of all three options noted above are observable at the University of Adelaide.

An example of misunderstanding and implied expectation is provided by Watie who was reflecting on why she had difficulties with her first supervisor and realised that he thought she was complaining.

> And then [my supervisor] doesn't like if I complain about that [difficulty with work],
> because I complain[ed] about that, I too much complain in my department.

> Sometimes [he] said Watie when you come here you have already passed the IELTS it means you are able to express opinion, so what's point of that? (Watie6: 93-96)

The student reported quite significant problems while she was working with this supervisor, but it all seemed to change when she got a new supervisor.

> He is good. If I [am] talking about his personality, he's quite friendly and if we talking with him if there is no reason to get upset about the other students.
>
> *He treats you like a colleague, not like a student?*
>
> Yes, like a colleague, he says 'OK [Watie] what's your problem? Tell my anything what you're feeling, tell me.' But then I told him about my work and then after I explain that...and then he tells me 'Oh you worry too much, shouldn't be like that.' (Watie3: 146-152)

Student Respect and Supervisor Expectation

Student expectation of supervision is very much a result of previous experience. For example if students in Indonesia expect their supervisor to tell them what to do, even if the student considers this might not necessarily be the best approach (or even, in their opinion, the correct approach), the student is unlikely to question a respected supervisor. This is very different in Australia where supervisors expect their students to be critical of what they read and hear (including from their supervisor) and for students to take a significant degree of responsibility for their own learning. Two pilot studies conducted with postgraduate students in Indonesia (Meyer & Kiley, 1998) found that there is considerable variation between different cultural groups of Indonesian students in their conceptions of learning. Nevertheless, it was clear from the findings that:

> Learning experienced as *moral duty*, learning being influenced by the *example of others*, and *accumulative conceptions* of learning, are important sources of variation in Indonesian *postgraduate* students' conceptions and experiences of learning. Supervisors thus need to be sensitive to the existence of such (possibly culturally based) sources of variation and the powerful influence they may have on students' learning and interpersonal relationships. (p. 297)

However, approximately two thirds of the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study commented positively on the style of supervision their supervisor adopted, that is, significantly more informal, collegial and open than they would expect in Indonesia, once they adapted to this style which took generally six to nine months (Kiley, 1998).

Expectation of Academic Progress

The self-fulfilling prophecy will be discussed later in this chapter but certainly knowing what is expected of one is crucial to a sense of confidence and self-esteem and the reduction of stress and anxiety. One of the main areas of concern for students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study during the first six months of their postgraduate candidature was not knowing how they were going and whether they were meeting expectations. In fact, many were unaware of what was expected of them in this new environment (discussed further in Part 4). Feedback for beginning research students appears to be crucial for the potential success of the overall candidature.

A study by Kiley (1996b) sought responses from 57 postgraduate students at the University of Adelaide (41 in a science department and 16 in a social science department). Students were asked whether they had a clear sense of how their study was progressing. The responses are summarised in Table 6.

Table 6.   'I know how I am going...' by Discipline

	Science	Social Science
'I know how I am going'	30 (75%)	8 (50%)
'Maybe...Hope so..'	4 (10%)	6 (37.5%)
'I don't know how I am going'	6 (15%)	2 (12.5%)

When asked how they knew whether they were progressing and from where that information came the most common way for science students was from their supervisor(s) (61%). Of interest was that eight students particularly commented that it was the informal interaction which they had with their supervisor that was so helpful. Five students (12%) reported that results from their experiments were the most helpful form of feedback on progress and 12 students reported that laboratory meetings were very helpful in providing feedback. Two students commented on feedback from articles submitted for possible publication.

For the social science students, however, the situation was somewhat different. While the supervisor was still the main source of feedback, in this case six students (38%) commented that it was written comments on their submitted work which was the most significant form of feedback received, with one student rating written comments second and another rating them third. Included in these figures, five students rated discussions with their supervisor as the main

source of feedback. In only one case did a student talk about informal discussions with supervisors rather than planned meetings and discussions. None of the social science students commented on feedback from articles they had prepared for submission. This is not necessarily surprising given that non-science students tend to publish less than science students during their candidature and therefore there is less opportunity for external assessment and feedback on work in progress. Hence they depend more on their supervisor for comment and validation (Johnston & Broda, 1994).

Interviewees were also asked about the least helpful form of feedback they received. For many science students this was a difficult question to understand, however, 11 of a total of 17 who did mention some form of least helpful feedback, were women. From the comments the least helpful form of feedback was definitely the Departmental Seminars as well as: "Being made to feel 'small' in the lab because I didn't know something," "Pessimistic comments," "Little comment on written work," and "Work being attacked because of people's views of the supervisor rather than the work itself."

For the social science students again the Departmental Seminars appeared to be the least helpful form of feedback. One student commented "...the seminars are penance" and two said that the seminars they presented to the Department were negative experiences, particularly as one had the work criticised by the supervisor the day before the seminar presentation. Chapter 8 will describe the experiences students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study had with feedback and the significance of this in their progress and sense of well-being.

Factors that Influence Learning

Attribution and its Effect on Learning

A reasonable expectation of successfully achieving a task depends to a large extent on self-concept. Of particular importance are self-efficacy and attribution, that is to whom or what do students attribute various successes or failures. There is an extensive literature on attribution theory (Hewstone, 1983; Inglehart, 1991; Weary, Stanley & Harvey, 1989), a concept originally attributed to Heider (1958). Weary et al. (1989) state that "an attribution is an inference about why an event occurred or about a person's dispositions to other psychological states....Hence attributes may be perceptions and inferences about others or about self" (pp. 3-4). In other

words, we are likely to explain an event in terms of what we think about ourselves or our environment, including other people.

Internal attributions are those we consider to relate to ourselves, for example, 'The reason I didn't write that chapter well is that I am hopeless at English.' External attributions are those we relate to others and/or the environment such as, 'That chapter wasn't good because my supervisor took too long to respond to the draft.' Weiner (1986) has written on attribution related to achievement, an important focus for this study. He suggests four basic types of causal attribution. The first two are ability and effort, both of which are classed as internal attributions, that is they are a function of the individual. These two forms of attribution are considered to be *stable*. The other two forms of attribution, the task characteristics and luck, are both classified as external or a function of the environment and are considered to be *fluctuating*. As outlined in Figure 3, generally it is considered that people with high expectations of success attribute this to the two stable attributions, ability and effort. Failure, on the other hand, is attributed to the two external attributions, the task characteristics and luck. For those with low expectations of success generally the opposite is considered true.

However, there is research to indicate that such views of attribution are different in different cultures and across gender (Bains, 1983; Bond, 1983). For example, someone from a highly collectivist society might attribute success to the help of others and failure to lack of effort. Whereas someone from an individualist society might attribute success to intelligence and failure to bad luck. As Biggs (1998) suggests:

> Asians attribute success to effort and failure to lack of effort (more than to ability or lack of ability). Westerners see ability as more important that effort in accounting for success and failure....This pattern of attribution clearly encourages perseverance after failure where ability attributions predict a low probability of future success and hence disengagement. (p. 728)

Figure 3.   Examples of Attribution
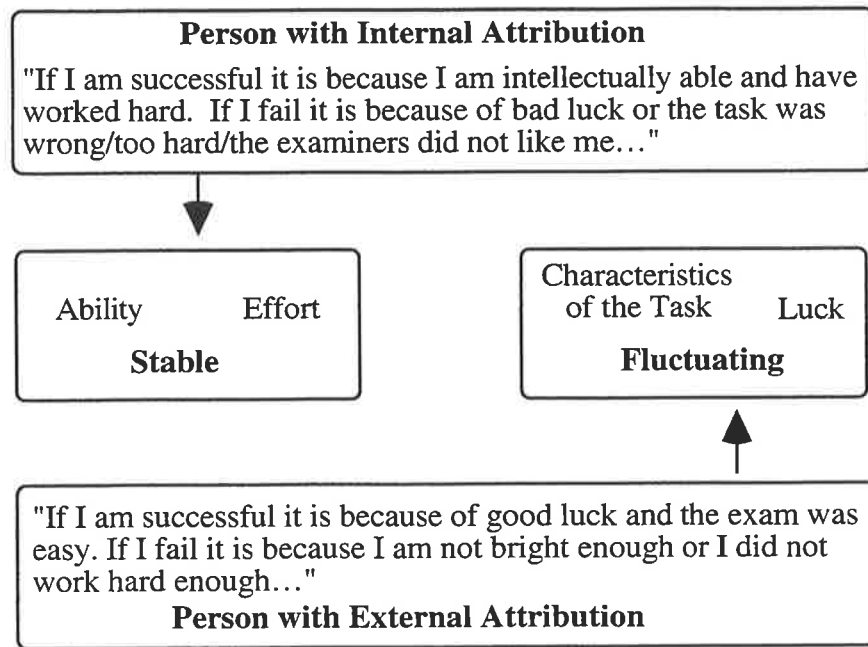
The 'effort' attribution with regard to learning by South-east Asian students is supported by an increasing body of work (Biggs, 1990; Biggs, 1994; Biggs, 1997; Biggs, 1998; Biggs & Moore, 1993; Murphy Berman & Sharma, 1986) and some work related to Indonesian students, in particular through exploratory pilot work by Meyer and Kiley (1998). However, in terms of the many of the Indonesian students in the study there is another consideration. For the Muslim[3] students there was the ever-present sense of 'God's will.' The students explain it along the following lines. "We need to work hard and do the very best we can, and then if it is God's will we will be successful. We can't just do nothing and then say it was God's will, but if we work hard and we are still not successful, then we have to accept the situation as God's will [my paraphrase]." This overlay of what non-Muslims would call an external factor, but which most Muslims would classify as an internal factor, needs to be considered in students' attribution of success or failure in this study.

Students' Conceptions of Learning

There has been considerable research related to approaches to learning and students' learning styles that are shaped by the student's conception of learning, his/her perception of the learning

3   In this report the word 'Muslim' is used to describe adherents to the Islamic religion in preference to the alternative term 'Moslem'. The terms Islam or Islamic are used when describing the religion itself.

environment and its requirements, and the student's motivation for learning (Bain, 1994; Biggs, 1989; Biggs & Moore, 1993; Cannon, 1995; Emilia, 1990; Entwistle, 1991; Entwistle & Ramsden, 1983; Marton, Dall'alba & Beatty, 1991; McKay & Kember, 1997; Meyer, 1995; Meyer & Boulton-Lewis, 1997; Ramsden, 1992; Saljo, 1979; Volet & Chalmers, 1992, Volet & Lawrence, 1987). In essence the literature suggests that students adopt one of three main learning styles: deep, strategic or surface.

Put simply, where a student has a personal motivation to understand what is being learned and the academic environment, through the teaching and assessment styles adopted, rewards understanding then it is likely that a student will adopt a deep approach to learning. On the other hand, where a student is only motivated to pass and is not necessarily concerned with understanding the material being taught, and where the teaching and assessment styles reinforce this approach, then students are likely to adopt a surface approach to learning. The student with a strategic approach to learning will generally determine what is needed to successfully accomplish the task and approach learning in that manner, even if the preferred style is different. "Student responses to a particular learning task reflect not only the immediate demands of the task but other much broader background factors which have mediated the student's approach to the learning situation at hand" (Gordon, Cantwell & Moore, 1998, p. 2). For example, Volet and Lawrence (1987) indicate "Goals determined students' management of their study, mediated effects of background, and in turn affected outcomes of learning" (p. 19). Further research by Volet and Chalmers (1992) indicates that, at least at the undergraduate level, students' learning goals changed over one semester, in fact to lower goals.

Students' conceptions of learning, that is, what they think learning is (or is not) are shaped by such factors as culture, previous experience, peers and family. One widely accepted categorisation of students' conceptions of learning comes from Marton et al. (1991) who contend that there are six main categories ranging from an accumulative concept of learning to a transformational concept[4]. Further work, (Cliff, 1996; Cliff, 1997; Meyer & Kiley, 1998; Purdie, Hattie & Douglas, 1996; Wisker, 1999), indicates that there may be cultural nuances to these

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4   The six categories are: a) Increasing one's knowledge; b) memorizing and reproducing; c) applying; d) understanding; e) seeing something in a different way; f) changing as a person.

conceptions. For example, Cliff (1996) found that South African teacher education students from disadvantaged educational backgrounds reported a strong degree of duty in their conceptions of learning. The study by Purdie, Hattie and Douglas (1996) indicates that compared with Australian students, "Japanese students' learning processes, appear, at least partly, to be regulated by a belief amongst others that learning is a social obligation to one's community" (p. 209). Of particular significance to this report is the postgraduate work of Wisker (1999) who suggests that Israeli postgraduate students demonstrate a somewhat perplexing conception of research as "exploration and creation, leading to change, yet often display an accumulative approach which invests in causal links and categorising" (p. 16). In addition there are the two pilot studies reported by Meyer and Kiley (1998) where Indonesian postgraduate students were surveyed regarding their learning. These students reported an accumulative conception of learning strongly influenced by a sense of moral duty as a significant factor in their conception of learning, particularly those self-categorised as Javanese.

Past experience, motivation and attribution are key factors in the way international postgraduate students approach their learning. They "appraise their current context in terms of their previous learning experiences. Central to this appraisal is their perception of reality in terms of their desired or expected learning outcomes and their role-identity" (Elliott & Aspland, 1994, p. 4).

Self-fulfilling Prophecy and Learning

Given the high level of motivation outlined above, supervisors are often taken aback when students do not seem more active and energetic in pursuing aspects of their work. Of course what they are sometimes not aware of are the difficulties some students experience even with things such as approaching their supervisor. As Watie said when she was asked at the end of her candidature what would she like to say to her supervisor if she had the opportunity "I would say a lot to him! A supervisor should be understanding about the culture. Like here, if you don't ask anything then it means that everything is OK, but in Indonesia it means that everything is wrong" (Watie6: 98-101).

This expectation ambiguity, as demonstrated above, if repeated across a number of situations in the first few months, can put the student in the position of appearing to be dysfunctional, and in the eyes of a supervisor perhaps lacking the ability to undertake postgraduate research. If

supervisors come to this conclusion early in a student's candidature, when it is most likely that students *will* be dis-oriented and not performing to their ability, then it is possible that their expectations of the student will be lowered with the following result.

> Other people are not merely *relevant* to an individual's expectations about his [*sic*] own actions; their very actions may determine the individual's potential for attaining goals. Thus, the person's level of anxiety can be influenced by the perceived effectiveness of groups and others on whom he is dependent, just as his level of anxiety is influenced by the perception of his own effectiveness. Furthermore, just as an individual can maintain a low level of anxiety by acting on the environment, so also can he do so being in the presence of some other person who has been associated with goal attainment. (Stotland, 1969, p. 106)

This view of the importance of others in an individual's development of her/his goal attainment strategies and related anxiety, is most clearly seen in research related to the self-fulfilling prophecy. The phenomenon was demonstrated by Rosenthal and Jacobsen (1968) in their book *Pygmalion in the Classroom* where they described "how one person's expectation for another person's behaviour can quite unwittingly become a more accurate prediction simply for its having been made" (p. vii). The authors conducted a study whereby they told teachers that certain students had measured highly on various measures of intelligence, when those students' names had, in fact, been selected at random. The teachers' expectations of the 'brighter' students over a 12 month period were actually reflected in a significant increase in those students' performance. As the authors reported "When one 'knows' a child is bright, his behaviour is evaluated as of higher intellectual quality than is the very same behaviour shown by a child 'known' to be dull" (p. 54). While positive expectations are seen to enhance students' performance, negative expectations can have detrimental outcomes on their performance.

Of particular interest was the duration of the effect of being considered 'brighter.' For the younger students in the study the effect disappeared fairly soon after not being considered 'special.' However, for the older students, sixth graders, the effect lasted well into their next year. Rosenthal and Jacobsen (1968) argued that this may have been because the older students actually needed to be convinced in the first place of their 'specialness' and so once that occurred it was more likely that they would maintain that view of themselves. The question of duration of negative or positive expectations on adults is not clear. However, Knox (1977) suggests that:

> When adults engage in learning activity on a self-directed basis, their own expectations provide the primary guide to activity, and other people serve mainly as

sources of encouragement and learning resources....However, when other people, such as teachers, counsellors, supervisors and other participants, also take part in planning and conducting the educational activity, their expectations influence the learning activity. (p. 427)

Although the actual *Pygmalion Effect* is related to intellectual performance the self-fulfilling prophecy can relate to all types of behaviours, not just intellectual ability. Expectations can be 'picked up' from 'key' people, in the case of this study research supervisors, and from 'bystanders', in this case other students, support staff, administrative staff and family. It is not difficult to imagine the effect on a newly arrived student when her/his supervisor says something like "I'm very enthusiastic about the contribution I think you will make to this project, given your interests and previous experience", compared with "The last few Indonesian students I've supervised have had real difficulties with English, particularly writing, so you'll need to do additional classes to be able to keep up." Given that the work of Abouserie (1995) and Watkins (1984) suggests that self-esteem correlates positively with what can be described as a deep approach to learning, the effects of the self-fulfilling prophecy are considerable.

As with students, supervisors' expectations are brought about by a range of personal, professional and interpersonal experiences, including relationships with previous students as well as the current student. The bringing together, changing and adapting of these expectations, that is the expectations of the student and the supervisor, will be shown to be one of the most significant factors in the experiences of the participants in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study.

What Students Expect from University

Expectation described in the management literature is that of expectation of service. Shank, Walker and Hayes (1996), citing Prakash (1984), suggest that these expectations can be categorised as being either predictive, that is an "estimate of the anticipated performed level of service", normative or "how a service *should* be performed in order for a consumer to be satisfied in a service encounter" and comparative which are "expectations of a consumer encounter that are based on previous experiences with similar services or brands" (pp. 19-20). Expectations of service come from sources such as: word-of-mouth communications, the particular and personal needs of the individual, past experience with using a similar service, and advertising and marketing materials (Zeithaml, Parasuraman & Berry, 1990, p. 19).

Based on the reports from students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study it is possible to see how students' expectations are developed from a range of sources. These students reported that they mainly developed expectations about coming to Australia and the University of Adelaide by word-of-mouth (frequently from past students, spouses and/or parents); marketing material from the University, Embassy and media; and past experiences[5].

With regard to prior experience, data for the 33 students indicates that three had completed an Indonesian *S2 (Magister),*[6] eight had completed a Masters and one a Diploma at overseas universities. These prior experiences of postgraduate study, either in Indonesia or overseas, played a significant part in influencing students' expectations and will be reported in Part 4. With regard to parents' prior experiences as a source of expectation for the Adelaide Longitudinal Study, parents' academic experiences ranged from both parents having received no schooling to both parents with tertiary qualifications (see Table 7).

Table 7.   Parents' Highest Academic Qualification

Both parents with...	n=
tertiary education	5
senior high school	10
junior high school	3
primary School	7
no formal schooling	1
One parent with...	
tertiary education	3
senior high school	4
junior high school	4
primary School	3

In addition, most spouses of students had also some form of tertiary qualification. Given this situation with parents, spouses, and colleagues, prior experience and word-of-mouth plus various advertising materials the 'service' factor of expectation has been strong in forming students' expectations about studying in Australia.

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5   The most recent government survey of international students in Australia (Department of Employment, Education, Training an Youth Affairs, 1998a) indicates that relatives and friends were the most common source of information (42%), although this figure had dropped from 55% reported in 1992.

6   Similar to the Australian Masters degree

A Proposed Model

This chapter has addressed issues related to students' expectations, how they are developed, how they affect learning and the effects of expectation ambiguity. A theoretical model which underpins the remainder of this study is proposed and outlined in Figure 4. This model has been developed from the literature related to student learning, expectation, attribution, culture and postgraduate education, all of which have been discussed in this chapter and Chapter 2.

From the model it can be observed that students achievement of goals, for which they are highly motivated, results in high levels of satisfaction. The goals of students in the study can be broadly described as increased knowledge, skills and experiences which lead to greater career, academic, personal and citizenship opportunities. Conversely, non-achievement of one or more of the goals can lead to levels of dissatisfaction, anxiety and even shame.

Figure 4.   Proposed model of postgraduate student learning and expectation
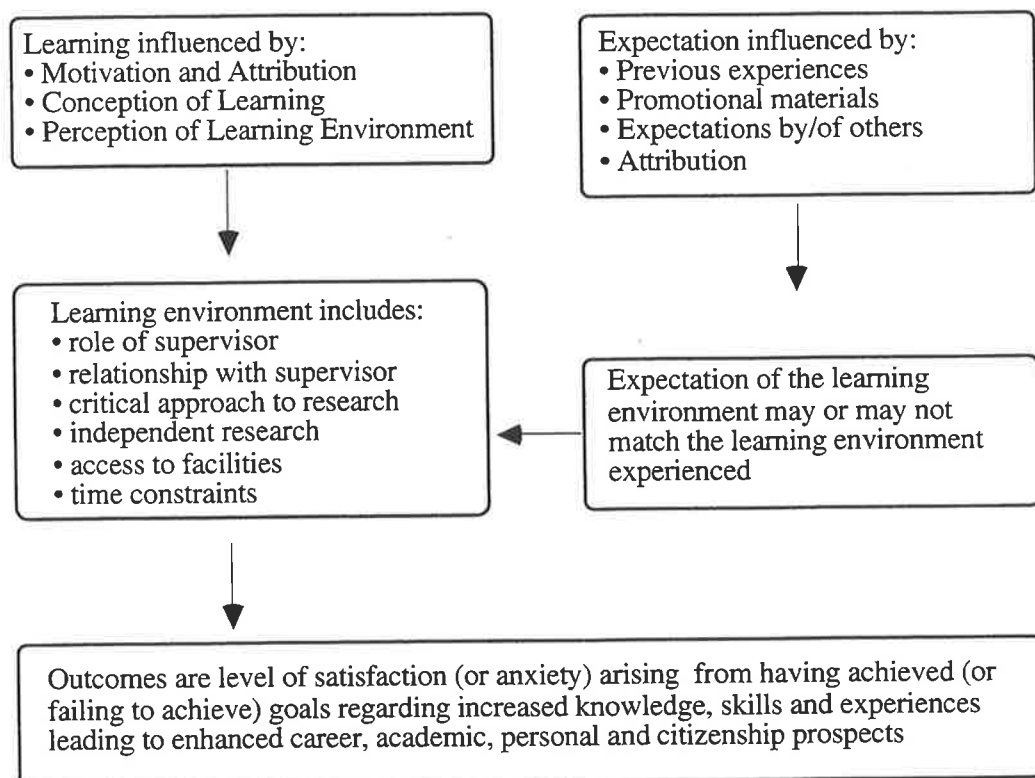
Learning and learning style, it is argued, entails motivation and attribution, conceptions of learning, and students' perceptions of the learning environment. With their beliefs and approaches to learning well formed in advance of their arrival in Australia, students are often confronted with a lack of congruence with their expectations when they commence candidature.

Stress and anxiety can result along with a sense of lack of control or ability to take action to remedy this apparent non-achievement of goals and consequent dissatisfaction. For Indonesian students, with their highly developed sense of duty and well-being of the group, lack of success can lead to shame for self and family.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has addressed a matter which is significant in this study, that is, expectation. It has been argued that students' expectations are formed from a range of sources, for example, prior experience, parents, spouses, advertising and informational material. It was also argued that supervisors form expectations, particularly from being a student themselves and experiences with other (international) students. Ambiguity of expectation, generally due to the implicit rather than explicit nature of expectations held by students and supervisors was suggested as one of the main causes of stress and anxiety for students, particularly for those operating within a cross-cultural environment.

A model of student learning was proposed that took into account expectation, attribution, motivation, conceptions of learning and the learning environment. It will be demonstrated in Part 4 that the results of the Adelaide Longitudinal Study indicate that this model was a useful means of identifying and addressing the factors that influence the successful (or otherwise) achievement of students' goals.

CHAPTER 4 THEORETICAL APPROACH TO THIS STUDY

This chapter and the next, Chapter 5, address the theoretical and technical issues of the research being reported which addresses the following questions:

- What are the expectations and experiences of Indonesian postgraduate students during the first three to six months of being in Australia?

- How do students' expectations and experiences change over time while in Australia?

- To what extent do students change and what are the factors that influence this change?

- Do these changes affect their expectations of returning home and the experiences they anticipate there?

Embedded in these questions are the propositions that students' expectations and experiences change over time as a result of their experiences as postgraduate students studying in Australia.

The discussion in this chapter is divided into four main sections: the epistemology underpinning the study, the theoretical perspective taken, the methodology adopted, and the research methods used. Most of the technical detail regarding the conduct of the research, for example, how many interviews were conducted, with whom and where, is discussed in Chapter 5 'Research Design.' The discussion here outlines the methodology adopted for this study and the reasons why this methodology was considered the most appropriate.

The Philosophy Underpinning this Study

The approach to research and the research strategies adopted are influenced by the view of the world, that is the paradigm, within which one operates (Crotty, 1998; Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Goetz & LeCompte, 1984; Guba, 1981; Marton, 1981; Miles & Huberman, 1984; Patton, 1990). The research questions can be asked and answered in different ways depending on one's epistemology, one's paradigm "world view, a general perspective, a way of breaking down the complexity of the real world" (Patton, 1990, p. 37). By ensuring that I understood the implications of my epistemology I was hoping to avoid the experience of Kapitzke (1998), who said "It was a sobering moment personally and professionally when I realised that I was in effect, oblivious to the theoretical, epistemological and political implications of what I was doing to myself and my community [being researched]" (p. 98).

Epistemology can be described as 'the way we know what we know' or 'how we know what we know.' There are three generally agreed epistemologies: *objectivism, constructionism* and *subjectivism* (Crotty, 1998). In simple terms, someone ascribing to the objectivist epistemology views the world as containing truths which need to be discovered whereas someone ascribing to the constructionist epistemology argues that meanings are constructed through the very nature of human society and interaction with one another and with one's environment. The constructionist believes that it is through human interaction and culture that meanings are made of the world. As Crotty (1998) says, constructionism is:

> The view that all knowledge, and therefore all meaningful reality as such, is contingent upon human practices, being constructed in and out of interaction between human beings and their world, and developed and transmitted within an essentially social context. (p. 42)

The person ascribing to a subjectivist epistemology on the other hand believes that meaning "is imposed on the object by the subject" (Crotty, 1998, p. 9). Based on the above descriptions the epistemology that underpins this study is that of a constructionist.

Theoretical Perspective for the Study

Arising from the three main epistemologies briefly described above there arise a range of theoretical perspectives. There are numerous categorisations of these theoretical perspectives and their consequent methodologies and methods which are often themselves categorised, rather simplistically at times, as qualitative or quantitative (Crotty, 1998; Denzin, 1994; Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Schwandt, 1994; Stake, 1994). Table 8 has been developed in an effort to clarify these various categories in the context of this research. However, as Crotty (1998) suggests, one can theoretically draw arrows across the categories left to right linking various perspectives to various methodologies, and from right to left. One can also draw arrows up and down columns to some extent, linking various categories resulting in, for example, a feminist critical theorist.

The theoretical perspective which both suited my view of the world and also the study under discussion was Interpretivist. "The interpretivist approach...*looks for culturally derived and historically situated interpretations of the social life-world*" (Crotty, 1998, p. 67). I wanted to be able to understand the students' experiences from their perspective, attempt to see the world through their eyes, and understand how cultural and historical influences had shaped their

experiences. It was clear that the paradigm within which I was researching was one which had the students as the focus and assumed that their experiences were valid for them. It was the students' perspective, not that of the postgraduate supervisor, university administration, national funding body or other group or individual with vested interests, that was the focus of this study.

Table 8.   A Possible Categorisation of Research Paradigms

Epistemology	Theoretical Perspective	Approach to Research
Objectivism	*Positivist/Empiricist researchers...*	see the world as 'real' and aim to find the 'truth' which then can be determined and generalised. They want to verify findings and tend to use quantitative methods which test hypotheses.
Constructionism	*Interpretivist researchers...*	believe that there are many 'realities' which are constructed and that the researcher and researched are involved in that construction. Rather than seeking 'validity' the constructivist is concerned with the trustworthiness of her/his conclusions.
Subjectivism	*Critical theorist researchers...*	argue that reality is defined by political, social and economic circumstances and inquiry is dependent on interaction between the researcher and researched. They believe that 'action' must result from the research and the research is approached with a clearly pre-determined perspective.
	Feminist researchers...	take as their starting point the particular way that women view the world and so one could have Marxist Feminism, Existentialist Feminism and so on.
	Post-modernist researchers...	believe that the world is ambiguous, unpredictable and cannot be categorised and generalised, The post-modernist (with the term post-structuralist often used synonymously) researcher seeks different ways of representing the world.

The interpretivist theoretical perspective includes three main theories of research: symbolic interactionism, phenomenology and hermeneutics (Crotty, 1998). *Symbolic interactionism* is based on the belief that what makes us human is the interaction with others in our community. In other words, humanness relies on, and at the same time develops, culture. This form of research requires the researcher to be able to put her/himself in the place, or role, of others so that people's actions are an interpretation and definition of the culture, organisation, norms, and

values of the culture to which they consider they belong (Bogdan & Taylor, 1975; Bryman, 1988). Role taking is an interaction and the reason it is symbolic is that "it is possible only because of the 'significant symbols'—that is, language and other symbolic tools—that we humans have and through which we communicate" (Crotty, 1998, p. 75).

Also included as an interpretivist perspective of constructionism is *phenomenology*, a form of research that relies on intentionality, that is "the essential relationship between conscious subjects and their objects" (Crotty, 1998, p. 79). The third form of constructionist research is *hermeneutics*, having evolved from the practice of studying Scripture and making meaning from the texts through the confluence of the semantics and the context of the text and its writers. For example, Taylor (1993) argues that in student learning it is not possible to separate students' writing skills from their understanding of the content:

> What we find in teaching students how to use English in their studies is that clarity and grammaticality stem not from the application of general rules to specific contexts of meaning, but rather the reverse: students begin to read and write better as their grasp of the *content* and *rhetoric* in a wide variety of contexts of meaning becomes more sure. (p. 61)

Clearly the cultural focus and 'placing oneself in another's shoes' role of the symbolic interactionist reflected both the type of study being undertaken as well as my desire to understand and tell the story of the students concerned. This theoretical perspective had implications for the nature of the research and the methodology adopted. Figure 5 demonstrates the development of the theory and methodology adopted for this study.

In summary, the constructionist epistemology leads to an interpretivist theoretical perspective encompassing symbolic interaction and which in turn leads "the constructivist/ interpretivist [to] argue that the theoretical perspective one takes is central to one's inquiry" (Garman, 1994, p.5). However, integral to this study were the cross-cultural considerations which significantly influenced the research approach adopted.

Figure 5. Development of the theoretical basis for research (1)
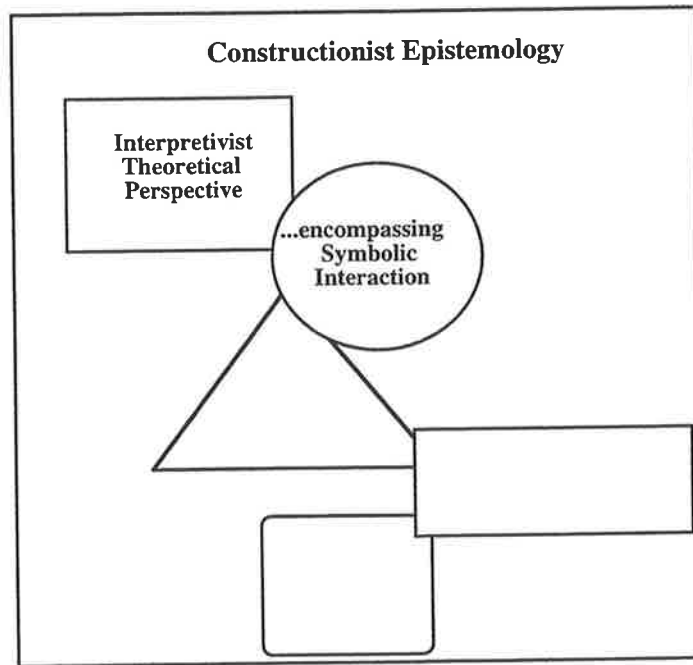
Cross-cultural Research

Lonner and Malpass (1994) contend that "to say that the difference is cultural just means that we have to look for the explanation in the details of how people live" (p.7). Therefore, it is essential to appreciate that one must examine differences as well as similarities across cultures. The rules of culture that hold true across all societies are termed *universals*. Universals are those concepts, values, and assumptions that have been determined, by extensive research, to hold true across cultures (Adamopoulos & Lonner, 1994; Kornadt, Eckensberger & Emminghaus, 1980; Laboratory of Comparative Human Cognition, 1979; Lonner & Malpass, 1994; Triandis, 1972).

> Each person shares certain *universal* behavioural tendencies and other characteristics with all human beings....At the next level, each person shares a variety of *group related* characteristics with certain kinds of people....Finally, each person is totally *unique*—no two people, not even identical twins, are *exactly* alike in every way. (Lonner & Malpass, 1994, p. 91)

When studying culture one can place an emphasis on the cultural context or an emphasis on commonalities in human experience (Adamopoulos & Lonner, 1994). When developed as a matrix, as in Figure 6 one can see that a focus on both the cultural context and the commonalities of human experience result in an approach to research described as *Universalism*. The matrix suggests that the researcher working in Quadrant 1 would focus exclusively on individuals in a decontextualised setting as no emphasis is placed on either research within the cultural context

or on commonalities within humankind. Quadrant 2 researchers believe that there are 'universal truths' that one can discover and describe without reference to the cultural context. The Quadrant 3 researcher considers that research into cultural issues must be done only within the context of the culture. "The general theme in this approach challenges the notion of fixed and universal truths in the explanation of human nature" (Adamopoulos & Lonner, 1994, p. 131). It would be the Quadrant 3 researcher who would focus on those questions that are classified as 'emic', that is those approaches to research that use only concepts which emerge from the culture. Finally, Quadrant 4 researchers are those who are interested in examining commonalities and similarities across cultures but are always conscious of the cultural context. "It is possible to develop an approach to the study of human nature that emphasizes the importance of psychological universals, and is, at the same time, sensitive to cultural context" (Adamopoulos & Lonner, 1994, p. 13). The Quadrant 4 researcher would adopt 'etic' research which compares different cultures on presumed universal categories. However, Triandis, Malpass & Davidson (1971) warns against 'pseudoetic' research that is, imposing etic concepts as if they are universal but they are not.

Figure 6.   Emphasis on the importance of cultural context and of establishing commonalities in human nature in three major theoretical orientations[1]

Emphasis on Cultural Context

	No	Yes
No	1. Limited possibility for systemic explanation of human nature	3. Relativism
Yes	2. Absolutism	4. Universalism

Emphasis on Commonalities in Human Experience

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[1]   (Adamopoulos & Lonner, 1994, p. 131) (Published with permission).

Having argued for an emphasis on commonalities, universalism also requires that research of this nature has an emphasis on the cultural context. This leads to an appreciation of what one might broadly describe as an 'Indonesian' culture, and again what could be described as an 'Australian' culture (see Chapter 2 and Appendix A), while recognising that both countries are made up of many culturally-specific sub-groups of people.

One of the difficulties encountered in any grouping or classification of people according to culture is that "When humans categorize other humans, they tend to use stereotypes; that is, they give the same response to different individuals (categorization) and associate specific attributes to each category" (Vassiliou, Triandis, Vassiliou & McGuire, 1972, p. 89). The need to avoid the negative outcomes of stereotyping in a study such as this is essential. However, stereotypes need not necessarily be negative, they can be descriptive of particular groups while allowing for individual differences. It is this stance which I have made every attempt to maintain.

This study is based on Indonesian students studying at the University of Adelaide, in Australia, and the researcher (a third generation Anglo-Australian) examining their expectations and experiences within a Western educational environment. Therefore the issue of identification of possible similarities in learning experiences, but with sensitivity to the cultural context, underpins this study. Earlier in this chapter a two-dimensional approach was presented as a four quadrant matrix that indicated approaches to cross-cultural research could be classified as; decontextualised, absolute, relative and universal (Adamopoulos & Lonner, 1994).

For reasons outlined above I have chosen a universalist approach to cross-cultural research (see Figure 7).

Figure 7.   Development of the theoretical basis for research (2)

Constructionist Epistemology

Interpretivist Theoretical Perspective

...encompassing Symbolic Interaction

...with a Universalist concept of cultural research
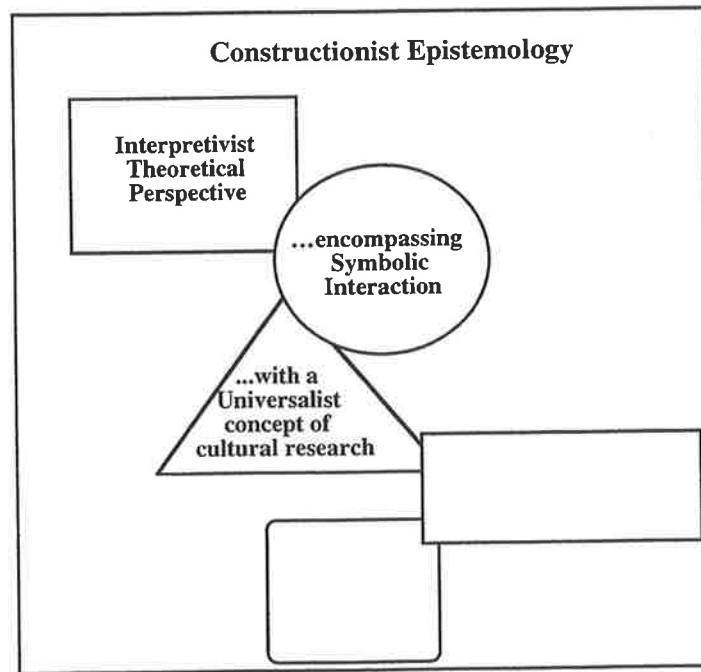
Issues in Conducting Cross-cultural Research

Conducting research in a cross-cultural environment and understanding the two (or more) cultures in which one is researching is formidable. Researchers need to have "a clear and detailed understanding, incorporation and explication...of the cultural context in which their research is planned, implemented and reported" (Chesterton, 1986, p. 2).

One particular concern, among several, in this study was reporting the findings. Two issues were at play here. The first was that some students might not have successfully completed their thesis due to delays and re-writing by the time this report was made public after examination. The possible result could be the development of a real or perceived negative relationship between the student and supervisors, department or University. The second issue related to the possible use of the results of the study once students had returned to Indonesia. If comments reported seemed critical of Indonesian practices, returnees might be at risk of discrimination by colleagues, employers or government officers. Methods of counteracting these, and other possible negative outcomes are outlined in Chapter 5, 'Research Design.'

Another issue in conducting ethical, cross-cultural research is the development of shared meanings. This implies "not only knowledge of the meanings of words and phrases and of grammatical structures, but also an understanding of the cultural setting in which the

communication is relayed" (Chesterton, 1986, p. 5). Chesterton here is including non-verbal communication as well as verbal. As this longitudinal study was taking place in an Australian university (my 'home territory') I had to be very conscious of students' reactions to letters, comments, meeting venues and workshops which might imply an over-exertion of power or authority by me due to the cultural setting in which the research was being conducted. It was important that the participants not only considered that I was exhibiting a level of cultural sensitivity but they were also gaining as a result of the research. This was not only an abstract gain of having acted on behalf of the 'greater good'—all subsequent Indonesian postgraduate students studying in Australia—but also their own personal good. As the Code of Ethics of the Australian Association for Research in Education (1995) states "[researchers] should endeavour to see that the participants benefit by their participation in the research as well as by the results" (p. 2). Many of these issues are additional to those for any research involving people, whether the research environment can be described as cross-cultural (in the sense that the term is used in this study) or not. Implications for addressing these issues are discussed in Chapter 5.

Research Methodology

As has been stated several times, the research methodology adopted must be congruent, and in fact must arise from the declared epistemology and theoretical perspective of the researcher. Having already stated that I was working within an interpretivist, symbolic interactionist perspective the methodology to be adopted needed to be congruent with, and arise from, this perspective. A number of possible methodologies emerged, particularly those related to ethnographic research. A particular approach which seemed to allow me to address the research in a way that was congruent with my beliefs espoused above was *phenomenography*.

A Phenomenographic Approach

Phenomenography is an understanding of what leads to the development of conceptions and of the relationships of those conceptions with one another and with the context within which they are located. Central to this current study is the notion of trying to see the world from the students' perspective and so it has been important that, for each of the students involved in the study, their experiences and conceptions were recognised as 'real' and were no less real because they might differ from someone else's 'reality.'

Marton (1981) argues that there are two ways we can look at the world: the way we orient ourselves to the world and what we say about it; and the way we orient ourselves towards people's ideas. He suggests that the second orientation can be described as phenomenography (Biggs, 1989; Burns, 1994; Entwistle, 1997; Franz et al., 1996; Hasselgren & Beach, 1997; Johansson, Marton & Svensson, 1985; Jorgensen, 1989; Marshall & Rossman, 1989; Marton, 1981; Prosser, Trigwell, Marton & Runesson, 1997; Svensson, 1997) (Figure 8).

The following quote from the film, *Elvira Madigan*, describes the phenomenograhic approach in a very 'pure' form. Hedvig's lover, Sixten is talking with a friend who says of Hedvig "She's changed the way you see things." Sixten replies "Mmm, yes she has. But isn't that...isn't that what love is? When you borrow each others' eyes? You want...you want to...you want to know how your beloved experiences the world from her side."

Figure 8.   Development of the theoretical basis for research (3)
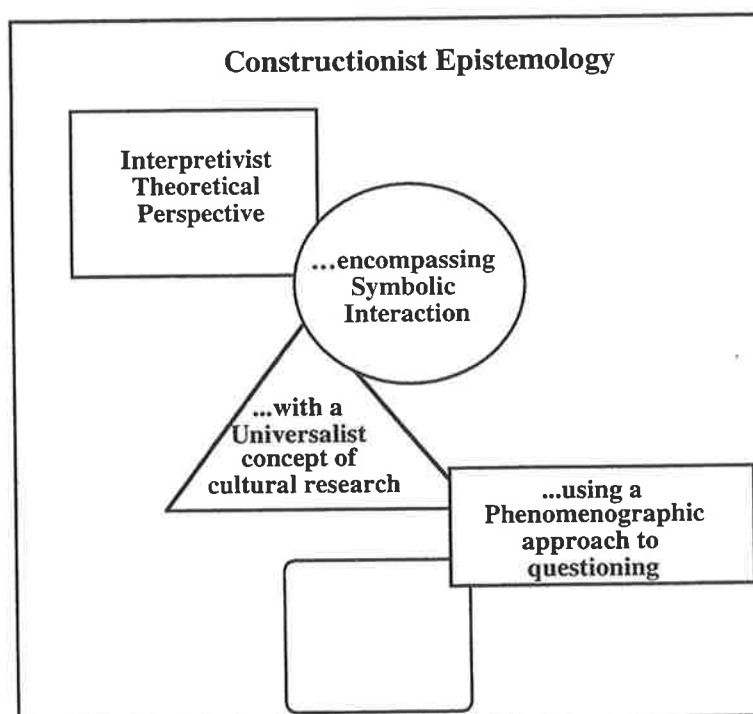
This study speaks on behalf of the 33 interviewees. However, it was clear that providing a regular, confidential opportunity for students to share their concerns, their triumphs, their sadness and their happiness would influence their behaviour in some way. It was not possible to predict the influence of the interviews on the students' progress and levels of satisfaction or otherwise. In the scientific community this influence, the 'Heisenberg uncertainty principle' argues that simply by measuring an object or function we are changing it (Gamow & Clevland,

1960). In the social sciences the influence in more generally known as the 'Hawthorne effect' that is, by being examined, researched, evaluated or measured human beings behave differently simply from the act of 'having been done to' (Eysenck, 1993). The manner by which I acknowledge and accommodate this influence is outlined in Chapter 5.

Having suggested above that a phenomenographic and universalist approach suited this study, it was still necessary to determine a strategy or a method which would allow for effective data collection, management and reporting (Figure 9). The case study method was chosen as the most appropriate to achieve the outcomes (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982; Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Huberman & Miles, 1994; Merriam, 1988; Stake, 1994; Yin, 1989).

Figure 9.   Development of the theoretical basis for research (4)
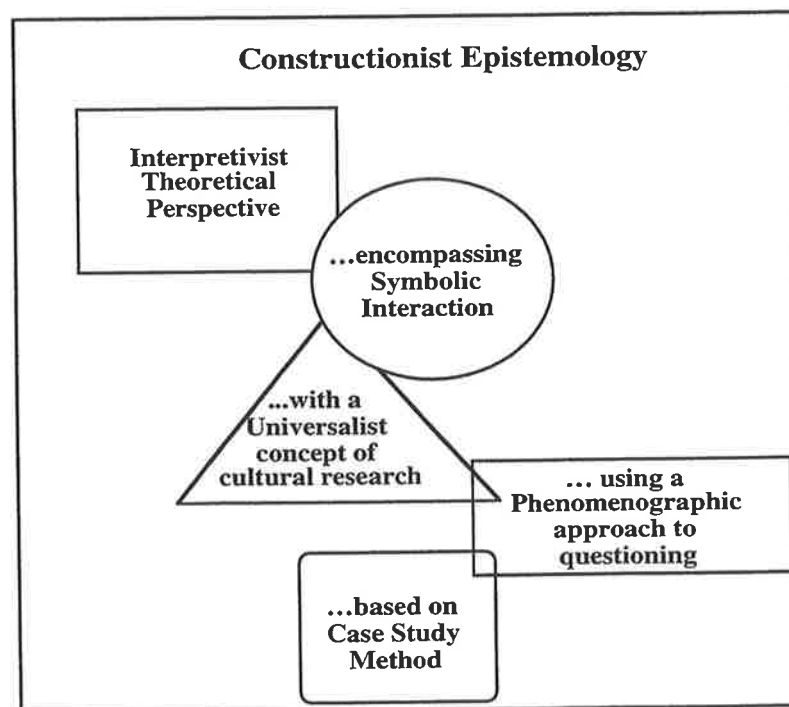
Why Case Study?

Case study is one type of research that lends itself well to research that focuses on humanistic or cultural differences, where the situation is unique, and where the information is credible (Merriam, 1988; Manen, 1997). Certainly the focus of my research was on cultural differences and so case study provides a useful means of reporting results, particularly as the selection of research type depended on:

- the nature of the research question. The 'how' and 'why' questions upon which case study strategies are based are explanatory as they "deal with operational links needing to be traced over time, rather than mere frequencies or incidence" (Yin, 1989, p. 18).
- the amount of control the researcher has over the circumstances; and
- the desired end product (Merriam, 1988; Yin, 1989).

However, the literature also indicates that when considering the use of case study one asks whether a 'bounded system' can be defined, that is, whether "a case study is an examination of a specific phenomenon such as a program, an event, a person, a process, an instruction, or a social group" (Merriam, 1988, p. 10). I was researching within a bounded system in that the focus of the research was on the experiences of Indonesian postgraduate students studying at the University of Adelaide between January 1995 and December 1998. I considered that the system being researched was a very complex one, with a range of 'actors' and that the insights gained would certainly aid in understanding and improving the situation, not only for students but for supervisors and related staff. On the other hand I was aware that the case study approach would limit the generalisations that might be made to say all postgraduate students or all Indonesian students. Clearly, this research method, while ideal for the research sample, had limitations that nare recognised.

Definition of Case Study

According to Bogdan and Biklen (1982) case study is a "detailed examination of one setting, or one single subject, or one single depository of documents, or one particular event" (p. 58) and the purpose of the case study is to find out what is going on within that system (Burns, 1994, p. 313). While Burns (1994) suggests that "most case studies are based on the premise that a case can be located that is typical of many other cases" (p. 314), Denzin and Lincoln (1994) argue that every research instance belongs to a general class, but is also specific. "Any given classroom is like all classrooms but no two classrooms are the same" (p. 201).

The study being reported comprises: people (the students, supervisors, support and administrative staff, and government and home institution staff); things (reports, surveys and quantitative research); events (interviews, visits, social meetings and presentations); context (location and previous experience); and relationships (interviewee-interviewer, student-

supervisor, employee-employer, student-student and student-family). All of these components match with the suggestion that "a case is constructed by a set of features. These features consist of a set of components, each one of which is comprised by its own set of properties" (Tripp, 1992, p. 8).

Types of Case Study

Although using different terminology the literature indicates that there tend to be three broad types of case study in qualitative research. As examples, the descriptions of Merriam (1988) and Stake (1994) are outlined in Table 9. For this study an 'evaluative' or 'collective' approach has been adopted, that is, the understanding of a larger phenomenon.

Table 9.   Sample of Types of Case Studies from the Literature

	Merriam (1988, pp. 27-28)	Stake (1994, pp. 234-244)
Focus on *detail*	*descriptive* which "presents a detailed account of the phenomenon under study."	*intrinsic* which finds out more about a specific case—selected for variety rather than representativeness.
Focus on *theory*	*interpretive* is "used to develop conceptual categories or to illustrate, support or challenge theoretical assumptions held prior to data gathering."	*instrumental* provides insight to an issue or refine a theory—may select on the basis of the opportunity to learn the most from the study.
Focus on *understanding a larger phenomenon*	*evaluative* provides "'thick description', is grounded, is holistic and life-like, simplifies data to be considered by the reader, illuminates meanings and can communicate tacit knowledge."	*collective* provides insight into a larger collection of cases or theory—may also select on the basis of 'learning most' rather than being representative.

Case Study Design

To assist in the design of the research, Table 10 was developed which compares the steps in designing a case study (Huberman & Miles, 1994; Yin, 1989). While in his five steps Yin does not list a 'conceptual framework' he does suggest that the researcher should ask three questions to decide what sort of research strategy to use "a) the type of research question posed, b) the extent of control an investigator has over actual behavioural events, and c) the degree of focus on contemporary as opposed to historical events" (p. 16).

Table 10.   Main Conceptual and Analytical Aspects of Case Study Design

	Huberman and Miles (1994)	Yin (1989)
Overview	conceptual framework—key factors, constructs and variables	questions to ask oneself to define the research strategy
Question	research questions	research questions
Assumptions		propositions ('how' and 'why')
Definition	case definition	units of analysis
Sampling	sampling—within and across cases	logical link from data to proposition (pattern making)
Trustworthiness (interpretation)	instrumentation—valid, generalisable	criteria for interpreting findings

Each of the stages outlined in the left-hand columns—overview, question, assumptions, definition, sampling, and trustworthiness are addressed in the design and implementation of the study. However, they do not appear necessarily in the same order. Table 11 provides an organising structure for each of the aspects of the study as it links to this final report.

Table 11.   Organising Structure of Reporting Aspects of the Study

Aspect	Description	Chapter
Overview	The paradigm within which the study is located	4
Question	The research question and purpose of the study	1
Assumptions	Personal assumptions, biases and views as well as possible propositions	1
Definition	Defining the methodology adopted and the 'bounded system' of the study	4 & 5
Sampling	Explanation of method for seeking information and for selecting information to be analysed	5
Trustworthiness	Methods for interpreting the data and for confirming it	5 & 6
Interpretation	Criteria for interpreting data	4

Sources of Information

As outlined earlier, case study relies on a range of sources of information including documentation, direct observation, archival material, participant observation, interviews and physical artifacts (Yin, 1989). This study accessed information through a range of sources, including: in-depth, semi-structured interviews over time with 33 Indonesian postgraduate students; interviews and workshops (W'shop) and/or discussions with supervisors, support and administrative staff at the University of Adelaide; surveys of supervisors; program evaluations; email and mail correspondence (C'spnd); interviews with senior staff and returnee students in a

range of Indonesian organisations; interviews with staff of funding bodies; and student surveys. Table 12 provides a summary of the sources of information used. The details of how each of the above data collection types was used are provided in Chapter 5. However, it was the in-depth, repeated student interviews where "the researcher [was] bent-on understanding in considerable detail, how people...think and how they came to develop the perspectives they hold" (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982, p. 55) that provided the main source of information for the case studies:

> The purpose of interviewing is to find out what is in and on someone's mind. The purpose of open-ended interviewing is not to put things in someone's mind (for example, the interviewer's preconceived categories of organizing the world) but to access the perspective of the person being interviewed. (Patton, 1990, p. 278)

Table 12.   Matrix of Data Source and Collection Type

Source	Data collection type						
	Interview	Survey	Inventory	Report	Rating	C'spnd	W'shop
Indonesian students at Adelaide University	X	X	X		X	X	X
Supervisors	X						X
Administrative staff	X						
Support staff	X						
Funding bodies	X			X			
Indonesian Senior Staff	X					X	
Students in Indonesia			X			X	
Literature				X			

In-depth interviews within a case study approach allow for the contacts being repeated and for the development of rapport over time. This style of interview also means that the informant's perspective is able to emerge through the use of language natural to them rather than trying to understand and fit into the concepts of the study. As rapport develops so the informant is seen as having equal status to the researcher in the dialogue rather than being a guinea pig (Burns, 1994, p.278). Therefore, there is:

> A 'real' conversation with 'give and take' and empathic understanding....This makes the interview more honest, morally sound, and reliable, because it treats the respondent as an equal, allows him or her to express personal feelings, and therefore presents a more 'realistic' picture than can be uncovered using traditional interview methods. (Fontana & Frey, 1994, p. 371)

'Real' conversation was certainly the method used in this study. My own role as a postgraduate research student, working and living through many of the same experiences as the students involved in the study, meant that there were many shared understandings and experiences. In fact, it could be argued that the quality of the interviews and responses made were substantially enhanced due to the student-student nature of interviewer and interviewee. Also, having experienced a significant level of 'culture shock' for the first three months living in Indonesia there was again an area of common understanding and empathy. "The researcher must adapt to the world of the individuals studied and try to share their concerns and outlooks" (Fontana & Frey, 1994, p. 371). Students were invited to ask personal or professional questions of me throughout each interview and "Do you have any questions for me?" was asked at the end of every interview. It is true to say that in the study being reported the material from the intensive interviews was "the joint product of the questions as perceived by informants and the social situational circumstances within which the questions were put to them" (Brenner, 1985, p. 154).

Within this context, however, it is recognised that an in-depth study involving 33 students, even when supported by published research, limits broad generalisations of the results.

Sampling

The literature generally discusses two different processes of sampling within a qualitative research study: a) sampling possible participants while seeking information, and b) sampling the information gained during analysis and reporting (Bogdan & Taylor, 1975; Burns, 1994; Huberman & Miles, 1994; Strauss & Corbin, 1994; Yin, 1989). While sampling of the information is discussed in the next section of the chapter, the method of sampling participants is discussed in this section.

Two kinds of sampling of participants are proposed: non-probability sampling and theoretical sampling. For example, one form of non-probability sampling is snowballing sampling—where one person tells about another person who could be involved in the study (Burns, 1994). This occurred in the study undertaken here where administrative staff at the University of Adelaide and in institutions in Indonesia were asked to provide names, or categories of other participants, who should be approached to contribute to the study. In addition to non-probability (snowballing sampling) the main method of sampling was theoretical sampling where the

collection of data was influenced by the theory that is developing. Theoretical sampling allows for the sample to be changed and/or extended as the theory develops. The purpose of theoretical sampling is to assist in the discovery and development of categories.

Chapter 5 outlines how these sampling strategies operated in practice. In brief, while the student cohort remained stable the additional people interviewed and the small scale 'sub-research projects' involved arose from the responses received from students during the interviews and workshops. For example, the inclusion of the Returnee Study was a direct outcome of the emerging theory that expectations of returning home significantly influenced students' experiences while in Australia.

The sampling in this study can be discussed at two levels: sampling of participants, and sampling within cases. Details of how and why various participants were invited to take part and details of how information was analysed will be provided in Chapter 5 'Research Design.'

Analysis

Within this study, there are many individual cases and the danger exists that in trying to generalise across them that they "will be analyzed at high levels of inference, aggregating out the local webs of causality and ending with a smoothed set of generalizations which may not apply to any one case" (Huberman & Miles, 1994, p. 435). However, as a way of overcoming the 'over-generalised' possibility the following cross-case analysis strategies have been adopted (Denzin, 1994; Huberman & Miles, 1994; Yin, 1989).

1. *Case-oriented strategies*, including replication of cases, the inductive building-up of framework using grounded theory and the use of multiple exemplars.

2. *Variable-oriented strategies* where one looks for themes and pattern clarification across cases.

3. *Mixed strategies* using interactive synthesis where individual case synopses are prepared and then cross-case narratives are developed based on themes.

For this study all three strategies have been used. *Case-oriented strategies* have been used when analysing for development over time, looking for changes in attitude and approach throughout the candidature of students. To analyse for particular themes and variables, for example, course type, employment background and previous academic experiences *variable-oriented strategies*

have been adopted. The third, *mixed strategies* was adopted to allow for analysis which might not otherwise have been obvious through the other methods.

To enable insightful analysis one of the requirements is that data analysis occurs throughout data collection. "Analysis during data collection lets the field worker cycle back and forth between thinking about the existing data and generating strategies for collecting new—often better quality—data" (Miles & Huberman, 1984, p. 49). This process allows for the data to be "both the evidence and the clues" (Bogdan & Taylor, 1975, p. 73).

Ongoing analysis was adopted in this study in three particular ways given the 'staggered' nature of the cohort as outlined in Table 13 and three strategies were adopted.

Table 13.   Outline of Cohort

February 1995	July 1995	February 1997	July 1996	Total
Cohort 1	Cohort 2	Cohort 3	Cohort 4	
16 students	8 students	4 students	5 students	33 students

The first strategy adopted was the analysis of previous interviews to assist in the development of the next set of questions for the first cohort. The second strategy was the use of student workshops. These were held in each fourth quarter. At these workshops the results of the study were reported to the students for critical comment and suggestions sought for further questioning and research. The third strategy was the actual analysis of a set of interviews. For example, once interview one had been completed for all four cohorts then the first interviews for *all* the students were analysed. This form of analysis enabled any differences between the cohorts to become evident, and also enabled a more comprehensive picture to develop.

Trustworthiness

Rather than using the term 'validity' which is identified with quantitative research, Guba (1981) refers to the term 'trustworthiness' (pp. 79-80). The literature generally suggests two main ways for ensuring the trustworthiness of qualitative research, a) saturation, and b) triangulation (Denzin, 1990; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Hopkins, Bollington & Hewett, 1989; Mathison, 1998). Saturation is described as follows:

If, on repeated testing the category is found wanting, it is then discarded...the concept is modified, refined and amplified...repeated observation leads neither to refutation or amplification and only serves to support the hypothesis. (Hopkins et al., 1989, pp. 64-65)

Triangulation on the other hand "is the application and combination of several research methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon" (Denzin, 1990, p. 592). Four types of triangulation are suggested: use of different data, including different time, space and persons, use of different investigators, use of more than one theoretical scheme, and use of more that one methodological strategy (Denzin, 1990, p. 593). The three outcomes of triangulation are convergence, inconsistency and contradiction. Inconsistency and contradiction are particularly helpful to the researcher in gaining a greater understanding of the phenomenon (Mathison, 1998) because they pose questions to the researcher as to why there are contradictions or inconsistencies.

When hypotheses or concepts are validated by saturation or triangulation the "qualitative researchers are producing what Guba and Strauss called 'grounded theory', because it is theory grounded in data gathered from, and applicable to, a specific social setting" (Hopkins et al., 1989, p. 66).

Both saturation and triangulation have been used in this study. The triangulation exercise used different persons, place and time—different students, supervisors, support staff, employers and funding bodies in Australian and Indonesia over a period of four years and using interview, rating scale, inventory and correspondence. Saturation has occurred through asking the same question of a range of people until the responses were confirmed or not. In addition, certain questions were asked of the same students but at different times of their candidature.

The use of the term 'trustworthiness' implies a strong 'moral and ethical' imperative for the qualitative researcher (Guba, 1981). Can the researcher be 'trusted' to act in an ethical manner in the way she seeks, analyses and reports her information? How can she ensure that her results are 'trustworthy'? The concept of 'trustworthiness' in research is fundamental to the whole pursuit of phenomenographic research and central to my thinking as a researcher in this study.

Ethics

Various ethical positions in research are proposed (Denzin, 1994; Fine, 1994; Fontana & Frey, 1994; Punch, 1994). The *absolutist* position is one where a researcher has no right to invade the privacy of others. This is quite different from the *deception* position which suggests that anything is acceptable 'in the name of science, truth and understanding.' The *relativist* position, on the other hand, argues that one should only study problems flowing from one's own experience, whereas the *contextualized* position argues that all research is contextual. Finally the *consequentialist* position considers that each research act has a consequence.

> The contextualized-consequentialist model...builds on four principles...mutual respect, noncoercion and nonmanipulation, the support of democratic values and institutions, and the belief that every research act implies, moral and ethical decisions that are contextual. Every ethical decision, that is, affects others with immediate and long range consequences. These consequences involve personal values held by the researcher and those studied. (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, pp. 21-22)

Prior to commencing this study it was clear that there were serious ethical considerations given that in conducting the study there would be contextual and consequential decisions particularly for the students and to a lesser extent the supervisors. I was aware that it was possible, through inadvertent comments or reporting, that there could be negative effects on students, their supervisors, or others involved in the study. This was of particular concern given that I was working with students from another country. As Miles and Huberman (1984) state "Fundamentally, field research is an act of betrayal, no matter how well intentioned or well integrated by the researcher" (p. 233).

This is particularly the case when one realises that it is not possible to predict the ways in which one's research might be used. I was aware, too, that there would be consequences for me, both in terms of my understanding of myself and of my understanding of, at the very least, 33 Indonesian students studying at the University of Adelaide and their supervisors. I was also aware that I must not 'spoil' the research area for others or 'soil the nest' as (Punch, 1994) suggests. The political, cultural, economic and education relationship between Indonesia and Australia has been developing over time. There have been 'hiccups' in this process, and I did not want my research to contribute to one of them. Therefore, I took seriously the comment that:

In general, serious academics in a sound academic community will espouse trust, reject deception, and abhor harm. They will be wary of spoiling the field, of closing doors to research, and of damaging the reputation of their profession—both as a matter of principle and out of self-interest. (Punch, 1994, p. 94)

The Code of Ethics of the Australian Association for Research in Education (1995) has provided guidance in this matter. Details of how ethical considerations were dealt with in a practical way are outlined in Chapter 5.

Writing

When one attempts to see 'differently', that is through someone else's eyes, one sees a different world and "different ways of saying allow us to represent different worlds" (Eisner, 1992, p. 14). Therefore to understand how I might adequately represent the views and experiences of 'others' when writing the report for this research study I heeded the following advice:

> In qualitatively oriented approaches and among the more self-consciously 'scientific' qualitative types as well, researchers typically desert their subjects at the last minute, leaving folks and findings to fend for themselves, seemingly untainted by human hands and most certainly untouched by human hearts. (Wolcott, 1990, p. 19)

I have tried to make sure that the participants in this study will not be 'deserted.' At the same time, I have been very conscious of my position as researcher, staff member at the University of Adelaide, native English speaker and native of Adelaide, when researching the experiences of students from another country, culture and language base. I have attempted to maintain an awareness of the 'hyphen', that is, the knowledge, experience, values and beliefs which come between the perceived reality of two groups, in this case the researcher and the researched.

> Sometimes explicitly trading on race/class privilege, [and in my case, position] in these instances researchers understand the hyphen all too well. Bartering privilege for justice, we re-present stories told by subjugated Others, stories that would otherwise be discarded. And we get a hearing…Here at the Self-Other border, it is not that researchers are absented and Others fronted. Instead, the class politics of transition demands that a researcher is doused quite evidently in status and privilege as the Other sits domesticated. (Fine, 1994, pp. 79-80)

It is because of the privileged position I hold that I am able to tell the stories of these students in a way which will receive a hearing and may well result in future change and improvement for Indonesian postgraduate students studying at the University of Adelaide, and possibly other Australian universities.

I have adopted a comparative structure, that is, one which "compares alternative descriptions or explanations of several cases/problems/issues, or is iterative of the same case/issue from different points of view" (Burns, 1994 p. 378) to allow for the reporting of a number of different cases and/or themes from case studies. I have also attempted to include, wherever possible, direct comments from participants. However, I have also been aware of the need to maintain confidentiality and privacy, so in some cases modifications have been made, and are noted in the text.

Why not other Methodologies?

Clearly from the above descriptions there are a number of alternative methodologies and approaches that could have been adopted in this research, however, none seemed as appropriate as that adopted. This was for three reasons. Firstly my personal epistemology does not support a positivist view of the world and, therefore, of research and it was clear that the very nature of the research questions meant that a positivist approach would yield only the most superficial of explanations for what is a highly complex interaction of factors.

Secondly, the researched and the researcher were operating within a defined cross-cultural context and the research was related to those students' experiences within a culture other than their own. Having said this, the research was focussed on the students and their own cultural, political, religious and academic backgrounds and what that meant for them studying in Australia. As a result, methodologies based on critical theory or a feminist perspective while being possible, would have focussed more on the environment into which the student was moving, rather than the student and her/his own experiences of that environment. The phenomenographic approach was quite specifically adopted to allow the focus on the students and their experiences to dominate the research.

Thirdly, one of the most significant factors of this study was its focus on change over time and hence a longitudinal study, with the constraints and benefits that this approach brings, was clearly essential. Ideally the longitudinal study should have commenced with the students while still in Indonesia and then traced through for several years after their return. However, the requirements of doctoral candidature in Australia, even for part-time students, made such an approach impractical.

Chapter Summary

The phenomenographic methodology adopted for this study is located within a paradigm which can be described as 'interpretivist.' This approach requires that the researcher interacts with the people involved in the study so that their 'realities' are seen and interpreted from their perspectives and not from the perspective of the researcher as an outsider.

It was argued that this approach was appropriate for the research being undertaken as it allowed me as the researcher to be able to put myself in the place or role of the students so that I could interpret their experiences in ways which took into account the prior experiences, the cultures that defined them.

As the research was taking place in a cross-cultural environment the section on cross-cultural research argued for a universalist approach to research, that is one where the research focuses on both the cultural context and the commonalities of human experiences. While ethical issues are always of fundamental importance in all research, in the case of cross-cultural research they take on added dimensions. In this study the particular concerns are with understanding the cultural influences sufficiently well to be able to interpret students' comments appropriately and report the findings.

A phenomenographic approach to the interviews was adopted to allow for an understanding of the experiences through the students eyes. In addition, a case study strategy was adopted to allow for in-depth examination of a sample of the phenomena being discussed in the study. While the 33 students in the main study provide the focus for the study, the results from the in-depth and repeated interviews are triangulated through five data sources with early and ongoing analysis of the data in order that early analysis can inform continuing analysis.

CHAPTER 5 RESEARCH DESIGN

Introduction

This chapter is presented in three sections. Section 1 outlines the various components of the total study being reported here. Section 2 describes the design and conduct of the central component of the research, that is the Adelaide Longitudinal Study. Section 3 then describes the design and conduct of the research components that support the Adelaide Longitudinal Study. The following chapter, Chapter 6 provides some initial findings from the Adelaide Longitudinal Study and each of the supporting studies and demonstrates their relevance to the total study.

Section 1: Components of the Study

This research involved the Adelaide Longitudinal Study and supporting studies. Figure 10 provides an overview of all of the components of the research and their relationship to the overall study. The Adelaide Longitudinal Study comprised interviews and workshops with 33 Indonesian postgraduate students at the University of Adelaide, their supervisors, administrative and support staff of the University, funding and administrative bodies and some senior staff in Indonesia. The students were also asked to complete a Supervisory Rating Scale, Culture Shock Schema and Resources Inventory. Emails and Letters from the students along with the results of the Supervisory Rating Scale completed by supervisors all provided data for the Adelaide Longitudinal Study.

Five small-scale studies have also contributed to this overall project. The first was the Pre-departure Study that interviewed 20 students and five staff involved in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) classes at the IALF (Bali Branch) prior to departing for postgraduate study in Australia. The second was the Returnee Study. This research involved interviewing 50 returnees in Indonesia after studying in Australia for their reflections on their experiences while in Australia and more particularly their experiences on return. The third was a quantitative study conducted in Indonesia relating to Indonesian postgraduate students' conceptions of, and approaches to, learning (Meyer & Kiley, 1998). The fourth, conducted in Australia, focused on 55 local and international postgraduate students' experiences with feedback as a form of

assessment on their progress (Kiley, 1996b). Finally the fifth study examined postgraduate students' and supervisors' views on quality supervision (Kiley, 1993a; Kiley, 1993b).

Figure 10.   Overview of the total research
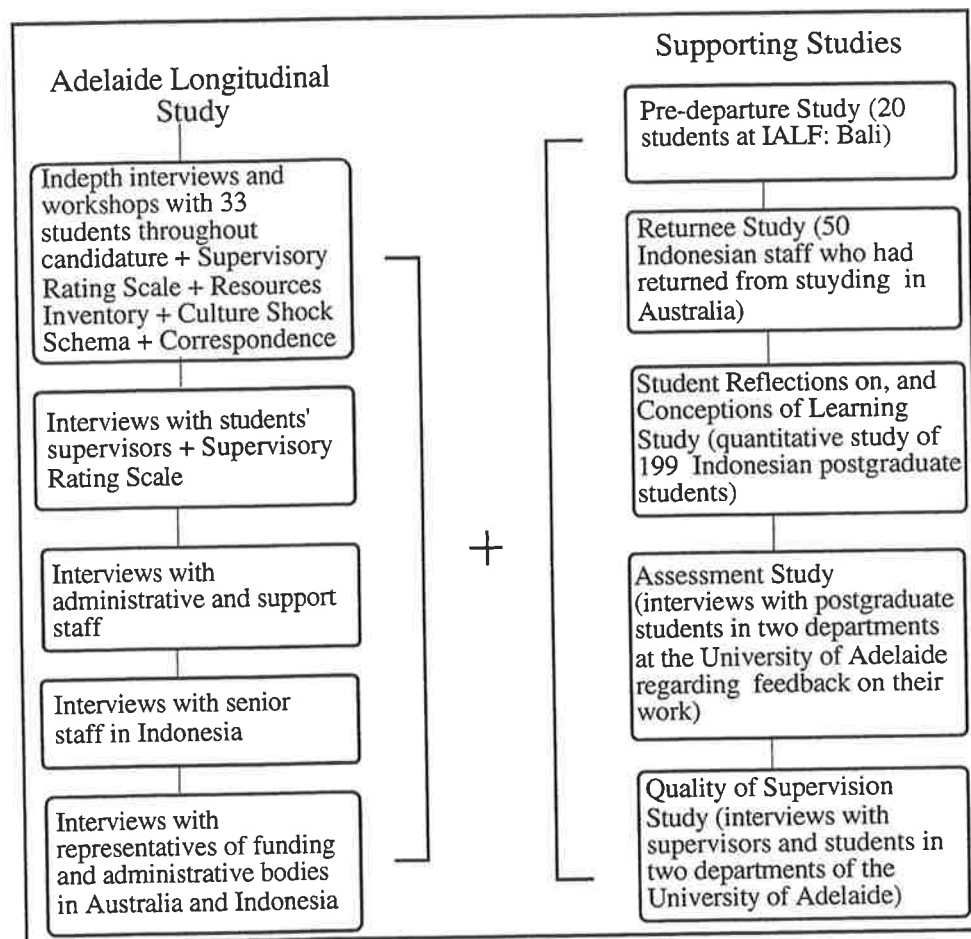
The study by Daroesman and Daroesman (1992) further guided the research design of this project. In *Degrees of success: A tracer study of Australian Government sponsored Indonesian Fellowships 1970-1989,* Daroesman and Daroesman have provided one of the few studies that focuses on Indonesian students. As a result of this research the authors determined a range of issues which will be highlighted and discussed in Chapters 7 to 10.

Section 2: The Adelaide Longitudinal Study

Initial Stages

Forty-two students were approached by letter to take part in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study. These were students from Indonesia who commenced their postgraduate candidature at the University of Adelaide over four intakes, January and July 1995 plus January and July 1996. For 1995 the criteria used to invite students to be part of the research project were that: they were

from Indonesia; in their first year of candidature for PhD, Masters by Research or Masters by Coursework; and that they appeared on a list provided by the International Programs Office. It was clear after the first two intakes that the lists of names provided by the International Programs Office were not complete and so some potential students, whose names did not appear, were unfortunately omitted from the study. This difficulty was rectified in 1996 by using the data from the International Bridging Program (IBP) which appeared to be more complete.

Also in 1996, given that 46% of the students in the study to date were undertaking Coursework Masters, it was decided to invite research-only students to join the study (see Table 14 for summary of the data for all students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study). The differences between coursework and research-only students, which will be discussed in Part 4, were becoming evident, and with almost 50% of the cohort being coursework students by the end of the first year it was deemed necessary to aim for a different balance between coursework and research students.

Table 14.   Summary of All Adelaide Longitudinal Study Student Data

	Female	Male	Total
Total students invited to join study	17	25	42
Number agreeing to continue	13	20	33
Masters by coursework	6	5	11
Masters by research	3	6	9
PhD	4	9	13
Mean age at commencement	32	32.5	32

Up to three letters were sent to students explaining the project and inviting them to discuss their possible involvement during an initial meeting (see Appendix D). It was assumed that as this was a new study it would take some time for these recently-arrived students to come to an understanding of the request and feel comfortable enough to make contact. It was also assumed that if a student had not responded after three letters that this was considered to be a 'No.' Of the 42 students approached, two did not respond, four came for the first interview and then not again, one moved to another university, and after discussion with another two it was agreed, that due to their impending resident status that they would not continue as part of the group. In summary the selection criteria for the 33 Indonesian students in the sample were that they were

higher degree students, with a balance between coursework and research-only degrees, they were from Indonesia, that they commenced their award during 1995 or 1996, that they agreed to be part of the study, and that they remained in contact with the study beyond 12 months. From the initial 42 students approached 79%, that is 33 students constituted the sample (see Appendix E for demographic data on the four cohorts).

The University of Adelaide, while theoretically encouraging continuous enrolment for higher degree awards, in practice tends to enrol students either at the beginning of each academic year (February), or mid-way through the year (July). The cohort structure comprised four groups reflecting these two enrolment periods over two years, that is February and July 1995 and February and July 1996.

Given the differing starting dates and differing lengths of candidature[1] there were clearly differing finishing dates for various students. At the time of completion of this study, some students were still enrolled because they had received extensions to their scholarship, had their candidature upgraded from Masters to PhD, or had been in the last cohort and had been granted four year PhD scholarships. Having said that, 85% ($n=28$) of the students had, or were about to submit, at the time this study was completed.

The Interviews with Students

The 33 students who remained with the study were interviewed, on average, every three months, with generally every fourth interview being a group workshop (see Table 15). At the workshops, findings to date were presented and comments sought on the accuracy or otherwise of my conclusions. During the workshops students were also asked to suggest topics and issues to be followed up in the next twelve months. While the interviews were all confidential the workshops provided opportunities for students to share their ideas with others and to check whether they were not the only ones with such experiences. Clearly not all students would have completed candidature by the November 1998 interview. However, all students were informed well in advance of the final interview, and particularly for Cohort 4 the main outstanding questions were asked of them as well as the final questions asked of everyone in the last interview.

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[1]   These differing lengths resulted from different awards, that is PhD, Research Masters and Coursework Masters, and individual student progression rates which occur in higher degrees.

Table 15.   Program of Interviews and Workshops

Date	Cohort 1	Cohort 2	Cohort 3	Cohort 4
February '95	Interview 1			
May '95	Interview 2			
August '95	Interview 3	Interview 1		
November '95	Workshop 1	Interview 2		
February '96	Interview 4	Interview 3	Interview 1	
May '96	Interview 5	Workshop 1	Interview 2	
August '96	Interview 6	Interview 4	Interview 3	Interview 1
November '96	Workshop 2	Interview 5	Workshop 1	Interview 2
February '97	Interview 7	Interview 6	Interview 4	Interview 3
May '97	Interview 8	Workshop 2	Interview 5	Workshop 1
August '97	Interview 9	Interview 7	Interview 6	Interview 4
November '97		No Interviews due to Fieldwork in Indonesia		
February '98	Interview 10	Interview 8	Interview 7	Interview 5
May '98	Workshop 3	Workshop 3	Workshop 2	Workshop 2
August '98	Interview 11	Interview 9	Interview 8	Interview 6
November '98	Interview 12	Interview 10	Interview 9	Interview 7
March '99		Final workshop and farewell party		

The first interview was held when each student was within the first three months of arrival at the University of Adelaide. During this interview students were told about the project and invited to take part. If they agreed, then the rest of the interview was used for both interviewer and interviewee to get to know one another. General questions were asked, particularly those perceived by the interviewer to be non-threatening and appropriate within the Indonesian context, for example age and marital status, questions which are common on first meeting in Indonesia. Students were also encouraged to ask personal questions of the interviewer, with the most common being "Why are you doing this study only for Indonesian students?" As this interview was the first time for meeting, it was decided not to ask students if the interview could be taped. As a result, any student 'quotes' from the first interview, are in fact paraphrases. However, at the commencement of the second interview students were asked if they were comfortable for that, and subsequent, interviews to taped. All agreed, thereby enabling student quotes from interview two and following interviews to be transcripts.

Throughout the study the students were generous beyond expectation with their time, commitment and support for the project. Comments relating to the evolution of the relationship between the interviewer and interviewees and the trust which developed during the project are mentioned throughout the reporting of the findings. However, it is important to note the significant change in the overall quality of the interviews after two, to two and a half years. Rather than the interviews being 'question/answer' sessions they became much more of a discussion of issues *important to the student*. It was quite common in the later interviews for students to say something like "Do you have anything you have to do now or someone else to see [my paraphrase]?" If my answer was "No" then the interview would often continue for anything up to another hour while students shared views and opinions related to politics, social and religious issues and issues related to relationships. The final interview was the most open of all. I explained to the students five weeks in advance that this would be the last interview and invited each of them to come prepared to talk about anything they thought they wanted to discuss with me or that they thought I 'should' know to help me better understand them and their situation.

One of the issues arising from the type of interaction engendered in these interviews is that it is not possible to remain the dispassionate interviewer. I have identified my involvement with the students and recognised that it has ultimately affected the results of the study responses. For example, some students asked me what they should do about certain difficulties with their supervisor or on an issue related to their learning. I discussed the matter with them and encouraged them to take action to resolve the difficulty which in some cases they did. Had they not been able to talk with me I can not assume that they would have found someone else, or resolved the difficulty in the same way. I was also aware of the issues related to the Hawthorne effect[2] of research and evaluation. As one student who wrote to me after her return said:

> Did you still remember when the first time you interview me? At that time when you gave me opportunity to rise [*sic*] a question about anything to you, my question was...something about can I finish the study successfully? When I thinking back of that time of that question, that was a silly question but that it was an expression about my worriness [*sic*] about dealing with the new academic environment in Australia. Now, what I am trying to say is you are very helpful as

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2   Discussed in Chapter 4.

an interviewer and also as friend for giving me helpful suggestion [*sic*]. (IemLetter1: 13-20)

Interview Questions

Each interview started with general, informal discussion about family, study or a recent social function. As each session progressed I asked the questions determined for that session but in whatever order seemed appropriate at the time. Questions for each interview are provided in Appendix F. These questions arose from a number of sources: the previous set of interviews; students' comments and suggestions at workshops; relevant literature; contemporary issues; and suggestions made by Daroesman (pers. com. 1995), particularly where the same question was asked a number of different times.

