

**Key Factors Affecting Work-Integrated Learning in Language  
Teacher Education: A Multisite Case Study**

**Các yếu tố chính ảnh hưởng đến mô hình Học tập Lồng ghép Trải nghiệm  
Nghề nghiệp trong đào tạo giáo viên ngôn ngữ: Một nghiên cứu điển hình  
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## Acknowledgement of Country

This thesis acknowledges the First Australians as the traditional custodians of the land on which my doctoral research was undertaken.

Three weeks after arriving in Australia, on June 13, 2015, I went to see *The Battle of Waterloo*, an Australian Indigenous play written by Kylie Coolwell, directed by Sarah Goodes, and presented by Sydney Theatre Company at The Wharf, in Walsh Bay. It was my first time seeing a play in Sydney. The key characters in the play were Cassie (Shari Sebbens) who struggled for a positive future as she was about to graduate from a course at the local TAFE in Fashion Design. Her addicted sister, Sissy (Shareena Clanton), a younger relative, Jack (James Slee) all lived with the “Aunty” Mavis (Roxanne McDonald), and they had a neighbour, Leon (Guy Simon). Cassie’s former boyfriend, Ray (Luke Carroll) had just come back from three years in prison.

*The Battle of Waterloo* showed the life of an Indigenous family through scenes in a flat in the Housing Commission Towers in Waterloo, Sydney. There, the Indigenous community found themselves struggling with being an inconvenience to other’s priorities for urban refurbishment. As an extended family, they all lived and shared a small flat. The play reflected the life of a marginalised group lacking support and education through the foul language spoken and sexual scenes. The marginalisation was reinforced with sounds, lights, music, a bed and even a toilet on the stage. This play gave me an understanding of the social and political boundaries of education and work in Australia. By the name “*Battle*”, the play indicates the boundary between oppression and power. People fight or at least appeal for “a place and a say” on the land that their ancestors had preserved and welcomed “strangers”.

Over the following years, I attended a range of conferences in which the protocol of Acknowledgement of Country was used in the opening ceremony. These events gave me a sense of Australian Indigenous knowledge. Aboriginal academics, including Shirley Gilbert, and Aunty Shirley shared with me knowledge of Aboriginal cultural practices, and issues such as gender protocols, sacred sites, the traditional customs for confidentiality, and naming the deceased. In the course of time, I have learnt from them about recognition and respect, and the protection of the continuing cultural, spiritual and religious practices of Australia’s

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## **Statement of Authentication**

The work presented in this thesis is, to the best of my knowledge and belief, original except as acknowledged in the text. I hereby declare that I have not submitted this material, either in full or in part, for a degree at this or any other institution. Information derived from the published or unpublished work of others has been acknowledged in the text and a list of references is given.



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## **Declarations**

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## List of Abbreviations

ACARA	Australian Curriculum Assessment and Reporting Authority
ACER	Australian Council for Educational Research
ACOLA	Australian Council of Learned Academies
ACTA	Australian Council of TESOL Associations
AITSL	Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership
CoC	Candidature of Confirmation
DEC	Department of Education and Communities
DET	Department of Education and Training
DoE	Department of Education
ELT	English language teaching
EMI	English medium instruction
FOAs	funding opportunity announcements
HDRs	higher degree researchers
HREC	Human Research Ethics Committee
HSU	Hoa Sen University
ICST	information communication surveillance technology
ICT	information and communication technology
MCEETYA	Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs
MOET	Ministry of Education and Training
NEAF	National Ethics Application Form
NESA	NSW Education Standards Authority
NGOs	non-governmental organisations
NSW	New South Wales
OLT	Office for Learning and Teaching
ROSETE model	Research-Oriented School-Engaged Teacher-Education model
SERAP	State Education Research Applications Process
TEMAG	Teacher Education Ministerial Advisory Group

UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
WIL	Work-integrated learning
WSU	Western Sydney University
WWCC	Working with Children Check

## Abstract

In the relationship between education and production as a perennial issue; work-integrated learning (WIL) is a vehicle intended to bridge theory and practice. This study investigated key factors affecting work-integrated learning (WIL) programs in language teacher education in Việt Nam and Australia. The main research question focused on the unexplored relationship between WIL and language teacher education: *What are the key factors affecting work-integrated learning in language teacher education in Việt Nam and Australia?* Given what the literature reports is presently known, the following three contributory research questions about WIL in language teacher education presented the scope necessary for making an original contribution to knowledge:

1. What are the expressions of, and responses to, changes in English and Chinese language teacher education WIL programs?
2. What opportunities and challenges arise in conducting English and Chinese language teacher education through WIL?
3. How does the organisation of WIL in English and Chinese language teacher education help students' professional learning?

With the concerns about academic dependency on theories produced or disseminated in English, and the fact that evidence for this study was collected in Tiếng Anh (English language), and Tiếng Việt (Vietnamese language), my research also investigated a subsidiary research question: *How might Tiếng Việt concepts be used to interpret evidence of WIL in English and Chinese language teacher education?*

This research study employed an interpretive-critical analysis philosophical stance underpinning its research methodology. This multisite case study used a flexible research design focusing on the dynamics affecting WIL in two language teacher education programs. This study involved fieldwork in Việt Nam to study WIL in a language teacher education program specialising in English, and fieldwork in Australia with a WIL language teacher education program specialising in Chinese. The data set generated for this study consisted of semistructured interviews, education and curriculum policies, media reports, and artefacts. Data analysis techniques employed in this study included data transcription and translation,



data immersion, coding, creating categories, identifying counterevidence, generating themes, and theorising. The analytical framework used in this study employed the following concepts: dominant, residual, and emergent cultures (Williams, 1977), dilemmas of schooling (Berlak & Berlak, 1981), and connections, and disconnections (Munro, 1997). Significantly, study used postmonolingual research methodologies, including the use of analytical concepts from Tiếng Việt and English to make meaning of the evidence.

Three key findings arose from the research reported in this thesis. First, the results indicated the dominance of workplace learning by finance-driven partnerships that embrace the interrelated social, economic, and historical features of a residual nature, as well as an emergent strategy in WIL in language teacher education. Second, WIL in language teacher education provided students with real-world experiences of the teaching profession, 21st century skills for enhancing employment possibilities, as well as opportunities for them to contribute to equity in education. Findings also entailed dilemmas of curriculum, society, and policy practice residing in the lack of resources, expert personnel, facilities, and funding, as well as tensions in policy and governance. Third, findings revealed the co-existence of connections and disconnections in WIL that affect students' learning transformation, peer learning, and use of social media as a tool for learning, along with institutional management and student performance.

Key theoretical implications from findings of this study include postmonolingual knowledge production and dissemination using languages other than English as theoretical tools for theorising in language teacher education and research in other disciplines. The study has policy and practical implications for designing and/or refining the curriculum for organising WIL in higher education and other education levels across disciplines and/or faculties; engaging with industry; communities, partnerships for WIL with overseas institutions, non-government organisations, and for research collaborations through government-funded research schemes.

## Abstract in Tiếng Việt

Học tập Lồng ghép Trải nghiệm Nghề nghiệp (WIL) là một phương pháp đào tạo nhằm kết nối lý thuyết và thực hành. Mô hình này đã được thực hiện ở nhiều chuyên ngành ở bậc đại học, sau đại học và đào tạo nghề, tập trung cho vấn đề trải nghiệm cho sinh viên dưới nhiều hình thức và tên gọi khác nhau. Rất nhiều nghiên cứu đã chỉ ra những lợi ích thiết thực mà mô hình đem đến cho cả sinh viên, trường đại học và các tổ chức đối tác của trường đại học. Học tập Lồng ghép Trải nghiệm Nghề nghiệp được tổ chức như là một thành phần quan trọng trong đào tạo giáo viên ở nhiều nước trên thế giới. Tuy nhiên, những nghiên cứu về phương pháp này trong đào tạo giáo viên ngôn ngữ vẫn còn khá khiêm tốn, đặc biệt là việc tổ chức mô hình đào tạo này như thế nào trong thời điểm thế giới luôn có nhiều chuyển biến, thay đổi về cả giáo dục và cơ hội việc làm. Nghiên cứu này tìm hiểu về chương trình Học tập Lồng ghép Trải nghiệm Nghề nghiệp thực hiện trong chương trình đào tạo giáo viên ngôn ngữ ở hai nước Việt Nam và Úc với câu hỏi nghiên cứu chính: Các yếu tố chính ảnh hưởng đến Học tập Lồng ghép Trải nghiệm Nghề nghiệp trong đào tạo giáo viên ngôn ngữ ở hai nước Việt Nam và Úc là gì? Với những trở ngại về sự lệ thuộc học thuật, cụ thể lý thuyết được tạo ra hoặc phổ biến bằng tiếng Anh, nghiên cứu này cũng chú trọng vào một câu hỏi phụ khác: Các khái niệm tiếng Việt có thể được sử dụng như thế nào trong việc diễn giải minh chứng thu thập từ hai chương trình đào tạo giáo viên tiếng Anh tại Việt Nam và giáo viên tiếng Trung Quốc tại Úc?

Nghiên cứu điển hình đa vùng này sử dụng quan điểm triết học diễn giải-phản biện làm nền tảng cho phương pháp nghiên cứu. Nghiên cứu này sử dụng một thiết kế nghiên cứu linh hoạt, với phần thu thập minh chứng tại Việt Nam và tại Úc. Bộ dữ liệu của nghiên cứu này bao gồm phỏng vấn bán cấu trúc, văn bản chính sách giáo dục và chương trình giảng dạy, báo cáo trên các phương tiện truyền thông, và hiện vật được chia sẻ từ hai chương trình Học tập Lồng ghép Trải nghiệm Nghề nghiệp. Kỹ thuật phân tích dữ liệu được sử dụng trong nghiên cứu này bao gồm phiên mã từ âm thanh sang văn bản, dịch thuật dữ liệu, quen thuộc và hiểu sâu vào nội dung chính của dữ liệu, mã hóa, tạo các danh mục, xác định minh chứng phản biện, tạo nhóm chủ đề và thiết lập lý thuyết.

Khung lý thuyết phân tích dữ liệu cho nghiên cứu này được dựa trên tư tưởng các nhà nghiên cứu Williams (1977), Berlak và Berlak (1981), và Munro (1997) cùng với khái niệm tiếng Việt theo phương pháp nghiên cứu hậu đơn ngữ để diễn giải minh chứng.

Kết quả cho thấy sinh viên đã có những trải nghiệm thực tế về nghề dạy học, có các kỹ năng làm việc trong thế kỷ 21 góp phần vào tăng cơ hội việc làm, và cơ hội đóng góp cho công bằng trong giáo dục. Bên cạnh đó, những vấn đề gặp phải của mô hình Học tập Lồng ghép Trải nghiệm Nghề nghiệp gồm chương trình giảng dạy, xã hội, và việc thực thi chính sách trong tình trạng thiếu nguồn nhân lực, chuyên gia, cơ sở vật chất và kinh phí, và những bất cập trong chính sách và quản trị. Ngoài ra, kết quả cũng cho thấy những thành tựu và khó khăn trong chuyển hóa năng lực của sinh viên trong học tập, và việc sử dụng mạng xã hội làm công cụ học tập khi tham gia chương trình. Kết quả cũng chỉ ra rằng mối quan hệ đối tác nghiêng về tài chính bao gồm các đặc điểm xã hội, kinh tế và lịch sử có tác động đến trải nghiệm nghề nghiệp của sinh viên.

Kết quả của nghiên cứu này đem đến những ứng dụng cho việc thiết lập lý thuyết có sử dụng các ngôn ngữ khác ngoài tiếng Anh làm công cụ lý thuyết trong nghiên cứu đào tạo giáo viên ngôn ngữ và trong các chuyên ngành khác. Bên cạnh đó, nghiên cứu có những đóng góp cho chính sách và thực tiễn gồm thiết kế, điều chỉnh chương trình giảng dạy, triển khai và quản lý mô hình Học tập Lồng ghép Trải nghiệm Nghề nghiệp cho những ngành nghề khác, hợp tác với các đơn vị sử dụng lao động, các đơn vị cộng đồng, các tổ chức trong nước và quốc tế, tổ chức phi chính phủ; và hợp tác nghiên cứu có tài trợ cấp quốc gia.

## Candidate's Research Publications

The candidate published the following co-authored book, book chapters, refereed journal articles, and conference presentations related to the research arising from, or otherwise informing this thesis, during the course of this study.

### Books

Singh, M., & Nguyen, N. (2018). *Localising Chinese: Educating teachers through service-learning*. London, England: Palgrave Macmillan.

### Book chapters

Nguyen, N. (2018). Theorizing global service learning through Vietnamese metaphors. In T. Hall, T. Gray, G. Downey, & M. Singh (Eds.), *Globalisation of higher education: Internationalised education research and practice* (pp. 397–412). Cham, Switzerland: Palgrave Macmillan.

Singh, M., Han, J., Nguyen, N., & Howard, E. (2016). Intercultural experience for local/global citizenship. In H. Kelsey, S. Peta, & H. Elise (Eds.), *Local global citizenship in higher education: A framework and case studies for curriculum development* (pp. 1–11). Queensland, Australia: James Cook University. ISBN 978-0-9944984-7-2

Singh, M., Han, J., & Nguyen, N. (2016). Service integrated professional learning for higher degree researchers. In H. Kelsey, S. Peta, & H. Elise (Eds.), *Local global citizenship in higher education: A framework and case studies for curriculum development* (pp. 1–14). Queensland, Australia: James Cook University. ISBN 978-0-9944984-7-2

Singh, M., Han, J., Nguyen, N., & Howard, E. (2016). Taiwan experience education program. In H. Kelsey, S. Peta, & H. Elise (Eds.), *Local global citizenship in higher education: A framework and case studies for curriculum development* (pp. 1–11). Queensland, Australia: James Cook University. ISBN 978-0-9944984-7-2

### Refereed journal articles

Nguyen, N. (2019). Parental involvement in outdoor learning: Crossing curriculum priorities. *Curriculum Perspectives*, 39(1), 103–107.

Nguyen, N. (2017). Divergence of languages as resources for theorising. *Education Sciences*, 7(1), 23.

## Conference papers

- Singh, M., & Nguyen, N. (2015, October). *Multilingual students helping solve problems of Anglophone teacher education*. Paper presented at Conference EU Centre Inter-national Workshop Learning to Live together in Culturally Diverse Societies, Adelaide, Australia.
- Nguyen, N. (2016, December). *Beyond experiential education in service learning: Knowledge and power relations*. Paper presented at the Sixth International Conference on Language, Literature, Culture and Education (ICLLCE), Ho Chi Minh City, Việt Nam.
- Nguyen, N. (2016, June). *Theorizing capabilities: Service learning through the lens of Vietnamese metaphors*. Paper presented at the Developing Global Perspectives Within and Across Universities Symposium, Sydney, Australia.
- Nguyen, N. (2018, December). *Connections and disconnections in work-integrated learning in teacher education: Insights into internationalisation of higher education*. Paper presented at the AARE Conference, Sydney, Australia.
- Nguyen, N. (2018, July). *Struggles in partnership in language teacher education through work-integrated learning*. Paper presented at the 2018 ATEA and TEFANZ Conference, Melbourne, Australia.
- Nguyen, N. (2018, July). *Teacher education's direct contributions to society through work-integrated learning*. Paper presented at the WFATE Conference, Melbourne, Australia.

## **Awards/Honours**

The candidate was awarded the following prizes in relation to publications arising from the research reported in this thesis:

1. Western Sydney University Higher Degree Research Award 2017 for publishing in high-quality journals during candidature;
2. Australian Association for Research in Education (AARE): Conference Bursary 2018 for contributing a presentation at the AARE Conference.



# Chapter 1:

## Introduction

### 1.1 Introduction

Work-integrated learning (WIL) is a vehicle for bridging theory and practice, the relationship between education and production being a perennial issue (Carr & Kemmis, 2004; Elliott, 2005). Producing university graduates who apply theory to practice after they graduate is one model, albeit a questionable model (see also Strunk & Betties, 2019; Goede & Taylorlien, 2019). WIL offers strategies of integration that promise to bridge the theory–practice divide, including the promotion of teacher research. WIL as an integrated approach to theory and practice in education provides students with workplace professional learning and produces work-ready graduates (Jackson, 2018b; Pham, Bao, Saito, & Chowdhury, 2018). Research in WIL has been conducted across diverse disciplines including accounting (Stanley & Xu, 2018), marketing (Lu, Scholz, & Nguyen, 2018), human resource (Mackaway & Winchester-Seeto, 2018; Taylor & Govender, 2017), psychology (Hamilton et al., 2018), medical science (Patton, 2017), law (Cameron, Freudenberg, Giddings, & Klopper, 2018), business and law (Jackson, 2018b), and teacher education (Barends & Nel, 2017; Du Plessis, 2011). In teacher education, WIL is implemented as a key strategy for linking academic knowledge and professional learning, theory and practice, through workplace practices for the mutual benefit of students and workplaces (Barends & Nel, 2017; Dimenäs & Norlund, 2014).

This chapter gives an overview of key features of this study, which are elaborated in the ensuing chapters. This chapter also provides a short account of the research problem addressed in this study of WIL in language teacher education, along with the associated research questions. Specifically, this study focused on the dynamics affecting WIL in two language teacher education programs, one in Việt Nam<sup>1</sup> specialising in English and the other

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<sup>1</sup> The purpose of the intentional use of words such as Việt Nam, Tiếng Việt, Tiếng Anh, Người Việt, and Zhongwen (中文) throughout this thesis is to illustrate the possibilities for Content and Language Integrated Learning, and to make visible the multilingual doctoral candidates present in Australian universities.



in Australia specialising in Chinese. It should be noted that, this study of WIL in language teacher education did not investigate the teaching of English in England, nor did it investigate the teaching of Chinese in China. Instead, this study involved fieldwork in Việt Nam to study WIL in a language teacher education program specialising in English, as well as fieldwork in Australia to study WIL in a language teacher education program specialising in Chinese. These two languages are of such local/global significance that they now constitute the lingua franca of the world's bilingual learners (Chan, 2018). While Việt Nam has a thousand-year history of Chinese colonisation, its population has started to learn English. Australia is just beginning its historical journey of learning Chinese. Key terms used in constructing the conceptual framework for the research reported in this thesis are defined. The chapter briefly outlines the significance of this study in reference to current literature on WIL, and provides an overview of the research methodology and research methods used. Details about the two WIL programs that are the subject of this research are summarised, providing a focus related to the study's delimitations. The argument developed throughout this study is summarised in the thesis statement. This chapter ends by outlining the structure of this thesis, with the argument being elaborated in the chapters that follow.

## **1.2 Research problem**

The organisation of WIL programs is a complicated undertaking. Research into the organisation of WIL in Việt Nam, for instance, indicates the importance of partnerships and their relationships, reporting that “collaboration and communication between higher education and industry is rare” (Bilsland & Nagy, 2015, p. 185). Likewise, research showing that Vietnamese graduates' failure to secure employment via WIL programs is influenced by higher education institutions as much as related stakeholders, suggesting the need for improved organisational strategies for linking work and education in Việt Nam (Tuyet Tran<sup>2</sup>, 2015). An Australian study pointed to the organisation of WIL as a factor in international students' lack of familiarity with the local workplace culture and employers' rejection of

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<sup>2</sup> The full forms of first names for different authors who have the same surnames and the same initials are used (APA, 2013).

them for employment (L. Tran<sup>3</sup> & Soejatminah, 2017). Considerable work is necessary to organise the links between university research and teaching to develop industry-oriented student WIL projects (Manathunga et al., 2012; Xia, Caulfield, & Ferns, 2015). The added workload that academics and workplace mentors incur through engaging in WIL is created by complex and time-consuming organisational processes (Bates, 2011). Moreover, in addition to universities organising to address “the legal implications of WIL” (Jonck, 2014, p. 284), organising WIL partnerships is problematic due to the political impacts on their operations (Klatt, Angelico, & Polesel, 2017).

In the field of teacher education, the challenge is that WIL “is not without its problems” (Dimenäs & Norlund, 2014, p. 1). Issues identified by research into WIL teacher education include problems that arise across the multiple levels of the partnerships within and between universities and the workplaces (Barends & Nel, 2017). For instance, the relationships between student teachers and workplace mentors and supervisors can negatively impact the former’s professional learning (Dimenäs & Norlund, 2014). Likewise, the relationships between academic and workplace supervisors, especially in assessing students’ workplace professional learning, tends to be complicated (Du Plessis, 2010), particularly if it involves student teacher self-assessment (Allen & Peach, 2011). Other problems identified by research into WIL teacher education include issues relating to mentoring and training for workplace supervisors and mentors (Barends & Nel, 2017; Du Plessis, 2010).

That WIL is increasingly employed in universities is an indicator of changes in higher education. Changes in teacher education now mean student teachers are engaging in workplace learning beyond the usual practicum (Walkington, 2010) to develop their capabilities for professional teaching and enhance their employability and career readiness (Jonck, 2014; Smith-Ruig, 2014; Patton, 2017). However, research indicates that WIL both drives and has to respond to changes in curriculum, assessment, workload, and partnership management (Bates, 2011; Jackson, 2018a; Lasen, Evans, Tsey, Campbell, & Kinchin, 2018; Smith & Worsfold, 2015). In teacher education in particular, WIL changes the place and space of professional learning for student teachers so that workplace professional learning

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<sup>3</sup> The initials of first names for different authors who have the same surname are used (APA, 2013).

can create discordance due to them not being at university (Du Plessis, 2010). Having to manage WIL partnerships over time through regularly renegotiating stakeholders' roles and responsibilities is a significant change (Allen & Peach, 2011; Barends & Nel, 2017).

While WIL is meant to be a vehicle for bridging theory and practice, the relationship between research in WIL and theory is itself an issue. Methodologically, WIL in teacher education has been identified as undertheorised (Dimenäs & Norlund, 2014). Specifically, Dimenäs and Norlund (2014) contended that there are “few analytical tools for capturing the characteristics of work-integrated learning” (p. 1). Some WIL researchers want to achieve agreement on how best to define this concept (Chong, 2014, p. 347), even though understanding the contested and contestable character of the concepts used for analysing WIL is an important focus for research itself. Addressing the problem of conceptual confusion is integral to the work of theorising in research and the promotion of reasoned discussion of the concepts used (Collier, Hidalgo, & Maciuceanu, 2006). So, too, is the acknowledgement of the contrasting, normative, and analytical perspectives scholars bring to their research, which serve the interests of the academic freedom necessary for making original contributions to the advancement of knowledge.

Nevertheless, none of the existing literature has addressed WIL in language teacher education. Therefore, this study investigated the key factors affecting WIL in language teacher education. The notion of ‘factors’ was employed for exploring WIL in this field to avoid making theoretical presumptions that would occur if one of Williams (1977) keywords were used. To do so, this study explored the ways in which WIL in language teacher education is organised. In addition, this study examined key issues that arise in conducting language teacher education through WIL. Further, the expressions of, and responses to, changes in WIL in language teacher education were studied. The research sites for this study were a university in Hồ Chí Minh City (Việt Nam) and another in Sydney (Australia). Given undertheorisation of WIL (Dimenäs & Norlund, 2014), and because of my proficiency in Tiếng Việt (Vietnamese language) and Tiếng Anh (English language), I also decided to investigate the uses of Tiếng Việt concepts in interpreting evidence of WIL in language teacher education. In effect, this study integrates learning to theorise into the professional

work involved in conducting research. Thus, in this study, Tiếng Việt concepts are among the analytical tools used for exploring and conceptualising WIL in language teacher education. This initial exploration of the problems in research on WIL in higher education, and teacher education in particular, provided a basis for generating the research question addressed in this study.

### 1.3 Research questions

The initial investigation into the research problems in the field of WIL in teacher education provided insights into generating the research question for this study. The following research questions indicated what was to be learnt about WIL in language teacher education through conducting this study. Given the account of the complexities of research problems in this field, the main research question focused on the unexplored relationship between WIL and language teacher education: *What are the key factors affecting work-integrated learning in language teacher education in Việt Nam and Australia?*

It was then necessary to generate contributory research questions that would be relevant to answering the main research question. I focused on questions that would be manageable in terms of their researchability and in terms of my own research capabilities. Moreover, the following three contributory research questions (Table 1.1) about WIL in language teacher education presented the scope necessary for making an original contribution to knowledge given what the literature reports is presently known.

Table 1.1

*Contributory Research Questions*

	<b>Contributory Research Questions</b>	<b>Chapters Addressing</b>
1.	What are the expressions of, and responses to, changes in English and Chinese language teacher education WIL programs?	Chapter 5
2.	What opportunities and challenges arise in conducting English and Chinese language teacher education through WIL?	Chapter 6

3. How does the organisation of WIL in English and Chinese language teacher education help students' professional learning? Chapter 7
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The contributory research questions collected evidence in English and Tiếng Việt that was analysed using theories generated in English (Williams, 1977; Berlak & Berlak, 1981; Munro, 1997). This dependency on theories produced or disseminated in English can be problematised through postmonolingual theorising. In other words, evidence of WIL in language teacher education can be analysed by drawing on analytical concepts from other languages of researchers to move beyond a monolingual mindset that prevails in any of these languages. This proposition finds a parallel agreement in Arber's (2014) argument that the "seeming contingency of the everyday lives of practitioners needs to be 'problematised' as it is embodied and negotiated within the complex notional and systemic processes and practices that frame their everyday context" (p. 65). This quotation mirrors Williams's (1977) emphasis on the interplay between the individual subjects, and social forms of their time and place, where no WIL student or educator is the author of herself or himself but already socioeconomically shaped, if not decisively determined. Importantly, Williams's (1977) theorising of culture evolved over the course of four decades (1940s to 1980s). Moving from text analysis, through an analysis of literary culture, to theorising materialist cultural practices, for instance in relation to the interactive and associative industrial, and democratic developments in social life.

To address the research problem of WIL being an undertheorised field (Dimenäs & Norlund, 2014), and given my bilingual capabilities, it was decided to open up the theorising to be undertaken in this study to explore the possibilities for making advances to knowledge in this field by drawing on analytical concepts from Tiếng Việt. Specifically, an aim of this research was to investigate the potential use of Tiếng Việt concepts as analytical tools for theorising WIL in language teacher education. Thus, the following subsidiary research question (Table 1.2) was posed.

Table 1.2

*Subsidiary Research Questions*

<b>Subsidiary Research Question</b>	<b>Chapter Addressing</b>
<p>How might Tiếng Việt concepts be used to interpret evidence of WIL in English and Chinese language teacher education?</p> <p><i>Các khái niệm Tiếng Việt có thể dùng để diễn giải minh chứng trong mô hình Học tập Lồng ghép Trải nghiệm nghề nghiệp trong đào tạo giáo viên ngôn ngữ như thế nào?</i></p>	Throughout the thesis

Extrapolating from Williams’s (1977) theory of cultural materialism, multilingualism can be seen as part of societal organisation which is affected by economic changes. Thus, in this study, my interest is exploring the influence of context on the possibilities for using my repertoire of languages-and-knowledge, and critically examining the larger frames that narrate my development and display my capabilities for postmonolingual research. I understand that except for the period of White Australia politics, Australia is a nation-state formed as a settler colony under the British empire, for which the creation of wealth depended from the beginning on the seizure of the land, and seas from its Indigenous inhabitants, and the importation of migrant labour from other parts of the world. I am part of the Australian government’s economic structuring of the international trade in education. The trade in intellectual labour means that every semester the Australian government structures the importation of languages into this country. In other words, Australian government has made societal multilingualism a permanent structural condition of its universities. As students complete their degrees, those who speak many different languages change over time. However, multilingualism remains a structural presence. Societal multilingualism will persist for as long as the Australian government grows academic capitalism by recruiting intellectual labour in the form of international students who speak a diversity of languages.

Australian multilingualism is a permanent structural condition borne of the colonialization of Indigenous peoples, and reproduced by a continuous yearly inflow of new immigrants, including international students. The existence and overall prevalence

multilingualism cannot be eliminated by efforts to speed up language shift to English through academic literacy programs in any of these particular groups. As Cameron (2016) argues, multilingualism is not a temporary disruption caused by particular groups of migrants, it is a long-term, historically constituted structural phenomenon produced by government policies. Thus, in this study, multilingualism is recognised as a structural condition, that is the consequence of Australian governments adopting certain economic policies, and thus it is necessary to investigate ways of capitalising on intentional students' multilingual capabilities for knowledge production.

The key concepts in these research questions provided the building blocks for the conceptual framework used to advance the research reported in this study. The next section defines these key concepts and explains the ways they are used in this study. The above research questions, together with the literature, conceptual framework, and research methodology guided and structured the data collected and analysed in this study.

#### **1.4 Key words in conceptual framework**

This section provides definitions of key terms used in the conceptual framework and the justifications of using this framework in this thesis. These terms include WIL, dominant, emergent, and residual, dilemmas, connections/disconnections.

To explore the complexities of WIL in language teacher education, it was decided that the conceptual framework for this study would benefit from the triangulation of theoretical resources (Carter, Bryant-Lukosius, DiCenso, Blythe, & Neville, 2014). Specifically, the framework used in this study employed the following concepts: dominant, residual, and emergent cultures (Williams, 1977), dilemmas of schooling (Berlak & Berlak, 1981), and connections, and disconnections (Munro, 1997), along with Tiếng Việt concepts. Together, these theoretical tools provide the analytical lens for making meaning of evidence in this thesis. The key terms used in the conceptual framework are further elaborated in Chapter 3.

This study mobilised the concept of WIL by drawing on recent, relevant empirical research. Thus, WIL is defined as an educational approach that combines academic knowledge with professional learning experience through engaging in workplace learning with the aim of enhancing work-readiness and employability (Jackson, 2018b; Patton, 2017; Smith & Worsfold, 2015; L. Tran & Soejatminah, 2017). This concept was used in this study, and through the analysis of it, infuses new meanings, arguably perhaps redefining it in some ways. This movement can be seen in other studies of WIL; for instance, Xia et al. (2015) identified it as formal or informal workplace learning. However, Du Plessis (2011) saw WIL as “a holistic educational strategy known as cooperative education” (p. 60) in teacher education, involving supervision by university academics and mentoring from schoolteachers. At the least, this move recognises that any preconstructed concepts once inserted into any existing real-world domain that marries work and learning is likely to produce changes in the meaning and understanding of the concept. Not surprisingly, various terms have been used to refer to WIL, including experiential learning, Chinese WIL program internship, professional practice, simulation, and work-based learning (Björck & Johansson, 2018; Lasen et al., 2018). Chong (2014) added to this list of terms for WIL with the terms service-learning, community-based learning, community-engaged learning, professional learning, school-based learning, and workplace learning. The study in Australia that was a focus of this study used the term research-oriented, school-engaged teacher education, or ROSETE (M. Singh & N. Nguyen, 2018). Thus, the use of WIL in this study provided a means to maintain the focus of the study as it developed, while also being reworked over the course of the study as it took on meanings from the multilayered intellectual contexts in which this research was conducted.

Three key concepts were used in this study to make meaning of the evidence that was collected and analysed. Williams’s (1977) concepts of dominant, residual, and emergent educational cultures were used in this research. Mahtabi and Eslamieh (2015) referred to the dominant culture as “the established language, religion, values, rituals, and social customs which are often considered as the norm for the society as a whole” (p. 167). In Williams’s (1977) terms, the dominant educational/work culture relates to the sense of hegemony or the “ideologies of the ruling class” (Qiu, 2016, p. 621). The term residual culture is defined as



“what is left from the past” (Mahtabi & Eslamieh, 2015, p. 167). However, for Williams (1977), residual is an element of the past but different from the archaic, which describes “elements of its past, [which have a] place in the contemporary cultural process” (p. 122). The emergent culture is defined as “new meanings and values, new practices, new relationships and kinds of relationship [that] are continually being created” (Williams, 1977, p. 123). While the emergent culture is “constantly repeated in alternative and oppositional classes” (Mahtabi & Eslamieh, 2015, p. 167), it is “never only a matter of immediate practice; indeed, it depends crucially on finding new forms or adaptations of form” (Williams, 1977, p. 126). Together, concepts from Williams (1977), Berlak and Berlak (1981), and Munro (1997) serve to encompass and substantiate empirical descriptions. By taking these concepts beyond their original context of formulation, this study extended their use by generating new insights into WIL in language teacher education.

The concept of “dilemmas of schooling” served to guide this study with respect to the selection of data, the focus points for analysis, and the presentation of key findings. The concept of dilemmas of schooling is defined as the tension occurring “in persons and society over the form and content of the patterns of control, and behavioural patterns of a teacher may be viewed through one, several or all the dilemmas simultaneously” (Berlak & Berlak, 1981, p. 136). Dilemmas of schooling can refer to tensions associated with educational opportunity, social class, and equality in educational provision across socioeconomic classes (Osborn, Broadfoot, Planel, & Pollard, 1997). For Dias da Silva and Dias da Silva (2015), issues of equity as an educational principle, social protection as an educational goal, and intersectionality as an educational policy are among the dilemmas of schooling.

Munro’s (1997) concepts of “connections/disconnections” were used to condense the interpretation of the evidence and to present the findings from the study, thereby advancing its relevance beyond the case in which it was initially used. Specifically, for the purpose of this study, the terms connection and disconnection were seen as working together in WIL rather than operating separately. While connection means making things happen, and disconnection refers to prohibitions or block of relations, both can be used by various organisational partners to support particular agendas (Munro, 1997). The links or gaps

associated with the ideas of connection and disconnection can be both a cause and a consequence of relations that aim to create or minimise “distance or the absence of communication channels” (Munro, 1997, p. S44).

In terms of the subsidiary research question identified in Section 1.3, this study aimed to take up the challenge of reformulating Tiếng Việt metaphors as analytical concepts to be tested for their use in making meaning of evidence from both WIL programs that were the focus of this study. The purpose of using Tiếng Việt concepts was to introduce the Asian critical lens as part of the framework in this study that addresses the current educational issues, and new questions to help with advancing knowledge in WIL language teacher education (Iftikar & Museus, 2018). In this case, the issues were whether Tiếng Việt concepts can open up possibilities for contesting academic dependency on theories generated or otherwise disseminated in English, and whether they can be applied in a reasonably adequate manner with respect to their definitions and the insights into the evidence they produce. The Tiếng Việt concepts used throughout this thesis represent a reformulation of Tiếng Việt metaphors and expressions. In this study, Tiếng Việt concepts were used to make sense of work and learning, and the mechanism whereby they are integrated in WIL in language teacher education.

By extending the use of the English language concepts identified earlier, and by integrating Tiếng Việt concepts into this analytical framework, these conceptual tools provided this study with the lenses through which to analyse evidence of the complexities of WIL in language teacher education. A point of significance for this study lies in disrupting the academic dependency borne of colonialism that is evident in the use of English-only conceptual tools in studies of WIL. The next section elaborates on the significance of this study in terms of the contribution it makes to the field of WIL in language teacher education.