Daroesman suggested that there were four critical issues which the Adelaide Longitudinal Study, compared with other forms of research, was well placed to address. The *first* was the importance of 'getting beyond' the expected answers that participants were likely to provide, at least in the first instance. She recommended that various issues be revisited during the study and that variations in responses over time, be carefully heeded. The *second* critical issue was to determine how students were identified for selection. Who encouraged/discouraged them and how was this done? Although there is Joint Selection[3] of students, Daroesman suggested that what was at the heart of the issue was how students got to Joint Selection in the first place. The *third* issue was to consider carefully the effect of students' home location and institution on their experiences as international students. She suggested, for example, that students from the capital, Jakarta, might experience their sojourn differently from students from a regional area. The students in the study also pressed this point on a number of occasions and it is discussed in Part 4. The *fourth* issue for Daroesman was how students were allocated their supervisor: whether the supervisor and student had any knowledge of one another prior to commencement of candidature; what experience supervisors had had with supervising foreign students; and how they felt about having these students. These issues have been carefully considered in the overall design of the study and this report.

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3   Joint Selection was discussed in Appendix C.

Each session always ended with "Do you have any questions of me?" Invariably students would have something to ask. The most usual question was about the study itself and we would often discuss that for some time. Several students were particularly keen to know whether their experiences were similar to those of others in the study. But the questions ranged from a personal problem they had with a partner or child, or a difficulty with their supervisor, to how to negotiate a particular cultural event such as Christmas.

Location

For students on the North Terrace (main) campus of the University the interviews were conducted in my office, located within the same Centre that many of them attended for their Integrated Bridging Program or language and learning support. The location was generally well known to them prior to the interviews and provided a comfortable and private environment for the interview. For students at the Waite (suburban) campus—and one at the Roseworthy (rural) campus for the first twelve months—locating the interviews was somewhat more difficult. As most of these students were working in laboratories it was hard to find a place where the interviewer and interviewee would feel comfortable discussing issues arising in the interviews. After trying a few venues we found that the most comfortable location seemed to be the student and staff cafeteria. Busy times (morning tea, lunch and afternoon tea) were avoided and on each occasion it was possible to find a table away from others, usually by a window, with the interviews occurring over coffee. This turned out to be a central and comfortable venue.

Reporting Conventions

To ensure anonymity, each student reported in the study has been given a pseudonym. The pseudonyms were generated as a group exercise consisting of Indonesians and Australians who were very well versed in matters related to Indonesia. While it is recognised that students from different parts of Indonesia would have quite distinctive names, for example Balinese names are generally quite different from Javanese names, it was decided to not allocate names according to location. There seemed little point in using pseudonyms if the one Balinese student in the study was given an obviously Balinese name. The names are, however, sex-differentiated. These pseudonyms plus a numeral designating the interview, have been used whenever citing students' comments, for example 'Watie3' followed by the text units cited. Other terms such as 'Letter1'

and 'Email2' are used if the quote did not come from an interview. The numeral represents the sequential numbering given to each communication, per student, of this sort.

Appendix G provides a list, by chapter, of all of the interview quotes. Included are the pseudonym, interview number, and text units. It will be noted from this list that each of the 33 students was cited at least once, with an average of nine quotes per student. With regard to quotes from supervisors and others interviewed as part of the study, pseudonyms have not been used. Rather, a term describing the discipline or function from which the interviewee came has been used. For example, Supervisor plus a numeral as an identifier for organisational purposes ('Supervisor47') has been used or Student Support plus an identifier ('Student_Support21') followed by the text units cited.

When the students were talking in the interviews, they were often relating emotional experiences and they tended to be concentrating more on the content than on the English language expression of what they were saying. It was not uncommon for students to use *Bahasa Indonesia* words to explain something or to explain a concept in a form of English that they would not use in a more formal situation. When transcribed, there were occasions when the English expression of some students either did not make it clear what they were intending (without far more context), or their English language expression tended to make them appear incoherent. This matter was of some concern to me as a researcher, in that I did not want students to feel that they might be being 'parodied' but at the same time I did not want them to feel that their thoughts and ideas had been altered.

I took this issue to the students and sought their advice. The result was that they wanted me to make clear the meaning, even if it meant altering the text slightly, and that they definitely did not want to appear to be incoherent. Given their comments, some quotes by students have been altered in one or more of the following ways:

- if students used an English word or phrase and then corrected themselves with a more appropriate word, then an ellipsis has been used to show where the repetitions have been omitted;
- where students used a word, but the use of that word has not clearly expressed their intention, then an explanatory word or phrase has been included in square brackets;

- where students have used she instead of he, her instead of him and vice versa,[4] and where that third person pronoun is important, the appropriate one has been included;
- in the cases where I consider that a substantial amount of a sentence or paragraph might be unclear to the reader I have paraphrased, in square brackets;
- my questions/statements are italicised for ease of differentiation.

Ethical Concerns

The University of Adelaide does not have a formal social sciences code of ethics. Therefore, I referred to the Code of Ethics of the Australian Association of Research in Education (1995) and adopted the principles contained within that Code. All students at the end of the first interview, if they agreed to continue, were given a letter of contract (see Appendix H) which was carefully explained. In addition, the workshops were used to raise and discuss issues of ethical concern to the students and to me.

Given the interest the students took in the study and as a means of recognising their contributions, it was agreed that after submission for examination, I would prepare a summary of the main findings and forward a copy to each student who had taken part in the study. This was in addition to copying and distributing relevant written work to students during the study.

Embargo of Publication of PhD Thesis

To ensure that all students had an opportunity to complete their candidature without feeling disadvantaged because of any perceived negative effects from the results of this study, an embargo has been placed on its publication until every student had either completed or withdrawn. While it is unlikely that supervisors will be able to recognise their students or themselves it was anticipated that students would feel more comfortable if they knew that they had completed before anyone, other than the examiners, had read their comments[5].

One possible difficulty, which was overcome, is that one of the supervisors for this study also supervised some of the students in the cohort, as principal supervisor to one and joint supervisor for two others. While his role with this study was very much as a consultant on one or two

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4   One of the few things most Indonesian students seem to have consistent difficulty with is the use of the third person pronoun.
5   This does not include the summary being sent to participants.

specific issues related to Indonesia, the students and supervisor concerned were fully informed of this situation. As a result, with the students' and supervisor's agreement, only very small amounts of written work were shown to this supervisor at the end of this study, none of it involving comments by students in his department.

Cross-cultural Issues

The issues related to researching in a cross-cultural context were raised in Chapter 4. In order to address these issues a number of strategies were developed. The first related to language. As students were studying in an English-speaking university it was considered appropriate that the interviews be conducted in English. However, every now and then several of the students would use an Indonesian word or phrase to describe an event, emotion or phenomenon, often when they could not think of an equivalent English word or phrase. Where this occurred, if I did not know the meaning, we would consult an Indonesian-English dictionary and work out the most appropriate meaning. On other occasions there was no difficulty with joint understanding.

Another strategy was to talk regularly about the different cultural contexts in which both the students and I found ourselves. It was not uncommon for the discussion to go something like "Given my position as an Anglo-Australian who is trying to understand...from your point of view as an Indonesian, is there some way you can explain it to me." Or "I know from my reading that...but how does that actually work in practice?" In most cases students went to great lengths to ensure that I understood cultural, religious and language issues which impacted upon our relationship and my understanding. While there is no doubt that I often made 'blunders' or cross-cultural *faux pas* in my efforts to work with the students, my time living in Indonesia and regular subsequent visits and my ongoing *Bahasa Indonesia* classes assisted with some understanding. Also, my own experiences of living in a different culture, as well as being a postgraduate student like them, struggling with my own research, often sensitised me to difficulties and issues confronted by the students.

During the second interview students were shown a Culture Shock schema and asked to locate themselves according to the way they felt at the time (see Appendix I). The use of this survey was intended as an 'ice-breaker', that is a way of helping the students talk about how they felt after having been in Adelaide for approximately six months The use of the 'faces' to denote

feelings such as happiness and loneliness assisted students identify their own emotions. This was certainly not a 'scientific' study of the topic of culture shock but a way of 'chatting' about the issue. As many of the students had already been exposed to the notion of culture shock there was little need to explain the purpose and phrasing of the survey and several immediately identified with it.

Resources Inventory

In order to evaluate the students' access to resources compared with an Australia-wide cohort, and thus the relevance of the resource issues in their replies, a small-scale survey was conducted based on the work of Grigg (1996) (see Appendix J). In 1996 Grigg surveyed 437 Overseas Postgraduate Research Scholarship Scheme (OPRS) students and 396 supervisors in Australia. The survey instrument used a modified form of the questionnaire developed and used by Powles (1995) in her study of the Australian Postgraduate Award (Industry) (APRA(I)) scheme in 1994. A modified form of the survey was given to students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study at the end of Interview Two with an explanation of its origin and purpose. Some students chose to complete it while still with me, others took it away with them and returned it at a later stage. The results of this survey, outlined in Chapter 6, provided insights into students' access to facilities and support.

Interviews with Supervisors

With students' knowledge and agreement their Supervisor(s) were interviewed. Twenty six in all were interviewed, 22 males and 4 females. These 26 supervisors, between them, were supervising 29 of the 33 students in the study (the four MBA students did not have supervisors). Supervisors were interviewed in their own offices. After a brief explanation, introductory and demographic questions were asked, for example, age group and years of experience supervising students. The interviews then focussed on the supervisors, rather than their students, with questions about their own experiences as doctoral students, their concerns and satisfactions regarding supervision, particularly international students, and what they considered to be the main roles of a supervisor. These interviews were particularly relevant to the Adelaide Longitudinal Study as they provided insights into supervisors' motivations and concerns regarding supervision.

Other Interviews at the University of Adelaide

Over recent years, particularly since the early 1990s, the University of Adelaide has invested considerable financial and personnel resources into attracting international students to the University. In an effort to determine the philosophy underpinning this focus on international students interviews were conducted with key relevant administrators in the University of Adelaide. There are a number of staff employed to support international students including counsellors, housing and finance advisers, course advisers and staff to assist with visa and other administrative issues. This is in addition to the Graduate Studies Office, Health Service and Advisory Centre for University Education which provide assistance to all students although often with particular services for international students. A range of these support people were interviewed regarding the various services and their use by Indonesian students.

Interviews with Representatives of Funding and Administering Organisations

Representatives of various funding and support organisations in Australia and Indonesia were interviewed in an effort to determine policies and practices related to international students, particularly those from Indonesia. These organisations included IDP (in Australia and Indonesia), AusAID (again in Australia and Indonesia), the Australian Embassy in Jakarta, the Indonesia Australia Language Foundation (IALF) in Jakarta and Bali, and the Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs. In addition, in 1995, I was invited to observe a series of Joint Selection interviews conducted in Jakarta. With the applicants' agreement I sat in on the interviews and subsequent discussions regarding student selection. As this process was confidential it will not be specifically reported here but the opportunity provided insights into the selection process engaged in by the students from the Adelaide Longitudinal Study.

Interviews with Senior Staff in Indonesia

Eighteen senior staff members in Indonesia were interviewed as part of the Adelaide Longitudinal Study. These were people responsible for encouraging staff to apply for study overseas, and who place these staff on their return. Several were in government offices, for example the Department of Family Planning *(Badan Koordinasi Keluarga Berencana Nasional—BKKBN)*, Bureau of Economic and Financial Analysis: Department of Finance, *(Departemen Keuangan)* and Department of Manpower *(Departemen Tenaga Kerja)*. Others

were in universities, for example, University of Indonesia *(Universitas Indonesia)*, Bogor Institute of Agriculture *(Institut Pertanian Bogor)*, and University of Mataram *(Universitas Mataram)*. In addition, conversations were held with project staff responsible for selecting and placing participants for example the Indonesian Australia Eastern Universities Project. These interviews provided insights into the identification and nomination of potential applicants and concerns and benefits regarding their return home.

Analysis of Adelaide Longitudinal Study Interview Data

Interview data from the 33 students were analysed in a different way from that of the one-off interviews with all other interviewees. The student interviews were approached from three different perspectives. The major focus was the identification of themes and the grouping of these themes into what phenomenographers describe as 'categories of description' (Bryman & Burgess, 1994; Entwistle, 1997; Johansson, Marton & Svensson, 1985; Svensson, 1997). Once the categories of description had been identified they were then re-examined to highlight links between them and to the results of all the other interviews and studies conducted. (see Figure 11 for an overview of the process). In the main, the results of this analysis are reported in Part 4.

A subsidiary, but important, analysis focused on particular variables of the student population, for example, age, job in Indonesia and previous overseas study. These results are also used to reflect and compare the phenomenographic results outlined above.

The third focus for the analysis was the development and change of both the students and the various themes of the study over the four years of the research. For example, one matter alluded to earlier in this chapter is the qualitative change in the interview content, style and length as the study progressed. Others will be described in Part 4.

Figure 11.   Steps in analysis

```
        ┌─────────────────────┐
        │    Collect data     │
        └─────────────────────┘
                  │
                  ▼
        ┌─────────────────────┐
        │ Read several times  │
        │ seeking repetition of│
        │ concepts            │
        └─────────────────────┘
                  │           ┌──────────────────────┐
                  │  ◄────────►│  Develop categories  │
                  ▼           │      (Coding)        │
        ┌─────────────────────┐└──────────────────────┘
        │ Further research until│
        │ saturation of categories│
        │ is reached i.e. assured│  ┌──────────────────────┐
        │ of the meaning and   │  │ Formulate more abstract│
        │ importance of the    │  │ categories to embrace and│
        │ category            │  │ widen range of original│
        └─────────────────────┘  │ concepts             │
                  └──────────────►└──────────────────────┘
                                           │
                                           ▼
                                 ┌──────────────────────┐
                                 │ Determine the        │
                                 │ interconnection of   │
                                 │ categories and test the│
                                 │ hypothesised links   │
                                 │ between categories   │
                                 └──────────────────────┘
```

A key concept in this form of interpretive research and analysis is the notion of ongoing analysis. This was a crucial aspect of the analysis of the student interviews. For example, once the first cohort of Interview One had been completed, the transcripts were analysed to determine emerging themes. As a result, frequently-asked questions with subsequent cohorts would take a different slant, based on the analysis of the responses from an earlier cohort. Ongoing analysis had even more immediate effects, for example, in Interview Six Muslim students were asked to talk about the Islamic religion as it is practised in Indonesia. However, after several responses it was clear that what was much more important to the students, and the study, was how their practising of Islam affected them, particularly as students in Australia. Therefore, the question was altered in subsequent interviews to reflect this different focus.

Also the concept of 'saturation'[6] was important in this ongoing study. Saturation occurred frequently during the study. For example, after fourteen or fifteen interviews one could virtually predict the initial answer to "What has been the best thing about being in Adelaide?" that is, "It

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6   See Chapter 4 for a description of 'saturation'.

is so easy, easy to get around, easy to do things [my paraphrase]." In the same way, after 15 or so interviews it was almost possible to predict the answer to "Do you have any real financial difficulties here in Adelaide?" The answer, prior to the economic crisis, was invariably "No." With the onset of the Indonesian economic crisis some students were concerned about the continuation of their Indonesian-based scholarship and most students were concerned about their families at home. However, prior to the crisis all students were coping quite well financially. Such an answer would not have been predicted from the literature where financial difficulties are frequently reported. However, having reached this predictable response it was possible to question the literature, at least where Indonesian postgraduates are concerned.

Data Management

The computer program NUD*IST[7] was used to store, retrieve and analyse all interviews. The program "manages data documents...creates an environment in which you can create, manage and explore the ideas and categories...[and] is above all designed for asking questions and building and testing theories" (Qualitative Solutions and Research, 1997, p. 3).

NUD*IST was considered the appropriate tool to use in this situation for a number of reasons. First it provided the opportunity to categorise, to develop, and to change as the interviews advanced and students were able to provide more in-depth and complex responses. Secondly, NUD*IST allowed analysis of nodes to be 'fed back' into the data to be re-analysed. Thirdly it allowed the results of interviews to be analysed without requiring the questions and answers to follow any pre-determined order. A fourth, and very pragmatic reason for choosing NUD*IST was that the developers provided ease of access to helpful on-line support and advice.

NUD*IST uses a tree structure utilising nodes. Nodes can be 'parents' of 'children' and/or 'siblings.' While the structure for this project has been provided in Appendix K an example has been drawn up in Figure 12. In this case, 'Work' is the 'child' of 'Supervisor', the 'sibling' of 'Perception' and 'Relationship' and the 'parent' of 'Feedback.

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7   NUD*IST (Non-numerical Unstructured Data Indexing Searching and Theorizing) is developed and published by Qualitative Solutions and Research (QSR), Australia (Richards & Richards, 1991; Richards & Richards, 1994).

Figure 12.   Example of NUD*IST Tree Structure
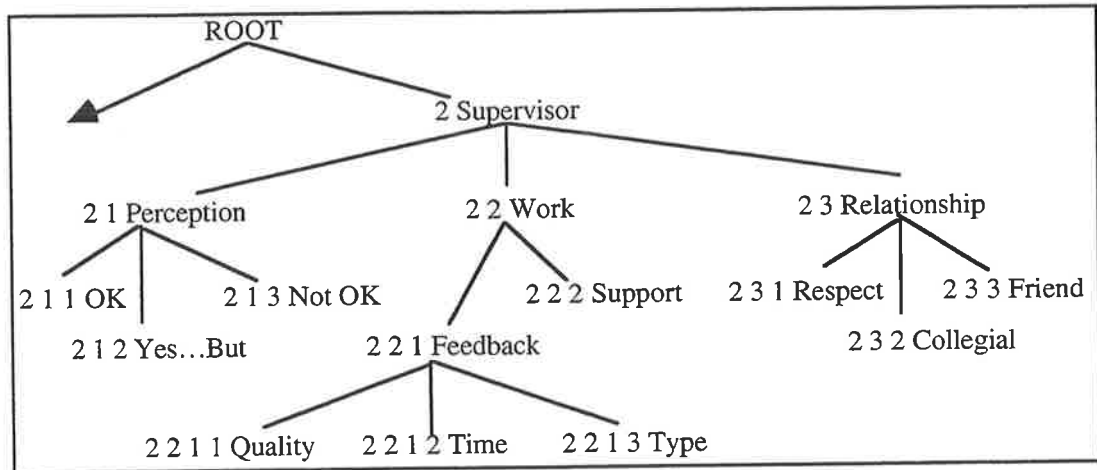
The transcribed interviews for the study were imported into NUD*IST and each line (called a text unit) was 'coded' against as many concepts, themes or variables (known as nodes) as appropriate for that particular text unit. Coding, as (Bryman & Burgess, 1994) suggest, provides a link between the data and the category. A very simplified, hypothetical example might be the following sentence

> My supervisor is very nice...but sometimes he does not return my work for two months and I don't like to ask him because I know he is very busy.

This sentence consists of three text units (lines). Using the example in Figure 12, line one would be coded to 2 1 2 'Yes...but' where students are having difficulty in being critical of their supervisor in an outright manner and line one and two would be coded to the node 2 2 1 2 'Time' which relates to the time taken to provide feedback, as well as to node 2 3 1 which relates to respect in the supervisory relationship. Line three would be also coded to 2 3 1 'Respect' and probably to another node related to supervisor availability. Therefore when citing a 'node' response regarding 'Yes...but' the reference would be 2 1 2 that is, the second child of '2 1 Perception' which is the child of '2 Supervisor' which is the second child of the Root.

Hence, when citing a single interviewee the reference is to the name and interview as outlined earlier, for example 'Amina2: 22-23', but when citing a collated 'node' result the NUD*IST reference is used, for example '2 1 2.'

Section 3: Other Supporting Studies

Here follows details of the five studies that supported the overall research. Each of these studies, in a sense, stands on its own, sometimes with publications arising from the results (Kiley, 1993a; Kiley, 1993b; Kiley, 1996; Meyer & Kiley, 1998).

Pre-departure Study

Background

Given that it had not been possible to speak with the 33 students prior to their departure from Indonesia a small-scale study was undertaken with a pre-departure group in Indonesia. Comments made by these students provided helpful insights into expectations, fears, concerns and practical matters that beset them prior to departure.

Method

The 20 interviewees were enrolled in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) classes at the Indonesia Australia Language Foundation (IALF) in Denpasar, Bali in 1997[8]. Of the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study who had undertaken English for Academic Purposes courses prior to departing Indonesia 86% studied at the IALF. Therefore the choice of this institution to interview pre-departure students was deemed appropriate. The interviews were arranged through contact with staff at the Foundation whom I had previously known when they worked in the Jakarta office. The interviews were arranged as part of the students' cross-cultural training— with the understanding that I would add a cross-cultural component to their study. The interviews, which were not taped, were conducted in two groups. In addition, a 'round-table' discussion was held with five IALF staff following the group sessions with students.

Analysis

The interviews, imported into NUD*IST, were analysed with two particular questions in mind. 'Why did the students want to study overseas, and particularly in Australia?' and 'What were their main hopes and fears, their expectations?' These data are reported in Chapter 7.

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[8]   To date these data have not been published separately.

Relevance to the Main Study

This small-scale study assisted in 'rounding out' the information received from the 33 students in Adelaide by suggesting the sorts of issues that they would have considered prior to departure.

Returnees Study

Background

As the Adelaide Longitudinal Study developed it became clear that the effect on students of what they were expecting when they returned home was of considerable significance to the overall results of the study. Specific and formal follow-up with students on their return was not built into the overall study as this would have added considerably to the time needed and would have been outside the eight years (half-time) maximum permitted for PhD candidature at the University of Adelaide. However, as students returned, particularly those who had completed a Masters degree, they were contacted by letter, email or sometimes in person during visits to Indonesia. This contact provided an opportunity to ask students about their experiences on their return and a follow-up study of students and their families is an area for further research. However, this correspondence was deemed insufficient in volume to give an adequate understanding of returning students' experiences. Therefore a study of 50 returnees, other than the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study, was specifically conducted in Indonesia over the period 1996-1997. The interviews in 1996 were located in provinces in Java and in 1997 in the provinces of Bali, Nusa Tenggara Barat and Nusa Tenggara Timur. While not published separately at this stage, the results of this study were circulated all students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study, at their request. The purpose of these interviews was to talk with people who could reflect on their experiences in Australia.

Method

The 50 interviewees were from eight universities and government offices in Java, Bali, Lombok and Timor. Fourteen interviews were with individuals and the others were conducted in groups. The interviews were arranged through a number of sources including IDP, the Australian Embassy, colleagues working in Indonesia, regional representatives in the Indonesia Australia Eastern Universities Project, and students from the Adelaide Longitudinal Study who made contact with their home institutions on my behalf. In the majority of cases the interviewees did

not know me prior to the interview and so a brief description of the project was generally provided. Most interviews were extensively noted then typed.

Analysis

The interviews were imported into the NUD*IST database and analysed for themes and concepts which became evident. Particular attention was paid to 1) differences between interviewees from Eastern and Western Indonesia, as this was regularly commented upon by students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study, senior staff in Indonesia and representatives of funding bodies; and 2) the links between expectations and experiences.

Relevance to Main Study

It seemed reasonable to conclude that the discussions held with other returnees and the lessons learned by students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study from other returnees were significant in the understanding and anticipation of studying in Australia and on their return to Indonesia. At the request of the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study, a workshop was held to discuss the outcomes of this particular study and a draft copy of the findings circulated to all students in the study. Many of them had expressed interest in learning what returnees had to say and any lessons that could be learned from this small research project. The results of this study are integrated into the data from the Adelaide Longitudinal Study reported in Chapter 9.

Student Approaches to, and Reflections on, Learning Study
Background

The third of the supporting studies was the Student Approaches to, and Reflections on, Learning Study. This pilot work aimed to explore particular aspects of the approaches to, and conceptions of, learning of Indonesian postgraduate students. Meyer's *Experiences of Learning Inventory* (1995) was administered to 105 postgraduate students at the University of Indonesia in 1995. In 1996, Meyer and Boulton-Lewis' *Reflections on Learning Inventory* (1997) was administered to a separate group of 94 postgraduate students studying at the same University. These two studies were reported in Meyer and Kiley (1998) and were quite specifically designed to support the overall study by shedding light onto the learning conceptions and approaches of Indonesian students.

Methodology

The purpose of the pilot study was to capture students' perceptions of what learning is and what causes those perceptions. The study was undertaken in Indonesia to minimise the effect of programs such as English for Academic Purposes (EAP) undertaken by students prior to commencing study in Australia. It was argued that students in Indonesia would find it less confusing to respond to statements about their learning and the influences upon it than those who had arrived in Australia.

Both inventories were translated by a qualified Indonesian translator and examined for cultural bias by Indonesian students (in Indonesia and Australia) as well as Australian academics who had worked for long periods in Indonesia. The inventories were administered prior to, or at the end of, scheduled classes at the *Salemba* campus of *Universitas Indonesia*.

Analysis

Data from the two inventories were analysed using exploratory item correlation and factor analyses to isolate the dominant constructs. The Experiences of Learning inventory reflects "variations in contrasting forms of intention, motivation, process, learning pathologies, perceptions of the learning environment, and other related constructs." [The Reflections on Learning Inventory (RoLI), on the other hand, reflects students'] "conceptions of learning and other proximal effects"(Meyer & Kiley, 1998, p. 290). The results are integrated into the discussion of Adelaide Longitudinal Study in Chapters 7 and 8.

Relevance to Main Study

This study provided background information on Indonesian postgraduate students' approaches to, and conceptions of, learning prior to being exposed to pre-departure English classes or experiences in Australia, as was the case with the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study.

It is clearly recognised that as a stand-alone pilot study there is considerable development required before any conclusions can be substantiated. The inventory needs to be administered to students in a range of universities, not just *Universitas Indonesia*. The difficulty, of course, is that to go outside Java with research related to postgraduate education one is very limited as the

majority of universities approved to confer postgraduate awards are located in Java. However, as support for the overall study it was very useful.

Assessment Study
Background

This small study was conducted in conjunction with Keller and Austin of the University of Adelaide in 1995. The aim of the study was to investigate the forms and sources of feedback postgraduate research students found helpful to their progress. Two departments, one a science-based discipline, the other social science, were specifically chosen for this study because of the high percentage of international, and in particular Indonesian, students enrolled in each. The focus of the study was on the students and their perceptions of the feedback they received, rather than supervisors and the feedback they thought they gave to students.

Methodology[9]

Postgraduate students in the two Departments were sent a letter which explained the purpose of the study and invited participation. The letter explained that the researchers were interested in hearing about the students' experiences and comments related to feedback on their work. No student objected to the interview being taped, but most required reassurance that they would not be able to be identified. The interviews were then typed (but not transcribed) and analysed. In the science department 41 students (91%) of a total of 45 students listed by the department took part. Sixteen (73%) social science students took part in the study with six others not attending the interview.

Analysis

The interviews were analysed in a number of ways. Initially there was a quantitative analysis to determine the major forms of helpful and unhelpful feedback reported and who provided that feedback for each discipline. Following that analysis the comments were examined for common themes and concepts. The main results of this study are reported in Chapter 6.

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9   The following description is based on an unpublished conference paper (Kiley, 1996).

Relevance to Larger Study

When discussing the outcomes of the study with the Departments' Postgraduate Coordinators it was clear that one of the most interesting findings was the difference in perceptions held by staff of the Department from those held by students. These differences mainly, but not only, related to the purpose and usefulness of Departmental Seminars and the Annual Review. Another finding was the desire of international students to have some form of coursework in their research degree as a means to early and effective feedback on progress. These differences in perception and desire for a coursework component in a research degree were in strong accord with the findings of the Adelaide Longitudinal Study.

Quality of Supervision Study

The fifth supporting study consisted of two inter-related, small-scale studies which were conducted at the University of Adelaide in 1993 to determine students' and supervisors' views about quality postgraduate supervision. Interviews were conducted in a science-based department and a social science-based department. The purpose of the study was to identify what students and staff thought were the key factors in quality supervision and to see if these factors were different in the two types of disciplines and if so, how. These two small-scale studies preceded the Adelaide Longitudinal Study and provided invaluable insight into the preparation of appropriate questions and the development of skills related to interviewing techniques.

Method[10]

Letters were sent to all staff members (academic and general) working with postgraduate students and PhD and Masters[11] students listed by the two departments (see Tables 16 and 17). Following the letter, individuals were contacted and an appointment made for the interview. Each interview usually lasted between thirty minutes and one hour, with a few going slightly longer. Interviews were conducted only with 'successful' students, in other words, students who had withdrawn prior to completion were not interviewed.

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[10] These two studies were reported in University reports Kiley (1993a) and Kiley (1993b)
[11] There were no Masters students in the science Department. Students argued that a Masters was worth very little in the field with a PhD virtually the minimum qualification for employment.

Table 16.   Staff Interviews

	Female	Male	Total
Possible Interviewees[12]	19	25	44
Interviewed	10	14	24
% of Possible Interviewees	53%	56%	55%

Table 17.   Postgraduate Student Interviews

	Female	Male	Total
Possible Interviewees[13]	31	42	73
Interviewed[14]	17	24	41
% of Possible Interviewees	55%	57%	56%

The interview schedule was developed in consultation with representatives of the University's Graduate Studies Branch and the Postgraduate Students' Association. The interviews commenced with the collection of demographic information to enable a department and student profile to be prepared. The profile included information about the number of students supervised per supervisor, age, students' previous study and employment, and course offerings. Information was then sought on progression and completion rates and support structures available to students. Questions included the provision of information early in candidature, help in getting started, general department and University support structures, personal support structures, and language support. Finally students and staff were asked about aspects of supervision and what they thought were the characteristics of a good supervisor.

Relevance to Main Study

The results of the Quality of Supervision Study shed considerable light on staff and students' expectations of postgraduate supervision and much of this information—for example the timely provision of information, personal support networks, and provision of resources—was used in framing the Adelaide Longitudinal Study. However, the most significant finding for the overall

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12 Applies to all staff (general and academic) involved with postgraduate students and on-campus during the interview period.
13 Refers to those postgraduate students who were on campus (i.e., several were on field work).
14 Coursework Masters students ($n=14$) interviewed as a group

study was the characteristics of a successful supervisor (see Chapters 2 and 9). It was also useful to work in two departments, one which had only one international student who reported, and was considered to have no language difficulties and the other which had a significant number of international students (approximately 50% of those interviewed) many of whom required specific language support.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has outlined the specific issues related to the design of the research for this study. Complementing the main Adelaide Longitudinal Study were several small-scale projects, the results of which all contributed to the main study and an understanding of the students' expectations and experiences. Issues related to anonymity, ethics, cross-cultural research and involvement of students in the study have been discussed and explained. Analysis methods, particularly the use of the computer program NUD*IST, have been described, including the citing system adopted.

CHAPTER 6 DEMOGRAPHIC DATA AND INITIAL FINDINGS

Introduction

The demographic data and some of the more general findings of the Adelaide Longitudinal Study and each of the supporting studies are provided in this chapter. These are findings that have relevance to the whole study, not only specific phases, information such as the age and employment background of students or demographic information about the supervisors who were interviewed

The Adelaide Longitudinal Study

The Student Cohort

Thirteen women and 20 men from 14 Indonesian provinces, aged between 25 and 43 years were the focus of this four year study (see Appendix E for demographic information by cohort). Participants were all postgraduate students (PhD, Masters by Research and Masters by Coursework) who commenced candidature at the University of Adelaide during 1995 and 1996 (see Table 18).

Table 18.   Students by Degree Enrolled and Sex

	PhD	Research Masters	Coursework Masters
Female	4	2	7
Male	8	6	6
Total	12 (36.4%)	8 (42.2%)	13 (39.4%)
Research Total=20 (78.6%)			

As Table 19 indicates, the students were enrolled in a range of disciplines: twelve in soft/applied disciplines for example, Education; eight in transitional disciplines for example, Agricultural Science; seven were enrolled in hard/applied disciplines for example, Dentistry; four in hard/pure for example, Mathematics; and two in a soft/pure discipline for example, Linguistics[1].

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[1]   Based on typologies discussed in Appendix B and adapted from Nulty and Barrett (1986) and Cullen et al. (1994).

Table 19.   Students by Discipline

Disciplines	Female	Male	Total
Soft/applied	5	7	12
Soft/pure	1	1	2
Hard/applied	2	5	7
Hard/pure	2	2	4
Transitional	3	5	6
Total	13	18	31

The typology which has been accepted for this study and used in the analysis of the results from the Adelaide Longitudinal Study is that described by Cullen, Pearson, Saha and Spear (1994). This typology argues for five categories to define whether a discipline is: hard/soft, applied/pure, restricted/unrestricted, empirical/ theoretical and qualitative/quantitative (p. 121). This typology is similar to Kolb's Experiential Learning Model of Concrete Experience with characteristics that include *reflections and observations, formation of abstract concepts and generalisations*, and *testing implications of conceptions in new environment* (Adapted from Kolb (1981) in Nulty and Barrett (1996). The categories of Cullen et al., (1994) and Nulty and Barrett (1996) are compared in Table 20.

Table 20.   Comparison of Discipline Categorisation

Example of discipline	Cullen et al., (1994)	Nulty and Barrett (1996 p. 334)
Chemistry, Mathematics	Hard/Pure	Abstract/Reflective
Computing, Law	Hard/Applied	Abstract/Active
Biological Sciences[2]	Transitional	
Commerce, Education	Soft/Applied	Concrete/Active
Astronomy, Classics	Soft/Pure	Concrete/Reflective

Age of Students

For many years priority was given by the Government of Indonesia to older applicants (taking into account the culturally appropriate seniority and respect). However, emphasis is now on giving younger applicants priority for overseas study and older applicants are encouraged to

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2   Cullen, D. et al. (1994) argue that the "Biological Sciences may not require another dimension but a recognition of their transitional/central nature with respect to both the Applied/Pure and Hard/Soft dimensions" (p. 120).

study at a domestic university (Daroesman & Daroesman, 1992). This policy is reflected in the age of the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study (see Table 21). Students' age at commencement of candidature ranged from 25 to 43 years with the majority (78.8%) being in the 26 to 35 age range and with a mean of 32 and only 9.1% aged 41+ years.

Table 21.   Age at commencement of candidature

	20-25 years	26-30 years	31-35 years	36-40 years	41-45 years
Female	1	5	5	1	1
Male	0	9	7	2	2
Total	1 (3%)	14 (42.4%)	12 (36.4%)	3 (9.1%)	3 (9.1%)

Home Location of Students

Table 22 indicates that the majority of the students in the study came from Java, and particularly Jakarta. Fifty percent of the students from the Eastern Provinces (Sulawesi, Bali, Nusa Tenggara Timur, Nusa Tenggara Barat and East Timor) had been nominated by the Indonesia-Australia Eastern Universities' Project.

Table 22.   Students' Address in Indonesia

Province	Number	Total (%)
Jakarta (DKI)	11	
West Java	6	
Yogyakarta (DI)	2	
East Java	2	21 (63.6)
North Sumatra	1	
Bengkulu	2	
West Sumatra	1	4 (12.1)
North Sulawesi	2	
Central Sulawesi	1	
South Sulawesi	1	
West Nusa Tenggara	1	
East Nusa Tenggara	1	
East Timor	1	
Bali	1	8 (24.3)
	33	100%

While some students were working in the province of their childhood, many had moved because of their career, family or marriage. Fifty-eight percent of the total cohort had been born on the island of Java. This figure and the total for Java in Table 22 is understandable given that approximately 60% of the total Indonesian population comes from Java. Had the Australian Government's policy of targeting undergraduate scholarships been extended to postgraduates it is likely that the 24% of students from the eastern provinces would be significantly higher.[3] It is of interest to note that although ten of the 20 Indonesian university academics in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study came from regional universities outside Java, not one of the government officers[4] (n=7) was from an office outside Jakarta, let alone Java. It can be argued that the student population under study had a very strong Javanese, and particularly Jakartan, influence.

Religious Affiliations

The religious affiliations of students in the group, as shown in Table 23, are in sharp contrast to the overall Indonesian population where the percentage of Muslims in the Indonesian population is estimated to be over 90%. Sixty one percent (n=20) of the students stated that they were Muslim, Roman Catholic 21%, Protestant 9%, Buddhist 6% and Hindu 3%. However, the religious affiliations of Indonesians vary across Provinces. For example, while in South-east Sulawesi 98% of the population is Muslim, in Bali 93.1% is Hindu and in East Timor 91.4% is Roman Catholic (Department of Information Republic of Indonesia, 1991, pp. 74-88).

Table 23.   Students by Religious Affiliation

Religion	Female	Male	Total
Muslim	10	10	20
Roman Catholic	1	6	7
Protestant	1	2	3
Buddhist	1	1	2
Hindu	-	1	1
Total	13	20	33

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3   The Australian Government has a policy of supporting students from the Eastern Provinces of Indonesia (those provinces north and east of Bali). A focus for assistance on these provinces was suggested by Blight (1986) because the Eastern Provinces are generally the poorest in Indonesia, are in close proximity to Australia, have similar agricultural conditions and are relatively ignored by other aid donors.

4   While technically all civil servants could be called 'government officers' for this study 'government officers' refers to those people who were civil servants, but not academics.

Marital Status

The majority of students were married, many of them with children (Table 24). The influences of spouse and children on students' sojourns are described in detail in Part 4. Of the 33 students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study 21 were either engaged or married at the commencement of candidature. Of these students 95% ($n=20$) had spouses with, or studying for, a tertiary qualification and the other spouse had a Senior High School qualification.

Table 24.   Marital and Family Status of Students

Marital Status	Female	Male	Total
Married with children	6	11	17
Married without children	1	2	3
Single	6	7	13
Total	13	20	33

Student Funding

Indonesian students in higher education institutions in Australia are, in the main, either privately funded (a significant minority in postgraduate education), sponsored through a project or are in receipt of a scholarship. At the time of students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study applying for the Australian Government scholarships there were two types. Australian Sponsored Training Scholarships (ASTAS)[5] are awarded to government employees within priority areas determined by the Government of Indonesia. They are generally advertised and organised through departmental professional development and training offices. Australian Development Co-operation Scholarships (ADCOS), on the other hand, are not restricted to government employees. For undergraduate study they are, however, targeted, although not at the postgraduate level[6]. Opportunities for study in Australia also exist through Australian Aid Projects such as the Indonesia-Australia Eastern Universities Project. Of the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study 32 were on scholarship and one student was privately funded. Of those on scholarship, 81% were Australian Government scholarships (see Table 25).

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[5]   These scholarships have now been renamed Australian Development Scholarship Scheme. However, all students in the longitudinal study were on the ASTAS or ADCOS program, hence these titles will continue to be used in this report when relating to the students.

Table 25.   Students by Sponsorship

Funding body	Scholarship	Number	Total
Australian Government	AusAID ASTAS	13 (46%)	
	AusAID ADCOS	6 (18%)	19
	Eastern Universities Project, Basic Sciences Bridging Program	5 (9%)	5
	IDP	2 (6%)	2
Other	Government of Indonesia, ADB, WHO	3 (9%)	3
Student's own university	IPB, University of Surabaya	3 (9%)	3
Fully Private		1 (3%)	1
Total			33

The percentage of students holding AusAID scholarships in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study exactly reflects the overall allocation of AusAID scholarships throughout Australia for 1995/96. There were 695 students on ASTAS scholarships in 1995 with an additional 250 allocated for 1996 (70% of AusAID scholarships) and 291 students holding ADCOS scholarships in 1995 with an additional 76 new awards for 1996 (30% of scholarships) (AusAID, 1995, pp. 18-19).

Nomination of Students

The organisation and nomination for the Australian Sponsored Training Scholarships (ASTAS) is generally handled through the university or government administration. Most government departments have a section akin to a staff development section which takes responsibility for organising applications for such programs. While in many cases employees themselves take the initiative to apply for study programs it is not uncommon for students to be nominated for programs by a senior officer, even if the student does not particularly want to go overseas. The Australian Development Co-operation Scholarships (ADCOS), on the other hand require interested applicants to take the initiative.

In terms of who made the decision about applying for selection, the candidate or a senior member of staff, Table 26 compares the results of the Daroesman and Daroesman (1992) study on initiative to apply with those of the Adelaide Longitudinal Study.

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6   Applicants for the 'targeted' scholarships must have completed high school education in one of the nine eastern provinces and be a resident of one of these provinces, as well as fulfilling academic requirements. Female students are also targeted (AusAID, 1995).

Table 26.   Comparison of Self-nomination or Nominated for Selection

	Daroesman & Daroesman (1992, p. 31) ($n=141$)	Adelaide Longitudinal Study ($n=33$)
Own initiative to apply	62%	70%
Selected by Supervisor	25%	15%
Selected by Project Staff	12%	15%

The higher percentage of 'own initiative' respondents in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study is almost certainly due to the number of students who were ADCOS recipients whereas the Daroesmans' study involved only ASTAS recipients.

Students' Educational Background

Of the 33 students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study, 20 had completed *S1 (Sarjana 1)* only, (approximating an Australian Bachelors Degree). Of these 20 students, four had completed their undergraduate degree at Gadjah Mada University[7], two at the University of Indonesia, two at Padjadjaran University and two at Hasanuddin University. The other ten students had completed their undergraduate degrees at smaller and generally less well-known universities.

Three of the 33 students had completed an Indonesian *S2 (Magister)*, approximating an Australian Masters degree, all of them at Bandung Institute of Technology (ITB), one of only 12 institutions authorised at the time to award *S2 (Magister)* degrees in Indonesia at the time (NOOSR, 1995, p. 25). In addition, eight students had completed a Masters degree, and one a Diploma, at an overseas university: four in Australia, three in the Netherlands and one each in New Zealand and the UK. Four of these nine students originally completed their *S1* at Gadjah Mada University, giving a total of eight students (24% of the total) who had studied at Gadjah Mada University at some stage of their academic life.

Career Background of Students

All but one of the PhD candidates was a lecturer at university ($n=18$) or IKIP[8] ($n=2$) (see Table 27) and that student was a researcher with the government. Other than where specifically stated,

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7   The first university to be proclaimed in Indonesia after independence and the alma mater of the a particularly high number of Indonesia's top social sciences civil, servants and business people.

8   *Institut Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan* (Teachers Training College)

this student has been categorised with the tertiary staff rather than government office staff, partly because of the PhD study but mainly because the student considered that the research and career prospects were more closely aligned to the staff in tertiary institutions than those from other government offices. While four of the university staff undertook a Masters by Coursework, five did a Research Masters giving a total of 17 of the 21 tertiary staff undertaking research degrees.

Table 27.   Students by Employment

Employer	Female	Male	Total
University	9	11	20
Government Office	3	2	5
Private Enterprise	1	7	8
Total	13	20	33

Of the six students (18%) who came from government offices (not including the researcher), all were enrolled in a Masters by Coursework. A further six students (18%) were from non-government, that is private enterprise, backgrounds. Four of these students were enrolled in an MBA and two in Masters by Research. The students' employment in Indonesia and the award undertaken can be broadly categorised as in Table 28.

Table 28.   Categories of Employment by Award

Employment	Award	
	Research (PhD, Masters)	Coursework
Tertiary Institution	17 (52%)	4 (12%)
Government Office	-	6 (18%)
Private Enterprise	2 (6%)	4 (12%) (All MBA)
Total	19 (58%)	14 (42%)

Civil Servants in Indonesia (27 of the 33 students in the study) work on a Credit Points system for promotion and salary increases called *Golongan Pegawai Negeri* (Civil Service Level) (see Appendix A). The levels for the students involved in this study ranged through 3A, 3B, 3C and 3D with over 40% of the university staff holding a 3A classification.

For staff to move to the 4A category indicates that they are in administration. For example, a university lecturer moving from 3D to 4A would be someone expected to take on administrative

rather than teaching responsibilities, a role such as Vice-Dean. Credit Points can be gained through study, for example, a Masters degree is worth approximately 25 points, but it is essential that the candidate has gained points in three areas. In the case of university staff the three areas are a) teaching, research and publication, b) 'Extension' (community service) and c) attending seminars and conferences where there is some record of attendance (with presenting at these forums worth additional points).

The Credit Point level of students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study seemed to bear only some relation to their age or the degree in which they had enrolled. For example, one 3A student was 25 years of age and another 35 years of age, however, all 3A students were enrolled in Masters courses. Of the 3B category the age range was 27 to 42 years with some enrolled in Masters and others in PhD. The 3C age range was a much narrower age range (from 34 to 38 years) but with students enrolled in Coursework Masters, Research Masters and PhD. There were only two students at the 3D level, one enrolled in a Research Masters and the other a PhD. Several students commented that had they been in Indonesia rather than studying in Australia they would have been able to apply for their higher Credit Level, but had to wait until their return.

Reasons for Undertaking Postgraduate Study

The most common reason expressed by the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study (60%) for wanting to undertake postgraduate study in Australia was to increase their knowledge and their qualifications in their given field. Comments such as "It is an unwritten regulation that one must continue to obtain degrees until PhD to stay as a lecturer, otherwise one should move into another field" (Rani1: 89-92) were not uncommon. Twenty four percent of the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study specifically said that they were studying to improve their career or job prospects; however, this figure would be supplemented by those who suggested the reason for studying in Australia was to gain qualifications which, in turn, would enhance their career prospects. More specifically some students (9%) suggested that they wanted to improve themselves so that they could contribute to the development of their county. One student in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study said that she had no choice as she had been 'sent' by her University. The study by Daroesman and Daroesman (1992) reported that 62% of respondents had applied to study overseas with the remainder 'being sent.'

Of the 33 students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study, 19 (58%) had nominated the University of Adelaide as their first choice. Their main reason for selecting the University of Adelaide was because they had met a member of staff from the University who had suggested a person, a course or a department which would suit their needs. Other reasons included: the recommendation of friends/colleagues, advertisements and information about Adelaide as a city, and information about the University which indicated that it was the best location for their topic.

Resources Inventory

Students were asked to complete a small-scale survey based on the work of Grigg (1996) (see Chapter 5). On the whole, the Adelaide data indicate some striking similarities with Grigg's study, although the Adelaide students reported higher availability of free photocopying (96% compared with 86%) and secretarial support (78% compared with 54%) and a lower availability of consumables (65% compared with 75%).

Two areas of particular concern in the data are, however, the access to 'specific programs to improve English language skills' and 'editing assistance in preparation of thesis.' The Adelaide students reported that only 52% of them considered that they had access to English language support (compared with Grigg's 70%). Initially this is a very surprising result given that every student in the study had undertaken the three month Integrated Bridging Program (IBP) for international students. This Program is aimed quite specifically at developing students' English language skills within the context of their research discipline. However, Grigg's sample included students from English as well as non-English speaking backgrounds[9]. Be that as it may, students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study suggested that once the IBP was over (by the end of first semester) they felt that there was little in the way of ongoing language support from their Department or Faculty (see Appendix L for the comparison of results from both studies).

Having said that, aspects of satisfaction that were particularly low in the Adelaide sample were assistance with the development of English language skills (39% compared with 59%) and opportunity to attend conferences/scholarly meetings (52% compared with 67%). Here again we have concern with English language. This low rate of satisfaction with English requires further

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[9] Approximately 50% of the total cohort of OPRS students (1990-1994) were from Asian countries although only 0.8 % (n=9) came from Indonesia.

elaboration later in this study, particularly when it is noted that 40% of student listed 'language difficulties' as a major concern.

Grigg asked students to report on their level of satisfaction with aspects of candidature and on the whole there was general satisfaction (68.5% satisfied, 18.8% neutral and 12.6% not at all satisfied) (p. 61). Of particular note were students' satisfaction with the match of their thesis topic with their own interest (86%), supervisor competence (75%), realistic expectations (75%) and general satisfaction with candidature (75%) (p. 60). In the Adelaide sample the particularly high areas of satisfaction were guidance on topic definition (83% compared with 63% for Grigg), competence of university supervisor (91% compared with 75%), and quality of feedback on work completed (87% compared with 71%).

Ninety one percent of the supervisors in Grigg's study reported satisfaction with the enthusiasm of students and 86% with motivation to complete on time which is significantly higher than the APA(I) results. Many of the supervisors interviewed as part of the Adelaide Longitudinal Study also commented very positively on the motivation and enthusiasm of their Indonesian students.

One area of concern which has been consistently reported in the literature and experienced by overseas students is financial difficulty. Thirty six percent of the OPRS sample reported difficulty coping financially. However, this has been startlingly different for the Adelaide study where only 13% reported this as 'some/great concern,' a finding certainly supported by the interviews. As outlined in Part 4 it is argued that this is because the stipend for most students on scholarship is significantly better than their salary in Indonesia. This is not to say that Indonesian students were not concerned with financial issues, but it appears that it is not the same level of concern that it is for many students from other countries.

Interviews with Supervisors

For the 26 supervisors interviews as part of the Adelaide Longitudinal Study the number of overall research students (Honours, Masters and PhD) supervised per supervisor ranged from one to twelve, with the mean being seven. Three supervisors had not supervised an international student before. The age at time of interview for supervisors ranged from 30 to 34 years through to 55 to 59 years with the mean being 41 years. This compares with the mean age of 32 years for students. Of the 26 supervisors interviewed as part of this study, the years of experience in

supervising research students ranged from one to 30 with the mean being eight years. Given that 85% of the supervisors were male it is clear that there were a significant number of female students with male supervisors. The combination of male/female supervisor and male/female student is shown in Table 29.

Table 29. Male and Female Supervisors and Male and Female Students

Male supervisor and male student	Female supervisor and female student	Male supervisor and female student	Female supervisor and male student	Total[10]
15	4	8	2	29

The only comments made by supervisors about a difference in gender between the supervisor and student were from two male supervisors of female students and both related to the students being Muslim. For example, one supervisor commented:

> Watie is a Muslim student and so I would be very reticent to suggest to her that she come on a field trip. Whereas, with one of my students from Singapore, I have no qualms. Whereas some of my other colleagues wouldn't face up to that. (Supervisor55: 37-41)

While there were no comments directly related to the difference in gender from male and female students about their male supervisors, there were comments from both male and female students about female supervisors. The male students likened their female supervisor to a 'mother', someone who cared for them and who, as a mother, they respected. Three of the four female students commented on the closeness of their relationship with their female supervisor where the felt they could talk about personal issues 'because she was a woman.'

Of the 26 supervisors, five did not have a PhD although three of them were currently enrolled in doctoral studies. All of these five supervisors were supervising Masters, not PhD students. Of the 21 supervisors with a PhD, 15 had gained their degree in Australia, 2 in the UK and one each in New Zealand, Canada, the USA and Russia.

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[10] Note that the total of 29 does not include the four MBA students who did not have supervisors. Also while 26 supervisors were interviewed there were 29 student-supervisor pairs.

In an effort to gauge how supervisors understood the situation of their students all supervisors were asked whether they had learned another language or whether they had worked in a developing country for any length of time and whether they considered that these experiences had helped them to understand the particular situation of their international students studying in a foreign country. Twelve supervisors had worked in communities which could be described as 'developing,' three had visited developing countries for various lengths of time with work-related activities. One supervisor reported that his wife was from what he classified as a developing country and he felt that through her, he gained considerable insight into the particular needs of international students. Therefore, ten (39%) of the supervisors had not had any experience in developing countries. In addition, three others had been born in non-English speaking countries and had studied in English speaking tertiary institutions. Of those who had worked in developing countries all but one felt that the experience was invaluable in the understanding and support of their student:

> Having worked there [Indonesia] I know so much more about their background resources and what the reality is. They might say that they have electricity but in reality that might only be for a couple of hours a day. (Supervisor57: 31-34)

And "Undoubtedly the experience has given me a real insight into issues related to overseas students" (Supervisor51: 31-32). The one supervisor who reported that the experience of working in several developing countries did not assist with a greater understanding commented:

> I don't know. People used to ask why I didn't speak the language of the people when I was working overseas [in several different non-English speaking countries]. But there were three reasons. One I am not good at languages, two which language? and three I always found that the expatriates who got into most trouble overseas were the ones who spoke the language and got involved in what was going on. There is a big advantage in not knowing what is going on. I don't have any problems—I just don't understand. (Supervisor58: 30-37)

Of the ten supervisors who had not had experience of working and/or living in a developing country or where English was not the main language of communication none of them thought that this lack of experience affected the manner in which they supervised overseas students or inhibited their understanding of overseas students and their particular situation. One could argue that this is to be expected. Not having had the experience, the supervisors are unaware of what they do not know.

How Supervisors Learn to Supervise

Given that the University of Adelaide does not have any formal training program for supervisors (new supervisors are only required to supervise their first student with an experienced co-supervisor) it is reasonable to assume that supervisors learn most about supervision from their own experience of being supervised. Supervisors interviewed tended to learn how to supervise from three main sources: their own experience of being supervised, their mistakes in supervising previous students, and from examining theses.

Supervisors were asked to talk about their own experience of being supervised and how that influenced the way they now supervise. I found, as did Delamont et al. (1998) in their study of 94 social science and natural science supervisors in the UK that "One common theme was the contrast between the way staff had been supervised during their own doctorates compared to their aims and practices as supervisors. The contrast between the past and present was strongly drawn" (p. 159). Supervisors' comments on their own supervision tended to fall into three categories. The *first* was supervisors (approximately 42%) who thought that their own supervisor was very good and much of what they now did was modelled on that experience:

> My supervisor had great knowledge and that was something to aspire to. He is still my mentor and I don't know how he does it. The other thing was that when I had a good result he was excited about it the same as I was and so the sharing of success was so important and so I like to do that for students. (Supervisor50: 161-165)

The *second* group (approximately 20%) was those who thought that their supervisor was good for *them*, but believe that it is necessary for them to supervise most students quite differently:

> My PhD supervisor was, for me, an almost perfect supervisor because he hardly ever interfered with what I was doing. But for many people, however, he was a disaster because he didn't help them at all, so he was really a one dimensional supervisor and if you matched his style it was OK but if not, then he wasn't any good for them. (Supervisor55: 150-155)

The *third* group was the supervisors who thought that their own supervision was very poor (approximately 38%) "I learned how not to be a supervisor" (Supervisor94: 163) or "I thought I was slack but my supervisor is hopeless. He is really slack. I don't think there is really anything I have learned from him because the personalities are very different" (Supervisor58: 127-129).

Most supervisors commented that they had not thought about what they had learned from their own experience until asked in the interview, but many then reported how often they found themselves doing something their supervisor used to do to them:

> One thing which we have mentioned today is that I have a weekly discussion and each week one of the students leads the discussion and it usually focuses on their research. I try to bite my tongue and don't say anything and let the students ask questions and lead discussion, but occasionally I have to wade in and you can tell they think 'Oh, it's coming!!' And that's just exactly what my supervisor used to do to me. I'd go in to speak with him and he'd say 'Well now...' and you'd think 'It's about to happen.' You feel that you have this bull's eye on your chest. But it is still done in a friendly atmosphere. (Supervisor31: 238-247)

Three of the supervisors interviewed were themselves international students when they undertook their PhD at an Australian university. Not surprisingly these three supervisors went to some length to describe how their own experience had influenced the way they interact with their own international postgraduate students. "My experience was that the overseas student must have cultural matters sorted out otherwise it becomes unworkable, but they need help in realising that some things aren't important" (Supervisor96: 19-21). Another suggested that:

> For overseas students, in the first six months it is very time demanding. I don't think I would be prepared to take three or more new overseas students at any one time....But after six months the time demand is reduced a lot. (Supervisor52: 176-180)

A second source of learning for supervisors on how to supervise was from mistakes. Hockey (1996) in interviews with 89 social sciences supervisors, reported that "Frequent mention was made of previous 'mistakes' in supervising students. In such cases, the candidates 'drifted' in all sorts of directions, intellectually as well as socially, and...the results may be delay or non-completion of the thesis" (p. 484). For example, one supervisor reported that he is now able to detect students' needs within six months, and then do something to address these needs. Whereas, with an earlier student it was eighteen months before he realised there was a difficulty and "that he [the student] wasn't really going anywhere" (Supervisor59: 68).

Cases were reported by students whereby their supervisors were made aware of difficulties caused by the supervision, generally during the Annual Review process. As a result several of these supervisors made changes to their supervisory practices. However, it is important to note that in the case of Indonesian students, this approach only occurred where several students (local

and overseas) discussed the issue together before taking it as a *group* to the supervisor. No individual Indonesian student commented to a supervisor about inappropriate supervisory practice during candidature.

A third source of learning about how to supervise came from examining theses. For example, one supervisor said about the first thesis he examined "this really helped me understand just what was a good standard" (Supervisor55: 173-174).

Chapter 7 provides analysis with regard students and supervisors expectations about the role of their supervisor, the type of relationship considered appropriate and responsibilities for the standard of work. It will be shown that approximately half of the supervisors tend to focus on the task at hand or the product as a way of 'getting the students through.' The other half focus more on the student or the process of supervising as a means of being successful.

Other Interviews at the University of Adelaide

Of the administrators and support staff interviewed administrators most commonly cited advantages for having international students studying at the University of Adelaide were the cultural benefits from having a diverse student population and the enhanced diversity in the doctoral topics undertaken. While the income received from international students was seen as an advantage it certainly was not considered the most important advantage. One administrator commented on how important it was, however, to maintain a balance between international and local student enrolment.

> This University has to be careful to keep a balance between overseas and local students. Firstly we have to educate the public that overseas students are not here to take the jobs of local students. If we suddenly got to say forty percent there would be some serious public concern. (Administrator64: 81-85)

The main concerns related to the general overseas student enrolment were the apparent lack of interaction between local and overseas students, the need for additional support, and for finding effective ways of continuing the University's support to students on their return home. When questioned specifically about Indonesian students the most common concern was the interaction between students and supervisors and the need for a good match of supervisor and student:

> But someone who get one of the 'good' culturally sensitive supervisors they are lucky, but some come in and get the culturally insensitive supervisors and they

actually survive. The fact that they survive is good, but it worries me that they have to survive.

There is also the problem of students who get a supervisor who is not on top of the student's topic and then because of cultural issues, the student doesn't say anything. Changing topics can be a problem. It's not the actual topic so much which worries me, it is their attitude to supervision. (Administrator64: 123-135)

The crucial need for an appropriate match of supervisor and student will be demonstrated later in this report. Another concern which was mentioned was students' and supervisors' appreciation of the full potential of research training. This particularly related to students' ability to publish in international journals on their return home. Where supervisors were focussing on completion of the research only, and not considering the development of writing and publishing skills, these students were poorly positioned to publish on their return.

According to staff of the Health Service Indonesian students used the Service to a limited extent and appeared not to have any particular health problems. In fact, it seemed that they were one of the healthier groups of students. The main causes of visits to the Service were colds and flu "not much in the way of stress related" (Nurse: 72). Generally Indonesian students attend the clinic in same gender pairs:

They seem to be very involved with groups and perhaps that might be one of the reasons that they don't have as many stress related problems because they are able to talk with their friends about it before it becomes a problem. (Nurse72: 83-86)

While the University has a number of designated, qualified counselling staff, a range of other staff members often provided forms of counselling, particularly departmental secretaries, language and learning advisers, and health staff. As one departmental secretary commented:

Sometimes I act as a counsellor, I discuss personal issues with them. I have helped some of them find accommodation, that sort of thing. One student last year, her mother died and she couldn't get on a plane for a few days and so I spent a lot of time talking with her because my mother had died and I knew how she felt. (Administrator69: 19-25)

The overwhelming response from virtually all administrative and support people interviewed ($n =$ 14) was that Indonesian students were very polite and friendly with a sense of humour. One staff member summed up for several others by saying:

They are very good students to have around. Of course, this might be a bit of a problem, because they might be too reticent for their own good when they might

be competing with say Australian students for a desk or something like that. It might pay to be a bit assertive every now and then. (Administrator74: 134-139)

This need for greater assertiveness was mentioned by a number of those interviewed. It appears that Indonesian students could be 'too polite and pleasant for their own good.' However, they were generally very well liked and admired by all administrative and support staff. Particularly the women interviewed commented on the admiration they had for the Indonesian students who worked so hard, often against considerable odds.

Language and learning support staff frequently commented on three main issues: the diversity of international students, and in particular Indonesian students; the inner strength of many of the Indonesian students; and their concerns about the student-supervisor relationship. These staff were quick to recognise the particular needs of individual students and the contribution each made to the learning of others, including the support person. The inner strength of students and ability to remain focussed was a common theme:

> They bring tremendous underlying strengths which they need to cope with what happens to them here. Real resilience. 'I am having a bad time at the moment but I will get there' which is not the same with all nationalities in my experience. They will even say 'I am going through a bad patch, but I will be all right.' I am never one hundred percent sure whether it is a cultural thing that they can't say that they are depressed or whether they have an inner confidence that it will be OK. (Student_Support30: 91-99)

With regard to the student-supervisor relationship, while these and other staff can support students and encourage them to talk over difficulties with their supervisor, they can not do it for them. On the other hand these staff members also hear of the supervisor's concerns.

> The supervisor will say something like 'Took this student because on paper she/he appeared to be prepared and they had the background, but in fact they don't.' So what is adequate background and understanding on both parts? (Student_Support30: 110-114)

Other administrative and support staff interviewed included counsellors, clerical staff and administrative support such as the accommodation officer. Again these staff commented on the politeness and pleasantness of Indonesian students and how easy they are to help.

> If they want a certain kind of letter (say to support their application to bring their spouse out) then they will come with a copy of a similar one I have done for someone else and ask me to do one the same. They know what they want and they make it as easy as possible. (Administrator71: 64-70)

However, despite their wide range of roles, backgrounds and knowledge of the University the examples these staff could offer of practices adopted by departments or faculties to assist international, and particularly Indonesian, students, were very limited. The same three or four departments were regularly reported as having developed particular practices—generally focussed around food. None was able to report any programs which encouraged students to share cultural, religious or political issues at a more intellectual level than perhaps a Food Festival. On the other hand there were frequent comments about the way international students learned from one another through programs such as the Integrated Bridging Program. One can not but be struck by the irony of international students returning home with wonderful insights into a wide range of cultures where the local students remain almost untouched.

Interviews with Representatives of Funding and Administering Organisations

One particularly relevant finding from many of the interviews with funding and administering bodies was the lack of comprehensive data maintained by these organisations. For example, no data are available which correlates students' IELTS scores on departure from Indonesia and their subsequent completion rate. Be that as it may, because of complaints from institutions in Australia the language score required prior to applying for an AusAID scholarship was raised from 4.5 to 5.0 for the 1998/99 selection round. While this decision was not based on any firm research data the Department saw this as a way of generally lifting the standard of applicants and of minimising the time, and therefore cost, of pre-departure English language training. (Of note is that the number of applicants in 1998 rose to 5,366[11] compared with approximately 2,000 in previous years. This is despite the increased language score.)

While individual organisations collect and analyse data about Indonesian students in Australia there appears to be little in the way of coordinated reporting other than the statistics compiled by the Department of Employment Education Training and Youth Affairs (1998b). Even these statistics relate, in the main, to students commencing their study, not completing it.

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[11]   Of the 5,366 applicants, 720 were short-listed and 360 awards made for 1999.

Interviews with Senior Staff in Indonesia

The interviews with 18 senior staff in Indonesia on the whole indicated that identification and nomination of potential applicants was a very personal and subjective exercise, with little overall planning, other than perhaps when associated with an aid project. It was rare for an organisation to have a plan indicating particular areas of need and designing ways to fill these needs with trained staff. More worrying was the almost, but not quite, total lack of planning regarding the utilisation of staff skills and interests on their return. It almost seemed that most returnees 'turned up on the doorstep', seemingly to the surprise of the organisation which was ill-prepared to accommodate them and their newly developed skills. Having said this, most senior staff interviewed, generally themselves returnees from study abroad, were aware of the difficulties and were attempting to address them. Clearly this situation was of concern to students in the study who had no defined institutional role awaiting them, other than their old job, where they could effectively use their new skills and insights. The information from these interviews is included in Part 4 where it is relevant to the comments of students and/or returnees.

Student Approaches to, and Reflections on, Learning Study

There are two findings from the Student Approaches to, and Reflections on, Learning study of particular relevance to this thesis. Firstly the noticeable differences between the responses of students who self-categorised as 'Javanese' and those who self-categorised as one of over 20 different ethnic groups—and categorised as 'non-Javanese.' The alpha coefficients for four of the main learning constructs for Javanese and non-Javanese students are compared in Table 30.

Table 30.   'Javanese' Alpha Scores Compared with 'Non-Javanese'

Scale	'Javanese' (n=49) α	'non-Javanese' (n=56) α
Deep Approach	.28	.60
Intrinsic Motivation	.36	.76
Use of Evidence	.30	.65
Relating Ideas	.51	.68
Operation Learning	.18	.54

The second relevant finding was the very strong sense of duty reported by all students, and notably by Javanese students, in their conception of learning. This phenomenon was particularly

noted in dimension two that is, *influence on, and experiences and conceptions of, learning* and dimension three, *learning experienced as personal growth*

> The basic pattern of variation suggested in Dimension 2 that is common to both subgroups reflects an emphasis, in terms of the higher loadings, on *learning being influenced by a sense of duty and the examples of others* in association with *an accumulative conception of learning, 'knowing in terms of recall,* and *an experience of control in the absence of integrating.*
>
> However, for the Javanese subgroup, the loading on learning experienced as a *moral duty* is high in absolute terms and more than double that for the non-Javanese subgroup. The Javanese subgroup also further qualifies this dimension with the *experience of change, growth and enjoyment. Intuition* as a basis for 'knowing' when learning has occurred is a qualification for the non-Javanese subgroup, as is *learning from the example of parents.* In addition, the loading on *recall as a basis for 'knowing' when learning has occurred* is more than twice as high for the non-Javanese subgroup.
>
> In Dimension 3 there appears to be a larger range of differences between the two subgroups that makes a comparison more difficult. A common, but comparatively narrower, basis for comparison is suggested in terms of the influence of life experiences, the experience of personal growth and the conception of seeing things differently.
>
> The Javanese subgroup adds to this dimension the influence of parents, the experience of enjoyment, and a relational basis for 'knowing' when learning has occurred. In contrast, the non-Javanese subgroup builds on the common basis by the addition of changing as a person, the influence of moral duty, the influence of learning from the example of others, as well as learning as 'not knowing.' (Meyer & Kiley, 1998, pp. 295-296)

Assessment Study

The findings from this small-scale study were reported in Chapter 3, Students Expectations. In summary, however, 61% of science students reported that the most common form of helpful feedback came from their discussions with their supervisor(s). Eight students particularly commented that it was the informal interaction which they had with their supervisor that was most helpful. For the social science students, while the supervisor was still the main source of feedback, in this case six students commented that it was written comments on their written work that were the most significant form of feedback received.

Quality of Supervision Study

Forty one students were interviews for this study. Students in the science department were virtually all in their twenties, with one early thirty year-old (an international student). This

compared markedly with the social science students who ranged from early twenties to greater than fifty years. It was notable that the majority of the older students were female. The majority of students interviewed held scholarships and those students who did not have a scholarship had passed the time limit of their previous scholarship and had found alternative funding (or had it found for them).

Entry criteria for the two departments were quite distinctive. In the science department 89% had entered their PhD with First Class Honours from the same department whereas for the social science department approximately 50% of the students entered with a Masters degree. A staff member from the science department commented that "There is no doubt that any student who gets First Class Honours from this department can get a PhD anywhere" (Kiley, 1993a). In contrast the social science students generally had to enrol in a Masters first and then upgrade if progress warranted such a move, as staff argued that Honours was not a good enough indicator of a student's 'stick-ability.'

> Some students get a good result in their Honours because they have very close supervision whereas others do it with little supervision. Unless one knows the sort of supervision in Honours, it may be a misleading indicator of potential postgraduate success. (Kiley, 1993b, p. 7)

There were no part-time postgraduate students in the science department and none of the students interviewed had intermitted whereas in the social science department there were both full-time and part-time students as well as those on scholarship and those employed. Three PhD and two Masters students had intermitted or planned to intermit during their candidature.

The characteristics of a 'good' supervisor arising from these two studies were reported in Chapter 2 where they were compared with the characteristics determined by King (1997) and O'Rourke (1997). In summary, however, students suggested that the main characteristics of a good supervisor can be grouped into three categories. The first is personal qualities, for example, enthusiastic, encouraging, approachable, good inter-personal skills, committed to students and prepared to 'fight' on their behalf if need be. The second is academic qualities, for example, respected because of demonstrated research abilities and knowledge of the area being researched, intelligent, able to think through problems and having good scientific knowledge.

The third category is administrative qualities, for example, able to see the student regularly, and being reliable and punctual with keeping appointments and returning work.

Supervisors' views placed considerably greater emphasis on personal qualities. These included, recognition that every student has different needs, patience, good communication skills, and cares about the student being interested in him/her as a person. The academic qualities suggested by supervisors included familiarity with the topic, and interest in field of work with the main administrative quality being availability.

Chapter Summary

The demographic data and some initial and general findings from the Adelaide Longitudinal Study and supporting studies have been detailed in this chapter. The purpose has been to provide background to the next four chapters that focus on the three phases of students' candidature and the changes they experienced.

CHAPTER 7 PHASE ONE: THE FIRST SIX MONTHS

Introduction

The results outlined below will demonstrate that the first three to six months of the students' sojourn in Australia were seen as very significant in their overall candidature. During this crucial time students had to come to terms with culture shock[1], new approaches to learning, being without family; adjusting to new food, accommodation, and weather; a return to formal study (for many after several years away); and trying to make new friends—all in a foreign language.

Two interviews were conducted with each of the 33 students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study within their first six months in Adelaide (66 interviews in all). In the second of these interviews, five to six months after arrival, students were asked to 'place' themselves on a culture shock continuum to indicate how they felt. They were also asked to complete a rating scale regarding their expectations of supervision. Students' supervisors were also interviewed within the first six months. Supervisors were asked about themselves as supervisors and the skills, attitudes and experiences which they considered important for supervision of all students, and in particular, international students.

In an effort to determine students' views prior to studying overseas, 20 students undertaking pre-departure language courses at the Indonesia Australia Language Foundation (IALF)[2] in Denpasar, Bali, were interviewed regarding their expectations, hopes and fears about studying in Australia. Staff at the IALF Jakarta and Bali were also interviewed for their impressions of students' anticipated study abroad.[3]

This chapter describes students in these first, very difficult months of Phase One. However, discussion of the subsequent phases in Chapters 8 and 9 will indicate that while homesickness and culture shock were almost overpowering for some students during the first several months,

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[1] Culture shock is discussed in Chapter 2.
[2] Pre-departure group at IALF is described in Chapter 5.
[3] The IALF was established in Jakarta by the Australian government in the 1980s to provide English language preparation for students awarded scholarships to study in Australia (as well as New Zealand and Canada in later years). Students awarded a scholarship receive, as part of that award, English language preparation for anything from three to twelve months with the proviso that the student must attain a designated IELTS level in order to study in Australia. In addition to English language students take part in cultural awareness, and approaches to Western learning sessions with staff of the Foundation. Where appropriate, comments from these interviews are included to illustrate various points.

issues such as quality of supervision and ability to cope with time constraints became more significant issues for most. This was the norm unless students experienced some major personal trauma for example, the break-up of a relationship and the political, social and economic turmoil in Indonesia while students were in Australia. The categories for discussing the findings in this chapter and Chapter 8 and 9, are those determined by the literature discussed in Chapter 2, that is, personal and emotional issues, administrative issues, course, language and academic issues,[4] and those related to supervision.

Personal and Emotional Issues

Homesickness

Homesickness was one of the major issues talked about by students, and it was not unusual for students to shed a few tears during these first two interviews, particularly the second. On enrolment, 64% (n=21) of the cohort were married or engaged. Of these 21 students 19 of them had one child or more. Only two students were accompanied by their family on arrival.[5] Two male students had children born in Indonesia within six months of their departure to study in Australia; for one, his son was 14 months old before he saw him.

In addition to students missing their spouse, children, family and friends many also reported missing food, music and the social environment. Five students, generally those who had studied abroad before or who travelled extensively with their job in Indonesia, reported that they did not experience homesickness.

Amina, Tini, Hermina, Dewi and Iem were five mothers who had left their husbands and children behind. In Interview One Tini report that in the first month she had a Telecom[6] bill of $537 but that had dropped down a little in the second month. She had never lived alone and when her house-mate had to return to Indonesia she was very scared at night and used to phone her husband often twice per day and talk for anything up to thirty minutes. Amina had left her husband and three-year old son behind in Indonesia. In the first interview she was very homesick and reported that she was phoning home every three days to check that everything was

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4   As noted earlier the issues of language and learning are closely integrated and it is difficult to report them separately, even though they are often reported by students and supervisors as separate.

5   These two students were spouses both of whom received scholarships to the University of Adelaide at the same time.

6   Phone company

all right. She commented that when she woke up each morning she had 'a gap in her heart' and felt very lonely. However, once she got to lectures and courses it took her mind off it. She tried to work each weekend so that she was not too homesick.

At the second interview she reported that she was going back to Indonesia the following day:

> *Are you going back to Indonesia tomorrow, is that to get your family?*
>
> My husband prepare, he has a scholarship to come next year, but we are hoping that he can start in second semester...If he can't I think it is best for him [my son] to be in Indonesia he has friends and family. And here it will be difficult for him and for me too. I couldn't sleep last night because I was so excited about going home...
>
> *How have you been feeling about being in Adelaide?*
>
> The problem is the phone bills. It's very easy to make phone calls home, and then after a month my phone bill is very high, $350 a month, but for my friend it is worse, she must pay $620. It isn't her first year here, and she is not married. It's cheaper if I call from Australia instead of my husband.
>
> *How often do you phone home?*
>
> Two or three times a week, I just want to hear my son voice I ask 'What do you want?' 'I don't want anything I just want my mummy back.'
>
> *Does that make you cry?*
>
> Yes, I just want my mummy back. I feel guilty leave my son only three years old, but at last my husband might come and now I might be able to have him with me. (Amina2: 5-15; 117-131)

Several men had also left behind spouses and children, with two of them, Sugik and Iwan, being in Australia when their wife gave birth. Iwan reported in the first interview that he was deliberately keeping very busy so that he did not have time to miss his family. He contacted home about every two to four weeks. In the second interview he said:

> The problem just here [hand to heart area]. I mean I don't know how exactly these things are said in Adelaide, because also Saturday and Sunday I have to come back [to the campus].
>
> *So you're not having any social life?*
>
> Ah yes, maybe just go to Rundle Mall[7]....Yes, I think maybe the first year like that and I think maybe the second not bad maybe. So I can manage.
>
> *So what about your family?*
>
> I think for my family I will not take [bring] them to Australia. I am afraid if they come here make [more difficult] in terms of how to manage my time for my study. So I have decided not to bring my family, because every two weeks I make long distance calls to my family.

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7   Adelaide's shopping mall in the main commercial area of the city.

So when will you go home to see your new little boy?

Maybe no....I not tell to her. I am afraid she will be hurt.

So she doesn't know yet?

Yes, I mean no. To delay...but I think no, if I delay next year. But I don't decide next year or when , delay, delay, delay and then I...[If I delay telling my wife long enough that she is not coming here and I am not visiting I will be finished.] (Iwan2: 8-26)

The other male students who were in Adelaide without family were, like the women, very keen not to allow their concentration to wander too much while they were working:

Ah yeah, sometime if I have many troubles in [my study] and so I remember family come in my mind, one come and one go.

In English we call that daydreaming.

In *Bahasa* it is *lamunan*. So I think [about] my family. (Igun2: 51-55)

Students had different ways of helping themselves and others overcome homesickness. The most common was to spend long hours, frequently seven days per week, on their study, particularly on campus trying to avoid day dreaming and attempting to concentrate on work. But Antonius and a friend had a novel method for coping with their homesickness:

If I feel lonely, then my friend also ring me or I phone him 1.00 or 3.00 am. My friends will say 'Hello here from Jakarta' [making the beep, beep, beep sound of an ISD call] and then I say 'You my friend...' because we are very close. Sometimes we play Sundanese music and say this is radio station in Indonesia. Every Saturday we went to garage sales. I have four different tape recorders. They are only $2, I will send one home. (Antonius2: 132-144)

Badri, Jono, Buharto and Purwanto had very similar accounts of their homesickness. Married men without their families certainly reported missing their wives, particularly as someone who would understand what they were going through. None, however, had high phone bills, with two buying a weekly $5 phone card to limit their phone calls. Only one man did not have his family join him at all during candidature, although he returned for a brief visit. Families generally joined the student within two to 12 months, with the average being six months. Married women without their families, on the other hand, reported missing their children as much, if not more than their spouses. Several reported very high phone bills ranging from $300-$650 per month.

Single students reported homesickness, generally for family and friends. *Idul Fitri*[8] was often a very difficult time for students, particularly as in 1995 it came soon after students had arrived for

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8   Celebrations to mark the end of the Muslim fasting month, *Puasa*.

first semester. Rina, a single female student, reported in the first interview that she felt very sad over *Idul Fitri* not being with her family. This homesickness continued through to the second interview where she said "I am still very homesick, especially now because it is a bad time. The four months time is really bad, but I hope it gets better" (Rina2: 64-66).

It was particularly difficult for students when they had not made friends:

> That is a problem. Maybe because we can't speak English—very well, so in the [residential] College just Asians at one table on their own and Australians at another. Not just me but all Asians, from Thailand from Singapore. (Lena2: 25-27)

Fatimah, on the other hand, who had reported being very homesick in the first interview said in the second that while she was still missing her family she was not so homesick as she had a boyfriend, a fellow international (non-Indonesian) student.

Single, male students such as Bunari, Enton, Koko and Beni also reported missing family and friends and feeling 'up and down'. Bunari met up with his parents in Sydney when they visited Australia, although he reported feeling "lousy" after he had left them. All of the students found that by keeping busy with their study, they could manage their homesickness. (Bunari2: 61-71; Enton2: 33-40; Beni2: 12-15; Koko2: 119-127)

In virtually all cases of married students without families or single students the thought of being able to return home for even a short visit after six months in Australia (the mid-year break or summer break) or anticipating a visit from family members gave them an enormous boost of enthusiasm. The anticipated visit itself was often enough to get them over their deep sense of loss and loneliness and after the visit they were generally well able to cope with being in Australia without family.

Five students reported not feeling particularly homesick. Three of them had studied overseas before (Dian, Yanti and Kintan). As Dian said "I don't have time to miss anything about Indonesia. I don't have time to write to my sister or my parents. I just give them a quick call" (Dian2: 38-40). And Yanto replied when asked what he missed about Indonesia "Because we can use the Internet I don't miss too much because I can read *Kompas* and *Republika*[9], but not every day as I don't always have the time" (Yanto2: 14-16).

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[9]   Two of the best known Indonesian news papers

For students who had their families with them, and the single students who did not report being particularly homesick, the main things they reported missing were friends, food and music, as did many of the others who also missed spouses and children.

Sugik (2:49-51); Fatimah (2:109-114); Tini (2:79-83); Kintan (2:90-92); Bunari (2: 38-145) and Enton (2:26-28) particularly mentioned food including *bakso*, *gado-gado* and *sambal*, various spicy foods and food from particular areas such as Manado, Palembang and Padang:

> I miss the food from Indonesia, partly because I am not very good at cooking. The food from my home town is hot and I find it very difficult to find food that is hot enough. I can find hot food but not as hot as I like. My Mum sent me some food in the post, a typical...food, and when I ate it I found it very spicy and I wasn't used to it. (Dewi2: 15-20)

Other things that students missed were the language: that is, being able to express one's feelings clearly and easily in one's home language; music; and friends (Basu2: 23-26; Antonius2: 73-85; Yanti2: 20-23) with Arief missing "everything. [I miss] everything. I have a very happy life in Indonesia" (Arief2: 119).

It was toward the end of the first six months that several students were making arrangements for their families to join them. The effect of family on student progress will be discussed in Chapters 8 and 10. Having said this, the results of this small sample indicate that married men with their families and single men adjusted more quickly than single women, married women or married men without their families. Seventy six percent of all male students reported that they either felt settled or that 'this was home' after six months. This compares with the four married men without their families all of whom reported being very unhappy or depressed.