### **1.5 Significance and innovativeness of this study**

Given that this study investigated the complexities of WIL in language teacher education, the research reported in this thesis contributes to knowledge of key drivers that can help stakeholders better engage with partners involved in such programs. In this regard, three points of significance arise from the research reported in this thesis. First, it

demonstrates that WIL in language teacher education is workable; it contributes to knowledge of what is required to enable collaboration between “industry” (broadly defined) and universities, specifically in the field of WIL in language teacher education. The establishment of an educational culture for collaboration among university academics and workplace supervisors is on the higher education agenda (Australian Council of Learned Academies; ACOLA, 2016; Manathunga et al., 2012). This study indicates the possibility of WIL in language teacher education developing student teachers’ knowledge of the “equal right to access education for all kind of learners such as people with disability, minority people and vulnerable children” (MOET, 2017a, p. 1), which aims to eliminate inequality in education. Further, undertaking this study of WIL in language teacher education is important because it contributes to ACOLA’s (2015) agenda to maximise Australia’s opportunities to strengthen its language and research capabilities for building educational relationships with Asian countries such as China and Việt Nam. Specifically, this study contributes to the recommendations from a government inquiry for stronger school–university partnerships in language teacher education (Teacher Education Ministerial Advisory Group [TEMAG], 2014), that is, “partnerships for and coordination of education” (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], 2014, p. 31). Overall, the significance of this study resides in contributing to the agenda for real-world professional learning and teaching experiences to enhance the professional standards for teachers (Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership [AITSL], 2011).

Second, this study establishes that some of the changes in the links between higher education and production can be worked on through programs of WIL in language teacher education. Teaching and learning in higher education are changing; they have to change due to the changes in student demographics, changes in the use of technology to create flexible options for study, and changes academics are making in their work (Hallman, 2017; Preston et al., 2010). WIL programs in higher education are vehicles for exploring such changes (Ferns & Zegwaard, 2014, Jackson, 2018b), and this study of two WIL in language teacher education programs provide insights into issues relating to workplace supervisors and collaborating with industry or community organisations across all dimensions of education, including assessment. However, the management of WIL partnerships requires further

research (Smith & Worsfold, 2015), and this study therefore documents what such partnerships mean for the managerial work involved in building and maintaining industry/university partners, and managing the changing workloads of their staff. Thus, this study is important because of the insights it provides into the changing nature of the work of academics and university management created by the establishment of WIL partnerships. These disruptions to higher education are expected to increase over the course of the 21st century as “forms of organizing, the institutional structures of employment, and the experiences of workers” (Barley, Bechky, & Milliken, 2017, p. 115) change. Likewise, the changing nature of academic work that this study addresses is important because “work relationships are shaped by their context, including [partnership], technology and organizational structures and processes” (Heaphy et al., 2018, p. 558), and graduates’ proficiency in languages affects their employability (Pham et al., 2018; L. Tran & Soejatminah, 2017).

Third, this study is significant because it shows the possibilities for theorisation in WIL in language teacher education. The lack of theorisation in WIL in teacher education is a problem (Dimenäs & Norlund, 2014). Specifically, the parallel supervision undertaken by academics and host supervisors has been undertheorised (Winchester-Seeto, Rowe, & Mackaway, 2016). This study moves beyond the limits and limitations of English-only monolingual contributions to theorising (M. Singh, 2013b, 2017a) by using and testing the potential of Tiếng Việt metaphors as conceptual tools for critically analysing the evidence generated for this project (see also De Souza, 2017; N. Nguyen, 2018), activating, mobilising, and deploying the multilingual capabilities of higher degree researchers (HDRs) to explore inter-language conceptual divergences (Jullien, 2014) for the purposes of theorising. Within Williams’s (1977) theory of cultural materialism, languages are integral to the process of knowledge production and dissemination. Languages are a medium for communication processes, and a constitutive element in the material social practices of knowledge production. Languages also contribute to the sharing of information and interactions in knowledge production; the representation of what is known; the imagination of what is knowable; the formation of abstract thought; and the immediate expressions of concepts (Williams, 1977). The use of Tiếng Việt metaphors as conceptual tools in this study

represents a small but nonetheless significant intervention in decolonising education and doctoral research education (Manathunga, 2017).

## **1.6 Overview of research methodology and methods**

While the research methodology and methods used in this study are elaborated in Chapter 4, a brief outline is provided here. This study used an interpretive-critical analysis (Carr & Kemmis, 2004) as its philosophical stance. Postmonolingual research methodology (M. Singh, 2017a) is situated within this research orientation, and provides a basis for explaining and justifying the use of Tiếng Việt concepts as analytical tools in this study. To explore the complexities of WIL in language teacher education, this study used a multisite case study (Yin, 2014) with a flexible research design (Robson, 2011). In terms of theoretical triangulation (Carter et al., 2014), key concepts from Williams (1977), Berlak and Berlak (1981), and Munro (1997), along with selected Tiếng Việt concepts, were deliberately and strategically used in this investigation into the key factors of WIL in language teacher education. Interview was used for the collection of data used in this study. Participant volunteers were interviewed in Việt Nam with respect to the English WIL in teacher education program, which was followed by interviews in Australia with those involved in the Chinese WIL in teacher education program. In Việt Nam, interviews (n = 18) were conducted with academic supervisors (n = 6), community supervisors (n = 2), students (n = 7), and university managers (n = 3). In Australia, interviews (n = 16) were conducted with academic supervisors (n = 4), host supervisors (n = 2), students (n = 7), and university managers (n = 3). Education policies relating to the WIL programs at two universities were collected before and after interviews, and were used for the purpose of data triangulation. The evidence provided by interviewees was not accepted at face value, but where possible was verified by cross-checking with other evidentiary sources (Carter et al., 2014; Natow, 2019). For instance, claims made in policies were not read as statements of actual practice but were tested against the reports of the interviewees. In addition to the cross-verification of evidence through triangulation, the study was conducted in accordance with research principles for enhancing its credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability (Wahyuni, 2012).

Ethical procedures were followed to protect participants' privacy and to ensure their informed voluntary consent to participate in this study (Flynn & Goldsmith, 2013).

Data analysis comprised eight key steps. Specifically, the data analysis procedures employed in this study included data transcription and translation, data immersion, coding, creating categories, identifying counterevidence, generating themes, theorising, and verifying findings (Green et al., 2007). The data analysis techniques in these eight steps were conducted systematically to avoid any taken-for-granted interpretations based on the participants' accounts and the researcher's own predetermined views. The report writing involved in producing this thesis included consideration of data display to ensure that the presentation of significant evidence is readily comprehensible. To verify the findings presented in the conclusion to this study, (Chapter 8), each proposition is elaborated in reference to the primary evidence presented in Chapters 5, 6, and 7, and then compared with the claims made in the literature on WIL in teacher education. However, rather than claiming to have "proven" the findings drawn from this study, it is acknowledged that the findings are open to critique, a defining feature of research, and an important engine for making further advances in knowledge in this field. With this orientation to the research methodology and methods used in this study, the next section describes another key element used to establish the boundaries for the study, namely, the choice of the two WIL programs, one in Việt Nam and the other in Australia, about which data were collected and analysed in this study.

### **1.7 Outline of work-integrated learning programs**

It is important to note the heterogeneity of WIL programs, policies, norms, and the diversity of universities and higher education systems in which they operate around the world. Despite the international drive for standardisation and normalisation across higher education, for instance, through university ranking processes (Pusser & Marginson, 2013), even in teacher education, there is little in the way of convergence of WIL programs. There have been various forms of WIL programs in diverse settings in teacher education (Allen & Peach, 2011; Barends & Nel, 2017; Du Plessis, 2010; Puncreobutr, 2016), including service-learning (Amaro-Jimenez, 2012; Castellan, 2012), work-based learning (Conroy, Donaldson, & Menter, 2014), and experiential learning (Gao, 2015).

This section briefly describes the two WIL in language teacher education programs that were the focus of this study, specifically, a WIL in English teacher education program in Việt Nam and a WIL in Chinese language teacher education program in Australia. This study recognised that any differences in the WIL programs are a function of national and international structuring of socioeconomic inequalities. This study does not seek to legitimise the evident differences between them as grounds for competition, and nor does it seek to compare them. Thus, the purpose of this study was not framed by a view of these two WIL programs as embodying competition and marketing imperatives.

Let me reiterate the point made in the Introduction to this chapter. Specifically, the fieldwork for study focused on the dynamics affecting WIL in two language teacher education programs. The fieldwork in Việt Nam focused on a WIL program specialising in English language teacher education. The fieldwork in Australia focused on a WIL program in language teacher education specialising in Chinese. Both English and Chinese are global languages (Mao & Menchen-Trevino, 2019; Odinye, 2019). To study WIL teacher education programs in these two languages does not require that the investigation into the teaching of English occur in England, nor does it require the investigation into the teaching of Chinese be undertaken in China.

The WIL in English teacher education program was initially set up in 2014 at Hoa Sen University (HSU), Việt Nam, engaging English language teaching (ELT) students in work experience through teaching English to children and young people in local community agencies in Hồ Chí Minh City. Preliminary research into this program (D. Tran & T. Nguyen, 2014) reported on first- and second-year ELT students teaching English to disadvantaged children at a Pagoda Orphans' Shelter. Characterised as a service-learning program, this English WIL program was accredited as an awareness internship that is the first of two internships required for the degree of Bachelor of English Language Teaching. The second internship or graduation internship at an English language centre was not the focus of this study in WIL. Table 1.3 gives an overview of this WIL program in English teacher education, herein called the *WIL English Language Teacher Education Program*, and referred to as English WIL Program in the body of the thesis.

Table 1.3

*WIL English Language Teacher Education Program in Việt Nam*

<b>Key Features of English WIL Program</b>	
<b>Aims</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. To engage student teachers in workplace learning</li> <li>2. To develop student teachers' social responsibility, dynamics, critical thinking, civic engagement</li> <li>3. To contribute to community through teaching English to disadvantaged children and young people learning English</li> </ol>
<b>University accreditation</b>	Equivalent with an awareness internship Bachelor of English Language Teaching
<b>Targeted workplaces</b>	Pagoda Orphans' Shelter and Hospitality school
<b>Duration of degree program</b>	4 years
<b>Time in workplace</b>	16 weeks (including 320 hours for training and teaching with 40 hours of training, 120 hours of preparation, 40 hours of teaching, 40 hours for research and reflection writing, 40 hours for extracurricular activities, and 40 hours for supervision and meetings for feedback from academic supervisors)
<b>Annual intake</b>	Up to 30 students as a cohort
<b>Student recruitment criteria</b>	Second-year students onwards in ELT with learning outcomes of 6.5/10 scores on four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing indicated in the academic transcripts
<b>Assessment</b>	As awareness internship for ELT (Appendix 1)
<b>Funding</b>	Students' self-fund and partial subsidiary of the university
<b>stakeholders</b>	University Board of Management, Dean of Faculty of Languages and Cultural Studies, Head of English Department, Head of English Language Teaching, Department of Registrar, Department for Student Support, ELT academics, ELT students, and the communities involved in the WIL program
<b>Roles and Responsibilities of Key Stakeholders Involved in English WIL Program</b>	
Head of English Language Teaching	Undertaking teaching education activities
Academics	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Planning tasks for students and monitoring students' performance</li> <li>2. Consulting students in teaching professional skills</li> <li>3. Collaborating with communities to evaluate the quality of WIL</li> </ol>



	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>4. Assessing students through marking their reflective reports and presentations</li> </ol>
ELT students	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Serious attitude for voluntary contribution to community in WIL</li> <li>2. Support in WIL</li> <li>3. Communicating with academics every week</li> <li>4. Committing good quality of work performance</li> <li>5. Sharing experience by sharing photos and writing reflections regarding workplace activities on personal Facebook and on university Facebook in the program's group</li> </ol>
Community staff	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Helping students with workplace knowledge such as Pagoda Orphans' Shelters, vocational schools, and children living there studying English with WIL students</li> <li>2. Monitoring and reporting to the university about student teachers' performance and attendance</li> </ol>

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The *WIL Chinese Language Teacher Education Program* provides students with the opportunity to engage in professional learning through the experience of teaching/learning in schools and documenting their professional learning through doing so as the basis for their assessment (M. Singh & Ballantyne, 2014). In effect, the students are chosen because they volunteer to undertake tasks that integrate school-based teaching/learning experiences, and they then provide evidence of what they achieve by way of having school students learn and use Chinese in their local everyday schooling. The school and university work together on both these aspects of the *WIL Chinese Language Teacher Education Program*. The school provides the students with teaching/learning experiences, supports them in collecting and generating evidence of the students' language learning and use, and mentors their developing knowledge as emerging professional teachers. The university develops the students' knowledge of how to get to know students and how they can learn through teaching/learning for L1/L2 transfer based on partial cross-sociolinguistic similarities (M. Singh & N. Nguyen, 2018). Further, the university provides the students with knowledge of language teacher research, which includes reading about these methods and using them to inform their collection and analysis of evidence that the schools enable them to generate. When the *WIL Chinese Language Teacher Education Program* started in mid-2008 (Appendix 1), these multiple elements were incorporated in the initial design of the program that, after 18 months, led to the award of a Master of Education (Honours). It has changed since 2014 with new

leadership in the New South Wales (NSW) Department of Education and Training (DET), the Ningbo Education Bureau, and Western Sydney University (WSU) to focus on a Master of Philosophy (18 months), or a Doctor of Philosophy (36 to 48 months). Table 1.4 gives an overview of this WIL program in Chinese language teacher education, herein called the *WIL Chinese Language Teacher Education Program*, and referred to as Chinese WIL Program in the body of the thesis.

Table 1.4

*WIL Chinese Language Teacher Education Program in Australia*

<b>Key Features of Chinese WIL Program</b>	
<b>Aims</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. To support the stimulation of the teaching and learning of Chinese for non-Chinese background students in Western Sydney schools</li> <li>2. To engage students in school-enhanced teaching professional learning and work-based education research</li> <li>3. To build the capacity of the teaching service in Ningbo, China</li> </ol>
<b>University accreditation</b>	Successful completion of program leads to the award of Master of Education (Honours), now the Master of Philosophy, or Doctor of Philosophy
<b>Targeted workplaces</b>	Public primary and secondary schools in Western Sydney
<b>Duration of program</b>	During their 18 months (MPhil) or 36–48 months (PhD) in Australia, the volunteers assist in Chinese language teaching in Western Sydney primary and secondary schools and complete research training and a research thesis at the master’s or PhD level
<b>Time in workplace</b>	Volunteers in NSW primary or public schools for 10 hours per week during the school terms. Master’s students engage in volunteering work for six school terms over the 18 months of their research candidature. PhD students volunteer for 12 school terms over the 36 months of their candidature
<b>Annual intake</b>	Up to 10 volunteers as a cohort
<b>Student recruitment criteria</b>	<p>A bachelor’s degree in the majors of English, Chinese, or teaching Chinese as a foreign language</p> <p>English language entry requirements (IELTS): Overall score 7.0 or above, AND all subtests 6.5 or above, AND speaking 7.0 or above. (In exceptional cases involving the recruitment of a volunteer without</p>

	the requisite standard, that person will be required to undertake language training at SWIC [UWS College] at their own cost.)
<b>Assessment</b>	A thesis of at least 40, 000 words for MPhil 60,000 words for Ph.D Research thesis examination criteria (MPhil / Ph.D) (Western Sydney University, 2019).
<b>Multipartner support funding</b>	Ningbo Municipal Education Bureau, NSW Department of Education <sup>4</sup> , Western Sydney University
<b>Stakeholders</b>	Western Sydney University (formerly University of Western Sydney), WIL Program Leader of School of Education, School of Education, academics as supervisors, Western Sydney education region, NSW Department of Education, Western Sydney regional schools, school mentors, students or volunteer teacher–researchers, Ningbo Municipal Education Bureau

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### **Roles and Responsibilities of Key Stakeholders Involved in Chinese WIL Program**

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<b>Western Sydney education region</b>	Provide volunteers with access to schools, coordinating and liaising with the schools about all issues relating to the volunteers, including providing school-related professional learning workshops
<b>NSW Department of Education</b>	Provide a series of lectures over the course of volunteers’ enrolment in the MEd (Hons) on topics related to their school-based WIL. Topics to be covered focus on language education theory and practices for schooling in Australia
<b>Western Sydney region’s schools</b>	Decide upon a range of service activities the volunteers undertake and provide supervision and mentoring in relation to their work in schools
<b>School mentors</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Share learning experiences</li> <li>2. Examine beliefs and values</li> <li>3. Set goals and examine expectations</li> <li>4. Discuss school policies and procedures</li> <li>5. Discuss specific information relating to the implementation of the Chinese language and culture program in the school or group of schools</li> <li>6. Give and receive feedback on learning and teaching</li> <li>7. Give and receive advice and guidance</li> <li>8. Ask powerful questions to assist in structured reflection and expand learning options</li> <li>9. Listening effectively</li> <li>10. Provide access to networks</li> <li>11. Provide moral support and a positive attitude to the volunteering program</li> </ol>

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<sup>4</sup> The former names of NSW Department of Education are New South Wales Department of Education and Communities (2011–2015) and New South Wales Department of Education and Training (1997–2011).

<b>Ningbo Municipal Education Bureau</b>	Undertake selection and recruitment, a pre-departure program, and annual review visits concerning the service and learning undertaken by the volunteers, issues that arise concerning the volunteers' study and life experiences in Australia, provide the NSW DET (Western region) a report on these activities at the annual review meeting
<b>Students named as volunteer teacher–researchers</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Attend professional learning provided by NSW DET</li> <li>2. University workshops, discussions with their supervisors, including suggestions for relevant recent research literature to read and review, and can be reworked by the volunteers for inclusion in their theses</li> <li>3. Team teaching with qualified classroom teachers (volunteer teacher–researchers are not permitted to take sole responsibility for the teaching)</li> <li>4. Work with school students to improve spoken Chinese</li> <li>5. Provide activities to enhance school students' understanding of the culture of the People's Republic of China</li> </ol>
<b>WIL Program: Department and University team</b>	Beginning in 2008, NSW DET and university representatives worked together to provide a highly structured education for the students, interested academic supervisors, and school mentors (and other interested research candidates). The team conducts weekly workshops for all the students (volunteers) during the six terms the work in schools. The teams' workshops focus on (a) innovations in language education reported in the research from China and abroad and include the use of micro-teaching activities, and (b) language teacher research, focusing on reading literature related to their work in schools and the analysis of evidence of schools learning based on the students' work in schools. The team also monitors academic issues, including progress reports, HREC and SERAP, Confirmation of Candidature, Working with Children certificate, orientation and induction, and on-arrival support
<b>Academic supervision</b>	Since 2014, the program's focus has shifted to academic supervision operating independently of working with students to produce their theses

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The forgoing discussion, and associated Tables 1.3 and 1.4 bring to the fore and acknowledge the key differences between the two WIL programs operating at two universities in two different countries that were the focus of this study. In terms of research focus, the purpose of this study was to investigate the key factors affecting WIL in English and Chinese language teacher education in Việt Nam and Australia, respectively. Thus, it is important to note that this study did not compare these two programs, nor the two universities, one of which is ostensibly public and the other private. If the purpose of this study was to

serve the dominating norms that now prevail in higher education, nationally and internationally, such a comparison could provide a lens for differentiating these two WIL programs. If so, a comparative study could provide a lever to suggest the adaptation of one program to the norms of the other program, or for both in relation to a system for ranking WIL programs internationally. Likewise, a study that focuses on the comparative differentiation of WIL programs, and their universities could provide a means of establishing hierarchical relations between Australia and Việt Nam with respect to prestige and resource allocation.

Thus, the forgoing outline of the two WIL in language teacher education programs serves to delimit the scope of the research reported in this thesis. Overall, the delimitations of this study encompass the research problem, the research questions, the reviewed literature, the employed conceptual framework, and the research methodology that was used to generate and analyse the evidence. The shortcomings of this study that emerged during the course of this research but could not be addressed at the time are elaborated in Chapter 8 in a discussion of the recommendations for further research. Here, it is necessary to say a little more on the delimitations of this study to further refine its scope and define its boundaries.

## **1.8 Delimitations of this study**

To ensure that this study did not become so large as to make it impossible to complete, and to make clear the potential transferability of the findings arising from it, the following delimitations add to those above by defining the boundaries of this study. This section details the delimitations in which the boundaries of this research study were set, and provides justifications for doing so. The scope of this study was delimited to a study of WIL in language teacher education, specifically two programs devoted to educating Chinese and English student teachers through WIL. While this study drew on literature relating to professional learning through WIL in other disciplines (Cameron et al., 2018; Jackson, 2018b; Lu et al., 2018; Stanley & Xu, 2018; Taylor & Govender, 2017), university-wide WIL programs were not the focus of this study.

Further, this study investigated how student teachers in these two programs engaged in professional learning through WIL, but it did not explore in any detailed ways the

language/learning teaching curriculum, pedagogies, or modes of assessment they learnt at university or in the workplace. This research addressed how the student teachers' professional learning through WIL, focusing on the relationships within and among the stakeholder partners involved in these two language teacher education programs. The key informants for this study included university managers, academic supervisors, student teachers, and workplace supervisors. Thus, this study did not address the benefits for the language learners with whom the student teachers worked through WIL, such as school students and disadvantaged children. In the case of the student teachers in the Chinese WIL program, they reported on their own professional learning, and that of school learners, in their theses, which are a minimum 40,000 words, and are publicly available on the university's website. For the English WIL program, the student teachers' assessment, including a final report, and a presentation regarding their workplace performance, was assessed by an academic supervisor (Appendix 1). Further, in focusing on the enactment of these two WIL programs, issues relating to the research supervision of the HDRs in Chinese WIL programs were not addressed.

This study investigated the key factors of managing partnerships in WIL in language teacher education. In Australia, the focus was on a WIL partnership between a state department of education, a local municipal education bureau in China, an Australian university, and public primary and secondary schools in Australia. In Việt Nam, the focus was on a WIL partnership between a university and the Pagoda Orphans' Shelter and the Hospitality School for disadvantaged children and young people. Given the marked differences in these two programs, this study did not set out to compare them but to learn from these two different types of WIL programs. Other kinds of WIL partnerships between universities, different industries and workplaces were not addressed in this study (Manathunga et al., 2012). In terms of evidence, interview transcripts with key participants in these two programs were analysed, along with artefacts regarding WIL in language teacher education shared by the research participants. Further, evidence relating to key issues arising from the analysis of interview transcripts was collected from relevant education policies about teachers' professional learning, university-school partnerships, university-industry partnerships, language education, WIL, work and education, Australia's engaging with Asia,

and education for people with disabilities. Evidence from these sources was also analysed in this study.

This study does not focus on the issue of identity, socioconstructionism and the politics of language. I acknowledge that identity, socioconstructionism and the politics of language are a charged territory of struggles, injustices and exclusions in numerous places throughout the world. However, the reason for not focusing on identity in this study is because as Reinelt (2015) explains the “politics of identity is reductive and restrictive, and ... neo-liberalism has captured identity categories and repurposed them for commodified individual ends” (p. 243). Furthermore, the issues of socioconstructionism, and the politics are questioned and challenged by Beattie (2018) in linking education and politics with ideology. This study did not either address the education policy documents of other disciplines and fields. Mindful of the delimitations for this study set out in this section and the forgoing sections, it is possible to make the thesis statement or argument that arose from this study.

## **1.9 Thesis statement**

This thesis argues that the enactment of WIL in language teacher education can be understood as complex educational policy practices due to the dynamics of changes over time in partner organisations, and personnel that give rise to shifts in relations of power/knowledge. Foucault’s (1980) work establishes that those who have knowledge exercise power, albeit without assigning any negative attachment to either concept. Power and knowledge are connected through social institutions, such as universities and their industry partners, and the disciplines they create, such that power/knowledge can be productive of neoliberal corporatised education as much as it is prohibitive of education for intellectual freedom, civic and work life (see also Heizmann & Olsson, 2015). Given what is reported in the recent literature on WIL in teacher education (Barends & Nel, 2017; Dimenäs & Norlund, 2014), this thesis statement provides the focus for the original contribution to knowledge made in this study about WIL in language teacher education. The complexities of WIL are evident in the dynamic relations among dominant, residual, and emergent educational cultures operating in these two programs, with the universities’ business agendas being reinforced by their governments’ economic drivers for change. The complexities of

WIL in language teacher education are also evident in the dilemmas of the curriculum of programs associated with the tensions between the educational role and business functions of universities. These dilemmas reside in the connections and disconnections in stakeholders' relationships, and are among the tools by which universities manage WIL programs. From an educational perspective, WIL in language teacher education provides an innovative education approach to connecting academic knowledge and workplace knowledge, in so far as it creates an educational connection between the theory and practice necessary for student teachers' professional learning. However, evidence from this study indicates that the features that dominate the interests of WIL stakeholders make WIL policy practice so much more complicated. Now, it is necessary to consider how this study is structured to give warrant to this thesis statement.

### **1.10 Structure of thesis**

This thesis is structured into eight chapters. This introduction chapter provided an overview of the thesis, including the research problem and research focus, the research questions, and the key terms in the conceptual framework. This chapter also included details about the significance of the study, an overview of the research methodology, and its methods. The focus of the study reported here is on two specific WIL programs, which are part of the delimitations established for this study. Following the thesis statement was the overview of the structure of this thesis.

Chapter 2 reviews literature relevant to research into WIL in teacher education. Specifically, Chapter 2 provides an account of the method for conducting the literature review, including the criteria for including and excluding literature for review in order to provide a sufficiently comprehensive study of what is currently known about the research topic. Accordingly, the research employed the systematic literature review of recent research of WIL in higher education, focusing on refereed studies published during the period 2012 to 2018 (e.g., Barends & Nel, 2017; Dimenäs & Norlund, 2014; Ferns & Zegwaard, 2014; Patton, 2017; Smith-Ruig, 2014; L. Tran & Soejatminah, 2017; Jackson, 2018b). An exception to this timeframe was the selection of some seminal works by key researchers in the field (e.g., Du Plessis, 2010, 2011). The review of these research studies extended the



knowledge of the field required for conducting this study, and provided a sense of the scholarly community to engage in this conversation about WIL in language teacher education. Moreover, in conducting this review of the literature, it was possible to avoid “reinventing the wheel” by unnecessarily repeating investigations reported in previous research. Rather, Chapter 2 identifies problems in the existing literature on WIL, some of which addressed in this study of language teacher education, thereby making it possible for this study to make an original knowledge contribution in this field.

Aware of the limitations of the research reviewed in Chapter 2, Chapter 3 provides a theoretical framework that draws upon concepts from outside the field of WIL to address this study’s research questions. This chapter was designed to provide a basis for theoretical triangulation (Carter et al., 2014) as well as providing a vehicle for making an original contribution to the knowledge of WIL in language teacher education through introducing new concepts to this field. To provide conceptual tools for analysing the evidence presented in this study, in addition to those presented in Chapter 2, Chapter 3 integrates Tiếng Việt concepts, and analytical concepts produced in the English language drawn from Williams (1977) who spoke Welsh, Berlak and Berlak (1981), and Munro (1997). Chapter 3 opens up for exploration the possibilities of using Tiếng Việt concepts as the theoretical tools for analysing evidence in WIL in language teacher education. Together, these conceptual resources provide tools for making an original contribution to the knowledge through this study. Given the knowledge and conceptual tools provided by Chapters 2 and 3, attention then turns to the research methods used to answer this study’s research questions. Chapter 4 justifies the research methodology in terms of the interpretive-critical analysis that underpins this study. Then, the details of the methods that follow from this philosophical stance are explained and justified in terms of providing the means for making an original contribution to the knowledge through this study. This chapter explains the research principles that were employed to enhance the rigour of this study. Ethical issues, such as protecting participants’ privacy, and ensuring their informed and voluntary participation in this research study, are also explained.

Given the methods adopted in Chapter 4, these are then applied in the next three chapters to present the analysis of the evidence collected, otherwise generated for this study. Chapter 5 analyses evidence that reveals expressions of dominant, residual, and emergent educational cultures through bringing into focus issues concerning WIL partnerships and stakeholders' relationships in WIL.

Chapter 6 analyses evidence of dilemmas of using WIL in language teacher education. This analysis raises issues concerning policy and practice, including recognition of added workload involved in WIL and the resources necessary for enacting WIL. Chapter 7 focuses on the analysis of evidence for connections and disconnections in the two WIL in language teacher education programs. This analysis brings to the fore issues relating to the student teachers' professional learning with regard to their work-readiness, their contributions to Australian–Asian engagement, and university academics' uses of social media to manage them.

In concluding this study, Chapter 8 presents the key findings for each research question posed for this study. For each research question, the relevant research findings are set out; each finding is accompanied by exposition of the relevant evidence. By discussing each finding critically in reference to the literature reviewed for this study, the small but significant original contributions to the knowledge made by this study are identified. Further, this chapter provides details of implications of this study for policy and practice in WIL in language teacher education. These implications include issues relating to supervising students in WIL projects, building strategic engagements with industry, government and academic institutions, and fostering and maintaining inclusive, respectful, collaborative and productive WIL relationships with staff, students and colleagues across partner organisations for the diversity of WIL and workplaces. In noting the limitations of this study, recommendations for future research are outlined. The last section of this chapter provides author's critical self-reflections on doing this research study.

Chapter 1 has provided the overview of the research study reported in this thesis. Elaborating on the foundations established in this chapter, Chapter 2 provides a systematic review of relevant and recent literature of WIL published in the last five years that relates to

the problems of WIL in teacher education. This literature review chapter problematises the research in WIL, providing an informed basis for the research questions to be addressed in this thesis.

**Chapter 2:**  
**Factors Affecting Work-Integrated Learning in Teacher Education: Intellectual**  
**Context**

**2.1 Introduction**

This chapter demonstrates that the evidence-driven multisite case study reported in this thesis is rooted in theoretical knowledge derived in part from current, relevant research literature. It should be noted that Chapter 3 expands on the theoretical knowledge used in this study. Thus, the use of theoretical resources in this study is a move that stands in contrast to a criticism made “against case study research [which] is that it is unguided, unplanned, and unmotivated theoretically” (Duff, 2008, p. 57). This commitment to establishing a theoretical basis for this study began with the initial literature review, which was undertaken in preparation for the initial research proposal, and subsequently revised in preparation for the application for human ethics approval. The plan for this literature review also included making revisions over the course of this study, guided by the themes that emerged from the analysis of evidence, and new literature published during the four years of this study. A key purpose for writing this literature review was to provide theoretical resources for analysing, elaborating, or otherwise contextualising the evidence presented in the data analysis chapters, Chapters 5, 6, and 7 (Hart, 1998; Randolph, 2009).

The objectives of the literature review were to find research relating specifically to the organisation of WIL in English and Chinese language teacher education, the challenges and opportunities involved in conducting WIL in these areas of language teacher education, and the ways in which changes in these particular areas are expressed and responded to. Because of the limited literature reporting on WIL in language teacher education, I analysed the research literature reporting on the problems and possibilities for WIL in teacher education, and higher education more generally to inform my investigation. Through addressing these aims, this review established the state-of-the-art developments in the field, which provided context for the problem, that is, the focus of research reported in this thesis, namely, the key factors affecting WIL in two language teacher education programs in Việt Nam and

Australia. Moreover, this review added to the justification of this study's significance. Synthesising this literature provided an understanding of what research has been done, and the possibility for gaining a new perspective of what research needs to be done. Further, by establishing the current research in the field of WIL in language teacher education, it is possible in Chapter 8 to establish how the research reported in this thesis advances knowledge of WIL in the English and Chinese language teacher education programs relating to what is currently reported in the available research.

A brief explanation is provided to indicate the systematic method used to generate this literature review. This section is followed by an account of WIL as a contested concept given to it according to a range of diverse interests. In accounting for the rationale for, and features of, WIL in teacher education, consideration was given to various ways to organise this literature review; a conceptual structure was chosen because this is a common approach. To ground this case study in current theoretical knowledge, the organisational scheme for this literature review was built around the key concepts from the research questions: organisation, challenges and opportunities, and changes. Immediately prior to stating the conclusion derived from this chapter, the relationship between this literature review, and the research questions that provided the focus for this study are briefly discussed. In effect, this review of recent, relevant research literature was supported by a structure that aimed to bring coherence and clarity to the research topic, namely, WIL in language teacher education.

No claim is made that this literature review accounts for all relevant literature in this field. My aim is more modest, namely, to provide a sufficiently comprehensive study of WIL in language teacher education fitting into this interdisciplinary field of higher education. Thus, the next section provides an account of the systematic review of the recent, relevant research literature used in this study.

## **2.2 Method for systematic review**

Among many possible approaches to reviewing this literature, this section explains the method of systematic review used in this study (Grant & Booth, 2009; Haddaway & Macura, 2018). The criteria used to justify the inclusion and exclusion of literature, and the procedures used to give rigour to this systematic review, are explained.

Criteria for inclusion entailed selecting research literature for review that was relevant, recent, and from credible resources. My focus was on finding literature that explored key factors affecting WIL in English and Chinese language teacher education, especially in Việt Nam and Australia. With this focus, I planned to search for literature on WIL in language teacher education. The highest number of “hits” was for search terms including work-integrated learning, WIL in teacher education, language teacher education, and professional learning in teacher education. I also used a snowballing technique to search an extensive range of other related terms and combinations to find additional, relevant, recent literature using a broader range of keywords such as service-learning, community-based learning, work-based learning, community engagement, and cooperative education in teacher education (Chong, 2014). Given the delimitations of this study, literature on experiential education, work experience, civic engagement, and social work were excluded from my searches.

My goal was to find conceptual studies, as well as empirical studies presenting analyses of primary data related to my research focus, and to extract relevant information and construct a series of key themes. To do so, a pivotal set of relevant articles were obtained by skimming the titles and key words in the abstracts (Barends & Nel, 2017; Choy & Delahaye, 2011; Dimenäs & Norlund, 2014; Ferns & Zegwaard, 2014; Jackson, 2013, 2017, 2018a; Jonck, 2014; Mahomed & Singh, 2011; Oliver, 2015; Patton, 2017; Pham et al., 2018; Smith & Worsfold, 2015; Winchester-Seeto et al., 2016). The process for collecting these articles began with academic sources through eight of Western Sydney University library’s electronic databases: EBSCOhost, Emerald Insight, ProQuest Central, SAGE Journals, Scopus, Taylor and Francis Online, Google Scholar, and Wiley Online Library.

A key to this review was defining its parameters in such a way that it was bounded not only by the research focus, but also by when the research was published, specifically in the five years prior to this study being initiated, which means within the period 2010 to 2018. More up-to-date resources within five years from 2014 were prioritised for selection. However, some significant works published before then were chosen because of the absence of more recent relevant research (Du Plessis, 2010, 2011). Other literature was selected once

key authors in the field were identified as producing research especially relevant to this study, for example, research by Bates (2011), Du Plessis (2010), Jackson (2018a), Smith-Ruig (2014).

Further, this review primarily focused on literature in peer-reviewed published journals and book chapters produced by reputable publishers. Except for the relevant works to be cited or mentioned, conference papers (e.g., Batholmeus & Pop, 2018; Bennett, 2009; Peach, Larkin, & Ruinard, 2012), doctoral theses (e.g., Barends, 2015; Bonavidi, 2013), and papers that are not accessible through the university's search engines (e.g., Yang, 2011) were excluded from this review. The former sources of literature were chosen because they had been subjected to rigorous review processes, making their knowledge claims more credible than articles from conferences and popular magazines or trade journals. The reason for choosing these sources for the literature review was to achieve an informed knowledge based on reliable, credible, and trustworthy sources. Searching and retrieving relevant, recent, and credible literature using the same criteria was repeated numerous times over the four years of this study until a point where no new relevant articles came to light. Of those initially selected, some were excluded because they lacked the necessary literature to inform the claims being made. Likewise, articles that did not address key concepts presented in their titles or abstracts in the body text were also excluded from the review.