The results for the female students were more varied. Fifty eight percent of all women reported being either unhappy or depressed at the six month stage, 57% of these being single females. Two others were women without their families. The one woman who had her family with her, but reported being very unhappy, was also reporting significant difficulty interacting with her supervisor (who was eventually to be changed). Two married women without families reported feeling settled, one of whom was on a one year course only. It would appear from this sample that single men adjusted to living in Adelaide more quickly than single women. In this sample, the only single woman who reported feeling settled had travelled extensively throughout

Indonesia with her work. Of the men who reported being settled or feeling at home, 54% had either previously studied or travelled overseas.

There are several reasons for the married men whose families were not with them to have difficulty in adjusting. One reason suggested by the students, male and female alike, was that the men, in addition to missing their families, were also finding difficulty with household chores and with organising their time to manage such activities as shopping, cooking, cleaning and washing as well as coping with their academic environment. As Chapter 8 will demonstrate, they were having to do so without the person who they usually turned for support, their spouse:

> The third month I feel it in here [hand to heart area]. I like it in here but the third month I miss my family yes. For the first month we have *Lebaran* and so I meet my friends. [Then points to schema.]
>
> *But the fourth month—depressed?*
>
> Yes the fourth month work hard and have to cook. I also spend time one hour for clothes have to wash, one hour for cook. Spend my time I want to read but.... (Antonius2: 92-98)

Single women, while generally adjusting after six months, had considerable difficulty in coping with their new environment, compared with single men and married women and men with their families. One of the reasons was likely to be the difficulty women experience going out at night alone, particularly in winter when it gets dark soon after 5.00 pm. in Adelaide.

> My feeling is, my expectation when I come to Australia beside study I can sometimes [meet] Australian people or other people outside of my country, but when I stay here I have no time because of my lectures. When I try to [meet] they got holidays during Sunday to Friday. I always got lectures during from Monday until Friday from 9.00 until 5.00 so how can I meet [them]. And then after that in Australia sometimes 6.00 already dark—I in a hurry go home—here is no time for activities.
>
> I try to involve in international OSA[10]...but again, the time. They always have a meeting if not during I'm studying or in the afternoon. I too scared to go somewhere else. (Watie2: 174-181)

While certainly many of the students expected to experience homesickness to some extent, several appeared to be quite taken aback by the level of homesickness they experienced and particularly the effect this had on their study. This was particularly the case with Fatimah, Amina, Lena, Rina, Watie, Tini, Igun and Antonius.

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[10] Overseas Students Association.

While homesickness was mentioned in passing by participants in the Returnee Study it had not been seen as a major factor in their period of study in Australia. I would suggest that while it was almost certainly of major significance in the first three to six months, by the time students were ready to return to Indonesia they had overcome most of the negative effects of homesickness and hence it was not reported as significant. In fact, some of the returnees almost dismissed homesickness 'with the wave of a hand' something which several of the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study almost did towards the end of their sojourn.

Culture Shock

Students reported understanding about culture shock and most, particularly those who had studied at the IALF, had been exposed to the 'U' and 'W' curves of culture shock and reverse culture shock during their language program.[11] The IALF (Bali Branch) publishes a small, regular newsletter titled *Different Pond, Different Fish* (Indonesia Australia Language Foundation, 1998). The main purpose of this newsletter is to highlight common cultural misunderstandings and cultural differences. It also includes tips from students studying in Australia on topics such as making friends. Students reported that they found these sorts of publications quite helpful.

During the second interview students were asked to rate themselves on a diagrammatic representation of the culture shock 'U-curve' (see Appendix I). The diagram showed students at the 'bottom' of the curve as feeling unhappy and/or depressed and with an improvement on the up-side of the curve as feeling settled or feeling that Adelaide was now 'home'. However, as is expected, most students reported degrees of being 'up and down.' However, knowing about culture shock did not necessarily mean that students did not experience it. Rina, who obviously knew the terminology well, said "I'm at the nadir point!" (Rina2: 10). Although she *knew* that what she was experiencing was culture shock and that she was at the very bottom of the 'U' curve, she still *felt* wretched. Bunari, Yanti (2:25-30), Antonius (2:89-98), Lena (2:17), and Badri all talked about their experiences of being in a culture different from their own:

> *What about the people, are they the way you expected?*
>
> Ya. I think because we are different culture sometimes I feel upset because they are so cool. Like when I was in IALF would have cross-cultural session and then

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[11]   See Chapter 2 for a discussion of the 'U' and 'W' curves for culture shock.

they say that Australian people are not like Indonesians and it is quite difficult to make friends. I know that but it is still difficult. (Badri2: 61-66)

Rina (2: 5-14) reported several of the 'symptoms' of culture shock: health problems, a sense of despair and tearfulness. Without being able to hear her voice on the tape it is difficult to appreciate the sense of helplessness which she portrayed. Although her words on paper do not adequately express it, Lena was another student who was expressing almost a sense of despair in interview two:

> *What about changes in your English. Have you noticed that your English has changed since you've been here?*
>
> No, actually I think it might be worse, because of the stress. Every day we just study the subject, so we don't study the grammar. Sometimes I go to the library to practice English but because I am very busy not often.
>
> *Let's go back to the comment about the stress?*
>
> I feel the stress because I can't speak English.
>
> *So the more stressed you feel the worse your English gets?*
>
> Yes. Do you have any ideas?
>
> *(Explanation: I think you are right the more you worry about it the worse it gets.)*
>
> I joined the English Club in State Library but it hasn't helped much because there are too many people. We just listen. So I don't know how I can improve. (Lena2: 152-156; 162-171)

Only two students Basu (1: 100-101) and Junaidi reported that they felt uncomfortable being a student (rather than a staff member):

> My supervisor just told me about two weeks ago that I have to take qualifying program. I was very very surprised [but] no choice, that was the decision of the department. Recently we had Annual Progress Report and I think [my progress is OK]. I'm very nervous. I feel a bit stupid in front of him. Positive way...I didn't mean, he's very nice, just my feeling because [of the Qualifying]. In my faculty [in Indonesia] I was best lecturer, you know, for the last two years so I was very frustrated. Oh, I'm just like a boy here. (Junaidi2: 58-66)

Other students suggested that the reason only two experienced any sense of feeling uncomfortable being treated as students was that Indonesian culture provides quite a strict and clear hierarchy and seniority. As the students described it "You always know that there is someone above you whom you respect and someone below you who offers you respect [My paraphrase]." Another reason might well be that postgraduate students, particularly research students, unlike undergraduate students, are often considered to be active member of the department by staff and other students.

So while students knew about culture shock and expected to experience it to some extent the effect of it on their emotional well-being came as quite a surprise to many, particularly when they felt unable to actively counter-act the 'symptoms' and at the same time worry that the quality of their work might lead them to being sent home.

Health Effects of Culture Shock

One of the documented symptoms of culture shock is health difficulties. While one might expect a range of 'normal' health problems (for example, colds and flu) some of the students reported health problems that they considered were related to stress, particularly in their new environment "I get sick, just because I want to go home. There's not problem, but I still get sick. I got the flu" (Amina2: 54-56). Other students reported illness were headaches, an allergic rash and bowel problems (Watie2: 254; Igun2: 7-32; Rina2: 12-14; 68-76; Antonius2: 106-110).

Sources of Personal Support

Family and friends provided the greatest emotional support for students. Most married, male students reported that they talked with their spouse when they were depressed or worried about their work. Female married students, on the other hand, rarely reported discussing such matters with their husband, but they often spoke with other female students who were friends. Single students tended to phone home to their mother or a sibling if they were depressed or upset. Failing this, they met up with friends, generally Indonesian or at least international, and spent time window-shopping, usually in Rundle Mall or food shopping at the Central Market.[12]

As the transcripts above indicate, having friends was a crucial factor in lessening the impact of homesickness. In the second interview students were specifically asked about their social life. Student organisations were one source of support and friendship for many students including the Overseas Students' Association (OSA) and the Council of International Students' Associations (CISA) which provide activities for all overseas students. Some of the students in the study were involved in these activities. However, one of the main sources of support for students including Bunari, Rina (2: 86-95), Sugik (2: 129-132), Fatimah (2: 179-198), Yanti (2: 13-14; 73-79), Basu (2: 79-82) and Watie (2: 56-72) was the Indonesian-government funded *Perhimpunan Pelajar Indonesia Australia* (PPIA) or Indonesian Students' Association.

12　Adelaide's market, specialising in Asian and continental food. It is possible to buy *halal* food at the Central Market.

Do you belong to the Indonesian Students Association?

Oh yeah.

Have you been to any of their functions?

Yeah, three times, one of them was a lunch and the last one was here when the Indonesian Association was at the barbecue. For Independence Day there will be a lot for that. We were told to expect something for that. Before I came here I was told that on 17 August and another day in November when I think it was when Indonesia was involved with East Timor. (Bunari2: 129-137)

PPIA provides twice yearly welcome and information sessions for new students and organises regular activities, particularly at the time of Indonesian cultural occasions, such as Independence Day. As this is a student association it is often of support to students although not necessarily to spouses and children. "*Do you belong to any groups like PPIA? Yes, but my husband can't go because he is not a student*" (Watie2: 49-50).

Kelompok Masyarakat Muslim Indonesia Australia Selatan or the Indonesian Islamic Association of South Australia, on the other hand, provides a social environment for families to learn about and maintain their religion and culture through the fortnightly *pengajian*[13] meetings. All of the Muslim students mentioned *pengajian* at some stage during the interviews and found it a source of social (as well as religious) support in the early days. "We have a small group *pengajian* where we read the Koran. In my friend's house. We get together and we read the Koran and pray for one another" (Antonius2: 198-200). Usually held in various students' homes or comfortable areas of the campuses, in addition to reciting the Koran students discuss issues related to their religion as well as those related to their daily life and usually enjoy a meal together. During their candidature most Muslim students and their families attended *pengajian* and many reported that being able to talk about issues in such an environment offered them considerable support.

The Muslim students in the study reported experiencing a number of personal, spiritual and social positives and negatives. For example, Rina found solace in praying.

I always pray at night, yes because it maintains my mental image. If I have a problem I pray and it maintain my mental image. I can not only solve a problem by an intellectual way but also through praying. Also, I think that everything I have to do is for God. (Rina2: 116-121)

Although for Jono, it was difficult maintaining the level of devotion he had in Indonesia:

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13 *kaji*=religious teaching, *mengaji*=reciting Koranic verses and *pengajian*=recitation of the Koran.

I have hardly prayed at all first thing in the morning, so now I do it just before I go to the campus rather than at 4.00. I still go to the Mosque on Friday. But I find it very difficult to get up in the winter because it is so cold. (Jono2: 43-46)

The negative side of support from their religious group was experienced by some students who felt that they were criticised by those holding stricter religious views. For example, while it is possible to buy *halal*[14] food in Adelaide, it is not always convenient. Some students, considered it religiously appropriate to eat non-*halal* food after a blessing when *halal* food was not available but they reported critical comments from other students who felt that this was inappropriate. Some students reported that they had to select their non-Islamic students friends with care, for example, those who would respect their need to stop during a day-outing to pray, or their concern about not drinking alcohol.

Of particular difficulty was *Ramadan*, Fasting Month, where participants do not eat or drink from dawn to dusk. Throughout the study, Fasting Month was in the summer months which also means Daylight Saving in Adelaide. In 1997, for example, Adelaide had its hottest February week on record during the last week of Fasting Month with temperatures reaching 40 degrees Centigrade and with the sun setting at approximately 8.40 pm "in Indonesia the Fasting Month is not difficult but in Australia the day is so much longer. I feel it" (Antonius2: 128-129). Students reported considerable physical difficulty, particularly in a social environment which offered virtually no support to students who were fasting. This is in contrast to Indonesia where work-place food canteens are closed for the whole of Fasting Month and non-Muslims make an effort to be discrete when eating and drinking during daylight hours. In addition, as one student reported, sex and sexual thought are to be avoided while fasting. However, given it is mid-summer, many of the young, and not so young, women in Adelaide dress in very light, brief and often revealing summer clothes. He reported that for some of the male Islamic students this provided quite a challenge. Having said this, not one complained, in accord with religious teachings, although many did comment on the long, hot days and the effect it had on their health.

During the study some of the Muslim students discussed how they felt their religion made it different for them studying in Australia compared with non-Muslim Indonesian students. The role and influence of religion will be addressed again later in this report, particularly with regard to personal interactions.

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14 Food, treated in such a way as to make it acceptable for Muslims to eat.

To a lesser extent than the *pengajian*, *Ikatan Cendekiawan Muslim Indonesia* (ICMI), the Association of Indonesian Muslim Scholars provided some support but ICMI was generally not considered to be of the same level of support as the other two Indonesian-specific associations.

Christian students also tended to gain some of the support suggested above. For example several, like Koko, belonged to quite active church groups:

> I go to church here, an Australian church so I think the service which I usually attend there is only two Asian people, just me and another two. It's just that I choose that because I just want to meet Australian people. (Koko2: 38-41)

An Indonesian students' email discussion group, based at the University of Tasmania, also provides a useful support network for students, particularly for sharing information. It is not uncommon to have students inquire, or post information, about such things as cheap air-fares from Australia to Indonesia, or useful information about courses, groups and activities. However, many of the students in the study did not use this source of support in their first six months as they were not immediately provided with email, or when they were, they were not sure how to use it. Early access to email varied across departments and improved significantly over the duration of the Adelaide Longitudinal Study.

One of the issues for students who were involved with the Indonesian-based associations, and who lived in university residential accommodation, was that they mostly mixed with Indonesian or other international students. For some this is a very positive outcome, whereas others such as Amina, Edi (2: 134-141), and Beni (2: 51-54) felt that by not meeting and mixing with Australians they were not making the most of their opportunities:

> Actually I would like to make friends with Australians but I don't know what to say. If I met my friends from Indonesia it's easy to make conversation but with Australians it is difficult and I have to think about it, so I don't have many friends, Australian friends. It's easier for me to make friends with other Asian students like Singapore or Malaysian students. With Australians I only have three. They are in my department. It's OK I can talk everything with them. (Amina2: 82-91)

As revealed by many studies related to Indonesian students studying in Australia, one of the difficulties for students was socialising with Australians (Barker, 1990; Choi, 1997; Daroesman & Daroesman, 1992; Everts & Sodjakusumah, 1996; Hodgkin, 1972; Kinnell, 1990; Mullins & Hancock, 1995). The returnees who were interviewed in Indonesia were able to shed some light

on the situation. As one returnee said, "people blame Indonesians for not mixing but it is not as easy as it seems" (17 15 8 11).

Language was cited as one obstacle to mixing with Australians, particularly the need to spend considerable amounts of time reading and writing in English. "I had such a heavy workload with assignments and it was all in English. I was working from 7.00 am to 10.00 pm seven days per week. But I forced myself to work because I was very worried about passing" (17 15 8 11). There is little time and energy in such a regimen for socialising in a foreign language and culture. Tini, Dian (2: 81-86), Badri (2: 83-86), Lena (2: 82-91; 121-125; 230-239) and Yanto (2: 61-62) suggested that it was difficult to make friends and have any kind of social life with the workload they were experiencing:

> Maybe I got wrong strategy to studying. Because when I during my living in Adelaide in six months I always studying and studying and studying. I never went maybe in beach, together with some students, [like the social program], I never joined this.
>
> *And did you join PPIA?*
>
> I never joined the program. [On the weekend] I relax, sometimes [a public] holiday and then I want to take rest at home and then maybe I just went to Rundle Mall, sightseeing and after that studying, studying, studying. But unfortunately I feel it is not right. (Tini2: 19-27)

The workload was particularly heavy for Iwan and Siti who were both hoping to upgrade from the Masters to PhD program and so wanted to demonstrate to their supervisors that they were capable of the work. (Both did successfully upgrade.)[15]

> *Why did you only sleep for two hours yesterday?*
>
> Because I keep studying. Working.
>
> *Have you been doing it for a while?*
>
> Because I have to prepare conference for today so I cannot work today so I have to [spend] my weekend. Everything [has been in the way] but now I have to prepare everything so I work faster I hope." (Siti2: 5-11)

However, Jono's difficulty was with other students' workloads "When I first came here the other students were preparing for exams and so they were very serious and so I didn't have a lot of people to talk with" (Jono2: 38-40).

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15   Daroesman and Daroesman (1992) reported that 7% of their sample upgraded their award compared with 6% in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study.

Having other Indonesian students as friends, however, posed difficulties for some students, particularly as the group in Adelaide was quite small, as Rani discovered:

> I live with Indonesian friends but I think that this is not a good position. After a couple of months I stay here because when we are in Indonesia we are friends but when we are in here I feel just like they use me [laugh] because they are in the Masters degree and I am in the PhD program and I don't have a strict schedule and they think that I have plenty of time to take care of them, take care of the children etc because they do not understand. I just guess that they think that I do nothing here. That I just read and sometimes and write and have no deadlines with assignments. I try to explain what I am doing here and what the supervisor expects from my work and how difficult my situation.
>
> *What sorts of things so they expect you to do?*
>
> Sometimes I have to take care of their children after 5 pm because they have to attend the class in the evening and sometimes I have to accompany them to the hospital and some [thing] like that. Small things, but if I knew that I wouldn't have lived together. I just feel that I am used by somebody else. And because we are Indonesian friends we are from the same country and I can't say no. Because if I do that then they will tell everyone and they will say that 'Look, that lady becomes very Australian! She does not want to help.' That is why I plan to move next year....I can't tell to another Indonesian lady this because she would tell her husband and he would tell everyone. And also I can't tell my husband because he would say...'You know, women are always like that.' I don't want to be like that. (Rani2: 167-199)

Igun also had difficulty when his Indonesian friends offered him support as he found that the hierarchical structure of Indonesia was reflected to some extent in Australia:

> Yeah, I have many [Indonesian] friends....Sometimes I come to my friends' house to talking about their experience....Sometimes if I come, but not all my friends, they be more senior than me...they come [from Indonesia] more early than me. There are many friends who come '94 and maybe they experience more higher than me and sometimes they speaking [to me] like children 'Oh, you don't know!' [and I think] 'So why you making little of me?' So I better come to my friends who are the same level [as me and who started in 1995]. (Igun2: 130-140)

Other students such as Dewi, Yanti (2: 59-62), Basu (2: 60-61), and Bunari (2: 122-128) had already made a number of friends, often quite specifically those other than Indonesian ones. "I go out with friends to some entertainment. Most of my friends are International Students and Australian students, but I don't have many Indonesian students" (Dewi2: 72-75).

Other than Tini, Dian, Yanto, Badri, Lena and Siti, the other students tended to fall into two groups: those who believed that having an active social life was an integral part of their Australian experience; and those who saw their friends as a means of support in their difficult period of adjustment. Edi believed that he needed to maintain a balance in his life:

How do you feel about being in Adelaide?

I like it. You know that I am not here just to study but to have a social life. I visit friends. I cannot work from 7 am to 7 pm five days a week. My brain does not work like that. I work about 6 hours and that is enough. I can not force more than that. And on the weekend because I have two children and there is no child care available on the weekend so my wife and I make time for our children. (Edi2: 35-42)

Others who reported approaching their social life in a similar manner included Buharto (2: 110-122), Yanto (1: 108-110), Enton (2: 42-50; 99-102; 113-125; 151-156), Basu (2: 54-57), Junaidi (2: 88-92), and Arief (2: 82-91). The majority of these students had either studied overseas prior to coming to Adelaide or had travelled overseas before their candidature.

Purwanto (2: 56-61) Bunari (2: 73-75), Fatimah (2: 169-174), and Sugik (2: 80-85; 133-139) reported that their friends had been particularly helpful for emotional support. It was clear that many students had been encouraged to try to make friends outside their Indonesian 'circle'. IALF staff reported that they had suggested this in classes and students were aware of the advice being given. Indonesian colleagues and staff also encouraged students to attempt to make friends with Australians quickly. For example, I had been present at a meeting in December 1994 of six staff members in the Department of Family Planning who were hoping to be accepted by Australian universities for 1995. The senior staff member, himself a returnee from overseas, strongly exhorted the students to make friends as quickly as possible with Australians so that they might improve their English and learn about the culture. Students arrived expecting to do this. However, as the above comments indicate, the expectation and the reality were quite different. Despite their best intentions many of the students found that they needed the support and understanding of fellow Indonesians or it was very difficult in some cases to make friends with Australians. As it turned out it was often much easier to make friends with other international students than with Australian students. In fact many of the students reported that they found it easier to understand the English of other non-English speaking background international students than they did Australians.

Racism

While still within the realm of adjustment and social and emotional support, within the first two interviews when specifically asked whether they had experienced racism, only five students

reported some racist interaction, although for most of them they were not sure whether what they had experienced was actually racism:

> In a small way...it's very funny. I went to Coles supermarket and in the cashier when I went to pay all my things, I had to queue and the cashier at the time [said] to the people "Hello, how are you?' Everybody. But when in my turn, he said nothing! I wondered why he didn't speak anything but to other people he speak. Why? he is very nice to other people....Automatically my mind works, I said 'Hey, Hello, how are you, are you fine?'...And he looked at me suddenly and he [went] red [in] his face and 'Yeah, Yes.' automatically [I did it], because [he spoke to] all the people [but not me]! (Rina2: 124-133)

However, Edi did suggest that there was a form of racism within his department:

> The only problem for me is especially about the racism. In the department there is racism, maybe because I know that this is a situation that I have to cope with. The department allows me to do whatever work I think important. This is because I am a PhD student, you have to make your own way. But we are very busy. In Indonesia we still have time to meet others.[16]....I think, I feel, I hope I am wrong, I feel that they do not have an appreciation of students [in my area compared with another area of research in the department] so I think when we are with each other there is a division. So for me it is very lonely. That is why I prefer to work at home. I have a computer there, and there is more privacy there. If I sit in a room [an office] and some one comes I cannot concentrate. That's what I feel. That's why I don't very often come into the University. (Edi2: 71-95)

The above comment has more impact if one knows that in 'his area' almost 90% of the students were Indonesian and virtually all of the others international students. Whereas in the 'other area' most of the students were local students, thus enhancing the sense of division and possible racism. However, this sense of racism continued outside the University:

> I try to understand why the environment is like this. I think that there are the people on the dole and they think that we are coming to take their jobs. But they don't take the time to realise that just because we look Asian we are not here for that reason. They need to think about which one is a student and which one is here to work. I am just here to study.
>
> *Have you had people make racist comments to you?*
>
> My wife has. But mostly the way they behave and won't sit next to her on the bus. That sort of thing, body language. That is one reason why I got a car and now we can go wherever we want.
>
> *How is your son going at school?*
>
> Because he goes to international [primary] school, Gilles Street, I think he is OK. It is especially for students from overseas. So for him there are no problems. But my daughter in child-care. Yes there are problems. Sometimes, maybe also but I

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16 Here he was referring to the practice of Australian academics asking students to make appointments to see them and 'implying' that they are very busy, so busy in fact that they might not be able to see students.

think that we pay the same amount so I don't know why they act like that. I hope that this is wrong, but what I think is the care that she gets is not as good as the other children.

Is this as you expected it to be before you came here to live?

Yes. When I was at the IALF I got a lot of information that the one important thing in Australia was racism but I didn't realise that it was true. (Edi2: 100-128)

Students seemed quite taken aback by racism in Australia and this will certainly be borne out by reports of later interviews. It can be seen from the comments above, while students might have been warned about racism, they did not necessarily expect to experience it. Rani expressed the view of several students when she commented that she was very aware that when she re-met someone, after having been quite friendly with them on a prior occasion, it would be as if they did not know her:

> I think it is a cultural thing. Like in [the department] itself. We have many PhD students and Research Fellows and we share rooms and the local students, I just feel it, maybe I'm wrong, but sometimes when I see a person and then I will recognise her or him later on but they won't talk to me unless I speak to them first. But we are all in the same situation as students. But I don't know. I think it is the culture. (Rani2: 115-121)

Lena (2: 131-132) and Yanti (2: 65-71) also reported experiencing racism, generally from comments made in the street or people going past in a car. Siti (1: 12-115) and Basu (1: 174) reported friends who had experienced racism.

However, as the later interviews will show, the reporting of racism increased substantially. Two reasons are suggested for this increase. The first is that students did not feel comfortable enough within the first two interviews to report negatively about Australians. The other reason is what has been called 'The Hanson Factor' outlined in Appendix C. Further incidents of racism reported in the post-six month period will be discussed in Chapter 8.

In summary, Indonesian family and friends provided the greatest emotional support for students. This accords well with the research of Furnham and Naznin (1985) and Furnham and Bochner (1986) who suggest that monocultural friendships play a particular role in students' emotional well-being. Particular examples of monocultural groups were *pengajian*, PPIA and personal family and friends. A less frequently reported, but important source of support was from the other international students, that is multicultural groups. These fellow international students were able to share similar experiences and many students reported that it was easier to speak with and

understand English with other international students. The IBP and residential colleges provided opportunities to develop multicultural friendships.

Although many students tried, they found it difficult, at least in Phase One, to develop bicultural friendships. Several reasons were suggest for this. The first was that the students found it much easier to make friends with fellow nationals due to similar language, culture and religion and the provision of social organisations. Secondly students were not always sure how to go about making friends with Australians, particularly when they appeared to be friendly one day and not the next, and when some felt uncertain about their English language skills. Thirdly, students were often working such long hours that there was little time to develop friendships that required 'effort.' The fourth reason was that students who had experienced racist incidents were nervous about putting themselves in a position where this might occur again.

Administrative and Day-to-day Issues

Departure from Indonesia and Arrival in Australia

On the whole students experienced very few difficulties with the arrangements to leave Indonesia and their arrival in Adelaide. One of the few who did was Buharto (1: 101-111) who was not met on arrival in Adelaide due to administrative confusion. He had been told that someone would be at the airport but when he arrived there was no one to be seen. He was very disappointed because his expectations had not been met particularly when he also found out that he was not even on the list of students expected to come to Adelaide.

Buharto was also one of the few students who experienced difficulties with the administrative side of his departure:

> At the time I was coming here I didn't foresee any problems other than the bureaucratic constraints....So I went to Jakarta and went to various government departments and I went backward and forward. And you know what it is like in Jakarta. It was a pain. (Buharto2: 29-34)

Another student who had difficulties was Yanto:

> Yes, I had problem, I had big problem, I suppose not coming to Adelaide, I suppose to go to Melbourne, but they told me about [losing] my photo, I have to repeat again and then I change. But I find it's quite lucky because I come [to a] better University and tuition fee is much more expensive [than the other university] and will give me...an advantage. (Yanto2: 20-27)

All other students reported that the administration had 'gone smoothly.'

Adelaide as a Place to Live and Study

Depending on where they came from in Indonesia students had different expectations of Adelaide as a place to live and study. Those who had come from big cities such as Jakarta and Surabaya it took time to become accustomed to the quietness of Adelaide:

> Yeah, I like it I mean it's kind of good city especially after other cities like Sydney, I've been there twice and I found the people there very rude if you compare it with people here....First when I came I thought it was very quiet, you don't have shops open on Sundays so I felt it was restful city. Well two or three months later I came here I think I like it very much. Especially if I compare it with Sydney, it is very busy there and if I tell you again, the first time I was in Sydney I found it very interesting because I was only there for a week, so it's just like touring around and around but later I found if I had to stay here and study it would be impossible. (Bunari2: 14-16; 114-119)

On the other hand, for students such as Jono and Dewi (2: 68-70) who came from less populated areas their expectations were quite different:

> Before I came to Adelaide I was very 'worryful', I thought it was like New York or something like that, very big city and highly developed. But now I am here it is just another city and I like it like that. Adelaide is much more like some Indonesian cities. (Jono2: 83-88)

However, most students, when asked after six months, how living in Adelaide met their expectations, reported that it was at least as good, if not better than they expected. This result accords with the overall figure for overseas students in Australia report by the Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs (1998a) where 40% of students said that living in Australia was better, 17% worse, and 38% as good as expected. Most students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study said that although they initially found Adelaide *very* small and *very* quiet after their experience of Indonesia, they found that they got used to it quite quickly and appreciated that Adelaide was a good city in which to study, meaning that it was convenient and with few distractions. It was the quietness at night with which many had difficulty. As they lamented, in Indonesia people sit outside in the evening and chat, or play the guitar and sing, or just walk round talking with friends or window shop (with the shops open until at least 9.00 pm seven days per week!). But in Adelaide everything closed at 6.00 pm, and particularly in winter, when people prefer to stay indoors, the students found it very 'unsociable'.

On the positive side, however, most students commented on the lack of pollution and the generally healthier environment as well as the ease of living in Adelaide. It was not just the ease of moving round the city, particularly after living in cities such as Jakarta, but they suggested that it was such things as the ease of using the bureaucracy, the public transport "this is a very organised place, the buses are on time, not like Indonesia. It is easier" (Ahmad2: 61-63) and people in Adelaide seem so more 'disciplined:'

> I like living here. Even I don't want to go back to Indonesia. I enjoy it here.
> *What do you enjoy so much?*
> Many people are disciplined and it is not so crowded.
> *What do you mean about the people being disciplined?*
> They should throw away the waste and follow the traffic lights. And just do what they are supposed to do. That is what I like. (Fatimah2: 56-65)

Others who commented that they felt comfortable living in Adelaide were Watie (2:18), Purwanto (2:13), Yanti (2:16-17), Dewi (2:10-12), Kintan (2:2-6), Basu (2:4-5), Yanto (2:53-58), Enton (2:21), Igun (2:83), Rani (2:52), Iwan (2:55-59), Badri (2:6-8), Junaidi (2:2) and Hermina (2:2-4). However, Arief's comment was "Adelaide is OK to study...It is very quiet, especially in the evening. I like Adelaide but I wouldn't like to live here" (Arief2: 69-71).

Weather

Some students had difficulty coping with the weather in Adelaide. For those who arrived in summer, the dry heat was difficult "I cannot cope with the weather. My skin is very sensitive and very dry. I use a lot of cream or lotion but it makes my skin very sensitive" (Rina2: 68-70). For others it was the cold weather during winter:

> Actually I hardly go out because it is so cold. But yesterday I found out that if I stay in the RAH[17] it is very cold but if I go outside it is warmer! I feel very cold in the room. My feet are very cold. Some of my friends have Ugg Boots. I thought the name came from Ugly Boots! (Sugik2: 81-85)

Or both! "In summer I was very hot and now in winter I am cold" (Watie2: 192). For others, the weather was more a problem for families, particularly those with young children:

> My wife is all right because she was with me too when I was in Queensland but my son was a bit shock[ed] at the first time because it was still cold. 'I don't like Australia, this is very cold' because he wanted to play outside. And then at the

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17 Royal Adelaide Hospital residential facility.

time at the first week it was raining [and] very wet so the situation was not good for him. (Junaidi2: 19-24)

Families in Adelaide

Within the first six months only a few students had families with them while a number of them were planning for their anticipated arrival. When the students in the Pre-departure Study (see Chapter 5) were asked for their thoughts on living in Australia their responses included:

- My wife wants to know what it is like to live abroad.
- I have two children, five and three and they seem happy from what they see on TV.
- My wife is a civil servant and she needs permission to leave, I'm not sure if she will get it.
- My husband is working in Indonesia but won't have a job in Australia so I am concerned at what he might do.
- I have a real concern as a mother and wife especially I think my husband might not be able to come with me, but I definitely want to take my daughter with me as I want her to experience living in a different culture and I am sure that it will be good for her. (IALF_Bali: 41-42; 93-97)

Many of these expectations were experienced by students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study. Some of the main areas of concern were the need to change accommodation, pressure from their spouse to not spend so much time on study, and students' concerns for the well-being of spouse and children. Students such as Amina, Sugik and Iem returned to Indonesia to collect their families and accompany them to Australia:

What are you doing during the break?

Actually we don't have a break. I am going to ask my supervisor if I can have time to go home and collect my wife and two children and it would be very difficult for her to travel with the two children on her own. If my supervisor agrees. (Sugik2: 124-128)

Once family arrived there was often a need to find new accommodation, particularly if children were involved:

What will happen when your wife comes to Australia? Will you stay in the same place?

I have spoken with [flat mate and fellow student] for him it is not problem if I want to stay. Some friends say that I must go, if is OK for me but not for [my friend who has been sharing]. He will miss family even more. But he is not sure yet. (Antonius2: 120-126)

Needless to say students were often very concerned for the well-being of their spouse and children and helping them settle often took several months and usually significantly lessened the

amount of time they had been spending on campus with study (Watie2: 37-54; Badri2: 19-27; 73-76; Junaidi2: 130-41):

> During the day she sits and waits for me to come home and so that is a problem for me because I have to go home early. I don't have a computer at home and so I usually make my concepts at home and then use the computer at work. (Jono2: 95-98)

Children were also of concern getting them settled into child care, pre-school or school:

> *Having your wife and family here, how has that affected your work?*
>
> Aah. At the beginning I gave more time to them to get them settled. For my son I had to look for a kindergarten and take him every day. But I hope that by July my wife can take him there.
>
> *What does your wife do during the day?*
>
> Looks after the baby. She has a few friends [near where we live], but not many. We live in a flat and there are twelve of them and we make contact with some of the people there. I know, it could be boring all day.
>
> *What is her English like?*
>
> She speaks a little. But that's OK for communicating. She is a bit slow, but OK. (Basu2: 97-113)

However, none of the children seemed to have any difficulties once they had settled.

> He says that everything is easy. For him not speaking English is not a handicap. Everything is easy he says....The first day I enrolled my son, he was quite happy, he can take himself. Everything is easy, writing, singing. But in my country, in year one they have exams and they have homework and my son experienced this and so he sees this as very easy. (Watie2: 214-240)

When asked, students reported that they expected that the amount of time they would be able to devote to their study once their family arrived would diminish. As Chapter 8 will demonstrate having families with them made a significant change to the day-to-day life of the students concerned and often put considerable demands on them. Chapter 8 will also report how students themselves viewed the differences between married and single students and how this affected their ability to cope with overseas study.

Accommodation and Transport

Soon after arrival virtually all students reported having little or no difficulty with accommodation and transport. While the University provides a service to assist overseas students to find accommodation, in many cases the network of Indonesian students provided the most useful

housing information. As one Indonesian student moved out of a flat another would move in, usually purchasing the already second-hand furniture and household goods.

Some lived, at least for the first several months, in residential accommodation such as the Royal Adelaide Hospital (RAH), which is virtually on the North Terrace campus of the University and others in university colleges, for example, Kathleen Lumley and St Ann's (Koko2:113-119; Sugik2:91-93; Lena2:19-21; Dewi2:76-79; Yanto2:64-69: Enton2:103-108; Bunari2:139-144):

> I walk in OK and my accommodation is OK but I am thinking of maybe moving as I would like to have a new experience like sharing a house with Australians so I might move. In the College it is not really representative of Australian culture, it is a bit international but I will find out what is available but I haven't decided yet. (Kintan2: 64-69)

Fifteen of the students lived in flats or houses often shared with other individuals or families. However, most of those who had come on their own but were expecting family to join them needed to seek alternative accommodation "I don't know because when I signed the lease I wasn't sure when he [my husband] would join me and so I arranged it for one year and then after one year maybe I can find a bigger place if he is here" (Amina2: 114-116).

Yanti (2: 81-82) and Jono shared with Australian families:

> *How is your travel, accommodation etc working out?*
>
> We travel by bus. We rent a room in a house which belongs to an Australian couple. We share the kitchen and the bathroom and lounge with the other tenants. We cook our own food, but only for ourselves. (Jono2: 100-104)

While the living arrangements were not always ideal (two students reported having difficulty with flatmates during candidature) the level and availability of housing did not pose a problem. Nor did transport. Lena (2: 19-21), Edi (2: 143-144), Buharto (2: 124-125), Dian (2:88-90), Dewi (2: 76-79), Basu (2: 114-116), Antonius (2: 204-206), and Junaidi (2:94-98) reported that they had no problems with transport. Three students bought cars early in the sojourn and several others reported buying cars later when family arrived. Eight students caught the bus and four students lived close enough to the campus that they could walk "I am able to walk in and if it is too late in the night we can use security in a car. They have a service that takes you to the College" (Yanto2: 65-67). Badri and Iwan rode bicycles. As Iwan said "I had thought to buy a car but I can't drive and if I had an accident then I would be in real trouble. But riding a bike is good exercise" (Iwan2: 73-76).

Health

Other than the stress-related illness outlined earlier, in general, there were few reports of ill-health within the first six months:

> During the cold weather I had a cold, but nothing serious.
>
> *How about your husband and children, how are they coping with the cold weather?*
>
> My daughter got a cold, but my son he is very strong, and my husband got a cold. But they are OK. (Watie2: 82-88)

Generally most students reported that they, and their families, had little ill health and some suggested they were more healthy in Australia than in Indonesia. For example "I think I become fit compared with my country. Sometimes I start to feel sick but the next day I am OK. Maybe because of the food. I enjoy Australian food" (Lena2: 158-160).

Students suggested that their good health was due to the greater quantity and quality of nutritious food, safe drinking water and healthier and less polluted environment. In fact, several students were to report getting quite ill on their return to Indonesia for field work or a visit, generally from food-related Typhus.

Food

Cooking and finding suitable food, both in the sense of being *halal* and food which was reminiscent of home, did pose some problems for some students in the first six months. Most of the students, male and female, had had little experience with cooking given the extensive employment of *pembantu*[18] in Indonesia. Very few, if any of the men had cooked, washed or cleaned a house prior to studying overseas and only some of the women.

> *Do you cook for yourself?*
>
> Yes, but I'm not very good. But my wife doesn't cook very well also because we have *pembantu* in Indonesia. AIDAB told us that we were not allowed to bring *pembantu* to Australia. (Sugik2: 95-98)

One way of overcoming this problem in Australia was described by Tini.(1: 123-128) who said did not like cooking as she had always had *pembantu* subscribed to a food service from the spouse of another Indonesian student. She got a full day's food each day and then on Friday enough for the weekend. She bought a microwave and heated up meals as needed. Another way

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18 Household help, generally live in, particularly concerned with cooking, washing/ironing and child care.

reported by Amina was that she had brought her cousin (who was later to be described as her sister, then her sister-in-law) with her to assist with household and child care tasks. Her cousin had travelled on a Visitor's Visa:

> Now it is not so bad as I still have my relative who came with me for three months, because when I was coming back I wasn't sure if my son could get child care and so she came to help. She is my cousin and is a few years younger than me. But she is here for only three months. She liked to come here. So at the moment she can help with cooking and cleaning. (Amina3: 235-241)

Other than the reports of missing particular Indonesian food described above in 'Homesickness', on the whole students reported no great problem with finding food and with cooking (Lena2: 19-21; Edi2: 143-144; Muji2: 373-375; Rani2: 137-140; Koko2: 72-76). In fact some students found that they enjoyed Australian food "I like the food in Australia—it is more nutritious and there are many kinds of food here" (Igun2: 67-68). With regard to the spicy food of home even when students could buy various spices and *sambals* at the Central Market they generally reported that "it did not taste as good as at home [my paraphrase]".

Financial Situation

Forty six percent of the students from the Civil Service received additional income in Indonesia from consultancies, projects, research grants or second jobs:

> I was teacher. Life is very hard in Indonesia if you just work in one place. So I have to look for another job in the afternoon or at night. I was teaching in the same area. We have two or three private universities in [my city]. (Basu2: 129-132)

When asked subjectively to rate whether their salary in Indonesia was a reasonable or average salary, a good salary or a poor one students clustered into 'Average' 39%:

> Average. I am level three and that is not too bad. When I get to four the salary is OK. Most of the graduate who enter University are 3A and then start to improve. 3C is where you can start to jump—you don't have to go 3D, 3E before four—4E is a Professor. But I also got money from my three research grants. (Ismanto2: 70-74)

Thirty-two percent suggested that their salary was "Below average. I only had the one job but usually there was the chance of additional activity—projects relating to teaching so that helped financially" (Beni2: 62-64). Those who said that their salary was poor, or below average, were all government workers or university lecturers:

I am government employee and they not pay like some other groups. I enter as government employee since 1981. For the first while I don't have salary just *uang makan* [money for food] Rp20,000 one month. After eight months I had qualification my salary improved little by little. My salary is Rp200,000 but I have special jobs as auditor in my office I have additional money for the function, extra Rp100,000 so altogether it is Rp300,000. When I come here my salary cut Rp100,000 because I don't have special salary. (Igun2: 148-157)

Most of the 29% who classified their salary was 'good' were those in private enterprise or single women. However, many students reported that they were financially better off on their scholarship stipend, particularly if it were one from the Australian Government, often because they were able to maintain their basic income from the Civil Service "if I compare with here although they call it small or low here, but for Indonesia it's not enough. It is better now" (Purwanto2: 65). Many students found that they were able to enjoy a higher standard of living in Adelaide than in Indonesia and also save for their return. This was confirmed by participants in the Returnee Study who commented that one of the things that made life 'easy' in Australia was that they did not have to worry about money:

In Australia everything was easy, the facilities, bureaucracy, the traffic. Supervisor very helpful, interested in even small things, very friendly and even interested in personal problems. The other thing in Australia is that we never have to worry about money. We know our stipend will be enough. In Indonesia I earn Rp800,000 as a Senior Lecturer but in Australia as a student I got Rp1.5m per month—almost double. (UNDANA: 51-57)

Students' standard of living and income while in Australia will be discussed in Chapter 8. However, in summary, most students found transport, accommodation and financial matters to be manageable and often easier than in Indonesia. Cooking, shopping and other household tasks provided difficulty for most, at least in Phase One, as they learned to manage their home without the assistance of *pembantu*. Ten students had family with them in Phase One and for those who did there were some, although not significant difficulties. In particular, children's ability to adapt posed very few concerns for their parents. Most students and their families were healthy—other than some stress related illnesses that students suggested were the result of culture shock. Unlike the experiences of some other national groups the financial situation for students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study during Phase One was not of concern.

Course Issues

With regard to their academic program students brought with them many expectations. For example students in the Pre-departure Study at the IALF (Bali) discussed a range of expectations they held prior to departure to Australia. Worries, hopes and expectations about their study included:

- I might not be able to participate in discussions.
- Given we have to enrol in a preliminary course what might happen if we fail, will we be sent home?
- I hope my supervisor will be an expert in the field and will also know something about Indonesia.
- The lecturer should support me more than native students because I need more support.
- I know that the technology will be advanced and I am keen to try that.
- I know I will adapt because I am going to Australia to study. (IALF_Bali: 36-47; 61-81)

As anticipated many of the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study had colleagues and friends who had studied overseas and they found these colleagues useful sources of information or support. One third of the students reported that 'several' through to 'many' of their colleagues and/or friends had studied overseas:

> Yes. I expected this. Because I know from my friends who had studied overseas. They told me that sometimes I would argue with my supervisor.
>
> *Had many of the other people you worked with studied overseas?*
>
> Yes, almost all of them who were doing the same sort of work as me. (Yanti2: 50-52; 97-100)

Seven of the students knew of 'some' colleagues who had studied overseas and for three only 'one or two' other staff had studied overseas, and in Fatimah's case, not always successfully "only one other, but in the faculty there were three or four. Some had been to America and another one had ben to Australia. But she was not successful" (Fatimah2: 221-223). Negative responses to the question of whether they had access to information from colleagues or others about studying in Australia prior to departure came from five students.

Course Appropriateness

Students had a range of expectations of the course they were undertaking. Some reported that they had expected their course to involve considerably more coursework. What they described was the United States model where students undertake courses prior to commencing research.

Sugik and Bunari, both Masters research students, suggested that with more coursework and little or no research in the first year they would have been helped to 'get on their feet:'

> *Is this how you expected it to be?*
>
> Not really. Some things yes. The main thing that I didn't expect was doing the research. Before I came here I had a picture of doing research something like in America. My teachers when I was doing my undergraduate most of them were form America and so I knew from them about the Masters research program and thought even I was doing research I would have to do coursework and have quite strict supervision until I was really able to do the research myself. When I came here the fact is that you have to do it all yourself. It's like you have a baby and you say 'Come on baby, just stand-up by yourself.' So that is the main difference. But that's OK I have some new experiences. (Bunari2: 100-111)

Others such as Lena, Arief, and Fatimah, all coursework students, found that the content of the course did not match their expectations:

> *When you were in Indonesia planning to come, is this how you expected it to be?*
>
> Maybe expect too much?
>
> *In what way?*
>
> I expect from my course to be practical but I come here and I notice that sometimes it is just theory. Maybe I expect too much. We don't know about the [course] before we came. (Lena2: 92-99)

Arief expressed concern with his course as all the examples which were given were unique to Australia and most students did not know what they meant. Lecturers were talking about BHP and other Australian companies and he thought they should be replaced with talking about international companies when using examples. Three other students were disappointed by the lack of options and choice in their course:

> I think especially for the subject I want [to] specialise in other subjects...but here we just join with the other subjects which are very, very general. So I can't take a specific subject that I want. (Fatimah2: 142-145)

A further area of expectation was related to presentation style and experience as Rina explained:

> [The seminar in Indonesia] would be formal, not only read the paper, read until finished and then after that everybody can you know give kind of ideas or argue, or argue against or argue for but after finishing the speech, but here I mean tend to be directly if they, I mean, they have to speak. (Rina2: 26-33)

In summary, the main course concerns for students in Phase One related to the lack of coursework which they had expected and for six students the course content and structure had not met their expectations.

Language Issues

English language ability was one of the factors which senior staff in Indonesia considered when encouraging or selecting staff to study overseas. In fact, in several of the places where interviews with returnees were conducted senior staff reported that they actively encouraged their staff to take English classes in the anticipation that it would make them more likely to be selected. One senior staff member even mentioned that he had written several letters to the potential supervisor of one his staff as her English was so poor that he was sure the supervisor would not accept her. However, he believed that she had the intellectual capability and diligence to succeed, so he continued to write these letters until her English was adequate enough for the her to communicate directly with her potential supervisor.

Students interviewed in the Pre-departure Study reported a number of hopes and expectations about their sojourn regarding language. For example:

- One student want to improve his knowledge of English and methods of teaching.
- Another commented that his wife was happy to be going and to support him and she is helping him to pass his IELTS.
- A third thought that language might be a problem, especially if she wanted to express an opinion. (IALF_Bali: 49-59)

Students' General Language Skills

In Indonesia there are approximately 3000 ethnic groups and "583 languages and dialects spoken across the whole archipelago" (Department of Information Republic of Indonesia, 1991, p. 22). *Bahasa Indonesia* is the national language, however, the majority of Indonesians have a language other than Indonesian as their 'first' language.

All students in the study spoke at least three languages. Each of the students spoke English and *Bahasa Indonesia* with 13 of them also speaking Javanese (with another three speaking 'some' Javanese because they had Javanese spouses). Six of the students spoke Sundanese (plus two who spoke 'some' Sundanese from their time as students in Bandung). Four spoke Minangkabau, four spoke Chinese, and two spoke Manadonese. In addition students spoke a

further 12 languages including Balinese, Betawi (from Jakarta) and Tetum (from Timor). Only one student reported *Bahasa Indonesia* as a first language. What these data indicate is that most of the students learned English through their second or even third language, that is *Bahasa Indonesia*, rather than their first. They also indicate that these students were accustomed to hearing and learning other languages.

With regard to English, students' scores on the International English Language Testing System (IELTS), at the time of university acceptance and averaged across Reading, Writing, Speaking and Listening, seemed to bear only some relation to the level of their degree as indicated by Table 31. Most students felt that a high IELTS score was more important for students enrolling in the humanities and social sciences than for the sciences.

Table 31.   IELTS and TOEFL Scores by Degree[19]

	7.5 av	7.0 av	6.5 av	6.0 av	5.5 av	TOEFL 570/580
PhD	1	1	7	2	1	0
Res Masters	1	0	3	4	0	0
Cwk Masters	0	1	3	5	2	2
Total	2 (6%)	2 (6%)	13 (39%)	11 (33%)	3 (9%)	2 (6%)

As discussed in the review of the literature, there is not a strong link between English language competency as scored on a test such as IELTS and success in academic study. However, two of the three students with a score of 5.5 reported that they had difficulty with language throughout their time in Australia. The third student suggested that his lack of facility with language provided more of a social than academic difficulty.

The majority of students with an Australian Government Scholarship undertake some English for Academic Purposes (EAP) courses at the Indonesia Australia Language Foundation (IALF) prior to leaving Indonesia. Of the 33 students, 18 of them completed some EAP study at the IALF. Their course of study ranged from nine to twelve months (*n*=5), five to six months (*n*=10) and two to three months (*n*=3). One student did her EAP through the Basic Sciences Bridging Program and two through the British Council in Jakarta. Seven students did their EAP in Australia, three with ten weeks at the Centre for Applied Linguistics at the University of South

19   An IELTS of ≥6.0 is generally required for entrance to University although there are variations, for example, at the University of Adelaide one course has been permitted to accept students with an IELTS of 5.5.

Australia (CALUSA), three with five weeks at CALUSA and one through a private college in the eastern states.

Five students did not have an EAP program prior to commencing their postgraduate study. These students had IELTS scores of 7.5 (two students), 6.0 (one student), TOEFL of 580 ($n=1$) and 5.5 ($n=1$). These students had learned English at High School and then had taken private classes to develop English language skills.

As suggested earlier, the EAP courses, at least at the IALF, aim to assist students with cultural aspects of their study in Australia as well as linguistic ones. Certainly students appeared to have listened to their teachers and were attempting to put into practice much of what they had been told. However, this also provided some students with a dilemma. Students had been exhorted by IALF staff and senior colleagues in Indonesia to mix with non-Indonesians as much as possible to improve their English, but the ease and intimacy of being able to share thoughts and concerns in one's own language was overpowering for many.

Most students reported a real desire to improve their English, yet some found it was often very difficult to move outside their circle of Indonesian friends and so be forced to speak English "I have some Indonesian friends, but [when] I meet them, I tend to speak *Bahasa Indonesia*. I try to maintain my English with my Indonesian friends but they speak *Bahasa Indonesia*" (Rina2: 213-216). Students such as Iem quite actively sought out Australian friends so that they could work on developing their English:

> I don't know but my friend said I have improve my English. But there is problem because most of students in my program...most of them are Indonesian. Sometimes they speak all Indonesian all the time. I think I said to you before that it's not good for me because I want something improvement at least in English. Because [if] I spent here for two years and when I come back [to Indonesia] and they said 'Oh you can speak English' and then if we have a meeting or international seminar or a thing like that I cannot do it [with] my English because all the time here I speak in Indonesian. So that's why I come—often I come on the weekends to [make] much better my English.

> But maybe the important [thing] for me is that to feel confident. Maybe what [I need to know is] about how to read effectively, how to speak fluently, I think I had the theory maybe I already know when I did a course in Jakarta but when [I am here] I have to feel confident, that's what I want to improve that. Little by little. Because sometimes I understand what people speak, but when they speak very fluently very hard to hear and then I feel that my English is not right. And then keep quiet, keep silent but I feel that this way is not good, so that's why I want to

know what happen. If I stay like this what there are different accents I want to know. As long as we try to practise with the good way that's the simple way you know I think people can [understand]. (Iem2: 78-93)

This need to improve English but maintain the support of Indonesian friends posed a real dilemma for many students, particularly those who did not have family with them. When talking about sharing accommodation with another Indonesian student Igun said:

> Maybe, I told you I want to stay with my friend, but I want to stay with my friend but I also I want to improve my knowledge and my English and so I try to be with others, there are many people from Hong Kong, Singapore.
>
> *So you have to speak English?*
>
> Yeah, If I stay with all the time with friends from Indonesia it [my English] cannot change. (Igun2: 21-26)

Not only did students notice a tendency for Indonesian students to socialise together but a common comment from returnees as well as current students was the grouping together of Javanese students where they spoke Javanese rather than *Bahasa Indonesia*. For the non-Javanese students, this was often seen as elitist and generally unacceptable, although common. As one Javanese student commented "even when I speak Indonesian my friends tell me that I do not speak so well. I prefer to speak Javanese. So I speak to my Javanese friends in Javanese because my friends asked me to" (Yanti2: 106-110).[20]

Approximately half the students had noticed a general improvement in their English over the six or so months since their arrival "Yes, it has improved. If I went for the IELTS now I would get 7.0" (Edi2: 148-149) although Beni was not sure "No. Well, I am not sure. Maybe I haven't realised it" (Beni2: 72-73).

The other half felt it had not improved at all, or even got worse "what do you think? I feel it has not too much improve. We never speak much in English difficult when you don't mix with other foreign students. We always speak *Bahasa Indonesia*" (Tini2: 163-166) or "it is getting worse! In Indonesia I felt that my English was very smooth and fast, but when I came here everyone speaks faster than me! Oh Dear!...My reading, especially, is better" (Basu2: 30-32).

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20 One returnee told me a joke which is common among many Javanese students and which she was told before leaving for Australia "when you are in Australia you can expect that your Javanese will be better than your English when you return" (17 15 8 14). This is because the Javanese students have a reputation among other Indonesian students for 'sticking together'.

Students were obviously finding it difficult to cope with their language not being as good as they might have thought when in Indonesia. Having passed the IELTS and obviously being considered to be quite good speakers of English to arrive and find that this expectation was not realised often dealt a real blow to their self-esteem. Nevertheless, many students considered that their English had improved since arrival in Australia, particularly listening, although most had experienced difficulty with understanding younger undergraduate students:

> People who work with me, lab technicians they are very young so they tend to speak fast and tend to use words that are a little bit hard, unusual for me....when he speaks he tends to mumble I have to concentrate hard, rather than getting used to people who just speak up clearer. Maybe the older ones of course are teachers. (Koko2: 132-138)

Listening

Despite their expectations students' self-confidence seemed to deteriorate when they first arrived in Australia. This inability to understand caused students double distress as not only could they not understand but before leaving Indonesia many reported that they thought their English was quite good. However, as one returnee reported, "in pre-departure classes everyone speaks clearly and systematically, but it is not like that in Australia. It's very hard" (17 15 8 11). The language teachers in Indonesia tended to use clear, structured conversations and classes were often taught by non-Australians. But when the students first arrived in Australia, their nervousness and the new accent and slang meant that their confidence with language often plummeted "sometimes I find it difficult to understand some of the young people. At St Ann's [a residential college] many of the them are undergraduates and they speak very quickly and use a lot of slang and so I don't understand them" (Yanto2: 39-43).

Lena had thought to move to Homestay so that she could practise her English as she felt that she had difficulty with speaking and listening, especially other Australian students. Amina and Dian commented that they thought their listening had improved "when I first came here I couldn't understand people when they spoke and we were confused and we had to keep asking people to repeat what they were saying" (Dian2: 119-120). However, students such as Sugik, Amina, Badri and Dewi reported that they thought their listening had improved as shown by Badri "It's OK. I feel that my English has improved, especially in listening. When I first came here I couldn't understand anything that people were saying but now I can. I still can't understand everything but it's OK" (Badri2: 43-47).

Despite students' often-expressed difficulty in coping with language many of them did very well in their exams and with thesis writing. As Mills (1997) in her study of students in New Zealand suggests, despite a sense of hopelessness and shame experienced by some they generally performed well.

Speaking

Most students within the first six months at least felt that their English language was not sufficient to adequately participate in class:

> Yeah, For [my] course you should have higher score for speaking because sometimes we don't have lectures, just class participation and if we can't speak we are just quiet, quiet, and really depressed.
>
> *So you think one of the big difficulties for you is being able to talk in tutorials or group discussions?*
>
> Yes.
>
> *Some of the students have said that one of the reasons for that is not that they don't know what to say and it's not that they are shy, but it takes them a moment or too longer to work out and answer and by the time they go to give the answer someone else has gone before them. Is that what you've found?*
>
> Yes, And sometimes we just speak a few sentences and we stop and the lecturer can't maybe doesn't have much patience and keeps talking.
>
> *Do you have that situation in a lot of the subjects which you are doing?*
>
> Yes. (Lena2: 36-57)

In addition, students argued that in subjects which required considerable writing skill, a higher language score would be beneficial. Yet when asked whether they thought the University should require a higher entrance score for language most commented that it was hard enough to get the score they had without making it any more difficult.

Students such as Arief (2: 134-139) Iwan (2:95-98) Koko (2:131-136); Jono (2:113-122) and (Enton) 2:136-138 had noted an improvement in speaking which was often linked with improved self-confidence as outlined earlier in this chapter and demonstrated below:

> Usually before I came here people used to say that my English was good but it is very American, and I would say 'No.' I watched movies on TV and a lot of them were American. When I first came here, after I came here, well it's changed I used to say 'can't' now I say 'carn't' and I feel like mixed up. Perhaps I will speak in Australian because trying to speak in this way can be very confusing. Before I came here I used to feel very confident about my English but when I came here first day the first week, and then you meet these people, probably the 'bushmen' how you call it and they say things very hard to understand. It's very difficult first

time but gradually I am getting used to it. I am trying to get used to it. Expressions like 'G'day' My friends and I used to make jokes about that. One friend of mine told me about a joke. We went to her place for this potluck party. And one of the students she told us about a joke about G'day. And it goes something like this: 'There is an Australian soldier going to war and during the war he met a colleague from America and the American said 'Did you come here to die?' And the Australian said 'No I came yesterdie.' (Bunari2: 161-177)

Antonius (2: 29-36) and Siti were particularly concerned about speaking in their presentations:

Have you noticed any changes to your English since you have been here?

No, I think it is still very bad. Last time I did a presentation it was very 'rubbish' because my English is terrible. My academic writing is also terrible. In my presentation I couldn't explain what I wanted to explain. The trouble is my IBP class is over and so I don't get the same help I used to get. (Siti2: 100-109)

Amina (2: 25-27), Lena (1:95-101), and Beni (2:45-40) all felt that their spoken English was posing problems for them in their academic as well as social communication.

Reading

As outlined earlier, students tended not to experience difficulty with reading as many of their academic texts in Indonesia were in English "I don't have any problems with reading because the business text books in my University are in English" (Enton2: 144-145).

It was often the amount and approach to reading that students found difficult:

When the first time [I was] worried about the academic stuff because I think I cannot handle before I finish the article I have another article I think I have to finish them all and I have to understand all...so I come to my supervisor...and she said that is not all material you have to read, you have to choose which one is significant, which one is not. So at the time I still can not distinguish which one is significant, which one is not. So I just do it every day. Reading, if I have time, reading, reading, reading, reading, make summary, and then it give me a lot of assignments...and all, everyday I mean, there is no space for relax. So OK I choose every day without delay what I want to do. I think everyone do the same thing as me so maybe I am very nervous I am new student.

When I have [the IBP lecturer] to help me with English and writing and with a presentation how to present[ation] in front of the class and...how to handle the material, the reading material, how to find it quick, significant subject or thing like this is very helpful. (Iem2: 23-39)

Writing

One of the most frequently made anecdotal comments by supervisors about Indonesian students was the considerable amount of time required to work with students on the writing of their

thesis. While most returnees reported some difficulty with English during their sojourn in Australia—with listening being particularly difficult in the first few months and expressing opinions and ideas in seminars being a difficulty for some—writing appeared to be the main on-going difficulty. As one returnee put it:

> Writing was a real problem, especially structure. My supervisor used to say 're-arrange it, what you have written is too general'. It was quite difficult to keep within a word limit. In Indonesia we can write as much as we like and we have to spend a long time providing all the background and leading the reader to the topic. But in Australia we have to see the core problem quickly. (17 15 8 11)

A few of the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study (Fatimah2: 41-47; Yanto2: 76-77 and Yanti2: 104-112) felt that by the second interview their writing was improving as Basu describes:

> I get help from someone [IBP lecturer] there are still some corrections. But [she] has a very nice program because she ask me…to write a proposal and then she helps to correct it…but I still make some errors and it is difficult but [it's] OK. It's a bit hard. Subject agreement with verbs, especially verbs, but [she] inspect my errors. It is very hard to do work without errors. (Basu2: 190-196)

Students were often quite surprised if I told them that when I handed in early drafts of my work it would come back with several corrections per page. They seemed to expect that local students could write without mistakes.

Returnees who were interviewed commented that it was not always the actual language that was posing difficulty for students but factors such as structure and critical thinking. As Daroesman and Daroesman (1992) report from their study:

> While almost all awardees had some difficulty with English, particularly listening to lectures and in writing, and while many supervisors blamed poor English for poor academic performance, it was in fact not easy to determine whether it was the level of English or whether [there were] other cultural factors which were causing the trouble. (pp. 46-47).

One returnee reported that he found it difficult being direct (like Australians) instead of being courteous (like Indonesians) in writing. Returnees commented on the difficulty they initially had in writing critically and analytically and commented with interest that they noticed that these skills were being developed in their children who were attending primary school in Australia.

In summary, speaking and listening were major concerns for many students during Phase One. Speaking in groups, as well as socially, caused real frustration for a number of students,

particularly when they felt that they had something to contribute but were unable, for a number of reasons, to state their case. Listening, while an early problem, for example coping with slang and speed of speech, was generally reported as an area of significant improvement by the end of Phase One. Reading critically and writing concisely and critically were two areas of language which continued to be issues of concern for students into Phase Two (and in the case of writing, Phase Three). These matters are addressed further in chapters 8 and 9.

Academic Issues

Topic Choice

Participants in the Returnee Study reported that it was important to have easy access to detailed information about courses available prior to coming to Australia[21]. For example, one returnee was interested in Marine Biology, particularly fishing. He found that there were three universities which offered research in this area, Tasmania in southern Australia, and James Cook and Northern Territory University in far-north Australia. The research at James Cook was related to tropical fish, obviously the sort of fish in which a student from an equatorial area would be interested. The research at Tasmania, on the other hand, was related to cold water fish. Had the student not had access to detailed information and advice the possibility of an Indonesian student researching sub-Antarctic fish could have been a real possibility. Several of the returnees and senior staff commented on the need for relevant, detailed and current information about courses and research groups in Australian universities.

Returnees were adamant about the importance of having a relevant topic. Although they could appreciate the supervisor's need to have someone 'fit into' a research team, they were also aware of the limitations of a topic which had no relevance to Indonesia. As one returnee reported:

> One of my problems was that the topic for my research, blowflies, was something that is not at all relevant to Lombok, but because it was my supervisor's area I had to research that. But he told me that I had to 'catch the philosophy of research rather than content'. (17 15 8 11)

While from a pedagogical perspective the 'catching of the philosophy' might well be argued, there are three difficulties with this practice from the Indonesian student's point of view. The

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21 This issue was strongly supported by Daroesman and Daroesman (1992) and Department of Education Employment, Training and Youth Affairs (1998). The Daroesmans' study also found that about 20% of respondents had changed their program after arriving in Australia, mostly downgrading to a lower award. Only four respondents reported a change as a result of change of supervisor.

first is the need to undertake preliminary research into an unknown topic. In some cases this preliminary research can be quite considerable. The *second* is the student's ability to sustain interest in a topic which is not going to be applied on return. However, it is the *third* which is the most significant. If a student has worked on a topic of his/her supervisor which has no relevance to the home environment there is little or no opportunity for ongoing, collaborative research on return to Indonesia. So not only does the student lose intellectual contact but the supervisor loses a potential collaborator. The University's Split Program where students spend the first and last six months of candidature in Adelaide and the remainder in their home country where they undertake 'local' research is attempting to address this issue.

In many cases students are 'sent' to Australia by their institution with a specific topic or area of research to be followed. In far fewer cases students have selected their own topics or areas of research. Given this, it is not surprising that students find it difficult when they arrive in Australia to discover that their nominated supervisor does not research in the anticipated area. Iwan had expected to be developing a particular scientific technique in rice or maize. However, he was told on arrival that these grains were not researched in the laboratory and that he would have to change to barley or wheat:

> Not just what I will do, barley and wheat I never seen before. So to work in barley and wheat seems like [a] surprise, you know, this barley how you want to look at it! [what does it look like?]
>
> *So did your supervisor suggest that topic?*
>
> In this I was to limit my research to just one, wheat or barley, just one but with different types [of grain], but my supervisor suggest me to use both. So I think, this is a challenge! But I like also how to because the more I do the more information I can get and just apply, what aspect [of grains] apply this for corn or maize. (Iwan2: 34-43)

Six other students had to change their topic because supervision was not available in their areas of choice. Others, such as Jono (2: 71-74), Yanti (2: 4-8), and Badri (2: 34-37) were able to work with their supervisor to determine a mutually acceptable topic. Purwanto (2: 7-8) was given his topic by his supervisor.

While in most cases these students were eventually quite happy with their new research areas they experienced considerable difficulty and stress developing the requisite background knowledge in their new areas. However, not all students were so lucky. As Chapter 11 will

describe toward the end of candidature one student was still very unhappy with the lack of expertise available to him in his chosen area—information known to his supervisor prior to being accepted. His supervisor commented:

> I wouldn't have actually, personally picked that topic, because I thought that it was one aspect of a range of interactions [ ] and I just don't view it as being the most important from a practical sense, but from an academic sense, for a PhD it is very good. And so, because of my background I have this very practical bent. I guess that is my only reservation and there has been some recent research in NSW which indicates that it may be very important. (Supervisor23: 55-62)

This student experienced constant difficulty throughout candidature and eventually needed to seek outside assistance with the topic.

Approximately half of the supervisors interviewed reported that they had given their students a topic, with by no means all of them in the sciences, "When students come to work on my projects, I give them a topic. A lot of others come with their own ideas and you have to convince them that those ideas aren't appropriate" (Supervisor57: 67-69). In about 20% of cases students came with very clear topics which they wanted to research, whereas for the remainder, supervisors commented that they either helped the student to refine the topic considerably or it was jointly negotiated between the two of them.

Of the 20 research students, eleven (55%) were researching in areas which were not their first choice and/or background. Six (30%) had to change research area because supervision was not available in the areas they wanted (one student had to find a principal supervisor at another university to get the supervision he needed). Five students chose to research in areas which were not the same as their previous study because they were fulfilling a certain research need for their institution in Indonesia or there were greater career prospects in the alternative area. For these eleven students the first six months were particularly difficult as they had to either sit for qualifying exams or audit additional subjects as well as gain an understanding of a new body of literature and often develop new technical and analytical skills.

Working in Groups

Loss of self-esteem can pose real difficulty for students who need to work in groups, present seminars, or participate in tutorials. Their inability to join in the melee of discussion and

argument provided several frustrations for students who were used to waiting to be invited to speak. The first is that they have ideas they want to express, but do not get an opportunity to do so. The second, aligned with the first, is their concern that the lecturer will think they have either not done the required reading or have no knowledge of the topic and so might mark them down. Six of the students expressed this concern and Rina and Watie provided very graphic descriptions of their difficulties:

> I can cope with the class every week, sometimes I prepare material for seminar...we have to prepare every week [but]...I don't get input so many, I just little bit. Oh yeah, I think maybe Australian students tend to be directly in expressing ideas....I know that I have ideas, but how to express my ideas. Sometimes I have to speak...but when I speak the topic has already changed you know. I think slowly. I think slowly because I have to translate to English and when I want to speak, when I want to speak this idea, this idea must be like this, like this. But in the class in the time—Gone! Augh, it's terrible! [By the time I work out the idea in English the topic has change and the opportunity gone.] Yeah, I get involved a little bit, one or two ideas...but with me [it takes so] long!...Still hard. (Rina2: 1-23, 36-47)

Watie reiterated Rina's frustration. However, she had a slightly different view of working in groups. She was concerned that just because the Australian students spoke a lot it did not necessarily mean that they were right and the whole group (including Watie) might be 'marked-down' for incorrect work:

> But, to be honest, for me it is really difficult to be working in group, because sometimes I don't understand what they want. And they are talking too much I can't keep up and sometimes I feel that is why it is so hard to making something [in group] because I can't explain my feelings because it is in another language, but I can express my feelings through writing. But sometimes people not so patient to wait for me how to express my feelings....They say 'OK I understand what you mean.'

> *And they don't really?*

> They don't really understand what I mean. So for me sometime the lecturer ask me to say [speak] and I think 'Oh my God. I don't like this.' In fact that they don't understand what I mean.

> If I do by myself, that's my feeling [opinion], I can do better [than in a group]. But we can't blame everyone, but that's my feeling, because maybe it is also my fault, I can't express my opinion well in the correct way. But through writing I think I can. [Each person works on a topic] and then after that we express our feelings....Everybody had got opinion and after we collect all the opinion, I think in my theory [opinion] you should not be talking about this. because it is out of the context, because it is too general or because it is special. [I suggest, to the group, that based on my knowledge we shouldn't be talking about this or that] but they say 'No, I don't think so.' They always give their opinion. So in this case is

difficult how to gather all the opinions in one project....I [do] not expect to have a good mark.

That's my feeling now, not all Australian people is better than me. First I just feeling about them they better than me and they should get higher [marks] than me and everything is better for them because they had already got some experience and it is in their language so they can express everything well, in discussion everything is well, but not for me....But when they express their feeling [opinion] I am not so comfortable with their feelings I think 'Why are having that feeling [opinion] because that is not what the lecturer wants, you are in the wrong place.' That's my feeling I know. And after that I give them my opinion how to organise. But for me I am not so satisfied it is so hard for me to join in group. I don't know...That is why sometimes I think about the main project should not be in group. They should give us one by one. (Watie2: 107-117; 133-148)

In addition to working in groups, most students found it very stressful presenting tutorials/seminars:

What is the most difficult thing?

If I have to give tutorial because I have to make an outline and also explain [the topics]. I have to explain it to my, to my lecturer or [others]. Although the weather is very cold but I sweat—too hot when I present I get [nervous] in front of my friends. (Igun2: 97-102)

So while some students expected on arrival to be less capable than local students, most of them discovered after six months that they were at least as capable as some of the local students. With this realisation their self-confidence increased considerably. However, a few students, such as Tini, had expected to perform well academically based on their experiences in Indonesia yet, even allowing for English difficulties, they were often disappointed and frustrated when their initial expectations were not realised.

Analysis and Critical Thinking

Virtually all the students in the study commented on various occasions that one of the issues which they had difficulty coming to terms with was to approach their reading and writing more critically. There are two aspects to this: feeling in a position to actually criticise another person, organisation or program, and the critical approach to researching and writing which has become such an integral part of Western academic life. This view was supported by Hasanah's (1997) study where she found that when asked to compare the Indonesian and Australian Higher Education systems "most of the students, basing their replies on their personal experiences, pointed out that 'critical thinking' is the distinguishing factor which has been developed in different ways" (p. 45).

Not only did the students suggest difficulty with expressing views which are 'critical' of someone else, but the whole style of writing in Indonesia encourages a more circumspect and less analytical style. As Antonius reported in a later interview:

> My supervisor said, with the introduction 'Just start'...[but in Indonesia] we should talk about our role first, our role and from the government role, this and this and this...but here it is straight! I am still [using] Indonesian style for writing. In Indonesia we are *kabutan* [hazy] or *keliling-keliling* [around, circuitous]. (Antonius5: 35-39)

Not only did students experience difficulty with writing critically and analytically but also concisely:

> I think I misunderstood what the lecturer wanted [coursework student]. She wanted only 20 pages and I gave her 50 pages and she was quite unhappy with me. 'You expect me to read all this?' 'Yeah.' 'Wrong!' I think it [a P1 instead of a better result] was part of the punishment because I wrote too much!
>
> *Often people argue that it is more difficult to write more concisely.*
>
> Yes, many of her comments were that 'You could summarise this, you could summarise that.' So I need to be able to summarise. (Enton2: 72-81)

The more general approach to reading can also pose real difficulties for students who feel they have to 'read everything.' While many did not experience severe difficulties in actually reading in English—many texts in disciplines such as Medicine, Mathematics, Commerce and Engineering are only available in English in Indonesian universities—it was more the manner of reading critically and for a specific purpose that posed problems for some. For example Iem's comment earlier where she felt she had to read 'everything' until the IBP lecturer helped her "how to hand[le] the material, the reading material, how to find it quick, significant subject or thing like this is very helpful" (Iem2: 36-38).

While students argued that during the first six months language was the most significant difficulty they encountered after culture shock and homesickness, it will be demonstrated with the later data that language continued as a problem, albeit somewhat reduced, whereas culture shock and homesickness almost ceased to be problems at all after nine to twelve months.

Exams and Feedback on Progress

The 13 coursework students had to pass exams within the first six months of their sojourn in Australia and several of the research students had to pass qualifying exams. The exams posed

considerable difficulty for most of the students, for two reasons: one they did not know what to expect (of the exam and of themselves in terms of their ability to 'compete' with the local students) and secondly they were concerned that if they did not do well they would be sent home without really having an opportunity to settle.

Tini's story below is a poignant example of how one student experienced her first exam:

> Professor...she is very [nice]. Yesterday I didn't [feel at all confident] but she said to me 'Oh don't be like this, keep smiling because all of us will help'...In my mind all Australian students can do very well because they know all about culture and so in examination they can do very well and a good mark and in contrast I [can only get low mark].
>
> *So this exam is really bothering you, isn't it?*
>
> Yes and sometimes I can't do another job, another work, because I worry about it. After examination...I worry and then I can't eat. Before examination because I got stressed...I had to eat rice I only drink milk. I feel sick and can't eat....Yesterday after examination I went to the shop but still it [the food I bought] is my refrigerator....Actually I study in the [IBP] with learning...I haven't write any drafts of, [of the work] and then examination. [In the past I did not prepare drafts and notes of the work before exams.] Maybe it is the wrong strategy for getting [good marks]. (Tini2: 43-49; 100-116)

Fatimah was another student who was very worried about her exam results, particularly as she did not know whether she might be sent home if she failed:

> *How have you been?*
>
> Not too bad, not so good. Especially for my exam. I am very worried....I don't feel confident about what I did. I am very worried about the result.
>
> *When will you get the results?*
>
> Maybe next week or two weeks.
>
> *So, I think maybe you will feel better when you get the results?*
>
> If they are OK!! Actually, I know the information. I know what I should write, but because I was very nervous at the time so I didn't organise my answer, even though I knew the important information which I should have included but I forgot to include it. I just realised when it was over. Oh!!...My study, it is a worry....Maybe you know. If I fail my subject will the faculty send me back to Indonesia? That's the one thing I am very worried about. (Fatimah2: 5-22; 200-235)

Most students performed above their expectations in their exams, and in a number of cases surpassed many of the local students. The change in self-esteem and confidence once the results of the first exam were known was extraordinary. Fatimah, who had asked whether she might be sent back to Indonesia if she failed, topped the whole class with her results. She had reported

earlier that most of the other students in her class (mainly local undergraduates) generally chose not to sit with, or work with, her. However, once the results of her exam were know, most were keen to 'pick her brains' and be her partner in experimental work during second semester. The irony of this did not escape her.

It is not until the results of the first exam or their first assignment or seminar presentation are known that many students have some sense of their ability *vis a vis* the other students:

> When I came here I think I'm not very confident because about my English but [and] I think...it's very different, but after I get here I did my assignment and that went well I think 'It's not so bad' and after I do my exam and it was OK.
>
> *So you're feeling more confident?*
>
> Yeah. I can't understand the lectures—in the middle of the lecture I still can't get it, sometimes I still can't get it....It's very difficult because I can't understand...and then I think when somebody says something I can't understand and then I try hard to find in the books and then after that first assignment when I did that well I see that all the other students I think when they ask me about it, same with me [when the other students asked me for ideas I realised that they were not better than me] and that I can do better and then that's no problem after that. (Amina2: 20-23; 59-66)

Yanto (2: 28-34) did particularly well in his exams and assignments with 90% for one subject, whereas Purwanto (1: 2-5) did not do well, but passed sufficiently to start his research. As Junaidi was quoted as saying earlier, he did not realise he had to sit for an exam which he thought he was just auditing "I wasn't prepared for that so I was very surprised. So as well as attending the class have to complete my proposal as well" (Junaidi2: 78-81).

Workload

Students interviewed at the Pre-departure Study anticipated that they would have to adapt to a different style of teaching and learning and that they would need to be more independent as students in Australia. Comments made by the pre-departure students included:

- Will I finish on time?
- With a new study environment I will need critical thinking and analytical skills.
- I think I will need to be more independent and responsible.
- I hope I'll survive in study and family matters.
- I expect that there will be many assignments.
- I will need to adapt to different teaching/learning methods in Australia. (IALF_Bali: 36-47; 61-81)

Staff at the Foundation confirmed that these were some of the many points discussed by students during their pre-departure course.

Most students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study expected to have a heavy workload. However, for many of them the longer working hours and expectations of supervisors and other students were quite different from what they had experienced in Indonesia. As Purwanto said:

> In [Indonesia], what we call Sunday [holiday] it's easy, but every day [here in Australia] we must work but I think it's only because transition from the *jam karet*. Just one week, you know, in Indonesia for example we work maybe for one year. [What we would do in one year in Indonesia we would do in one week in Australia.] Yeah, I think it's very hard. (Purwanto2: 45-49).

It was not uncommon for the students to experience significant time pressures and feel that they were not working fast enough, particularly as they felt that their developing English put them at a disadvantage compared with local students and also the visa and scholarship constraints which they felt keenly. As Fatimah commented:

> I think the fact that I am nervous is the main problem. Even though I have limited language but at least I try. But because I was under pressure I 'blew it'....I couldn't work as fast as the other students and I had many assignments and I couldn't keep up. (Fatimah2: 34-36; 106-107)

By the second interview several of the students were feeling more settled:

> I've been good and my work is going well. First when I started I was very worried about whether I could do the work, but the IBP has been very helpful. We are approaching the end of the course and I have my research proposal almost finished. I feel really comfortable because I am getting to like Adelaide more, the people and the city. (Dewi2: 3-12)

Several students reported being very tired and certainly several others looked very tired during the interviews:

> There is a visiting professor in my department. She is from [overseas] and she used to be my supervisor's professor. He has asked her to help me. She is a very experienced person.
>
> I am trying to work hard so that I can get the most benefit from her. I found it helpful having her here, but I am very busy. I am writing a paper with her for publication. She is very nice and very helpful. She is here for two months that is why we are working so hard and such long hours. It is very, very tiring. It seems that I never finish my day's work and then the next day there is always new work. My supervisor said that I am going well, but I am not so sure. Also, I have a lot of papers on that topic and they are in English but I have also had to read two

big papers in French. I don't speak any French and so I just translate word by word so it takes me a very long time.

By the time she leaves we have to finish the draft of the paper. All I will be able to do is sleep. When I am really tired my brain just won't work. I don't have a lot of time to enjoy Adelaide. Even on the weekend I work until 11.00 at night. Also, because this work is a bit different from my background so I have to do a lot of extra work. I have new techniques to learn. But luckily my health is OK. (Dian2: 6-33)

Not surprisingly, this level of work was affecting students' ability to think clearly. When I asked Siti at the end of an interview if she had any questions for me, she answered "no, I am too tired to think" (Siti2: 112). Students such as Fatimah (2: 25-30), Kintan (2: 34-48) and Igun (2: 4-42) commented that they felt under pressure to get through all the work they had. As Jono says:

The problem is with the pace of the study which is sometimes very fast and we have much homework which has to be done in a limited time. Personally I like to finish my homework before the due date but I find it very stressful. (Jono2: 55-59)

Almost two thirds of the students reported working very long hours and feeling quite stressed and tired. Much of the stress came from knowing that they were on limited time with scholarships and visas, for example, Ismanto's comment about his scholarship:

Actually three and a half years but that worries me. Even the local students take four years. And it's good for the AIDAB students, they can ask for extension. [But with my scholarship funded by a project from my university] three and a half years [and when the project finishes then that is it]. (Ismanto2: 19-24)

Although a very small number of students reported working quite long hours in Indonesia, for many a regular working day would consist of three or four hours in their main paid employment, for example lecturing at university, and then a few hours in private work, perhaps tutoring privately or consulting elsewhere. As outlined in Appendix A these working hours were often not of the student's making but due to transport conditions, peer pressure, lack of facilities, work ethic and payment. Where students had been able to talk with colleagues prior to arrival in Australia they had some sense of the work practices in Australian universities:

It was a common thing for people from my university to study abroad and so I was able to learn about the dynamic working habit of people overseas and that has helped me. Indonesians don't have a dynamic work habit, they mostly go to the office as a formality so that people can just see them there. Whereas I am in full-time work and I put in a full day's work there. Also it depends on the situation where you work. The environment in which I work is conducive to hard work.