The process of selecting and synthesising information from literature meant themes related to questions of organisation, challenges and opportunities, and changes were “extracted . . . clustered, and eventually synthesized into analytical themes” (Xiao & Watson, 2019, p. 101). This process involved open coding, categorising, and structuring emerging themes that related to the research focus concerning the factors affecting WIL in English and Chinese language teacher education. I created an archive of direct quotations from the different sources, which were then synthesised based on conceptual analysis. Each excerpt was given a code using a key concept taken or summarised from the excerpt. By doing so, I created a three-level structure for organising excerpts from the literature: codes, categories, and themes. It was necessary to consider the types of information to be extracted from each article. This was done by pilot testing the process of coding and using the coding archive.

This pilot study revealed other types of useful information that could be extracted from the literature, for example, definitions, characteristics, and problems of WIL in education. The results of the pilot study necessitated revising the coding archive, and rechecking all the articles for possible extracts and recoding. With a considerable amount of information generated from the different sources, some less relevant codes were removed.

In working on this literature review, I gradually came to take charge of the review, moving towards a more authoritative stance that enabled me to question, challenge, and disagree with claims in the literature (see Chapter 8 in particular), in addition to reporting on the literature. Writing was conducted after all the categories were restructured around emerging themes that would form a section. The writing process went beyond presenting a summary of the literature. Rather, it focused on shaping the review to address the contributory research questions being explored in this study. In doing so, this review raised concerns about power/knowledge relations (Foucault 1977) in policy and practice in WIL, albeit issues are not explicitly addressed in the literature. This power/knowledge relationship is not only negative:

it doesn't only weigh on us as a force that says no, but . . . it traverses and produces things, it induces pleasure, forms of knowledge, produces discourse. It needs to be thought of as a productive network which runs through the whole social body (Foucault, 1980, p. 119).

As a result of this method for conducting this review, no research literature was found specifically relating to WIL in English or Chinese language teacher education, or other languages (Table 2.1).



Table 2.1

*Literature for knowledge production in WIL language teacher education*

<b>Languages for knowledge production in WIL</b>	<b>Examples of literature</b>
WIL in English or Chinese language teacher education	None
WIL teacher education written in English	(Allen & Peach, 2011; Barends & Nel, 2017; Dimenäs & Norlund, 2014; Doolan, Piggott, Chapman & Rycroft, 2019; Du Plessis, 2010; Jordan, Littlewood, Kennedy & McLaughlin, 2019; H. Nguyen, 2017; Mahomed & Singh, 2011; N. Tran <sup>5</sup> , Phuong & Tran, 2019)
WIL in other disciplines written in English	(Cameron, Freudenberg, Giddings, & Klopper, 2018; Jackson, 2013, 2017, 2018a, 2018b; Hamilton et al., 2018; Lu, Scholz, & Nguyen, 2018; Moore, Pitard, & Greenfield, 2012; Pham et al., 2018; L. Tran & Soejatminah, 2017; Stanley & Xu, 2018; Mackaway & Winchester-Seeto, 2018; Taylor & Govender, 2017; Patton, 2017)
WIL conducted by Vietnamese diasporic scholars	(Khuong, 2016; Pham, Bao, Saito & Chowdhury, 2018; Q. Nguyen, 2017; L. Tran, 2017; N. Tran, Phuong & H. Tran, 2019)
WIL in Việt Nam written in English	(Bilsland & Nagy, 2015; Khuong, 2016; Q. Nguyen, 2017; N. Tran, Phuong & H. Tran, 2019; Welch, Vo, Pittayachawan & Reynolds, 2012)
WIL written in Tiếng Việt	None

Moreover, only a few research publications relating to WIL in teacher education which were published in English were found in the period 2010 to 2017 (Allen & Peach, 2011; Barends & Nel, 2017; Dimenäs & Norlund, 2014; Doolan, Piggott, Chapman & Rycroft, 2019; Du Plessis, 2010; Jordan, Littlewood, Kennedy & McLaughlin, 2019; H. Nguyen, 2017; Mahomed & Singh, 2011; N. Tran<sup>6</sup>, Phuong & Tran, 2019). The literature search produced a number of studies of WIL conducted in Australia (Jackson, 2013, 2017, 2018a; Moore, Pitard, & Greenfield, 2012; Pham et al., 2018; L. Tran & Soejatminah, 2017). Having looked for literature about WIL in Tiếng Việt, none were found. However, there were five

<sup>5</sup> Different first authors share a surname but have different initials (APA, 2013)

<sup>6</sup> Different first authors share a surname but have different initials (APA, 2013)

references found about WIL in Việt Nam all of which were written in English (Bilsland & Nagy, 2015; Khuong, 2016; Q. Nguyen, 2017; N. Tran, Phuong & H. Tran, 2019; Welch, Vo, Pittayachawan & Reynolds, 2012). These five studies investigated WIL in higher education in the field of business and tourism, information management, and teacher education. The next section provides details of naming of WIL according to a range of diverse interests represented in this literature.

### **2.3 Work-integrated learning: A contested concept**

An understanding of the structure of the field of WIL in teacher education is possible through knowledge of its keywords. However, the differences and ambiguities in definitions of WIL itself indicate that this is a contested and contestable concept. With regard to finding an accurate definition of WIL, Chong (2014) pointed to “the confusion surrounding the term has not been completely eliminated” (p. 347). However, the term WIL is an essentially contested concept (Gallie, 1955), which means that the so-called confusions associated with WIL are an expression of, and response to, differences in its uses, as is the case for the variety of meanings assigned to other keywords in scholarly arguments. Keywords make up the language of research, and this language makes scholarly societies and intellectual cultures. Leary (2018) and Williams (2014) reminded scholars that those who control the struggle over the meaning of keywords used in research, and more generally in society, control the intellectual culture at large. Thus, WIL is understood as having diverse meanings because these differences are integral to the day-to-day struggles over its organisations, challenges and opportunities, and changes.

The meanings of keywords related to WIL change even as they are being told by one researcher to another working within the same intellectual culture. Thus, there has been no agreement on the definition of WIL in teacher education, and none is likely. The intention here is to develop a sense of WIL that can be explained, and used in this particular study. As an umbrella term for experiential education, WIL refers to

a broad range of experience-based education models and curriculum approaches where students engage with industry and community organizations, for example, service learning, work-based learning, community engagement, cooperative

education, . . . as well as internships, teacher practicums, clinical placements, engineering sandwich courses, virtual projects, simulations, fieldwork. (Winchester-Seeto et al., 2016, p. 101)

In contrast, Lasen et al. (2018) defined WIL in terms of where it takes place, noting that it occurs in “a range of off- and on-campus settings through practicum, placement, professional experience, professional practice, internship, workplace learning, industry-based learning, project-based learning, fieldwork education, service-learning, real-world learning and experiential learning” (p. 789).

Being contested, concepts are continually being reworked. Not surprisingly, WIL is also involved in ongoing repurposing nationally and internationally. Geographically, the meaning and use of the term WIL is varied. While WIL is

commonly used in Australia, New Zealand, and many countries in Asia Pacific, work-based learning is the equivalent term of [and for] work-integrated learning in the United Kingdom and Europe and the term cooperative education is more widely used in the United States and Canada. (L. Tran & Soejatminah, 2017, p. 262)

WIL is identified with service-learning programs in Việt Nam, Singapore, and Hong Kong (Chan et al., 2018; Halimi, Kecskes, Ingle, & Phuong, 2014; Thuy Tran<sup>7</sup>, 2015). However, for Björck and Johansson (2018), the generic term for the theory–practice relationship that connects campus-based and workplace learning continues to be debated.

Through appropriation, the meaning of concepts becomes different. As might be expected, the definition of WIL proffered by some researchers differs from that of others (Babacan & Babacan, 2015; Jackson, 2017; Jonck, 2014). Pedagogically, WIL is defined as “a way in which to bridge the gap between the theory of market orientation and the practice of implementation within the higher education sector” (Jonck, 2014, p. 281). Jackson (2017) echoed this point about bridging the theory–practice gap, defining WIL as “the interweaving

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<sup>7</sup> The full forms of first names for different authors who have the same surnames and the same initials are used (APA, 2013).

of practical work experience with classroom learning [and engaging students in] applying their disciplinary knowledge in a supervised and nurturing work setting” (p. 835). For Babacan and Babacan (2015), the term WIL is used to refer to “a variety of programmes which provide students with a range of workplace experiences and/or formal learning which are part of a course of study in higher education” (p. 171). WIL has also been defined as a process of engaging and preparing students for workplace knowledge and employability through collaboration among actors having various roles and backgrounds, working in partnerships to provide for students’ professional learning through a practicum (Fleming & Hickey, 2013; Lillejord & Børte, 2016). In WIL, students step out of their academic knowledge zones to become involved in their work-based learning (Smith-Ruig, 2014) where they gain the workplace skills and work-ready attitudes that supposedly give them more possibilities for employment. Thus, the meaning of WIL changes across time and space, eliminating earlier definitions, sometimes making an advance in understanding, but perhaps in other instances, this is not the case.

As a researcher in this field, I needed an appreciation of WIL and keywords associated with it. However, I also came to recognise that the confusion or ambiguities in definitions express the contested and contestable meanings of WIL, contests that are integral to the struggle to control this field, and the larger intellectual culture of which it is a part (Gallie, 1955; Leary, 2018). On the one hand, WIL in teacher education can be better understood through developing knowledge of its keywords. On the other hand, it is necessary to be mindful that the ambiguities in their definitions express contested and contestable meanings. Here, there is a need to be attentive to keywords in research as their meanings change in response to, and as an expression of the power struggles in teacher education, and higher education more generally, usually serving to enhance and maintain dominating interests (Williams, 2014). To further understand the structure of WIL in higher education, the next section considers issues of contemporary relevance to this topic as they relate to the contributions of WIL in language teacher education.

## **2.4 Rationale for work-integrated learning in higher education**

Research in WIL is situated in, and critically examined within, its sociohistorical context. WIL in higher education is meant to be organised to contribute to formulating common agendas around the linking of work and education among universities, employers, civil society agencies, and governments. Specifically, universities have made it their mission to prepare graduates for employability, often to meet the requirements of external accreditation authorities (Jonck, 2014; Patton, 2017; L. Tran & Soejatminah, 2017). For example, for language teacher education students in Australia, graduates are required to meet the accreditation standards of the NSW Education Standards Authority (NESA), which has requirements for WIL (Walkington, 2010). Because employers increasingly demand work-readiness of graduates, governments want to promote university–industry collaborations (Patton, 2017). According to Taylor and Govender (2017), the common agendas for organising connections between work and education through WIL are framed around issues such as

1. the benefits to academia include a strengthening of important industry ties;
2. valuable input from workplace managers to ensure that academic programmes being offered remain relevant and current;
3. complying with national and international socio-economic imperatives; and, most significantly,
4. higher education institutions industry partnerships ensure that students are able to graduate with at least some workplace experience and possibly to secure employment. (p. 109)

Typically, WIL presents challenges and opportunities with the move from knowing university-based knowledge to getting to know, and integrating it with workplace knowledge. For Abernethy, Drummond, and Bevan (2015), undertaking WIL should provide “students the opportunity to explore and expand on theoretical concepts encountered throughout their academic studies in real-life context[s] and application[s], assisting students in their transition from educational to professional practice informed by experience, engagement and

reflection” (p. 88). Likewise, Smith-Ruig (2014) stated that “WIL enables students to transfer or apply knowledge gained through their formal university education to the reality of the workplace” (p. 773).

Ostensibly, WIL is embraced by higher education to enhance students’ employability (Jackson, 2013). Employability refers to the possibility of getting job offers based on the relevance or value of the complex learning university students undertake to acquire professional knowledge, practices, and engagement strategies, including the capability to critically reflect on these (Oliver, 2015). Taylor and Govender (2017) contended that WIL provides “a highly rewarding experience for students [that contributes] to creating employment initiatives; bridging the academic theory–practice gap; and contributing to the creation of future-fit, work-ready graduates” (p. 117). Further, Jonck (2014) reported that students with WIL experience are more likely to be employed right after graduation than students without WIL. These contributions of WIL have positive impact on policy and practice in higher education.

Together, this research explains the rationale for WIL in higher education, suggesting it contribute to a range of important benefits. Despite substantial claims reported in the research literature regarding the range of contributions that WIL in higher education makes, there are problems that lead to new research questions. The organisation of WIL is a complex undertaking. Linking theory and practice across institutions can be as trying as it is advantageous. Likewise, linking education and work across institutions has to deal with changes in the institutions themselves, changes in education, and changes in work. The following section reviews literature that reports concerns about WIL in teacher education, specifically addressing issues in the research relating to organisations, challenges and opportunities, and changes. In canvassing these matters relating to this study, WIL in language teacher education is situated in the broader scholarly literature about the relationships among key phenomena in teacher education. Ambiguities in literature about these important phenomena are noted, providing a basis for proposing a study of new relationships.

## **2.5 Features of work-integrated learning in teacher education**

A key feature of the organisation of WIL is the multistakeholder involvement through partnerships. For Barends and Nel (2017),

A clear purpose for WIL will clarify goals, and articulate expectations and intended outcomes for all the stakeholders involved in WIL, namely, the students, the workplace, the university, the school district, and the community. This will ensure that strong partnerships develop in suitable contexts that facilitate integrated, supported student learning. (p. 3)

The key stakeholders contribute to constructing curriculum and teaching practices, student supervision and mentoring, student assessment, and continuous improvement of WIL programs (Du Plessis, 2010; Fleming & Hickey, 2013; Lasen et al., 2018; Mahomed & Singh, 2011; Moore et al., 2012; Winchester-Seeto et al., 2016). The multistakeholder relations, thus, indicate the hierarchical status in WIL (Abery et al., 2015; Patton, 2017).

The use of WIL in educating student teachers involves multiple dimensions in its enactment, including “purpose, context, nature of the integration, curriculum issues, learning, partnerships between the university and the workplace or community, and the support provided to the student and the workplace” (Barends & Nel, 2017, p. 3). For Allen and Peach (2011), the “key to the success of the practicum is effective [WIL] partnership arrangements between the university and industry” (p. 3). This is because WIL “aligns academic and workplace practices for the mutual benefit of students and workplaces” (Barends & Nel, 2017, p. 2). As in other disciplines, WIL in teacher education needs partnerships with schools, communities for students’ practicum, internships, or work experience. Due to the involvement of multistakeholders, WIL is implemented in teacher education as the key strategy with all complexities.

There are challenges and opportunities for WIL in teacher education. Where WIL is recognised as a pedagogy, it is seen as “a holistic educational strategy known as cooperative education, which advocates the formal integration of structured real-life experiences (workplace or community service) into the overall programme curriculum” (Du Plessis,

2010, p. 206). For Mahomed and Singh (2011), a challenge to realise the aim of WIL is “to link theory and practice” (p. 505) in educating preservice teachers. Students are “exposed to theory within the university classrooms and then they go out to schools for WIL and apply this theory learnt in school classrooms” (Barends & Nel, 2017, p. 10). This understanding of the relationship between theory and practice presents a challenge, as it fails to recognise the opportunity of engaging with workplace theorising.

WIL is a key strategy in preparing students for the teaching profession through engaging them with professional learning activities in workplaces, typically schools (Dimenäs & Norlund, 2014). According to Smith and Worsfold (2015), WIL curricula involve students in “professional, work, or other practice settings that are directly relevant to their discipline studies” (p. 22). WIL provides students with hands-on experiences (Pham et al., 2018), contributing to producing work-ready graduates (Patton, 2017), and is meant to enhance their employability (Jonck, 2014; Smith-Ruig, 2014). As such, WIL “seems to be the ideal way for the student to become an effective teacher” (Du Plessis, 2010, p. 211). However, given the press to build links between educational institutional and (other) workplaces for students, this might suggest that student teachers need exposure to workplaces in addition to schools.

WIL provides student teachers with multiple learning sources and tools with “learning [in] work-based context under the supervision and/or mentorship of a person/s representing the workplace” (Matoti, Junqueira, & Odora, 2011, p. 1141). Students can also learn from workplace peers (Jackson, Ferns, Rowbottom, & McLaren, 2015; Trede, 2012). Riese, Samara, and Lillejord (2012) referred to a peer in peer learning as “a student in the same cohort or learning situation . . . [involving] interdependence, scaffolding, and tutoring” (p. 602). The peers interact in a “reciprocal learning relationship . . . for their mutual benefit” (Meschitti, 2018, p. 1). For Silverman et al. (2017), cross-age peer learning refers to situations in which younger students learn from older students who are assumed more knowledgeable.

With virtual and online WIL, student teachers have the opportunities to use “online communication technologies without being physically based in a workplace. Such projects are typically team-based, and students engage with workplace peers and supervisors using a



range of communication tools, including Skype, blogs, online chat and email” (Jackson et al., 2015, p. 49). At a time when social media is increasingly used in learning and teaching (Boddy & Dominelli, 2017), WIL student teachers have more opportunities for learning with their peers and mentors. For example, the use of student-managed Facebook groups provides a space for learning opportunities (Aaen, 2016). However, there are concerns about social media, especially what is done with the information circulated via this technology, what happens when information systems are hacked, and what surveillance purposes it is being put to.

WIL is also meant to facilitate conditions necessary for transformative learning (Abery et al., 2015). Specifically, “through full engagement with workplace practices students will also be able to transform practice” (Patton, 2017, p. 168), and they generate “new perspectives, refining their beliefs and values and . . . transforming the self” (Jackson, 2017, p. 838). Along with supervision and mentoring provided by university academics and workplace mentors, student teachers’ engagement, and their critical reflections in WIL contribute to the process of student teachers’ transformation learning (Liu, 2015). The question arises as to whether such transformative learning in WIL produces transformations in WIL, or whether other factors have a more significance influence on affecting its change. The next section reviews the literature on the factors affecting WIL in teacher education.

## **2.6 Factors affecting work-integrated learning**

This section reviews research into WIL in teacher education, and related literature regarding the organisation of WIL, the challenges and opportunities that arise, and changes in WIL.