> Although sometimes I wish each day had more than 24 hours. (Buharto2: 134-142)

However, even without prior advice, virtually all students arrived expecting to work hard. Most students, while expecting a change in workload from Indonesia, found the level and amount of work expected of them enormous. It was not unusual to find students working 12 to 14 hours per day six or seven days per week during the first six months of candidature. A heavy workload, although not quite this high, was often expected by supervisors (of their local and overseas students) with several, particularly in the sciences, commenting during the supervisor interviews that 50 to 60 hours per week was what they thought reasonable for their PhD students.

Being Successful and Hard Work

Most students were deeply concerned about completing their award in the time available to them on their scholarship. Stories abounded within the student group about other students having to return without an award, or with a Masters instead of PhD. Most students interviewed knew, or knew of, one or more such students:

> One of my colleagues just went home, he didn't finish his PhD.
>
> *Do you know why?*
>
> The reason for it, so many reason for it, one of them is he just started [on his new experiment] last year, the other one [his experiment] it fail, so he has changed and just started [with the new experiment] last year so and transferred from Masters to PhD, that happened a few years ago, so his time is not good. But still it's quite dramatic. He did the research but the results are not good because the writing is a big problem but he said he will continue [to write up at home]. (Sugik5: 51-60)

The thought of such a 'disaster' befalling them weighed very heavily on the minds of virtually all students and started even before they left Indonesia. Students interviewed in the Pre-departure Study were particularly concerned that they might not complete their award in time (7 1 1 4). Given the great concern students had about going home without their degree it is not surprising that the majority of them worked long hours. The pressure to complete within the time given (yet to cope with the pressures of a new culture) new approaches to learning and writing and in a new language, often being without their family and other support networks, and little or no clarification of expectation as well as lack of knowledge about their level of ability compared with other students, was enormous. Comments about completing within the given time were

raised by most research students in most interviews. For example, Ismanto who was on an Indonesian institutional scholarship (not Australian government), mentioned his time constraints in every interview. As described earlier Ismanto was aware that his scholarship was only for three and a half years with no expectation of an extension and yet he knew that most local students took more than four years to complete. (Completion rates for local and international (Indonesian) students are provided in Appendix B.).

There tended to be two different views of working hard. One was that if a student put in the hours then surely she/he would be successful. The other was the realisation that sometimes no matter how hard one works, success is not always guaranteed:

> Because all of my time and most of my time I just spend on my experiments. Every day I am going home at least at 11.00 or 12.00, 1.00 [am.] every day really and I don't have time to just go to the library....I haven't done the main experiment this is why I worry about the time. Maybe it is the difficulty of my topic! It is unpredictable. For the course[work], it can guarantee at least OK [if I work the hours] but for research, God! Really! At the time I was doing coursework I thought that research was so easy, no assignments, no due dates, they just think about their research they can do it anytime they want...Oh it was wrong! (Fatimah5: 79-87)

The negative effects of not completing before returning home are significant in terms of loss of face and self-esteem, loss of career and salary options and, as far as the sponsor is concerned, loss of a considerable investment. While one might argue that the experience itself of living and studying in a foreign country might be worth the investment without the successful completion of the award, the students and returnees interviewed for this study, as well as the returnees in the Daroesmans' study (1992), would suggest that this is a fanciful, Western, middle-class notion of education and development.

During the interviews the students suggested that there were four main factors at play with regard to workload. The *first* was that they took longer than local students to do anything related to language, particularly reading and writing. The *second* was that they found much of the equipment or ways of working quite new and so had to learn new procedures and techniques. This included using electronic library searches, computers for data processing and sophisticated scientific equipment. The *third* factor was that many students were finding it very difficult to focus when they were so homesick and spending such a lot of time thinking about their families in Indonesia. The *fourth* factor was learning to read and write in a different, more critical and

direct manner. Students often had to re-read or re-write work a number of times to be more like the model suggested to them. Although help with writing was available, for many the effort of getting the work done in time was such that it left little or no time to seek advice.

Students can be categorised into three groups with regard to the way they handled the workload required of them. The *first* group of students approached their sojourn in Australia as an integral part of their life. These students recognised that they had great opportunities for travel, learning about another culture and making friends as well as studying. Although their first six months were quite difficult, as it was for most of the other students, these were the ones who made sure that in the mid-year break they went on a trip to see more of South Australia or Australia, for example those organised by the Overseas Students Association, or some other activity outside study. Thirty four percent of students tended to belong to this group.

The *second* group accepted that they were here for a relatively short time and that this was their one opportunity to establish themselves and their families both financially and in terms of position back in Indonesia. For Indonesian students this might well be the hardest they would have to work as once they return with a qualification their careers and financial stability are assured. At least in the first six months these students did little other than work. Although the percentage of students in this category changed slightly during candidature, during the first six months 36% of students could be categorised as belonging to this group of students who considered that their purpose for being in Australia was to gain an academic qualification by working virtually day and night.

The *third* group of students, particularly those with children, tried to find some time to spend with family, as well as work quite long hours. One student reported that her spouse, as an accompanying partner, confronted her one night that she always came home after their daughter was in bed and was not spending time with the family. As a result she changed her routine. On the weekend she would cook a large amount of food and freeze it in meal size containers. She then taught her husband to cook rice in the microwave so that he could begin preparing the evening meal. (She commented that her husband reported that he had experienced culture shock with learning to cook.) She would aim to be home by 6.00 pm each night so that she could have dinner with her daughter and husband and then study once her daughter had gone to bed. Thirty

percent of students could be classified in this category of trying to balance their long working hours with family commitments.

Use of Technology

Some returnees reported that one of the difficulties they had on arrival in Australia was the use of computers for writing and research and for library use. While some students had used computers before departure to Australia, they had generally not used them for sophisticated analysis of data or for accessing materials through the library or Internet. Students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study had varied experiences depending on the faculty in which they were enrolled. Those in the sciences were quickly on email whereas those in the social sciences and humanities took anything up to eighteen months to be given an email account. Even then they often had little support in how to utilise the service. For example, Rina came to me to ask for help as her supervisor had given her an email address about 18 months after having started, but Rina did not know how to use it and where to access the help. There was a noticeable improvement in the provision of general computing support between the first cohort in February 1995 and the fourth in July 1996.

Academic Support

The main sources of academic support for students, other than their supervisors, were the Integrated Bridging Program (IBP), other students, and the Structured Program.

Students reported receiving considerable advice and support from the Integrated Bridging Program in general, and individual IBP lecturers in particular, on study-related difficulties and also in the development of their self-esteem and confidence. Other students in the IBP group often provided an in-built support network for students which continued after the thirteen week program. In addition, having already developed a relationship with the IBP lecturer, students felt more comfortable and confident about approaching him/her with difficulties related to learning and/or understanding the culture within which they found themselves.

Seventeen of the students specifically reported that the Integrated Bridging Program was very helpful for them in their study, often more helpful than their supervisor:

> In terms of help you know getting help in research proposal, the most helpful resource is from the IBP course. Just before I came here I started to use the

Internet so I didn't really have very much help from my supervisors or colleagues with this sort of thing so I do things like this very much by myself. Although sometimes my supervisors suggest how, what sort of articles I have to search for. And sometimes they would give me an article or articles. I have a colleague and if she finds something interesting for my work she tells me and if I find something of use for her work I will tell her. But in terms of writing, it's the IBP. (Bunari2: 89-98)

As outlined in Chapter 2 the Structured Program and IBP had been introduced to the University within a year of each other and only just before the Adelaide Longitudinal Study commenced. Therefore it was not unusual for staff and students to confuse the two programs. Staff often considered that because students were involved with the IBP that they did not have to provide them with a Structured Program from within the department/faculty. The great majority of students, too, when asked if they had done the Structured Program answered 'yes.' However on further questioning what they were affirming was that they had completed the Directed Studies component of the Structured Program only, in this case the IBP and one or two undergraduate subjects which some were required to audit. Some of the students' concerns about the development of research skills through courses might have been alleviated by participating in a well developed department/ faculty Structured Program as well as the IBP.

Students such as Rani, Tini, Lena, Ismanto, Beni, and Yanti often reported going to other students for help on matters such as computer use and technical issues. "There is another Indonesian student in [my department]—a third year—and he has good experience and he has already studied in the US and he has been able to help me" (Sugik2: 64-68) and "the outside supervisor and my supervisor provide most help. I also have a friend who is a post doc and he helps me a lot. He is German" (Dian2: 70-71).

It has been suggested earlier that some students would only approach other Indonesian students at least at the same level more senior than themselves in the civil service. However, approaching younger Australian or other international students in the department did not carry the same constraints. Students using fellow-students for advice and help will be expanded upon in Chapter 8.

Supervision Issues

As discussed earlier there was general agreement among the returnees who were interviewed in Indonesia that it was helpful to have a supervisor who knows something about Indonesia, or at the very least, an understanding of Asian students, even if she/he had not actually worked in Indonesia. As one returnee said "I think some supervisors need help to understand Indonesian culture—those who had supervised Indonesian students before seemed to be better supervisors" (17 15 8 12).

Again there was general agreement on the benefit of regular, scheduled meetings. Most returnees who had experienced regular meetings and, in some cases, regular research group meetings, found them to be very beneficial. Returnees who had not suggested that they would have been helpful. Many returnees describes a 'good' supervisor as:

- one who can understand what I need back here and the constraints of my scholarship and visa;
- one who can feel what I am feeling;
- one who develops my confidence and self-esteem and who trusts in me. (17 15 8 12)

As one returnee said:

> First I would ask my supervisor 'Can I do this thesis? Then, when will I finish?' I was very depressed but he helped and gave advice. Finally I did it and I felt very rewarded and I felt it was a 'piece of cake'. (17 15 8 12)

Linked with self-esteem and confidence was a sense of responsibility. One returnee reported how shocked he was soon after arrival to be given a master-key to the whole laboratory. He felt an enormous sense of responsibility, but also felt trusted by his supervisor. This trust was further extended when the supervisor explained that the student was the first of his to be working on a joint university/government department project and that the supervisor wanted it to 'go well'. The student was aware of the importance of the situation and felt very trusted by the supervisor to be in such a position.

Expectations of Supervision

One of the main concerns held by students in the Pre-departure Study was whether they would have a good supervisor, that is, one who is an expert in the research area and who helps with the professional aspects of getting settled. Some of these students did not feel that the supervisor

should necessarily help with personal things such as accommodation but that she/he would help with comments on both the content of written work as well as grammar (IALF_Bali: 4-10).

As might be expected there was a range of student expectations about supervision such as the style of relationship students might have with their supervisor, the sort of help their supervisor might provide for them, and whether they were capable of attaining the standard the supervisor might expect. Amina initially found her supervisor's manner and helpfulness difficult to accept:

> I think my supervisor is very difficult [to understand]. In Indonesia it is very formal. When I first come here my supervisor take me places and showed me everything. I felt bad because I felt I make him trouble. But my friends told me in here the supervisors always like that. (Amina2: 140-145)

Whereas Dewi enjoyed her supervisor's relaxed manner "my supervisor is very nice. He is very casual. It is much more formal in Indonesia but I have adjusted. I don't think I am as formal as the Javanese because I am [non-Javanese]" (Dewi2: 30-33). And Buharto was pleasantly surprised with the level of support his supervisor provided for him. "I had no idea that people would be so helpful and to my surprise people have been very good. My supervisor is beyond my expectations" (Buharto2: 107-108).

As described in Chapter 3, supervisor and student expectations and their congruence or otherwise are key factors in a successful postgraduate experience. In the first few months students were busy coming to terms with what the their experiences with supervision as outlined below. Some students such as Bunari, Tini and Watie reported that at times they were scared of approaching their supervisor because he (in these cases they were all male) might think they were not capable of undertaking the work. The following report from Watie indicates how deep this level of concern can go. In the first interview Watie commented that she was finding one of the main areas where she had to make adjustments was with the academic expectation where the supervisor did not give the same direction as in Indonesia. For example she mentioned that she had realised that she had to find out the information fast, otherwise by the time she had worked out the book to read, it had gone from the library (Watie1: 103-108). During the second interview when I asked if it was all right with her that I interviewed her supervisor she seemed a little concerned and she asked me whether I would talk to her after I had met her supervisor to let her know what his expectations of her were (Watie2: 7-10). The transcript below continues

where she has just commented that she was worried about asking questions in lectures because they might be seen as being 'stupid:'

> Sometimes I find [the supervisor who is also the lecturer] very difficult to approach. Maybe sometime it's me, but I don't want him to know. But I don't want to speak with him, even though he is my supervisor. I am nervous.
>
> *Has something in particular made you feel like this?*
>
> There was one time. But maybe it is only my opinion and I am being so sensitive (uum, uum…). It happened when I had an appointment [away from campus] and I didn't tell anyone where I was and I didn't tell [him]. This is usual. But afterwards [he] said 'Hey, what were you doing? What were you doing in the morning?' I told him I had a meeting and I hadn't time to tell him. Anyway, I don't think it is necessary for [him] to know what I am doing all the time. I think I am responsible. I am responsible for studying. So if I don't go to his lecture I am responsible. I didn't tell [him] because I didn't know I had to tell him. I said I would show him my medical certificate. And I felt he was unhappy towards me. But two of the other lecturers seem to like me. After that he said 'Watie, remember, if you don't study, I can't help you.' And that is why I feel worried because how far will this relationship affect my work. And my friend said, 'Don't let him disqualify you.' So I have to be careful.
>
> I had not realised before, I always thought that I was always responsible. But he seems to pay attention to me, but not the others. He seems to pick on me. All the others are local students. Maybe he is doing something special to take care of the overseas students. I didn't realise I was just doing like the others. I am worried. I don't want to talk with him. Maybe he is thinking that there is something wrong with me. So maybe it is best to just keep my distance and it is not important for him to know everything about me. And also I have girl-friend who also feels something like this with [him], so it is not only me. Which make me feel much better, because it isn't just me. When [he] said 'Watie, remember, I can't help it if you can't do the work' why did he say that, because he is there to help me?
>
> *But you were feeling quite confident about your work?*
>
> Yes. The problem with my friend was that [he, the lecturer] did not let him pass the Qualifying. And that is why I am worried that the same problem will also happen to me. I just want to know how is his expectations of me in the program. I want to know his expectations of me precisely! (Watie2: 299-339)

While some students reported that they were scared of approaching their supervisors, others were somewhat taken aback when I suggested that they might approach them:

> *You could talk to your supervisor about these expectations.*
>
> Could I? Would that be OK? I am in the Indonesian way where it is not right to do that. I am very nervous that it will make him angry or something like that. (Fatimah2: 245-248)

One of the reasons many of the students gave for not approaching their supervisors was that they were 'busy:'

Have you discussed this with your supervisor?

No. I discussed with my friends, Australian and the other is from [the Pacific area] and they are very helpful because they [are] learning [also]...I always discuss with them in terms of how can I express my ideas. But not with [my supervisor] not yet, because she is very busy. (Rina2: 53-57)

This notion of being busy is important from a cultural point of view[22]. The students explained to me on several occasions that in Indonesia only very senior, and therefore 'important' people made appointments. Generally one was 'always welcome'. An interesting personal experience of this was when someone (in fact one of my supervisors) came to my door in the middle of interview with a student. I explained that I was in the middle of an interview and suggested we catch up later. The student was aghast! When I asked what would have happened in the same situation in Indonesia he explained that the other person would have been invited in and after introductions and general conversation for a short while, I would have dealt with the issue or he would have been invited to join the discussion. Therefore, for students to say that their supervisor is 'busy' carries with it many cultural overtones.

Despite the difficulties described above several students reported positive relationships with their supervisor and were feeling confident with their progress:

The IBP has been helpful and my supervisor is a very friendly person. He teases us all the time. He has even taken us to some tourist places and he tries to maintain a good personal relationship with us. I am in favour of such an approach. (Jono2: 68-71)

Good personal relationships with one's supervisor are not quite as easy as they might seem, as Buharto describes:

Another problem is the way of addressing my supervisor. You know how we Asians like to show respect. But my supervisor said that he wanted me to call him [his first name]. So when I next met him I called him [his first name], but I found it so difficult I really didn't have the courage to call him [that], I had to try really hard to call him [his first name]. But when I write to him I have to call him Professor...I just can't write to him as... (Buharto2: 82-88)

Yanti (2: 32-47), Dewi (2: 30-37) and Rani (2: 42-48) were three students who reported having good personal relationships with their supervisor, although with Yanti and Rani it was after their

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22 Particularly in light of the Indonesian saying "Busy for nothing' (Edi3b: 132) meaning trying to look busy when really one has nothing to do.

principal supervisor had appointed a second supervisor that they felt able to discuss both academic and personal issues in an open, relaxed manner.

During the second interview two students (both of whom had studied overseas previously) reported that they had developed a level of independence where they were taking responsibility for their progress:

> I haven't got any problems but if I had any I would go straight to my supervisors and that is OK—I haven't had to go to him and I try to be independent but if I needed to ask I think I would feel OK—but I don't want to bother him. I feel I can chat to him about a lot of things other than my research—things like my teaching. He is quite nice. (Kintan2: 47-53)

Buharto (2: 90-103) and Ahmad (2: 45-47) reported that they felt they could always ask their supervisors for help and Bunari (2: 48-49) would although his supervisor had been away for two months Basu, on the other hand had difficulties with his supervision from very early in his candidature, difficulties which lasted virtually throughout. While he got on well with his supervisor at a personal level he felt very strongly that the academic and technical support he required was not available:

> Yeah...but I mean that I [am] surprised here because there is not much equipment available in this department. That's the main problem. But in [where I did my Masters] I worked in one lab and everything was there....[My supervisor here told me] I may have another one [supervisor]...in July, but he is now in Europe. He will [be] coming back in July. So I can use the [facilities at the other campus]. Because here staff can move easily for study leave or they are very busy, so it's a good idea to have two supervisors. (Basu2: 34-45; 65-69)

Supervisory Expectation Rating Scale

It was argued in Chapter 3 that clarification of expectations is significant in ensuring that students and supervisors have an effective and productive supervisory relationship. In order to assist students and staff with clarifying and making explicit their expectations a 'Supervisory Expectation Rating Scale' was adapted (Kiley, 1998, p. 202) (see Appendix M(a) and M(b)).

The scale presents two strongly alternative statements related to the supervisory experience with a five point scale separating them. Most, although not all, of the statements range from a strong supervisor responsibility, for example, "It is the supervisor's responsibility to select a research topic" through to a strong student responsibility "It is the student's responsibility to select a

promising topic." The rating scale used with students comprised eleven items, although a further adaptation of the scale, now fairly widely used at the University of Adelaide, has twelve items[23].

All but the four MBA students were asked to complete a Supervisory Rating Scale during or soon after their second interview ($n=29$). The results indicate that this cohort of students reflected all other cohorts of students (and supervisors) with whom the rating scale has been used, in that responses were spread across the five points of the scale on virtually every item. For example, in Item 5, "The supervisor should organise frequent meetings with the student" and "It is up to the student to decide when she/he wants to meet with the supervisor" 3.5% ($n=1$) rated '1,' 7% ($n=2$) rated '2,' 45% ($n=13$) rated '3,' 27.5% ($n=8$) rated '4' and 17% ($n=5$) rated '5,' (Mean=3.53, SD=1.03). However, there were some statements where students clustered round similar ratings (see Table 32). Having said that, the issue is not so much where students and/or supervisors are clustered, it is whether individual students and supervisors can reach some congruence in their expectations.

Students' Perceptions of the Role of the Supervisor

In terms of statements related to the topic, methodology and development of the research (items one to three), students generally rated their expectation mid-way between the supervisor and student taking responsibility. For example, regarding selection of a topic, 59% rated at '3'. Regarding the appropriate methodology to be adopted, 69% rated at '3' and with regard to research development, 48% rated '3' with 38% rating '4/5'. In commenting on these items students suggested that while the supervisor was the 'expert' in the area often they had come with topics, or at least areas of research, defined by their institution. As a result they considered that topic selection, methodology and research development were something that should be negotiated. As Table 32 indicates, the Standard Deviations for the first three items are particularly low.

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23   Appendix M(a) provides a copy of the original rating scale with 11 items and used in the longitudinal study and M(b) is the amended rating scale with 12 items.

Table 32.   Results of Supervisory Rating Scale

	Topic/course of study	Mean[24] SD	
		1 2 3 4 5	
1	It is the supervisor's responsibility to select a research topic	3.43 .88	It is the student's responsibility to select a promising topic
2	In the end, it is up to the supervisor to decide which theoretical framework or methodology is most appropriate	3.11 .87	Students have a right to choose their own theoretical framework or methodology even if it conflicts with the supervisor's
3	The supervisor should direct the student in the development of an appropriate program of research and study	3.39 .99	The supervisor should mainly listen to students ideas and ask questions but not tell them what to do
	Contact/Involvement		
4	Staff-student relationships are purely professional and should not involve personal matters	3.64 1.16	Close personal relationships are essential for successful supervision
5	The supervisor should organise frequent meetings with the student	3.54 1.04	It is up to the student to decide when she/he wants to meet with the supervisor
6	The supervisor should know at all times what the student is working on	3.21 1.64	Students should find their own way without having to tell their supervisor how they spend their time
7	The supervisor should stop supervision if she/he thinks the project is too difficult for the student	3.68 1.56	The supervisor should support the student right through until the thesis has been submitted, regardless of his/her opinion of the work
	The Thesis		
8	The supervisor should make sure that the thesis is finished close to the minimum time	2.30 1.31	As long as the student works steadily he/she can take as long as needed to finish the work
9	The supervisor has direct responsibility for the standard of the thesis	2.46 1.29	The supervisor advises only and leaves all decisions concerning content, format and standards to the student
10	The supervisor should insist on seeing drafts of every section of the thesis in order to review them	2.46 1.29	It is up to the student to ask for constructive criticism from the supervisor
11	The supervisor should assist in the actual writing of the thesis if the student is having difficulties	2.82 1.34	The supervisor should be very careful not to contribute too much to the thesis.

To gain an understanding of what supervisors thought, they were asked in the supervisor interviews to comment on the main roles of a supervisor and whether they thought the tasks involved were different for international students. The overall responses can be classified into

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24   The closer the mean to '1' the greater the Supervisor's responsibility.

two main types—student-focussed and task-focussed—with approximately 50% of supervisors being classified in each group.

Student-focussed supervisors made comments such as "I think a supervisor's responsibilities need to be tailored to the needs of the student so it is pretty hard to say what a supervisor's responsibilities are. It ranges from being a friend to a professional colleague" (Supervisor55: 70-74) and, "I think in the first year it is basically encouragement and building confidence and getting people to try to narrow their thoughts down to exactly what they are on about" (Supervisor24: 94-96).

These student-focussed supervisors generally commented that international students had particular requirements of them as a supervisor:

> The support, I think is more important for overseas students. I was an overseas student myself at ANU and I know the culture shock issues and how important they are. Everything is different and you need someone who can tell you to be relaxed, be aggressive, interrupt the person, all of those things because the cultural difference is huge. (Supervisor96: 84-90)

Task-focussed supervisors, on the other hand made comments such as:

> I think I need to tell them how to gather material and how to store it and retrieve it and then tell them that they have two years to do 60,000 words or three years to do 90,000 words and give them a timetable and put it over their desk and help them comply with it. My job is to help them focus, focus, focus. (Supervisor69: 89-95)

Or another one said "Obviously you have to get the students up to a level where they have enough good data to get their degree. That's the first thing. They have to be directed so they have enough data and are successful" (Supervisor50: 72-75).

Some, but by no means all, of the task-focussed supervisors commented on different approaches with overseas students, particularly in needing to match the project with the student or detecting areas of technical or academic weakness.

There did not appear to be a discipline or sex bias in these responses, that is, student focussed supervisors were found across all disciplines as were task-focussed supervisors and across male and female supervisors. From students' comments neither approach was likely to be more positive or negative than the other; that is, as many student-centred supervisors were as well

regarded by students as were task-focussed supervisors. Equally, as many student-focussed supervisors provided, in the judgement of their student, inadequate supervision as did task-focussed supervisors. Certainly the supervisory relationship was different, but not necessarily better or worse.

Meeting with Students

Supervisors' views and practices about meeting with students, Item 5 on the 'Expectation Rating' scale, varied enormously. The extremes are indicated by the following four responses to the question, 'How often do you meet with students?'

> I go to the lab when I am in town each morning and afternoon and sometimes during the day and talk with them and have a look...my students don't do much that I don't know about. (Supervisor50: 46-62)

> Every week...I let them go for a week if they haven't done anything and if that happens the second week then I get onto them. (Supervisor69: 66-68)

> I very much ask the students to meet with me when they feel there is a need. Part of that is my heavy work commitment, but my philosophy on education is that learning is most effective when it is done by the individual and my job as a supervisor it is to question them and to make sure that they are not doing something which is completely off-track. (Supervisor31: 118-123)

> Not enough. I think I am a bit slack and [my student] is a bit of a ghost, I just never see him round. I guess I should make more of an effort....Probably now that I think about it, with [him] I should arrange regular weekly meetings because he is not coming in and so I had better do something about that. (Supervisor58: 49-61)

However, there were several distinct practices with regard to arranging meetings for all students, not only international students. These include:

- a combination of informal and formal meetings "I would talk with most of my students once a day—and that would be casually. The formal meetings would be once a week when we had lab meetings...and about every three weeks I meet with the student individually" (Supervisor60: 57-64);

- regular meetings timetabled by the supervisor, with the expectation that the student will attend "every Friday for all students" (Supervisor69: 65);

- on an as-needed-basis, organised by the student "my mornings are sacrosanct but my afternoons are available. My secretary [supervisor is Head of Department] books them in" (Supervisor55: 52-53).

In the main, most supervisors commented on the need for regular meetings, although the frequency might vary according to the student's need, the supervisor's interest, philosophy and availability, and stage of candidature. Supervisors in the sciences reported far more informal meetings with students than supervisors in mathematics, engineering, the humanities and social science. Supervisors' comments about frequency of meeting generally tallied with what students reported. However, where there were discrepancies they were generally part of a larger concern with the supervisory situation, expressed by the student.

Student-Supervisor Relationships

In about 70% of cases students' applications for acceptance into the award and supervision were forwarded by the University's International Programs Office to the relevant Department with a request for someone with suitable qualifications to accept supervision of the student. Neither student nor supervisor were known to one another. These applications usually came from the scholarship awarding body for example AusAID. While matching of student need with university expertise occurs, there is also a desire by the funding body to ensure an equitable distribution of scholarship students across all Australian universities. Strategies adopted by some departments at the University of Adelaide were described in Chapter 2. Clearly knowledge of one another is a significant factor in the student-supervisor relationship.

With regard to relationships between students and supervisors (items four to seven on the 'Expectation Rating') the ratings were quite varied with standard deviations ranging from 1.036 to 1.641. More that 60% of those students who consistently reported in the interviews as having good, personal relationships with their supervisors also rated their expectation at 'four/five', that is, close personal relationships are essential.

This variation in overall rating is not necessarily surprising given the difficulty in coming to terms with an emerging adult-adult relationship outlined in Chapter 2. Students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study who were academics themselves often compared the relationship which they had as lecturers in Indonesia with their students there with the relationship they had with their supervisor in Australia. They reported that it would not be unusual for a lecturer to offer help to a student after hours, or have the student come to their home if they were working on a particular project which needed additional assistance. Two particular students in the Adelaide Longitudinal

Study would often talk about their supervisors in Adelaide as if they were a parent who deserved respect, but who were also expected to care for them in a maternal (in these cases) way.

Satisfaction from Supervising

When supervisors were asked what gave them the greatest satisfaction as a supervisor the comments fell into two quite distinct categories, comments that related to the student as a person, and comments that related to the student's work. For example, Supervisor57 reported that what gave him most satisfaction was "successful experiments. Data that is valid and recognised as publishable and getting good reports from examiners (138-139)." Whereas Supervisor99 commented "Getting to know people and learn about them and seeing them develop and being successful is another good thing (70-71)." Or, as Supervisor55 said "Seeing my students succeed. It really does. Seeing students actually achieve things they might not have thought themselves capable of achieving (87-90)."

Responses related to the student as a person and those related to the student's work were almost 50% for each group, with one supervisor commenting:

> Well there are two angles. One is in terms of the development of the field of knowledge and education and to help students contribute to that and on the other hand the growth of the individual students and this is to me a very important area. The profession is a tool to being socially useful and people need to be able to exercise power and this is as important in third world nations as well as Australia. These students are socially committed to realise their goals. I'd say that this is common with students from third world countries but then again the field I am working in is Education so it is not surprising. (Supervisor98: 96-105)

The categories of comments were not discipline-specific with the 'product' oriented supervisors coming from science, social science, engineering, medicine and mathematics and 'person' focussed supervisors also coming from social science, science, engineering and medicine. It is also worth noting that supervisors in each of these two categories were not always the same as the student- and task-focussed supervisors when asked what they thought was the role of the supervisor. Nevertheless, 60% of supervisors who were classified as student-focussed in terms of their role, also tended to be person-focussed in terms of the satisfaction gained from supervision, and similarly for the product-focussed supervisors.

Concerns for Students

When asked for their main concerns regarding the international students they were supervising, again the responses varied enormously. Approximately 28% of supervisors commented that a major concern was the quality of the students and their ability (or not) to be able to complete successfully, with the concomitant worry that supervisors might be 'wasting their time' with students who would not complete. Twelve percent, on the other hand, were concerned that they, or the University (or the system), might be wasting the students' time in that they might be developing skills which they would not be able to use on their return:

> I do have a concern there and that is what we are providing may not be relevant to what they go back to. They come here and they have an expectation and we provide them with an experience but I am not sure how they deal with it when they get back. I am not sure if I have a great feel for that.... The easy one is the technical, materials one, but we don't even take that into account very well, I don't think. But the more difficult one is if we succeed in injecting the western scientific philosophy into them is that going to be practical, sensible. (Supervisor23: 126-138)

Linked with this was the concern expressed by three supervisors that, due to competing pressures from the University and the profession generally, they might not be in a position to provide quality supervision to students. Three of the less experienced supervisors expressed concern at not knowing an adequate and acceptable standard for the student's work. Two other supervisors were particularly concerned about students who might lose interest mid-way through candidature and the difficulty of getting them 'back on track'.

While many Supervisors talked about language and communication skills to some extent, only five had it as their main concern for overseas students. However, for several of them the focus was more on day-to-day communication rather than academic English. As one said:

> The concern I have with overseas students is the communication. I think the oral communication is essential. They have to be able to talk with others. I have had a couple who are very weak and they don't have a clue what you are talking about. The others in the lab used to try very hard, but they could see that it was just bouncing off and so they gave up and this can be very isolating for the student. I think this oral communication is really important. We have a wide range of nationalities here and they are all very tolerant, but unless the student has a working knowledge of English then they are in real strife. This is in addition to written English but I think their spoken English is more important. Written English is an ongoing problem which doesn't just relate to overseas students. (Supervisor50: 118-130)

This finding was certainly supported by the comments earlier in this chapter of many of the students who found that their English language skills were significant in holding them back in the first months from making friends with local students.

Supervisors often expressed their concerns in terms of dilemmas, not unlike the supervisors in the study by Delamont et al. (1998). For example, the dilemma of being a friend and also a supervisor, or the dilemma of meeting the student's need and making the experience relevant, but also meeting the requirements of the University. Another dilemma expressed by some was the balance required between allowing students to 'find their feet' in the first six months—particularly with regard to language—with the requirement to have students complete their candidature within the perceived shrinking time allowance for (all) PhD students. In the main, supervisors had not found solutions to these dilemmas.

Level of Academic Work

Item seven in the 'Supervisory rating scale' states 'The supervisor should stop supervision if she/he thinks the project is too difficult for the student' and 'The supervisor should support the student right through until the thesis has been submitted, regardless of his/her opinion of the work'. This item caused concern for many of the students. They were quite taken aback even to contemplate the possibility that their supervisor might have the option of ceasing supervision if he/she thought the project was too difficult for the student. Having said that, 50% rated this item at 'four/five.'

With regard to the writing, completion, and quality of the thesis (items eight to eleven) there was a definite cluster of ratings. Here students were much more likely to rate 'one/two', that is, being the supervisor's responsibility rather than 'four/five', that is, the student's responsibility. Sixty one percent rated the supervisor responsible for completion of the thesis within the allocated time. This response reflects the students' concern with completing on time which most students discussed regularly throughout the interviews.

The response rate for writing assistance was divided with 38% believing that the supervisor should assist with writing, whereas 39% saying that 'The supervisor should be very careful not to contribute too much to the writing of the thesis'. This item, along with several of the others, certainly does not confirm any of the stereotypes of the Asian student being very reliant on their

supervisor and requiring constant direction and even intervention. Of course it is difficult to know to what extent these responses in Phase One were what the student thought they *should* be, that is, what they thought they were expected to say, or what they actually felt. A further development of these ideas will be examined later in this report as students' development over time provides additional insights.

However, how did students' expectations of supervision match with their experiences? As might be expected, some students had positive interactions with their supervisors almost from the start, whereas others had quite negative experiences, a few of which remained throughout candidature. Of particular relevance was supervisors' invitation to "Call in and see me if you have any problems." While this practice, often linked with an 'open door policy', is quite common in Australia, many Indonesian students found this very difficult to accept, leading to the 'No news is good news' syndrome. Supervisors seemed to assume that because students were not taking problems to them, then there were none. Much of this reluctance seemed to stem from four main reasons. The *first* was that students considered their supervisor to be a very busy (and in many cases important) person who should not be interrupted with queries by a student. The *second* is that students were concerned that the supervisor might react negatively if interrupted. The *third*, which emerged later in the study, was that some students did not know how to interrupt in a manner which seemed to be culturally appropriate to the supervisor and student:

> Maybe because of me also, because, I don't know sometimes, [I am] very slow, I just want to know if someone's not busy, but I tell you every day they're busy and I become late, so I need, yeah,…sometimes I can't stop people to say 'Hey, help me, I want to know…' I need time when he [my supervisor] is free and then I can explain what I want. But for a special problem I can't, I don't know…

> I have a bad experience because I don't know how to say, what do you say, 'Give me half a time' [give me a minute] so when [the supervisor] is talking with someone in my room I just intruded and [he] was angry…so I don't want to again. (Purwanto6: 62-71)

The *fourth* reason related to students not wanting their supervisor to know that they were having difficulty coping. According to the students this was generally because of the following. Firstly they suggested they were concerned that their supervisor might send them home if he/she thought the student could not cope. Secondly students did not want to lose face by acknowledging that they might not have been able to manage. This concept is strongly embedded in the Indonesian culture. As Tini was quoted as saying earlier "it is not a good thing

he know I'm having problems, I don't want him to know I can't do things" (Tini1: 2). Finally, some students argue that in Indonesia it is expected that when one is given a task by a superior, that the superior assumes the subordinate knows how to do it and will not be 'bothered' by that person, until the task is complete. 'Bothering' one's superior is likely to mean that no further tasks will be given so one's reputation (and therefore, salary) will suffer.

Obviously there are several outcomes of students not wanting to 'bother' their supervisors. One of the main difficulties faced was that they did not know what their supervisor expected of them. This expectation related to personal interactions, level of work and even matters such as 'laboratory protocol and manners.' As Koko suggested:

> Little things like when you work in the lab and whether you should behave like this or you should behave like that or not or whether if I say this, is it right or not just didn't tell me, I don't have to guess whether it's right or not and I try to learn that with the other students, the other persons working in the lab....Cultural things. (Koko2: 156-161)

As outlined earlier, within the first six months of students' candidature I checked with them that they were comfortable with me talking with their supervisor. I explained that the discussion was not about the student, but about the supervisors and their experiences of supervision. It was not uncommon for students to ask me to find out from their supervisors what they wanted them to do and then for me to report this back. Although they understood the confidentiality which worked both ways in the interviews, some were still upset when I told them that I would not, under any circumstances, pass on their comments to a supervisor and certainly not pass on comments from a supervisor to a student. As Watie was reported earlier as saying:

> So I want to know his expectations of me precisely!
> *And there is no point in me telling you that really you are the only one who can do it?*
> I can't go to [the supervisor] now. I can't, I just feel worried. (Watie2: 339-343)

Asking help from Indonesian colleagues might not always work either as suggested earlier. The sense of hierarchy which is very strong within Indonesian, and particularly Javanese, society means that it could be inappropriate to be seen going to a 'junior' for help. As a student commented, "[in my job]...we must experience [express] that we are better than the others, it's very difficult, how to express it...I have to believe in my ability that I am better than the others" (Antonius3: 132-135). While not wide spread, some students reported that they would

only seek help from other Indonesian students who were more senior than themselves within the Indonesian civil service.

So, in summary we have students who are very keen and enthusiastic, who expect to work very hard and who anticipate that they will need to change or adapt their learning styles. They are very concerned at their ability to complete in the time allocated and believe that the supervisor holds the key to their successful completion by providing adequate guidance in selecting a topic which is manageable within the time. However, they are very concerned that they do not understand the supervisor's expectations and they often feel quite lost and unable to ask for help.

Changes

During the second interview the students were asked whether there had been changes in their thoughts about returning to Indonesia or how others at home might think they have changed. While they had only been in Australia for six months, some of them had already given thought to what their experiences in Adelaide might mean on their return.

One change emerging in Phase One was students' increased awareness of the critical nature of Australians compared with Indonesians:

> I mean I will be different because I have some experience here and they don't have. And I have experience in academic field for example I will be critical person because here usually everybody has have critical thinking.
>
> *Will that be a problem do you think?*
>
> No, for academic people they have to be critical person I think I will be critical person. And of course, they will be surprised when they meet. I think so, because how can I express my ideas for example, how can I evaluate, criticise people's work because it is quite different here. I prefer this way, I prefer Australian way in expressing ideas and critical. (Rina2: 183-194)

Antonius, Edi (2: 164-166) and Igun (2: 173-186) thought that they might take on different roles in their work as a result of their experiences "I think my boss might give me more responsibility and ask me to write things for him—reports and so on. And he might ask me for my ideas" (Antonius2: 237-239). Siti was concerned about returning home as she was aware of friends who were experiencing frustrations "a lot of my friends go back to Indonesia and get frustrated" (Siti2: 92). And Watie exemplified what a number of students said in that they hoped that they would not change their personality, religious views, or 'Indonesian nature' but would

learn more and be better at their job as a result of their sojourn "I don't want to change in my personality. Except my knowledge of course, I have to" (Watie2: 210-211).

Chapter Summary

This chapter provided an introduction to the students and their expectations and experiences in the first six months of candidature, that is, Phase One. The results were provided under the headings of personal and emotional issues, administrative and day-to-day issues, course, language, and academic issues and supervision.

Not surprisingly homesickness was a major issue for many of the students. Combined with the effects of culture shock many of them experienced considerable distress in the first six months. Support for students, during this difficult time, other than that from supervisors, was provided through academic programs such as the Integrated Bridging Program, with emotional and spiritual support coming from families, friends and religious and cultural groups. It was noted that, at least in this phase, most students had co-nationals as their main friends with some mixing with other internationals students and only a few having local students as friends. Several reasons for this situation were suggested ranging from ease of friendship with fellow Indonesians to difficulties in making friends with Australians, particularly where English facility was considered by the students to be a barrier.

For virtually all the students accommodation, transport, health and finances were of little concern. What did pose problems for both make and female students was daily household tasks when they had been so used to *pembantu* who normally managed those tasks at home. Creative solutions were found by some of the students.

It was noted that many students commenced their candidature quite concerned about their ability to cope with the demands of their course, particularly those who had been required to change topic or research area or undertake qualifying exams. Many of these students, however, performed quite well, or very well in first semester exams or assignments. Receiving positive feedback on work proved to be a crucial factor in students' sense of well-being and self-esteem.

Language skills, particularly listening and speaking, were very important in this phase especially as a means of socialising as well as for academic tasks. Students often needed to make

enormous efforts to overcome their nervousness about speaking in a group. While they *knew* how important is was to do so they *felt* extremely awkward about doing so and it often took three to four months to overcome this awkwardness. Writing, particularly in terms of structure and analysis posed difficulties for many students, a difficulty which continued into Phase Two and Three for many. Reading on the other hand was not of the same level of concern for most.

While students expected to work long hours those working the longest hours, not uncommonly 60 to 70 hours per week, were in the sciences, medicine and engineering. For some, working such long hours was a necessity. For example, students who were researching in new areas found that they needed to devote a great deal of additional time to background work. For others, working long hours was one way of avoiding bouts of homesickness and loneliness.

Students reported that they had difficulty knowing what their supervisor expected of them, and very few of them had the confidence to ask. Supervisors, on the other hand, tended to have quite clear ideas of their role although only one reported discussing this with his student. Comments from students indicated that they appreciated the additional skills and insights of supervisors who had some experience of living or working in a foreign environment. Supervisors tended to fall into one of two categories—task-focused and student-focused—with an equal distribution of positive and negative comments from students with both groups of supervisors.

Students reported that the main changes they were aware of by the end of Phase One were greater independence, lessening of homesickness, greater familiarity with English and generally increased confidence. The changes tended to be reflected in both personal and academic aspects of students' lives. Figure 13 graphically demonstrates the varying levels of significance of the different issues reported by students. This table will be further developed in Chapters 8 and 9. Factors determined as 'Very significant' were those that were reported by approximately 75% of the students as being serious or important issues for them. 'Significant' factors were those reported by about 50% of the students being of some importance to them and 'Insignificant' factors were those reported by approximately 25% of the students as being of little significance.

Figure 13.   Significance of Various Factors across the Phases (1)

Issue	Phase One	Phase Two	Phase Three
Academic Issues			
• Workload	▰		
• Course/Program	▰		
• Critical Approach	▰		
• Exams/Feedback	▰		
Language Issues			
• Speaking	▰		
• Listening	▰		
• Reading	▪		
• Writing	▰		
Personal and Emotional Issues			
• Homesickness	▰		
• Culture Shock/ Reverse Culture Shock	▰		
• Racism	■		
Day-to-day Issues			
• Families in Adelaide	■		
• Living in Adelaide	■		
• Accommodation/ Transport	■		
• Health	■		
• Finances	■		
Supervision			
• Expectations	▰		
• Relationships	▰		
• Support	▰		

▰ Very Significant factor   ▬ Significant factor   ■ Insignificant factor

CHAPTER 8 PHASE TWO: FEELING SETTLED

Introduction

This chapter provides insights into students' lives following the first six months, that is, Phase Two, and shows how the students developed and changed to suit the requirements of their new environment. While students did find it difficult in the first six months, it is significant that once they had been in Australia for twelve months, culture shock and homesickness were issues rarely discussed. After the trauma described in Chapter 7, this chapter may appear to be almost mundane, and in a sense it is. It describes how students settled into their daily routine of living and studying in Australia and how most learned to accommodate quite effectively the requirements of their new environment.

Issues are examined under the same headings as Chapter 7 and determined form the literature in Chapter 2: personal and emotional issues, administrative and day-to-day matters, language issues, academic issues and matters related to supervision. However, to reflect the students' changing emphasis and interest the sections have been re-ordered as follows: academic issues, language issues, matters related to supervision, administrative and day-to-day matters, and personal and emotional issues. One of the most significant insights of this study has been the very close interaction and integration of these various aspects of students' lives and how they each impact upon the other. For example, following initial success in exams in the first semester students' self-esteem and general well-being increased significantly. Equally, with enhanced language skills confidence in interacting with local students increased with increased social opportunities. As a result, although this study is reported under certain headings and categories, it is the integration of these categories that is so important to students' well-being and progress. This is particularly the case with the issue of language and academic progress. The separation of these two issues is done with considerable reticence, however as the literature and the students often discussed them as separate issues they are presented in that manner here.

Academic Expectations

On a number of occasions during students' candidature they were asked how their experiences of living and studying in Adelaide matched their expectations. In most cases the experiences

proved better than expected, particularly when students realised that they were coping with the academic demands of their program.

The main academic area of difference in expectations was to do with the lack of speed and facility with which students undertook their academic program. Comments from the interviews suggest that this is for three main reasons. The *first* is the experience that most research students seem to have, that research seems to take longer than anticipated. The popular T-shirt worn by many university students saying 'Don't ask how my PhD is going!' is testament to the level of frustration experienced by the great majority of students:

> I expected that it would be much faster....But I thought that after I had worked for 18 months I thought that I would be able to write or have something to publish, but my supervisor tells me not to worry. (Amina5: 30-33)

The *second* is that some of the students might not have had an opportunity to work with researchers of an international standard in their own university prior studying in Australia. As a result they might have under-estimated the requirements of research and the time and effort required to undertake research of this kind. The *third* relates more specifically to international, and in this case Indonesian students. Most of these students had obviously been successful undergraduates—their Grade Point Average (GPA) was one of the key criteria in selection. However, in Australia they had to come to terms with reading and writing in a foreign language, living in a foreign environment, and more particularly, writing and presenting their argument in quite a different way from the one which most of them had used as undergraduates. As a result it took them longer than local students to accomplish various communication tasks:

> But the expectation and experience, simply I can state that my expectation in my mind was that I could finish and that my study would be going smoothly, but in fact the experience seems that the situation is not like that. There are many stuck [difficulty with progress]! When I was an undergraduate it was quite smooth. Yes I was confident to do some research with the topic that I chose. I didn't get stuck in Indonesia like here. The topic I am doing is very difficult. It seems stuck and I don't have any alternatives to solve. My supervisor either. The topics that I work with is in my opinion it is not so fruitful and it [is] difficult to solve. There are some topics in other branches...that are more fruitful. (Beni9: 25-30)

These students experienced considerable frustration and loss of self-esteem "I feel so stupid here. Sometimes I think that I must be the most stupid student in the department: every day I am very busy but I don't seem to get anything done" (Siti4: 64-66). This loss of self-esteem

continued until students recognised that most research students went through periods of 'being stuck' and that their supervisors considered it a 'normal' experience and not a reflection on the intelligence of the student. For some, the completion of a major chapter, paper for publication, qualifying exam, attendance at a conference, or increasing facility with writing in English assisted in restoring a degree of self-esteem and confidence.

This lack of self-esteem was crucial for students during candidature. While a learner such as Siti (above) is feeling "the most stupid student in the department" it is unlikely that she is going to progress well. Supervisors, support staff and even researchers can help or hinder the development of students' self-esteem quite easily. For example, sharing experiences with local students can be helpful but as noted in Chapter 7, it was not always easy for students to be in such a relationship with local students. However, the majority of students reported that their supervisor was very encouraging and only five reported negative responses. By the end of the study there was only one student whose self-esteem, related to academic matters, was still low.

Workload

Not surprisingly most of the students reported, at some time during candidature, that they felt stressed or worried by their study and research. While much of the stress was in the first six months (see Chapter 7), students experienced varying levels of stress at other times. It has been proposed several times already in this study that one of the greatest stresses was the need to complete within the visa and scholarship time allocation. Unlike local students who can, in theory if not in practice, take as long as they like to complete a PhD, international students are under much stricter constraints. All but the MBA students reported this as a concern[1]

At least nine of the students commented on the fact that local students seemed to be able to take much longer than international students to submit, even when local students appeared not to have the same language difficulties:

> I don't like this.
>
> *That students don't work as hard, is that what you mean?*
>
> Yes I think so, and sometime in my office there are some Australian students and I thought they are very slack. I feel very good because I was [working] hard and I haven't got anything and I always think that they miss everything so it makes me frustrated. Some students are very hard working. Some Australians don't want

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[1] The MBA students were enrolled in a quite specific course that had no research requirement.

to finish soon because they can't get job after they graduate so they just stay in the University. My neighbour, already six years doing Masters. But he didn't enrol, [his candidature lapsed] he not really working just coming. But sometimes I feel it's not fair he didn't enrol but he still have facilities for workshop and it stop my work. I just lately I feel frustrated because of my thesis. (Siti3: 118-130)

The importance of successful completion of study has been documented elsewhere, but one particular example serves to highlight the significance of successful completion for Indonesian students. Two students, a married couple, returned to their home city after fourteen months of study in Australia to carry out field work. They were quite taken aback by the reaction of friends and colleagues who assumed that they had been sent back home for poor performance as the practice of field-work in the middle of postgraduate research in Indonesia was not common. It was not until these students were about to return to Australia to complete their awards that they were finally believed by their friends and colleagues.

Ismanto's story provides a good example of what most of the research students experienced with regard to pressures to complete on time. Ismanto was enrolled for a PhD in the sciences and was on a three-and-a-half year Indonesian scholarship. He was married with one child. Even as early as the second interview Ismanto was expressing his concern about completing in three and half years as he was aware that in his department most local students took at least four years. (The statistics from Appendix B indicate that local students at the University of Adelaide complete their PhD in the full-time equivalent of 3.8 years and elapsed time—taking into account intermissions—of 5.0 years. This compares with 3.51 years and 4.58 years respectively for Indonesian students.) He was also concerned that he had been told he could not apply for an extension to his scholarship whereas he knew that some AusAID students had successfully applied for extensions. Ismanto thought that perhaps his supervisor might be able to find him a job if he needed to stay after his scholarship had expired.

One of the difficulties that Ismanto encountered was having to do all the experimental work himself as he felt this delayed his progress "I have to do everything for myself. In [my university] I have six assistants and [here] I have to do it myself and so I have to read the book to find out how to do it" (Ismanto4: 15-18). Despite his concerns, eighteen months into his candidature Ismanto's supervisor felt confident that he would complete in the three years although Ismanto was very doubtful:

> When I looked at my Annual Review I calculated that I would spend three and a half years [more], but my supervisor put three years. I asked him whether I could finish in three years and he said he thought I could. But no one finishes in three years in the department. (Ismanto5: 9-13)

This student's supervisor was obviously very concerned about the issue of limited time and the effect it had on the quality of postgraduate research:

> The management of the University means that research programs have to be limited to three years. When you take into account that overseas students are going to take six months for an English program and that they are going to work more slowly than a local students, that in fact in two and a half years they are not going manage much more than a mediocre Masters thesis, this has the effect of downgrading programs. It's hard enough with local students and three years programs. It just doesn't work that you can put a research program into a strict timetable. Much of it is serendipitious. A lot of good PhDs take five years, not three years. (Supervisor57: 147-160)

This supervisor went on to suggest that a supervisor virtually had to know the answer to the student's research from the start to ensure that the research would be completed in time. Ismanto expressed his concern many times, particularly trying to compare Indonesian students with local ones "for Australian students, although they need a PhD but if they don't get it, it is not the same sense of failure....It is just so different—you can't compare Australian PhD students and Indonesian students" (Ismanto6: 107-117).

Another area of concern where students felt there was unfair treatment was AusAID's policy. It seemed it did not matter with whom I spoke, most students knew of other students who had received more favourable treatment. For example, some students had been given four year scholarships from the start, others three and half years, even in the same discipline and undertaking the same award. Others knew of students who received extensions, and others not. Ismanto felt that the science students were disadvantaged. Given the lack of comprehensive centralised record keeping by AusAID, it is difficult to tell how accurate the students' perceptions of unfair treatment were, but they were strongly felt:

> Most of my friends who study in science it's very difficult to get extension, [unlike] those doing geography we are the ones that need more. I'm not talking about my scholarship, but in general AusAID scholarship likely because apparently already let them get extension. It's very easy to get extensions. It's very hard to get extension for the science students usually have to stay six months without scholarship. That's what usually happens. (Ismanto8: 137-144)

Part of the difficulty here was that some students had received not so much an extension, but an upgrade of their scholarship from three and a half year to four years to bring them into line with others. However, this was seen by some other students as being an extension.

After two years Ismanto, and many of the other research students in the study were starting to save money in case they needed to support themselves if their scholarship ceased before they finished. The plan was that they would apply for a visitor's visa and hope that the tuition fee would be waived and that they would remain in Australia supported by their savings. Ismanto had worked in his area of research for some years in Indonesia and he felt that it was not possible to complete in the time allocated by his scholarship. Despite all his concerns, Ismanto's scholarship was extended to four years and at the last interview he was on track to complete and submit prior to returning home, but this had not been without a considerable degree of worry. Ismanto was an example of most of the research students who felt similar pressures to complete their work and that the treatment of students, particularly by AusAID, was not always fair.

Despite their concerns many of the students suggested that it was much easier to study in Australia as they did not have to worry about the availability of facilities and materials, virtually everything they needed was supplied as Iwan said:

> Here I can work the long day from 9.00-7.00 or 6.00 and I don't have to worry about things. But in Indonesia I go to work and there is nothing there and so I just go home because the facilities are not there. (Iwan10: 72-75)

Most of the students, and certainly all but one of the science students, reported that one of the best things about studying in Australia was this availability of materials and access to facilities. The other benefit from studying in Australia that most of the research students reported was that in their role as students they did not have to worry about anything else other than their research. At home there were often financial difficulties that occupied their time and some of the general administrative aspects of life in Indonesia were so time consuming that even when students wanted to devote time to their work, they were unable to do so.

> Yesterday I discuss with [my Indonesian friend] and we finally conclude that we have much more stress in Indonesia. It's not only because our work but because of our social life. All this pressure from our family also and the social situation. Family and friends, a lot of pressure from outside, it's not only the work but here we feel free because we only think of our study. I probably still think about family but because we stay far. I don't know but it's difficult to say but we have so

many stresses in Indonesia, probably if we stay here for good probably we also have stress but because we stay here only for short time. (Siti4: 120-130)

Academic Support

Certainly at the commencement of Phase Two students reported that the Integrated Bridging Program had provided them with academic support and still was in many cases. This Program (described in Chapter 2) is conducted in students' first six months and provides an introduction to research writing in English (Cargill, 1996). Once the Program was over some students were able to maintain contact with their IBP lecturer and others did not. The reason for this is administrative as much as anything else. In one case the IBP lecturer was also the Language and Learning Support lecturer for that faculty and so students, once getting to know her, were able to maintain the relationship. In other instances the IBP lecturers were not the ongoing support persons and so it made it more difficult for students to access their help, although some did for a few months following the IBP.

Other major sources of assistance to students in academic matters were postdoctoral staff, fellow students and technical staff. Particularly in the sciences, students commented that they received considerable help from these people in preparing reports, presentations and papers. A 'creative' use of friends was not uncommon in seminar presentations where students arranged for a 'friend' to ask a 'Dorothy Dix'[2] question which the student could expect thereby permitting them a small degree of confidence. This was generally a reciprocal arrangement.

In summary, students reported that the main academic concerns for them in Phase Two were the slow progress of their research combined with the ever-present fear of having to return home before completion. A consequence of students' concern about rate of progress and need to complete within the scholarship period was a very heavy workload and a sense of inequity when compared with local students who seemed not to be pressured by time constraints to the same extent. The heavy workload meant that students often were not in a position to mix socially with other students, particularly local students.

However, all but one of the students were pleased with the level of resourcing and the facilities available to them, resources often not possible in Indonesia. For example, Hermina, whose work

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[2]   A question where both the person asking the question and the person responding know the answer.

required her to always wear rubber gloves commented that in Australia she could get a new pair of gloves whenever she needed them. In Indonesia, however, she had to reuse gloves and occasionally share with others, thereby slowing down progress.

Language and Issues of Being Critical

As one would expect, students reported steadily increasing facility with English language during their candidature, although writing still remained a difficulty, particularly in the final phase when most of them were trying to write up their research. For all of the students, improvement in their English language was one of the most important reasons, if not the most important reason, for them studying in Australia. This concept will be further developed in Chapter 9. However, integral to their increased English language skills was their increased awareness and skill in critical thinking, writing and reading.

Students recognised quite early in their candidature the need to think critically. I would suggest that much of this came from their IALF course where 'being critical' was a concept which was often discussed. However, knowing that it was important did not necessarily mean that students knew how to do it. There were four main aspects to students' concepts of 'being critical': thinking critically, reading critically, writing critically, and being critical of someone else.

Being Critical

The matter of being critical of someone else is discussed first as it provides an overview for the other aspects of students' difficulty with trying to develop other critical skills. Indonesian, and particularly Javanese, society is strongly based on a practice of not openly criticising others, particularly those more senior in age and/or status (see Appendix A). I had many discussions with students on this matter, especially as I was keen to know when they might be trying to be critical of me, but with my lack of skill with Indonesian culture and ways of expression, I might not be detecting these criticisms.

Several of the students, particularly the PhD students from the first two cohorts who were the ones I had known longest, explained to me that while one can be critical of someone, including a supervisor in Indonesia, it is the way it is said "in Indonesia I could be critical of my supervisor, but it is the way you say it, not like here. It is very important the way you say things" (Ismanto6: 83-85).

Examples provided by the students helped me to understand. For example, in Indonesia if I did not like what someone had said or done to me, I would simply not respond in further conversation or give a non-committal 'Mmm', or not act upon an instruction, even though I might have said I would. All of these 'avoidance' techniques would be very clear indicators to the other person that I was not happy with their behaviour or comments. It took students some time to realise that their supervisors were not aware of such nuances of communication and that they needed to be more overt, even though it was generally very difficult. Basu described the differences between being critical in Australia compared with Indonesia:

> I haven't directly told my supervisors that I am unhappy but I am pretty sure that at least [one of them] knows, because about eight months ago he told me not to be negative—but to think positive. It would not be polite for me to be critical [of my supervisors]—but one good thing in Australia is that I can be critical of one thing [about a person] but still stay friends or work with them. In Indonesia, if I am critical of someone that spoils the whole relationship, everything would be negative—that is why we have to be careful and only imply [criticism]. (Basu7: 18-28)

At a more systemic level, one had to be very aware of 'who was who' in Indonesia. Junaidi, Basu, Sugik, Purwanto and Ismanto provided very good examples of this. In areas such as North Sumatra, for example, it would be crucial to know to which religious and ethnic group one's superior belonged. In other situations it might be important to know in which country one's boss had studied as she/he was likely to promote others from the same background, or at least not countenance criticism of those from the same background.

However, one supervisor suggested that, given an opportunity in Australia, most Indonesians he knew were quite prepared to be critical, unlike their Australian counterparts:

> I find that Australian students in many social sciences won't get the facts. All they want is to express are their prejudices or opinions that are preconceived before they gather any facts and none of them knows what's good and bad and most of them should be in the Department of...Philosophy I think. So the Indonesians are fact-gatherers on a big scale and I think they are pretty, I think are pretty useful researchers. Don't think that Indonesia is full of people who aren't critical. Most of them are pretty heavily critical of the Government once they have been to university. (Supervisor69: 75-87)

Many of the students with children in school in Australia were aware of different approaches to teaching and this included encouraging children to be more critical:

I just make people comparison between my son and me quite different in terms of the critical thinking in research something from the school. Because last time [previously] I remember last time I believe what everything my teacher said. I just believe the teacher was like God. I had never think about anything else better than the teacher said but now it's just 180 degrees different with my son. He questions me also, now it is like different skin. Sometimes I am so sad about that, because sometimes he rejects his own culture and he rejects his own country and looks down everything about Indonesia. (Rani9: 102-112)

Critical Approach to Research

With a cultural norm that discouraged personal criticism virtually all of the students had difficulty to varying degrees with being critical in their approach to their research. However, many were also aware of the considerable change they had made in this area over time. Chapter 9 will demonstrate that students were giving thought to how they could continue to have a critical approach to their work on returning to Indonesia without being openly critical of others. However, it is not surprising that the demands for the change in government in Indonesia and the overthrowing of President Suharto arose in the universities in Indonesia, supported to an extent by staff who had studied overseas.

Iwan, into his third year of candidature, described how he had learned to be critical and how important he considered this for his research program:

I don't have experience of how to make critic[ism]. To critic. And also in Indonesia I say never I make a critic in Indonesia. Critic is very bad. And in here I now more and more understand how to make it like that, in Indonesia if critic is very bad, but in here to critic something like that doesn't mean bad. We can support and we agree and make it in positive way. But I can understand now the situation. (Iwan9: 120-128)

It has already been suggested that these were capable students in Indonesia in their own discipline and that most of them performed well academically once they had settled. Buharto, who had studied overseas prior to enrolling in Adelaide, reinforced this when he commented:

Before, because In Indonesia we have previous knowledge in [the discipline] with what you read and understand, but here you have to not only understand but also to be critical, 'So what'? 'So what'? 'So what' questions? And always have in mind that you have some sort of preconception and have a minute's silence and reflect what's going on and then decide whether your preconceptions was right. (Buharto4: 65-70)

Yanti described what she thought as the difference between criticising someone and being a critical researcher:

So when I read this one I have this critic approach because I already practise research several years, so sometimes I can get [critical]. But sometimes also, aah, quite difficult to critic because several books just have same, similar argument, that makes me confused for critic because I feel if many single arguments its true, but according to me not true. If that's one article or two articles, but may articles similar I am not sure....Critical analysis is more difficult than criticising someone. (Yanti9: 54-69)

These comments reflect much of the literature described in Chapters 2 where one of the main difficulties identified for some Asian, and in this case Indonesian students, was developing and practising critical skills (Ballard & Clanchy, 1988; Biggs, 1997; Chalmers & Volet, 1997; Hasanah, 1997; Kennedy, 1995; Pearson & Beasley, 1996). In a study by Felix and Lawson (1994) at nearby Flinders University it was reported that overseas students seem to have "inadequate proficiency in English particularly in terms of grammar and expression, to poor structuring of ideas and to the lack of a logical argument based on critical analysis of the literature" (p. 60). Having said this, I was astounded to note that from 26 interviews with supervisors only three used terms such as 'critical analysis' or 'critical thinking' "there is also the development of their critical thinking—have them always questioning and asking what it is all about" (Supervisor50: 77-78).

However, on a careful analysis and 'reading between the lines' it appears that supervisors are assuming these skills under a range of different terms such as 'culture', 'theoretical perspective,' 'our requirements,' 'research ethos,' and 'ability.' For example:

I guess in my experience that the overseas students come with a more theoretical deficiency. The local students seem to come at a higher level. One of the things I try to do with the overseas students more so than English-speaking Westerners is to point them in the direction of references which I think are relevant to getting them started. I have done that much more so with the overseas students. I try to get them to get the theoretical background to the area they are working with. (Supervisor31: 161-168)

Another supervisor, very experienced in supervising Indonesian students, suggested that one of her main concerns was:

The way in which they are able to adapt to our requirements and meet our requirements. I didn't have anything to do with the selection of [the students]....It is always a slight worry, especially when they are students you didn't select and you don't know too much about their background. You know you're taking on something. It's always a serious commitment whoever you take on, [especially] if you don't know their background. (Supervisor24: 182-194)

In the following quote it is relatively easy to interpret 'research ethos' as *the* Western research ethos encouraged by the University. *"What gives you greatest satisfaction as a supervisor, specially of overseas students? Helping students to acquire research ethos and also sharing in their joy when they have a break-though"* (Supervisor54: 84-87).

Why there is such a lack of explicit comment from the 26 supervisors involved, despite the considerable emphasis in the literature, is surprising; however, I propose that it is for the following four reasons. The *first* is that virtually every one of these supervisors was concerned about their students' personal and emotional well-being. Words such as 'encouragement,' 'understanding,' and 'support' were very frequently used and so it is possible that the personal aspects of supervising students were foremost in the interviewees' minds. The *second* is that the need for a critical approach was assumed and implied in the other terms suggested above. The *third* is that the critical approach had been addressed successfully in the students' Integrated Bridging Programs and so supervisors felt that students were already aware of this issue and the *fourth* is that in terms of concerns and issues, there were others that were more important to the supervisors interviewed. For the University of Adelaide which considers itself one of Australia's foremost research institutions, this is an interesting finding and one which merits further investigation.

Listening and Reading

While listening had been one of the greatest difficulties in the first few months after the students' arrival in Adelaide it was rarely mentioned after that time. To an extent, reading was similar. Reading the actual text was not a significant difficulty once students became used to the amount of reading they had to do, had worked out strategies for noting the main points and had become accustomed to using the library for research. Reading critically, however, remained a problem for some throughout most of their candidature:

> Most of the text books in Indonesia were in English so the language was not the problem, if there was difficulty with reading. I use a dictionary. I think I am still working out to read critically. I have to understand first and then decide if I agree. I am starting to do that now. Before I thought that reading the text book, the text book was right, but here I have to ask whether the text book or journal might be wrong. I find this difficult. (Sugik9: 54-61)

Speaking

Speaking was certainly a difficulty for students early in their candidature, particularly in terms of socialising with Australian students and participating in group work, seminars and tutorials. Lena suggested that one of the difficulties was asking questions in tutorials or seminars because often the lecturer or others misunderstood the question. She suggested that it was possible to tell this from either the look on their face or their response. Lena, as with most other students, was quite intrigued by the fact that she found that the English of other international students, even with their quite distinctive accents, easier to understand than that of local students and staff.

There were a number of examples of students making extraordinary efforts to speak in seminars and tutorials as they felt that this was important in not only developing their skills, but also as a way of expressing their ideas:

> I mean, it's a little bit improved—I can get the idea and I can express even though my language still very terrible, but I don't care, I say whatever I feel so I don't care what my language is because I have to—if I want to improve my, if I want to get involve in the seminar and I want to improve my skill, my language and skill I have to speak so. It is difficult but I don't care. Australian student I mean, their ideas their ideas not so, not so special, their opinion is not so special. I mean and also I have some opinion also, so why not. (Rina3: 88-96)

The experiences with improving spoken language varied according to the discipline. In the experimental sciences, for example, students suggested that they did not speak a great deal in the laboratory and so technical spoken English did not improve particularly, although chatting in the tea room assisted with general English.

Probably one of the main difficulties for students in mixing with local Australian students was their speaking:

> I feel more confidence especially if I talk with other people and Australians through telephone. [It's very hard] to express, to express something.
>
> *Do you think your English has improved?*
>
> A little bit. If there is difficulty it is my language, quite often I want to express something but because my English is not good so I have no confident to speak to express exactly.
>
> *Also to express feelings in another language is difficult.*
>
> Yes, communication is a problem. (Beni3: 91-98)

Expressing their feelings was a significant issue for many of the students' candidature:

> Yes, maybe a little bit better now but still not very good. If you speak from your second language, you speak from here [pointing to head] not from your heart. You see, Every time you have to think of the proper words you want to use. (Basu3: 23-26)

Certainly I was very aware of students' increasing ability to express how they felt as the interviews progressed. There was no doubt that some of this came from the development of the relationship over time, but, in re-listening to the taped interviews it is evident that the students became more and more able at describing, in English, how they felt. In addition, I believe that many of the students came to an understanding that it was acceptable for them to say how they felt, particularly if it was negative. After his earlier comment above about not being able to express his feelings, Basu explains below that although he felt, as did more than half the other students, that he had a better understanding of what was appropriate or inappropriate to express:

> I think I feel that I am comfortable enough to be here, but not as comfortable as I am at home. I can say what I want to say and don't have to worry about misinterpretation and things like that and thinking twice about everything I say. Part of that is checking the English and the second part is the cultural background. Whether it is OK to say like this or like that.
>
> *How have you learned what is OK?*
>
> Some by imitation. But once you get on very well with someone you can break the barrier, that you are Australian or Indonesian it doesn't matter. (Basu8: 47-57)

Several of the students commented on the significance of body language. The literature cited in Chapter 2 mentioned that often people operating in a foreign language are more sensitive to nuances in body language and cultural norms than are the local users. Certainly as Koko said:

> I think there was a real problem with the language differences. What happened with me was that once I started to be able to understand what people were really saying and what their body language meant then I started to realise that there were a few problems. (Koko4: 15-19)

Writing

In the May 1997 workshop eight students from Cohorts two and four reported that most of them were struggling with writing and it was the most frequently expressed language concern for students during this phase of their candidature, a concern supported by the literature outlined in Chapter 2 (Barker, Child, Gallois, Jones & Callan, 1991; Cadman, 1997; Cowrie & Addison, 1996; Healy, 1997).

> The content is OK but I have to work on the grammar. [My supervisor] says on the drafts, 'Excellent' and sometimes 'Very good', but sometimes 'Expression?' I think the content is not a problem but it is my English. I have the ideas but I can't get them on paper. And I am trying to be more critical, I want to be like that but my writing is very descriptive. I want to be critical, but I can't. (Yanti11: 47-53)

There were three main aspects to this difficulty: writing grammatically and correctly, writing in a concise and clearly structured manner, and avoiding plagiarism:

> Language, even when it is grammatically correct, it is difficult to write in the style because we are so influenced by our culture. But it is different when you write in English and write in Indonesian. I found that here the writing style and then what I found it is different because when you write something it should be our voice in the writing and using conjunction words like however and therefore, but it doesn't exist in Indonesian like this. (Dewi7: 19-28)

With regard to the first concern, that is writing 'correctly', the biggest problem here for students was that it took them so long to write anything as they needed to keep checking and double-checking their expression. While there was ongoing support for students in their writing through the Advisory Centre for University Education (ACUE), once they had completed the IBP this assistance was limited in time and extent. Also, students needed time to be able to make an appointment and then take the comments and rewrite work. Students also commented that in Indonesia they were not used to having to write several drafts of their work prior to submission to a supervisor or lecturer. Many of them were quite surprised that I often prepared many early drafts of writing. Even though students had access to editorial assistance for their final thesis (through funding by AusAID) they were aware that it was important that the expression not be misleading:

> It is hard work to make the good writing as well as the logical argument. Even if I give the work to an editor I realise that she or he might have difficulty understanding what it is I am trying to say and what I mean. (Edi12: 11-14)

Certainly from supervisors' comments and those of students, one of the greatest difficulties was students' English writing skills.:

> I must say, that unlike other supervisors I put a lot more work into helping them write. I might write a whole page or a whole section and show them how to do it. Crossing words out and showing them what I go through. Also, I try to write their research up as they go along. People will say that I might spoon-feed my students and they may be right but I have a lot of data that has to come out of that lab and it can't sit round and wait.

> When a student has enough data to write a paper I ask the student to bring me a folder with all their data, their methodology, references, materials used, how they've done it, their results and interpretations and the point they want covered and then I take that and write the paper. Then they take it and comment. If they just correct typos then I send it back and get them to go through it critically and they are able to see how a paper looks. Then we are able to publish it and also I give it to them on disk so they can include it in their thesis. I don't want them to have to rewrite it. Then they have to write the introduction etc and then get others in the lab to check for typos etc, because they know I get crotchety with typos etc. I don't want to be a proof reader. So I probably help my students a lot more than some of the other supervisors. (Supervisor50: 131-157)

This supervisor went on to talk about teaching his students how to do research. "I know teaching is a bit old of an unfashionable expression" (173-174) but he had learned from his own supervisor how important it was to be shown how to write a scientific paper and so he built writing exercises into laboratory meetings and departmental presentations. A few other supervisors also adopted pragmatic approaches to their students' writing with one requiring students to bring their week's work on disk so that it could be corrected at the time of reading and then be in a state for the final thesis when collated. Others tended to respond to students' work and while providing some assistance expecting them to seek help elsewhere to improve their written work:

> I think English will always be my problem for the rest of my life because it's very difficult...although it's better and better. When you spend a lot of time working in the lab your English does not improve. I think [main problem] it's written English because spoken my supervisor can understand me. The communication when written sometimes, when I write...he wants to talk to me [about it]. (Ismanto5: 41-48)

The third alternative adopted by some supervisors was to ask the student to take the work elsewhere, either to other students or to staff of the ACUE, prior to handing it in for reading.

The second writing-related concern was one that was mentioned several times in Chapter 2 and again in Chapter 7, and that is the construction and overall structure of written work with which students needed to come to terms:

> IBP helped with English. I think I can say in Indonesia it is not, we didn't have any lesson to write in science that style of writing, so what we wrote, just general. No[t] style, just the content, but mostly maybe the style very broad....Sometimes we put so much content in one paragraph it is not like here, we have one idea in one paragraph. (Sugik4: 49-55)

While Lena thought that it might be boring to write in the short, concise sentences required in Australia at least the lecturer could understand what the student was trying to say, compared with the much more complex sentence structure adopted in Indonesia. Iwan suggested that there were two reasons for his difficulty in writing in the way that his supervisor required, culture and lack of experience:

> I found it very difficult to write. Very difficult to write. The main cause [of the difficulty] is [the] kind of writing in Indonesia, not concise. In Indonesia we do not [go] directly go to the topic and here I find it difficult to find the style. In Indonesia some like that give task for writing, but in Indonesian style. It is cultural, but this is one cause and another is lack of experience. (Iwan9: 204-210)

The third writing issue for some students was plagiarism. This issue is closely linked with reading and writing critically and the need to reproduce the style that academic staff at the University were suggesting was acceptable. Students needed models of what they were aiming for in this new style of writing but as Iwan describes this poses a dilemma for students:

> Yes I don't know exactly....I think that one sometimes difficult to write because I have to write for my final report I have started. But because I look at some report, a model, the problem [is] if I follow this one it means I can make a copy what's it called?
>
> *Plagiarise?*
>
> I don't want to make that. I want to make it myself but the problems when I make it myself, very long, that's the problem. Because I have to think Indonesian and then translate. (Iwan4: 60-69)

Despite the many difficulties described above, most students were very aware of their improved language skills by the end of candidature. This is not to say that they found it easy and most needed significant editorial assistance prior to submitting their research for examination. English language and critical skills were two of the top four issues and concerns raised by most students in most interviews. (The others were the issue of completion and negotiating a relationship with their supervisor.) While the main concern in the early interviews was speaking and/or listening, this quickly changed early in phase two to writing and a critical approach to research.

Most felt that the IBP was very helpful in developing skills with sentence structure and overall structure of written work but most were still struggling with grammar and appropriate expression at the end of candidature. Supervisors commented on the time and patience required to work with students on their final drafts with regard to grammar and expression:

> You have to accept that with an overseas student there is probably twice as much time involved than with a local student. Also, when reading the final thesis, incredible patience is needed to correct all the small things, especially overseas students. (Supervisor57: 126-130)

Editorial assistance through AusAID funding went some way to assisting but writing remained a particular difficulty. The notion of an overseas (non-English speaking) student taking about double the supervisor's time compared with local students was very common among the supervisors interviewed.

Most students considered that their critical skills had developed significantly, although as Chapter 9 will indicate, some students were concerned at how they might utilise or adapt these skills on their return to Indonesia. Having said in Chapter 7 that in the first six months that supervisors were not rated as a major source of academic support, this certainly changed during candidature as outlined below.

Supervision Issues

The information from students indicates that there appears to be two 'peaks' in supervisor support. The first was about the beginning of the second year for PhD students when they had settled, addressed much of the literature for their topic and were commencing either the experimental or data collecting stage of their research. Once students had developed the skills they needed for this stage and were starting to feel confident about their ability to manage, then they seemed less reliant on their supervisor, other than for regular meetings to check that they were still on track. The next peak was toward the end of candidature when students were writing up their thesis and needed intensive input both of an academic as well as personal nature. As the literature suggests, these peaks are not uncommon in all students (Christopherson et al., n.d.).

In interview three, that is nine months after being in Adelaide, students described their supervisor in a range of ways, but in virtually all cases, positively. The most common descriptors were, 'helpful' (33%), 'good' (29%), 'busy' (24%) and 'encouraging' (14%) "she is helpful and she encourages me" (Rina3: 50) and "he is good but because he is important [a professor] he is very busy and he is very difficult to get in touch with" (Dewi3: 72-74).

'Busy' was generally linked with another descriptor such as 'helpful...but busy.' The notion of 'busy' was discussed in Chapter 7 and the above reflects the students' view that busy and

important, and therefore respect, go 'hand-in-hand.' 'Busy' could be both a positive descriptor "He is busy [therefore he is important.]" and a negative one "He is busy [and therefore does not have time to help me]." Three students described their supervisor in terms of his intellectual ability "[he] is an expert in his field and so I respect that" (Rani3: 66), and one student was not sure "I don't know, but maybe he wants us to know because we find out for ourselves and so he doesn't give us the information" (Purwanto3: 57-58).

However, later in their candidature students were describing their supervisor in different ways. Eighty percent of students (not including the MBA students) reported that half-way through their candidature they had a sense of direction with their research and 'knew where they were going.' (This figure compares favourably with the results of the study reported in Chapter 4 and in Kiley (1996) which indicated that 73% of science students 'knew how they were going' and 50% of social science students with 10% and 37.3% respectively 'hoping that they did.')

Of these 80% of students, 73% reported that it was through discussions with, or comments from, their supervisor that led them to feel confident that they were 'on-track:'

> It's getting there and I am feeling a bit more confident. Especially after working with the new supervisor. He is a bit more like [the first supervisor]. Quite helpful in many ways. And he gives me a sense of direction. He suggest me to, I mean ahh when he wants to emphasise one particular thing he directs me to the books, I mean references and that is quite helpful. (Jono6: 26-31)

Of the other 7% of students it was generally because of the success of their experiments or a research plan that they had drawn up that they knew they were progressing appropriately:

> It [my research] goes well.
> *It's on track? So far no real problems?*
> So far, no. Yes on track and its goes like I make schedule.
> *No major problems right now?*
> No. So far no, it's wonderful. Maybe because my experience [research] is not too much risk like biotechnology, something like that. My area more reliable, yes.
> *When you said you set up a plan, a schedule was that your idea?*
> Much more my supervisor. (Badri6: 13-24)

For the 20% (*n*=6) of students who reported half-way through candidature that they were not 'on-track', this was for several reasons. One student suggested it was because she had developed a poor research plan at the start. Another reported that it was because she had several

changes of supervisor. A third thought it was because of Fasting Month and that she had not been able to work effectively and the fourth reported that the problem was with lack of operational equipment. The fifth student, who had been having difficulty with his supervisors from early in candidature, considered it was because his supervisors were not knowledgeable in his area of research and were not supportive of the direction he was taking.

Five students (Rina, Watie, Siti, Purwanto and Basu) reported having had comments made on their work that they considered negative or depressing:

> Lately not really but last year I was so depressed. He [was] speaking sometimes very hard, every time my writing very bad and he just give very bad comments 'Is this a new word or something?' But I understand him so it's all right....Oh sometimes he did [encourage me] but he told me before that his supervisors did the same thing and if we feel very bad then we will find the solution harder [work harder to find the solution]. Sometimes he just cross out a whole page of work. I'm used to him. Of course in the first semester I was so depressed but... (Siti6: 80-89)

All of the other students (*n*=24) reported that their supervisors were generally very encouraging. Nevertheless, four of the students had observed how friends or others in their department were supervised and thought they would have liked a similar approach from their supervisor (Fatimah, Basu, Purwanto and Iem). This generally involved perceived differences in the regularity of meetings and/or availability of the supervisor. Koko had one unpleasant experience with Intellectual Property. He was concerned that his supervisor was taking Koko's ideas and then getting other students to develop them under their own name. However, under no circumstances did he want to take this issue further.

Student and Supervisor Meetings

Chapter 7 outlined supervisors' and students' expectations on meetings during candidature. However, the practice was slightly different. Three main arrangements were in evidence. The *first* was the regular weekly or fortnightly meeting, generally, although not always, held at the same time each week "once a week, every Tuesday at 10.00" (Supervisor27: 87). Fifty-four percent of students and supervisors met this way.

The *second* alternative was the regular weekly or fortnightly lab meeting which was sometimes, although not always, supplemented with individual meetings as needed. Twenty five percent of meetings were of this type "I don't blame my supervisor, but he has so many time spending

doing other things, but he has something else to do, so I can't ask...but we discuss once a week in lab meetings" (Sugik5: 45-47).

The *third* alternative tended to be the 'as needed' meeting, generally based on when students felt they needed to meet with their supervisor. This arrangement was the one most open to criticism from the 21% of students for whom this was the case. There were two reasons for this arrangement posing problems. Firstly this option was often the choice of supervisors who were very busy and who often did a lot of travelling and so the 'as need' might have to wait until the supervisor returned. The second was that often these students found it very difficult to 'intrude' on 'busy' supervisors or to make a time to talk about problems. Hence they might only make a time when they had a positive outcome to share, rather than perhaps when they really needed to, when they were facing an obstacle, or not at all. Supervisors who had regular meetings with their students often commented on the benefit of ensuring that the student kept in touch, even if there was little or nothing to show for the week or fortnight.

Several of the students had developed mechanisms for making sure they got the greatest benefit from their meetings. For example Buharto stated "I always come up with an agenda for our meetings and plan ahead" (Buharto4: 107). There was no doubt from the students' comments that those who had regular meetings, at least in the first twelve months and often longer, were the ones who were more likely to report feeling more confident on their progress. The students who were on the 'as need' basis were the ones who were more likely to express the greatest anxiety.

Student and Supervisor Relationships

As with the other forms of stress discussed in this chapter there were two sides to the stress brought about by the supervisory relationship. On the one hand most supervisors generally reassured their students that there was no need to worry and that their research was progressing well. Where there were difficulties most of them seemed to stem from misunderstanding on one side or the other as we can see from Koko's comments:

> But one problem was that I wasn't introduced to the computer lab which was downstairs. [My supervisor] had told me that I could use his computer but I had to try to use it while he wasn't there. He tried not to show it that he wasn't happy that I was at his computer when he came back from tea or whatever he was doing. But finally he exploded. Then he told another student that I was using his computer and the student asked me why I wasn't using the computer lab...If only

they had gone through all those important things, it would have saved a lot of upset and misunderstanding. (Koko6: 32-41)

Stress was also caused by students' concern about making a mistake or being wrong in the eyes of their supervisor. This was for two main reasons. The first was that students realised that their supervisor was in a position to recommend the termination of their candidature, either directly to the University or through regular reports to AusAID. The second was that students generally saw their supervisor as someone who was to be respected for both her/his position as well as knowledge and experience. This resulted in the concern described in Chapter 7 about not going to their supervisor with problems and questions. This concern about appearing to not be coping was exacerbated by previous experience in Indonesia, as Ismanto described:

> For a professor in an Indonesian university probably they only spend five or six hours a week there and so it is very difficult to meet him and then he would tell me what to do, rather than suggest things. If I ask too many questions he might think that I am not very smart if I ask all those questions. (Ismanto4: 80-85)

This concern remained for many throughout candidature although a few students managed to develop a relationship with their supervisor which allowed them to be more open and trusting. Ismanto managed to go against his strong Javanese tradition and eventually said 'No' to his supervisor on a matter regarding experimentation. He did this after he realised that the local students were doing so without any dire consequences. It would be enlightening to conduct parallel research with supervisors to determine the changes in understanding they had of their students over a period of several years.

Over half of the students in the study reported that their relationship with their supervisor developed into a more personal one over time. However, at no time did this seem to imply a lack of respect for the supervisor and her/his role and seniority. Some of this personal relationship developed as students found that they needed to talk to their supervisor about family matters, for example needing to be away for several days because of a sick child, or needing to return to Indonesia for family matters. It was also a function of understanding that it was acceptable to talk with one's supervisor about personal issues as we will see demonstrated in the case study of Witra in Chapter 10.

While there were several cases of students seeking second supervisors, generally to cover a particular methodological aspect in the social sciences or a technique in the sciences, there was

only one case of a student changing supervisor due to inter-personal difficulty. Two students, not by choice, had four supervisors in under two years due to staff changes. The students found this very disruptive, however, they managed to work well with three of the four supervisors.

Administrative and Day-to-day Issues

Other than the issues discussed elsewhere regarding family responsibilities and pressures of time, virtually all of the students found that their day-to-day life was relatively easy in Adelaide. There were few difficulties with accommodation although some students moved a number of times. Students moved into different types of accommodation, sometimes for the experience of living in different environments, others because they were joined by family and needed more space and others because they wanted more independence than they had in residential accommodation. Only three students actually reported real problems. The first was difficulty described by Rani in Chapter 7 with other Indonesian students sharing the same house. The other students were coursework students who had quite specific deadlines for their work, whereas Rani was a research student and so had less obvious deadlines. As a result, the other students tended to expect her to do more of the child care or household tasks because she did not 'look' as busy. In addition Rani had the difficulty of not being seen to be critical:

> Because [in Indonesia] we demand nice behaviour, you know, but it's very hard Margaret to behave nice while so painful inside, it's so hard.
>
> *And you've been taught to do that?*
>
> And particularly for Javanese, because I was brought up in environment of Javanese culture. Yes, we have to even if we don't like somebody, suppose I really don't like you very much and I hate whenever I see you but I still behave as I like you.
>
> *That would be so hard.*
>
> Yeah, I think it's mostly ridiculous, yeah really and I can't do this, I am a high temper person who if I don't like it, I say I don't like this, and if I like it yeah, I say that I like this, but my background was from yeah from this [Javanese upbringing]. (Rani8: 127-139)

Igun experienced two difficulties with accommodation. The first was when he moved into residential accommodation when his previous flat-mate's family arrived. He had moved to the Royal Adelaide Hospital accommodation but he found this was not comfortable and so he shared with another Indonesian student, but he found this situation to be very stressful and again he needed to move:

"I have move to Goodwood now, the first unit I lived in...Road with [a friend] and [then] I moved to RAH Residence—I stayed there about 8 weeks after that I moved to Goodwood, sharing with my friend but it's not convenient for me you know, we sharing three people for one room and then I...

Sorry, three people for one house, you have a bedroom each?

Yes, yes, I got one room for two person

Oh you're sharing a bedroom?

Yes. I think we couldn't study well and then I want to move to another apartment. You know that another person is not familiar [friendly] with me and when I move to there not is my desire because my friend tell me to share with them to stay in their house, maybe today I looking for house....I am looking for someone want to share with. think Indonesian or some people....You know RAH is very crowded you know, one kitchen for too many people so if I want to cook or something in the kitchen, too many people from India or China, it make me conscious of where I have to cook. And also the toilet, one toilet for three or four. I think it's not good, it's not cheaper $70 for one week, if I sharing with my friend I think at least $45 or $40 but it is one advantage if I stay at RAH we don't have to pay for transportation or something. (Igun5: 3-30)

The third difficulty was experienced by Yanti who had been in Homestay, but through a culturally-based misunderstanding related to age and respect, she felt she had to move. Other than these examples, most students seemed reasonably happy with their accommodation.

Most were able to shop for Indonesian and *halal* food without too much difficulty and, again once they had overcome their initial difficulties with cooking and other household tasks, this seemed not to pose particular problems. Transport and day-to-day administrative matters such as banking and bill-paying were considered very easy compared with home.

Students' financial situations were described in Chapter 7, although for the 21 students still in Australia after the crisis in May 1998, their financial situation changed considerably. The three students on Indonesian Government scholarships went through a period of considerable worry while they waited to hear what was going to happen. The most obvious at the time was that given the Rupiah[3] was worth about one third what it had been when the scholarships had been provided the students' candidature would be cut accordingly. However, in each case the situation was resolved satisfactorily.

For all 21 students the crisis added an additional financial pressure to their sojourn. Most of the students had expected to be able to save enough money to cover the initial loss of salary on

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3   For example, despite the improvement in the exchange rate in 1999, the rate on 8.8.97 was Rp1918 to the Australian dollar whereas on 23.3.99 is it Rp6324.

return while they waited to be reinstated to their full-salary. Many were also anticipating being able to save enough to buy a car or other transportation on their return or to make house renovations and the like. However, with the crisis, there was an urgency to save whatever could be put aside to assist in the difficult time ahead for them and their families in Indonesia. Despite these difficulties, by the end of their candidature students generally reported that they had enjoyed living in Adelaide and that its small size made it easy to live in and relatively safe, pollution-free and comfortable.

Personal and Emotional Issues

While there were significant differences in the levels and intensity of homesickness experienced by students early in their sojourn, all but one found that after being in Australia for twelve months or more they coped well with being away from home.

Single Students

Most single students went home for a visit after twelve or eighteen months or had parents or siblings visit them in Australia. While they initially found it difficult to leave family after a visit, all of them reported that it was much easier to return in Australia compared with the first time:

> [My visit home was] oh great, great, yeah actually because I was very I missed my family so much last year so it was I come home I had a good time I really enjoyed it.
>
> *Were you able to have Puasa and Hari Raya?*
>
> Yeah...and the traditional meal, chicken curry...
>
> *Has it been harder for you to come back now or easier now that you have been home?*
>
> Easier actually, easier than last year, but because I know this year more harder than, more harder in terms of you know the academic because I have at least two subject and a special project and I think this more harder thing than I have to do. (Rina4: 7-17)

Lena particularly commented that "to go [home for a break] is a really good idea. I feel much more energetic. Even though I have had some holidays, maybe to Sydney, but going home is different. It is very refreshing" (Lena4: 155-158). This is a useful comment to consider when advising students, as many of them had been given to understand that going home for a visit would be too disruptive emotionally and to their English. Admittedly, students reported having

'almost not a word of English' on arrival at Adelaide airport on their return, however, most quickly got back to their previous level of competence.

Single students had developed a range of ways of avoiding feeling too homesick at particular times. These included sleeping, window-shopping, going out with friends. or working long hours, particularly at times of potential stress such as weekends and holidays:

> For New Year I didn't go to a party and so that I wouldn't feel too lonely because I was reminded of my family I went into the lab. When I went home my whole family phoned me and each one of them spoke with me. The trouble was after they had phoned me I felt even more homesick. But I think I am getting better. (Koko5: 8-12)

If they were experiencing difficulties single students tended to phone home and talk with family:

> The first is my family, I always ring them, tell them I got trouble. It's like last week I got sick a little, and then I got my phone in my room and then I always ring to them.
>
> *Is that your mother you talk to?*
>
> My mother, my older sister. They know when I got sick I'm so very quiet, when I got sick and they said 'Don't be quiet.' If I'm OK I tend to be independent but when I got sick... (Rina3: 138-144)

Not all students, however, had the support of their family. Two female students married non-Indonesian and non-Australian husbands during their sojourn and one had hoped to do so. One did not have the approval of her family to marry her non-Muslim boyfriend, however, she went ahead and married him but found the situation with her family emotional very difficult. Another had difficulty but his time not because of her boyfriend's religion (he was Muslim) but he was not Indonesian and her family was concerned that she would not return to Indonesia after her study if she married him. This student abided by her parents' decision, a decision which led to great heart-ache. The third student did, however, have her family's support to marry her non-Indonesian boyfriend and not return to Indonesia. There were no reports of male students marrying during their sojourn. However, single students generally coped well with being in Australia after the first phase. They made friends and despite working long hours several of them had very interesting social lives.

Families in Adelaide

Married students without their family initially faced a dilemma, but one which generally resolved itself over time. On the one hand these students usually missed their family so much that they were unable to concentrate, yet on the other hand they realised that having their family with them would entail responsibilities which would take time away from their study. The situation with Iwan (Chapter 7) trying to delay telling his wife that he was not visiting home before completing candidature or inviting her to join him was changed dramatically by a photograph.

> I prefer [their arrival] end of April or May [in several months time not when they actually came] because last *Lebaran* my wife send me a picture of [my son] I look at one, 14 months he sit in the.....bicycle. After that, after that, I just think buy ticket....The most important it make me very...very...want to meet him because the first I look at the picture in twelve months, so after that if I don't look at the picture I still OK. [It was when I saw the photograph of my 14 month-old son on his bicycle that I realised I could not complete my candidature without my wife and son so I arranged for them to join me immediately.] (Iwan6: 8-14)

A typical case of a male student and his family is Badri. He left his wife, a university graduate in the same discipline as him, and two daughters aged four and two years in Indonesia when he came to Australia. In the first interview he had said that he hoped his family would join him at the end of the year, but this depended on his financial situation. In interview two, he reported that they had not arrived but he planned to organise housing for them and to leave a month after the interview to return home to pick them up:

> My wife feels a bit worried because she can't speak English and she doesn't know the situation here. But she is not too nervous, as long as I can bring her here.
>
> *What will she do when she arrives?*
>
> Maybe she can take an English course and eventually she can at least understand what is being said. She will be OK—some people here will help her. (Badri2: 19-27)

However, Badri was aware that there would be changes to his work schedule, Being 'single' he had been able to work back in the laboratory until quite late each night:

> In my room [lab] I found that all of my colleagues work very hard and so that encourages me to work hard too. There are Australians, Iranian, Indonesian. The Iranian students work very hard, often they do not go home until 9.00 at night so I stay late too.
>
> *What will happen when your wife comes?*

That will be a problem I will have to work that out. Maybe I will change my activities and reduce the work here but try to work at home. I will try to buy a computer so I can work at home. (Badri2: 68-77)

By interview three Badri reported that his family was in Australia: however, he was not able to spend as much time on his research as he had before they arrived:

She [my wife] need adaptation with weather with environment.

Is she finding it difficult?

I don't think so. She can, you know...

And what about your children?

Yes, I am trying to find out the school....Near my flat there is child care centre.

What does your wife do during the day?

Nothing, but we plan that she should take English course....

How has it affected your study?

Right now I can't concentrate work but I after my family settle maybe I can concentrate better. Actually there is some work I have to do now but I can't. (Badri3: 8-21)

Badri had the support and understanding of his supervisor regarding his family "I think he is nice man. Both informal and informal. He is very helpful for me...Nothing a problem with him and he knows that, like now, my problems, I have to get them [sorted out]" (Badri3: 56-57).

Most of the socialising for Badri and his family revolved round other students and their families, particularly those from Indonesia "last weekend we had a barbecue at Mitcham Park—this was from the whole Indonesian group. My wife and children came to that" (Badri3: 154-156).

When asked how his wife was coping eight months after her arrival Badri sounded tentative but reported:

My wife feels comfortable now and my older kid goes to Reception[4] and she's happy....For the first three months she [my wife] wanted to go home...maybe because she felt homesick. Then suddenly change, the environment, something like that.

I think for me there no really [negative] things, but for my wife it is the weather, the cold weather. Probably for me I work here [in air conditioning] but for my wife it is the weather and it affects her condition and then she is sick, something like that. She feels like weak and then dizziness, something like that...I think next year's better, this is the first time. (Badri5: 50-53; 80-86)

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4   First year of junior primary school.

Four months later, that is twelve months after her arrival, he reported:

> *Are they enjoying being in Adelaide? Your wife?*
>
> Not really.
>
> *What does she do during the day?*
>
> Nothing, just sitting at home and then sometimes she goes to city. I think helps to get job.
>
> *Does she have very many friends?*
>
> Yes, other friends, students' wife so they can call a few days and sometimes two hours just talk. Yes but we have no choice, if she goes home, the children they are liking this, they feel all right here. (Badri6: 2-11)

Badri reported, as did virtually all the students, that he thought it was much easier being single

when studying overseas yet he would not have been able to cope had his family remained home:

> [A single female student] she is very good maybe because she can concentrate [on her study]....For me, it is different but for [another married student] he feels it is easier without his family. But for me too hard. I worry about my children. I couldn't. (Badri5: 64-70)

However eighteen months after his wife's arrival Badri, with obvious relief, reported:

> They [are] happy now. My wife [is] taking some English course and she enjoy. And my kids are happy.
>
> *That must be helpful to you.*
>
> Yes. Last time [I spoke with you] I was struggling, it was impossible, my wife was not happy. But now it's good, she has made a friend...she has many friends. (Badri7: 12-18)

By the end of Badri's sojourn it appeared that his family felt quite settled, so much so that:

> My wife is good. She is happy to be here now. She told me that it is better to live here—aah [almost with a sigh of despair!]—my kids are happy at school and doing well...
>
> *What's the most significant thing that's happened to you since you have been here?*
>
> I think, aah, for me, it seems for me that is becoming improved something like for example, our daily life, for example, income for example. Yah, I have not worry about money, it is sufficient for us. In terms of income it is better here than [in Indonesia]. But also social life for me is good here. All people respect our privacy something like that, it's good. In some respects I like it....For our children and my wife they are happy here so I feel comfortable with life here. My children have been at school. I think it is important that family [is happy]....I think this is the advantage of student living with family being here. Rather than separate....My wife likes TV, especially sport. My wife likes watching sport very much, especially cricket....She likes and she knows everything about cricket, yeah,

> better than me....She also goes out to friends, especially on weekends we meet our friends. Most of our friends are Indonesian. (Badri8: 14-37)

As this example of Badri, his wife and two daughters indicates, having family has advantages and disadvantages. The concern for the well-being of spouse and children is obvious and often there is little that the student can do to speed-up the settling period, other than spend significant amounts of time at home. This puts an additional burden on the student who is feeling the pressure of completing on time. The disadvantages for female married students were generally even greater in the sense that they had to shoulder a substantial part of the household and child-care tasks in addition to supporting their husband through the initial stages of arrival while continuing their study:

> For married one I think woman maybe like [my friend] she left the husband and children there [in Indonesia] so maybe the mental homesick or something and then if the women like the family. But if she bring [them] here the problem she have to care about the children, care about the husband in spite of study. For a married man with a family here it's easier because the family support him. For a single woman here it's OK, for a married woman with a family, it's really hard. And in terms of women or men who leave their families behind...I think for a man the feeling is not as active [strong] as woman to family. Even though he has chance to bring family here to support him but he has to work because he feel that oh maybe I will be bothered. But I think it's not true because they will support him. So actually man, not, I mean, homesick or care about the family as much as woman, the feeling is different. (Fatimah5: 104-117)

Three of the female students quite explicitly mentioned that they tried hard not to express any irritation to their family for the time they took, as they had asked the family to accompany them and so considered it unfair to blame them for the additional responsibilities.

In an interview with two male students[5] who were also representative of two of the main Indonesian organisations in Adelaide we were able to talk in more general terms about the effect of families on the academic progress and well-being of students:

> I think some of the spouses have felt bored because especially for those who don't have activities like working. English classes are all right but that is only one or two times per week. For those who have children that is OK but sometimes even with children, two of them have told me they are bored....I know of some cases where the wife wants to go home.
>
> You know in Indonesian women culture they like to *ngobrol*,[6] or go to neighbours and talk. This is part of our culture and when they come here they are very

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5   They were also participants in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study.
6   Chat with friends, gossip.

lonely. They can talk with their husband but it is very difficult to find a friend they can talk freely like they do in Indonesia. I have had two or three complaints that every day their wife complains that she is lonely. It is very difficult. (SpecialInt: 103-122)

These two representatives were also aware of considerable difficulties with husbands accompanying their wives:

When the husband accompanies his wife there are many problems. More problems with the men than the women. In Indonesia the husband works outside the house and when he goes home the wife is already there but not here the wife is the student and he must do work that the wife would normally do like child care, prepare meals, because they cannot find a job easily. That poses a lot of problems, but they are still here, they don't go home. Even though it is better in Indonesia they prefer to be here with their wife. The three here on [this] campus they seem to enjoy their time, even though in Indonesia they have lost their job....I lived in a place where I was close to three accompanying husbands and I saw every-day problem. They are fighting, I understand it is very difficult for the husband to stay home. They are not happy. I ask them why they stayed, but they said it was their commitment to their wife and they had to stay here to support her. (SpecialInt: 124-141)

In summary, while most married students in the study thought that it would have been easier to study in Australia if they were single they found it important to family with them. In discussion they commented that while they had been able to put in long hours with their study before family arrived they were aware that probably the quality of their work was probably not high due to concern and worry about their family back in Indonesia. However, this study supported by the work of Wimberley (1992), indicates that the presence of family assists students positively with their academic success and general well-being.

Married Students without Family

Four of the 21 students with spouse/partner completed their studies of up to two years without their family joining them, although all four had returned home for brief visits and some had various family members visit them in Australia for up to a week. The two representatives of the student associations from their experience of knowing virtually all of the Indonesian students studying at the University, were in accord with all other students when they commented that single students seemed to be able to settle well once they had a few friends:

But for married students who have their family at home [in Indonesia], still they are not so settled. Even though their experiments are going OK. Psychologically they don't seem settled. They don't like to come to gatherings they say they feel

lonely if they attend the gathering. They seem to keep distance from us. Not many, but some of them like that. (SpecialInt: 154-160)

Certainly the few students who were without family for the length of their candidature faced considerable difficulty although being in a routine and working long hours helped. Friends were essential to these students and were often commented upon during the interviews. Each managed at least one visit home during their sojourn although returning to Australia after a visit was not easy, and in one case the student suggested that it was more difficult to come back to Australia after a visit home to his wife and children. This student also reported missing his family almost as much toward the end of his sojourn as he had earlier on.

The issue of married students having other partners while in Australia, whether their family was with them or not, was a difficult one to broach, although I was able to talk with a few of the students I knew well. On the one hand, some suggested that there was the situation where it was acceptable for Muslim men to have more than one wife and so some of the students thought the issue of infidelity for men was not such an issue. Having said that, the students who commented only ever talked about 'having heard about someone' and all were reticent to speak about the topic in any greater detail. One supervisor who had been working with Indonesian students for several years understood that there was a lot of gossip among the students regarding students' relationships, including gossip which had returned to Indonesia. Students, however, reported that it was very rare for marriages to break up whilst on scholarship in Australia, although some had 'heard' of one or two.

When asked whether they thought there was a difference between the experiences of male and female Indonesian students studying in Australia the response was an almost a unanimous 'No.' This compares strikingly with the answer to the question 'Is there a difference between married and single students studying in Australia?' Again the response was unanimous with a definite 'Being single is much easier' [my paraphrase].

> I think it is difficult if you bring your family here because you can't spend so much time on studying. And if you leave your family in Indonesia you can't concentrate. That is why I decided to study before I got married. Although I have a girl friend I haven't given serious thought to getting married yet. (Yanto5: 70-75)

However, if one were married, all female students, whether they were single or married and several male students, suggested that the most difficult situation was to be a married female student with family.

Children

Most children settled very quickly and happily and there were no reports of children having particular difficulties, just parents having difficulties with their children! Not surprisingly students with young children found that they were more demanding of time than were older children, for example, sleepless nights, child care and pre-school arrangements, an experience supported by the work of Lewins (1990). Most children learned English irritatingly easily as far as their parents were concerned and it was not unusual for students to report that their English was being corrected by their five year old children.

Having said that, there appears to have been only one notable problem that Antonius raised:

> I bring my family to here it's become problem, one person came here one problem, if three, then three is three problem, yeah. But more important thing is if my children is 14 years old, they want to be free here, more democracy.
>
> *So do you think your children are changing, becoming more Australian?*
>
> Yeah.
>
> *Is that a good thing or a bad thing?*
>
> Yeah, it's good thing, he can cope better. They, they don't feel stressed but for me...
>
> *What will happen when your children go back to Indonesia and go to an Indonesian school, they will find it difficult?*
>
> Yeah, in here they are on different program, in Indonesia we have a lot of subjects [at school].
>
> *Do you think your children will find it hard to go to Indonesia where they can't be so democratic?*
>
> Yes, especially for spend money. He knows I get salary from Indonesia and my salary here, he says 'Oh next week you have money, you should buy that, buy that, buy that—all that expensive you should promise to me.' It's difficult for me if I don't buy something that he wants.
>
> *What sorts of things do they want you to buy?*
>
> Like CD, record, mega drive, if I do not buy that he becomes stressed, upset with me, my son.
>
> *What about your daughter?*
>
> She is also democracy [democratic]. I tried to use what you call, psychology, the mother ['s] attitude not so different to mine. My daughter I learn [teach] slowly.

What about your wife?

I tried to teach her slowly that she can [use psychology], I am not angry man but I try to change her attitude because you know that in West Sumatra, they have a democracy for Minang that she can be with me but for me it's not so good. If I say to my wife, if you don't want something to me, talk softly, not be shouting. [I have been trying to teach my wife that if she doesn't like something I do, not to shout, but to speak softly.]

Do you think she has found it difficult to live in Australia?

No.

She enjoys it?

Yes. In Jakarta we argue more, because we have different experiences, I try to, if I very angry, is very difficult, she says 'I want to go home.' Yeah, is difficult, in West Sumatra she can talk about that, the meaning of going home is she can leave....(Antonius6a: 103-200)

While Antonius was the only student to raise such a problem, all of the married students with children were very conscious of the different way that their children were being taught at school compared with Indonesia and the difficulty they might have on their return:

> Besides English...they are very brave [confident] to say things, to ask questions to express their creativity. I think that is the basis that junior primary school [in Australia] want to educate the children. They don't worry about advanced maths, like we are concerned about at home, I can see now from my son's behaviour he is very brave. I think for most of us, sometimes annoying for us too as Indonesian parents, but we just see it as good. Before I brought my son here I thought my son would always be shy, but now he has self-confidence. That is a big advantage. I don't worry about maths I think we can teach him for six months or a year. I think most of the other students feel the same way. (SpecialInt:183-194)

All students with children considered that the experience of being in Australia would be beneficial for them and they were concerned to find ways of maintaining this benefit on return. A useful research project would be to follow up the children who accompanied their parents while studying in Australia some time after their return to see whether, and if so in what ways, they were different from their peers. It would be particularly useful from the Australian Government's point of view to determine whether these children were more likely to study overseas as undergraduate or postgraduate students, providing in a sense, a double-return on the original scholarship investment.

Personal Stress and Worry

Students experienced personal stress and upheaval and they talked about it in a number of ways. Essential in assisting with overcoming stress are a "social system's contribution to dealing with

stress through family support, the mere presence of others, religiosity, spiritualism, moral and ethical values, and support groups and hot lines to others who share or who have experienced the same event or stress" (Trumbull (1986) cited in Edmond, 1992, p. 3).

I was particularly interested in asking the students how they expressed their stress in Indonesia as an indicator of how they might exhibit stress in Australia. Most were conscious of the differences in the way that Australians showed that they were stressed or upset. The majority of students reported that when they were stressed, upset, angry or worried they became very quiet. Many reported that they withdrew and that the one way family and friends would know that they were upset was because they were particularly quiet. This was in stark contrast to their experiences with Australians who were generally much more prepared to make their feelings known! "I don't say anything even though I get upset....But when I get upset I am usually just very quiet. It's not the Javanese [only] way but the Minangkabau way" (Dian4: 143-166).

A few students, all non-Javanese, commented that they expressed their stress and worry more openly than did Javanese students although still far less obviously than their Australian peers:

> I always talk to friends, I don't keep inside. But if am upset with my work I talk to someone, but at home I sometimes slam the door. It is quite different in the western part of Indonesia. Javanese, Sumatran are different ...Javanese keep inside. At home at my university my [Sumatran] boss, if I upset I talk to him. Sometime we argue. I think Sumatrans are more expressive than Javanese. With my [Javanese] wife, sometime it is hard for me to know if she is OK or not. (Sugik3: 142-149)

Personal stress experienced by students was generally related to family, homesickness, lack of friends, racism (discussed below), and the personal matters outlined above. In addition, levels of stress and concern for family in Indonesia escalated from May 1998 with the crisis in Indonesia:

> In Indonesia they are OK. Except I worry about my family over there because it is very dangerous. Many crime there. Recently there are many crimes. My father always, at night, goes to the Mosque every night sometimes I worry. (Yanti11: 12-16)

The Chinese students in particular were very concerned for the welfare of their family:

> I call my Mum nearly every weekend, but I now call my sister as well because I just want to know how they are. Still little things going on in their area. Most of my family in Surabaya, and I've got two sisters living in West Java, Bandung and I got two sisters living in [my home town] and my parents as well. No one in Jakarta.

But it seems now that Jakarta is not the worst, but I think that it is now in the small cities.

Did you notice any changes when you went back for a visit?

Oh, big change. It's not much change in term of, the change of situation, it's like its not as crowded like before. There's not much traffic jam like before, which indicates you very very clearly the economic situation very well.

If you go to big cities it's not much different you can find everything you want, it's just the price gone up. Yeah, definitely quieter than before because the economic doesn't really recover very well. The crime is also, the crime rate's getting higher. That's why I'm really worried. I say to my family don't go out, because I hear a lot of terrible stories. Like someone with a jacket and some see that this guy having the blood just dripping from his pocket and so they report it to the police and they take him to the police station and the police found out that this guy actually has a cut-off hand in his pocket full of jewellery. Can you imagine that! Is that what your hand's worth. That's why I am very worried. That's why I say to my nephew and niece don't go out unless you really have to. And I tell my sisters and my brother don't wear anything [expensive]. (Kintan8: 108-140)

What do these ways of expressing stress, worry and concern mean for students studying in Australia? The most obvious is that the Australians, with whom they are working or developing friendships, are unlikely to be aware of the levels of anxiety, worry and even anger that many students might be experiencing at times. This is a further contributing factor to be discussed earlier in this chapter where the students reported great difficulty in criticising someone else in a manner that most Australians would detect, yet not take offence at. As a result, the concerns besetting the students were likely to have gone unnoticed.

Health

Berry (1994) suggests that one of the results of acculturative stress is reduced health—physical, social and psychological— the others being lowered levels of motivation, sense of alienation, and increased social deviance. However, on the whole students were very healthy during their sojourn. In fact students were often quite surprised at their own good health "my health has been good. It's amazing, it's quite OK. The only thing is I get headaches from sitting up so late—until 3.00 am for my study. I get very involved and forget the time!" (Rina5: 93-95), and "lucky me—thanks from God that my health is OK. Just my mental health is not good, but physical is OK. But whenever I remember keep healthy. I sleep about 6 hours every night" (Fatimah5: 89-93).

The nurse in the University's health service had suggested that it was generally the undergraduate international students they saw for stress-related illness rather than postgraduates and on the whole they did not see many of the Indonesian students. However, there were four cases of stress-induced illness reported in Phase Two. Watie explained that "I have the flu and I take a lot of tablet like Panadol and some Stop Cold from Indonesia. I think I get sick because I am under stress and I don't always eat well and look after myself" (Watie5: 77-79). The most serious case of stress-related illness was Koko who was advised by his Head of Department to return home for a break, which he did. On his return to Adelaide he was feeling considerably better and changes were made to his supervision arrangements. As a result his overall well-being seemed to improve significantly. Those who experienced colds, flu, headaches and the like usually put it down to the weather, working hard or Fasting Month. (Amina5: 63-65; Koko5: 94; Watie4: 7-14; Jono3: 161-162; Iem3: 36; Iwan3: 74; Arief3: 34; and Antonius3: 153-154) "I was OK but now it is winter I have problem with Chilblains from the cold. The doctor couldn't help, but I wear thick socks to keep warm" (Tini5: 101-103). Families with children seemed to experience the general range of childhood illnesses, glue ear, infections, chickenpox, measles, teeth problems and the like (Sugik5: 63; Amina8: 3-8; Iwan7: 30; Rani3: 108).

Most students were reasonably pleased with the medical service they received although they were unused to making appointments and having to wait a day or two to see a doctor. Also unlike Indonesia, it took some time for students to become accustomed to having to seek prescriptions from a medical doctor for many of the antibiotics and other medications that are usually available across the counter in pharmacies in Indonesia. However, Rani was outraged at the treatment she received when she had tests at the hospital:

> When I was in hospital the doctor there underestimated my intelligence and I reported it to the University doctor Dr…and I told him that I didn't want to go back to the hospital doctor because he told me that I wouldn't understand any medical terms because I wasn't an English speaker. And I told him that I understood everything he said. Dr…said that I could write a letter to the Director of the RAH [Royal Adelaide Hospital] but I decided not to do that, but at least I told Dr…and he was able to help me. (Rani3: 209-218)

Three students (Purwanto, Badri and Sugik) reported that their wives had experienced ill health, with two of the three believing that it was to do with homesickness. Two wives gave birth to babies while in Australia accompanying their husbands and three other married students

reported that they were seeking medical advice and/or treatment to have another child. One student returned home to Indonesia for a short visit because her son was sick (Tini4: 7) and three students returned home briefly due to family deaths (Basu, Junaidi, Fatimah).

Despite the above examples, students were generally in very good health and few of them had little more than a few days off during candidature for illness, including family illness. Most said that they were as healthy, if not healthier, in Adelaide than they were in Indonesia.

Friends

As the literature suggests, it is not uncommon for Indonesian students to have only a few, if any, Australian friends by the end of their candidature (Barker et al., 1991; Bradley & Bradley, 1984; Church, 1982; Daroesman & Daroesman, 1992; Everts & Sodjakusumah, 1996; Fisher, 1988; Gardner & Hirst, 1990). As described earlier this was not from a lack of desire from the student to do so. As Witra's case study will show in Chapter 10 she wanted to make friends with Australians, and tried several strategies, but found it difficult.

Students tended to fall into three categories when it came to making friends. The categories follow those of Furnham and Bochner (1986) that is, monocultural, bicultural and multicultural. The *first* group (monocultural) was students who had fellow Indonesians as their main source of friends. I would suggest that there were two main reasons for this. The first is based on my own very subjective assessment of students' spoken English through the regular interviews. It would seem that there was a high correlation between those students who felt their spoken English was not well developed and those who reported having mostly Indonesian friends. The second was where married students had spouses whose English was not well-developed and so it was easier to mix with other Indonesian families as we saw with Badri's family earlier.

The *second* group of students (the bicultural group) were those who tended to have well-developed communication skills, often had one, or no other Indonesian students in the department, might have studied or travelled overseas before, and who took active steps to 'cultivate' Australian friends in an effort to improve their English. The *third* group (the multicultural group) had mostly other international students as friends. These tended to be students who lived in residential accommodation and were generally single. It appeared that the

common experience was for these single students from the same residence to go out for a meal or to some form of entertainment on a weekend and then to develop friendships from there.

As described in Chapter 7, having friends, no matter where they were from, was crucial in assisting students overcome their homesickness and loss of confidence. However, the lack of interaction between Indonesian and local students was mentioned not just by students but by some supervisors "I have to admit, the overseas students and local students don't seem to mix. It is a bit of problem which we haven't addressed fully. I am reluctant to force them to socialise as they are very busy" (Supervisor38: 138-141). The work of Nesdale and Todd (1993) at the University of Western Australia suggests that international students wanted much higher levels of mixing than did local students. "Australian students are relatively satisfied with the status quo [that is low levels of mixing] but international students are not" (p. 200).

Racism

As Chapter 7 suggested, reports of racism increased during the students' sojourn in Australia. It was proposed that this increase in incidents of racism was a function of time as well as the 'Hanson Factor' described in Appendix C (Ramsey, 1997; Sweetman, 1996; Walters, 1997). During the workshop in May 1997, students commented that they felt that since the election of Pauline Hanson there had been increased incidents of unprompted racist comment.

However, during the study thirteen students (39%) reported that they had not experienced explicit racism. Although on a number of occasions students found that it was difficult to be sure whether they had actually experienced racism as Koko said:

> I think I did, but it was not that bad. Even if some of them have those feelings about Asians generally, it is not against me personally. But it is similar in Indonesia where the natives don't like the Chinese. (Koko3: 243-246)

Of the 61% of students who did experience explicit racism these incidents and experiences occurred in a number of locations. Most occurred in the community: in the street, shops, on buses and so on. It was not uncommon, for example, for students to have someone drive past in a car and call out racist insults or throw things at them. Other common experiences were not to be served as quickly when there were a few people at a shop counter, or people not sitting next to them on the bus. One student had bought a car so that his wife would not have to experience the racist treatment that was occurring to her on the bus. These findings were similar to those found

in other studies of international students and racism (Burke, 1989; Hasanah, 1997; McMullen, 1992; Mullins, Quintrell & Hancock, 1995).

Chapter 7 described how Rina responded to the cashier at the supermarket in her first six months, but most students did not take explicit action, other than Jono. After eighteen months of being in Adelaide his level of frustration at being treated in what he considered a racist manner was such that he decided to take action:

> Yes. I reacted in a crazy way. In my area, where I live and I was quite disturbed and I went to the supermarket, there is a new supermarket there, I aah, put aah, I mean I wrote a note on the back of this jacket and I said 'Don't worry Australia, I am an overseas student not an immigrant' and I notice that everyone in the supermarket was looking at me and wondering why a student is behaving in this way.
>
> *Did anyone actually comment?*
>
> No, nobody but they did look at me. I was sick of the way they look. After these incidents [earlier incidents of racism at the bus stop etc] I didn't feel comfortable to get onto the bus, the way people look at me. But I think I will never do that again, it is just a very nasty response, I mean reaction to what happened to me, or desperate. (Jono6: 144-157)

There were incidents of racism on campus, although generally not as many or as intense as those outside. There were no reports of racism from fellow postgraduates; however, there were six comments about undergraduate students being unhelpful or ignoring students. There were also three reports of technical or support staff in departments treating Indonesian students in negative ways or in ways that the students considered they did not do to the local students.

While students did not experience any direct racism from lecturers and supervisors, as noted in Chapter 7 there were some students felt that their departments had racist undertones. For example, Dian reported that three Indonesian students were moved to an office away from the main building during an accommodation reorganisation. What made this particularly obvious was that originally there had been two Indonesians and one Australian in the office. But when the move occurred the Australian was moved to an office in the main building and his place taken by another Indonesian student:

> So we feel something a little bit racism. So if all the people in that room why they not put three of us in one room [with the Australian]. I don't feel good now. Of course a lot of students say 'Why do they put all of you Indonesians together, that is racism.' But they only say it to us, not to the staff. (Dian5: 193-197)

Despite these experiences, no student made a formal complaint to the University authorities and in fact two students reported that they had tried to learn from their experiences:

> I learn very much from the way the people react to Asian people. I still underline my point of view about racism. It's some of my friends do not feel there is racism, but I still observed situation even when it's not my personal problem because I stay for a while....I come to the conclusion that of course we are different and we have to learn very much from this situation where we can work together. I want to bring this to my country to talk to my students about the way the Western culture works and ways we have to improve our competency and so your neighbours will not see you like negative. (Edi5: 41-50)

Another had decided to try to understand the people who were treating her in a racist manner:

> I am not sure but at the moment I just assume that everybody here is similar with the good people I know [good and bad everywhere]. I can make a judgement maybe one or two people out there who say 'F*** you' or 'You bloody Asian' but I do not know about them at all. It is just people who are hanging around and have nothing to do. I think it really depends on us. If we open ourselves to them and we appreciate the situation and some day we can talk with her or him when they are not too busy or share the ideas. (Rani8: 110-118)

While there was not a noticeably higher reporting of perceived racism by the 'majority' Javanese students compared with the overall cohort of students (see McMullen Chapter 2) there were no reports of racism by the 'minority' Chinese-Indonesian students.

Eight percent of the participants in the Returnee Study reported experiencing some racism. Two comments related to racism on campus, one from undergraduate students and one from staff. The other incidents of racism were from the general community. I suggest that this lower reporting rate compared with the Adelaide Longitudinal Study is because of the more trusting nature of the interviewer/interviewee relationship in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study where students felt more comfortable about discussing such issues.

In 1998 the South Australian Government, the City of Adelaide, the three South Australian universities and the school system instituted a multi-million dollar program to attract international students to study in Adelaide. I suspect that many of the people involved in this project would be quite taken aback to hear of such racism in the University and the community. An in-depth study of racism against all undergraduate and postgraduate students in Adelaide might provide very helpful insights into these students' experiences.

Chapter Summary

So what is it that happened in the second phase? To put it simply, students settled into a routine where they experienced the general ups and downs of a postgraduate student's personal and academic life (see Figure 14).

Figure 14. Significance of Various Factors across the Phases (2).

Issue	Phase One	Phase Two	Phase Three
Academic Issues			
• Workload	▰	▰	
• Course/Program	▰	▪	
• Critical Approach	▰	▰▰	
• Exams/Feedback	▰	▪	
Language Issues			
• Speaking	▰	▰	
• Listening	▰	▪	
• Reading	▬	▪	
• Writing	▰	▰	
Personal and Emotional Issues			
• Homesickness	▰	▰	
• Culture Shock/Reverse Culture Shock	▰	▪	
• Racism	▪	▰	
Day-to-day Issues			
• Families in Adelaide	▪	▰	
• Living in Adelaide	▪	▪	
• Accommodation/ Transport	▪	▪	
• Health	▪	▪	
• Finances	▪	▪	
Supervision			
• Expectations	▰	▰	
• Relationships	▰	▰	
• Support	▰	▰	

▰ Very Significant factor   ▰ Significant factor   ▪ Insignificant factor

Over time they developed increasing confidence in their ability to cope academically and socially. It was helpful for students who had local friends or supervisors who could keep

reminding them that many of the difficulties they were experiencing with their academic program were to be expected, and more to do with the nature of their program rather than to do with them being Indonesian students studying in Australia. The personal difficulties were also frequently to do with their stage or life where they had family and perhaps community responsibilities that they did not have as undergraduates. Nevertheless, there were some difficulties specific to the students in the study. These were, in the main, concern with finishing within the scholarship period, difficulty with preparing written work in a form required by their supervisor and the University, adopting a critical approach to their research and, to a lesser extent in Phase Two than in Phase One, negotiating a suitable relationship with their supervisors.

CHAPTER 9 PHASE THREE: RETURNING HOME

Introduction

This chapter examines the third phase of the students' sojourn, that is preparation for, and expectations of, returning home together with the early experiences of being home. As outlined in Chapter 5 follow up of all students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study on their return to Indonesia had not been specifically built in to the study, although there has been a considerable amount of correspondence from ten of the students who have returned home within the data collection period and four who had gone to Indonesia for field work

To supplement the information about returning home, 50 returnees in Indonesia were interviewed to determine the likely experiences of students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study when they too returned home. As Chapter 7 indicated many of the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study had spoken with several overseas returnees prior to departure to Australia. They had also observed the experiences of returnees on arrival back in Indonesia. As a result, it is reasonable to conclude that these discussions and observations were significant in the development of students' expectations of their experiences in Australia and on their return to Indonesia. This chapter combines the information from three sources: students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study while in Australia; information via letter, email and personal interview (in a few cases) with students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study who had returned home during the data collection period; and the 50 participants in the Returnee Study

The discussion is presented in four parts. The first part examines students' activities in finishing and preparing to return home. The second outlines their expectations of what it would be like on their return. The third part examines students' experiences on their return while the fourth identifies some of the characteristics returnees have suggested as being crucial for successful overseas study.

In Australia

In this section I will examine students' experiences just prior to completing their study and returning home.

Personal and Emotional Issues

<u>Family</u>

When asked whether their spouse and children were looking forward to returning to Indonesia, there tended to be two quite distinct responses. The first was that they were excited about going back and looking forward to it. The second was quite the opposite: they wanted to stay. (For example see Chapter 8 for the discussion of Badri's sense of frustration when after a very difficult adjustment period his wife then decided when it was time to go home that she preferred living in Australia.)

In the case of Purwanto, it was different again. He felt that his children had much greater opportunities in Australia if they could stay:

> I want to left [would leave] them here if someone want to adopt some. Because maybe they are very difficult to live in [Indonesia].
>
> *You think they are going to have problems?*
>
> Yeah problems.
>
> *How old are they?*
>
> Nine, seven and five. Because I want their generation better than me. It is very difficult to get things like food, orange juice.
>
> *What about their education?*
>
> Ah yes different, my experience in Indonesia they are many many lessons they just memorise, they study something to know but they don't study how to know this thing, but in here they start to know the rules, so they know exactly what they're doing. If they have problem, in my experience they just leave something, you don't know, but when my kid I saw they try to solve the problem even very difficult things. So how they understand what they do but in Indonesia they just do something because the teacher ask them....Yeah, especially the nine [year old], he have very good English. I thinking maybe first we buy a satellite [dish], a parabola for the television so we can get Australian TV so we can practise it. Kids very fast to learn but also very fast to forget. (Purwanto8: 81-107)

However, his family did return and several weeks before he did so that he could spend as much time on his research as possible. For married students it was not unusual for the spouses and children to return home four to six weeks before the student, for example, Purwanto, Sugik, and Watie. This served two purposes. It meant that the family could move out of the flat they were renting and allow another family to take it over leaving just the student to find a 'spare bed' at a friend's place for the remaining few weeks. It also meant that the student could concentrate on the last parts of the thesis.

Administrative and Day-to-day Issues

Preparing to Leave

Students often tried to fit in some last minute sight-seeing or shopping just before returning home. For example Tini travelled to Melbourne to do some 'serious' shopping and to catch up with some friends she knew from Jakarta who were studying there. Sugik and his family travelled up to Queensland:

> We went last holiday we went to Brisbane. By the time we got here we had spent a lot of money. Because at that time the currency was really bad and had reached Rp9000 for one Australian and we thought we better save money but we were pleased we did it. We went to Gold Coast, Sydney, Melbourne. We rented a car so it's safe, we can go everywhere. (Sugik10: 97-103)

Packing was a real issue for most students as they were taking back cartons of books, lecture hand-outs, subject outlines and photocopied articles. Most students reported that they started collecting notes and hand-outs from the time of their arrival to assist with teaching when they returned. One of the returnees who had been back in Indonesia for about two years and had been promoted felt quite strongly that students should prepare for their return:

> They can prepare by preparing teaching materials; preparing themselves mentally for their return and keeping contact regularly to know what is happening at their home university. This does not have to be formal, it can be informal through colleagues. Keeping contact is very important as they also need to know what they are going to be teaching when they return. They also need to think about what they will need in the lab on their return and prepare a list of things rather than wait until they get back. (UNPAD: 92-102)

As will be demonstrated below, much of this preparation occurred when students were under considerable stress to submit and leave the country. While most of them received help from friends, none of them received formal support from the University in preparing them socially or psychologically for their return.

Academic Issues

Pressure to Complete and Leave the Country

> I think the last phase is the most stress, because we really want to finish, especially when you aren't ready for them like me I have something to do. But this is how my husband I try to manage the stress, just think like that if you can't finish now that's all right we still have money in Indonesia and we can go back and so we can finish there and try to enjoy the life, so it doesn't matter if we can't finish now I can take it back home and study from there or we can just come back here for two or three months and then that's all right. That's reducing the stress as

well. Because I saw from some friends they really try to force themselves to finish on time and after a while they continue and they have to extend their stay here but the supervisor, not really try to make the student try to finish on time, and they still did the same time. We have to pay, it is very expensive for us with the Indonesian Rupiah, it's better that we just go back home and finish it there. (Amina11: 170-185)

As with the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study, the returnees commented on a range of academic issues that had affected them while in Australia. All but one of the returnees interviewed reported that the time between submitting their thesis and leaving the country was extremely short. Returnees reported huge pressure toward the end of candidature to complete the thesis for submission, pack, find temporary shelter after leaving their home of two to four years, find time to say good bye to friends and leave before their visa expired. The time for returning to Indonesia after submission was on average two to three days, although one person reported that she was working until 1.00 am before getting on the plane to go home seven hours later. The student who did not have such a rush to return acknowledged his supervisor, who he said, put the thesis in his 'bottom drawer' for a month to allow the student time to complete an article he was writing, see a little of Australia, and say good bye to friends in a leisurely fashion. While this practice is not encouraged by AusAID it was certainly the envy of the other returnees in the group.

For students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study, as the time for completion and return home drew nearer, on the whole they became nervous and worried about their ability to finish before their scholarship and visa ran out. As Chapter 7 described, most of the students knew of others who had returned home without completing. The difficulty of completing a thesis from Indonesia was clear. In fact, when visiting the Eastern Provinces in 1997 I had spent quite some time with a returnee who had left Australia without submitting her PhD. In the last year of candidature she had upgraded from a Masters to PhD and as her Supervisor was overseas when her scholarship came to an end there was no one who was able to argue her case for an extension. More than a year after returning, having sent a 'fairly' final draft to her supervisor, she still had not heard from him. I was asked to take another draft to him and deliver it personally with an explanation of the situation she was in, and a request for help. According to anecdotal evidence around the University, this situation is not rare. Hence, the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study generally became anxious as the completion time drew close.

However, in theory, it could be argued that there should not be quite the level of difficulty experienced by students as there appears. Many of those returning to universities can choose not to take up a full teaching load for the first one or two semesters in order to allow them to complete. On the other hand, given the anticipated lack of facilities and difficulty completing on ones own there is another very strong motivation to complete and submit as soon as possible:

> For me to have a PhD, it set me up for the rest of my life. I will never have to work as hard again, whereas in Australia, with a PhD it is just the beginning. Here you can have PhD and then not have a job. So for me it is worth putting aside all my pleasure now to get the PhD because it will change the rest of my life. (Ismanto6: 110-115)

However, for Edi, a real concern was the relevance of his research topic in light of the crisis in Indonesia:

> In the end of the process I come to another question what actually is significance of my topic I selected with the recent situation. Is it really work that the people need or it is just for my satisfaction? If it is just for my satisfaction, it means that it is not important for the others. So what for? (Edi11: 50-54)

When I suggested that one important outcome might simply be that he was returning to Indonesia as a better researcher, he replied:

> It may be that you can apply that assumption...in Australia, but in Indonesia people always ask us, 'What you can do? What you expert in? What your skill?' This is the way the society accept us. OK? Something like the question what is your subject, philosophy, something like that, your philosophy thinking, because we can do something practical, not just some imagination. This is the way we can have the project. Because the project coordinator always hire people who has expertise. (Edi11: 67-75)

Not only did these issues weigh on students' minds but they were exacerbated for the Muslim students by Fasting Month. Throughout the study *Puasa* (Fasting Month) occurred between late December and mid-February. The first cohort, that is those who started in February 1995 and included eleven Muslim students, arrived during Fasting Month. Several of the same cohort completed PhDs in early 1999, doing so during Fasting Month (December 20 1998 to January 20 1999).[1]. Hence students had to factor in not only a month of fasting when they were often at a critical stage of their research, but also some time for celebrating *Idul Fitri* at the end of the fast. In addition it is not unusual for Adelaide to have temperatures in the very high 30 degrees

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[1] The dates for Fasting Month are determined by the phases of the moon and generally move forward by a few weeks each year. For example, Fasting Month in 1997 was from December 30 to January 30 1998, and in 1998 from December 20 to January 20 1999.

during summer:

> It's very very hot for me, especially at night. It's good in weekday because we are in the office in the lovely air conditioning but at home it's very very hot and I think there is nothing you can do, just lazy.

> *And it's hard to get a good night's sleep.*

> That make me worry, can I work efficiently? This week all week is more than 36 [degrees Centigrade] and then when we were fasting last oh so terrible.

> *After when it's cool again people will sleep in and that's usually all right.*

> Yeah, it happen when maybe in the past month [Fasting Month] because we couldn't sleep till 4.00 o'clock in early morning and then get up at 9.00 or 10.00 and then I had to drop my daughter to school and I had to apologise to the teacher because we cannot sleep, and 'Oh it's OK we are know that' but that's awful because it should be not happen because we have to go early and then drop to school...because very very hot. But sometime if very hot the wind also hot so when I open all the windows and when the air comes its very very hot, hotter than we close....I have planning actually I have to submit for July but I am planning for myself on me because I have planning for Chapter 1 and yet I make a little outline then I have to finish one day only one page and I have to do that and then because of the weather because of the Fasting Month I am not working very efficient. And then I thinking by myself is that because of my target, I have target and then I push myself to work hard and then all because the weather because I feel the target I have to do this I have to do this, my burden is very heavy and then there is very little working and also the weather is not very nice for me so it's very difficult to handle that problem. And then I put down what to be the target and I just make my mind up I have to work every day no matter what I have to work every day and that make me easy a little bit easy. But this week, I don't know, it happen, it's very slow, sometimes it's lazy but I keep doing, I keep working I keep coming every day to the libraries to work and sometimes talking with [a friend] about my problem, reading something, or come here to talk about my outline problem or something like that. (lem6a: 4-42)

Toward the end of candidature students were giving responses not dissimilar to those in the first six months "this is very stressful now that I am at the end of my PhD. I don't have time for a social life. Just study and sleep" (Yanti11: 44-45). Much of students' ability to complete on time depended on their supervisor. Some students had particularly busy supervisors and so they had to time the submission of the final draft very carefully. Others knew that their supervisor had other students finishing about the same time and so they had to fit in with those requirements.

Sense of Achievement

Most of the participants in the Returnee Study reported that they had an enormous sense of achievement at having survived in another culture and language. This fits well with the Daroesman and Daroesman (1992) finding that students felt that one of the major outcomes of

their time in Australia was increased self-confidence. In addition, many returnees reported that they learned to be independent and flexible. They had become independent learners and researchers, and had managed to do this away from family, friends and normal support networks. One returnee reported "If I were to give advice to others going to Australia to study I would say 'Be confident, make Australian friends, but realise the academic work in difficult but it's OK'" (17 15 3 1). Another suggested that she would tell potential students "everything depends on you" (17 15 8 3).

Toward the end of their candidature students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study were also experiencing a sense of achievement and satisfaction at having completed their award in a foreign country and often, with what seemed to them, very little support:

> My [new] supervisor is OK but I learned a lot from this change in supervisors. I learnt to be more independent and try to convince myself that it all depends on me and I don't have to depend on the supervisor all the time. So, after a while I like this kind of supervision. I want to work alone first and then show the work to the supervisor and expect to have feedback rather than asking too much help at the start. (Jono7: 20-26)

Dian had a different view of her need for independence and achieving her PhD 'on her own:'

> You know that during this frustrating time I always think—Oh it is my choice to do it—it's my thesis, so no one, you can expect so of course it will be nice to have the help from others but it's my choice so I have to do that and I know I am always quite independent I have to do it by myself and maybe that's also for other students to have this in mind. Sometimes it really frustrating, I think why my supervisor like this but then I think ah why am I expecting, it's my thesis so I want to do it myself. (Dian7: 81-88)

Supervision Issues

Three students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study found that it was not until quite close to the end of their candidature that the relationship they had with their supervisor improved considerably. Fatimah had consistently reported that she had not been able to seek help from her supervisor although she acknowledged that to a significant degree it was due to her own nervousness and lack of confidence in approaching her supervisor. However, when she emailed me just after she had submitted she said:

> Now, I realise that I have misunderstood about [my Supervisor]. During my research, I was very afraid to bother her with many questions and consultation, because She [sic] always very bussy [sic]. I just knew her better after I have

consulted about my thesis. She is really very helpfull [*sic*]. She will help the students, regardless how bussy she is and how the family problem (about the children, sometime they got sick) she got, if the student ask her help. Actually, I love to stay in Adelaide longer. There are still so many things to do. I wish that I could have another chance to study abroad, to learn the techniques which I have not got chance to learn about, during my master program. (FatimahEmail1: 8-15)

Amina was not quite sure why her Supervisor suddenly started to be interested in her work and read and comment on chapters, something which he had rarely done for most of her candidature:

But the last couple of months he has been much more helpful. The only reason I can think that he has changed is because I am nearly finished. He said he liked the way I was doing my work because I was independent. But it might also be because I am doing some marking for him. I think the relationship has become much better because I am doing the marking. And also I am doing some work with him on [a topic of his interest]. I think this would be very helpful In Indonesia because I don't think there is much of that in Indonesia. So we meet a lot and talk about that and I think this has changed his view of me. And it is much better....

But what I really want to do is write a paper for publication. That is what I really want to do, not go to conference. My supervisor has not encouraged me to publish but my friends have their supervisors saying it to them, but he never says it. I don't have any confidence in myself because maybe it is because he thinks I can't do it. I will just have to do it myself but I don't know if it is worth publishing. I asked him whether my work was worth a PhD. But every time I see my Head of Department he asks if I have published something. It makes me down [depressed]. I asked my supervisor if my topic was hard...and he said my topic was very hard. So then I thought if he knew that the topic was hard then why didn't he give me some help? But I can't say this to others because they all say their topic is hard. (Amina12: 15-48)

Basu had felt let down by his first and then subsequent supervisor for most of his candidature. He felt that they were not at all interested in his topic. As Chapter 7 described his first supervisor thought the topic was not something he himself would have tackled. Basu also felt that the supervisors did not believe that the focus of his research had any real use. However, at the last interview Basu was delighted to be able to tell me:

Getting close now, I am back on the right track. I'll show you, this is what I mean, maybe this one is confidential but.... [Took out a copy of an email from Supervisor two to Supervisor one.]...'Suffice to say that we are now in the final stages of purification of what is clearly a [the key factor in Basu's research]. My earlier interpretations must now be modified.'...If I had done it in the second year [if only this had happened in the second year]. I would like to change and be brave. It is a very bad experience.

Have you told [your second supervisor] how stressful this has been?

I think [he] notice this already because [he] at the moment has a very positive attitude to support me, makes me confident and I am very happy about that....even on weekend came here, you know [to help me]. (Basu12: 4-17)

Each of these students seemed disappointed and frustrated that the relationship with their supervisor was just improving when it was time to go home.

Approximately half of the other students who had completed their study reported that their supervisor was particularly helpful toward the final stages of candidature with offering additional time to the student as they came close to submission. Some, however, had difficulty with the availability of their supervisor to read final drafts at the times when they were close to finishing. For example Iem reported:

> Another problem is I cannot get my supervisor, he is again overseas. I understand he's very busy but sometimes I need someone to talk to related to my thesis who know about exactly the topic, that's very difficult.
>
> *Is there anyone else in the department who's working in similar area?*
>
> No. Sometimes I come to ask [someone else] if he's not very busy, I knock the door, 'Can I come for 5, 10 minutes?' and then we chat about my problems. He cannot give the direct answer what I want but he is 'Why don't you have a look this journal', something this type of help but so far OK but I still I feel I have to talk to someone about my thesis.
>
> *When is your supervisor due back?*
>
> I don't know exactly the time when he come back but when he comes for example Monday first day, already fully booked with all schedule he has to go everywhere, Adelaide or interstate and then only one day free and then have to go somewhere else....but if he have time I make a list of the problem and then it's OK because problem solve at the time and it's clear but sometimes if I feel confused I want to see him straight away. (Iem6a: 44-73)

In summary, most students were happy with supervision although for three of them their relationship with their supervisor, or at least their understanding of the supervisor improved considerably toward the end of candidature. Almost 50% of the students who had completed were happy with the additional support their supervisor provided toward the end of candidature.

Expectations of Returning Home

Personal and Emotional Issues

It is not difficult to imagine that students had a range of personal and emotional expectations about returning home. On the whole most of them were excited about going back, but the majority were also nervous about what might be waiting for them and many were sad about leaving Adelaide where they had generally come to enjoy life.

Expectations by Others on Return

During interview four and five students were asked what they thought their family and friends would expect of them when they eventually returned. Most commented at this early stage that they would not expect any significant change:

> I think some of them will think that I will be able to do all sorts of things but I think their expectations might be too high. But I don't think I have changed a lot, and it is difficult for me to judge myself. And I don't think people can change so rapidly, it probably takes longer than eighteen months. (Yanto5: 35-41)

However, some did comment that family and friends might have very high expectations of them, expectations that all of the students at that time felt were beyond them. As Lena said:

> Yes, more, more in everything. And I actually don't want to be different but even the way I will dress. Sometime they will say 'Oh why you don't change your style, you still use your...' I use my old clothes, maybe some people they expect more. They would like us to be, uum [outrageous?] Yes, they want us to...I mean more prominent, to show off I think, they expect more.
>
> *So how are you feeling about going home in May?*
>
> Now I become worried. (Lena4: 142-152)

All students were also aware of very high expectations of them professionally as Rina describes:

> When I was on holiday last year I went to my faculty and they expect me to, they expect me to do different thing.
>
> *Do they expect you to take more responsibility or...?*
>
> Yes, for example before I come back here, they say 'Oh finish your study quickly and then come back and we expect you to be Head of the Centre for Woman.' They [their] expectation is very clearly that I have to do different things and I have to do a lot of responsibility.
>
> *Did that come from other people or from your boss?*
>
> Oh the people who work with....The other one is from the boss and he said he already put me in the publishing centre in the University, in my university they have a publishing centre so he already put me as a member of publishing member and the other people complain to him because I am not there, now and I remember complain, why because I am still in Australia and why he put me, it sounds ridiculous. (Rina4: 134-156)

In fact within weeks of her return with a Masters degree she was made Head of her Department:

> Beside that, I was appointed as a Head of [ ] Department in my Faculty. Actually I am only the one who has still junior was appointed in that position [I am the most junior person appointed to such a position]. Eventually [initially] I tend to be reluctant to hold that position, but the Dean force me, he think that I am capable for doing so. So I try my best. (RinaLetter1: 23- 27)

Other professionally-related expectations included setting up research groups on the particular research topic, applying for funding, and leading research projects. However, by far the greatest expectations that students thought others would have of them was improved English:

> I think my boss will expect me to do more things like go to conferences and to work with foreigners. I think I will be able to work differently because of what I have learned. But luckily my Director did a PhD in US and Masters in Australia so he will know what I am doing. Before I came here he asked me to go to a conference and make a report. And once he asked me '[Tini] what is the conclusion?' and I didn't know. But now I will be able to do that. (Tini5: 48-55)

This greater facility with English has been noted throughout Part 4, with Ani's case study in Chapter 10 being a particularly good example. The perceived need for students to return home with 'good' English poses a real difficulty for supervisors and student support staff. Is it the role of the supervisor to develop the student's English or is it acceptable for the supervisor to ensure that only the intellectual content is appropriate and then suggest to the student that she/he have work edited.[2] The same difficulty arises for student support staff once students have completed the IBP. To what extent does one 'teach' students while editing drafts of their work and then expect them to be able to write English independently compared with editing only to the extent that it allows the supervisor to then read drafts for content rather than expression?

Personal Affect of the 1998 Political Crisis

Of crucial significance to this study was the economic, social and political crisis that occurred in Indonesia during the research period. As a result it is possible to examine the expectations of those who were returning after the initial impact of the crisis. The comments related to the changing situation can be divided into two main types: those where students commented on the effect they thought that changes would have on them and their families; and the effect that the crisis would have on the country as a whole.

Students of Chinese ancestry (five of the 33) were affected in quite specific ways. As Siti said:

> I won't ever go back to Indonesia, but...I am going home for visiting, but no never....With all happening now, nobody would want to go back....
>
> *Is it partly because you come from Chinese background?*
>
> Partly and also I couldn't do research there.
>
> *Are your parents OK?*

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2   AusAID provides some funding for students to have their work professionally edited.

> I want to pick them up sometime [get them out]...although it may not be easy for my parents to move to another country because of language, friends, yeah, it is very hard. (Siti8: 63-74)

Siti did in fact find work outside Indonesia on completion of her PhD and certainly in the short-term has not returned home. Another student also found work overseas and another was looking to immigrate. A fourth was anticipating work outside Indonesia after completion of his study. and the fifth students was intending to return home on completion of his PhD in Adelaide.

Several of the returnees reported that when students return from studying overseas there is often a level of jealousy and an assumption that the new returnees are very wealthy in comparison to their colleagues. One Javanese student, working in a non-Javanese province, was concerned about this level of jealously and that she and her family might become scapegoats, *in lieu* of the Chinese:

> But you know...we are worried because, we work in [another province] but do not come from [there], for example we're migrants. Actually in principle in everyday life, they do not like the migrants, particularly the people from Java in [that province], they don't like us. Last time, probably the political situation can, you know like, what you call it, they just accept because the national control was too strong, too strong and the military and whatever people from central government, you know like, keep it under. But now, I think we have a serious problem.
>
> The problem is not only that [having more money], we worried about the future, because maybe the work is not a problem but the house. You know the complex of lecturers[3] is in, you know previously belong to the people with *adat*[4] law and then the government that governs, asked the people to give the land to the government because the *dosens* need house and they compensate only small amount and (I hear last time the agreement between the local people and the government was not clear, at all, so some of the land still of the land incomplete). But we already paid to the bank for the whole land, for the normal price, the government price. So it's worrying me as it's possible that the people start things, something and then they start something, throw rocks and because we are not people from [that province], they target Chinese, but, maybe us. (Rani11: 55-79)

Administrative and Day-to-day Issues

The sixteen students still in Australia at the time of the crisis (1998/99)—not counting the Chinese students—all reported that they were trying to save any additional money possible to help them through the difficult time ahead. Three of the students were on Indonesian Government scholarships and for some months there was considerable concern as to whether

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3   Most universities provide a nearby housing complex for senior *dosen* (lecturers)

4   The customary/traditional law of Indonesia

the stipend they were receiving would be maintained and whether the Rupiah rate would be increased to compensate for the huge drop in the currency. Each of these students on Indonesian scholarships, with the help of their supervisor, managed to maintain their scholarship, and one even had his extended slightly to bring it into line with other overseas scholarships.

However, the crisis had a significant effect on students' expectations of what they were likely to be able to do professionally when they returned home. For most of them, particularly those in the sciences, it meant that promotion and the opportunity to undertake particular areas of research were unlikely:

> Before the crisis, it was different. We plan to go to higher rank and carry on much faster and I will more concentrate on the education not the research. Because it's new and many people are interested. But with the crisis still don't know. Because obviously everything is going up. But also many students who are in the final year they have to do their research, it's no fun for them so we have to design cheaper experiments, but I don't know if it's possible for this at [my university]. (Ismanto10: 36-45)

Some of the students in the social sciences, however, felt that their research would now have greater meaning and application given that it did not take large sums to conduct and was related to rural people and the poor, two areas of potential growth for the new government.

Political Awareness

Part of the change and development of several of the students was an enhanced awareness and desire to comment on the political situation in Indonesia. This, of course, is not surprising given that the students generally had far greater access to news and current affairs in Australia than they did in Indonesia, and the issues related to the 1998 crisis heightened awareness further.

Rina, a social science student articulated the changes that she saw occurring for many of the Indonesian students in Australia.

> Last week, Friday night we had discussion of ICMI [Organisation of Indonesian Islamic Intellectuals] about property and human development and it's about 25 people came and then it's interesting how older people and younger people all over Indonesia, some of the younger people just they try to learn situation of poverty because of [what the] Government [tells them]. We try to criticise towards the poverty in Indonesia and older people they don't agree with the younger people because the older people are scared that they had that love for Indonesian society and we shouldn't blame the Government whatever, we shouldn't critic the Government because the Government has the love for Indonesian people and the younger people say you know if the Government

doesn't give blame so what's the cause, what's the problem, what's the major cause of the problem because the economic policy leads to the poverty...things like that. Still there is gap between older people and younger people even though...and I think if we go back to Indonesia also the gap is really really huge. How can we critic. (Rina5: 82-94)

However, Ismanto commented that although he knew of many returnees who came back from studying overseas with strong ideas, they tended only to speak out for themselves rather than for their country.

Sadly, it seems to have taken the crisis in Indonesia for some Australian students to make the effort to find out more about Indonesia:

Lately some of them works at night so...

So you've got something to talk about?

Yeah....for me it's a good thing they know Indonesia exists but the bad thing is the news about the ethnic Chinese and things like that it's difficult because we have some Chinese students and start to attack me and I say 'Is this revenge? Why are you attacking?' It's been difficult.

Yes I hadn't thought it happed to you.

Before some students didn't even know I come from Indonesia. A good thing out of millions of bad things. (Ismanto9: 166-177)

Jono, Ismanto, Rani, Beni, Iwan, and Basu all commented at length about the political situation in Indonesia and their concerns for the future of their country.

Language Issues

Students—for example Purwanto, Badri, Sugik, Rani, Iem and Edi—expressed concern not only about being able to maintain their own English but also the English development of their children. Badri suggested:

The major problem was language for me, I [was] just worry to speak with people or something like that so I couldn't understand what they say...I couldn't communicate well, actually I wanted to be involved, but I couldn't...so we have lack of confidence or something like that...that is barrier between what we want. I realise now that language is the most important thing for us in a foreign country. It's limit for me and we can learn everything if we have good English....I mean English in socialisation, not only the study....

I try to read English papers and for my kids I got some software in English so they can play computer with this...we have had planning about organising [something] for kids from overseas [so they can practise their English]. (Badri8: 65-87)

None, however, reported having made specific plans for maintaining their own English skills on

their return. This might well have been because most were too concerned with trying to complete their thesis in English to think about such ones.

Professional Issues

In addition to students facing a range of academic issues they were also about to encounter a range of professional issues.

Changing Work Practices

After students had been in Australia for approximately eighteen months they were asked whether they thought that they would adopt different work practices on their return home. They were asked a similar question closer to returning. As might be expected the responses to the question in the earlier interviews tended to reflect a somewhat superficial understanding of the different approaches to teaching and research for academic staff and work practices for others compared with later responses. For example "It is good, when I go home I have some expectation that I can work better when I go home" (Tini5: 33-34) and:

> I will, I will because I think this is very attractive and also I want to teach them how to make, how to write essay in structural framework and then very specific and not too much word but in the point. Getting to the point. So I pass through my knowledge, my skill to the students. (Rina4a: 72-76)

However, as students stayed longer, or if students had studied overseas previously, they tended to be more circumspect:

> Sometimes Indonesian students will not speak much because of feeling they are low to lecturer [low in status compared with the lecturer]. Actually because I experience in the US I tried to be close to the students but other lecturers didn't like it and so they say don't do that. (Sugik4: 134-138)

And Bunari (4: 133-135) was aware that with his increased independence he might need to start his own business as it might be difficult to find an employer who would permit his level of independence.

Koko (5:81-84), Jono (4:156-159), Lena (4:45-48), Buharto (4:144-152), Dian (4:127-130), Fatimah (4:93-98), Siti (4:102-105), Basu (4:114-116) and Junaidi (4:182-189) all thought that they would work differently on their return. Most of them were academic staff and they saw themselves using more sophisticated materials, providing a broader base to the understanding of the discipline, setting achievable targets, encouraging students to be more independent by doing

assignments and searching for information. Several, as demonstrated by Koko, wanted to develop closer relationships with their students and to be more understanding:

> One thing will be that I think I will understand students more when I go home because I have been misunderstood lots and lots of times and I will try to remind myself of that. I will try to become more helpful when I am a supervisor. (Koko5: 81-84)

Yanto (4:123-125) thought that there would be no changes to the way he worked in private enterprise but that he would have better job opportunities. Purwanto was very worried about changing too much because of the reaction of the students:

> That's why I still thinking now because if I want to do when I get here maybe I will become extreme because so I am 'killer' they will say I am 'killer' because no one will be passed for example and so maybe I have problem with Dean, the Rektor so because also I don't understand some people they are very smart but people say they are 'killer' in Indonesia they are 'killer 'that mean we 'kill' them. Students sometimes don't pass. That's why we have got problem in one side we need quality to improve but on the other side we have students with the poor people they have to pass it in one turn so if we give them two times to pass they will say we are no[t] good teacher. [If I have expectations that are too high for students who can only afford to sit for exams once I will be called a 'killer' and be criticised by some senior staff.] (Purwanto9: 172-182)

Of particular relevance was students' appreciation of their increased critical thinking and the encouragement they had received to 'be critical.' Most were conscious that they would have to be very careful of this way of thinking and working when they returned home. Students' had already experienced their families telling them that they had become disrespectful, impatient and critical. In two workshops (November 1995 and May 1997) the issue of being critical was discussed at length. Most reported that they would want to maintain their critical approach but be very careful with their choice of words and in which situations they were critical. As Enton said:

> When I am home I will use the style here because my boss did a [degree] in America. But if my boss were Javanese I would certainly use Javanese style, not Australian style because it would not look polite. I could still be critical but not say then so concisely and sharply. You get used to writing in the two ways. (Enton5: 46-52)

Helping Colleagues at Home

One of the difficulties for students undertaking research in Indonesia is the lack of facilities and relevant contemporary resources. As a result it is not unusual for students in Australia to be contacted by others who have already returned home, having experienced access to extensive

facilities in Australia, asking for reference materials with the most common being for up-to-date journal articles. Several students were also taking back with them books, teaching materials, chemicals and even replacement parts for equipment. Amina (10:118-119), Basu (10:91-99), Yanti (10:54-59), Rani (10:73-96) and Ismanto (10:71-73)[5] all commented that they had been specifically asked to take items back with them. All of the above students, except for Ismanto, said that when they returned they would probably do the same to colleagues in Australia. Ismanto explained that he wanted to be more independent. However, this practice is not without some embarrassing moments as Basu reported:

> Last year two of my friends asked me to find a journal here. One I have to inter-library loan and this was a bit difficult because I had [my supervisor] to sign it and he ask 'Why is different?' but one is available here [in Australia]. It's much easier to find it here. Even they ask me to buy equipment yes small wire for [a piece of equipment]. It's very difficult to find at home. Even in Jakarta, they have to order here. I don't think I can afford to subscribe [to journals in Indonesia]. (Basu10: 91-98)

Most participants in the Returnee Study also reported that when they were in Australia they had been approached by colleagues from Indonesia, and asked to find journal articles for them, or purchase books or materials. Most had done this willingly as they knew that once they returned to Indonesia they would be asking the same of colleagues in Australia.

As Rani rather colourfully describes it:

> Aah, well some friends but also my sister and brother-in-law because they are working at IPB yeah I keep contact via email if there are some things they couldn't buy in Singapore or Indonesia I buy them for them here. I think it is fairly common. I think it depends on the experience of the person. I don't think so many staff in my university who graduated from local university think to ask for materials from overseas universities but for them who have experience study abroad they understand what can be accessed and they might know the title of the journals or whatever, at least they have the main subject of the study and ask someone to look at the latest CD-ROM. I had an experience before I went to [elsewhere overseas] and I got a chance to study in UI [Universitas Indonesia] for S2 I think I just got sources from my lecturer just from him. There was no sources in the main library. The main library was just for undergrads so all the course for the year was just from his own collection. But the resources are limited....It's very hard. Even the library building is very big and just like yours here and really sophisticated building but inside it is old books and crap. (Rani10: 73-96)

A useful study might be to quantify the additional economic benefit to Indonesian education through the provision of this support provided to colleagues by students studying in Australia.

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[5] Twelve students were not asked this question so it is likely that the number contacted is in fact far higher.

Given that 20 of the 33 students were undertaking research degrees and nine of the others undertook small-scale research projects, it was reasonable to expect that this experience would have a significant effect on students' views and expectations about undertaking research on their return. For example, Amina had said in interview four that she did not like research because she did not have access to contemporary literature and so did not know the other research being conducted in her discipline area. However, by interview ten she reported that she liked research and was looking forward to undertaking research on her return.

Ismanto (10: 103-117), Edi (4: 111-130), Basu (10: 132-139), Kintan (4: 129-133), Amina (4: 159-160) and Rani (11: 132-135) all said that they would change their research practices on return, but they were realistic about funding and facilities. Sugik (5: 88-91) hoped to keep in touch with his supervisor to carry out joint research even though his supervisor was concerned about the laboratory conditions when Sugik returned home.

Value of their Overseas Qualification

In considering their return from Australia with a Masters or PhD degree students were asked whether they thought their colleagues and employers would view their overseas PhD or Masters differently from a local equivalent award. All students reported that they thought others viewed an overseas award to be viewed differently for several reasons, although not necessarily because the person or the award itself was necessarily better. The *first* reason was that the student had to overcome a number of difficulties such as language, culture shock and being away from home to complete the award and that they generally had to work harder to achieve the award overseas. For example when Watie was asked if there was a difference she responded:

> Firstly in capability, second in credibility and also in level of knowledge.
>
> *Right so credibility if you say to someone I got a PhD in Australia or America people will think that's really good and the other one was level of knowledge you think you actually learn more?*
>
> More, yes....And more confidence. We have to work in [with] confidence, we have no choice, I mean in Indonesia we can ask our staff to do some experiments, or write out reports so here we have more skill. Here I take samples by myself even though it's messy. But it cannot happen like this if I am doing this research in my country. (Watie4: 128-141)

Secondly, the returnee was expected to come back with English language skills which would set him or her apart from peers who had undertaken a similar award locally. The *third* reason was

the different way of writing and the need to cover an extensive literature:

> Also, the way we write is different. In Indonesia for the introduction I might write four or five pages, but here [my supervisor] says no more than one page. It has to be concise and have the main point. The Literature Review is different also, because in Indonesia it is very difficult to get the literature. (Tini4: 140-146)

There was also the question of the 'strictness' of gaining an award from an Indonesian university:

> Overseas still [considered better] because sometime PhD in Indonesia or maybe local Indonesia easier to get one. Sometimes we say they do not do it themself, maybe someone else do it. The experience still they are doing PhD in Jakarta but they spend all their time in their work. So PhD is easy to get. Everyone talk about it. (Sugik4: 124-130)

Differences between local and overseas awardees were even noticeable to Indonesian university students, at least according to Lena "as students, we used to think that some of these lecturers who tried to do things differently [because they had studied overseas] were very strange" (Lena4: 109-110).

Approximately half of the students reported that they thought staff with overseas awards were more likely than those with equivalent local awards to gain promotion, be sent on conferences, have access to lucrative projects and win tightly contested positions in private enterprise. Therefore, students were very aware of the considerable benefit in terms of personal prestige, career opportunities and financial gain by returning having successfully completed their award.

Experiences on Return to Indonesia

The 50 participants in the Returnee Study were from eight universities and government offices in Java, Bali, Lombok and Kupang. Interviews were usually conducted in groups, although there were 14 interviews with individuals. In several cases students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study knew the returnees and vice versa. None of these interviews was taped, but extensive notes were taken and the 'quotes' used in this chapter are close to verbatim. Seven of the returnees had been back in Indonesia for five or more years and had reached quite senior positions, for example, Vice-Rector and Dean, and so were able to talk about what they now look for in staff they are sending to Australia and what they expect of them when they return. Responses from both their perspective as an administrative staff member and as a general returnees are included.

Where appropriate, the tracer studies of Daroesman and Daroesman (1992) and Gardner and Hirst (1990) are used to compare these findings, which will, in turn, provide useful end-points for the discussion of the Adelaide Longitudinal Study.

As Chapter 6 described, I wrote to each student every three or four months for the first year after their return, particularly at Christmas/Idul Fitri and during the May 1998 crisis. Twelve of the 19 students who had returned home at the time of writing this chapter had written or emailed me or I had spoken with them personally in Indonesia. Five students had replied once, two twice, and five had contacted me three or more times. Also, three students who had returned home during their candidature for field work had written several times describing their experiences.

The returnees, both from the Adelaide Longitudinal Study and the group of 50, described a range of experiences on their return, particularly personal and professional issues. It is important to note that the interviews with the 50 returnees were conducted prior to the economic, political and social crisis in Indonesian. The last interviews in eastern Indonesia were in fact undertaken in late September/early October 1997 at the very beginning of the economic crisis. Therefore, one must assume that the situation in several respects is somewhat different for students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study returning home during or after the crisis. In other respects, for example reverse culture shock and effect on families, the experiences would be similar.

The 18 Indonesian senior staff interviewed were virtually unanimous in their descriptions of what they expected of their staff when they returned from studying in Australia, that is:

- research skills, which could be used by the staff member and taught to others;
- improved teaching, with a collection of attractive and relevant teaching resources;
- skills and knowledge in the area of study;
- improved English;
- networks and contacts in Australia.

Most of them mentioned that they regularly spoke with staff who were considering studying abroad and that they made it quite clear that these were the expectations they had of returnees.

Personal and Emotional Issues

As to be expected participants in the Returnee Study and students from the Adelaide Longitudinal Study who had returned and their families underwent a range of personal and emotional issues on their return home. For example, one student was married soon after her arrival home and within twelve months had a baby daughter. Another was quite sick with typhus for some time and so had to delay her return to work and enjoying daily 'life' (including food) in Indonesia.