### **2.6.1 Organising work-integrated learning**

One of the reasons for organising WIL in teacher education in Australia is that “universities have received much criticism for under-preparing students for the workforce, for being disconnected from reality, and for failing to catch up with industry trends and provide students with an applied understanding of the business world” (Lu et al., 2018, p. 132). WIL partnerships with industry are presented as a response to student teachers’ demand for work exposure as part of their qualifications and are due in part to pressure from

employers (Taylor & Govender, 2017). In teacher education, WIL is organised as an educational strategy for linking theory and practice, engaging student teachers in workplace learning that “integrates periods of academic study with periods of work experience” (Mahomed & Singh, 2011, p. 507). Regarding workplace learning, Pham et al. (2018) contended that WIL is currently “the main avenue for students to gain hands-on experiences” (p. 63). In South Africa, education–industry WIL partnerships are on the increase “due to the fact that classroom-based instruction alone does not produce future-fit graduates who are adequately equipped for the workplace” (Govender & Taylor, 2015, p.46). Likewise, with the emphasis on building better theory–practice connections, WIL “is being mandated in an increasing number of university programs in Australia” (Bilsland & Nagy, 2015, p. 185).

Klatt et al. (2017) contended that “partnerships between schools, businesses and community organisations influence young people’s participation in education and training, providing them with significant and long-term benefits for their employability, health, wellbeing and lifelong earnings” (p. 220). Beyond the multiple benefits of WIL partnerships, organising stakeholder commitment, time, resources, and personal energy are critical concerns (Fleming & Hickey, 2013). The operational practicalities of WIL raise many organisational issues, including the costs for student teachers to participate, and the increased workload for both university and industry staff.

Student teachers participating in WIL face various challenges, including costs (Bilgin, Rowe, & Clark, 2017). The financial pressures associated with the cost of WIL participation that student teachers incur can have unintended impacts on student teachers’ performance and their wellbeing (Grant-Smith, de Zwaan, Chapman, & Gillett-Swan, 2018). In Australia, international students find that the cost pressure restricts their WIL participation because “international students are reluctant to undertake [a] work-integrated learning program as this is often designed as an extended dimension of their program” (L. Tran & Soejatminah, 2017, p. 264).

Another issue involved in organising WIL programs resides in the demands it places on the workload of both academics and workplace mentors and supervisors (Bates, 2011). Assessing student teachers in WIL is one of the workload problems for staff, with their being

“a lack of evidence on the amount of time involved in assessment of student learning, as well as other aspects of WIL teaching” (Bilgin et al., 2017, p. 167). In early childhood teacher education, for instance, the workload that academics incur in WIL reveals the complexities that “this form of work involves in efforts to sustain meaningful, reciprocal partnerships over time” (Jovanovic, Fane, & Andrew, 2018, p. 93). Further, Jovanovic et al. (2018) reported that for academics engaged in WIL, their workload is poorly acknowledged in their university’s workload model. An example of the workload demands created by WIL is that such programs require continuous contact “with industry partners to ensure the timely return of industry-based assessments for finalization of student grades . . . a unique feature of (many forms of) WIL workload” (Bilgin et al., 2017, p. 167). The organisation of academics’ workload in WIL programs presents challenges to “the relational foundations of this work and . . . universities [have] to reconsider the nature of their engagement with community in the education of deliberate professionals” (Jovanovic et al., 2018, p. 93).

WIL partnerships between universities and schools or community organisations are organised to make graduates work-ready, and to secure mutual benefits for all parties involved in educating student teachers (Barends & Nel, 2017). For Wang and Wong (2017), school–university WIL partnerships require the organisation of “cross-institutional learning systems in which knowledge is acquired, disseminated, and created among all parties involved” (p. 490). In teacher education, WIL partnerships, such as the practicum, are organised academic linkages between universities and schools intended to further student teachers’ professional learning (Lillejord & Børte, 2016). Often, WIL partnerships are collaboratively organised through “co-constructing a curriculum and designing the teaching and learning approaches” (Choy & Delahaye, 2011, p. 159). WIL partnerships in teacher education are organised to be undertaken in a broad range of workplaces with the involvement or support of partnership brokers, local businesses offering work placements, external vocational education providers, and non-educational community institutions (Klatt et al., 2017).

Teacher education programs often organise the incorporation of external sources of knowledge through WIL partnerships. For Wang and Wong (2017), “the significance of

school–university partnerships lies on the intersection of multiple communities and convergence of different knowledge” (p. 490). Organising WIL partnerships between the university and industry or community is important (Allen & Peach, 2011). However, the “stakeholders involved in WIL [partnerships] are also not always clear of what their role is and how they should contribute to student learning” (Barends & Nel, 2017, p. 10). For instance, Bilsland and Nagy (2015) reported that organisational disconnections in communication can pose challenges for WIL stakeholders, especially when “the essential link between WIL stakeholders at the front lines (student, academic adviser, and work supervisor) does not currently exist” (p. 194). Problems of stakeholder relationships in WIL are recurrent problems extensively documented in the literature (Du Plessis, 2010; Lasen et al., 2018; Patton, 2017; Smith & Worsfold, 2015).

WIL partnerships are organised to promote mutual benefits for students and workplaces, as well as universities (Barends & Nel, 2017). However, Klatt et al. (2017) indicated that there is often “limited discussion about the role and nature of these [stakeholder] relationships and the challenges associated with their establishment and long-term sustainability” (p. 218). Regarding stakeholder relationships, “it is unlikely that workplace negotiations can really be mutual or reciprocal, or equally shared or balanced. In order to access workplace learning opportunities, students often need to negotiate hierarchical workplace relationships” (Patton, 2017, p. 165). In teacher education, the organisational relationships between student teachers and workplace supervisors have been identified as the source of dilemmas that have been undertheorised (Dimenäs & Norlund, 2014).

Problems in organising WIL partnerships also reside in policy (Jonck, 2014). Specifically, in a study of WIL in Việt Nam, evidence of the links among institutions, workplaces, and students indicated that the program’s lack of sustainability was due to the impact of government policy on WIL curriculum design that had to be approved by the Ministry of Education and General Department of Vocational Training (Khuong, 2016). A problem for WIL teacher education is that it is “a mechanism for achieving ends determined elsewhere according to urgent political agendas. Teacher education has increasingly been

positioned as a ‘policy problem’ (Mayer, 2014, p. 467). As a policy field, WIL teacher education “embraces the governed as well as governors, and its composition also changes through time” (Wright, 2016, p. 61). The organisation of WIL teacher education is subject to changes by stakeholder management and policy that do not recognise the impact of their decisions on such programs (Smith & Worsfold, 2015). Having reviewed literature relating to the question of organising WIL, the next section reviews literature relating to the challenges and opportunities in WIL teacher education.

### **2.6.2 Challenges and opportunities in work-integrated learning**

One of the challenges in WIL in teacher education is mentoring. Much research of mentoring in WIL has been conducted (Barends & Nel, 2017; Bilsland & Nagy, 2015; Du Plessis, 2010; H. Nguyen, 2017). Smith-Ruig (2014) defined mentoring as a

social learning and is a means by which to provide work-integrated or contextual learning for the student [that] enables the student to understand and learn about the realities of a workplace and their intended profession through information passed on by their mentor and from direct involvement in their mentor’s workplace. (p. 771)

In WIL teacher education, mentoring refers to the role of workplace supervisors as “mentors [who] perform career-related functions including sponsorship, exposure-and-visibility, coaching, protection, and challenging assignments. They also provide psychosocial functions, including role modelling, acceptance-and-confirmation, counselling, and friendship” (H. Nguyen, 2017, pp. 33–34). However, in a study investigating the role of WIL in preparing preservice teachers for work, Barends and Nel (2017) found that “few teachers [as mentors] receive training or preparation for mentoring [the student teachers in WIL]” (p. 5). Jackson (2018a) echoed this finding, reporting that the challenge of mentoring is that “some workplace supervisors simply may not have the skills required [to be mentors] . . . due to a lack of formal training (p. 558).

Typically, student teacher supervision in WIL in teacher education involves parallel supervisory relationship between the university academics, and the workplace supervisor. Such student teacher supervision is one of the key strategies in WIL (Abery et al., 2015; L.

Tran & Soejatminah, 2017). However, this form of mentoring is “the least understood and remains under-theorized and largely under-explored” (Winchester-Seeto et al., 2016, p. 101). Moreover, Winchester-Seeto et al. (2016) reported that while “hosts and academics do work together, particularly around administrative activities . . . this is not addressed in any of the theoretical models” (p. 112).

Assessment is another challenge in WIL in teacher education. WIL is supposed to help student teachers with the development of their workplace knowledge and employability skills (Lasen et al., 2018). However, with regard to the challenges of WIL assessment, Lasen et al. (2018) stated that “there is no existing systematic literature review of the quality of assessment design in WIL” (p. 3). Smith (2016) reported that assessing student teachers’ capabilities to apply knowledge in the workplace is less well researched. Not surprisingly, “there is much debate regarding the optimum way of measuring the acquisition and development” (Allen & Peach, 2011, p. 2) of professional knowledge, practices, and engagement strategies. In preparing student teachers through WIL, Du Plessis (2010) argued that assessing students’ professional competence and giving feedback to the university are major challenges.

Ferns and Zegwaard (2014) indicated that there is “a lack of understanding of the underpinning theory of assessment design and application” (p. 181) in WIL. The challenge here is that this absence affects the accuracy of assessing student teachers’ professional learning and development. Likewise, for Smith (2016), the lack of assessment rubrics is a problem of quality assurance in WIL. Specifically,

curricula are designed that implement work-based learning or work experience, instead of work-integrated learning. Yet, all these curricula are on occasion grouped together under one rubric. This is a problem of greater consequence than mere definitional fogginess; specifically, clarity around this notion helps to make the implications for assessment and quality assurance practices much clearer, for the way we assess and what we assure depend totally on what we intend students to have learned. (p. 347)

For Ferns and Zegwaard (2014), the challenges of WIL assessment lie in the impact of other factors on the learning outcomes for student teachers. This challenge arises because student teachers

seldom work alone in the workplace—indeed often one of the desired learning outcomes of a WIL placement is the ability to work within professional teams resulting in highly variable learning inputs outside the control of either the student or the university. (p. 179)

Student teachers cannot engage in independent teaching of students; they must always be supervised by a registered teacher. This requirement poses challenges for their WIL assessment. Mahomed and Singh (2011) highlighted another challenge of student teacher assessment in WIL in teacher education, namely, that “standards of assessment are not always common to all stakeholders” (p. 508). Similarly, Allen and Peach (2011) reported on the challenges posed by stakeholder tensions about the nature and role of assessment during the practicum and student teachers being confused about the different tasks given to them by the university and the school staff. Balancing the stakeholders’ expectations and student teachers’ learning outcomes poses challenges for WIL assessment. This challenge arises because “universities typically retain responsibility for WIL assessment given time and resource constraints, [while] student learning outcomes are variably impacted by supervisor–student relationships, workplace dynamics and the levels of support provided” (Lasen et al., 2018, p. 2). Regarding stakeholder relations in WIL assessment, Ferns and Zegwaard (2014) reported that “to avoid the issue of uncontrollable variability, employers’ work performance evaluation is not included in the student’s overall result. [The argument is] that employers are not academic staff and, therefore, not appropriate individuals to be involved with student assessment” (p. 183). In contrast, research indicates that industry partners can make a contribution to assessing student teachers’ work performance. For instance, Jackson (2018a) reported,

Industry feedback can facilitate deep learning in WIL, complemented by feed-forward which can help guide students on how to improve future performance. It serves to clarify what is expected of a worker, helps them to monitor their own

progress, enhances confidence in their work and raises aspirations and goals of what they can achieve, provides guidance on how to improve and can lead to enhanced workplace performance and career success. (p. 558)

However, the involvement of workplace supervisors in WIL assessment in teacher education encounters challenges. For Dimenäs and Norlund (2014), there is the challenge of determining what is to be assessed by the mentor teachers because assessment not only emphasises procedures but also “social, emotional and caring aspects of teachers’ work. The communication and dialogue with the student are often based on their own experiences and rarely has any connection to educational research” (p. 1). The challenge here concerns connecting research-based and practice-based knowledge. The challenge in WIL assessment occurs because “knowledge that [mentor] teachers possess is largely different from what university experts are equipped with. The former is tended to be practical, technical, and context specific, whereas the latter is considerably theoretical, propositional, and general” (Wang & Wong, 2017, p. 490). The mentoring and assessment challenges in WIL are significant for this study, but are not the only issues of concern in this field. The next section provides a review of literature relating to the question of change in WIL in teacher education.

### **2.6.3 Changing work-integrated learning**

WIL is used as a strategy to “link academia with the profession during the students’ practical parts of teacher education” (Dimenäs & Norlund, 2014, p. 1). Student teachers’ professional learning opportunities are extended through WIL partnerships. For Choy and Delahaye (2011), WIL partnerships lead to changes as a result of the sharing knowledge between academics and industry representatives. Thus, change in teacher education occurs since there is a shift in power/knowledge relations because “a partnership for WIL implies that academics are no longer the dominant players” (Choy & Delahaye, 2011, p. 158). The shift in power/knowledge relations away from academics in university-based education opens up possibilities for others to use the emerging power/knowledge relations to enable or constrain the use of power in knowledge production, and the use of knowledge to do likewise with respect to networks of power relations (Foucault, 1976). For Patton (2017), “work-integrated learning is a multifaceted phenomenon, which involves complex webs of power,



acceptance into a work community, and transformation of both learners and work communities” (p. 164). In effect, these complex webs of power and knowledge transform WIL in teacher education itself.

Key stakeholders from education institutions, and local schools are supposed to share their knowledge, practices, and engagement strategies to enhance the capabilities of those entering the teaching profession. In doing so, they contribute to changes in WIL in teacher education. These changes to WIL in teacher education arise because universities, education departments, and schools have to “accept that their common goal of preparing effective teachers (i.e. pre-service, induction and continuous development) for improved learner achievement cannot be achieved without each other’s full participation” (Barends & Nel, 2017, p. 5). The changes in WIL in teacher education arise as partners work on “co-constructing a curriculum, and designing the teaching and learning approaches for worker–learners” (Choy & Delahaye, 2011, p. 159). In this context, WIL involves collaboration between teacher educators and workplace mentors in which “teacher educators and cooperating teachers play a critical role in helping prospective teachers achieve transformation through constructive criticism, and open deliberation on alternatives” (Liu, 2015, p. 146). Likewise, WIL in teacher education is changed through constructive criticism, and open deliberation about alternatives. Workplace knowledge, practices, and engagement strategies are the focus and priority in WIL programs. Mahomed and Singh (2011) stated that the “curriculum frameworks for WIL are formalised and structured by the goals, activities and culture of the work practice” (p. 508). In terms of the changing power/knowledge relations produced through WIL programs, Wang and Wong (2017) contended that the “power structure in the partnership is determined by whose knowledge is prioritised” (p. 501). However, for Foucault (1980), “power and knowledge are integrated with one another, and there is no point in dreaming of a time when knowledge will cease to depend on power (p. 52). In other words, Foucault (1980) would see power as productive of the specific knowledge claims that shape the organisation of WIL programs. From this perspective, this research can be understood as a mechanism of creating multiple forms of WIL knowledge by drawing in otherwise marginalised voices, both residual and emergent, as well as for questioning taken-for-granted dominant knowledge/power relations. By drawing on these

multiple forms of knowledge – dominant, residual and emergent, this research provides a better understanding of the complexities that shape organisational generation, sharing and use of WIL programs.

Thus, changes of power/knowledge relations in WIL partnership arrangements are “characterized by formal and profound collaboration and negotiation between mentors and the faculty of the teacher education institute, by shared power, transparent responsibilities, and professional development of all participants” (Rots, Aeltermann, & Devos, 2014, p. 292). Changes in WIL programs indicate the complexities in which their enactment and management is embedded. These changes can be driven by the direct or indirect “involvement of external partners in WIL [the impact of which] varies depending on the model of WIL, availability of the host supervisor and nature of activity that students are undertaking” (Bilgin et al., 2017, p. 169). Another important driver of change in WIL programs emerges from the workplaces. For instance, Patton (2017) observed that

workplaces are contested spaces where workers can be welcomed or not, and every action can be accepted or challenged. The workplace as a learning environment can therefore be understood as a complex negotiation about roles, processes, and participation in situated work activities. (p. 165)

Additionally, the changes in work itself, for instance, changes relating to the official curriculum and changes in teaching and administration staff in schools, education departments, and universities, can cause changes in WIL in teacher education. Such changes impact the workload and stakeholder relationships of those immediately involved (Smith & Worsfold, 2015). Thus, the problems in WIL in teacher education include the challenges of dealing with the changes borne of the changing power/knowledge relations (Foucault, 1977; 1980) in which they find themselves implanted. The next section elaborates the literature of empirical research to seek to address concerns in key factors in WIL in language teacher education.

## 2.7 Discussion

This literature review provides a useful understanding of the structure of the field in which WIL in language teacher education is situated; important issues of contemporary relevance to WIL in language teacher education; and knowledge of WIL vocabulary in particular. Here, I summarise key points from this review of the research literature. Overall, it should be noted that no research literature that was found relates specifically to the organisation of WIL for English and Chinese language teacher education, the challenges and opportunities involved in conducting WIL in these areas of language teacher education, nor the ways in which changes in these particular areas are expressed, and responded to. Nevertheless, the literature on WIL in teacher education, and higher education more generally, provides insights into what to expect from this study of the factors affecting WIL in two language teacher education programs in Việt Nam and Australia (Bilsland & Nagy, 2015; Jackson, 2017; Khuong, 2016; Moore et al., 2012). Perhaps, more importantly, this review served to identify several key concepts, while identified in the literature as undertheorised, and thus provided a basis for refining the focus of the research questions initially stated in Chapter 1.