Reverse Culture Shock on Return

Virtually every participant in the Returnee and Adelaide Longitudinal Study commented that in Australia 'it was easy': transport was easy and frequent, the bureaucracy was easy (and one did not have to pay bribes for service), shopping was easy, use of facilities at university was easy, enrolling children in school was easy. If there was one word which was constantly used by returnees to describe their impression of Australia it was 'easy.' Students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study also frequently talked about the ease of living and lack of pollution in Adelaide:

> Margaret, I guest [sic] the information above is out of your PhD topic. But when I see and fell [sic] the current condition [the riots during the crisis] I suddenly remember the quiet and the nice of Adelaide. We expect that some way we will breath [sic] the air of Adelaide again and take some inspirations for support our life. (WatieLetter1: 25-28)

The shock of returning to an environment where it might take two hours to get to work in the morning and two hours at the end of the day, several hours to pay phone bills and the like, anything up to a month to enrol children in school, several months to receive a journal, and a year to have a piece of laboratory equipment repaired was experienced by all. These experiences also made it very difficult, if not impossible, for returnees to fulfil their expectations of enhanced teaching and research:

> At 20 February 1997...my children had to start to study at junior high school and Primary School in Jakarta. I had to write two application for my children that my children want to continue their study in Jakarta. Recommendation from Education Department in very important for me, because by they [sic] recommendation, my children could start to study again in Indonesia. The first day of March, I started to work. I could not concentration [sic] to work. Because every day I had to go to Education Department for checking the letter of recommendation. The first week of March, my children started to study. I was so happy, because my children

could to study again in Indonesia. I met their teacher and I wanted to have some progress of my children. My son did not want to study in Jakarta at the second week, he wanted to study in Adelaide. I did not release [*sic*] that I had a big problem like this. It was different with my daughter. She was no problem, because she studies in the same school and had the same friend. (AntoniusLetter1: 20-41)

Daroesman and Daroesman (1992) reported that it took respondents 12 months to overcome reverse culture shock, particularly the feeling of being abandoned by one's supervisor and host university and the apparent lack of interest by the donor (pp. 57-63). The study by Gardner and Hirst (1990) supports this finding where respondents reported a high need for support on returning home, with the support of family and friends being the greatest assistance (pp. 24-26). The comments of many of the returnees interviewed agreed with these findings and added that they felt that their knowledge and skills were not exploited by the university. This was particularly the case in the eastern provincial universities. The Special Evaluation Study (ADB, 1997) also reported that "apart from the program offered at TEDC, Bandung, it was apparent that little if any attention is being given to the re-entry of fellows" (p. 15).

Family

Most who had taken children with them when they studied in Australia reported difficulties, of a greater or lesser degree, regarding their children settling back into Indonesia. On average it appeared to take children at least six months to overcome the reverse culture shock of returning home. In every case parents reported that they were unable to settle while their children were still struggling with their new environment. Rani wrote the following when on field work:

I noticed that the first time we arrived in [Indonesia]...when we spent a couples [*sic*] of night in my sister house, my children were very upset. Then when we went to [our town], the situation was getting worst [*sic*]. My oldest son refused going to school. He said 'I won't go to school, please let me study English at home with you...' Or the other day he asked me to move to [another city] because it was so remote/rural [in our town]. While my little girl adapted so slowly with social situation in Indonesia. I could not find a baby sitter [here], I just got a *pembantu* who did not know how to accompany the baby etc. It took almost two and a half months to settled [*sic*] the children. (RaniLetter1: 21-30)

One returnee who had been back in Indonesia for one month reported that her son, aged six, only wanted to eat bread and cereal and went round saying that everything in Indonesia was 'yucky.' She was concerned to find ways to help him adjust. Two of the main difficulties for children were the significant differences in education and the reduced access to 'Western'

material goods. All parents commented on the more open, child-centred system of schooling in Australia compared with Indonesia. Most children experienced considerable difficulty returning to the more authoritarian, large class, text book-centred schooling in Indonesia. It was not unusual for children to not want to go to school for up to six months on return:

> So living in Adelaide for us is something wonderful, full of great experiences. My oldest son sometime grumbled when he got some homeworks [*sic*]. He said that he prefer to study in Australia than here because he rare[ly] got homework which is so different with here. (WatieLetter2: 10-13)

The other difficulty was access to material goods. In Australia, students on, for example an AusAID stipend would be receiving almost double what they would earn as a lecturer in Indonesia. Many students and their families in Australia had access to food, goods and activities which either simply were not available in Indonesia or were outside their more restricted budget. Children often found it quite difficult to cope with this changed life style.

Administrative and Day-to-day Issues
<u>Time Delays</u>

Time delays on return were of two major types: delays in receiving certification of the award gained in Australia, and delays with returning to the salary level enjoyed prior to leaving for Australia. On average, returnees experienced delays of six months in receiving certification of their award. In was not unusual to hear of delays of up to two years. In fact, one story was told of a student who had returned from an Australian university having completed a PhD but after not receiving certification for several years completed another PhD at an Indonesian university.

While a delay in certification might not seem to be too serious for Australian staff and students it is crucial for Indonesian staff and students. Indonesia is a highly bureaucratised country and this is reflected in the procedure for 'proving' completion of an award. The returnee must submit the original certification of completion to either the *Rektor* (Vice-Chancellor) of the University or Director of the Government Directorate before the award will be acknowledged in any salary, promotion or status conditions. Hence, if returnees have to wait for two years for certification to be forwarded, it is two years before they can seek a salary increase or promotion. In fact, one of the students from the Adelaide Longitudinal Study who returned with a Coursework Masters degree, but no certification, was actually demoted on her return until she could prove that she had successfully completed the award. Letters and reports from the

supervisor were not sufficient, the original certificate was required. Daroesman and Daroesman (1992) reported in their study that among their sample of 251, ten percent had not received degrees—this figure does not include those who had not completed or withdrawn—(p.62). Such delays do little to help returnees maintain the enthusiasm and motivation engendered prior to departure from Australia. Difficulty with certification was also raised in the report of the Joint Standing Committee on Foreign Affairs, Defence and Trade (1993) where it was stated that "one of the topics which was raised by a number of those present [returnees from Australian universities] was the length of time taken to advise results, particularly of these for postgraduate studies" (p. 166). The report went on the state:

> Recommendation 20: The Committee recommends that the Department of Employment, Education and Training, with the Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee, examine the assessment and notification processed for higher degrees to ensure that the time taken is as short as practicable and that results be conveyed to the Joint Committee within six months. (p. 176)

Given that this report was completed in 1993 it is surprising that in 1997 students were still complaining about delays in receiving their certification. It appears that more work is yet to be done in this area.

While returnees can report back to work when they like within one month of returning it generally takes five to six months for them to receive their *gaji fungsionil* (functional salary), that is the salary above their standard salary. Most returnees reported that they saved as much money as possible while they were in Australia to help them over this period, a period which coincided with their children's greater demands for the, now much more expensive, goods and services experienced in Australia.

Promotion

For Civil Service staff, whether they be in government offices or universities, there is a discernible problem of being outside the system while they are overseas. For example, a staff member is not able to claim *golongan* (see Appendix A for description) while away from the institution, and perhaps more importantly, is losing 'political' connections which are all-important in the Indonesian system. While gaining a PhD or Masters might be beneficial in the long term, staff promotion certainly can suffer in the short term.

Having said that, promotion to administrative positions on return is not always desirable. While certain senior positions carry with them housing entitlements, access to loans and so on, in some cases it can also mean less flexibility for more lucrative work outside the organisation. Students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study described this as 'tempat basah' or 'tempat kiring.'[6] A tempat basah, 'a wet place', implies that it is a position with many 'perks' and financial advantages and is generally a euphemism for 'corruption.' A tempat kiring, 'a dry place' is generally a position with little opportunity for additional income.

Promotion can depend also on the type of institution in which one is working. For example, it is likely to be much more difficult to gain significant promotion in one of the more developed universities compared with one of the newer and developing universities where far fewer staff have studied overseas or hold Masters or PhD. There are reports of staff with golongan of 3C holding senior positions in developing universities where only a 4A or 4B would hold such a position in one of the older, more established universities.

The twelve students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study who had returned and kept in contact at the time of writing had a range of interesting work experiences. Two university staff were promoted to Head of Department and Vice-Dean for Student Affairs with one of these subsequently being selected to undertake doctoral study back in Australia. Another university staff member had been 'bought' out of her requirement to return home at the end of her Masters by a Cooperative Research Centre in Australia providing her with a scholarship to upgrade to a PhD. On completion of her candidature she had taken a position as principal researcher for a company outside Indonesia. Four students who had left jobs in Indonesia in private enterprise gained excellent positions on their return, one overseas with another seeking employment outside Indonesia. Of the five civil servants, three had been given promotions very soon after their return (with one of them invited to study for a PhD at *Universitas Indonesia*) and two had initially been demoted. The first considered she was demoted because she did not have proof of having completed her Masters. However, within 12 months she was undertaking a short course overseas (in a country with yet another language) while her husband completed a PhD. The other was sent for retraining 12 months after returning from Australia and then received a promotion to a new position.

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6   'Wet place' or 'dry place'

Approximately 30% of the group of 50 returnees had received some form of promotion relatively soon after their return, a promotion which might not have occurred without studying overseas. This figure is lower than the one for Daroesman and Daroesman (1992) who found that 45% of university staff had undergone substantial change and 25% no change; and for government employees, 40% had experienced major change with 22% no change (p. 53). I suggest that the reason for the differences is that most of Daroesman and Daroesman cohort had been back in Indonesia for several years by the time the tracer study had been undertaken, whereas only a handful of those interviewed for this study had been back in Indonesia for more than a year or two.

Language Issues

English language is considered important, not just as a means of studying in Australia, but also on return. Staff with good English language skills are sought after for publishing, attendance at conferences, working with consultants, as well as being able to read English texts in the discipline. However, where most returnees reported that they had been keen to maintain their English once they returned to Indonesia there was little to indicate in most cases that there was any systematic attempt by the institutions to assist returnees with the maintenance of their English language. If there were not English language projects on which they could be employed then it was likely that they would not use their English at work, other than in reading texts. One example reported to me by Cannon (1997) was at SMEA1[7] at Semarang where the staff and students had agreed to make one day per week an 'English only' day. When I relayed this suggestion to returnees and potential returnees they thought that it was an excellent idea and would have found such a practice very helpful.

Academic Issues

Revisions

It was demonstrated in Chapter 7 that students in their first six months of being in Australia were very aware of colleagues who had not managed to complete their award while in Australia. Some had been unsuccessful at completing at all and others either had to finish at home or at least undertake major revisions back in Indonesia. The worry that this might happen to them

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[7]   *Sekolah Menengah Ekonomi Atas* (Home Economics Senior Secondary School) with each school given a numeral to differentiate it from any other similar school in the city, for example, SMEA 1, SMEA 2 and so on.

weighed heavily on their minds.

While many supervisors and examiners expect students to undertake revisions to their work, for Indonesian students who have returned home this can be very difficult. They are unlikely to have access to laboratory equipment, computer programs or other facilities. In the case of some of the smaller and less well developed locations, access to email for individual staff is virtually unknown and faxes are only available through the local post office at quite significant cost. Family and work pressures also mitigate against students completing revisions. For this reason, a number of well-meaning supervisors inform their students that they will undertake and submit the revisions on behalf of the student. Supervisors obviously saw this as being helpful given the returnees' lack of facilities at home. While this seems to be satisfying the students' needs to complete it can bring with it its own difficulties. Supervisors are busy, albeit well intentioned people. While they mean to make the revisions, the pressures of work, the absence of the student as a regular reminder, and the idea of making revisions to someone else's work can lead to revisions still not being made twelve months after the initial examiners report (this situation was reported by two returnees). For example one returnee described how she had submitted her thesis three days before leaving Australia and had the Examiners reports within three months. However, minor changes had to be made and her supervisor had offered to make them for her, but that was seven months earlier and the student had heard nothing from the supervisor and was unable to ascertain whether the changes had been made and resubmitted or not. However, she did know that she had not received certification eleven months after submission. Students, in the typical Indonesian manner, are often too embarrassed to regularly follow-up with their supervisors, even if they have easy access to communication. Until the revisions are submitted and accepted, the award is not conferred and is one of the reasons why there is such a high percentage of students who had not received their award for up to, and greater than, twelve months after their return.

Contact with Supervisor

It was suggested on a number of occasions by senior staff in Indonesia that the practice of supervisors maintaining contact with students and providing support through the provision of journals, equipment, chemicals, materials and occasional visits back to the host university was enormously beneficial. While this was not common, it had happened in a few cases. In fact only

two of the 50 returnees reported writing joint papers with their supervisor since their return from Australia. Others had maintained contact through birthday and Christmas cards and one had had his supervisor visit. Many of the returnees talked about the broadening of horizons and the development of an international network of colleagues which had occurred as a result of their time in Australia but only a few had been able to capitalise on these networks and contacts.

The main reasons given for the difficulty in maintaining contacts were the lack of cheap, easy and reliable communication technologies (staff generally have to pay for the own faxes, for example, even when they are directly related to work), pressures of work and family on return, and lack of, or delay in, response from the supervisor in Australia. Supervisors in Australia suggest that one of the difficulties is that the Indonesian returnees seem not to take the initiative, unlike some other national groups, and so possible projects are not identified and followed up. Another reason suggested is that it is difficult to ensure the confidentiality of research material or copyright on research data arising from collaborative Indonesian/Australian research and therefore Australian researchers with significant projects are nervous about making their data available. I would also suggest that given that a research culture in Indonesia is in the early stages of development, and given the technical difficulties of collaborative research, there is little encouragement for returnees to go to the considerable trouble it takes to maintain these links. For supervisors, the difficulty of communication, the uncertainty of the research culture, increasing work-loads and demands of current students, and often a lack of understanding of Indonesia and its political, social and educational structures make it difficult to maintain links.

Professional Issues
Working with Others on Return

While one of the Indonesian senior staffs' expectations of returnees is to work with other staff to assist in the development of their skills, some returnees pointed out the difficulty of this. As one person interviewed said "to be honest, nobody knows and nobody cares. Some are even jealous and think that we have a lot of money" (17 15 3 6).

Most returnees reported that although they could see a lot that could be done to enhance teaching and research in their university they needed to avoid talking about their experiences as "it looks as if we are bragging and it only makes others jealous of us" (17 15 3 6). In addition,

the very hierarchical nature of Indonesian culture and society makes it difficult for young returnees to work with older colleagues. As one person reported "we might be working with our *S1* [undergraduate] lecturer and we are now more qualified, but he is more senior. It is very difficult to ask these people to change" (17 15 3 10).

Research

It was suggested by several senior staff in Indonesia that there was money available for returnees to apply to enable research, but that there was not a culture of competitive application in Indonesia. Opportunities for research funding in Indonesia, at least prior to the crisis, had increased significantly with the provision of Government funds for competitive grant applications (prior to the economic, political and social crisis). The Research *Pembinaan* (Establishment) exists for Postdoctoral returnees to encourage them to seek funding for research. This fund, for the Health Sciences only, and with grants of Rp25 million-Rp50 million,[8] also encourages publication. However, more general funds are available through the Integrated Research Program which requires departments to collaborate. These grants are of the order of Rp100 million. A third funding arrangement requires applicants to work with an overseas collaborator. In 1996 Rp600 billion was available but only Rp50 billion was allocated due to the poor quality of the proposals. One might suggest that the availability of such considerable amounts of money runs counter to the issues that facilities are in such need of enhancement, and of course such a paradox does raise questions. However, possible responses to this paradox do exist.

The first possible reason is that skills in writing grant applications are still in need of development in Indonesia. Assisting students to learn the skills of grant application while in Australia would be very beneficial according to most senior staff interviewed. Having said that, several returnees argued that the status of the university had considerable effect on the success or otherwise of an application. They suggested that an application from a third ranked university would not be able to compete with one from a first ranked university. While the results might well support this feeling, with, for example, 60% of all 1996 research grants going to *Institut Pertanian Bogor* (IPB) the question would have to be asked, is this because the staff there are more skilled at writing grant-winning applications, or are the award-giving bodies influenced by

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8   At an exchange rate (8.8.97) of Rp 1918 this converts to AUD13034-26069

the name and status of the university? Staff of IPB would argue that it is because they are very skilled at grant application writing, so much so, that they are now working with other universities to develop these and managerial skills. Staff at some of the less prestigious universities would claim the latter. (I would suggest that many complain that a similar situation would be found in the Australian university system.)

Another, and possibly more significant reason, is that research funding in Indonesia goes to the individual rather than to the university or project. As a result, the individual can decide how the money is spent. One of the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study had reported that:

> The difference between our grant and a grant in Australia is that...in Indonesia the money goes to the principal investigator, no matter what you do as long as you have the investigation. There's a big difference. Like when I was working here, my grant was actually for five years. I actually got experience so I put, that's why I got this [scholarship], they gave me this award certificate for $60,000 per year US. The money goes to me, no matter what I use. I bought equipment and I buy lots of....That's why it's a big responsibility. Some people they use the money just for themselves, even to buy a car. And every year we have to present our result....This money come from the people so you have to give back something to the people. (Ismanto6: 127-139)

Rather than put money into facilities and infrastructure costs the research funds are often used to employ lower-level staff to take over the researcher's teaching or research load leaving him/her free to pursue other projects and career options.

Certainly all returnees reported disappointment and frustration, to a greater or lesser extent, with the availability of facilities and resources for research when they returned. These included lack of equipment or broken or outdated equipment, and lack of journals and other library resources. In some cases steps had been taken by returnees to remedy the situation by arranging for faster delivery of journals and upgrading of basic facilities, but often this was at considerable effort and cost and seemed to work best when the returnee was either in a senior position or closely allied with a senior administrator. However, one lesson that many of the returnees had learned was not to complain about the facilities on their return.

All senior staff members emphasised the need for returnees to be flexible and adaptable. They were conscious of the different level of facilities and resources which returnees would encounter on their return. The need to be adaptable and to find affordable and realistic alternatives without complaining was seen as a necessary characteristic for a returnee to be able to settle back into the

Indonesian work environment. As one suggested "they need to live in two worlds" (17 15 8 4) and most considered that students needed to actively prepare for this reverse culture shock.

One of the problems which seems to appear is that students go abroad and work in well equipped, well organised and coordinated environments. They go through their daily study and living activities with relative ease. However, when they return home they can become frustrated and are sometimes shocked and may look to go elsewhere. Most senior staff were themselves products of an overseas postgraduate education and were well aware of the difficulties of returning to an environment with far fewer facilities. The attitude to this situation varied. One example was of a senior administrator who mentioned that he was concerned to find strategies which would help returnees cope with their frustrations so that they were prepared to stay and share what they had learned. The other position adopted was one which argued that returnees knew what the situation was like before they left to study overseas and that it was their responsibility to keep in touch with their home university, and in a sense 'keep their feet on the ground' so that they were not surprised, disappointed or frustrated on their return. As one person said, quoting an Indonesian proverb "if there is no rotan, then use the roots" (17 15 8 4), in other words, look for an alternative. Examples of the two attitudes were spread reasonably evenly across the universities and government offices visited.

One useful example of providing initial support to returnees for their research was the Indonesian Australian Eastern Universities Project. This aid project had built into its funding a modest research grant which went to all successful returnees to help them start their research. In addition, the consultants working on the project made efforts to link returnees with like-minded staff in Australian universities, sometimes the original supervisor, other times not, to work with and support the returnee during their initial phase of re-induction. The results of this new practice are under evaluation (Udayana: 220-223). One senior staff member suggested that one way of overcoming some of the difficulties with regard to research would be to institute a system of postdoctoral positions in Indonesian universities. However, with the crisis it is unlikely that this will occur in the near future.

Teaching

University returnees are aware that they are expected to be better teachers on their return and bring with them an extensive range of teaching materials. It is unlikely that many staff in Australian universities are aware that their Indonesian students are collecting as many handouts and references as possible to take with them on their return. Several returnees reported that much of their luggage was made up of books and papers to support their teaching and research. These returnees are expected to develop new courses which are relevant to the needs of the university.[9]

Many of the university staff interviewed in the Returnee Study reported that they had returned wanting to teach and supervise differently from the way they had prior to going to Australia. This included making eye contact with students in lectures, encouraging students to be more independent, setting assignments, and encouraging critical thinking. However, many of these aspirations were thwarted by lack of library facilities, expectations of students that a traditional approach will be taken, lack of home facilities for some students to write independently, lack of a 'deadline' culture in Indonesia with no penalty for late submission, and as one returnee reported, a cultural norm which would require any assignment to be put aside indefinitely if a guest arrived in one's home or a friend wanted to talk.

Another significant factor, particularly, but not only, in the Eastern Provinces was lack of transport. For example, at *Universitas Nusa Cendana* (Kupang) unless staff and students have a car or *Vespa,* rarities in this area, they need to leave the campus no later that 1.30 in order to catch a *Bemo*[10]. Even so, many students and staff had to often walk many kilometres in considerable heat to return home each day. Hence the university facilities were really only utilised for half a day. At *Universitas Padjadjaran* (Bandung) the newly developed campus is over 50 kilometres from the city. Again, unless students and staff had access to private transport they have to leave the campus by no later than 3.30 or 4.00 pm to ensure that they are home by 6.00 pm. These transport difficulties mean that no matter how well intentioned a returnee might be to devote extra hours to teaching preparation and research, it is almost impossible.

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[9] Sixty per cent of the university curriculum is core and 40% is available for the development of local courses.

[10] A small, local bus, generally run by private owners and not necessarily following a constant route or timetable.

Characteristics of Staff Sought for Selection

The Indonesian senior staff interviewed—all of whom had studied overseas mostly in Australia—had been able to reflect on their experiences of being both abroad and having returned. They generally described the characteristics of staff they thought would benefit from overseas study as being someone: who was intellectually capable of working at 'the cutting edge', who could work as part of a team and was able to share skills on return, who was diligent, and who was ethical and had good human qualities.

Another senior staff member in the Eastern Provinces reported that when he found that staff were not performing well in selection interviews he set up 'mock' interviews to give applicants practice in answering questions succinctly. Having said this, there is little to suggest that staff were actively 'pin-pointed' for grooming and development for a scholarship overseas, other than perhaps in a few cases with the Indonesia Australia Eastern Universities Project (IAEUP). This is in accord with the findings of Daroesman and Daroesman (1992) that 62% of all returnees interviewed had applied under their own initiative, 25% were selected by their supervisor and 12% had been selected by project staff (p.31). Similar findings were reported in the Special Evaluation Study conducted by the Asian Development Bank (1997, p. 7).

However, there appears to be an increasing focus on recognising particular discipline areas for focus for development by overseas study. The University Research for Graduate Education (URGE) project, for example, requires Indonesian research institutions to determine exactly the areas they want to strengthen. Then the Head of Department is encouraged to determine someone to study overseas to 'fill the gap.' The effect of this project has only just been felt in Australia, with one student in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study funded by the URGE project

The age limit for people to study in Australia (a limit set by the Indonesian, not Australian, Government) is 35 years. This policy is supported by Daroesman and Daroesman (1992) who found that successful students were "...more likely to be under 39 years...than over 40 years of age" (p. 45). However, several interviewees reported that age in selection is relative and there are some people who are 42+ who have been selected. These results would indicate that a staff member desiring to study abroad would:

a)   have to possess considerable initiative as it would be likely that they would need to make

most of the arrangements themselves;

b) be working in a discipline areas which was considered worthy of further development;

c) exhibit the characteristics of diligence and the ability of work in a team;

d) be 35 years of age or younger, or hold a very senior position;

e) demonstrate intellectual ability;

f) demonstrate some facility with English or the potential to be able to develop English language capacity.

Chapter Summary

This chapter described three major components of Phase Three: students' preparation for finishing and returning home; their expectation of being home; and the experiences of being back in Indonesia. The information was derived from three sources: interviews with students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study; emails, letters and personal interviews with twelve of the students who had submitted and returned and three who had returned to Indonesia on field work; and interviews with participants in the Returnee Study.

The comments and views of students in the final stage of candidature indicate that most of them had reached a stage where they (and often their families) were quite comfortable about being in Adelaide yet at the same time happy to be returning to family and friends. Many of the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study, however, were returning at the time of, or soon after, the 1998 crisis and so mixed with their excitement of returning was a strong sense of concern for their personal and professional well-being and the well-being of their country.

Students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study and the Returnee Study reported considerable stress in the last few months of candidature in Australia. In addition to the situation experienced by most research students completing their work these students had added pressures. These pressures included: packing up family and preparing children for their return; the administrative and financial issues that beset one when leaving a foreign country; visa stipulations that require the student to leave the county immediately after submission; and saying farewell to friends with the realisation one might never meet them again. These pressures do not include those significantly related to the thesis such as writing it in a foreign language and getting it to a stage where friends can arrange binding and submission in the hope that it does not require major

revision. Approximately 50% of the students reported that their supervisors were particularly helpful at this final stage with a further 25% predicting that their supervisor would provide the additional help required at that crucial stage. On the other hand, much of the data indicates that these students had several experiences in common with local Australian PhD and Masters students, albeit to different extents. For example, the stress and tension of the last few months, the sense of achievement on completion and concerns with supervision.

Only two of the interviewees from the Returnee Study reported that they had maintained ongoing research links with their supervisors in Australia and that at the time of writing this chapter none of the Adelaide Longitudinal Study students who had returned had reported such links.

Information, particularly from the 50 returnees interviewed, indicated that there was little or no formal support and preparation for students on departure. For example, none had undergone a debriefing session that might help others learn from their experiences and prepare the students for what might be awaiting them. Nor was there formal support on their return.

Students reported feeling let down at the lack of understanding and enthusiasm of many of their colleagues and frustrated at the lack of facilities and opportunities to continue their research and to implement new ways of teaching. With the best intentions the academic and physical environment—particularly in the smaller, regional universities—made it very difficult to maintain their enthusiasm and level of work. While it could well be argued that each student, and probably their families, had gained enormously in a number of ways from their sojourn in Australia, it is difficult to see the benefit to the specific university or office when students' skills and learning are not effectively utilised, respected and encouraged.

Most returnees reported having been asked to help (or asked others to help them) with references, teaching material and pieces of equipment from Australia to assist with their research in Indonesia. All who had returned had experienced frustration at the lack of facilities and the time it took for ordering materials or repairing equipment, but most had learned not to complain about it as colleagues, rather than being understanding, were likely to be jealous. Despite the difficulties experienced in Australia all of the interviewees thought that the experience was very worthwhile. The value of their degree on return was considerable in terms of prestige and

financial security, and the added bonus of English language skills meant that students who returned were likely to receive promotion and increased financial well-being quite quickly.

Figure 15 completes the graphic representation of the emphasis on various factors across the three phases. It will be noted that while some factors steadily decreased in significance for students, for example speaking, others such as writing remained constant and others waxed and waned, for example workload.

Figure 15. Significance of Various Factors across the Phases (3).

Issue	Phase One	Phase Two	Phase Three
Academic Issues			
• Workload			
• Course/Program			
• Critical Approach			
• Exams/Feedback			
Language Issues			
• Speaking			
• Listening			
• Reading			
• Writing			
Personal and Emotional Issues			
• Homesickness			
• Culture Shock/Reverse Culture Shock			
• Racism			
Day-to-day Issues			
• Families in Adelaide			
• Living in Adelaide			
• Accommodation/ Transport			
• Health			
• Finances			
Supervision			
• Expectations			
• Relationships			
• Support			

Very Significant factor   Significant factor   Insignificant factor

CHAPTER 10 CHANGES

Introduction

What do the three phases described in Chapters 7, 8 and 9 mean for students? The case studies reported in this chapter aim to give a sense of how these changes affected them as individuals. Throughout this thesis it has been proposed that three phases can be identified during the students' candidature in Australia as postgraduate students. The first is the somewhat traumatic first six months where students struggle to cope with their new personal and academic environment (Chapter 7). The second phase is the day-to-day life that they all experienced as students and sojourners in a foreign country (Chapter 8). Phase Three involves students' preparations, expectations and initial experiences of returning home (Chapter 9). Figure 15 at the end of the previous chapter provided a graphic indication of how these various phases were characterised by the level of significance reported by students of particular factors.

The case studies in this chapter provide two major observations. The first is the nature of the changes over time that students make. The second is the enormous variety of students' expectations, motivations, experiences and reactions even within the confines of a group of four students. The four cases were chosen from the potential 33 as they provided examples of the different types of student to be discussed in Chapter 11, that is: *Transformers, Strategists* and *Conservers*. These three clusters are considered to be on a continuum as shown by Figure 16 Witra, an example of a *Transformer* was a PhD student. Yudi and Adri, *Conserver* and *Strategist* respectively, both undertook a Research Masters. I have also classified Ani, as a *Strategist*, but unlike the other students she was a Coursework Masters student. The characteristics of each cluster are detailed in this chapter and further discussed Chapter 11.

Figure 16.   Transformer to Conserver continuum

Transformers	Strategists	Conservers
←————————————————————————————→		
e.g. Witra	e.g. Yudi and Ani	e.g. Adri
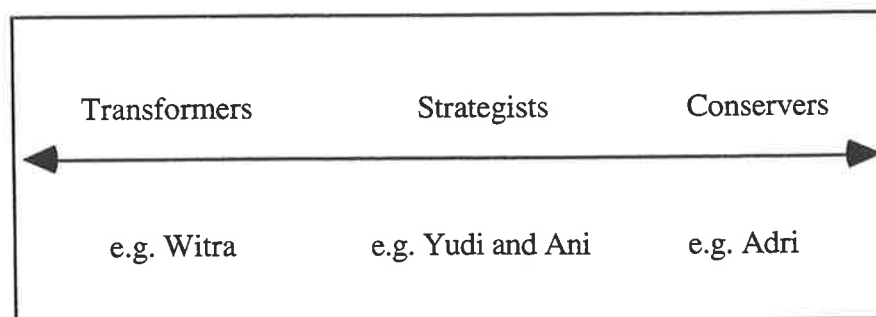
As these are case studies as much of the language as possible is that of the students (with actual quotes in inverted commas) and various colloquial phrases and expressions have been used if they were in fact the way the students expressed themselves. The views described here are as the students described: in no case have I tried to put the supervisors' point of view. In line with case study method (see Chapter 5) the four cases are 'real' examples that reflect experiences without generalising to the extent that the outcome is meaningless. However, to provide additional anonymity for the students, different names have been used for them (different from the pseudonyms used for them in the rest of this report)[1] and some minor changes, which have no bearing on the content, have been made to make them virtually impossible to identify.

Case Study One: Witra[2]

Witra was in her late twenties when she commenced her PhD in a Hard/Pure discipline in February. A Muslim, Witra was married with a pre-school aged daughter but her husband and child remained in Indonesia for six months. Witra felt guilty about leaving her daughter behind and during the first and second interviews it was clear that she was very homesick. Witra tried to work each weekend so that she was not too homesick, although she phoned home every few nights.

She had lived all her life in Java where she was a level 3A university lecturer in one of Indonesia's better known universities. Witra had a higher degree from an Indonesian university. Her IELTS score was 6.5. (Reading 7.5, Speaking 6.0, Listening 6.0, Writing 6.0) and she had completed three months English for Academic Purposes prior to departure. Her supervisor had six years experience as a supervisor including three overseas students. Witra had not wanted to come to Australia to study without her family but she felt that if she refused she would not get another chance so she had to accept.

In first semester Witra undertook a course which her supervisor suggested she take as background and she had one exam for which she received a High Distinction. As a result she felt more confident particularly when she saw that "all the other students I think when they ask me about it [my result] same with me and that I can do better and, then that's no problem after

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[1]   This means that in total there are 37 different pseudonyms used representing 33 students.
[2]   Twelve interviews for Witra coded at 17 4 22 34

that" (2: 64-66). When she also did very well in an assignment several of the local students started to ask to see her work and to chat with her, something that had not occurred earlier.

Witra had not discussed her topic with her supervisor during first semester as he had suggested that she concentrate on the course, but she felt that he helped her. Although, she was still confused as to whether she should talk with him about personal matters. She had read and been told that it was not good to tell your supervisor about personal problems. However, he started to ask her about herself and even brought in a map of Indonesia to discuss with her and so Witra felt much better about their relationship which was now including discussion "about the family and things like that" (4: 66). She also felt he cared about her, particularly when her literature review for the Integrated Bridging Program (IBP) went well and "he said 'I am really surprised about your research, it is good.' I was very happy" (3: 181-182).

Once her family arrived in second semester Witra found that she had difficulty in concentrating on her study, particularly as it was very time-consuming getting her daughter to stay in pre-school. Luckily her supervisor was overseas for several weeks and so she felt freer with her time, although she could only study for three hours per day. It was important to Witra that she now felt 'safe' with her family being with her, even though this meant she had less time for her research. She was also feeling happier and more confident about socialising with Australians particularly the Australian spouses of some Indonesian friends. Throughout her sojourn Witra was keen to make friends with Australians but found it more difficult than she had expected. She found it was much easier to make friends with other overseas students.

Twelve months after commencing, Witra was concerned that her work was progressing too slowly and that she had not refined her topic. "But there is something that upset me. My friend, his [my supervisor's] previous student was from Indonesia and he just left a month ago. I often worried about this because when he nearly finish and then one month before the scholarship terminate, my supervisor found there is one thing wrong…It must be something that has been discussed before" (4: 72-76). However, the supervisor was being very helpful to the previous student, organising typing, binding and other details for submission of the thesis. "He is very good and he cares. But I was so upset to think that it might happen to me" (4: 87-88). Concern about successfully completing on time was evident throughout the interviews.

Witra had learned from her friend [the student who had not completed] that she could not wait to hear from her supervisor regarding her work and so she took the initiative and used to email him prior to their weekly meeting with the issues she wanted to discuss. She felt this worked well. "I learned from my friend because my friend alway wait to hear, so now I make the initiative and I want to learn. I send him [my supervisor] email…but I have to do it if I want to get anywhere" (4: 99-102).

Witra was feeling quite excited about the prospect of researching a new topic and the chance to learn of new developments. She enjoyed the access to research information in Australia. "When I was in Indonesia I did some research on a topic which I thought was good but when I got here I found that lots of people had done research in that area" (4: 163-165). She commented that "from now on I will be thinking at a much broader level" (4: 166-167). For Witra the best thing about being in Adelaide was that she had access to all the facilities she needed "and I can know at the top of knowledge. It is great!" (5: 151-152). However, one of her problems was knowing when she had done enough but she felt that "it must be up to the supervisor to let the student know if there is enough to finish" (4: 201-202).

Eighteen months after arrival Witra was feeling frustrated about her progress despite her supervisor telling her not to worry. "I am just thinking and thinking but nothing to show for it" (5: 36). Witra felt that she now had a closer relationship with her supervisor "sometimes after we discuss about the paper and we talk about cricket or sometimes we just talking about Koran or Indonesia" (5: 111-113).

Her husband, while he helped carry shopping, did little housework "In Indonesia men don't really do housework (5: 96-97)." She commented that when her husband first arrived and discovered how domestic life was different without *pembantu*, that he commented "Oh, I've got culture shock and habit shock" (3: 246) and so Witra had to take responsibility for overseeing shopping, food preparation and child care. Witra had difficulty for much of her candidature managing household, family and study responsibilities. At this stage Witra did not think that she had changed, although she noticed that several other students seemed to have, as some of them had not fasted during *Puasa* nor gone to the mosque at *Idul Fitri*. However, her daughter was

feeling happy to be in Adelaide and she had some friends and "she calls me Mum now [rather than Bu]!" (4: 243).

Witra was missing having someone she could chat to about her work, not so much a co-supervisor, but someone she could ask things of. She felt she could not talk to any of the other students in the department as they were either on different topics or they seemed too busy. Even someone to share her office with would have been helpful. She was still finding it difficult to make friends with Australians. She had tried taking some Indonesian food to an Australian student in the department but it was not easy and she had decided to just make friends with other international students. She did mention that the Australian students in her department did not speak with one another either.

By interview six, that is midway through second year, Witra began to express the first signs of difficulty with the relationship with her supervisor. "It seems that after I give him something [part of a chapter] and then I give him another one maybe after two weeks or three weeks he already forget about what I give him. I have to explain it again. And I ask my friends and they say—*It's normal?* Yes. Sometimes it seems he doesn't read everything I give" (6: 27-31).

At the end of her second year Witra and her family returned to Indonesia for a holiday. The main reason for the trip was that Witra became very stressed with trying to manage her work, her family, and the household "it is hard being a mother and a student" (7: 22-23). Witra recognised that she was a perfectionist and so she was finding it very difficult to manage everything "also I like everything to be perfect. If I want to work I have to have my home clean and all those things" (7: 29-30).

The stress was still showing with the relationship with her supervisor. "But now after nearly two years (I think it's only one and a half because I really work one and a half years) and I think about my supervisor. Because sometimes I ask something and he didn't know it. It makes me crazy" (7: 34-36). In this interview Witra used the phrase 'it makes me crazy' five times and was quite distressed at what appeared a change in her supervisor who seemed no longer interested in helping her. Witra thought that some of the suggestions he made seemed "very far away from the problem" (7: 82-83) and perhaps he wanted her "to see it from a different point of view but I don't find it very helpful—it is just a waste of time" (7: 84-85).

From comments in earlier interviews where she thought she was lucky because her supervisor 'cared for her' now she was feeling that he did not care and that "he expects me to do it all on my own" (7: 98). She was particularly concerned in light of her supervisor's previous Indonesian student who had returned home without submitting and thought the same thing might happen to her. However, her supervisor had an overseas colleague working in the department for six months and Witra was hoping that he might be able to help her. She had noticed that in Australia she was "asking a lot, not at all like in Indonesia. I know that this is the only way I can survive" (7: 127-129). She reflected that perhaps the previous Indonesian student had not completed because he had not asked enough in terms of time and support.

By interview eight Witra was feeling happier as a result of solving many of her own problems. She had written down all her problems and tried to solve as many of them as she could herself and then only discussed the specific ones with the visiting professor who had offered help if she needed any. "It is also nice to have the security of having someone to ask, even if I don't actually do it. Like yesterday I asked him just a small question and he told me it was OK and it made me feel better, because there is someone there, even just for small things" (8: 29-33). Mind you, it had not been easy for her to ask for help "I kept going to him and then stopping before I got there, so many times" (8: 104-106). It was several months before she managed to make it through the door. She described him as a very nice person, "but some people say I can just pop into his office without sending an email but I think that is very rude so I keep sending him an email asking if can I come to see him maybe next week or something, but he says you can pop in any time so he doesn't give me a proper time" (8: 197-201). We also had quite a long discussion as to what she should call him. She felt uncomfortable using his first name as he had suggested, particularly as he was a professor.

Small things also became important things. For example Witra had managed to get some help with household tasks and was feeling more confident about domestic arrangements "it is perfect now. All the problems I had [have gone] and now I am happy" (8: 45-46). By this stage Witra seemed to be learning three things. One that she could ask for help, two that writing clarified issues for her, and three that she was beginning to learn to manage her time.

"I really I am beginning to understand what I am doing. Some questions that I feel in my mind, now are clear. And I even write them down now. After I think, oh that is not really right and I write it again, it makes me very clear now. It's very exciting. I am beginning to understand why the people use this one [method of research] and another one. It's amazing!" (8: 51-56). Also at home she had begun to "survive and my daughter was well and my husband had tried to manage and I thought that we were going to be OK" (8: 74-75). She was also very pleased with the relationship she was developing with her daughter. As she explained in Indonesia with *pembantu*, sometimes children can become closer to the *pembantu* than they do their own parents, but here she was developing a strong relationship.

However, Witra was still having difficulty with making Australian friends. She had come the conclusion that much of the problem was to do with her discipline "I don't really have Australian friends here but it's funny because in my room [office] there is two Indonesian students, but we never speak to each other [the two Indonesians and the other Australian in the office]. He nice to me but he never say 'Good morning' or something when he left so I didn't know what to do, should I say 'Good morning' to him, because he never speak something, so I didn't know what to do so if I coming I just say 'Good morning' to my [Indonesian] friends, but not 'Good morning' to him because...before I move there [to that office] is a lot of Australians there and when I say 'Good morning', some say 'Yes', but some of them just quiet. I don't know I try to be nice, but it's very hard" (8:111-121). Witra expressed the concern that she had to always 'do the right thing' not just for her own sake but for the sake of her family. "But that is part of my culture and it takes me a long time to do those things, I spend a lot of time worrying about it" (8: 194-195).

A second visitor to the department arrived and she was particularly worried about how to initiate discussion with him "so last Monday afternoon I just popped in and he was all right. He says 'I only have ten minutes before I have to go with [my supervisor] and I say 'It's all right maybe only need five minutes I just want to be sure' because sometimes the problem are already known. I'm not sure I'm not irritated I just want to do the right thing" (8: 203-207). Witra went on to explain that in Indonesia it would really be quite rude if you told someone that you only had ten minutes "even only we don't have many times, we have no time for...but people come

but we have to do something, we can't tell that we have to go I have...no we can't. That's not polite" (8: 209-211).

Witra had said throughout the interviews that she and her husband did not have a social life as "I just want to finish my PhD and go back home" (9: 90-91). Other than *pengajian*[3] once a fortnight they spent most of their time working or caring for their daughter. She had been so busy with trying to complete and return home that she and her husband had only visited one tourist place in South Australia and that was because it was arranged by an Indonesian friend through *pengajian*. She felt that she could not enjoy sightseeing while she still had work to complete.

Her daughter was a great delight to her, very sociable, liked by all the children in the class, playing sport, and generally having a great time, even to the extent of correcting her mother's English. It was at this time that it was clear the crisis in Indonesia was developing so Witra and her husband decided to try to save money for their return.

By the end of the year Witra's research was 'stuck'[4] again and she felt that her supervisor was not being helpful and the visiting professor had returned home "sometimes I feel really miserable because when I talk something it seems that he doesn't understand what I am talking about....I always force him to read my work. He just promises 'I'll read it next week, I will have it for you.' But it doesn't happen" (9: 9-15).

By the beginning of her third year Witra still felt that she had to 'force' her supervisor to read and comment on her material "I gave a seminar to him and I forced him to read. But if I didn't give a seminar he would not read. But it takes time because I have to prepare the seminar. After I give the seminar he read one chapter and then [another] chapter" (10: 6-10).

Despite her difficulties Witra believed that she had become much more critical and was enjoying research, which she had not done in Indonesia and after three and half years suddenly we see Witra confident and excited "about my job [work], I think the last semester is the greatest. Because I told you before that I gave my supervisor seminar [presentations] about four or five

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3   As described in Chapter 7 these were fortnightly meetings of Muslim students.
4   'Stuck' was a word used often by students to describe difficulty with their research.

times but there is no really, suggestion, a real suggestion from him that is meaningful for me and then I try to write in a passage form and he start to read it and he finish reading until [up to] Chapter 4 and he gave some comments on it" (11: 3-9). But her happiness was tinged with sadness "because I think if he read it two years ago maybe because after he gives some input I start to work [out] what is this here, what is this and I start to search all the things and find all the things that I didn't really know about it, and then ooh, if this had been two years ago, two years ago I still had time to enjoy it as well. But now I don't know, maybe if I extend. I start to enjoy because I found by myself, ahh this is good and I want to do this again but no time left so I have to limit myself" (11: 19-27).

In addition, she was able to manage her time at home and was feeling confident about managing family and study. But the crucial comment below reflects Witra's changing view of herself. "And after three years I change my view about, about going overseas and doing PhD or something, do some education...Because for the first time I take my Masters degree and what do you call, we call it *S1. Bachelor?* Bachelor and Masters before I got married so oh, I always got the first mark for that so I never had a problem with education and then when I got here, I just realise after three years and a bit I change my view about it because I think I came here not only for my education or my career but for my family as well and I change my mind after three years, yeah, I think, it's very selfish I think about myself and, but because people think I'm very stressed because I always have a good mark and I don't have any progress in my work. And then after a while I talk to my husband and, it's very different the situation there" (11: 63-76).

Witra suddenly realised that she was not just in Australia to study and finish her PhD and return home as quickly as possible but she was here to enjoy her life with her husband and daughter, and, as she discovered, to enjoy her research. "First the view that I told you and then the way I manage my family, my work, manage time and then I told you before that I don't really like doing research, but after now it's very interesting and then I think the way I see myself. After, for the first time, it's very big difference. I try to appreciate myself, appreciate everything that I've got, because before I always got, from the first time I start my education I always got first one and so that's the one always, I must be doing everything good, perfectly like that, that's

the one that makes me stressed. After a while I appreciate that if I can't do it, you still can do something else. I learn to appreciate myself" (11: 122-133).

Witra had also learned, with her husband's help, that it was not always necessary to have the house spotless although she did not particularly like it. "I always like to have my home to be clean, everything clean, but my husband says, 'Just leave it you have too much things to do.' So I try to manage and I try to appreciate my daughter because I can't see my daughter wearing the clothes just dirty, I can't do it. And if she eats and gets spilt everywhere I don't really like it but after a while she has to learn it and I have to appreciate that she will get dirty" (11: 135-141).

Witra was not only feeling more confident, she was being approached by her supervisor to do some teaching and marking. She had decided not to accept the offer still realising that she was a perfectionist and so it might make it more difficult to finish and submit, but she was feeling much happier about her supervisor who now seemed interested in her work. "After all of this I realise that being here is not just about studying, When I first came I thought it was just studying but after that it was only part of life and there are so many other things" (12: 67-70).

Summary

Witra's story was unusual in that the change she observed in herself was so extreme and she was so excited and pleased about it. While many other students came to understandings about themselves, particularly Rina, Dian, Yanti, Jono, Koko and Basu, Witra learned three crucial things. The *first* was that studying in Australia was her life, not a period when life was 'put on hold' while she studied and gained a qualification to then begin living when she returned to Indonesia. Many of the students came to the same conclusion during their candidature, but none articulated it quite so clearly as Witra. The *second* lesson Witra learned about herself was that she could solve her own research problems and that she was capable of doing so. In fact, not only was she good at it, but she enjoyed doing so. The *third* was that she did not always need to be the perfectionist. While she was quite aware of the fact that it would be difficult to change, she realised that her family were more important to her than a spotless house and a daughter wearing clean clothes. It was clear from the stories that she told of her early life in Indonesia that Witra had always worked very hard, both personally and as a student to achieve and to 'do the

right thing' and of course she tried to do the same when she came to Australia. However, when confronted with differences in culture, ways of interacting and approaches to research and learning, she found that she could learn from the experience and feel happy with the outcomes. Witra was a very strong example of the transformation that some students experienced.

Particular characteristics of Witra, and similar students, suggest that she could be called a *Transformer*. The transformative characteristics demonstrated by these students include:

- being aware of personal and academic changes and being able to describe them;
- recognising various aspects of both cultures and how they were influencing thinking and behaviour;
- appreciating that one would be a changed person on return to Indonesia.

Case Study Two: Yudi[5]

Yudi, who was enrolled for a Research Masters in a Hard/Applied discipline, arrived in second semester. He was in his late thirties, Protestant and married with two children, although he arrived without his family. He was a 3C lecturer in a provincial university. He arrived with an IELTS Score of 6.0 (Reading 6.5, Speaking 6.0, Listening 6.0, Writing 5.0) after six months English for Academic Purposes at the IALF. As well as English he spoke *Bahasa Indonesia* and a local language. He had undertaken a study overseas prior to his application to study in Australia so felt he had some idea of what it would be like to be away from home and live in a foreign country.

He was told by his Dean in Indonesia to apply and in the first interview he suggested that the reason for postgraduate study was that one needed to have the knowledge to teach. He had two supervisors, the principal describing himself of 'fairly inexperienced.' The speed and amount of work posed difficulties for Yudi compared with the much slower, easier and more relaxed working environment of home with no *jam karet*[6]. As with Witra, Yudi had undertaken a course in his first semester and had to take exams at the end of the year but he felt he did not do well. Although he knew the answers he could not accurately write them. He was concerned about

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5   Nine documents for Yudi coded at 17 4 22 37.

6   *Jam karet* (rubber time) similar to the Spanish 'manana' or tomorrow. Frequently used as an explanation for being late or not getting something done on time.

passing so that he could start on his research on a topic suggested for him by his supervisor. Throughout the second interview Yudi referred frequently to the exam and the fact that he knew the answers but just could not write them and his concern about failing. Yudi asked me if I thought that he would continue after the first twelve months as he was sure that if he failed the exam he would be sent home.

He was feeling unhappy about his work as there was so much to do and his principal supervisor was overseas and so he could not talk with him about his research. Prior to his departure the supervisor had suggested "to make a model about my research so I have problem to understand [what he means]....My English I still have problems on how to make model. So I need ask my supervisor. Is this a stupid question?" (2:67-68; 135-136). He was worried that if he asked his supervisor a 'stupid' question it would influence him negatively as "In [Indonesia] for example, as a lecturer, sometimes I am also a supervisor. Sometimes I try to know what the student wants, what he needs to support himself, how to looking for research, I don't want to influence bad, so now I also feel I want to ask my research so I need to looking for myself this problem but I think I have to do it in February so I don't know" (2: 141-146). This was the first of several indications that he was having difficulty relating with his supervisor.

After almost six months he was not missing his family as much as before and was preparing for their arrival. He had made friends with some Indonesians from the same province who were resident in Adelaide and some others through his church.

By the third interview Yudi was able to report that he had passed the exam and was feeling much better. His family had arrived and seemed to have settled with one of the children in school and another in child care. His wife was not working, having only arrived three months earlier. However, Yudi's ongoing concern was with his research and his supervisor. Whenever he spoke about these matters he became visibly nervous and upset, (he demonstrated a number of nervous mannerisms, and his English would deteriorate). His supervisor had returned from overseas and had organised for Yudi to move to another lab on the campus where he would be with some other students doing similar work; however the area he was to work in was not yet ready. Four and a half months after the meeting on his return Yudi had still not met again with his

supervisor. Yudi recalled his supervisor saying at the last meeting that they would meet weekly, but that had not happened because, said Yudi, "He is very busy" (3: 68).

Yudi now felt that his previous academic experience, including the study overseas, had not prepared him to work in the area in which he was expected to research. In addition the lab where he was supposed to work had not been available for the six months since he commenced. "I thought I would have had more direction and be further advanced" (3: 132-133). Yudi had found the six months very stressful, stress which he took home to his wife "sometimes I argue with my wife" (3: 140) but she helped him deal with it.

Twelve months after the first interview Yudi still seemed very nervous and unsettled although not quite to the extent of the previous interviews. "It's a bit better than last year, but still not good" (4: 19). During the Annual Review[7] Yudi had told the Postgraduate Coordinator about the infrequency of meetings and the Coordinator wrote to the supervisor asking him to meet with Yudi more often. However, from Yudi's point of view this was not necessarily a good thing because "you know even though I have written my project proposal, they haven't given me something like solution , they just say 'wrong, wrong, wrong, wrong,' so I confused" (4: 25-28).

At this stage Yudi was feeling as if the experience of studying in Australia was not worth it, even though he was developing his English skills. He was feeling frustrated and that he was not making any progress. His knowledge of the technology was not good and he felt that he was not getting any help with that either. It was clear that Yudi was very stressed and frustrated by his lack of progress and the apparent lack of support and guidance from his supervisors, particularly with the use of the new technology. Yudi did not know what his supervisors expected of him and he did not know how to ask them, particularly as he was not confident with his English and so might be misunderstood. Also Yudi reported that he had been used to working only a few hours per day in Indonesia and if he did not have lectures he might not go to the campus at all. He found the workload demands in Adelaide a new experience.

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[7] All Higher Degree students at the University of Adelaide take part in an Annual Review of Progress where they and their supervisor complete a review of the previous twelve months and discuss plans for the following year. The student then meets with the Head of Department or Postgraduate Coordinator where issues can be discussed and any difficulties resolved.

By interview five Yudi said that he felt a little more confident and that he was preparing to return to Indonesia for field work. He also mentioned that his supervisor was being more helpful. It was becoming clear that each time Yudi encountered a difficulty and made any sort of criticism he would then try to excuse his supervisor or attribute the problem to himself. For example each time he described a problem with his supervisor he tried to provide a reason why his supervisor had not been helpful: being overseas, too busy, setting up the lab and "my supervisor and I had different understandings of what I wanted to do" (5: 24-25).

Yudi had received considerable support from the Integrated Bridging Program lecturer and then in talking with another support person he came to realise that "for example, the university is not just training for students but also the students must get the knowledge to create by themselves and then they will develop themselves. But in my mind I thought I would get everything here, guidance for the supervisor, actually I must also...by myself, so if I have problem in my country I can solve by myself not by he [my supervisor]" (5: 33-39).

He was still finding it stressful trying to get everything done on time but again, Yudi tried to excuse it by blaming himself "I didn't prepare myself so I come from different [environment], so stressed. Because if I go to learn other students they know English, they know computer and so on but for me..."(5: 72-74).

Yudi's wife had been ill and so he had found it difficult to concentrate. He had also encountered some experiences of racism, generally people 'saying something' in the street but he and his family enjoyed living in Adelaide where they had a better standard of living than in Indonesia. Yudi found that while he was home on field work his family in Indonesia thought he had changed. He also thought that he had changed when he was back in Indonesia. An example he gave was that he was no longer prepared to listen to, and be part of, gossip. He also found it difficult that there were not queues in shops and other busy places, and he did not like using the unreliable buses.

After returning from field work Yudi's supervisors were again not available so the Postgraduate Coordinator took over supervision for some months. Yudi found this helpful as the Coordinator was able to explain some basic principles that Yudi had not understood.

He again tried to excuse the previous difficulties. He suggested that the reason that he and his supervisor were having difficulty with progressing the research was that the field of study was new; the laboratory had to be set up with new equipment; one crucial piece of equipment was not working; and the only person who knew how to fix it was away. However, he was still experiencing difficulty asking for help. He explained it by suggesting that it was probably his fault that he was slow, but whenever he went to someone for help they always seemed busy and did not have time to stop and explain to him, nor did he seem able to ask people to commit to a future time. On a previous occasion his supervisor had made him feel that he had intruded and so this made him very wary of asking for help again.

By interview seven—that is two years after commencing—Yudi reported that he was starting to feel happier with his work "I know how to get the goal of my work. Maybe because my English, or because, I know by myself, yeah, because I not under pressure I work relaxed for last year" (7: 9-11). His wife had started working and the children were well and Yudi was hoping to be able to save some money for his return home. He had started to worry about going home, not only financially but also how he would cope with the working conditions "here it is dreaming and when we go home it is the real life" (7: 42-43).

Toward the end of interview seven, for the first time in all our discussions Yudi started to be critical without making excuses for his supervisor or blaming himself. He suggested that the strategy that the University adopted of getting students to work independently, while it was "a good thing because if we know by ourselves it is good, [and] it will remind [stay with us] for a long time, better than [if] we ask but...we have a limited time so if just, not care with student, we will know, maybe five years we know, but we have limited time" (7: 76-79). He felt that given that his time was limited he would have benefited from more assistance and direction instead of responses from his supervisor "like my supervisor say 'Why you write this?' 'So what does it mean?' So make me he suggest me but not to the point. Just thinking again and so. Only 'Why you did this?' But it's not enough for me, I want to sit down and show me. I like this. But he say 'Remember next month you have to finish your database, if not [makes a sign of cutting his throat]. But I think maybe he's know maybe if I didn't come. I don't know but for him it's easy, so easy" (7: 81-89). To complicate matters the main piece of equipment that he

needed had not been working for over six months. He had asked three times for it to be fixed, but nothing had happened.

By the second-to-last interview Yudi was more confident "aah, it's good now. Because last year when my supervisor signed my report to send to AusAID, it's good, on time, I don't know!...In December I had finished my database, I mean I created all the things I presented I just need to write them....I am getting assistance [with writing] from AusAID" (8: 24-28). Assistance from his supervisor had also improved. When asked what he thought had caused the change Yudi reflected for a while and then, although blaming himself, suggested that it was not until he showed some real emotion and that he had become strong, that is angry, that the situation changed. He had come to the conclusion that he had to express his mind and his thinking and to follow-up when his supervisor promised something, in other words, become more demanding.

He summarised the most significant thing he had learned while being in Australia as "aah! I think to know something, study something I know by myself. I mean, aah I get help but, after I mean if I have problems they help me, but not because we are lazy or we are too many [have too much] work. So we ask something is not important for the supervisor so they just let us [go], so, at the time when we feel we have no time again, we need this problem to [be] solve[d], but with a little of emotion and getting angry and we force them they give us everything we need, so we feel like, what, I don't know how to say, very yah! *[Sense of achievement?]* Yah!" (8: 62-69).

Not only was Yudi starting to feel more confident (and strong) but he was very proud of his children's development. They had been regular attenders at a local church and Yudi was delighted to be able to describe how his nine-year-old daughter who had not spoken any English on her arrival was able to stand up in front of the whole congregation and read from the Bible in English.

Yudi returned home three years after commencing his study, not having completed his Masters degree. He concluded that the main reason he had not progressed further was that he had been unable to ask for, and receive, help. He still did not know why people were not more helpful, but he had found that when he asked confidently and consistently he received assistance.

Perhaps the cause of his difficulties were to do with two other factors. The first was his understanding of research. He had thought for most of the three years that research meant re-searching, that is, re-looking at something in the way that an undergraduate might re-look at a novel or a prepared experiment. It was more than two years before he understood that his supervisor's view of research was something quite different.

Another cause might have been Yudi's belief about why he had been sent to Australia. He suggested that it was because he was 'old' (more of the 'old guard' rather than in age) and that the 'new guard' wanted to move out people such as him and one way of doing this was to send them overseas to study. Other ways included 'edging' them out of the lecturing timetable and making it difficult for them to gain research funds so that staff such as Yudi felt as if there was little or no reason to go to work but rather stay home and work in the garden "that's why we say that 'silence is gold' because if you have too many critic [make too many criticisms] then you don't get the jobs. You have to follow [what] your boss says" (8: 149-151).

However, Yudi left feeling that he had achieved a great deal. His English had improved significantly, he had learned how to ask, and then demand help, he had made many friends "socialising internationally....So I am positive. And my kids. Because this is international so every time they see something on the news they will know" (9: 106-110).

Yudi summarised his experiences as "now I can say this is what I expected, but when the process, I say that this, I know that if I say this is my title [of my research project] he will know that it is this, this, this. But I am silent because I thought that maybe the supervisor want to know about my motivation, how, they just silent because they don't know and actually they silent because they think I know everything. So I say 'Oh my God', I thought they will give me my Master but actually no... [I thought if I told my supervisors the title of my research they would tell me what to do, but now I realise they thought I would know]" (9: 118-125).

Summary

Yudi was one of the few students who struggled for much of his candidature (others being Igun and Antonius, although not to the same extent). However, like some of the others, those that I will describe as *Conservers*, he understood too late what it was he was expected to do and how he was expected to do it. He spent considerable time and energy trying to explain why his

candidature was not being successful. This was either by excusing his supervisors or blaming himself. It was not until he got angry, something he found very difficult to do, that he gained a level of confidence and found that his supervisor responded. It is disappointing that it took so long for this to happen, and even more so that it needed to happen at all.

While there were some personal and family gains from Yudi's three years in Adelaide, the academic and professional gains were probably minimal. I would suggest that much of this could be to do with the reason for, and manner of, selection, or at least Yudi's perception of the reasons why he was sent to Australia to study. Having said that Yudi was able to see that his children had had an experience which he hoped would assist them in life and he was keen to continue supporting them on their return. He was also pleased about the friends he had made and the cultural experiences that had occurred for him and his family.

I have suggested that Yudi was a *Conserver* because he:

- had a very 'naive' concept of research and of the academic purpose of his work;
- found it difficult to conceive of how he might operate differently on return to Indonesia; and
- had a strong sense of internal attribution.

Case Study Three: Adri[8]

Adri commenced his Research Masters in a Hard/Applied discipline in February. Originally from Sumatra, he lived in Jakarta where he had studied for his undergraduate degree at one of Indonesia's best known universities. He was single, Buddhist, mid-twenties and appeared to be outgoing and confident. He had an IELTS score of 7.5. (Reading 7.5, Speaking 8.0, Listening 7.0, Writing 8.0) and had not attended an English for Academic Purposes course prior to departure. As well as English he spoke *Bahasa Indonesia* and a local language. He had one supervisor who had been supervising students for four years, with some of the students being international students. Adri had been working in private enterprise for several years, but the position was not being held for him on his return.

His reason for applying for postgraduate study was so that he would be more highly regarded and able to get a better position. He thought that an overseas experience would help him become

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8 Nine documents for Adri coded at 17 4 22 36.

a critical thinker which he said was not something he had had a great deal of training in. He was also keen to get to know Australia better and expand his horizons.

Prior to enrolment Adri had researched various universities and their course offerings and had decided on three. He then emailed each and, based on their responses, chose Adelaide. Adri had also attended courses about Australia and had spoken to friends so he felt that he had come well-equipped to handle his study in a foreign country. This methodical approach to his choice of university was reflected in much of Adri's candidature. However, despite his inquiries Adri was quite surprised to find that his course was all research. Some of his undergraduate lecturers had studied in America and he expected his degree to contain more coursework and have quite strict supervision as he understood was the case in the United States.

Adri explained that he got quite stressed when he had to meet his supervisor in case something he had done was wrong, and his main difficulty was "preparing the proposal and working out what I am trying to do and then you have already done that sometimes I am still not sure that it is on the track, on the right track. Sometimes I worry although it is not express facially. And also developing the proposal itself...you know it's the first time that I do research...sometimes it can get a little bit scary. I get stressed out especially when you have to meet your supervisor and then sometimes I would say the supervisor is someone who might tell me what I have done is wrong. Sometimes it's OK" (2: 78-87).

By the middle of the first year he was feeling frustrated that he seemed to be going too slowly, but he was working long hours, often till 10:00 pm. "My supervisor was away for two months, and I was left without a supervisor and in the past two or three months I was reading and going to the IBP class and learning things and then this month have become more clear about what I am going to do. You see in [my discipline] you need to [develop techniques] that I am going to work on and currently learn how I am going to implement these ideas on these [experiments]. It's very much more steady now. Before I was just reading and reading and reading and sometimes it just feels like I go nowhere and one day I feel depressed and another day you feel full of energy" (2: 48-59).

After the first few months when he found it very quiet, Adri quite liked Adelaide as a city, and he had started to make some quite close friends.

Twelve months after commencing, and after a four week break in Indonesia, Adri felt: prepared to undertake research; that he knew where he was going; he had friends; and felt comfortable. He was writing a paper for publication and had presented a paper at a national conference. He also felt that there had been some indirect and direct changes in the way he was thinking and seeing things. "Some of it has to do with being in Australia as well as maturity and the chance to reflect on experiences and being away from home and being more independent" (4: 32-34). However, much of this change tended to be work related. He recognised that he had become much more independent but did not think he had changed in terms of values or culture.

He had developed a clear timetable for himself with milestones. He was quite interested in the different relationship between student and supervisor in Indonesia compared with Australia. In Indonesia he felt that the supervisor was more like a parent and rarely would students have their own ideas "they would always have the supervisor going through the work and interfering a lot and changing the way things are. The direction is at least 50:50 but here it could be more 90:10 or 80:20" (4: 63-66).

After eighteen months Adri had had a paper accepted at an international conference but he was still feeling as if he were going too slowly and "I am not able to see anything for all my work" (5: 10-11). He had developed a social life which he enjoyed, mostly on the weekends. However he was disappointed that Australians "because if you stay here Australian people they don't seem to be able to want to mix. Sometimes if you stay here you don't even know who's next door. That's....sometimes I try to mix with them, I mean if you have a meeting or something social gathering with these Australians when you try to get into their circle but you're just accepted for a while and then you aren't" (5: 85-89). But he had many friends who were international students where "I learn a lot from them—sometimes when I don't even realising [realise] that I am learning" (5: 100). Adri felt that he had achieved a good balance between work and social life and most of his friends had developed a similar balance although he was aware of some students who had little or no social life.

Adri and his supervisor maintained weekly meetings throughout his two and a half-year candidature and he felt he knew he was on the right track. His greatest concern was the level of frustration he was experiencing with the slowness of his progress. However, with six months to

go Adri was feeling quietly confident he was able to complete successfully and although his supervisor gave him suggestions and feedback at the beginning "now I am fairly independent" (6: 15-16). By the seventh interview Adri had been to a conference overseas where he presented a paper on his research.

Adri had been used to working long hours in Indonesia and so the hours he worked on his Masters were not difficult, in fact he felt that the workload as a student was slightly easier. However, he was aware of several students who were having difficulty with the workload. Adri had come to the conclusion that although Australians were much more informal than Indonesians they were "much more serious about things like meetings and keeping promises and being punctual than we are in Indonesia....I found it quite hard when I went home that people were not keeping meetings when I was expecting them to" (7: 39-46).

By the last interview Adri was feeling satisfied with a sense of achievement at having managed to complete his degree. "In terms of study I think I have done something that I probably thought that I would probably never do, writing papers, going outside Indonesia. It's been a kind of obsession with me for many years, to go to study abroad, so in terms of that it is significant for me. In terms of life I have encountered things which I would not have encountered back home" (8: 28-33). He enjoyed the opportunity to be independent and realised that he alone was responsible for his research.

However, his academic achievements were not the only development Adri was aware of. "It is hard to describe them in details, but personal development and things like that. I am a different kind of person, and better, a lot more confident. I have enjoyed this experience and would recommend it to others" (8: 33-36).

He described the personal changes he had to made as "just like fighting with yourself, you know" (8: 88). In other words, while he felt he wanted to do something the way he had learned as a child to do, he felt from his experience of his new culture that he should do it in quite a different way. However, he did not always manage to overcome his reticence. "In my department there are lab supervisors' meetings but there are two people there who talk all the time, they never stop, so whenever I want to say something I just have to wait. I would never jump in over them, I would never do that" (8: 103-106).

Adri successfully completed his award and ended up with a position outside Indonesia where he has been granted Permanent Resident status as he was very concerned about living in Indonesia after the crisis.

Summary

Adri was an example of a number of students, particularly Siti, Kintan, Iwan, and Buharto, who had quite specific aims for themselves and were quite strategic in the way they went about achieving these aims. As a result I am suggesting that Adri was a good example of the group of students I have called *Strategists*. These students:

- organised their time well;
- determined what skills they needed to learn and quickly found people who could help them;
- had developed research proposals that gave them clear milestones and ways of evaluating their progress;
- knew why they were in Australia and what they wanted to do when they returned.

For Adri, his greatest enemy was time, or perhaps the demands he put on himself to complete not only on time, but ahead of the normal completion date.

Adri took responsibility for organising meetings with his supervisor and always went with a clear focus for the discussion. His supervisor appears to be similar in his approach and the two worked well together although even at the end of his candidature Adri commented that the relationship was purely professional with little discussion of personal issues.

As well as his 'ordered' and strategic approach to his sojourn in Australia, Adri still felt that he learned a lot about himself and about other people while in Australia. In particular he learned that he could be independent and that he was more confident in the way he interacted with other people. His emails to me since his departure indicate a very confident and articulate graduate.

Case Study Four: Ani[9]

Ani commenced her Coursework Masters[10] in a Soft/Applied discipline in July. She was in her mid-thirties, Muslim and married, but her husband and son had not accompanied her although

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9   Eight documents for Ani coded at 17 4 22 37.
10   A three semester course of 36 credit points.

she anticipated they would join her by the end of the year. In addition to English, she spoke *Bahasa Indonesia*, a little Javanese, a little Sundanese and Betawi (the local language of Jakarta). To assist her chances of gaining a scholarship to study overseas she had taken private English classes a few years earlier. On her arrival in Adelaide her IELTS Score was 6.5. (Reading 6.0, Writing 6.0, Listening 7.0, Speaking 7.0) and she had had twelve months English for Academic Purposes at IALF. She had lived nearly all her life in Jakarta where she worked as a Level 3A civil servant. She presented to the first interview as enthusiastic to be involved with her major concern at the time being her inability to summarise material and get through all the reading required of her.

Ani demonstrated her determination to achieve early in the interviews. She had found her boss in Indonesia to be quite egocentric, and members of the department seemed to be jealous of others' success. So there was little encouragement to staff to apply for overseas study. In fact, it was made very difficult by the bureaucracy, as the relevant information stayed on people's desks until it was too late to apply. When Ani heard that there was an announcement from AIDAB about scholarships a friend advised her to go to the Australian Embassy in Jakarta and determine what was happening. Ani found out when the application information was sent and to whom and then traced it through the system. She made a copy of the form while it was still with other people and prepared a full application so that when the form actually arrived in her office with virtually no time left, her application was ready! Ani's aims were to improve her English and to do something new by living overseas, which she also thought would be a good experience for her son. She was also keen to broaden knowledge of her field.

Ani's determination to develop her education and career were evident when she told the following story. When she graduated from SMA[11] in Jakarta Ani's father wanted her to be a teacher, but she was not interested and so when she sat the entrance test she failed (by choice) and was unemployed for three months. She then saw an advertisement for a free, three-month secretarial course provided by Vocational Training (a section of one of the government departments). The first, second and third ranked people from the course were offered positions with department and she was ranked second. Ani had a good job for several years with an

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[11] Sekolah Menengah Atas (Senior Secondary School) with an academic focus.

international project. However, as she finished work at 3.00 each day and the project was coming to an end she decided to enrol in a degree. She studied until 9.00 each night for six years. With her degree Ani was then keen to study overseas.

In the first interview Ani seemed very stressed by the amount of reading she had to do. By the second interview she was feeling more confident as she had learned these skills. Ani's aim to improve her English was evident throughout the interviews. She was concerned that "sometimes they [other Indonesian students] speak all Indonesian all the time. I think I said to you before that it's not good for me because I want something improvement at least in English because I spent here for two years and when I come back and then said 'Oh you can speak English' and then if we have a meeting or international seminar or a thing like that I cannot use my English because all the time here I speak in Indonesian" (2: 84-87). As a result Ani went to great lengths to develop friendships with Australian students so that she could improve her English.

Ani did very well in her first exams with one High Distinction and one Distinction. Her disappointment at getting 'only' a Distinction for one was "because I had a problem with my computer and I lost the whole essay and so I had to retype it all and I got it in late but the problem was the language I didn't have time to check the language" (3: 52-55).

Ani's family arrived and she found that at first having her family in Adelaide was difficult as she had to spend a great deal of time settling her son into pre-school and then arranging child care for the half day he was not in pre-school. Ani was interested in the questions her son, who did not speak English at this stage, would bring home each day "What is 'good boy' or 'fruit time' or 'stand up'? He is learning" (3: 126-127).

Ani was aware of the time constraints on her as a student who also had family responsibilities but she seemed to manage her time quite effectively. When Ani had to devote time to her family and could not work until 9.00 pm (which she had previously been doing) she realised that it was important for her not to get anxious or show any frustration as "I wanted them to come here and so I had to give them some time, and it is my *sabar*[12] and this is my responsibility and duty

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12 Literally patient or tolerant, but in this case meaning more 'necessity not to show irritation'.

also" (4: 71-73). To minimise food preparation Ani organised herself so that she did not have to cook too much and "I have a regulation that my husband will wash the dishes. I have so much study and so he does that" (4: 155-157). Although her husband had cooked for himself when he was studying overseas "when I am there he doesn't cook" (4: 163).

Because Ani was only doing a small scale research topic the relationship with her supervisor did not fully develop for some time, however she found him helpful although she always went to him "very prepared and I know exactly what I want to ask him and so it works well" (3: 78).

Ani's son seems to reflect his mother's aim to improve his English! After her son had been at school for a few months Ani reported that "yesterday he said to me 'Oh why don't you speak English to me everyday, don't speak *Bahasa Indonesia*. Sometimes if I a bit angry or in a hurry I speak *Bahasa Indonesia,* and he says 'Oh stop it, stop it'!" (4: 34-36).

Ani was keen to access all available assistance for her study. Initially she had asked the other, mainly Indonesian, students for advice but she found that unsatisfactory as they would say things like 'Just do it.' "I think this might have been because they don't want a new student to get a good mark" (4: 53-54). As a result she sought help from the IBP lecturer in organising a timetable and having weekly meetings, a strategy she thought was successful given her results.

By her second year Ani was working with a group of Australians and "being in group with Australians is not easy because they are very critical. In Indonesia for example I have written for 20 minutes and then discussion maybe for 10 minutes and then situation again. But now sometimes the question is very long, I don't understand what's the main point and then I prepare for a 30 minute presentation and they change the time but it's good practice for me, maybe it's hard but good experience for me but I have to prepare more" (4: 99-106).

In the semester that her family had arrived Ani 'only' managed two Distinctions and one Credit but in third semester she managed two Distinctions "so I felt better. And now I think my thesis will be solved if I work hard at it" (6a: 181-183).

Ani was concerned about going home with a Masters degree and the expectations others might have of her but excited by the possibilities that this would open for her "although many of the benefits of having a Masters depends on the boss. Some want to keep all the good things for

themselves. I am prepared for that. If my boss doesn't want to use me to work in a group I will work outside rather than doing nothing" (4: 174-178).

Her husband and son had settled and were enjoying life in Adelaide. Although "sometime I stay here until 7.00 at night or 8.00 and tea is not problem because I already prepared the food for them to have dinner but my husband...he doesn't want I come late because maybe there is not three of us and my son go to bed actually at 8.00 so we have misunderstanding. I do something, just chatting something like that and he also angry and finally I realise that he doesn't want I come late just very late at just 7.00 or 6.00 and not 8.00 and 9.00 so when I follow that he's very happy. Because he want me to join with my son before my son go in bed" (5: 80-89).

Ani was still very keen to improve her English as she knew of some students who had returned with very little discernible improvement. She had deliberately tried to mix with Australian students rather than Indonesian students to improve her English but she was also concerned about the 'hierarchy' from the civil service in Indonesia which seemed to have transferred to Adelaide "they use in Indonesian *Mbak* and *Pak*[13] because they have a level, a higher level. Still a culture in Indonesia" (6a: 147-149).

Just as she was about to depart Ani sent me a note where she reflected on our early meetings and where she had asked me whether I thought that she would be able to complete her study successfully. She commented that in retrospect it was a "silly question but that it was an expression about my worriness" (Letter1: 17-18). But she went on to say "Since you know my difficult time as a master overseas student in every semester, this time I would like to share my happiness that is...I finished study successfully with grade Distinction result on my thesis" (Letter1: 23-25).

Summary

Ani is an example of the several students—such as Fatimah, Rina, Hermina, Yanto, Enton, and Koko—who arrived in Adelaide very concerned about her ability to cope with the academic

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13   *Mbak* is a term of address to a contemporary Javanese woman (whereas *Mbok* is a form of address for an older Javanese woman of humble origin) and *Pak* (short for *Bapak*) is a term of address, particularly for an older or more senior man. (Echols & Shadily, 1989)

program only to discover that she was as competent and capable as many of the local and other overseas students. She was clearly determined to make the most of her opportunity and worked systematically and with determination to develop what she considered to be one of her main assets, her English language. Like Adri, I suggest that Ani, was also a *Strategist*. She was clear about what she wanted to do and how to go about doing it.

Ani's candidature could be described as successful in a number of ways. She completed her academic program with excellent results, she was happy with the improvement in her English, her family enjoyed and gained from the experience, and on her return she gained promotion to an excellent position in the Civil Service. There were two critical points in Ani's candidature. The first was when she learned how to read more efficiently and effectively: this gave her enormous confidence to continue. The second was when her self-esteem was significantly enhanced gaining such good exam results. She realised that she was as academically capable, if not more, than any of the other students.

Further Discussion

As the summaries to each of the case studies indicated, Witra, Yudi, Adri and Ani are typical in their own way of most of the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study. Yet at the same time they also provide evidence of the enormous differences between students even just in this small sample. Had I prepared case studies of any other four of the 33 students I would have provided evidence of similar variety. Each of the students changed in some way, that of course is to be expected. But the benefit of a longitudinal study with regular and in-depth interviews with students throughout their candidature provides insights that would not be available in a cross-sectional study.

Had I surveyed each of the four students on any one particular day I would have had responses that were *high*, for example, 'Everything in perfect now,' *low* 'I am confused, I don't know what to do,' or *indifferent* 'Up and down.' However, the interviews over four years indicate that students experience dramatic changes in their views, often with quite minor events causing quite considerable change and often having significant effects on their academic progress.

Changes tended to be more obvious and significant in students who had not studied overseas before and who were in Australia for more than two and a half years. It appeared that students

who had already studied overseas—Dian, Rani, Yanti, Kintan, Buharto, Junaidi, Edi, Basu, Sugik, other than Yudi—had already made some fundamental changes and came with expectations that reflected their previous experiences. It also seemed that students who were in Adelaide for less than two and a half years—Fatimah, Lena, Watie, Hermina, Tini, Yanto, Arief, Igun, and Antonius, with the exceptions of Rina and Ani—did not have the length of time it seemed to take to undergo the whole range of experiences that brought about much of the significant change in the longer-term students. However, it is significant that these students were also undertaking coursework degrees. Therefore, the time factors and type of course are integral and without further and quite specific research it is difficult to be certain which was the main factor. In the interim, based on the evidence, I conclude that the students whose supervisors believed they should have been undertaking a PhD rather than coursework Masters, that is Fatimah and Ani, were beginning to notice more evidence of changes.

Edi suggested another factor, that is that most of the postgraduate research students studying in Australia were on scholarships (all but one of the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study), rather than privately funded, made a difference to their level of change.

> You have to relate what they feel and what the attitudes [are] about, you have to relate to the social status and economic status and where they work. You know we have groups of Indonesian students. First group is postgraduate students and mostly we come from not rich [backgrounds]. We come here because we have a fellowship, if I have to pay for study here, maybe it's impossible, this [is the case with] most of postgraduate students. But not for undergraduate students, mostly they are private and you know if [you] compare between undergraduate and postgraduate they are very different. Undergraduates have a free expression, like Australians but for postgraduates we come from families with average community standards. This also affect the way we have to express ourselves. (Edi8: 112-124)

A comparative study of Indonesian undergraduate and postgraduate students would be useful in the future to test Edi's hypothesis.

As Chapter 4 indicated, attribution, that is to whom or what do individuals attribute success or failure, has a significant effect upon an individual's view of her/himself and of learning. Yudi provided insight into this aspect of student learning when he tended always to excuse his supervisor, the University and the environment and blame himself for any failings that he perceived. However, toward the end of candidature he was beginning to believe that, while he was still 'somewhat to blame' (in his view), at least part of the responsibility for his lack of progress

rested with his supervisor and support staff. On the other hand the Muslim students in the group tended to attribute their success to God and their failings to themselves. As Ismanto describes:

> This is my personal view. To succeed I have to work hard, it's also luck that nobody can calculate. But the luck is to do with God. To me, doing research is like communicating with God. I mean we are trying to find out what is the unwritten thesis. There is the written thesis, like you have Bible, ours is Koran, and the unwritten thesis is the nature, so you have to, who owns the knowledge is God and if he wants to give it to you. Sometimes you expect it will work this way and it doesn't. We know that science doesn't work because you work harder, or you are a good man, science works when it is done right, because, the law of the universe cannot be changed just because you pray to God, or you are a good man. If God keeps changing the laws of the universe it is just destroyed, so I work harder and I pray and I hope that God will help. For the external things like supervisors, facilities, I have found that it is just an excuse. For the other people like the environment and other people, it's just helping our communication. That's how I myself have found it.
>
> Science belongs to God and God gives it to mankind for everyone. But maybe not the right thing! Luck is a random thing....I've found that it [my religious belief] has given me the strength otherwise I would have given up. (Ismanto9: 28-57)

In lengthy discussions several of the Muslim students went to considerable pains to explain to me the concept of *Insya'allah* (God willing). The students' understanding was that God would help them, only if they helped themselves, and they rejected the fatalistic view of Islam (proposed by some non-Muslims) that it does not matter what one does as God will have his way. This concept of attribution added an extra dimension to the Muslim students and their study:

> God plays an important role, I mean, because I have the philosophy that the closer I get to him the closer he is to me and studying or being here, being overseas to study is, I regard being here part of the whole struggle in life and, and in this struggle when we work hard, we might have to come across problems which may make us, which can deviate us from the right way to achieve the goals. And God plays an important role in guiding the way to the right path. I mean if I submit to my animal ego I would not be able to concentrate on the work that I have to complete because I could be distracted by something else. There are many temptations around, distractions, in this different society, even in Indonesia I have, we have very different society but the temptations there are the same, only the level is different. So if I don't submit to this guidance and I don't submit to him that, it could be I feel, no not feel, I do not have the guilt to do bad things. Do you understand what I mean? By remembering him I feel the guilt to bad things, so this keeps me on the path, the right path.
>
> *So to what do you attribute your success?*
>
> To opportunity, to opportunity which is because of the God. (Jono6: 160-185)

The main changes were related to academic, cultural and personal issues (see Table 33). As Witra's case study demonstrated, many of the students experienced quite significant changes in their views about themselves as learners. The most obvious was students' views about having become more independent learners. "Here I have more experience in research by myself and so I am completely independent and that is very different from what I was doing in Indonesia. This is not necessarily better but good experience for me" (Siti4: 102-109).