Typically, WIL is organised through partnerships with industry to prepare work-ready graduates based on negotiated agendas about work and education, and their interrelationships (Patton, 2017; Smith-Ruig, 2014; Taylor & Govender, 2017). The features of WIL depend on the partnership's organisation of student teachers' preparation for professional work through their degrees, rather than gaining experience afterwards (Govender & Taylor, 2015; Jovanovic et al., 2018). However, organising the linkages between campus-based learning and professional workplace learning is not without problems, especially those associated with assessing students' learning, and the ongoing management of stakeholder relationships (Jackson, 2017; Lasen et al., 2018). Disconnections between education institutions and industry provide a key organisational concern (Bilsland & Nagy, 2015; Khuong, 2016). The literature has addressed the importance of connections in managing WIL programs (Dimenäs & Norlund, 2014; Smith-Ruig, 2014). However, none of the studies reviewed here have examined WIL programs for the organisation of connections and disconnections. Thus, in

addressing the first contributory research question in this study, the expressions of, and responses to, changes in English and Chinese language teacher education WIL programs are explored.

WIL student teachers are collaboratively educated by university supervisors and their workplace mentors (Choy & Delahaye, 2011; Fleming & Hickey, 2013; Lillejord & Børte, 2016; Liu, 2015). However, a challenge for WIL in teacher education is to generate connections between academic knowledge, and workplace knowledge to further student teachers' professional learning while also making connections with knowledge provided or required by institutional stakeholders in education that include teacher accreditation and registration authorities, such as NESAs (Barends & Nel, 2017; Mahomed & Singh, 2011). However, mismatched expectations, and disparate views between stakeholders in WIL partnerships may affect student teachers' professional learning (Winchester-Seeto et al., 2016). Other challenges in WIL include stakeholder commitment to the partnership and issues of time, workload, resources, and personal energy (Bilgin et al., 2017; Fleming & Hickey, 2013; Grant-Smith et al., 2018; L. Tran & Soejatminah, 2017). Further, the dilemmas in student-supervisor relationships and communications between university and workplaces (Bilsland & Nagy, 2015; Dimenäs & Norlund, 2014) raise concerns about WIL. The second contributory research question in this study focused on the challenges and opportunities that arise in conducting English and Chinese language teacher education through WIL. The dilemmas posed by the challenges and opportunities identified in this study are examined.

Through involving multiple partners, WIL creates changes in teaching practices, including shifting the learning environment, the roles of stakeholders, the power/knowledge relations (Foucault, 1977; 1980) among stakeholders, and the workload that university staff and workplace supervisors have to incur (Bates, 2011; Patton, 2017; Winchester-Seeto et al., 2016), leading to more tensions. For Foucault (1980), power relations correlate with and constitute fields of knowledge, and knowledge simultaneously pre-supposes, and constitutes power relations; particularly in what people do in their knowing interactions with one another. People are the products of power/knowledge as much as they are the wielders of power/knowledge (see also Heizmann & Olsson, 2015). One of the debates in the literature

(Allen & Peach, 2011; Ferns & Zegwaard, 2014; Patton, 2017) indicated that the pressures for change in WIL programs produce tensions evident in challenges, and opportunities for the organisation of WIL. In making sense of the recent, relevant literature on WIL in higher education, and specifically in teacher education, it was possible to gain insights into the changes likely to affect WIL in language teacher education programs (Bates, 2011; Smith & Worsfold, 2015). A significant issue emerging from this literature review concerns the shifts in Power /Knowledge relations that WIL in teacher education programs respond to and are an expression of changes (Bilgin et al., 2017; Smith & Worsfold, 2015). However, the dominant forces driving changes in WIL programs that were the focus for this study warranted further investigation. Thus, the third contributory research question in this study focused on the issues of connections and disconnections that provided a focus for analysing the evidence of the organisation of WIL in English and Chinese language teacher education that help students' professional learning.

At this point, it is important to note that the review brought to the fore three important concepts, namely, dominance, dilemmas, and connections and disconnections. These concepts are seen as offering possibilities for making a modest contribution to the advancement of knowledge of WIL in language teacher education. However, while these concepts are mentioned in the literature, they need to be further developed to provide a suitable theoretical framework for this study.

## **2.8 Conclusion**

The search for research literature relating specifically to WIL for English and Chinese language teacher education did not prove fruitful. While such literature might exist, the search conducted for this study did not produce literature on the organisation of, or the challenges and opportunities involved in, conducting WIL in these areas of language teacher education, nor changes in these particular areas. Nevertheless, this chapter provided an account of the intellectual context in which the study reported in this thesis is situated. Based on the methods used to conduct the systematic review reported in this chapter, it provided a reasonably comprehensive study of what is currently known about the research topic. The method for conducting this systematic review of the research literature, including the criteria

for including and excluding literature, proved most fitting for conducting this study. The goals of this systematic review of the recent, relevant research literature were to integrate research findings across recent studies, to foreground scholarly debates that are current within the field, and to critically analyse previous research to identify key issues and explicate lines of arguments within the field.

In conducting this literature review, the procedures, and tools used in the search for the literature to be reviewed were reported. Primary sources were used for reviewing the literature in preference to relying on secondary sources. Likewise, attention was given to identifying and reviewing relevant, recent sources of literature related to the focus of this study, including defining pertinent concepts, albeit while being mindful of their contested nature. Thus, the multisite case study of WIL in language teacher education reported in this thesis was embedded in relevant research literature. In conducting this literature review, it was necessary to anticipate relating this literature to the material presented in the evidentiary chapters (5, 6 and 7), and the discussion of key finding in Chapter 8. In Chapter 8, this literature provides a basis for establishing the contribution to advancing knowledge made by this study to current scholarly debates and issues in this field. Chapter 3 elaborates on three concepts touched on by the literature reviewed in this chapter, specifically dominance, dilemmas, connections and disconnections.

**Chapter 3:**  
**Conceptual Framework for Investigating Work-Integrated Learning in Language  
Teacher Education**

**3.1 Introduction**

By using the research literature review within the field of WIL in language teacher education, Chapter 2 explained how this thesis makes an original, albeit modest, contribution to the advancement of knowledge of WIL in language teacher education, the subject of this research. In Chapter 2, the complexities of WIL in teacher education were evident in its variable definitions and processes, dynamic interrelations, and historically varied and variable elements. This called for conceptual tools that could explore the features, and issues of WIL in language teacher education programs. Given that the dominant theories in this field are produced and disseminated largely in English, this study contributes to knowledge by using theory triangulation (Bennett, 1997; Carter et al., 2014) through incorporating English and Tiếng Việt concepts as conceptual resources into the theoretical framework, with justifications, and procedures elaborated in this chapter. Theory triangulation entails the use of concepts from several different frames of reference or theoretical perspectives in the analysis of evidence from the same data set (Rawnsley, 1997). The purpose of theory triangulation is to capture, and report multiple conceptualisations of a given research phenomenon, rather than to test which theory offers a better explanation of it. Thus, the framework that follows was developed on the expectation that it would reveal points of congruence and correspondence across evidence from the data set about selected elements of WIL in language teacher education.

This chapter starts with distinguishing theory and theorising in contributing to knowledge. The chapter then initiates the appropriation, elaboration, and critique of the ideas of Williams (1977), Berlak and Berlak (1981), and Munro (1997) while also discussing the intended uses of these concepts in this study. Before incorporating English and Tiếng Việt concepts into the theoretical framework used in the study reported in this thesis, procedures

of theorising process using Tiếng Việt metaphors are described, and justified using postmonolingual research methodologies (M. Singh, 2017b, 2018b, 2019).

While using theory triangulation, which shares characteristics of theory synthesis and constructs an interrelated system of ideas from evidence (Bennett, 1997; Rawnsley, 1997), is worth doing, exploring how a theory is made is of significance. The next section explains theory and theorising that are appropriate for the purpose of this study.

### **3.2 Theory and theorising**

Theory ranges from “summarized observations to chains of mathematical formulae, from broadly received classics to newly minted speculations” (Markovsky, 2008, p. 424) and is the expected outcome of theorising (Hammond, 2018).

This chapter presents another way in which the research reported in this thesis makes a meaningful contribution to knowledge in this field. Specifically, it introduces a new line of theory to the analysis of evidence in this field using key concepts from Williams (1977), Berlak and Berlak (1981), and Munro (1997). Williams (1977) studied cultural practices associated with dominant, residual, and emergent cultural phenomenon; Berlak and Berlak (1981) analysed the dilemmas of schooling, and Munro (1997) investigated connections and disconnections in organisational control. Introducing these theoretical tools to this study of WIL in language teacher education is necessary because the literature points to, but does not elaborate upon, dilemmas of WIL (Jackson, 2018a), connections and disconnections in the organisational control of WIL (Bates, 2011; Smith-Ruig, 2014), and tensions in WIL associated with dominant, residual, and emergent organisational culture (Pham et al., 2018; Winchester-Seeto et al., 2016).

The word theoretical means “going to see the world, meeting with other cultures, exploring their resources, questioning their traditions and conceptions” (Jullien, 2014, p. 61). In setting out to see the world beyond my home village, I have had the chance to engage with other intellectual cultures, to explore their theoretical resources, to question their traditions of knowledge production, and to question their concepts and my own. Thus, I have the potential to be a theorist, too, because I speak and teach English (at university), and speak



Tiếng Việt at home. This research project presented me the opportunity to become a multilingual theorist. However, a key problem for HDRs is that we are “primarily exposed to finished theories and are not [made] aware of the process that goes into the production and design of a theory” (Swedberg, 2016, p. 5).

Learning how to theorise in the context of a doctoral project such as reported in this thesis is especially important for multilingual HDRs who risk becoming academically dependent on the finished intellectual products of theorists’ work only in English (Alatas, 2006; Chen, 2010). For instance, Biesta, Allan, and Edwards (2011) argued for extending capacity building through doctoral education beyond learning relevant research methodologies (e.g. Carr & Kemmis, 2004; Elliot, 2006), and methods (e.g., Yin, 2014) to include the extension of HDRs’ capabilities for theorising. M. Singh (2009, 2010, 2011, 2012, 2017a) worked to redress this lack of attention to deepening HDRs’ capabilities for theorising through doctoral education. Singh and his colleagues (see M. Singh, 2010; M. Singh, Harreveld, Gao, & Danaher, 2014; M. Singh & Huang, 2013; M. Singh & Meng, 2013) have pioneered pedagogies for having multilingual HDRs from Việt Nam and elsewhere to activate, mobilise, and deploy their multilingual capabilities for extending and deepening their capabilities for theorising using the multiple intellectual resources their full linguistic repertoire.

Theorising is intellectual labour. Like all aspects of research, theorising involves the scaffolding of trial-and-error process. Here, errors are understood as indicators of how far one has come on the journey out into the world, and that one has to travel further to meet with, to explore and question intellectual cultures of one’s own and that of others. Theorising is the scholarly work that transposes everyday language in analytical concepts. Theorising is what researchers do to make “sense out of what was happening [as much as] a place where [we] could imagine possible futures, a place where life could be lived differently” (hooks, 1994, p. 61).<sup>8</sup> Specifically, researchers may formulate analytical concepts to make sense of what is happening in WIL in language teacher education, and to imagine other different

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<sup>8</sup> bell hooks is the pen name for Gloria Jean Watkins. This author has made a point in her writing career that she should be referenced as “hooks” rather than “Hooks”.

possibilities by drawing on a diversity of theoretical tools. More than this, theorising aspires to bridge the gap “between theory and practice [creating a] bond between the two [such] that ultimately [they entail a] reciprocal process wherein one enables the other” (hooks, 1994, p. 61).

In this study, my modest efforts at creating a reciprocal relationship between theory and practice were directed at extending the intellectual freedom of multilingual researchers to building a bridge between the conceptual knowledge available to them in their first language, and existing theories produced in English.

Here it is important to recall that the concept “theoretic–linguistic” reminds us that all research is conducted in one language or another. In planning this study, the task I set was to construct, and test a theoretical framework from the existing intellectual resources in this field, and to use conceptual tools that have not been framed for researching WIL in language teacher education. This section justifies why theoretic–linguistic resources are used in research education, and in my doctoral research project. Consideration is given to a combination of factors including understanding how a theory is put together as well as the capability for doing so, understanding how theorising is undertaken in empirical research such as this study, and how much it can be taught/learnt in an effective manner. The next section provides concepts that were used as part of the theoretical framework in this study.

### **3.3 Williams’s (1977) dominant, residual, and emergent educational cultures**

Williams’s (1977; 2014) work continues to inspire many researchers including those involved in workers’ education (e.g. Hands, 2014; Higgins, 2013; McGuigan, 2014; Reinelt, 2015; West, 2017). The Raymond Williams Society was founded in 1989 to support, and develop intellectual and political projects in areas broadly connected with his work. It publishes *Key Words: A Journal of Cultural Materialism*; at the time of finalising this thesis the latest issue is number 16 which was published in 2018. The aim of this peer-reviewed journal is to provide a forum for critical thought on exploring the historical and political role of literary, media and cultural forms in the contemporary moment.

In summarising Williams's (1977) concepts of the materiality of culture, I included examples related to this study in order to deepen understanding of them. In terms of this study, what is significant about Williams's (1977) concepts is his interweaving of residual, emergent, and dominant cultures that provides an intellectually exciting way of looking at how individuals account for their WIL actions and practices (see also Thomas, 2017; Ventura, 2015; West, 2017). With Higgins (1995), I recognise that the object of Williams's (1977) theory of cultural materialism was a forerunner or predecessor of Foucault's (1980) poststructuralism. I suggest that Williams's theory has continuing relevance, particularly in relation to the study of work integrated learning in language teacher education. Likewise, I see that a central feature of William's study was its focus on the constitutive relations between language, and cultural constructions. This focus, emphasis, and concern was apparent in Foucault's discussions of power and knowledge. This study gives recognition to at least some of the questions raised by Williams as being relevant to much contemporary analyses in education, including the working of power and knowledge. Thus, individuals engaged in WIL in language teacher education programs are likely to be using their intellectual agency to experience residual, emergent, and dominant cultures of higher education as much as they are being shaped by these. Specifically, Williams's (1977) concepts of dominant, residual, and emergent cultures provide a framework for better understanding the ways in which WIL in language teacher education operate to maintain stability and balance in the face of complex, dynamic changes. Reinelt (2015) argues that concepts of residual cultures and emergent cultures are useful for analysing the currently dominant, hegemonic culture of neo-liberalism. Concomitantly, in terms of this study, the concepts dominant, residual and emergent cultures are useful for avoiding binary conception of WIL programs. These concepts are valuable for considering efforts of researchers and educators to work out ways how work and learning can coexist and to transform WIL structures and practices that make up our collective life together.

### **3.3.1 Dominant educational culture**

For Williams (1977), dominant interests are the force of power/knowledge that shape but do not decisively determine culture. Thus, he explored dominant interests through their role in overseeing the residual and emergent cultural mass. Williams (1977) argued that “no dominant social order and therefore no dominant culture ever in reality includes or exhausts all human practice, human energy, and human intention” (p. 125). Likewise, Foucault (1980) challenged the idea that power is exercised by different groups through domination, arguing that power is also exercised through resistance. In Williams’s (1977) work, the dominant culture is readily visible through its power/knowledge (Foucault, 1977; 1980), and in which the residual and emergent cultural mass are immersed. The contradiction between William’s “cultural materialism” and capital’s concomitant need for Foucault’s “discipline and punishment” has not gone unnoticed in this study. However, I understand this contradiction in terms of capital knowledge as well as power knowledge. In other words, like Miklitsch (1995), I do not take a monolithic view of Williams or Foucault (Miklitsch, 1995). The policing that comes with quoting both in the same thesis is accented here, to note at the same time, the consensual relationship between capitalist crisis management and democratic liberal capitalism in this age of dissensus. For Foucault (1977, 1980) power/knowledge combines into a unified whole the deployment of power and the establishment of knowledge claims. Power/knowledge refers to both the elicitation of knowledge about those who undergo an examination or investigation, and the exercise of power over their behaviour, for instance, by directing them to follow one course or another.

The dominant culture is embodied in and by society’s ruling and powerful ruling interests. For Mahtabi and Eslamieh (2015), the dominant culture is “the most powerful, widespread, and influential culture in a society in which multiple cultures exist” (p. 167). For instance, in this study, the dominating culture in higher education today focuses on institutions operating as businesses and serving the interests of industry. However, at the same time, there are residual practices of face-to-face, on-campus tutorials (Dyment & Downing, 2018) and emergent multilingual research practices (Liddicoat, 2016; M. Singh, 2018a). Thus, while English-only monolingualism tends to dominate the intellectual culture of Australian universities where many HDRs are multilingual, other perspectives are also

contending for a place in university knowledge production and dissemination, with residual views promoting English-only monolingualism and some newer practices of multilingualism emerging. However, these residual and emergent cultures are “reinterpreted, diluted, projected” (Mahtabi & Eslamieh, 2015, p. 167) for selective incorporation into the dominating culture of higher education; otherwise, they are marginalised or repressed. For much of the time, the dominant culture successfully incorporates or marginalises these residual and emergent cultures, but there are times when it is not so successful.

### **3.3.2 Residual educational culture**

Reinelt (2015) sees it as necessary to investigate the possibilities of certain residual cultural practices from an earlier time which have not been either folded into, absorbed, or have been rejected by this dominant culture. Taken as an example of residual intellectual culture, Williams’s (1977) work is investigated in this study for the possibilities it presents for analysing evidence of WIL, because it has not been folded into or absorbed by today’s dominant scholarly culture, or has been rejected by some as ‘old’ (see also Alonso Trigueros, 2014; Fuchs, 2017). What Williams (1977) means by residual culture is those experiences, meanings, and values that have been “formed in the past, but [are] still active in the [dominant] cultural process, [that is] not only and often not at all as an element of the past, but as an effective element of the present” (p. 122). Residual culture means those beliefs and practices that are derived from an earlier stage of society, some of which reflect a different dominant sociocultural formation than the present dominant culture. Elements of a residual culture may remain long after the sociocultural conditions that made it a dominant culture in the past have disappeared. Thus, the presence of some residual cultures may still be felt. Moreover, for Williams (1977), a crucial aspect of the residual culture is that it “may have an alternative or even oppositional relation to the dominant culture” (p. 122). Differing from archaic, outdated, and abandoned cultural practices, this residual culture is active in shaping the dominant culture, even though it did not originate from it.