Virtually all students talked about their greater independence as learners and generally there was a degree of pride in their responses in that, despite many difficulties, they had managed, and with what seemed to them like very little help from their supervisor. While most students made comments about being more independent, those who had studied overseas before seemed to have greater insight into the changes this brought about in them:

> I think the fact that I studied in [Europe] has been a big help. When I was first there it was awful I had problems with language, a problem with housing and with understanding. It was awful, really awful and then one day I decided I had to do something for myself and since then I have been independent. I think you have to find for yourself the best thing that will work. (Kintan5: 88- 94)

Table 33.   Main Changes over Time

Change	Comment
More independent as learners	Particularly noted by those who were research students and who had studied overseas before.
More confident speaking, particularly in groups	Mainly reported by coursework students.
Increased ability to express (particularly negative) feelings	Realised Australians were not good at 'reading between the lines.'
Greater personal independence (generally linked with greater academic confidence)	Understanding of self and being able to manage away from the support of home.
Changed view of self as spouse, parent, child	Particularly noticeable in women.

Another experience of many of the students, particularly those who had to undertake any type of coursework, a demonstrated by Ani, was their greater readiness to speak out in a group. Although it was clear from their comments that many of the students did not necessarily think that the way Australian students 'spoke for the sake of speaking' was in itself a good thing:

> Every Australian always, our lecturer says Asian students too quiet and actually it's not good because they don't know, even if we are thinking of work, we know so maybe when I go back I will be talking a lot.

In Indonesia, Indonesians talk a lot, just maybe when they come here they don't talk, maybe not in class.

Yeah not in class. In Indonesia, in class very different, I feel very scared, not like here, even they just speak and don't even answer the question. I notice students here just speak, like even it's not related, they just speak, but in Indonesia, not like here, very very scared. (Lena4: 120-130)

Lena talked about being brave in speaking out in groups, whereas Basu regretted that he had not been braver is speaking out about an unsatisfactory supervisory situation much earlier in his candidature. He had learned, as had Yudi and other students, that he needed to express what he thought, particularly as he discovered that Australians were not particularly adept at picking up nuances in body languages in the way that he had experienced with Indonesians:

Can I add another one [factor in lack of satisfactory progress]? I think the most regrets of me is I was not brave enough, I should move even though my supervisor not suggest me to move I should take the initiative to move to say [another] university or other place which has a lot of experience in this field. To stay here was the biggest mistake of my life. (Basu12: 85-91)

On the other hand Siti, who had just completed her PhD, had learned to speak with her supervisor as a friend and colleague and to even give him advice about his style of supervision. She was his first PhD student to graduate and after the event she was able to talk with him about her experiences and "he has thanked me for helping him to be a supervisor. He has taken me to dinner and to lunch. Now he is more open" (Siti8: 56-57).

It was probably the area of personal change where the most obvious effects were noticed:

I suppose one of the other things is that I didn't realise some of the things about myself which I have discovered since I have been here. Because of the problems with communication I think that when you are here you have to really look at yourself really closely because you can't cover it up with all the cultural things which are at home. But here it is highlighted and you have to face it. (Koko5: 40-46)

However, it is clear from the following comments and from the case studies of Witra and Ani, that students' personal and academic experiences were very closely linked. For example, Tini suggested she felt more confident as a person, although it seemed much of this was to do with her academic achievement:

Yeah I can say I feel more confident. Now when I go together with my husband sometimes...now I feel confident, I could say that I don't feel left behind. Even I join my husband when he went to United States but it's different when I come

here and when I studying and get my Masters. And my husband said 'When you get your Masters I should get PhD.' (Tini4: 155-161)

Several of the students, for example Igun, Watie, Koko, Antonius, Rina, Fatimah and Jono, recognised that they had changed in some ways but were keen to ensure that they did not lose their 'Indonesianess' in the process:

> I want to change the way I have to do in Jakarta because I have good experience in Australia but I don't know exactly because Indonesian culture is different in Australia, is it possible if I work like Australia[n]. But I think one important thing maybe my office learn good English, so you can do all thing. But I don't want to lose Indonesian culture. (Igun4: 126-131)

Students were aware that they were returning home and demonstrated by the four case studies that they had to 'fit-in' to the Indonesian way of working and interacting with friends and so many gave considerable reflection to how they might maintain this balance:

> So many things, I can't think. I would say it's the building of my character, I have changed a lot, I change a lot in my ways of thinking. I mean, I haven't lost my Indonesian way of thinking, I shouldn't because then I will go back there at the moment actually I am trying to picture what's going to happen there and try to adjust myself and know that once I go back there I should really just take the things can be applied there and try to really leave behind things that can't be applied there because it will cause a big problem like my way of thinking about life my family or friends I have to just put that aside. (Koko8: 62-71)

It was not always the student who was trying to maintain a balance between their Indonesian culture and Australian experiences. As Dian describes below, her family wanted to remind her of her 'roots' when she seemed to becoming 'too Australian:'

> Maybe I am changing. You know the way I see all everything Indonesian really different. Even my sister said I had changed a lot. I am becoming impatient. Really. Everything, you know when you go to the office there you want a certificate, something like that, I really become impatient, you know. You see people they are really unprofessional and when I see the people the people very undisciplined you know smoking in non-smoking, they don't care. My sister says I am different. They just remind me of my background. (Dian4: 135-142)

But Rani, a social science student who used to give a great deal of thought to the discussions we had over the years, strongly challenged me and many of her peers about their views of Indonesia and its people:

> You should know that not all of your respondents actually study social science or sociology and so sometimes they make always comparisons between us and Australians and sometimes it is just my opinion that they do not really think

through the issues related to what they say. One of the things which I have had to be very aware of is the fact that when I am researching in Indonesia I am doing it with some Western thinking so I [was] wondering how you can research Indonesians. Another thing I have been thinking about is that often when Westerners research Indonesians it seems that they think there is a problem with the Indonesians and that they are not as good as the Westerners. Do you think this is so? (Rani7: 155-167)

Rani's observations and challenge led to a very useful discussion on culture and cultural issues, particularly in light of her own research in Indonesia where she had come face-to-face with the issues of cultural imperialism.

From all the responses it seemed that students, particularly those who stayed for three or more years, were able to work through the issues of comparing 'better' and worse' and were able to appreciate various aspects of each of the two cultures within which they were living. Having said this, virtually all of the students mentioned that they were not looking forward to returning to the slow, tedious and over-bureaucratised manner of much of the administration in Indonesia. As outlined in earlier chapters, one of the most common responses to what students liked best about living in Adelaide was that it was 'easy.'

From the discussions all of the women, particularly those who were married, tended to comment on cultural and personal changes more frequently than the married men and certainly the single men. These observations were mostly related to domestic issues and their relationships with their husbands. For example, Hermina's family came for a brief visit while she was studying here and I spoke with her the following week:

> Last week [when my family came to visit from Indonesia] because we stayed in apartment in Glenelg, so I had to cook for breakfast, lunch and dinner, I have to wash, I have to ironing, I have to clean the house and I have already get used to be a student and then go back to be a housewife and then I just realised if we don't have a maid, oh it must be like this everyday. So I thought I say to my husband actually we are spoiled because we have a maid so we didn't do anything except go to the office, food already on the table. Yes, it takes time. From as soon as I woke up until I sleep and then I woke up again, it's so hard, not finished. Because last time my friend invite me for dinner in their house and I saw the husband help the wife very much and I thought 'Oh if my husband do like this I will very happy.' You know the husband in Indonesia, just order the wife. Can I have a drink and he just says no, why don't you get it by yourself. So what is that and he just said, 'Oh you change.' And I said because last time when I had dinner, you know the husband brought the food to the table and serve the drink and then the wife just talk to me, that's very nice I think. And he says 'Oh you changed.' (Hermina3: 127-141)

Beni was one student who thought that he had not changed, nor did he want to change. I had asked him in an earlier interview if he thought that he had changed and he responded that he had not. At the following interview, when I asked whether he had any questions or comments for me he started by saying he was quite surprised that I had mentioned that several of the other students thought that they had changed and he asked for examples. Then he said:

> It's interesting for me because I myself, practically I'm not changed.
>
> *Are you surprised you haven't changed?*
>
> No, no…how do I explain why I think in my opinion most educated people…most of them are, have not good enough inside, how do I say, inside, perception. [Most educated people do not have a comprehensive perception of the world.]…Maybe that's because, not because they have lack of this own views relative to his discipline no, but general inside, general perception. I observe that most of them has lack of this. [They might understand their discipline, but they have a narrow view of the world.] Maybe you can ask them about this, their interest, their interest of reading. How much of them who concern about political about his or her own country, about environment, about woman matters.
>
> *So what you say is that many of them perhaps don't really have a full view of the world, a perception of what the world is really all about…very narrow, they don't read or discuss issues.*
>
> Yes, yes. I'm not in a position to judge. It is just my opinion, even in educated group, the people is like that, the situation is like that. Let's say, does he or she knows about Boris Pasternak, or Sigmund Freud, how many of them recognise that people? I doubt that. (Beni9: 40-60)

I understood from further discussion with Beni that he felt that many of the students who came to Australia were not strongly principled and not well educated in a broad sense and so they were at the 'whim' of whatever was the prevailing view of the world, whether it be an Australian view or some other. It was clear from earlier interviews that Beni gave deep and serious thought to political and cultural issues, both in Indonesia and Australia.

Chapter Summary

From the case studies and other responses it is evident that all but one of the 33 students were aware of some change in their view of themselves, their culture and/or their work practices while in Australia. Several of the students commented that these were changes, not necessarily improvements. The type and extent of the changes varied enormously with only a few patterns apparent in the results.

The first was that students who were in Australia more than two and a half years, that is all of the research students, seemed to report the greatest change. (Beni had been in Adelaide just on two and a half years at the time of the interview above.) The second factor was that students who had already studied overseas seemed to reflect on changes, but often in relation to changes that had occurred as a result of their previous sojourn. The third pattern was that married, and to some extent single, women seemed more likely to be aware of domestic/cultural changes than married and single male students.

Nevertheless, what is far more evident is the great variety among students and the individual difference, even with the same sex groups, course types, origins and age. In addition, what was particularly noticeable was the refocussing or re-emphasising of various issues for students throughout their sojourn. For example, as Chapter 7 suggested homesickness was of major significance for many of the students yet by Phase Three it was rarely discussed. One the other hand, workload and stress from long hours and visa/scholarship constraints was a major focus in Phase One and again in Phase Three. The figure developed over Chapters 7, 8, and 9 indicated the varying emphasis of certain factors changed over time.

CHAPTER 11 DISCUSSION AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

Introduction

Prior research on international students rarely provides a long-term view of students. It concentrates on specific and usually preliminary issues only. This longitudinal study provided insights into the life of 33 Indonesian postgraduate students over their candidature in Australia. While the limitations of such a sample size are recognised, even when linked with relevant published research, the thesis presented here provides some evidence to show that the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study experienced three phases during their candidature: 1) the anxieties and challenges of the first six months; 2) the 'settled' phase of the next 18-30 months; and 3) the stress of preparing for and returning home. Reasons to account for the changes that students experienced were also presented. Recognising the warning of Huberman and Miles (1994) that one must avoid generalising the results of case study to the extent that they become almost meaningless (p. 435). I was aware of the possible constraints of the case study method with regard to generalisation when reporting the results here. This chapter provides a discussion of the overall trends indicated by the data and literature, and addresses the question 'So what needs to be done now?' with suggestions for policy research and development. These trends and suggestions are specifically related to Indonesian postgraduate students studying at the University of Adelaide although nothing in the literature suggests that these trends and suggestions are not relevant to other Indonesian students undertaking postgraduate study in another Western academic environment similar to Australia.

Discussion

Expectations and Experiences During the First Three to Six Months

The first research question asked "What were the expectations and experiences of Indonesian postgraduate students during the first three to six months of candidature in Australia?" Chapter 2 reviewed a wealth of literature regarding students' initial experiences, and Chapter 7 addressed in detail the expectations and experiences that students reported in their first three to six months. The findings of the Pre-departure Study complemented those of the Adelaide Longitudinal Study and provided insight into students' early hopes and fears. From the interviews it was clear that many of the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study experienced considerable upheaval

in their personal/emotional life during this time. In the interviews students described their early expectations and the difficulties they had adjusting to the language, culture and academic demands of a foreign environment. In addition the students reported that the personal stress and anxiety they encountered had significant influences on their academic performance. Of particular note was the concern expressed by many students regarding their ability to cope with the academic demands of their course. These findings were generally well supported by the literature. Chapter 7 also provided evidence that most students overcame the majority of these difficulties, often within the first six months and certainly within the first twelve months.

Most students reported difficulty with knowing what it was their supervisor expected of them and the expectations of the academic program. The results of the Supervisory Rating Scale indicated that there was considerable variation in responses among students and supervisors. However, where expectations were clarified and feedback on progress provided students experienced significant enhancement in self-esteem particularly once they realised that they were managing their academic program well.

It was observed from the data that while the students did find it difficult in the first six months, once they had been in Australia for twelve months the issues that seemed to dominate their life, for example, homesickness and difficulty with speaking in groups, were rarely mentioned. This finding is significant in that it suggests three things to students, supervisors and support staff. *Firstly*, that most students will indeed undergo considerable distress in the first six months and that the quality of their academic performance will almost certainly suffer as a result. The *second* is that most students, given support and understanding during this time, will, in fact, overcome these difficulties and settle into a stable and confident routine by the end of twelve months. The *third* is that supervisors are advised to refrain from making negative judgements about a student's academic performance during the first six months but rather look for qualities that indicate that students are likely to adopt a strategic or transformative approach to their experience and encourage these qualities.

The Change of Expectations and Experiences over Time

The second research question addressed in this study was "Do students' expectations and experiences change over time while in Australia?" Chapter 3 examined the literature regarding

expectations of learning, how these expectations develop, how they affect learning, and the effects of expectation ambiguity. Chapter 10 provided four case studies that demonstrated from the interviews how students' expectations and experiences did in fact change over time. It was suggested in both Chapters 3 and 10 that student learning is influenced a number of factors including motivation and attribution, intention to learn, conception of learning, and perception of the learning environment. For highly motivated international students it was reasoned that initially the learning environment did not match the expectations of many. For example, the students had expectations, albeit usually implicit, of the behaviour of their supervisor and of the student-supervisor relationship. The mismatch of expectation with experience was reflected in levels of dissatisfaction, anxiety and even stress. Students felt these negative effects of expectation ambiguity, particularly in their first six months when they often found that they were not achieving the goals that they had anticipated. When their expectations changed, or their experiences more closely matched their expectations, their anxiety was eased.

The details from Figure 4 in Chapter 3 are re-presented in Table 34, this time with examples from the Adelaide Longitudinal Study of students' motivation and attribution, conceptions of learning, perceptions of the learning environment and expectations.

Table 34.   Model of Student Learning and Expectation in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study

Learning influenced by:	For example:	Students' expectations (ALS)
Motivation and attribution	Shown to be very high in students in the study.	Based on reports from previous students and from staff at IALF students arrived expecting they would achieve: • enhanced English language • technical knowledge and skills • content knowledge • enhanced teaching skills or work
Conceptions of learning	An accumulative conception of learning with a strong sense of duty.	Students who had studied overseas before tended to have expectations more closely related to their experiences in Australia.
Perceptions of the learning environment	Included:	
	Role of the supervisor	Students expected the supervisor to take the initiative based on experience in Indonesia.
	Relationship with supervisor	Students needed to feel comfortable approaching their supervisor about expectations due to a high level of respect.

Critical approach to research	Students generally were not expecting the level of critical research required (particularly based on cultural norms).
Independent research	Students expected more course work and assistance with the transition to independent research due to undergraduate experiences and knowledge of Indonesian postgraduate education.
Time constraints	Students expected that they needed to work very long hours to complete in the time provided.

It was argued in Chapter 3 that students' expectations are formed over time and are the result of a complex interplay of factors. These factors include: previous experiences, for example previous overseas study or success as an undergraduate; whether they are influenced by internal or external attribution; motivation, particularly the anticipated benefits of achieving the goal; conceptions of learning, for example, whether they have an accumulative or transformative conception of learning; cultural factors, for example anticipated role of, and relationship, with a supervisor; and information from individuals and organisations.

It was further argued in Chapters 7, 8 and 9 that students' expectations change as a result of the interaction of such things as the implicit and explicit expectations of others; feedback on work in progress or exam results; learning from others either by example or by developing friendships with local students; and changing conceptions of learning as a result of work with supervisors, support staff and/or programs such as IBP. The interviews with students and particularly the four case studies in Chapter 10 indicated that most students did indeed change their expectations related to their experiences while studying in Australia for the reasons outlined above. This finding has four main implications for students, supervisors and the institution.

The *first* is that it is crucial for supervisors to acknowledge that they have expectations of themselves and their students many of which are not openly expressed, but are nevertheless very influential on behaviour. For example, if supervisors have had previous negative experiences with supervising Indonesian (or other overseas) students they need to be particularly vigilant to ensure that negative expectations are not brought to bear on the new relationship.

The *second* implication relates back to the first research question and that is supervisors are advised to withhold making decisions regarding a student's academic ability too early in

candidature. In the context of this research question the concern is that students are attempting, by whatever means they have, to a) find out what their supervisor expects of them, and b) try to meet what they think, based on previous experiences, their supervisor expects. This leads to the *third* implication of this finding and that is the crucial importance of student and supervisor coming to an understanding of each other's expectations. While it is not suggested that there must be unanimity on these expectations—although that would certainly make life easier for all concerned—but each party should at least know what the differences are and their extent.

The *fourth* implication of the finding that expectations and experiences change over time is that having clarified expectations fairly early in candidature it is important to regularly review those expectations to see how each party might have changed and the result of those changes for the supervisory relationship.

In summary, the role of expectation and an understanding of the expectations held by students and supervisors was demonstrated to have a significant effect on the progress and well-being of the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study.

The Extent of Change and the Factors that Influence Change

The third research question was "To what extent do students change and what are the factors that influence this change?" As Chapter 3 demonstrated while there was evidence in the literature that students changed after the first six months, there was very limited evidence to indicate more substantial change over the long term. It was proposed that one of the main reasons for this lack of evidence was the dearth of longitudinal studies compared with cross-sectional studies of overseas students studying in Australia.

Looking for major trends in the data leads to the conclusion that most students learned that to be successful in an Australian university they needed to adopt many of the characteristics that are usually applied to individualistic (Australian) societies rather than collectivist (Indonesian) ones (Hofstede, 1986; Hofstede, 1991; Lewis, 1996; Triandis, 1994; Triandis, Brislin & Hui, 1993). Students had arrived from a culture that generally reflected a hierarchical structure in the way that many of them had been taught as undergraduates and expected that they would be supervised in a similar manner. Other than the students who had studied overseas previously,

students had experienced a more teacher-centred form of education compared with Australia and had been successful in that learning environment.

However, many of the students reported undergoing an 'individualising process:' that is, acting more like students from an individualistic rather than collectivist culture. This occurred through experience, observing local students, lecturers' and supervisors' responses, and feedback on their work. This process involved the social, emotional and academic aspects of students' lives in a closely integrated, inter-dependent manner where a change in one influenced another. As students gained greater confidence in the various aspects of their life so they were able to attain the above average grades many had achieved as undergraduates. Chapter 2 referred to the attitudes, traits and abilities proposed in the literature (Church, 1982; Hannigan, 1993) that affect students adjustment. Of particular relevance in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study were language proficiency, age, prior cross-cultural experience, and social interaction with host nationals.

As Chapter 8 demonstrated the main academic changes reported were those related to greater independence as learners, readiness to speak out in a group, greater facility with English, and generally increased confidence. These academic changes were closely related to personal changes. There was a small number of students, however, who wished to manage the academic changes without changing as people. They wanted to return to Indonesia with enhanced knowledge and skill but conserving their 'Indonesian identity' in the process.

Students were acutely aware that they were returning home where they would have to 'fit in' to the Indonesian way of working and interacting with friends. For some this was of considerable concern, others accepted it as part of their life experience, others were looking forward to it, and others chose to seek employment outside Indonesia. It was evident that all, but one, of the 33 students were aware of some change in their view of themselves, their culture and their work practices while in Australia. This important issue requires further research particularly with regard to the way students managed their personal, social and professional environment on return and any long-term influences of the sojourn experienced by them or their family.

The study also revealed that the changes students reported involved academic, emotional and personal aspects, and that the extent of the changes were quite varied within the student group. Some students made fundamental changes to the ways they viewed themselves as 'learners.'

Others had adopted a more strategic approach where they learned, and put into practice, strategies for success while some others made only minimal change. These changes in the different students suggested three groupings of students: the *Transformers*, the *Strategists*, and the *Conservers*. These three clusterings of students must be viewed as indicative only, placed along a continuum not within 'boxes,' keeping in mind the emphasis in the study on the individuality of students' responses.

Transformers, Strategists and Conservers

The Transformers, approximately one quarter of the cohort evidenced similar characteristics to learners who might be described as deep or transformative learners (Bain, 1994; Biggs, 1989; Entwistle, 1991; Marton, Dall'alba & Beatty, 1991; Meyer, 1994; Nulty & Barrett, 1996; Prosser, Trigwell, Marton & Runesson, 1997; Volet, Renshaw & Tietzel, 1994). They are those who changed in ways that are 'irreversible'; that is, they changed forever the way they view the world. The case study of Witra in Chapter 10 was a very good example of a *Transformer*. These students had not 'become' Australians or 'stopped being' Indonesians, but had rather recognised, through experience and reflection, the influence of their new society and how that affected them as Indonesians. We saw how Witra experienced considerable upheaval in her first six months, but then settled into day-to-day life at home and in her department with many issues that beset a mother, wife and PhD student. Witra also underwent considerable change regarding her view of herself both as a person and a researcher in a way that she considered had influenced her significantly. Witra predicted that returning home meant that she would need to reconsider her way of working in Indonesia.

Transformers also exhibit characteristics akin to Salmon's (1992) *process-oriented* students (see Appendix B in the section on Purpose of Postgraduate Research). Process-oriented students reflect the highest of Perry's (1970) levels of development, that is dynamic commitment where the commitment depends on personal change and development. Salmon suggests that process-oriented students undergo personal change as a result of undertaking doctoral studies. In fact, it is further suggested that process-oriented students undertake these studies and select their topic based on the expectation of personal change or development.

The distinguishing features of most of the *Transformers* were that they were likely to have studied overseas previously or at least to have gained a Masters degree at an Indonesian university; be enrolled in a PhD rather than Masters; work in a university rather than government office or private enterprise; be in their early thirties at commencement of candidature with an IELTS score of 6.5 or higher.

The previous experience of these students having studied overseas and or of having completed a Masters degree appears to have provided them with four things: a realistic expectation of what they might expect in Australia; which led in turn to a level of motivation that was achievable; a conception of learning that might be more in tune with what they were likely to experience in Australia; and experience with English language. However, not all students who had studied overseas or who had gained a Masters degree were at this end of the spectrum. This observation leads to the conclusion that two other influential factors were involved here: the environment within which the students were living and studying and the students' motivation to seek a second opportunity to study overseas following the first successful experiences.

All but one of the students who were *Transformers* (*n*=9) had supervisors who were reported by the students to be particularly helpful and concerned. For example, Witra reported that her supervisor had been helpful at the beginning and end of her candidature, although they did have their ups and downs mid-way through. Even Basu, who felt that he had been wrongly allocated to the University and then to inappropriate supervisors, learned from his experience, albeit a negative lesson. One of Basu's real concerns was that he had completed his Masters in another Australian University, an experience that he considered very successful. This success was due in large part to the quality of the facilities and the supervision. He had expectations of the same, if not better, facilities and supervision at Adelaide and was very disappointed, even angry, when these expectations were far from met. He commented that he had learned about the political dimension of research "I hear a lot of stories here, I have learned a lot scientifically and non-technically, non-scientific. Ah gee it is very hard and desperate" (Basu11: 22-23).

The discipline within which the students were studying did not seem to influence the extent of the change they underwent. For example, with the *Transformers* there were students across the range of Hard/pure, Soft/applied, Transitional, and Hard/applied disciplines (Cullen et al., 1994;

Kolb, 1993). Nor were there differences that could be attributed to sex. This factor and whether students came from western or eastern Indonesia were not observed as being a significant variable in any of the three groups. However, their award, that is whether they were studying for a Masters or PhD, was a factor. I suggest that this is for two reasons. The first is the length of time involved and the second is related to an earlier comment and that is that many of these students had undertaken previous postgraduate study prior to enrolling in a PhD.

It can also be argued that students who had studied overseas before and who viewed this as a positive experience would be more likely to apply for further study abroad and to have realistic expectations of the subsequent experience. Hence we are dealing with an almost self-nominated group of students, that is, students who had been previously successful studying overseas.

The *Strategists*, approximately half of the cohort, were the students who understood fairly early in their candidature what was required to successfully complete a postgraduate degree in Australia and who then adopted the necessary strategies to enable this to occur. As Bochner (1994) suggests, students do not have to find the characteristics of their new society desirable, they merely need to identify and adopt them for the necessary time in order to manage well in the society. He provides the simple but graphic example of new comers to Britain realising the importance of adopting queuing as a necessary function of social survival and then immediately ceasing this behaviour on return to a culture where queuing is not appropriate.

The case studies of Adri and Ani in Chapter 10 provide examples of students who adopted very strategic approaches to their candidature in Australia. Given their approach, it is also to be expected that these students would be very strategic on their return home and re-adopt the necessary characteristics to work within an Indonesian cultural and academic environment. *Strategists* were characterised by: undertaking a Masters degree (over 75%); only having undertaken undergraduate work in Indonesia; being in their very early thirties at commencement of candidature; and having an IELTS score of 6.5 or less.

Most of these students had put enormous effort into gaining their scholarship and opportunity to study in Australia as we saw, for example, with Ani. They were highly motivated to make every moment of their candidature count. They tended to work very long hours and took little time for recreation, particularly during the first twelve months. These students tended to take

some time to come to terms with the academic and intellectual independence that their supervisors expected of them. Those who did manage the transition more easily than the others generally reported having regular meetings with their supervisor (see Chapter 8 in the section on Supervision Issues). These regular meetings were important for two reasons. Firstly students were not required to take the initiative to contact the supervisor if they were having difficulty. Secondly, with regular discussion there was more likelihood that expectations would be made explicit and shared. In other words the academic environment these students experienced assisted them in attaining greater academic independence.

These students, given their lack of previous experience with a Western academic approach, devoted considerable energy and time to coming to terms with what was required of them. These were the students who were very keen to know 'precisely' what their supervisor expected, and were keen to learn such skills as the 'best' way of structuring an essay or sentence. In other words, they had worked out what they needed to know to be able to be successful, found people to help them acquire these strategies, and then practised them quite consciously. *Strategists* are also akin to Salmon's (1992) product-oriented students (see Appendix B). These students were those who were focussed more on the outcome of their PhD, that it the qualification, rather than the personal change and development experienced as a result of doctoral studies as was the case with process-oriented students.

Again this group of students tended to reflect similar characteristics to those described as strategic learners. These are the students who quickly determine what it is that they need to do to successfully complete the tasks and they do this in a very strategic manner. As with the *Transformers* discipline, sex or home location did not seem to have a significant influence on whether students were *Strategists* or not.

The *Conservers,* who made up slightly less than one quarter of the cohort, appeared to adopt an approach to their sojourn which meant that they did not report changing significantly in social, emotional or academic ways. Yudi (Chapter 10) was an example of a *Conserver*. The identifying features of the *Conservers* were that they undertook Coursework Masters degrees; were significantly older than the other two groups being in their mid to late thirties; and commenced candidature with an IELTS score of 5.5 or 6.0.

The fact that most of the students I am suggesting were toward the *Conserver* end of the continuum were Coursework Masters students deserves comment. This choice of course had three outcomes. The *first* is that the time in Australia was relatively short. Whether these students would have adopted a different approach to their sojourn had they been here for three or more years is a question which this current study cannot answer. The *second* factor is that, as a result of their course, these students generally did not have a long-term supervisor[1]. While several of them undertook research projects there was not the opportunity for an in-depth relationship to develop. As a result students did not receive the same amount and level of feedback from their supervisors as did the research students. Therefore, they did not have the same opportunities to determine and share expectations with their supervisors. The *third* factor is that these students might have been recommended to undertake a coursework degree, or have chosen this degree, as it was more appropriate to their academic abilities and interests. The focus on coursework might also explain why Salmon (1992) did not have a group akin to *Conservers* in her study as all of the students she researched were research-only candidates.

While the literature indicates that an IELTS score is not a reliable predictor of academic success, (Ballard & Clanchy, 1997; Cowrie & Addison, 1996; May & Bartlett, 1995; Phillips, 1988; Todd, 1997) the work of Furnham and Bochner (1986) indicates that without effective communication skills it is difficult for students to make friends with host nationals and thereby learn the social and academic skills that will ease their transition into the new culture. Not surprisingly the *Conservers* were also students who reported having mainly Indonesian friends. The data suggest that these students' perceptions that they did not have the language skills to mix with local students might have been one of the significant reasons for the minimal extent of change. This is linked with the short time in Australia and the fact that they did not face the same inter-personal challenges that the full research students faced with their supervisors.

These students, the *Conservers*, were similar to those described in the literature as surface learners, that is students who did not substantially change their view of the world as a result of their experience. These were the students who were concerned that they might no longer be

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[1] Coursework Masters students in Australia generally only have a supervisor for about 12 months while they complete their research project.

Indonesian, but adopt the negative qualities that they observed in Australians. They were also the students who went to great lengths to protect their religious and cultural values.

In summary, the data from the Adelaide Longitudinal Study suggest that students cluster into three groups based on the type of change they experience (See Table 35). The classification of students suggested here requires confirmatory research using a range of methodologies. However, the students' comments in the interviews indicate clearly that these classifications are quite strong.

Table 35.   Summary of Student Group Characteristics

Category	Award/time	Previous Study	Av. Age	Job in Indonesia	IELTS
Transformers[2]	PhD ≥3 years	Postgraduate Overseas	Mean=31.8 (Range=26-35)	University	≥6.5
Strategists[3]	Masters 2-3 years	Undergraduate in Indonesia	Mean=30.5 (Range=25-43)	University, Gov't and Private	≤6.5
Conservers	Coursework Masters ≤2 years	Undergraduate in Indonesia	Mean=36 (Range=26-43)	Gov't Office and Private	≤6.0

Expectations and Experiences of Returning Home

The fourth research question posed in this study was "Do the changes that students experience affect their expectations of returning home and their experiences in Indonesia?" While Chapter 3 indicated that there is some, although not a great deal of research on students' return home, for example, Daroesman and Daroesman (1992) Gardner and Hirst (1990) and Goold (1989), there is very limited literature on how postgraduate students cope with the last few months of candidature and prepare for their return home. However, interviews with students in preparation for finishing and returning home, their expectations of being home, and the experiences of being back in Indonesia were reported as Phase Three in Chapter 9. For this phase information was derived from three sources: students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study who corresponded on

2   Similar to Salmon's (1992) process-oriented PhD students.
3   Akin to product-oriented students (Salmon, 1992).

their return home (*n*=19),[4] the 50 returnees who had been interviewed in Indonesia, and continuing students in the original study.

As with most postgraduate research students, the students in the this study reported the last few months as very stressful as they attempted to complete the writing up of their research. However, in addition to these 'normal' difficulties, the students reported having to cope with relocating families, visa and scholarship deadlines, expectations of colleagues and employers on their return, and the effect of the political, social and economic crisis in Indonesia.

The results of the data indicate that for many students their expectations of returning home were significantly altered during their sojourn. These changes were particularly influenced by the political, social and economic turmoil that emerged in Indonesia while the students were studying in Australia although was by no means the only reason for changing expectations. For many the experience of having access to seemingly unlimited resources and facilities, being not just encouraged, but rewarded, for developing intellectual and personal independence, and having the time and financial stability to focus on their research for extended periods of time, caused considerable concern about conditions on their return.

For others the challenge of living and studying in a foreign environment and language made the return home to an environment that was comfortable and supportive of their values and skills, very attractive. Nevertheless, some of these students who were expecting their 'reliable' environment, found that it was not as they expected. This was partly due to change in the students themselves, the natural change that occurs over time in a work or family environment, and the added dimension of Indonesia's current turmoil.

There are three particular implications of these changes within the context of this study. *Firstly*, prior to returning home, the students need assistance to reflect on, and prepare for, change. This is in much the same way as the pre-departure support provided in Indonesia. *Secondly* supervisors need to be aware of students' expectations of returning home and the situation to which they are returning, in order to support them. *Thirdly* the home institutions need to recognise that the people who left two to four years ago to study in Australia, are returning as

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4   Understandably, this figure steadily increased as the Adelaide Longitudinal Study developed. By the time of actually submitting this thesis 23 students had left Adelaide with 10 remaining.

different people, often quite substantially different, and that they will require assistance to settle and become productive members of staff.

Conclusions from the Research

What, therefore, can be concluded from this longitudinal study? The *first* conclusion is that while Indonesian students might struggle in their first three to six months, and while the distress of this time is very real, most students move through this phase to become confident, capable students. The *second* conclusion to be drawn from this study is the varying extents to which students experienced change of expectations and understanding of themselves, their environment in Australia and their anticipated environment in Indonesia. Factors which influenced the extent of change included award undertaken, previous postgraduate study, age, communication skills and intellectual and personal flexibility. Of particular note was the spread of students in each of the three clusters from eastern and western Indonesia, a finding which might not accord with the expectations of some researching the effects of location on performance.

The *third* conclusion is that students' expectations prior to arrival in Australia are very strong and these influence students' experiences in very significant ways. Furthermore, these expectations change over time and a similar cycle occurs regarding students' expectations of returning home and their experiences in Indonesia. *Finally*, it is concluded that the students went to great lengths to accommodate the requirements of the Australian cultural and academic environment. They approached this task with enthusiasm, energy and dedication and with very few exceptions they were successful in this process.

Discussion and Implications

Three major findings have emerged from this research. The *first* is that students in fact move through three phases while studying in Australia and that an understanding and appreciation of these three phases is crucial for those working with these students. The *second* is that students experience these three phases to quite different extents. One can assume that for mature-age, postgraduate students to gain the most benefit from their sojourn in terms of personal and professional development they need the opportunity to reflect upon their own growth and development. Simply changing and becoming 'more Western' is certainly highly questionable, but reflecting, comparing and contrasting, learning from, and rejecting and applying where

appropriate from new situations are all aspects of a Western view of learning in its broadest sense. It is this approach to learning that is being encouraged when Indonesian postgraduate students study for three or four years in an Australian research university.

Nevertheless, there is little evidence in the literature or from the interviews that changed approaches to learning and research have had, or are likely to have, significant effects on the overall academic practices of Indonesian universities or of work practices in the civil service. Much of this is relates to the social and political structure of Indonesia as well as the lack of encouragement for returnees to work in a cooperative and strategic manner to bring about institutional change. One might therefore ask, should change come from the outside, or should/need it come from within the structure itself? These questions are outside the brief of this research, but they are philosophical, cultural and social issues that should be considered further.

The *third* finding is that the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study could be clustered along a continuum ranging from *Transformers*, *Strategists* and *Conservers*. From this finding it is argued that there are lessons to be learned regarding selection of postgraduate students. If an organisation is keen to have staff members return home with different ways of viewing the world, with knowledge and skills that might challenge the status quo and which might lead to change within the organisation, then the following characteristics should be considered. The potential student should have had some postgraduate experience, at least in Indonesia and possibly overseas, be less than 35 years of age, have very good communication skills and be prepared to study overseas for more than three years. During selection interviews it would be wise to seek confirmation of the applicant's desire to reflect on, and learn from, experiences and to look for indications of high levels of intellectual and personal flexibility. It is not being argued here that such returnees would be like Australians (or other Westerners) but rather they would demonstrate a different approach to their professional and personal life that encompasses a range of views and values.

On the other hand, if the organisation requires someone to return with enhanced work skills and some improvement in English language skills and who has maintained—and even promoted—their cultural, religious and professional stance while being in a foreign environment, then they should seek applicants who demonstrate the following characteristics. Applicants would be over

35 years of age, have had little or no prior postgraduate experience and be prepared to enrol in a Coursework Masters requiring study overseas for two or less years. These applicants would not require high level communication skills as they would not necessarily need to interact socially with local students. These applicants would demonstrate during interviews that they were able to focus on the task of completing their study without being overly distracted or influenced by their new environment. While it is unlikely that one would make selections based only on such extreme ends of the spectrum, consideration of these characteristics are obviously important given the predicted outcomes.

What is perhaps even more significant is what happens to students from these ends of the continuum when they have been selected and are studying in an Australian university. Given the academic and professional background of most supervisors working in Australian universities (of course far from all supervisors are Australian by birth) it is safe to say that they generally expect—implicitly or explicitly—that postgraduate research students, particularly doctoral students, are going to continue working in an academic research environment. They place considerable emphasis on research training and direct their supervisory efforts to developing 'good researchers.' Clearly an understanding of the varying extents to which students experience their sojourn and their understanding of the influences of the learning environment on the students as people has significant implications for the supervisory relationship.

Further Research and Development Implications from this Study

It has been suggested several times in this thesis that the students had gone to extraordinary lengths to meet the social, emotional and academic requirements made of them, particularly by the institution. The institution, by comparison, had made relatively little or no change. This is not to say that individuals and groups had not attempted to do so. At the individual level students reported examples of thoughtful and respectful student-supervisor relationships and of a few close friendships between local and Indonesian students. The Integrated Bridging Program was reported by students as being supportive and very helpful. The various campuses have Muslim Prayer Rooms and there are counsellors, accommodation officers and the like. But there was little evidence of significant institutional difference as a result of intellectually engaging with the international (Indonesian) students studying at the University. There are numerous books, programs and handouts for students on how better to accommodate a Western learning

environment, so rather than add to that list the research implications outlined below are mainly directed at universities, supervisors and their departments, and funding organisations.

The University

If an Australian university truly wishes to become an international University then the results of this research would indicate that there are important issues that need addressing. Based on the results of this study, clearly one of the most important is the development of an environment that supports the concept of staff and students learning from international students' experiences, cultures, backgrounds, and ways of viewing the world. This learning needs to be seen as a fundamental, valid and essential prerequisite for a true community of international scholars.

Linked with the above is the development of an environment where students learn from one another. Bochner (1972) suggests that overseas students need 'culture learning' in order to understand the appropriate behaviours of the new culture and so strategies need to be developed to allow this to occur. But I would suggest the learning needs to be two-way. Local students need to have the opportunity to learn from overseas students. For it is when international students see that their knowledge, skills and attitudes are valued by others that their experiences are seen as valid. While an environment exists that implicitly or explicitly supports the attitude that local 'capable' students help their 'less capable' international peers there is always room for patronising behaviour—obviously behaviour unacceptable in a truly international university. However, where the learning environment is seen as each learning in valid and significant ways from the other, the self-esteem of each is enhanced and negative stereotypes are minimised.

To assist in the development of the learning environment described above it is important for the institution to appreciate the different roles and functions of monocultural, bicultural and multicultural friendship groups in developing local and overseas students' understandings of one another. The institution also needs to understand what knowledge and skills students and their employers consider important to develop during their sojourn and attempt to address them more fully. It was clear from the Adelaide Longitudinal Study, the interviews with returnees, and the interviews with Indonesian senior staff that students are expected to develop English language skills, content knowledge, technical knowledge and teaching or work skills. Most students considered that their content and technical knowledge had developed significantly.

However, many received little or no support with teaching. While adding unnecessarily to students' stress levels is certainly not desirable, opportunities for students to tutor, attend Teaching at University courses (where costs are met from sources that do not disadvantage the student) and the provision of appropriate materials could be of considerable assistance. Several of the PhD students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study undertook undergraduate marking but only one student, Kintan, tutored. Clearly there are important considerations here. It may well be that the funding bodies such as AusAID need to consider a change to the current rules that require a student to return home immediately after submission. Perhaps it could be something like submit, then have one month to undertake a pre-departure program including specific preparation for the position expected on return, for example, teaching.

Another skill which could usefully be included in at least research students' experiences is research grant writing. As noted in Chapters 6 and 9 participants in the Returnee Study and senior staff in Indonesia reported that research grant writing was a skill needing considerable development. Encouraging students to prepare a small-scale research grant application during candidature, or being involved as a team member on such a development, could have very positive outcomes.

Evaluation of postgraduate students' experiences is crucial for ongoing development and support. The results of the Adelaide Longitudinal Study indicate, however, that most of the students felt unable to comment on inadequate supervision (other than in the confidential interviews) except when there was a group of students with the same concern. When a number of them got together and approached a supervisor or Postgraduate Coordinator they were able to bring about change, but on their own, they felt that it was virtually impossible. Establishing ways in which students can report concerns in appropriate ways that bring about change will be a crucial step in the developing a positive postgraduate learning experience.

Supervisors of international students need to be recognised and rewarded by the institution. There was virtually unanimous comment that non-English speaking international students require considerably more time and support in their first and last phases of candidature than do local students. As a result the University must recognise that supervisors need to be able to devote adequate time to assisting a student through the IBP and the first phase of their life and

study in Adelaide and again adequately support them in the stressful last few months. Therefore intake per individual supervisor must be carefully monitored. Supervisors must also be given workload recognition for supervision, particularly of non-English speaking students.

Considerable time, effort and money is devoted to preparing students for their sojourn in Australia and assisting them when they first arrive yet there is little in the way of institutional programs to assist students prepare for their return home. Obviously the last month of candidature for overseas postgraduate students is even more fraught than for local students, and providing seminars and the like during this time would not be suitable. However, consideration needs to be given to assisting students with preparation for 'life after their postgraduate award' and their return home. The availability of special support services would be very helpful. Take for example Edi. He has three weeks before having to leave the country. He has not completed his thesis although he is very close. Yet despite wanting to have a final draft to leave with his supervisor when he departs he is constantly distracted with personal and administrative matters. He needs to sell his car to have enough cash to cover the expenses related to leaving the country (for example final phone and electricity bills, moving out of his flat and finding temporary accommodation for his family), arranging for the first few weeks and even months in Indonesia and such like. His ability to concentrate on completing his thesis is severely impaired, yet he appreciates the difficulties he will encounter on his return if he has not at least completed an almost final draft. He knows that it will take several months for him and his family to settle thereby losing any momentum that he might have had for finalising the writing up. In addition he is going to have considerable financial problems on his return. Not only will he be reverting to his previous standard salary, which is now worth one third to one quarter of what it was prior to the financial crisis, but he and his family have increased expectations of life-style after living in Adelaide for four years. Hence Edi is going to have to spend the first six to twelve months ensuring his financial stability rather than thinking about career development let alone assisting his home institution in its development. Even if a small percentage of the support given to students on arrival in Adelaide was reallocated to assisting them on departure, it would be of considerable assistance to students such as Edi.

Despite being recommended in a number of reports including Daroesman and Daroesman (1992) and the Joint Standing Committee on Foreign Affairs, Defence and Trade (1993), the

issue of timely availability of academic transcripts and certification of awards still requires attention. Matters of providing adequate support for students on their return through an effective Alumni Association and on-going professional support from the institution and the funding bodies also need addressing. When accepting a student for postgraduate study the institution would be wise to recognise that the commitment is not just for the years that the student is on the campus, but that there should be a continuing commitment on their return, at least in the short term.

Supervisors and Departments

I have made it clear throughout that I was not setting out to criticise supervisors. In fact this study has shown quite clearly that approximately 50% of all supervisors adequately met the needs of their students with a further 25% who more than adequately support their students, even if there were the occasional ups and downs. However, from the students' point of view, approximately 25% seemed to have difficulty supporting their students. One difficulty in this research is trying to separate out the negative environments that resulted from the cross-cultural situation and those where supervisors have difficulty with local students also. It is clear that some academic staff make less than ideal supervisors (of any students) and this is one issue that most universities need to address regularly. The research on supervisory practices (see Chapter 2) suggests one of the key characteristics of a 'good supervisor' is seeing the student as an individual and meeting the specific needs of that student—whether that student is from Indonesia, Germany or Adelaide. As a result I argue that to be truly a 'good supervisor' one must be able to work well with local and international students.

However, good supervisors can learn to be better. In fact one of the most significant outcomes of the interviews I conducted with the 26 supervisors was the number of supervisors who at the end of the interview asked me quite specific questions about Indonesian students and how they might better understand and thereby supervise them. Often a 30 minute interview would extend to 45 or 60 minutes while we discussed the early outcomes of my work that might throw light onto the student-supervisor relationship. These supervisors were often quite grateful for the additional information. As a result I suggest that there be a continuation of the development of policies and practices related to improving the overall quality of postgraduate supervision. At the

same time I suggest that specific programs be developed to assist staff with supervising in a cross-cultural situation.

Certainly the supervisors who seemed to be most positively regarded by students were those who recognised the student's need to learn and develop independence and that 'being thrown in at the deep end' was rarely appropriate. Gradually moving, in a carefully structured manner, from a more dependent to a more independent relationship over the first 12 to 18 months was of great assistance to students where this occurred. These were also the supervisors who recognised that the student might well struggle in the first few months. However, they realised that this was not because they were academically and intellectually incapable of handling the work but that the social, emotional and personal issues in those first few months made it very difficult for the student to work at the standard to which they were used in the past. Giving positive and honest feedback on work very early in the student's candidature can assist greatly.

Another positive characteristic reported by the students was the supervisors who made clear their expectations of the students and even asked them for their expectations of supervision. More extensive use of an instrument such as the Supervisory Expectation Rating Scale (Appendix M) could be of assistance here. The clarification of expectations (on both sides) early in candidature can avoid many misunderstandings.

One way in which departments and supervisors might well assist their Indonesian and other international students is to develop opportunities for them to learn how their experiences are similar to those of other postgraduate students: in other words there are indeed issues that beset most postgraduates. Obviously students who have an opportunity to mix in bicultural friendship groups will learn much of this through that experience. Regular meetings of postgraduate students in a department where issues related to postgraduate studies and what that means can be very helpful. 'Lab' groups and the like can assist with this, but only where there is mutual sharing of highs and lows. If the local students are always the ones who seem to be managing their work without difficulty and the overseas students are cast as always having problems, then the situation is made even worse for the overseas student.

Supporting students in the first six to twelve months back in Indonesia would certainly be of considerable benefit to students and their institutions. While a number of reasons had been

reported for this not happening to a greater extent than it does already (difficulty with communication, perceived unreliability of data and possible lack of confidentiality) these are not necessarily insurmountable. Perhaps part of the support service to assist students for their return home could be the development of strategies for continuing collaboration.

Further research needs to be done to determine whether there are indicators that might predict those supervisors whose students are more likely to return home without submitting their PhD or Masters. Anecdotal evidence indicates that there might well be some supervisors who are more skilled at helping students submit within the time limit than others. If this is determined to be the case then these indicators deserve identification and careful consideration. For example, there may be a number of 'mechanistic' factors involved here, such as supervisors doing much of the writing for students (see Chapter 8 where Supervisor 50 asks students to bring their results to him for writing up), or selecting topics which can be completed within the time limit:

> As a supervisor you virtually have to know the answer before the student starts so that they can be sure of getting it done in three years. It used to be that you could allow PhD students to speculate—but you can't do that now. (Supervisor57: 159-162)

On the other hand there are issues such as encouraging students to publish during candidature, thereby almost certainly increasing the length of candidature or ensuring that the topic is something the student wants to research, even if it is likely, in the opinion of the supervisor, to take more than three and a half years. These various factors would need to be considered in light of current funding policies.

Funding Organisations

The interviews clearly showed that most students benefited considerably from the support of having their family with them early in candidature or a visit home after six months for single students. Systems to allow this to occur as simply as possible would be of great assistance.

Where students have not been able to submit prior to having to leave the country or where they have major corrections to their work following examination, the provision of facilities and support in Indonesia is vital. Given the financial situation in Indonesia at the time of writing it is probably foolish to suggest that the organisations there consider the provision of such support, but it is essential to ensure that three or four years of research are not wasted. For example, the

availability of office space with appropriate computing, email and fax facilities and the availability of relatively small amounts of funding to enable final drafts to be couriered to a supervisor can make the difference between students completing their award and lapsing candidature. The personal, social and financial waste of this is obvious. Recent work undertaken by the Asian Development Bank (1997) provides a possible model for this support.

With the student's return, support programs and funding to assist the student utilise the knowledge and skills developed while in Australia would be of considerable help. One example might be the provision of relatively small amounts of money to help students set up a personal library or subscribe to a few relevant journals on their return. Another might be the provision of funding to allow the supervisor to visit the student once or twice after their return to encourage joint research and publication. The old adage 'penny wise, pound foolish' seems very relevant here. While organisations such as AusAID spend millions of dollars on scholarships, the expenditure of a comparatively small extra amount (or the provision of one or two fewer scholarships) could well make the difference between a student's three or four years in Australia being utilised effectively and not. Following from the above, support for effective Alumni associations across Indonesia—not just in western Java—is also an important factor here.

Further research related to the impact of a sojourn in Australia on children of students would be useful in determining any long-term effects and 'value-adding' of the original scholarship. However, lack of coordination of data held by funding organisation poses difficulties for a researcher in this area.

Another issue for funding organisations is a more philosophical one and that is, are the real aims of the funding program being met? While individual students are gaining considerably from their experiences, is this what the funding organisations expect from their programs? Solutions to the issue of staff utilising their knowledge and skills back in their organisation are complex and daunting. However, with the enormous political, social and economic upheavals being experienced in Indonesia at the time of writing, perhaps now is the moment to consider addressing such a significant issue.

Postscript

It is relatively easy to be seduced from student-centred research at the information collecting and analysing stage to the researcher-centred reporting method when drawing conclusions. To an extent this has occurred earlier in this chapter and so I now hand over to the students to conclude. There are a number of comments made by students during the interviews or in letters and emails since their return that seem to summarise much of the experience. For example, Lena was a coursework students who experienced considerable homesickness in the first few months. She was also very stressed at what she thought was her poor English as it was 'holding her back' from her study and from making friends with local students. Two years after returning to Indonesia she wrote about her regrets:

> By the way, I am very keen to know how far you have gone with you [*sic*] research in doing your PhD. I only can recommend to other Indonesians who are still studying in Australia that they do not pull [put] all the time only on studying and studying. I regret because I had wasted my opportunity not to spend more time for socialisation while I was there. I remembered that I spent most of my time in library and only little for social events…I should have been more talkative to deal and practice [*sic*] English with Australian[s]…I am not familiar with Australia even [though] I have ever [even] stayed there. I was so embrassed [*sic*] when people asked me deeply about Australia, such as places, hospitals, schools etc. I could not talk much. (LenaLetter1: 30-40)

On the other hand, Hermina had no regrets when she wrote two years after her departure:

> Last November I went [overseas] for a Seminar on [my area of research]. In this seminar I gave a presentation about our…Program. This is a first time I gave a speech in English in front of some expert of [this research area] from around the world. I really felt nervous. But, after I finished, some people from Sydney, Japan, Hongkong [*sic*], Pakistan, Thailand congratulated me. They said I talked very clear[ly] and my presentation is [*sic*] interesting. So, Margaret I was so happy, I think this is one of the advantages studying in Adelaide. I got self confidence. Again I realized that however it was difficult [however difficult it is] studying abroad is very beneficial. (HerminaEmail2: 28-35)

And what of students about to complete their thesis and move onto the next stage of their career? Rani summed up the feelings reported by many:

> Most thing I feel is very depressing, but also exciting that I am almost finished. [The workload] has not changed but the concentration on the discussion and the focus of the thesis is I think more clear and I feel more confidence with my result…But sometimes it's you know like, I am already bored with my thesis, because I work with one topic for so long, ooh, let me finish, let me finish. (Rani11: 109-118)

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GLOSSARY

ADCOS	Australian Development Co-operation Scholarships provided by AusAID. These can be targeted or untargeted.
adat	Customary/traditional Indonesian law
AIDAB	Australian International Development Assistance Board
ASTAS	Australian Sponsored Training Scholarships provided by AusAID. These scholarships are usually for government employees.
AusAID	Australian Agency for International Development
Bahasa Indonesia	Literally Indonesian language.
Departemen	Department
DI	*(Daerah Istemewa)* Special Territory/Area. There are two Special Territories, which comprises the city and environs of Aceh and Yogyakarta. Both are counted as Provinces.
DKI	*(Daerah Kota Istemewa)* Special Territory/Area of the City. this is the special area, counted as a Province, which constitutes the city and environs of Jakarta.
Dosen	Lecturer
gaji	Salary. Generally paid thirteen times per year.
Golkar	Golan Karya, the ruling party of Indonesia (at least until 1999). All civil servants are automatically members of *Golkar*.
golongan	Salary level in the Civil Service.
IDP	International Program of Australian Universities and Colleges
Idul Fitri	The feast that celebrates the end of Fasting Month.
IELTS	International English Language Testing System. This is the test which is usually given to students applying to study in Australia. The IELTS has generally replaced the TOFEL test in Indonesia.
IKIP	*Institut Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan* (Public Teacher Training Institute). Some IKIPS such as IKIP Padang have, or are becoming universities.
IPB	*(Institut Pertanian Bogor)* Bogor Institute of Agriculture
ITB	*(Institut Teknologi Bandung)* Bandung Institute of Technology
jam karet	literally 'rubber time' but refers to the rather flexible time system adopted in many situations in Indonesia.
kantor wilyah	See Freeman for a description
Koran	The holy book of Islam, technically the Qur'an.

Korpri	(Korpus Pegawai Republik Indonesia) The Indonesian Civil Service Corps
Lebaran	The day of celebration at the end of the Islamic fasting month of *Ramadan*.
Mbak	Javanese term of respect of a woman, contemporary
mufakat	consensus; agreement; unanimity
musjawarah	mutual discussion
NOOSR	National Office of Overseas Skills Recognition.
Pak	Term of respect for senior or older man.
Pancasila	A Javanese word which means 'Five Principles'. These five principles form the basis of Indonesia's national philosophy
pembantu	Household help, often the person 'lives-in'.
Pendidikan	Education
Puasa	to fast and also used to describe the fasting month
Ramadan	The month where Muslims fast from sun rise to sun set. The timing of the fasting month varies each year. During the study Ramadan was in March, February, January and December, that is, in the Australian summer with temperatures up to 40' and with daylight saving in South Australia giving up to 15 hours of day light.
Sarjana (S1)	Undergraduate Program
Sarjana (S2)	Masters Program
Sarjana (S3)	Doctoral Program
SD	*(Sekolah Dasar)* Primary School
SMA	*(Sekolah Menengah Atas)* Senior High School
SMP	*(Sekolah Menengah Pertama)* Junior High School
TOFEL	Test of English as Foreign Language
UI	*(Universitas Indonesia)* University of Indonesia
WHO	World Health Organisation

APPENDIX A INDONESIAN CONTEXT

This section is a guide to relevant aspects of Indonesian society for the reader who in not familiar with the country.

The Republic of Indonesia, is the world's largest archipelagic nation covering 1,904,569 sq km, lying directly north of Australia and split by the Wallace Line which divides eastern Indonesia from the west of the country (see Figure 17). "[Indonesia] consists of five major islands and about 30 smaller groups. Altogether there are 13,667 islands and islets of which about 6,000 are inhabited" (Department of Information Republic of Indonesia, 1991, p. 9). The country currently has the world's fourth largest population. Java remains the most urbanised region of Indonesia with more than a third of its residents in urban areas, having doubled between 1980 and 1990 (Hugo, 1993, pp. 46-47).

A unitary, rather than federal state, Indonesia was recognised internationally (by most) as an independent country in August 1945. Although 1945 was the birth of the independent county, the islands of Indonesia have had a long and interesting history. Grant (1996) comments "the historian J. C. van Leur...trenchantly argued...that the basis of Indonesian civilization was laid before the first outside influence, Hinduism, came from India around the time of Christ" (p. 4).

The range of religions, and the strong concentrations of certain religions in particular areas, for example Hinduism in Bali, reflect the different waves of religious beliefs which have swept through the archipelago over the ages. Although the great majority of the population is now Muslim (approximately 90%), Indonesia does not claim to be an Islamic country, but instead officially supports five main religions: Islam, Hinduism, Buddhism, Protestantism and Catholicism, in line with the government philosophy of *Pancasila*.[1]

The Influence of the Javanese in Indonesia

Much of present day Indonesian culture, politics and education are strongly influenced by the people of the island of Java, in particular, the Javanese from the central and eastern parts of the island:

> The climate of central Java, with its hot, even temperature, plentiful rainfall and volcanic soil, was ideal for the wet-field method of rice growing know as *sawah* cultivation and the society it demanded may explain why the Javanese developed a more sophisticated civilization than the inhabitants of the other islands. (Grant, 1996, pp. 2-4)

The early Javanese culture appears to have been very sophisticated with a "body of behaviours which became the basis of *adat*, or customary law...[which] remains today a force in Indonesian culture" (Grant, 1996).

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[1] *Panca*, a Sanskrit word meaning principles and *sila*, meaning five, provides the following philosophical basis for Indonesian policy and administration.

Figure 17.   Provinces of the Republic of Indonesia

One example of this Javanese influence comes from the Javanese upper classes where:

> Develop[ing] over centuries, the central aim of the upper class, known as *priyayi* (a Javanese word meaning 'official') was absolute self-control, leading to spiritual enlightenment...[and that] it is now considered a positive virtue, not to say what one really means, not to express one's true feelings....The result is that Javanese expect to have to read between the lines of other people's speech and attitudes, and have themselves come almost automatically not to say what they mean, with an instinctive dis-simulation called *etok-etok*....A common style of praise for someone is 'one can never tell how he feels inside by how he behaves outside.' (Grant, 1996, pp. 131-132)

Another strongly Javanese characteristic which seems to have influenced most people in Indonesia is the emphasis placed "on *halus* 'refined' behaviour, which contrasts with *kasar* 'rough/coarse' in various ways: speech should be slow, less loud, and contain more 'polite' vocabulary" (Bradley & Bradley, 1984, p. 232).

Deference and respect are two other strong Javanese characteristics. *Pekewuh* in Javanese:

> Can be summarised by saying that it embodies feelings of reluctance, shame and embarrassment all together. More importantly, it also embodies the concept of *deference*, and the need *to remain silent out of deference* to someone who is perceived as higher in social ranking than the speaker. (Scott-Stevens, 1987, p. 119)

The experience of *pekewuh* is in marked contrast to the Australia concept of 'speaking one's mind.' As one Indonesian student in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study said in amazement "Australians think silence is a bad thing!" (Junaidi: Workshop4).

While not all Indonesians behave in the 'Javanese' way, in fact far from it, certainly the Javanese culture is a dominant one, particularly in the more senior levels of government, politics and business, and students from Java were certainly in the majority in this study.

Governance and Administration

Following the establishment of the 1965 New Order Government[2] to be led by President Suharto, a new form of governance was established in 1974 to allow greater autonomy for the 27 provinces of Indonesia. "This system was designed specifically to give the provinces a reasonable amount of local decision-making and autonomy while retaining the central government's overall control" (MacAndrews, 1986 p. 13). As a result, most of Indonesia's governing structures are replicated in the provinces. For example, in education, while there is an elaborate organisational and administrative structure in Jakarta, there is also a "system of regional vertical offices or *kantor wilyah* in all 27 provinces of Indonesia" (Freeman, 1993, p. 114). Tertiary education is the only level of education which is fully controlled directly by Jakarta and the Minister through the Director General of Higher Education.

The concept of regional governance is significant for many reasons, not least of which it provides an urban centre for each province with each provincial capital home to at least one state university.

> One particularly important feature of urban centres in Indonesia, is their role in encouraging social and educational mobility. They provide the better education

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2   An interesting description of the so-called 'Communist coup' in October 1995 and the development of the New Order Government can be found in Grant (1996)

facilities that help significantly in the socialisation of the country's multi-ethnic groups into the national system. (MacAndrews, 1986, p. 9)

This is particularly so when many involved in the administration at the regional offices have attended university in Java and then gone to the islands with a Javanese perception leading to a strong Javanese view of the world. Until quite recently, significant numbers of senior administrative officials throughout Indonesia were graduates of *Universitas Gadjah Mada* in Yogyakarta.

Education in Indonesia

Early Development of Higher Education

Prior to the Second World War anyone desiring a university education was expected to go to Europe, particularly the Netherlands. However, there was a range of technical and vocational schools for local and Dutch students, including the School of Technology in Bandung, the School of Law in Batavia (Jakarta) and the STOVIA (*School tot Opleiding van Indiansche Artsen*) for Medicine (Kelabora, 1991, p. 4).

The first University, a rather a loose collection of schools and faculties, started two days after Independence, 17 August 1945, and was the *Balai Perguruan Tinggi Republik Indonesia*[3] aimed at continuing medicine, law, philosophy and literature. In January 1946 the republic government established itself in Yogyakarta and the Sultan of Yogyakarta established a *Balai Perguruan Tinggi Gadjah Mada*[4] and in December 1949 that was transformed into the *Universitas Gadjah Mada*[5]. The aim was to make this a truly Indonesian university with the language of instruction in *Bahasa Indonesia*, and mostly Indonesian staff and students. This posed considerable difficulty as *Bahasa Indonesia* was a young language and so had limited vocabulary, especially for science and technology. There was shortage of text books in *Bahasa Indonesia*, and a shortage of academic staff who could teach in *Bahasa Indonesia* (Cummings & Kasenda, 1989). As the Dutch still thought that they were going to take back Indonesia during the period 1945-49, they established what is now *Universitas Indonesia* in Jakarta. This university followed the Dutch system, used Dutch as the language of instruction and had Dutch staff.

In addition to the Universities there were Institutes for example, *Institut Teknologi Bandung* (Bandung Institute of Technology) and the vocationally oriented Academies. The Institutes are similar to universities. In fact, *Institut Pertanian Bogor* (Bogor Agricultural Institute) and *Institut Teknologi Bandung* would be considered to be two of Indonesia's premier tertiary institutions. However, institutes tend to focus on a narrower range of disciplines compared with universities. On the other hand "Akademis (academies) are single faculty institutions which principally offer diploma programs at technician level...They are generally fairly small with enrolments of only a few hundred students" (NOOSR, 1995, p. 13).

The Current Education System

In Indonesia there is a parallel system of secular schools and Islamic schools. The Islamic schools, operated by the Ministry of Religious Affairs, differ from the secular schools in that they offer approximately 40% of the curriculum in religious studies determined by the Ministry of Religious Affairs, while the remainder follows the secular curriculum developed by the Ministry of Education and Culture (MacAndrews, 1986, p. 10).

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3   Literally University Building of the Republic of Indonesia
4   University Building of Gadjah Mada
5   University of Gadjah Mada

Although *Bahasa Indonesia* is spoken all over Indonesia there are 400 ethnic or local languages in the country and so the language of 'intimacy' is generally the local language (Yatim, 1988). The school system recognises the diversity of home languages by allowing schools in areas with strong major languages to teach in that language until the third year of primary school. Chinese, however, is not allowed to be taught. Primary schooling consists of six years which are compulsory and generally operates on two shifts per day, morning and afternoon (NOOSR, 1995, p. 6).

Secondary Education in Indonesia is divided into Junior Secondary (three years) and Senior Secondary (three or four years). Junior Secondary education has been compulsory since 1994. Senior Secondary education is divided into Academic and Vocational Schools as well as Islamic Senior Secondary schools. Over 65% of the Senior Secondary students attend the academic schools, generally because it is seen as the most likely route to higher education. The vocational schools offer a range of options including home economics, technical and business studies (NOOSR, 1995, p. 8). *Pancasila* studies, religion, and history of the national struggle and Indonesian language are mandatory subjects in schools, and in fact, *Pancasila* studies continue from primary through into tertiary education.

While there is a national system of education with the curriculum developed and controlled in Jakarta, Toisuta (1991) argues that:

> For many years, it has been known, that there is a marked variation in the quality of teaching in Indonesian high schools which of course, supply students for intake into higher education institutions. There are differences between large cities, small towns and villages; between 'favourite' schools and other schools; and between Java and the outer islands. (p. 102)

Nasoetion (1991) reports studies that indicate differences in university entrants by province and that the better schools tend to be "concentrated in Jakarta, West Java, East Java, Yogyakarta, and Central Java. Provinces outside Java having better schools are Bali, West Sumatra, Riau, Jembi, North Sumatra and South Kalimantan" (p. 70).

Nasoetion extends the argument further when he suggests that one of the problems with university performance is that students have not had adequate preparation in academically oriented middle schools and where not all high school students are "considered fit to pursue an academic education in a university" (p. 66).

> Because higher education is considered in Indonesia to be the passport to a successful political career or to the highest echelons of the civil service, parents encourage their children to pursue a university education, whether or not they are academically gifted, whether or not they are financially capable of supporting this long-term enterprise. (Nasoetion, 1991, p. 64)

This is often to the exclusion of a more appropriate vocational education. Major changes to secondary education were undertaken in the mid-1990s in an effort to address the issues of suitable education for vocational and university education. The students of the Adelaide Longitudinal Study, however, experienced the earlier system of streaming students in the academic senior high schools into "A1, physics subjects, A2, biology subjects, A3, social science subjects and A4, language and culture" (NOOSR, 1995, p. 8).

Higher education in Indonesia is provided by universities, technical institutes and other institutions approved to grant degrees as well as polytechnics and academies:

There are 61 public university-level institutions in Indonesia, comprising 31 universities (including Universitas Terbuka—Open University), three technical institutes, ten teachers colleges, 14 Islamic institutes, one arts institute and two advanced (tertiary) schools of the arts. In addition there are two arts academies, which are sometimes categorised as higher education institutions, but which do not award the *Sarjana*[6]. (NOOSR, 1995, p. 88)

However, not all universities are approved to offer all degrees. According to their accreditation status[7] universities and other award-granting institutions can be approved to award *Sarjana 1, Sarjana 2,* or *Sarjana 3* awards (see Table 36) and as Cannon (1997) points out, "with the exception of Universitas Hasanuddin in the large eastern island of Sulawesi, all of these institutions are located in Java" (p. 53).

> Even at the present time [1995] only a minority of universities offer postgraduate programs: in 1992, twelve public institutions were authorised to award postgraduate degrees (*S2* and *S3*), and a further 12 public and six private universities to offer postgraduate (*S2*) programs on a credit basis, leading to an award from another (specified) institution. (NOOSR, 1995, p. 25)

Table 36.   Indonesian Higher Education Degrees

Sarjana[8]	Duration	Structure	Aust'n Equivalent
Sarjana 1 (S1)	Generally four years	Either with thesis component or major exam	Bachelors Degree
Sarjana 2 (S2) Magister	Minimum two and maximum four years	Entails coursework and research with thesis	Masters Degree
Sarjana 3 (S3) Doktor	Generally four years	Entails coursework and research with thesis	PhD

As suggested earlier, widespread higher education is uncommon in Indonesia. Ranuwihardjo (1991) the Director General of Higher Education in Indonesia, commented during the *1991 Indonesia Assessment*[9] meeting that:

> It needs to be emphasised that until 1990 about 80% of incoming students were the first generation of their families undertaking tertiary education. Parents had no perception of what tertiary education involved, and were therefore hardly in a position to advise their children regarding course selection, modes of study and many other important issues. (p. 54)

In his talk, Ranuwihardjo also made it clear that he was very aware of the main problems facing Indonesian higher education which he described as: 1) equity of access, 2) imbalances between regions and rural/urban areas, and 3) the diverse ethnic and regional composition of Indonesia.[10] These ethnic groups are keen for their interests to be reflected in higher education. "Thus the concept of 'universality' in universities is to some extent incompatible with these interests"

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6   Similar to Bachelors degree in Australia.

7   For a description of the various accreditations see NOOSR (1995)

8   Strata or level

9   Each year an "Indonesia Assessment" forum is hosted by the Australian National University where annual updates on Indonesian economic, political and social issues are reported on by Indonesian and Australian experts. In addition, a particular theme is identified and in 1991, this theme was higher education.

10   The main ethnic groups in Indonesia being: Minangkabaus, Aceh, Bataks (Sumatra); Javanese, Sundanese (Java); Madurese (Madura); Balinese (Bali); Sasak (Lombok); Torajas, Makassarese, Menadonese, Buginese (Sulawesi); Dayaks (Kalimantan); Irianese (Irian Jaya); and Timorese (Timor).(Brown, 1994)

(Ranuwihardjo, 1991, p. 55). In addition, there is some evidence to suggest that current Indonesian educational practices may mitigate against a well-developed research culture:

> 'Too often', he says [the Program Director of the American English Language Training Centre] 'Indonesian students are taught that the professor always knows best...Basically there is no tradition here of research, of seeking more information and there is no tradition of thinking for oneself.' (Cohen, 1998, pp. A51-A52)

Compounding this problem, Cannon and Widodo (1994) suggest that Indonesian universities have similar problems to universities in other developing countries, that is they have a:

> Generally unsatisfactory research environment, weak institutional management, an emphasis on oral methods of teaching, low quality libraries, inadequate levels of equipment and materials for teaching, a difficulty by otherwise well-qualified staff to keep up-to-date in their teaching subject, and low salary levels of academic staff which weakens their commitment to the university because of a need to seek additional outside employment to supplement meagre incomes. (p. 99)

The Civil Service in Indonesia

Given that the majority of the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study were civil servants[11] (27 of the 33) an overview of the Indonesian Civil Service and its effect on employment and career opportunities is considered useful as context. The Civil Service in Indonesia is extensive, and some would suggest overly bureaucratic and unwieldy. Civil Service salaries are generally so low that employees need to hold down two or more jobs at the same time, making for significant inefficiencies within the system. Indonesian civil servants are, by definition, members of *Golkar* (*Golongan Karya*—The Functional Group), the ruling government party in Indonesia for over 30 years. Described as a community organisation, rather than a political party, *Golkar* provides a strong organisational base for both the government and for civil servants themselves.

All civil servants are classified according to *Golongan Pegawai Negeri* (Civil Service Level), a promotion structure. Each level has certain requirements which determine salary. Promotion relies on a vacancy being available, the length of service and the number of additional *kum* (cumulative credit points) which have been acquired (Clark & Oey-Gardiner, 1991, p. 131).

In universities often teaching assistants are employed by more senior academics who have several jobs demanding their time, both inside and outside the organisation, and so the teaching assistants do much of the teaching.

> [In Indonesian universities] there has only ever been one door to recruitment of university teaching staff. Promising students are identified in the last year or so of their undergraduate program and are invited by the department or faculty to become teaching assistants. (Daroesman, 1991, p. 110)

From there the teaching assistants move to *calon pegawai* (probationer) and then on through the system. "Only rectors [Vice-Chancellors] (who must be appointed by the President) are appointed from outside" (p. 110). In the case of an academic, a staff member with an undergraduate degree is appointed at IIIA level whereas those with a doctorate at IIIB and the "higher level positions can be filled only through promotion from below" (Clark & Oey-Gardiner, 1991, p. 13). Of all the civil servants in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study group (81.8%), their *golongan* ranged from IIIA to IIID, with 40% of the university staff holding the

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11   Staff in government offices and in universities are considered to be members of the Indonesian Civil Service and, in terms of salary and promotion, are treated very similarly.

IIIA classification. The 1997 salaries for *Golongan* III are shown in Table 37—edited to every second level of 'year worked'—(Elmida, 1997).

Table 37.   1997 Monthly[12] *Gaji* (Salary) for *Golongan* III Civil Servants

| Years worked | Golongan III | | | |
	A	B	C	D
0-1 years	Rp 241,900[13]	Rp 251,600	Rp 261,600	Rp 272,000
4-5 years	Rp 266,600	Rp 277,300	Rp 288,400	Rp 299,900
6 years	Rp 280,000	Rp 291,200	Rp 302,800	Rp 314,900
8 years	Rp 294,000	Rp 305,600	Rp 317,900	Rp 330,700
10 years	Rp 308,750	Rp 321,000	Rp 333,800	Rp 347,200
12 years	Rp 324,100	Rp 337,100	Rp 350,500	Rp 364,600
14 years	Rp 340,300	Rp 353,900	Rp 368,000	Rp 382,200
15 years	Rp 340,300	Rp 353,900	Rp 368,000	Rp 382,200[14]

Additional income can come from a range of sources within and outside the home organisation and within and outside government sources. Government workers, for example, can receive additional salaries for being part of an aid project, working for another office, consultancies or working privately. For academics a similar situation exists so that they receive:

> A supplement (*tunjangan fungsional*) based on their academic position....There is also the possibility of other income from within the university, such as special honoraria, or payment from a university *Lembaga* (Institute) for participating in such activities as research, consulting and training, and even for attending seminars. (Clark & Oey-Gardiner, 1991, p. 132)

Academic staff holding administrative positions also receive a supplement (in addition to salary and academic supplement), access to travel money and allowances, and priority for housing and transport:

> High monetary rewards from the system thus go to those in administrative positions. Academic staff members who want to progress financially must direct their activities toward getting an administrative position or other additional work, or both. (Clark & Oey-Gardiner, 1991, p. 133)

Therefore, the higher one rises in the system, the more likely it is that one will hold at least one and probably more positions. Clark and Oey-Gardiner (1991) found from their research that at level IIID "another job become a virtual certainty (a probability or .9 or higher) and most of those with other work are holding three or four additional jobs" (p. 136). The attraction of holding additional positions is clear when one examines the following figures. *Dosen* (lecturers) who hold another teaching job, in addition to their 'regular' civil service position, are likely to be earning 50% more that one at the same level not with additional work and:

[12]   Salaries in Indonesia are usually paid by the month, with 13 months per annum. The 'thirteenth' month's salary is generally paid on, or about, the time of *Lebaran* each year.

[13]   At an exchange rate (8.8.97) of Rp 1918 this converts to AUD126.12 and at 23.3.99 a buying rate of Rp6324 converts to AUD38.25

[14]   Converted to AUD199.27 on 8.8.87 and AUD64.43 on 23.3.99.

Those *dosen* who are neither teaching elsewhere nor working as administrators, but who do hold another job (either in government or in the private sector, or both) are earning 121% more than *dosen* of the same rank who have no other work. (Clark & Oey-Gardiner, 1991, p. 136)

Daroesman (1991) suggests that holding additional positions is not only confined to income, but is linked to an actual shortage of specialists. It is usually the most highly qualified and paid staff that are the busiest. Because there is almost no retirement or movement within the civil service, this multi-jobbing system allows people to have alternative jobs without actually forgoing the security of their formal, civil service position with its pension. This can provide flexibility for the institutions and challenge and interest for the individual (p. 116).

However, Daroesman and Daroesman (1992), in their tracer study on Indonesian holders of Australian fellowships over 20 years, reported that nearly 80% of all respondents did outside paid work although only approximately six of the 251 returnees had permanently transferred to other agencies with no apparent 'brain drain': that is, none of the students stayed in Australia or considered going to other countries (p. 55).

The attraction of achieving higher academic qualifications, and in a language such as English, is also clear for all civil servants. The possibilities for additional consultancies, research, project work and travel, all of which bring additional salary, increase enormously. Experience with English will put returnees in positions where they could, for example, act as counterparts to English-speaking aid project workers, attend and present at international conferences, prepare reports in English and be members of English-speaking project teams. With their additional academic qualifications they are more likely to be invited to be consultants, have access to research funds and move into administrative positions. Given the issues outlined in this section on the Indonesian Civil Service it is clear that students who are researching and working in the 'Australian' way as usually required by their Australian supervisor will have to re-orient their approaches to work and research on return to their position in Indonesia.

Summary
This appendix has provided information upon which the reader can draw to better understand much of what follows. Issues related to the Indonesian civil service and higher education sector are important background material as they have a significant influence of the students with regard to their initial expectation so studying in an Australian higher education institution as well as their expectations of returning home after their postgraduate study. The potential benefits to students at individual and personal levels as well as at collective and professional levels are significant and provide considerable motivation for students to achieve their goals. The issues addressed here all have a bearing on the study being reported. They have each had an influences on the students, their supervisors and/or their learning environment.

APPENDIX B A POSTGRADUATE EDUCATION CONTEXT

Given the focus on postgraduate students in this study, this appendix is devoted to a review of the broad context of postgraduate education in Australia, particularly as they relate to international students. Issues include the questioning of the purpose of the PhD, emergence of the 'quality' agenda in postgraduate education and research training, induction programs to assist students to get started in their candidature which often are seen as a means of improving progression and completion rates, and supervisory practices.

The Student Cohort

The rapid development of international students undertaking postgraduate education can be illustrated by a comparison of the contemporary issues with Rudd's (1984) extensive review of the literature of postgraduate education in the early 1980s. Rudd categorised the current literature into nine groups: criteria for admission, number of students, composition and characteristics of the student body, the form and quality of the instruction, success and failure, financing postgraduate students, students' contribution to research, the employment market, and history. Of particular note is that there is no category related to non-traditional students, let alone international students, which are not even mentioned in the section on composition and characteristics of the student body.

It is not so long ago that Australian students themselves were considered overseas or international students who had to travel abroad to study for a doctorate and it was not until "1918 [that] most British universities had accepted Australian qualifications as graduate entry requirements" (Noble, 1994). The implementation of the Doctor of Philosophy in Australia occurred in 1945 after World War II and the first PhD was awarded only in 1948 at the University of Melbourne with the University of Sydney being the next university to confer the award in 1951.

Over the following 40 years the number of candidates enrolling in a PhD grew dramatically with the most significant increases being seen over the past eight to ten years. Table 38 presents enrolment statistics for 1989 and 1996 at the University of Adelaide that reflect this trend.

Table 38.   The University of Adelaide PhD Enrolments 1989 and 1996

	1989	1996	% increase
Total PhD Enrolments	383	975	155
Male enrolments	254	593	133
Female enrolments	129	382	196
Full-time enrolments	300	744	148
Part-time/external enrolments	83	231	178
International students	55	188	242
Indonesian students	2	6	200

These changes to the nature of the student cohort have had a significant impact on supervisory practices. Supervisors can no longer assume that the majority of students have recently completed Honours degrees, or that all students will be on campus full-time. The PhD cohort is now diverse in age, sex, background and discipline and students have more flexibility moving from off-campus to on-campus and full-time to part-time (Pearson & Ford, 1997). For example,

in 1996, in Australia 737 (3%) of students were undertaking their doctoral studies externally, 8062 (36%) part-time and 13897 (61%) full-time (Pearson & Ford, 1997, p. 12) and between 1994 and 1995 the number of women enrolling in postgraduate study across Australia increased by 11% while the number of men increased by 7%.

Female Students

At the University of Adelaide female enrolments increased from 34% of the total PhD enrolment in 1989 to 39% in 1996. In addition, the possibility of students completing their undergraduate years, moving into professional life and having a family, then doing qualifying work and then a PhD (possibly part-time) is becoming more common for a range of students.

While the number of female students in postgraduate study has steadily increased they tend to come to their candidature with a different set of issues and concerns from their male counterparts. Women generally have a lower income, have greater family responsibility, are less likely to have a scholarship because more first class Honours are awarded in male-dominated disciplines and also because women often enter through alternative routes (Conrad, 1995). Women also tend to have less time with their supervisor than men, and women express greater dissatisfaction with supervisors than male students. However, female students are more likely to successfully complete their postgraduate study if there are a relatively high proportion on females on the academic staff of the student's department. Women are more likely to be dissatisfied with their own work and also more likely to intermit than men (Conrad, 1995; Kiley, 1993a; Kiley, 1993b; Kiley, 1995; Kiley, 1996b; Phillips & Pugh, 1987).

Age of Postgraduate Students

The 1996 Australian cohort was also diverse in age with 7941 (35%) being less than 30 years, with 35% and 23% being in the 30 to 39 and 40 to 49 year age ranges respectively. Six percent of students were in the 50 to 59 age range with 0.6% in the 60+ years range. "The only fields where the largest percentages of candidates are under 30 years of age are in science and veterinary science" (Pearson & Ford, 1997, p. 12). Given this age range supervisors are faced with some students who may have extensive professional and personal experience and/or commitments which contribute to their approach to, and understanding of, research (Kiley & Liljegren, 1999).

Part-time Students

The number of part-time students enrolled in research postgraduate work has increased over the past several years. The main area of increase has been women and in the Arts/Humanities. In some of the other disciplines, for example the experimental sciences, staff and students consider that it is virtually impossible to undertake postgraduate research work part-time (Kiley, 1993a).

Part-time students face their own particular set of issues and concerns, "the main problem is that of having to switch repeatedly from everyday work to research work" (Phillips & Pugh, 1987, p. 132). In addition, part-time students tend to be older than full-time students, frequently mature-aged women returning to study, with family and financial commitments as well as often holding down a demanding professional career.

One of the difficulties for international students, all of whom are by definition full-time, is studying in departments which are offering programs almost exclusively for part-time local students. For example at the University of Adelaide in the Department of Education and the Graduate School of Management the majority of students are local students, working full-time and taking one or two units part-time, after hours. This means that the international students have all their classes in the evening and are often restricted in their choice of subjects because only

certain subjects are offered each year on the assumption that most of the students are part-time. It also poses problems for international students wanting to mix with local students as most of the local students come directly from work, and once the class is over, say 7.00 o'clock, they are keen to leave immediately to get home for dinner or family commitments.[1]

Postgraduate candidates in Australia now not only come from a range of cultural, geographic and academic backgrounds but they also come with a range of different motivations and expectations and these characteristics are gradually being recognised.

Purpose of Postgraduate Research

The purpose of a PhD is receiving considerable current discussion (Chipman, 1998; King, 1997; Mullins, 1997; Mullins & Kiley, 1998; Pearson & Ford, 1997; Powles, 1989; Trigwell, Shannon & Maurizi, 1997; West, 1998). However, this is not a new phenomenon. At a conference *Employment and Training of Postgraduate Students in Australia* in 1971, the then president of the University of Adelaide Postgraduate Students' Association, stated "higher degrees are probably not very well understood by most people outside the universities themselves, much less the reasons for doing them" (Cairney, 1971, p. 4). Very similar sentiments were expressed in 1998 with the *Review of Higher Education Financing and Policy* (West, 1998) where the question of purpose was again addressed. It was portrayed in the report as a 'negative' outcome that in 1998 only 44% of the 1995 research graduates were in full-time employment directly related to their research training. This raises several questions. Is the purpose of the PhD to develop specific knowledge in the research area itself or is it a more general training in research skills and abilities? Is it an apprenticeship and licence to practice as a researcher and writer or is it the completion of the one and only substantial piece of research undertaken by the candidate? Is it professional training to be a university academic or is it training for a range of employment requiring sophisticated and highly developed research and writing skills? More importantly for this study, what is the purpose of the PhD for individual students, particularly Indonesian students, studying in Australia?

Salmon (1992) proposes that the purpose of a PhD is related to students' level of personal change and development. When describing the research process she argues that as well as learning the technical skills required for research in the discipline, students also learn *authorship*, which she suggests, includes creativity, imaginative boldness, the ability to write with authority and to construct personal images. Authorship, says Salmon, reflects the highest of four levels within the hierarchy of intellectual development[2] described by Perry (1970), that is, dynamic commitment where the commitment depends on personal change and development. Dynamic commitment, suggests Salmon, can be described as the process-oriented approach to research: the student who is aware of undergoing personal change as a result of the process of research. The process-oriented student is at one end of a continuum from the product-oriented student, the student who is not particularly interested in reflecting on the personal change involved but only in gaining the qualification for career purposes. For example, the process student will put emphasis on the PhD for self-development and improvement, whereas the product student will be more likely to emphasise the career opportunities arising from a PhD. The Indonesian Government, on the other hand, commonly cited the percentage increase in the

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[1]   Students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study also reported that when working on group projects, a strategy used frequently in the Masters of Business Administration (MBA) course, the local students had a tendency to assume or expect that the international students could do more of the library work or data gathering as they were 'free' during the day.

[2]   The four levels of the hierarchy are 1) *dualistic* where the student is aware that right answers must be found and wrong ones rejected; 2) *relativistic* where there are a multiplicity of possible approaches; 3) *commitment* which requires a definite act of commitment to a specific stance; and 4) *dynamic commitment* where the commitment depends on personal change and development (Perry Jr, W. 1970).

staff holding a PhD or Masters award as an indication of the increasing quality and development of higher education in Indonesia.

Discipline Differences

While considerable anecdotal experience is used when describing discipline differences in approaches to teaching, learning, research and supervision, there is also a body of literature which indicates that these differences are quite real. Different disciplines adopt different epistemological positions. While students often select a certain discipline because they already tend to hold that approach to knowledge, there is also evidence to suggest that these discipline-specific approaches are inculcated in the undergraduate, and more particularly, postgraduate years. Entwistle (1983) argues that there is a strong link between student characteristics and discipline choice. For example, students tending towards personal interpretation lean towards arts and social sciences, whereas operation learners tend more towards science, where learning is hierarchical and related to accepted paradigms (p. 114). It is suggested that students adopting an approach different from that of the discipline may have difficulties with learning in that discipline and students whose style was close to that of the discipline are likely to be more successful (Nulty & Barrett, 1996).

While there is no single example of a supervisory experience for each of the disciplines there are characteristics which tend to influence practices at the postgraduate level. The typologies outlined above are used in this study when classifying students and their supervisors into various disciplines and for reporting results. At the University of Adelaide studies have been conducted which provide some insight into discipline differences (see Table 39) as they relate to postgraduate students (Kiley, 1993a; Kiley, 1993b; Kiley, 1996a; Whittle, 1991).

Table 39.   Discipline Differences for Research Students[3]

Students enrolling in *experimental disciplines* are more likely to:	Students enrolling in *social science or humanities discipline* are more likely to:
• have their topic defined for them by their supervisor. In the case of local students they tend to apply to work with a supervisor because of the topics she/he has available;	• define their own topic;
• be part of a team, with their own research being one part of a larger, funded project being overseen by the supervisor;	• have a research area which is familiar to the supervisor but may not be in the supervisor's own particular research area;
• have the support and advice of technical staff and Postdoctoral Fellows;	• work individually, frequently working at home or other off-campus locations for periods of time;
• meet regularly, often weekly or fortnightly, as a laboratory group where they present and discuss work in progress;	• see their supervisor on an 'as needs' basis;
• see their supervisor frequently—often several times per week—in an informal way when the supervisor comes to the laboratory and in laboratory meetings;	• have supervisors who adopt a more 'hands off' approach;
• be full-time and have recently completed an Honours degree.	• possibly be part-time and possibly have had a significant break between previous undergraduate study and PhD.
• commonly publish jointly.	• rarely publish jointly with their supervisor.

3   Adapted from Kiley and Liljegren (1999).

Or, as Shannon (1995) describes the situation:

> Research in mathematics is inextricably linked with the solution of a problem or the application of a technique so that research methodology courses are meaningless. Research in the experimental sciences is usually a team process, so that estimating the contributions of individual members can be problematic. Research in the social sciences is often fashioned by paradigms with seemingly shifting boundaries. (p. 12)

Coursework in Research Degrees

In Australia, the PhD is a full research degree. While there might be induction programs involving some courses, the only work assessed is the student's written thesis. On the other hand, a significant feature of the United States PhD is coursework. This coursework includes seminars and discussions which are "concerned to facilitate the socialisation of students into their disciplines and to assist students to make the move from reproduction and analysis to speculation which is central to the idea of research" (Cullen et al., 1994, p. 12).

However, in many Australian universities the Honours[4] year would be considered to be the equivalent of coursework in the PhD as undertaken in the United States (Stranks, 1979). This expectation that postgraduate students will have developed the requisite research skills in Honours also influences the role the supervisor sees for her/himself "the role of 'teacher' that is adopted is geared to these expectations" (Andressen, 1997, p. 90). For students arriving from overseas to study in Australia who have not undertaken an Honours equivalent, it is clear that they could well be at a significant disadvantage if Honours is implicitly assumed to be the same as introductory coursework or if a component of coursework or student induction is not provided..

In Britain Salmon (1992) cites the recommendation of the Winfield Task Force (1987) that PhD work should be structured like the American model and Wilson (1987) who suggests a 50:50 balance of original research and formal classes. In Australia there is increasing interest in the development of 'coursework PhDs,' often citing the United States model as an example (Trigwell et al., 1997). However, there is considerable opposition from those who support the traditional all-research model. For example, when the Structured Program at the University of Adelaide was proposed it generated considerable discussion. "There was some concern that the *Structured Program* might be a 'devious' means for the introduction of coursework into PhD studies" (Kiley & Liljegren, 1999, p. 67).

However, pressure for a component of coursework in the PhD comes from students. Studies in two quite different departments conducted by Kiley (1996b) at the University of Adelaide indicated that 38% ($n=32$) of research students interviewed, particularly international students, would have liked a coursework component in their PhD.

Induction

In 1994 there were three major publications regarding postgraduate supervision in Australia (Cullen et al., 1994; Johnston & Broda, 1994; Parry & Hayden, 1994). These studies, along with a number of others, provide significant contemporary information regarding supervision.

Parry and Hayden (1994) in their report *Supervising Higher Degree Research Students* define thirteen discrete phases in supervision, several of which are considered to be inducting students

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4   Honours is a fourth year of an undergraduate award that generally has a major research project and some coursework. Only students with good undergraduate scores are invited to undertake Honours.

into a research culture and their discipline culture and providing them with the skills to proceed with their research. Cullen et al., (1994) in their very detailed report *Establishing Effective Supervision* address a number of issues in supervision. In particular, one strong recommendation which they made is that students should be involved in a structured induction to their research experience. A similar recommendation is made in the paper *Supporting Educational Researchers of the Future* by Johnston and Broda (1994).

Other studies from Britain and Australia also recommend an induction or structured approach to candidature (Ballard, 1989; Christopherson et al., n.d.; Elsey, 1990; Phillips & Pugh, 1987).

> No student should proceed to project work without having first gone through a formal induction program and acquired a comprehensive knowledge of research and research methodology and techniques of analysis. (Phillips & Pugh, 1987, p. 3)

The results of these studies have been used extensively in support of the Structured Program for PhD Students (Kiley & Liljegren, 1999) and the Integrated Bridging Program for International Students at the University of Adelaide (Cargill 1996). Both programs were the first of their kind in Australian universities and have been used as models by several other institutions. How these two programs were experienced by the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study, is discussed in Chapters 7 and 8.

Progression and Completion Rates

Two of the key criteria used for judging quality management in postgraduate practices are the progression rates and completion rates of candidates. Progression rates generally refer to the *length of time* it takes students to complete an award. Completion rates, on the other hand, refer to the numbers of students *completing the award* in which they are enrolled.

Studies reporting completion and progression rates generally conclude that students take longer to complete than governments generally desire (Armitage, 1997; Christopherson et al., n.d.; Cullen et al., 1994; Noble, 1994). Progression rate data from the United Kingdom indicate that over 50% of all PhD students take longer than three years to complete their PhD (Christopherson et al., n.d.). In Australia the progression rates of the 1979 cohort of students were 52.6 months for science students and 56.8 for arts, humanities and social sciences students (Cullen et al., 1994, p. 16). Yet the Australian Government generally provides a scholarship for three years with the right to apply for an extension of up to six months (42 months in total) for all disciplines (Aitken, 1989).

Of course, not all students who commence an award complete it. In 1997 it was reported that the completion rates of Australian Postgraduate Research Award (APRA) PhD students were 68% compared with 76% non-APRA and 83% and 84% respectively for Masters students (Armitage, 1997). These rates are cause for concern given that the estimated cost of educating a PhD student in Australia is approximately AUD105,000 over three and a half years (without overheads) (West, 1998, p. 20). These data also serve to highlight a significant difference between local students and overseas students. The progression rates for Australian and the next four largest cohorts of international postgraduate students (enrolled from 1985) at the University of Adelaide are provided in Table 40. All of the international students listed other than Thai students have a better full-time equivalent progression rate than do local students and in elapsed time all of the international groups listed out-perform the local students. Details from AusAID (Hearn, 1998) suggest that PhD progression rates for Indonesian students range from seven years three months to two years eight months with a Mean of four years four months. The range

of progression rates for Indonesian Masters[5] students across Australia was five years one month to nine months, with the Mean being two years two months.

Table 40. Progression Rates by Nationality of PhD students at the University of Adelaide (1985-1998 cohort)

Country of origin	Number of Students	Full-time Equivalent (years)	Elapsed Time (years)
Australia	738	3.8	5.0
Iran	60	3.5	4.0
China	46	3.7	4.5
Indonesia	19	3.5	4.6
Thailand	14	4.0	4.4

The completion rates for Indonesian postgraduate students in the 1985 to 1995 cohorts at the University of Adelaide indicate that Masters students are more likely to lapse, that is not complete, than PhD students. Twenty nine percent of Masters students lapsed compared with 18% of PhD students[6]. A number of reasons for this are suggested. First it is possible that students whose academic records are 'doubtful' may be recommended for a Masters program with the anticipation that if they demonstrate the requisite academic capacity they will upgrade to a PhD. A second possible reason is that in some cases students and supervisors may not manage to keep the Masters' research within bounds but rather unintentionally expand to a PhD, without a sufficient time allocation. The third reason is that supervisors do not value a Masters to the same extent that they do a PhD and so do not put the same effort into following up, supporting and even bullying[7] students into completing.

Local students withdraw for a range of reasons, including that they perceive they are unable to cope with the standard of work required, overseas students on scholarship are in a difficult position. Generally they do not consider themselves able to withdraw if they are not coping, but rather their candidature is terminated by the university. It is easy to appreciate the difference the two alternatives have on self-concept. The first, one withdraws with 'honour intact'—"I didn't really want to do a PhD anyway!" The other, the student returns home a failure.

The results of a research project undertaken at the University of Adelaide provide particular interest given that postgraduate candidates in the sciences "had significantly better completion rates, fewer intermissions and lower attrition rates than Arts Faculty candidates" (Whittle, 1991, p. 239). The completion rate for science students after four years was 51.2%, whereas for Arts Faculty students it was 13.6%. Whittle determined that it was the marked differences in approaches to supervision that was the main cause of the difference. For example the supervisory style reported by Arts was defined by Whittle as 'hands off' whereas in Science it was described as a close, mentoring style. Further, joint publication in Arts was uncommon but in Science it was considered the norm. These and other quite varied characteristics of supervision across the two disciplines accounted for such significant differences in completion and progression rates (Whittle, 1991, p. 240).

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5   Coursework and Research students were not differentiated in the data.

6   These figures actually compare favourably with another Australian university used for comparison. A cohort from the same period indicates that the PhD completion rate for Indonesian students was 86% and for Masters students 50% (Tyson, pers com 1998).

7   As suggested in Chapter 2 while the term 'bullying' it is term sometimes used by students and supervisors to describe the 'keeping on task' activity that some students seek from their supervisor.

The results outlined above reflect the dilemma facing postgraduate students and their supervisors. Does one select a topic which can be completed within the time allowed,[8] even though it might not be of any great significance in academic terms, or of any particular interest to the student, or does one select a topic of significance and interest but also in the knowledge that it is likely to take more than the three to three and a half years expected by the government? This dilemma, also reported in the UK literature (Delamont, Parry & Atkinson, 1998) and is of particular concern to international students who have time and visa constraints from the Australian Government as well as their own government and the desire to return to family and friends. In a survey which involved 62 scholars from Australia, Britain, Canada and the United States Noble (1994) reports that 28% of respondents considered that decreasing the time to complete a thesis would have a positive effect on the quality of doctoral work, 46% suggested that it would have a negative effect and 26% anticipated no effect (p. 40). The issue of progression and completion times for students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study is discussed in detail in Part 4.

Summary
This appendix has provided information upon which the reader can draw to better understand the context with regard to postgraduate education in Australia and the environment into which the students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study were moving. Changes within the cohort of students over relatively recent times have highlighted the need for changing supervisory practices. The purpose, and cost, of doctoral study has again ben called into question with reference to the purpose of postgraduate study for Indonesian students. It was noted that while there have been considerable developments in addressing issues such as induction and research training for students, one very under-researched ares is postgraduate student learning.

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[8]   While Australian Government postgraduate scholarships are generally awarded for three years with a right to apply for a six month extension most universities allow four years (full-time) and often up to five years for candidature.

APPENDIX C INTERNATIONAL STUDENT POLICIES CONTEXT

Background

Until 1983 Australian education programs offered to overseas students were classified as aid, which is generally considered a post-World War II phenomenon given that "Imperialist governments did not describe any expenditure they made on colonial administration and conquest...as aid" (Hayter & Watson, 1985, p. 6). However, between 1973 and 1983 there were at least 18 reviews of aspects of the Australian Aid Program. The most significant of these occurred in 1984 with the publication, by the Commonwealth Government, of *The Report of the Committee to Review the Australian Overseas Aid Program* (1984)—generally known as the Jackson Report. In the same year, but commissioned independently by the Department of Education, Employment and Training, *Mutual Advantage: Report of the Committee of Review of Private Overseas Student Policy* (1984)—generally known as the Goldring Report, was published.

Jackson (1984) argued that education had moved away from being 'aid' and should, in fact be considered 'trade' and "be regarded as an export industry in which institutions are encouraged to compete for students and funds" (p. 87). Evans and Grant (1992) writing eight years after the Jackson report suggested that prior to the release of the Jackson Report "discussion about Australian aid tended to have an air of cloying idealism, denigratingly close to the politics of the warm, inner glow" (p. 132). Unlike the Jackson Report, however, the Goldring Committee considered that students should contribute something towards their education, "the consequences of imposing full-cost, even if accompanied by a scholarship scheme, would outweigh the goodwill and other positive benefits flowing to Australia from the program" (Goldring, 1984, p. 85).

The debate eventually favoured the Jackson proposals and as a result, from 1990 subsidised places in Australian education institutions were phased out and a full-fee program was brought in. However, both Jackson and Goldring agreed that the free, that is scholarship, places offered to overseas students should be counted as part of the aid budget (in 1984 approximately A$70 million) and eventually this was done thereby boosting the Australian aid budget from .0.48% to 0.50% of Gross National Product (Joint Committee on Foreign Affairs, 1989, p. 94).

The payment for full-fee places could either be through private funds or through a scholarship such as those offered through Australia's Aid Office (AusAID). To assist with study in Australia, the Australian Government provided a range of scholarships falling into three categories:

- those related to the Foreign Aid Program including Australian Sponsored Training Scholarships (ASTAS) and Australian Development Co-operation Scholarships (ADCOS);

- those related to domestic priorities;

- those expressing a special relationship between Australia and the home country. For example, the Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee, through IDP, provides funds to strengthen the capacities of universities in neighbouring developing countries.

These policies have caused considerable changes in the overseas student cohort particularly with a significant increase in the number of Indonesian students studying in Australia over the past ten years.

To review the outcomes of these policy changes, the Commonwealth Government of Australia formed a Joint Standing Committee of Foreign Affairs in 1993 and sought submissions regarding, among other matters, Australia's role in education with developing countries.

Comments from submissions related to Australia's role in supporting education in Indonesia to the Joint Standing Committee were summarised as: "language is fundamental to understanding another culture; a mutually beneficial educational relationship complements other relationships; and the overall educational relationship with Indonesia is fragmented" (Joint Standing Committee on Foreign Affairs, Defence and Trade, 1993, p. 157).

In the early 1990s there was shift in Australia's outlook on education[1]. The focus had already moved from 'aid to trade' and then began to move from 'trade to internationalisation' (IDP Education Australia, 1995). Based on some of the major themes from the Goldring Report, the Department of Employment, Education and Training adopted the following policy in 1992 with regard to overseas students, who now were being called, international students.[2] The policy was to: enrich curricula in Australia and overseas by internationalising them; maximise intellectual, economic, and diplomatic competition; secure advantageous conditions for Australia in education and training; develop a skills-base overseas; and contribute to global growth through education and training (Department of Employment Education and Training, 1992, p. 2). The refocussing of the education program was stated by Australia's then Minister for Employment, Education and Training, Kim Beazley in September 1992, as:

> A move away from a concentration on exporting students' places to a recognition of the wider activities integrally involved in international education and the wider, sometimes indirect, benefits which flow from seeking to internationalise our education systems. (IDP Education Australia, 1995, p. 13)

In 1995, the report *Curriculum Development for Internationalisation: OECD/CERI Study,* was published by the Department of Employment, Education and Training. The study, involving Australia and six other countries, suggested that Australian universities were being internationalised through the enrolment of overseas students, exchanges, distance education, research and institutional links and the curriculum (IDP Education Australia, 1995, p. 1). An internationalised university was described as one that has:

> Curricula with an international orientation in content, aimed at preparing students for performing (professionally/socially) in an international and multicultural context, and designed for domestic students as well as foreign students. (IDP Education Australia, 1995, p. 13)

Universities in Australia have now adopted a very active policy of internationalisation. For example Monash University has instituted postgraduate programs in international education, that is, Graduate Certificate, Diploma and Masters in International Education. However, Halse and Baumgart (1996) warns that "the richness of cultural diversity and the benefits of inter-cultural understanding and insights derived from reciprocal exchanges across culture will be lost in an international education program based only on ecumenical beliefs and understandings" (p. 41). I suggest that they could have changed 'ecumenical beliefs and understandings' to 'economic beliefs and imperatives' and the sentiment might have been even more valid.

Benefits of International Students

The reports discussed above (Goldring, 1984; IDP Education Australia, 1995; Jackson, 1984; Joint Committee on Foreign Affairs, 1989; Joint Standing Committee on Foreign Affairs, 1993) suggest that there are a number of benefits of having international students, and in this case, Indonesian students, studying in Australian universities. Firstly, international students contribution to the overall economy through revenue and taxes, enhanced future exports, foreign exchange earnings and possible dependence on Australian technology by returnees. In addition,

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[1]   See the section on Administration later in the chapter for details of the earlier shift from aid to trade.

there are limited economies of scale in teaching overseas students, although overseas students tend to concentrate in certain disciplines. The 1997 expenditure of international students in Australia was $3.2b (a 12.3% increase over 1996) with South Australia receiving $53m of the total. The expenditure of Indonesian students in Australia for the same period was $371m, placing them second in expenditure after Malaysian students (Department of Employment Education Training and Youth Affairs, 1998).

Secondly, it is anticipated that graduates, as future leaders of their respective countries, will have links with their *Alma Mater* and a better understanding of Australian culture and society. This might be particularly significant in the Indonesian context given that Reeve (1989) suggests Indonesians think that: Australians are descended from convicts—which is why they are rough *(kasar)*—they are ruled from England, Australia is not a real country because it has no national language, and there is no culture in Australia (p. 6).

Thirdly, competition is provided with Britain, Canada and the United States for the student market. "Of all international students currently studying in Australia, Australia was the preferred country of study for approximately three-quarters, while 13 percent would have preferred to study in the USA and 6 percent in the United Kingdom (Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs, 1998a). Fourthly, Australians have face to face contact with Asians and interested Australians can learn about the culture of other peoples. However, "racial prejudice amongst Australians will increase if there is an increase in concentration in those universities and disciplines where the overseas students already form a large proportion of the student group" (Harris & Jarrett, 1990, p. 68).

Fifthly, as many Asian students are highly able and hard working so they set high standards and offer a challenge to local students. Sixthly, staff with similar interests can be brought together and relationships developed between Australian and overseas institutions through collaborative research and possible consultancy opportunities. Finally research output is increased through the identification and implementation of research projects (Harris & Jarrett, 1990; Mansell, 1989; Reeve, 1989).

International and Indonesian Students in Australia

Indonesia's location, size and development potential give it a strategic and political significance for Australia beyond that of other countries of ASEAN[3]...it has substantial material resources and production potential [and]...it would be a major defence preoccupation if it were anything other than a friendly power. (Blight, 1986, p. 10)

Therefore, it is not surprising that the Australian Government has placed considerable emphasis on attracting Indonesian students to study in Australian schools, colleges and universities[4].

For Indonesian students as a component of the overall international student enrolment the figures are quite significant. In 1997 there were 6,051 Indonesian higher education students in Australia, 2,013 of them as postgraduates, 3,963 as undergraduates and 75 'other.' Two hundred

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3   Association of South East Asian Nations

4   The overall number of international students in Australia has increased steadily. For example, in 1988 the enrolment was 20,000 whereas by 1997, only nine years later, there were 151,464 overseas students in Australia (Department of Employment Education Training and Youth Affairs, 1998, p. 9). The Higher Education enrolment has increased by 76.1% since 1993 with Higher Education institutions earning $827m in fees in 1997 "while students in the sector spent $825m on goods and services, up from $705, in 1996" (Department of Employment Education Training and Youth Affairs, 1998, p. 16). By 2010, it was predicted before the financial crisis in South-east Asia, that the number of overseas students in Australia would reach 206,00, providing an income of A$7.2 billion (Newsome, 1995).

and two of the higher education students from Indonesia were studying in South Australia. These figures indicate a significant increase over the 1994 figures for Australia, although not South Australia, where there were 3,053 enrolled across Australia and 197 in South Australian higher education respectively (Department of Employment Education Training and Youth Affairs, 1998).

The most popular disciplines for Indonesian higher education students enrolled in 1997 were Business Administration and Economics (54.5% of the total) followed by Engineering and Surveying (13.5%) and Science (13%) (see Table 41). These figures reflect the overall overseas enrolment where almost 50% of students study Business Administration and Economics and approximately 12% study Science, of which over 55% are enrolled in Computer Science (Department of Employment Education Training and Youth Affairs, 1998).

Table 41.   1997 International and Indonesian Student Enrolments in Australia

	Total Enrolment	% H. Ed. Enrolment	% Postgrad Enrolment	Most Popular	Second Discipline	Third Discipline
Indonesian	18,180	33%	11%	Bus/Eco/ Admin	Science	Eng/Survey
All International	151,464	40%	9%	Bus/Eco/ Admin	Science	Arts/Hum/ Soc Sci

During the 1980s and early 1990s the progression and completion rates of Indonesian students was of considerable concern. However, current figures from the University of Adelaide indicate that Indonesian students are now progressing through their doctoral studies at a full-time equivalent rate of 3.51 years compared with Australian students who progress at a rate of 3.8 years full-time equivalent. These progression rates, however, do not seem to be reflected in some supervisors' comments and views about Indonesian postgraduate students. It appears that these supervisors might be 'living in the past' and talking about some of the previous, less than ideal, rates rather than recognising the changes in selection and quality of students that have occurred.

While many academics are concerned about progression and completion rates, as are most students, not all university staff have the same view. Armitage (1996) reported on a current affairs program on Australian (national) television, that some academic staff suggested overseas students, were being passed too easily by universities because they wished to maintain their income from overseas students.

> The conflict at the core of overseas student programs is that in the eyes of many academics, providing a 'good service' for the fee-paying clients is the same thing as prostituting your academic standards for the sake of a dollar…it is a common claim among academics that overseas students are accepted under spurious entrance criteria ahead of qualified students, then herded through courses despite inadequate performance so they can make way for the next lot of milch cows. Another grumble is that paying for their degrees gives them unrealistic expectations of passing. (p. 1)

Staff at some universities were angry that a drop in standards was being caused by what they saw as a wish to secure the overseas student dollar by ensuring that students passed. The argument against contemplating such a development was powerfully put by Dr Peter Subramaniam, a keynote speaker at the 1995 conference of the National Liaison Committee of International Students in Australia. He argued strongly against 'contextualisation', that is:

Appendix C: International Student Policies Context

A modification of academic and clinical expectations for an international student. This is based on the notion that a graduate trained for an overseas situation requires a different level of core scientific knowledge and professional acumen than a local graduate trained for the Australian market....This is an indefensible and offensive premise that requires active opposition. (Subramaniam, reported by Healy, 1995)

Selection of Indonesian Students

The selection of students to study in Australia, particularly Indonesian students, has been reviewed over several years, especially the way that selection influences the outcomes and the success of the students' candidature. Prior to 1975 there were three studies of students from Asia who had returned to their home country after studying in Australia (Hodgkin, 1966; Keats, 1969; Rao, 1976). These studies resulted in the Australian Government shifting its policy to funding postgraduate rather than undergraduate students as postgraduates were reported to have a greater chance of success (King, 1992). This shift in policy is still reflected in the Indonesian enrolments in Australia.

During the 1980s and early 1990s there were a number of incidents related to Indonesian students studying in Australia regarding their unacceptably high discontinuation rates. As King (1992) reports:

> In 1981, IDP was faced with 25 percent discontinuation rate amongst fellows it sponsored from Indonesian universities for postgraduate degree training. A Joint Selection System was instituted to scrutinise nominations, interview candidates and propose appropriate placement in Australian tertiary education institutions. The discontinuation rate dropped to about 5 percent. In 1984, AIDAB had a similar problem with sponsored students from the Ministry of Mines and Energy. The discontinuation rate was 30 percent....A Joint Selection System was instituted and the discontinuation rate dropped to about 12 percent (which was seen as acceptable).

> Then in 1989, AIDAB doubled the intake numbers to the Indonesian sponsored training program. With no checks on the intakes, the discontinuation rate rose dramatically. In 1991, a wide ranging Joint Selection System was instituted across the whole program to reduce the political problem of high failure rate to an acceptable level of below 15 percent. (p. 4)

Possible Decline in Enrolments

While overseas enrolments, particularly those from Asian countries, have been steadily increasing, regional political and economic trends in 1996, 1997 and 1998 indicate that this may not continue, at least for some countries. In Australia the election to the Australian Parliament in 1996 of Pauline Hanson, and her anti-Asian and anti-Aboriginal views appears to have had considerable impact on the way that overseas students, and in this case Indonesian students, are accepted into the Australian community. Newspaper accounts from Indonesia, Singapore, and Australia provide some insight. Njo (1996), an Indonesian PhD student at Murdoch University in Australia, wrote an article for the *Jakarta Post* regarding the impact of Pauline Hanson. He suggested that Hanson seemed to gain popular support after her maiden speech where she:

> Claimed that Australians were being swamped by Asian immigrants living in ghettos, called for Australia's withdrawal from the United Nations and demanded the termination of all Australian foreign aid and missions and special assistance program to Aborigines. (p. 4)

It took extensive comment from many key Australians before the Prime Minister "finally initiated a bipartisan motion in parliament, whereby politician after politician reaffirmed their

commitment to Australia's multiculturalism and dismissed the possibility of the country reintroducing the White Australia policy" (Njo, 1996, p. 4).

It was argued that Pauline Hanson's anti-Asian stance could negatively affect Australia's lucrative international student market—reputedly A$3.6 billion per annum of which an estimated 85% comes from Asia (Sweetman, 1996 p. 4)—and by 1997 these predictions seemed to be coming true. Asian immigration, tourism and business immigration had slowed and student visas from Asian countries had dropped from 26% (January to June 1996) to 6% (January to June 1997). "Only the new markets of Indonesia and Vietnam showed increases of eight and 48 percent respectively" (Healy, Yaman & Collins, 1997, p. 2).

The Asian economic crisis and the Indonesian political and social crises came toward the end of the period of the study and so the affects were beginning to be felt at an organisational level early in 1999. For example, a newspaper article in January 1999 (Healy, 1999) indicated that the December 1998 visa-application figures were 23% less compared with the same period for the previous year. "If the December trend continued through the key visa-issuing period to March, the fall would translate to a loss of nearly 6000 students from 63,000 at present" (p. 3). The financial, social and political crisis in Indonesia during 1998 caused considerable re-thinking. The effects of the crisis on students in the Adelaide Longitudinal Study are discussed in Part 4.

Summary

This information in this appendix provides background for the reader regarding policies and practices related to international, and particularly Indonesian, students. The whole notion of the internationalisation of Australia's universities, certainly a priority for most during the late 1990s, has important implications for why overseas students are so actively sought. However, as the results of this research will indicate, true internationalisation is in its infancy is some universities, including the University of Adelaide. It was within this environment that the Adelaide Longitudinal Study of 33 Indonesian students was undertaken. With the blatantly racist views of Hanson, the negative views of some academics, and the concerns of students, all adding to the complexity of the students' and researchers' experiences and the economic and political crisis which developed in Indonesia toward the end of the study.

APPENDIX D LETTER OF INVITATION

«firstname»«secondname»
Department of «Dept»

Dear «firstname»

Welcome to Adelaide.

Like you, I am a postgraduate student studying (part-time) at the University of Adelaide. I am enrolled in a PhD looking at the factors which contribute to a successful postgraduate learning experience for students from Indonesia. I am hoping you might help me!

I would like to work with all the Indonesian Masters (coursework and research) and PhD students who start at the University of Adelaide this year. I would like to meet with you every three or four months to ask you how your work is progressing and which aspects of your study are helpful and which are not. I have contacted supervisors so they know I am writing to you.

I understand that this is quite a difficult time for you beginning your study and adjusting to life in Adelaide and I might be able to help. I was born in Adelaide and lived most of my life here although I did live and work in Jakarta in 1989 and 1990. I speak some *Bahasa Indonesia* and would enjoy the chance to practise with you.

I would be very happy if you could phone me at the University on 33130 or write to me (you can send it through the internal mail). I look forward to receiving your letter or phone call very soon.

Regards

Margaret Kiley

APPENDIX E OVERVIEW OF COHORT CHARACTERISTICS

Sex	Age	Marital	Religion	Home	Employer	Discipline
F	25	Not Married	R Catholic	E. Java	University	Hard/Applied
F	26	Married	Protestant	N Sulawesi	Private	Soft/Pure
F	28	Not Married	Moslem	W. Java	University	Transitional
F	29	Married	Moslem	W. Java	University	Hard/Pure
F	30	Not Married	Buddhist	S. Sulawesi	Private	Soft/Applied
F	30	Not Married	Moslem	W. Java	University	Soft/Applied
F	33	Married	Moslem	Jakarta	University	Transitional
F	33	Not Married	Moslem	W. Sumatra	University	Hard/Pure
F	35	Married	Moslem	Jakarta	Government	Soft/Applied
F	35	Married	Moslem	Bengkulu	University	Soft/Applied
F	34	Married	Moslem	Jakarta	Government	Hard/Applied
F	36	Married	Moslem	Jakarta	Government	Transitional
F	43	Not Married	Moslem	Jakarta	Government	Soft/Applied
M	26	Not Married	R Catholic	Yogya DI	Private	Soft/Applied
M	26	Not Married	Buddhist	Jakarta	Private	Hard/Applied
M	26	Not Married	R Catholic	Yogya DI	Private	Soft/Applied
M	26	Married	Moslem	N. Sulawesi	University	Soft/Pure
M	27	Not Married	R Catholic	Jakarta	Private	Soft/Applied
M	27	Not Married	R Catholic	E. Java	University	Hard/Applied
M	28	Married	Moslem	C. Sulawesi	University	Transitional
M	30	Not Married	Protestant	Jakarta	University	Hard/Applied
M	31	Not Married	R Catholic	E. Timor	University	Hard/Pure
M	32	Married	Moslem	W. Java	University	Transitional
M	34	Married	Moslem	Bengkulu	University	Soft/Applied
M	35	Married	Hindu	Bali	University	Transitional
M	35	Married	Moslem	W. Sumatra	University	Hard/Applied
M	35	Married	Moslem	W. Nusaten	University	Transitional
M	35	Not Married	R Catholic	W. Java	University	Hard/Pure
M	35	Married	Moslem	W Java	University	Transitional
M	37	Married	Moslem	Jakarta	Government	Soft/Applied
M	38	Married	Protestant	E. Nusaten	University	Hard/Applied
M	42	Married	Moslem	Jakarta	Government	Soft/Applied
M	43	Married	Moslem	Jakarta	Government	Soft/Applied

Demographic Data for Cohort 1

Sex[1]	Award[2]	Age[3]	Discipline[4]	Religion[5]	Employ[6]	Marital[7]
F	M(c/w)	30	S/A	Muslim	Univ	S
M	M(r)	35	H/A	Muslim	Univ	M/ch
F	M(c/w)	36	T	Muslim	GO	M/ch
M	M(r)	26	H/A	Buddhist	Priv	S
F	PhD	29	H/P	Muslim	Univ	M/ch
M	PhD	35	T	Hindu	Univ	M/ch
F	M(c/w)	28	T	Muslim	Univ	S
M	M(c/w)	27	S/A	RC	Priv	S
F	M(c/w)	33	T	Muslim	Univ	M/ch
M	PhD	34	S/A	Muslim	Univ	M/ch
F	PhD	43	S/A	Muslim	GO	S
M	M(c/w)	42	S/A	Muslim	GO	M/ch
F	PhD	35	S/A	Muslim	Univ	M/ch
M	M(c/w)	43	S/A	Muslim	GO	M/ch
F	M(c/w)	30	S/A	Buddhist	Priv	S
M	M(c/w)	26	S/A	RC	Priv	S
M	Attended two interviews and after not responding to three follow-up letters for interview three was removed from the study					
M	Only attended one interview before transferring to another university.					
F	Only attended one interview and after not responding to three follow-up letters for interview two was removed from the study.					
F	After not responding to three letters of invitation to join, was removed from the study.					

In summary, for the first group of students, 10 female and 10 male students were sent letters of invitation and eight female and eight male students continued. Nine of the students were enrolled on a Masters by coursework, two in a research Masters and five in a PhD. Sixty nine percent of the continuing students were Muslim. Eight students came from the university sector in Indonesia, four from government offices and four from the private sector. The mean age at commencement was 33 years. Fifty six per cent were enrolled in the Soft/Applied disciplines, 25% in Transitional, 13% in the Hard/Applied and 6% in the Hard/Pure disciplines.

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[1]   F=female, M=male.
[2]   M(c/w)=Masters by coursework, M(r)=Masters by Research, PhD=full research doctorate
[3]   Age at commencement of study in Australia.
[4]   So that students are not identifiable, only the broad discipline categories devised by [Cullen, 1994 #79] and described in Chapter ? are used here. S/A=Soft/Applied, H/A=Hard/Applied, H/P=Hard/Pure, S/P=Soft/Pure and T=Transitional.
[5]   RC=Roman Catholic, Prot=Protestant.
[6]   Employ=Employment in Indonesia just prior to coming to Australia as a student. Univ=academic in a university, GO=civil servant in a government office, Priv=private enterprise.
[7]   Marital status, S=single, M/ch=Married (or de facto relationship) with children, M=Married (or de facto relationship) without children.

Demographic Data for Cohort 2

Sex	Award	Age	Discipline	Religion	Employ	Marital
F	M(c/w)	35	S/A	Muslim	GO	M/ch
F	M(r)	25	H/A	RC	Univ	S
M	M(r)	35	T	Muslim	Univ	M/ch
M	PhD	30	H/A	Prot	Univ	S
M	M(c/w)	26	S/A	RC	Priv	S
M	M(r)	38	H/A	Prot	Univ	M/ch
M	M(r)	28	T	Muslim	Univ	M
M	PhD	35	T	Muslim	Univ	M/ch
M	After not responding to three letters of invitation to join, was removed from the study.					

The demographic data for the second group of students commencing in second semester 1995 indicate that two female and seven male students were sent letters of invitation and two female and six male students accepted. Two of the students were enrolled in a Masters by coursework, four in a research Masters and one in a PhD. Fifty percent of the students were Muslim. Six students came from the university sector in Indonesia, one from a government office and one from the private sector. The mean age at commencement was 32 years. Twenty five per cent were enrolled in the Soft/Applied disciplines, 37.5% in Transitional and 37.5% in the Hard/Applied disciplines.

Demographic Data for Cohort 3

Sex	Award	Age	Discipline	Religion	Employ	Marital
F	M(r)	34	H/A	Muslim	GO	M/ch
M	PhD	37	S/A	Muslim	GO	M/ch
M	PhD	27	H/A	RC	Univ	S
M	PhD	35	H/P	RC	Univ	S
M	After not responding to three letters of invitation to join, was removed from the study.					
F	Had already completed several years of study in Australia and it was mutually agreed that she would not be part of the study.					
F	Was an Australian citizen and it was mutually agreed she would not be part of the study.					

The information for the third group indicates that three female and four male students were sent letters of invitation and one female and three male students continued. One of the students was enrolled on a Masters by research and three in a PhD. Fifty percent of the students were Muslim. Two came from the university sector in Indonesia and two from government offices. The mean age at commencement was 33 years. Twenty five per cent were enrolled in the Soft/Applied disciplines, 50% in the Hard/Applied disciplines and 25% in the Hard/Pure disciplines.

Demographic Data for Cohort 4

Sex	Award	Age	Discipline	Religion	Employ	Marital
M	M(r)	26	S/P	Muslim	Uni	M
F	M(r)	26	S/P	Prot	Uni	M
M	PhD	32	T	Muslim	Univ	M/ch
F	PhD	33	H/P	Muslim	Univ	S
M	PhD	31	H/P	RC	Univ	M/ch
M	After not responding to three letters of invitation to join, was removed from the study.					

For the fourth and last group of students, commencing in second semester 1996, two female and four male students were sent letters of invitation and two female and three male students continued. Two of the students were enrolled on a Masters by research and three in a PhD. Sixty percent of the students were Muslim. All students came from the university sector. The mean age at commencement was 30 years. Of the continuing students, 40% were enrolled in the Soft/Pure disciplines, 20% in the Transitional discipline and 40% in the Hard/Pure disciplines.

APPENDIX F INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Interview 1

Discussion of project.
*Q1   Name (Spelling and preferred name)
*Q2   Course
*Q3   Age
*Q4   Marital status
*Q5   Children (Names and ages)
*Q6   Is your family likely to come out to Australia?
*Q7   What is your Religion?
*Q8   Where are you originally from in Indonesia?
*Q9   What is your home address (Indonesia and Adelaide)
*Q10   What was your job in Indonesia
*Q11   Are you planning to return to this job?
*Q12   How were you selected? (Own initiative or supervisor?)
*Q13   Who is your sponsorship agency
*Q14   What are your reasons for postgraduate study
*Q15   Which University Department are you enrolled in (and contact details)?
*Q16   Who is your supervisor(s)
*Q17   What was your first choice of University?
*Q18   What pre-departure help did you receive?
*Q19   What are your previous degrees and where from: and in which language were they?
*Q20   Where did you do your EAP?
*Q21   What languages do you speak?
*Q22   What was your IELTS Score?
*Q23   How do you feel about being in Australia?
*Q24   What was your arrival date in Australia?
*Q25   Do you have any questions?

Interview 2

Discussion regarding taping of interviews
*Q1   How are you feeling about being in Adelaide?
*Q2   How are you feeling about being away from Indonesia?
*Q3   How long (if) did it take you to feel OK about being here and away from family?
*Q4   When do you expect to return home?
*Q5   Check on delays regarding application and any administrative difficulties with getting here.
*Q6   How is your study going?
*Q7   What is proving to be most difficult?
*Q8   Where are you getting most help?
*Q9   Is this what you expected before you came here?
*Q10   How are you managing socially?
*Q11   How is your travel, accommodation etc working out?
*Q12   In your job in Indonesia, what sort of salary were you receiving? Did you get a salary from outside your main job?
*Q13   How many in your section/department at work had been overseas to study?
*Q14   Have you noted any changes in your English (spoken, written etc) since you arrived in Adelaide?
*Q15   Do you have any questions of me?
Culture Shock Schema and Supervisory Rating Scale

Interview 3

*Q1   How is everything going?
*Q2   What did you do in the break?
*Q3   How is your husband/wife, children?

*Q4   How did your work go in first semester?
*Q5   How do you feel about living in Adelaide now?
*Q6   What do you miss most about Indonesia?
*Q7   What was your parents' education?
*Q8   Do you have anyone who is financially dependent on you?
*Q9   Have you or your spouse got a job here in Adelaide?
*Q10   Is it better or worse financially for you here than Indonesia?
*Q11   How was your supervisor allocated?
*Q12   Do you have a preference for joint or single supervision?
*Q13   How would you describe your supervisor?
*Q14   Do you feel that you are getting the help you need?
*Q15   How often do you meet with your supervisor?
*Q16   Do you feel you can talk with your supervisor about personal things?
*Q17   Who was responsible for determining your research topic?
*Q18   Have you used any of the services of the University (health, counselling etc)?
*Q19   Have you completed the Structured Program? Comments.
*Q20   Does the department give you the support that you need?
*Q21   Are there other areas in the University which could give you better support?
*Q22   What is giving you the most concern?
*Q23   What are you enjoying with your study?
*Q24   What don't you enjoy?
*Q25   What does your supervisor do/say that makes you feel positive (or negative)?
*Q26   How do you think you are going compared with other overseas and local students?
*Q27   Do you feel more confident than when you first arrived?
*Q28   Is what you are doing meeting your expectations?
*Q29   Since your family arrived how has that affected your study?
*Q30   Do you have to talk in tutorials/seminars? How do you manage that?
*Q31   In Indonesia how do people know that you are stressed or worried?
*Q32   How do you cope with the way Australians express their stress?
*Q33   Have you experienced any racism?
*Q34   How has your health been?
*Q35   If you are feeling miserable who do you talk to?
*Q36   Do you have any questions of me?

Interview 4

*Q1   How are you?
*Q2   What differences have you noticed between having your family here and not having them here (comment on friends if not applicable). Or Does being away from family become less relevant the further you go into your stay here?
*Q3   How do you find it being here as students (rather than as staff as in Indonesia)
*Q4   Have you noticed any particular difference between how you were feeling last and this year?
*Q5   So far, has the experience of being here been worth it?
*Q6   How have you been going lately in seminars
*Q7   What skills do you think have been important for you in learning to be a research student?
*Q8   How do you know if you are progressing?
*Q9   How is writing a thesis in Australia different from the expectations in Indonesia?
*Q10   How is the relationship with Supervisors different here from in Indonesia? Do you think you are managing the difference OK?
*Q11   Do you know what your supervisor expects of you? How?
*Q12   Do you think the selection process in Indonesia means that the best students are coming here? How could it be different?
*Q13   Do you think that an IELTS of 6.5 is OK for postgraduate study in Australia?
*Q14   Do you think that there is a difference between students who come from a government department, those that come from a University and those who are privately employed?
*Q15   In Indonesia what sort of difference would be expected between someone who had only studied in Indonesia (even to PhD level) and someone who had studied to the same level but overseas?

*Q16 Do you think that you will lecture, supervise, and work with students differently /do your job differently when you return home?
*Q17 How do you think you have changed as a result of living and studying in Australia?
*Q18 What are people going to expect of you when you return home?
*Q19 How do you feel about going back to Indonesia?
*Q20 Do you have any questions of me?

Interview 5

*Q1 How have you been going?
*Q2 Is this how you expected it to be before you came here: study, life, being away from Indonesia?
*Q3 How is it different?
*Q4 What do you expect when you return?
*Q5 What do you think your family will expect: accompanying family and those still in Indonesia?
*Q6 What will your colleagues/boss expect?
*Q7 Do you think it is easier to come here with a clear idea of what you want to do for your research topic or is it better to be given something by your supervisor?
*Q8 How do you know how your work is going and whether you are on the right track?
*Q9 What do you expect regarding the examination of your thesis?
*Q10 What is the main concern you have for your work?
*Q11 How has your health been (and family)?
*Q12 Have you been to the doctor/Health Service lately?
*Q13 Is your health about the same as it would be in Indonesia?
*Q14 How is your family settling in?
*Q15 What are the main concerns that you have for your family?
*Q16 Do you think the experience of living and studying here is different for women and men? How?
*Q17 Do you think it is different for married and unmarried people?
*Q18 What is/has been the best thing about being in Adelaide (living and studying)?
*Q19 What is/has been the worst thing about being in Adelaide (living and studying)?
*Q20 Do you have any questions of me?

Interview 6

*Q1 How have you been going?
*Q2 Do you feel that you have a clear sense of how your work is progressing and whether you are on the right track? What has contributed to that understanding?
*Q3 What do you find to be the most effective forms of feedback you have on your work? (Why? When? How?)
*Q4 From whom do you receive feedback on your work and progress? What sorts of feedback do these people provide and how helpful is it?
*Q5 Have you had any feedback which is particularly negative? Describe.
*Q6 Looking at what happens with your friends and other students, what sorts of feedback do they receive which you think would be really helpful for your work and progress?
*Q7 Have you had an Annual Review yet? Were there any aspects of that which you found particularly helpful or unhelpful in terms of feedback on your work or progress. (Why? When How? etc)
*Q8 Were you involved with the Structured Program? What comments would you make about its overall helpfulness or otherwise?
*Q9 How do you think the workload here compares with the workload you would have expected in Indonesia?
*Q10 Are there any suggestions you would make to the University regarding improvements for overseas students?
*Q11 Are there any suggestions you would make to your department regarding improvements for overseas students?
*Q12 Are there any suggestions you would make to your supervisor regarding improvements for overseas students?
*Q13 Are there any suggestions you would make to AusAID regarding improvements for overseas students?

*Q14   What pre-departure help did you have in Indonesia?
*Q15   Do you have any questions or additional comments?

Interview 7

*Q1   How have you been going?
*Q2   How is your wife/husband family?
*Q3   Given that you are working very hard here, is it because you feel you are being forced to or is it that you choose to work so hard?
*Q4   Do you discuss your 'academic' ideas with other students (local, Indonesian other)? If not, is there a reason for this?
*Q5   Do you are any other comments or questions?
Work through Grigg Survey.

Interview 8

*Q1   How have you been going?
*Q2   What's the most significant thing that's happened to you since you have been here?
*Q3   What's the best/worst thing that's happened since you've been here? (living and studying)?
*Q4   What other things have happened?
*Q5   How does a Westerner like me try to understand the real issues for an Indonesian student studying here?
*Q6   What other ideas are there about you being Indonesian and me trying to understand you? Where does your religion fit into this?
*Q7   Do you have any questions for me?

Interview 9

*Q1   How have you been going?
*Q2   How is your wife/husband, family?
*Q3   One thing I wanted to talk with you about was your religion. How much do you think your religion affects your experiences here?
*Q4   I was wondering about people who are helpful or unhelpful to you here? What about office staff, lab staff, admin staff, academic staff?
*Q5   With reading, did you (do you still) have any particular problems?
*Q6   People often talk about critical analysis—what do you understand that to be—do you manage it with your own work?
*Q7   If I ask you "Is this how you expected your experiences to be" Do you think I could mean "Is this how you 'hoped' your experiences could be?" Is there any difference between hope and expect?
*Q8   How have you found the work-load here?
*Q9   If I told you that the literature talks about three kinds of overseas students, with regard to acculturation, how would you classify yourself?
       a) those who are here for a life experience, so most emphasis on cultural activities
       b) those who are here to gain a qualification, so most emphasis on work
       c) those who want to integrate within the Australian culture'?
*Q10   Do you have any Australian friends? Why, why not?
*Q11   How did you find out what your supervisor expected of you?
*Q12   When you were in Indonesia as a school student then as an undergraduate, were you expected to write many essays? What were they like?
*Q13   Do you have any questions of me?
Discuss the quotes and whether the text should be altered?
Talk about pseudonyms.

Interview 10

*Q1   How have you been going?
*Q2   How is your wife/husband, family?
*Q3   Have the economic difficulties in Indonesia been affecting you? How?

*Q4   When I spoke with returnees in Indonesia last year it was clear that some of them experienced some difficulties in settling in. What difficulties, if any, are you anticipating?

*Q5   Have you managed to save any money while in Adelaide to help you when you return to Indonesia?

*Q6   What contact do you have with other students who have already returned home?

*Q7   Do you expect to make contact with students who are still here once you have returned home? What would this contact be for?

*Q8   If you could give one piece of advice to an Indonesian colleague or friend who was about to come to Australia to do postgraduate study, what would it be?

*Q9   What about if that person was coming specifically to the University of Adelaide?

*Q10 Do you expect to be doing much research when you return home? Why?

*Q11 Do you feel that you have made the most of your time while you have been in Adelaide/Australia? Work? Sightseeing? Friends? Finances? Family?

*Q12 Are there any other issues which you think are important for me to understand?

*Q13 Do you have any questions of me?

Interview 11

*Q1   How have you been going?

*Q2   How is your wife/husband, family?

*Q3   Have the economic and political difficulties in Indonesia been affecting you? How?

*Q4   How would you compare yourself now with over three years ago when you first arrived in Adelaide—living?

*Q5   How would you compare yourself now with over three years ago when you first arrived in Adelaide—studying?

*Q6   What particular issues are there for you in the last few months of your candidature?

*Q7   What are you (and your family) most looking forward to about going home?

*Q8   What are you (and your family) least looking forward to about going home?

*Q9   Do you have any questions of me?

Interview 12

*Q1   How have you been going?

*Q2   How is your wife/husband, family?

*Q3   Do you have anything in particular you think I should know?

*Q4   Do you have any comments about the study itself?

*Q5   How has this experience been for you/your family?

*Q6   How do you feel about finishing/going home?

*Q7   Do you have any questions of me?

APPENDIX G LIST OF CITED TRANSCRIPTS

Name	Chpt	Int	Text Units	Name	Chpt	Int	Text Units
administrator64	6		81-85	badri	8	2	19-27
administrator64	6		123-135	badri	8	3	8-21
administrator69	6		19-25	badri	8	2	68-77
administrator74	6		134-139	badri	8	3	56-57
administrator71	6		64-70	badri	8	6	2-11,
adri	10		case study	badri	8	5	50-53, 80-86
ahmad	7	2	61-63	badri	8	7	12-18
amina	7	2	5-15; 117-131	badri	8	5	64-70
amina	7	2	54-56	badri	8	8	14-37
amina	7	2	82-91	badri	9	8	65-87
amina	7	2	114-116	basu	7	2	97-113
amina	7	2	235-241	basu	7	2	129-132
amina	7	2	20-23, 59-66	basu	7	2	30-32
amina	7	2	140-145	basu	7	2	190-196
amina	8	5	30-33	basu	7	2	34-45, 65-69
amina	9	11	170-185	basu	8	7	18-28
amina	9	12	15-48	basu	8	3	23-26
ani	10		case study	basu	8	8	47-57
antonius	7	2	132-144	basu	9	12	4-17
antonius	7	2	92-98	basu	9	10	91-98
antonius	7	2	198-200	basu	10	12	85-91
antonius	7	2	128-129	basu	11	11	22-23
antonius	7	2	120-126	beni	7	2	62-64
antonius	7	5	35-39	beni	7	2	72-73
antonius	7	3	132-135	beni	8	9	25-30
antonius	7	2	103-217	beni	8	3	91-98
antonius	7	2	237-239	beni	10	9	40-60
antonius	8	6a	103-200	buharto	7	2	29-34
antonius	9	letter1	20-41	buharto	7	2	134-142
arief	7	2	119	buharto	7	2	107-108
arief	7	2	69-71	buharto	7	2	82-88
badri	7	2	61-66	buharto	8	4	65-70
badri	7	2	43-47	buharto	8	4	107
badri	8	6	13-24	bunari	2	2	30-32

bunari	7	2	129-137	fatimah	7	2	245-248
bunari	7	2	14-16; 114-119	fatimah	8	5	104-117
bunari	7	2	100-111	fatimah	8	5	89-93
bunari	7	2	161-177	fatimah	9	email1	8-15
bunari	7	2	89-98	hermina	10	3	127-141
dewi	7	2	15-20	hermina	11	email2	28-35
dewi	7	2	72-75	iem	5	letter1	13-20
dewi	7	2	3-12	iem	7	2	78-93
dewi	7	2	30-33	iem	7	2	23-39
dewi	8	7	19-28	iem	7	2	36-38
dewi	8	3	72-74	iem	9	6a	4-42
dian	7	2	38-40	iem	9	6a	44-73
dian	7	2	119-120	igun	7	2	51-55
dian	7	2	6-33	igun	7	2	130-140
dian	7	2	70-71	igun	7	2	67-68
dian	8	4	143-166	igun	7	2	148-157
dian	8	5	193-197	igun	7	2	21-26
dian	9	7	81-88	igun	7	2	97-102
dian	10	4	135-142	igun	8	5	3-30
edi	7	2	35-42	igun	10	4	126-131
edi	7	2	71-95	ismanto	7	4	70-74
edi	7	2	100-128	ismanto	7	2	19-24
edi	7	2	148-149	ismanto	8	4	15-18
edi	8	12	11-14	ismanto	8	5	9-13
edi	8	5	41-50	ismanto	8	6	107-117
edi	9	11	50-54	ismanto	8	8	137-144
edi	9	11	67-75	ismanto	8	6	83-85
edi	10	8	112-124	ismanto	8	5	41-48
enton	7	2	144-145	ismanto	8	4	80-85
enton	7	2	72-81	ismanto	9	6	110-115
enton	9	5	46-52	ismanto	9	10	36-45
fatimah	7	2	56-65	ismanto	9	9	166-177
fatimah	7	2	221-223	ismanto	9	6	127-139
fatimah	7	2	142-145	ismanto	10	9	28-57
fatimah	7	2	5-22, 200-235	iwan	7	2	51-55
fatimah	7	2	34-36, 106-107	iwan	7	2	8-26
fatimah	7	5	79-87	iwan	7	2	73-76

iwan	7	2	34-43	lena	7	2	152-171
iwan	8	10	72-75	lena	7	2	158-160
iwan	8	9	120-128	lena	7	2	92-99
iwan	8	4	60-69	lena	7	2	36-57
iwan	8	9	204-210	lena	8	4	155-158
iwan	8	6	8-14	lena	9	4	142-152
jono	7	2	43-46	lena	9	4	109-110
jono	7	2	38-40	lena	10	4	120-130
jono	7	2	83-88	lena	11	letter1	30-40
jono	7	2	95-98	nurse72	6		80
jono	7	2	100-104	nurse72	6		83-86
jono	7	2	55-59	purwanto	7	2	65
jono	7	2	68-71	purwanto	7	2	45-49
jono	8	6	26-31	purwanto	7	6	62-71
jono	8	6	144-157	purwanto	8	3	57-58
jono	9	7	20-26	purwanto	9	8	81-107
jono	10	6	160-185	purwanto	9	9	172-182
junaidi	A	w/shop	4	rani	6	1	89-92
junaidi	7	2	58-66	rani	7	2	167-199
junaidi	7	2	19-24	rani	7	2	115-121
junaidi	7	2	78-81	rani	8	9	102-112
kintan	7	2	64-69	rani	8	3	66
kintan	7	2	47-53	rani	8	8	127-139
kintan	8	8	108-140	rani	8	3	209-218
kintan	10	5	88-94	rani	8	8	110-118
koko	7	2	38-41	rani	9	11	55-79
koko	7	2	132-138	rani	9	10	73-96
koko	7	2	156-161	rani	9	letter1	21-30
koko	8	4	15-19	rani	10	7	155-167
koko	8	6	32-41	rani	11	11	109-118
koko	8	5	8-12	rina	2	4	60-63
koko	8	3	243-246	rina	7	2	64-66
koko	9	5	81-84	rina	7	2	10
koko	10	5	40-46	rina	7	2	116-121
koko	10	8	62-71	rina	7	2	124-133
lena	7	2	25-27	rina	7	2	68-70

rina	7	2	213-216	sugik	8	5	45-47
rina	7	2	26-33	sugik	8	3	142-149
rina	7	2	1-23; 36-47	sugik	9	10	97-103
rina	7	2	53-57	sugik	9	4	135-138
rina	7	2	183-194	sugik	10	4	124-130
rina	8	3	88-96	supervisor23	7		55-62
rina	8	3	50	supervisor23	7		126-138
rina	8	4	7-17	supervisor24	7		94-96
rina	8	3	138-144	supervisor24	8		182-194
rina	8	5	93-95	supervisor27	8		87
rina	9	4	134-156	supervisor31	6		238-247
rina	9	letter1	23-27	supervisor31	7		118-123
rina	9	5	82-94	supervisor31	8		161-168
rina	9	4a	72-76	supervisor38	8		138-141
siti	7	2	5-11	supervisor50	6		161-165
siti	7	2	100-109	supervisor50	7		72-75
siti	7	2	112	supervisor50	7		46-62
siti	7	2	92	supervisor50	7		118-130
siti	8	4	64-66	supervisorr50	8		77-78
siti	8	3	118-130	supervisor50	8		131-157; 173-174
siti	8	4	120-130	supervisor51	6		31-32
siti	8	6	80-89	supervisor52	6		176-180
siti	9	8	63-74	supervisor54	8		84-87
siti	10	4	102-109	supervisor55	6		37-41
siti	10	8	56-57	supervisor5	6		150-155
SpecialInt	8		103-122	supervisor55	6		173-174
SpecialInt	8		124-141	supervisor55	7		70-74
SpecialInt	8		154-160	supervisor55	7		52-53
SpecialInt	8		183-194	supervisor55	7		87-90
stud_support30	6		91-99	supervisor57	6		31-34
stud-support30	6		110-114	supervisor57	7		67-69
sugik	7	2	81-85	supervisor57	7		138-139
sugik	7	2	124-128	supervisor57	8		147-160
sugik	7	2	95-98	supervisor57	8		126-130
sugik	7	5	51-60	supervisor57	11		159-162
sugik	7	2	64-68	supervisor58	6		30-37
sugik	8	9	54-61	supervisor58	6		127-129
sugik	8	4	49-55	supervisor58	7		49-61

supervisor59	6		68	watie	7	2	192
supervisor60	7		57-64	watie	7	2	214-240
supervisor69	7		89-95	watie	7	2	82-88
supervisor69	7		66-68	watie	7	2	107-117; 133-148
supervisor69	7		65	watie	7	2	299-399
supervisor69	8		75-87	watie	7	2	339-343
supervisor94	6		163	watie	7	2	210-211
supervisor96	6		19-21	watie	8	5	77-79
supervisor96	7		84-90	watie	9	4	128-141
supervisor98	7		96-105	watie	9	letter1	25-28
supervisor99	7		70-71	watie	9	letter2	10-13
tini	7	2	19-27	witra	10		case study
tini	7	2	163-166	yanti	7	2	50-52, 97-100
tini	7	2	43-49; 100-116	yanti	7	2	106-110
tini	7	1	2	yanti	8	9	54-69
tini	8	5	101-103	yanti	8	11	47-53
tini	9	5	48-55	yanti	8	11	12-16
tini	9	5	33-34	yanti	9	11	44-45
tini	9	4	140-146	yanto	7	2	14-16
tini	10	4	155-161	yanto	7	2	20-27
watie	3	6	93-96	yanto	7	2	65-67
watie	3	3	146-152	yanto	7	2	39-43
watie	3	6	98-101	yanto	8	5	70-75
watie	7	2	174-181	yanto	19	5	35-41
watie	7	2	49-50	yudi	10		case study

APPENDIX H CONTRACT LETTER

«firstname» «secondname»
Department of «dept»

4 March 1995

Dear «firstname»

Thank you for agreeing to take part in my study related to successful learning at postgraduate level of students from Indonesia.

As part of the study I agree to the following:

- You have a right not to be part of the study.

- Any discussions held during the formal interview sessions will be considered to be confidential;

- In any writing up of results, no individual student or supervisor name will be used;

- Writing up of any results will be of a general nature;

- You will be welcome to read any reports of interviews which I prepare as a result of talking with you;

- You are free to leave the study at any time you think necessary;

- Interviews will only be taped after approval from you.

Please let me know if there are any other matters which you would like included in the above.

Regards

Margaret Kiley

APPENDIX I ADJUSTMENT SCHEDULE

Pre-departure:"Excitement"
Excitement, anticipation,
enthusiasm
Busy packing and saying
goodbye
Tired or nervous energy

Departure: "Moving home"
Lessening of interest in local
events
Trying to get everything done
before leaving
Planning for the move
Expectation and nervousness

First month: "Honeymoon"
Everything is wonderful
Welcome ceremonies and
special treatment
Curiosity, hopeful
Sleeplessness, low energy

Sixth month+:" This is home"
Getting on with life and work
Balanced outlook
Good and bad days, but can cope
with the bad days
Health stable

Second month: "Disenchantment"
Setting up home, awareness of
difficulties
Neutral towards environment,
skeptical, Nervous, uncertain,
restless
Colds, headache

Fifth month: "Settled"
More confident, work improves,
routine, planning and setting goals
Constructive, positive outloook
More interest in surroundings, travel
Health normal

Third month:" Unhappiness"
Language may deteriorate, cling to
own national group, work and
efficiency may deteriorate
Discouraged, irritable, very critical,
suspicious
General feeling of illness

Fourth month: "Depression...but"
Similar to third month but gradual,
positive adjustment.
Developing new friends
Occasional feelings of satisfaction
and accomplishment
Various illnesses

Adapted from Draine and Hall (1986) and Oberg (1960)

APPENDIX J QUESTIONNAIRE[1]

Q1 Which of the following facilities and resources has your department/faculty provided for you?

	Yes	No
1. Desk/office space		
2. Lab space (where relevant)		
3. Free photocopying		
4. Telephone for work purposes		
5. Postage for work purposes		
6. Secretarial services		
7. Technical assistance from support staff		
8. Access to computer/word processors		
9. Financial support for field work		
10. Financial support for conferences		
11. Financial support for other travel		
12. Consumables for work purposes		
13. Access to staff common room/tea room		
14. Specific program to improve English language skills		
15. Editing assistance in preparation of thesis		

Q2 How satisfied are you now with the following aspects of your candidature?

	Very satisfied			Not at all satisfied	
16. Frequency of formal meetings with university supervisor/s.	1	2	3	4	5
17 Frequency of informal advice and contact.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Match of thesis topic with your own interests.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Availability of university supervisor/s when needed.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Guidance on topic definition	1	2	3	4	5
21. Guidance on analysis	1	2	3	4	5
22. Guidance on literature	1	2	3	4	5
23. Guidance on writing	1	2	3	4	5
24. Assistance with the development of English language skills (where relevant)	1	2	3	4	5
25. Competence of university supervisor/s	1	2	3	4	5
26. Encouragement to publish/formally present work.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Quality of feedback on work completed.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Timeliness of feedback.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Encouragement/stimulation from supervisor/s	1	2	3	4	5
30. My progress towards completion.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Knowing what is expected to attain the research degree.	1	2	3	4	5
32. Treatment as a colleague/co-worker	1	2	3	4	5
33. Opportunity to attend conferences/scholarly meetings.	1	2	3	4	5

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[1] (Based on Griggs, L. (1996) The internationalisation of Australian higher education: An evaluation of the contribution of the Overseas Postgraduate Scholarship Scheme. DEETYA, Canberra)

Q3 Please indicate where you had problems (prob) in each of the following areas at any stage during your candidature.

	Great prob	Some prob	Minor prob	No prob
34. Heavy workload	1	2	3	4
35. Equipment availability/reliability	1	2	3	4
36. Library resources	1	2	3	4
37. Access to field sites, samples etc.	1	2	3	4
38. Change of supervisor/s	1	2	3	4
39. Conflicting advice from supervisors	1	2	3	4
40. Compatibility with supervisor/s	1	2	3	4
41. Poor understanding of supervisor role	1	2	3	4
42. Intellectual isolation	1	2	3	4
43. Project not working out as planned.	1	2	3	4
44. Language difficulties	1	2	3	4
45. Inadequate preparation for research	1	2	3	4
46. Research study not what was expected.	1	2	3	4
47. Losing touch after a break away.	1	2	3	4
48. Conflict over ownership of the intellectual property in the thesis	1	2	3	4
49. Doubt regarding value of degree for career.	1	2	3	4
50. Difficulty coping financially.	1	2	3	4
51. Scholarship completion time limit.	1	2	3	4
52. Funding for travel.	1	2	3	4
53. General personal problems	1	2	3	4
54. Family responsibilities	1	2	3	4
55. Pregnancy/childbirth	1	2	3	4
56. Health	1	2	3	4
57. Moving house.	1	2	3	4
58. Loss of motivation for research	1	2	3	4
59. Working in a team	1	2	3	4
60. Social isolation.	1	2	3	4

Part 6: Appendix J Questionnaire

APPENDIX K NUD*IST CODING

Q.S.R. NUD*IST Power version, revision 4.0.

(17)	/Base_data
(17 15)	/Base_data/Ret_data
(17 15 1)	/Base_data/Ret_data/Interviewees
(17 15 8)	/Base_data/Ret_data/In_Oz
(17 15 8 9)	/Base_data/Ret_data/In_Oz/competition
(17 15 8 4)	/Base_data/Ret_data/In_Oz/Expect_return
(17 15 8 2)	/Base_data/Ret_data/In_Oz/family
(17 15 8 14)	/Base_data/Ret_data/In_Oz/Language
(17 15 8 3)	/Base_data/Ret_data/In_Oz/Oz_Lessons
(17 15 8 11)	/Base_data/Ret_data/In_Oz/problems_Oz
(17 15 8 15)	/Base_data/Ret_data/In_Oz/Racism
(17 15 8 12)	/Base_data/Ret_data/In_Oz/Supervisor
(17 15 16)	/Base_data/Ret_data/Pre-
(17 15 16 13)	/Base_data/Ret_data/Pre-/Motivation
(17 15 16 8)	/Base_data/Ret_data/Pre-/selection
(17 15 3)	/Base_data/Ret_data/Ret_Ind
(17 15 3 6)	/Base_data/Ret_data/Ret_Ind/Lessons_Others
(17 15 3 10)	/Base_data/Ret_data/Ret_Ind/problems_ret
(17 15 3 1)	/Base_data/Ret_data/Ret_Ind/promotion
(17 15 3 2)	/Base_data/Ret_data/Ret_Ind/research
(17 15 3 5)	/Base_data/Ret_data/Ret_Ind/teaching
(17 15 3 7)	/Base_data/Ret_data/Ret_Ind/time
(17 4)	/Base_data/St_Data
(17 4 1)	/Base_data/St_Data/Age
(17 4 1 1)	/Base_data/St_Data/Age/20-25
(17 4 1 2)	/Base_data/St_Data/Age/26-30
(17 4 1 3)	/Base_data/St_Data/Age/31-35
(17 4 1 4)	/Base_data/St_Data/Age/36-40
(17 4 1 5)	/Base_data/St_Data/Age/41-45
(17 4 12)	/Base_data/St_Data/Choice
(17 4 12 1)	/Base_data/St_Data/Choice/First
(17 4 12 4)	/Base_data/St_Data/Choice/None
(17 4 12 2)	/Base_data/St_Data/Choice/Second
(17 4 12 3)	/Base_data/St_Data/Choice/Third+
(17 4 2)	/Base_data/St_Data/Course
(17 4 2 2)	/Base_data/St_Data/Course/MCW
(17 4 2 3)	/Base_data/St_Data/Course/MRes
(17 4 2 1)	/Base_data/St_Data/Course/PhD
(17 4 2 1 1)	/Base_data/St_Data/Course/PhD/IndSysSrch
(17 4 2 1 2)	/Base_data/St_Data/Course/PhD/IndSysSrch1791
(17 4 2 1 3)	/Base_data/St_Data/Course/PhD/IndSysSrch1792
(17 4 2 1 4)	/Base_data/St_Data/Course/PhD/IndSysSrch1793
(17 4 20)	/Base_data/St_Data/Discipline
(17 4 20 6)	/Base_data/St_Data/Discipline/Business
(17 4 20 7)	/Base_data/St_Data/Discipline/Comp Sci
(17 4 20 8)	/Base_data/St_Data/Discipline/Engin
(17 4 20 2)	/Base_data/St_Data/Discipline/Health Sci
(17 4 20 5)	/Base_data/St_Data/Discipline/Human
(17 4 20 4)	/Base_data/St_Data/Discipline/Maths
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(2 15)	/P4/Ret_data

APPENDIX L ADELAIDE AND OPRS COMPARISON

Q1 Which of the following facilities and resources has your department/ faculty provided for you?

	Adelaide %	OPRS %
1. Desk/office space	100	98
2. Lab space (where relevant)	81	84
3. Free photocopying	96	86
4. Telephone for work purposes	87	92
5. Postage for work purposes	78	89
6. Secretarial services	78	54
7. Technical assistance from support staff	87	85
8. Access to computer/word processors	96	98
9. Financial support for field work	65	66
10. Financial support for conferences	78	75
11. Financial support for other travel	39	35
12. Consumables for work purposes	65	75
13. Access to staff common room/tea room	91	97
14. Specific program to improve English language skills	52	70
15. Editing assistance in preparation of thesis	61	59

Q2 How satisfied are you now with the following aspects of your candidature?

	Adelaide			OPRS %		
	Very satisfied	Neutral	Not satisfied	Very satisfied	Neutral	Not satisfied
16. Frequency of formal meetings with supervisor.	78	17	4	68	15	17
17. Frequency of informal advice and contact.	70	26	4	68	16	13
18. Match of thesis topic with your own interests.	74	26	0	86	23	14
19. Availability of university supervisor(s) when needed.	70	30	0	70	18	13
20. Guidance on topic definition	83	13	4	63	23	14
21. Guidance on analysis	65	22	13	63	21	16
22. Guidance on literature	70	26	4	55	27	18
23. Guidance on writing	65	22	13	63	22	15
24. Assistance with development of English language skills	39	39	9	59	30	11
25. Competence of university supervisor(s)	91	4	0	75	14	9
26. Encouragement to publish/ formally present work.	78	8	13	72	14	13
27. Quality of feedback on work completed.	87	13	0	71	18	10
28. Timeliness of feedback.	70	22	9	61	26	13
29. Encouragement/stimulation from supervisor/s	74	17	9	71	18	12
30. My progress towards completion.	39	57	4	70	19	12
31. Knowing what is expected to attain the research degree.	70	30	0	75	17	8
32. Treatment as a colleague/co-worker	61	35	4	71	17	13
33. Opportunity to attend con-ferences/scholarly meetings.	52	30	17	67	14	18

Q3 Please indicate where you had problems (prob) in each of the following areas at any stage during your candidature.

	Some/great problem	
	Adelaide %	OPRS %
34. Heavy workload	44	40
35. Equipment availability/reliability	22	37
36. Library resources	4	18
37. Access to field sites, samples etc.	17	17
38. Change of supervisor/s	17	12
39. Conflicting advice from supervisors	17	9
40. Compatibility with supervisor/s	4	13
41. Poor understanding of supervisor role	22	15
42. Intellectual isolation	17	27
43. Project not working out as planned.	26	24
44. Language difficulties	44	18
45. Inadequate preparation for research	30	7
46. Research study not what was expected.	26	5
47. Losing touch after a break away.	17	4
48. Conflict over ownership of the intellectual property in the thesis	4	5
49. Doubt regarding value of degree for career.	9	25
50. Difficulty coping financially.	13	36
51. Scholarship completion time limit.	26	47
52. Funding for travel.	17	50
53. General personal problems	26	19
54. Family responsibilities	17	26
55. Pregnancy/childbirth	9	8
56. Health	9	6
57. Moving house.	0	9
58. Loss of motivation for research	30	12
59. Working in a team	9	5
60. Social isolation.	17	21

APPENDIX M(A*) SUPERVISORY EXPECTATION RATING SCALE

Name: _____ Supervisor: _____
Course: _____ Department: _____

Read each pair of statements below and then estimate your position on each. For example with statement 1 if you believe very strongly that it is the supervisor's responsibility to select a good topic you would put a ring round '1'. If you think that both the supervisor and student should equally be involved you put a ring round '3' and if you think it is definitely the student's responsibility to select a topic, put a ring round '5'.

	Topic/course of study						
1	It is the supervisor's responsibility to select a research topic	1	2	3	4	5	It is the student's responsibility to select a promising topic
2	In the end, it is up to the super-visor to decide which theoretical framework or methodology is most appropriate	1	2	3	4	5	Students have a right to choose their own theoretical framework or methodology even if it conflicts with the supervisor's
3	The supervisor should direct the student in the development of an appropriate program of research and study	1	2	3	4	5	The supervisor should mainly listen to students ideas and ask questions but not tell them what to do
	Contact/Involvement						
4	Staff-student relationships are purely professional and should not involve personal matters	1	2	3	4	5	Close personal relationships are essential for successful supervision
5	The supervisor should organise frequent meetings with the student	1	2	3	4	5	It is up to the student to decide when she/he wants to meet with the supervisor
6	The supervisor should know at all times what the student is working on	1	2	3	4	5	Students should find their own way without having to tell their supervisor how they spend their time
7	The supervisor should stop supervision if she/he thinks the project is too difficult for the student	1	2	3	4	5	The supervisor should support the student right through until the thesis has been submitted, regardless of his/her opinion of the work
	The Thesis						
8	The supervisor should make sure that the thesis is finished close to the minimum time	1	2	3	4	5	As long as the student works steadily he/she can take as long as needed to finish the work
9	The supervisor has direct responsibility for the standard of the thesis	1	2	3	4	5	The supervisor advises only and leaves all decisions concerning content, format and standards to the student
10	The supervisor should insist on seeing drafts of every section of the thesis in order to review them	1	2	3	4	5	It is up to the student to ask for constructive criticism from the supervisor
11	The supervisor should assist in the actual writing of the thesis if the student is having difficulties	1	2	3	4	5	The supervisor should be very careful not to contribute too much to the thesis.

*Version used with students in the longitudinal study. The version on the following page is the amended version now used at the University of Adelaide.

APPENDIX M(B) EXPECTATIONS IN SUPERVISION

Name: _____ Supervisor: _____

Course: _____ Department: _____

Read each pair of statements below and then estimate your position on each. For example with statement 1 if you believe very strongly that it is the supervisor's responsibility to select a good topic you would put a ring round '1'. If you think that both the supervisor and student should equally be involved you put a ring round '3' and if you think it is definitely the student's responsibility to select a topic, put a ring round '5'.

#	Supervisor statement	Scale	Student statement
1.	It is the supervisor's responsibility to select a research topic	1　2　3　4　5	The student is responsible for selecting her/his own topic
2.	It is the supervisor who decides which theoretical framework or methodology is most appropriate	1　2　3　4　5	Students should decide which theoretical framework or methodology they wish to use
3.	The supervisor should develop an appropriate program and timetable of research and study for the student	1　2　3　4　5	The supervisor should leave the development of the program of study to the student
4.	The supervisor is responsible for ensuring that the student is introduced to the appropriate services and facilities of the department and University	1　2　3　4　5	It is the student's responsibility to ensure that she/he has located and accessed all relevant services and facilities for research
5.	Supervisors should only accept students when they have specific knowledge of the student's chosen topic	1　2　3　4　5	Supervisors should feel free to accept students, even if they do not have specific knowledge of the student's topic
6.	A warm, supportive relationship between supervisor and student is important for successful candidature	1　2　3　4　5	A personal, supportive relationship is inadvisable because it may obstruct objectivity for both student and supervisor during candidature
7.	The supervisor should insist on regular meetings with the student	1　2　3　4　5	The student should decide when she/he wants to meet with the supervisor
8.	The supervisor should check regularly that the student is working consistently and on task	1　2　3　4　5	The student should work independently and not have to account for how and where time is spent
9.	The supervisor is responsible for providing emotional support & encouragement to the student	1　2　3　4　5	Personal counselling and support are not the responsibility of the supervisor—students should look elsewhere
10.	The supervisor should insist on seeing all drafts of work to ensure that the student is on the right track	1　2　3　4　5	Students should submit drafts of work only when they want constructive criticism from the supervisor
11.	The supervisor should assist in the writing of the thesis if necessary	1　2　3　4　5	The writing of the thesis should only ever be the student's own work
12.	The supervisor is responsible for decisions regarding the standard of the thesis	1　2　3　4　5	The student is responsible for decisions concerning the standard of the thesis

Adapted by M Kiley & K Cadman, Advisory Centre for University Education, The University of Adelaide from work by I Moses, Centre for Learning & Teaching, University of Technology, Sydney 2.1.97