Williams’s (1977) concept of residual culture could refer to old sociocultural practices that continue to have a continuing presence in 21st-century higher education, either knowingly or unconsciously. In this study, Williams’s (1977) concept of “residual culture”

was used to analyse evidence of those accessible features of the past that are included in the culture of higher education, although their place in the present day educational cultural processes is variable. Typically, the residual elements of an educational culture are at some distance from what is the current dominant educational culture (see also Sokka, 2015; Stevenson, 2009; Thomas, 2017; Ventura, 2015). However, some parts or versions of the residual educational culture will be incorporated into the dominant educational culture. This is particularly true for the residue from major areas of the past that are necessary for making sense of or giving meaning to the dominant educational culture. However, the dominant educational culture cannot allow all residual experiences, meanings, and values to be practised without risk. The dominant educational culture only selects aspects of the residual educational culture for active incorporation. For Williams (1977), this work of constituting a “selective tradition” involves the “reinterpretation, dilution, projection, discriminating inclusion and exclusion” (p. 123) of elements of the residual educational culture.

To understand the residual educational culture, it is useful to see it as part of earlier sociocultural formations and phases in the educational culture during which certain meanings, experiences, and values were generated (Williams, 1977). Examples of residual culture in higher education include face-to-face lectures, textbooks, and blended learning (Cuesta Medina, 2018). Thus, certain educational experiences, meanings, and values are lived and practised on the basis that they are the sociocultural residue of some once historically dominant educational institution or formation. In effect, while these past experiences, meanings, and values have a continuing presence in today’s contemporary dominant educational culture, they are not be articulated or certified in any substantial way. Thus, this residual culture is built into the infrastructure of the now dominant higher education enterprises. Moreover, these residual educational experiences, meanings, and values may be activated, mobilised, or otherwise deployed as an alternative or point of opposition to the dominant educational culture.

### **3.3.3 Emergent educational culture**

For Williams (1977), the concept of emergent culture means that “new meanings and values, new practices, new relationships and kinds of relationship are continually being created” (p. 123). Emergent culture refers to the presence in the structure of any educational culture of “a social basis for elements of the cultural process that [is an] alternative or oppositional to the dominant elements” (Williams, 1977, p. 124). One basis for the emergent culture is the coming to consciousness and the formation of a new social category within which there is the emergence of elements of a new formation for educational culture. Operating within the dominating culture, this source of power can offer alternatives or be oppositional. Thus, emergent culture refers to alternatives or opposing stances to the dominant educational culture and not merely novel developments within it. Alternative emergent cultures are less confrontational to the dominating culture, whereas oppositional emergent cultures are more confrontational; both are available for appropriation by the dominant culture. Importantly, Williams (1977) acknowledges that analytically, it is “exceptionally difficult” (p. 123) to distinguish those elements that present a new phase in the dominant educational culture from those that are alternatives or even opposing stances to it.

Thus, within the dominant culture, there are also elements of emergent cultures that offer substantial alternatives or stand in opposition to it. Emergent cultures are different from novel elements in the dominant culture. Emergent cultures are being developed, often unconsciously, out of a new set of sociocultural interactions borne of changes in society, often changes triggered by the dominant culture. Emergent cultures can be different from and actively challenge the dominant culture. Eventually, they may become the dominant culture, but this is not guaranteed. Emergent cultures start on the margins of the dominant culture, which may elect to make them less marginal but are unlikely to become central. Thus, while all dominant cultures were once emergent cultures, not all emergent cultures become the dominant culture.

In higher education, examples of emerging cultures include the expanding interest in postmonolingual knowledge production and dissemination (Lu & Singh, 2017; Shen, 2017);

whether this represents an alternative or an opposing power/knowledge remains to be seen. A new category may be a source of emergent practices in an educational culture, such as the use of metaphors, and concepts from Tiếng Việt for analysing evidence reported in research produced largely in English. Of course, this emergent culture is subordinate to the dominant educational culture of English-only monolingualism with labels such as “non-English-speaking background”. With little support for multilingual research practices, the development of ideas for postmonolingual theorising remains uneven, and incomplete. Not surprisingly, these innovative postmonolingual research practices are isolated within English-dominated universities. Thus, the importance of the research literature review to the degree that postmonolingual theorising emerges will depend on the degree to which it is oppositional rather than alternative to the dominant monolingual English-only educational culture. This dependence also includes processes whereby English-dominated universities attempt to incorporate, and contain the possibilities that postmonolingual theorising represents. In this context, this study makes a small but nonetheless significant contribution to advancing knowledge of postmonolingual research, and doctoral education.

In this study, Williams’s (1977) concepts of dominant, residual, and emergent cultures were used to analyse evidence of how WIL partner organisations, groups, and individuals negotiate, contradict, or subvert power/knowledge relations (Foucault, 1977; 1980). For the purposes of this study, it is acknowledged that

1. power produces knowledge (and not simply by encouraging it because it serves power or by applying it because it is useful);
2. power and knowledge directly imply one another;
3. there is no power relation without the correlative constitution of a field of knowledge, nor any knowledge that does not presuppose and constitute at the same time power relations. (Foucault, 1977, p. 27, numbers added)

Following Foucault’s (1977) argument, particular knowledge about how to provide a good WIL program in language teacher education is organised, and activated within multiple discourses for example the new neoliberal spirits of capitalism, and the transformational



learning of deschooling. Furthermore, every knowledge claim made within a particular discourse about WIL is an exercise of power which can have variable impact depending on the context of WIL practice in which it is made. In Williams's (1977) terms, some the power/knowledge relations constituting WIL programs are dominant, some are residual, and others are emergent. Hence, Foucault's (1977) notion of power/knowledge relations directs researchers' attention to the relative authority of particular discourses in a given cultural and historical context as a way of understanding how some knowledge claims come to be more powerful (dominant) than others, those which are residual or emergent.

In sum, Williams's (1977) cultural materialist approach invites the analysis of evidence of cultural practices such as WIL in terms of their political signification, social relations, and material processes and conditions. The focus is on establishing the materiality of cultural processes such as WIL, and their productivity showing the way these WIL programs participate in broader socioeconomic relations, affirming and/or challenging dominant, residual, and emergent socioeconomic, and educational formations. One kind of WIL program involves the:

reanimation of suppressed, neglected and disregarded cultures: the meanings and values, in some cases the works, of dominated peoples and classes, and of minorities that have suffered discrimination (Williams, 1974, n. p.).

This section examined Williams's (1977) concepts of dominant, residual, and emergent cultures for their value a critical concept for taking a problem -posing stance to the analysis of evidence, and developing the arguments advanced in this study. In elaborating on Williams's (1977) concepts of dominant, residual, and emergent cultures, the next section examines how knowledge is controlled through Berlak and Berlak's (1981) problem-posing concept of dilemmas of schooling.

### **3.4 Berlak and Berlak's (1981) dilemmas of schooling**

Over the decades, the dilemmas of schooling have been studied with respect to social class, educational opportunity, and equal entitlement in England and France (Osborn et al., 1997), democratisation, citizenship, and social justice in 21st-century Brazil (Dias da Silva & Dias da Silva, 2015), and teaching and social change in the United Kingdom (Berlak & Berlak, 1981).

Osborn et al. (1997) defined dilemmas of schooling as conflicts. For Dias da Silva and Dias da Silva (2015), the dilemmas of schooling relate to equity as an educational principle, social protection as an educational goal, and intersectionality as an educational policy. Berlak and Berlak (1981) defined dilemmas of schooling as

the tension [between trying to develop] a common set of social definitions, symbols, values, views of qualities [in children and] developing in children consciousness of themselves as members of a 'subgroup, distinguished from others, perhaps by distinctive customs, language, dress, history, values and appearance. (pp. 163–164)

Berlak and Berlak's (1981) study focused on the organisation of English primary schools using evidence of their teaching experience and observations in 1972. In contrast to the research by Osborn et al. (1997), and that of Dias da Silva and Dias da Silva (2015), these two researchers from the United States constructed a conceptual framework for the analysis and interpretation of the evidence they generated in the form of 16 dilemmas. The dilemmas were proposed as a language of schooling, and classified in three sets, specifically, dilemmas relating to control, curriculum, and society. Their study of the dilemmas of schooling, which involved a range of educational actors including teachers, other schooling professionals, parents and citizens, and themselves as researchers, employed a critical enquiry methodology (see Chapter 4). Berlak and Berlak (1981) formulated a range of tensions or dilemmas of schooling that teachers, schools, and society face with respect to the schooling of children. They categorised the 16 dilemmas they identified in the evidence into control, curriculum, and societal dilemmas. This study focused on three of the sixteen dilemmas adapted from Berlak and Berlak (1981) (Table 3.1) that deal with power/knowledge relations (Foucault,

1977; 1980) in WIL in language teacher education. The analytical value of using Foucault's (1977) notion of power/knowledge in the study of WIL lies in its use to explore the relational character of relations among organisational members, and the ways in which these are linked to collaborative or dysfunctional communicative practices. Such an analysis can situate WIL practices within broader power/knowledge relations, and the array of actors engaged in these broader structures of power/knowledge. It is important to note that these school dilemmas did not take place separately as categorised; setting out these dilemmas in terms of control, curriculum, and societal served analytical purposes only. In everyday schooling, these dilemmas merge into one another or are necessarily fully integrated.

Table 3.1

*Three Sets of School Dilemmas*

<b>Control Dilemmas</b>	<b>Curriculum Dilemmas</b>	<b>Societal Dilemmas</b>
Teacher vs. child control (time)	Knowledge as content vs. knowledge as process	Equal allocation of resources vs. differential allocation (allocation)

*Note.* (Adapted from Berlak and Berlak, 1981).

The next sections provide details about how a selection of how these sets of dilemmas operates, focusing specifically on issues of control, knowledge, and equity relevant to this study.

### **3.4.1 Control/allowance dilemmas**

Schools express mechanisms of both control, and allowance. Specifically, the control dilemma in terms of time “captures the pull, on the one hand, towards teachers controlling when children will begin activities, and the duration of the activity, and on the other, towards allowing children to control their time” (Berlak & Berlak, 1981, p. 138). In time control/allowance dilemmas, Berlak and Berlak gave examples of some teachers who control time in school activities differently. Some teachers schedule time in children’s learning activities through setting the rules such as “begin”, “end”, and a duration for the activities. However, some teachers assign children work to do within 10 hours per week and allow them, with exceptions, to schedule their own time to do what they like in the remaining mornings. It

does not appear that control dilemmas work by themselves. For Berlak and Berlak, while exercising their power with time limits, and a fixed order of activities in providing children with knowledge, teachers also allow children to decide what knowledge to perceive in learning activities that children can communicate their thoughts, the subjects they feel they are eager to learn, or to arrange the sequence of their morning activities. Controlling and allowing are part of a teacher's capacity of arranging teaching and learning activities.

Dealing with control dilemmas may engage teachers in curriculum dilemmas, and these two types of dilemma seem to be integrated into schooling dilemmas.

### **3.4.2 Curriculum dilemmas**

For Berlak and Berlak (1981), curriculum dilemmas “provide a way of inquiring into how teachers through their schooling acts transmit knowledge, and ways of knowing and learning” (p. 144). One curriculum dilemma is how knowledge is provided to children. Knowledge as content versus knowledge as process means the

dilemma formulates the pulls toward viewing public knowledge as organized bodies of information, codified facts, theories, generalization, on the one hand, or as a process of thinking, reasoning and testing used to establish the truth or adequacy of a body of content or set of propositions, on the other. (Berlak & Berlak, 1981, p. 147)

The examples Berlak and Berlak give regarding the knowledge as content versus knowledge as process dilemma involve the questions teachers use to ask children. Some teachers use factual questions that require children to focus on significant names, facts, or concepts. Other teachers ask questions that involve children in finding out the answers by asking “how” questions, such as “How do you know that?” and “How could we find out?” or how to do things. Berlak and Berlak (1981) contended, “There are in the culture and within and among teachers’ deep divisions over whether content or substance should take the priority over ‘skills’ or ‘critical thinking’” (p. 147). Here, the dilemma in knowledge provision resides in the teachers’ perspectives of what the process is, their choice of teaching pattern, and the knowledge students obtain by which process is emphasised over content, or vice versa, rather than the modes of inquiry that require the content or process. School

dilemmas are not limited in the control/allowance and curriculum in which diverse groups of children in the society are involved. The next section deals with societal contradictions as part of dilemmas of schooling.

### **3.4.3 Societal dilemmas**

Berlak and Berlak (1981) acknowledged the interrelation of society and curriculum as the way school dilemmas take place. They stated,

There is no distinct line between the curriculum and societal dilemmas. Both sets together in some sense explain the tensions in persons and society over the form and content of the patterns of control, and behavioural patterns of a teacher may be viewed through one, several or all the dilemmas simultaneously. (p. 136)

For Berlak and Berlak (1981), societal dilemmas are recognised as “contradictions in schooling patterns related to equality, justice, and social relations between ages, sexes, and ethnic and racial groups” (pp. 135–136). This study focused on the equal allocation of resources versus differential allocation as one of the societal dilemmas of schooling.

Berlak and Berlak (1981) distinguished equal allocation of resources from differential allocation as “on the one hand, teachers are pulled towards the view that all children deserve equal shares and, on the other, towards the idea that some students merit more than others” (p. 159). Equal allocation and differential allocation are identified in the way teachers allocate their time, and knowledge to children. For example, some teachers spend time hearing every child read every day, giving additional help to the readers with the least reading ability and paying more attention to the newer students. However, some teachers spend time with good mathematics students but not with students who are potential artists or poets, “[or] stimulate ‘middle class’ or ‘clever’ children but rarely find time ‘to stretch’ those who are ‘socially backward’ or ‘dim’, suggest to boys more often than girls that they undertake a scientific or engineering project” (Berlak & Berlak, 1981, p. 159). The resources teachers allocate are knowledge. The equal allocation and differential allocation of the resources reveal the dilemma of power/knowledge relations. For Foucault (1980), individuals, along with organisations and other entities, are vehicles of power and knowledge. Here, the dilemma is

identified in the way the teachers exercise power through giving a different amount of time and knowledge to “middle class” or “clever” students who are better at reading thanks to financial support or other privileges from their families, such as home reading, which challenges the equality in education provided to the individual student. Given the principle of “everyone deserves equal-sized pieces of cake” (Berlak & Berlak, 1981, p. 159), equal knowledge allocation is to promote equality. However, children may have different background knowledge, teachers’ differential allocation with time and knowledge generates inequalities in the outcomes. The dilemma brings more concerns in using the criteria to decide which children deserve to have differential knowledge allocation. For example, the children can be the ones with individual efforts, cultural disadvantages, or oppressed groups. Otherwise, equal and differential allocation that both aim at equality may increase or decrease equality due to the children’s social and financial discrepancies.

How might researchers explain the ways WIL partner organisations, groups, and individuals negotiate issues of control while working with those whose power/knowledge (Foucault, 1977; 1980) may contradict or subvert their interests? This section has elaborated on the question of knowledge is controlled through Berlak and Berlak’s (1981) problem-posing concept of dilemmas of schooling. The next section examines Munro’s (1997) theory of organisational control, and situates it in reference to Williams’s (1977) concepts of dominant, residual, and emergent cultures.

### **3.5 Munro’s (1997) organisational control**

In Munro’s (1997) study of organisational control, he argued that research into organisation control had focused almost exclusively on questions of connections. Because such research depends too much on the concept of “connections” for theorising organisational control, the place of disconnections in organisational control is largely overlooked. Munro argued for the need to study disconnections used for affecting organisational control in the gaps, breaks, and absences that exist or are created in organisations. Based on his three field studies in the food and drink industry, the financial services industry, and the car industry, Munro argued that organisational control is enacted

through practices of both connections and disconnections. The meanings for each of these concepts are briefly considered below.

### **3.5.1 Controlling connections**

Munro (1997) defined connections as a “form of cause and effect relations, channels of communication or input–output links” (p. S43) or “making things happen” (p. S59). Munro illustrated connections with some examples in which controlling connections operate such as

tracing a growth in sales to changes in strategy; finding increased cooperation along the value chain; attributing product improvement to the introduction of quality procedures, such as statistical process control; and uncovering a strong organization culture that enables people to work together. (p. S 43)

In this sense, controlling connections employs power to make workers reach the targets that management aims to achieve. In other words, the exercise of power tends to be formulated in terms of the knowledge expressed in the policies of the organisations (Foucault, 1976). Thus, power is exercised through tracing, increasing cooperation, statistical process control, and enabling and as such is neither inherently negative nor positive. These forms of power are enabled by the production and dissemination of knowledge of sales growth, value chain, quality product improvement, organisational culture, and categorising forms of knowledge from different groups to make the diverse objectives of the organisations possible. However, these forms of knowledge may not be fostered or performed without being empowered, supported, encouraged with rewards, or even being forced.

### **3.5.2 Controlling disconnections**

Munro (1997) defined disconnections as “what is being made absent in the organisations” (p. S43), “distance or the absence of communication channels” (p. S44), “prohibitions, a block of relations” (p. S59), or “a gap or a space between relations (p. S45). Munro categorised controlling disconnections into two forms that managers use to exercise their power. The first form is extrusions, which means “every relation is also a non-relation . . . [or] a way of seeing is also a way of not seeing . . . what is ruled in, must also be ruling something out” (p. S44). The second form is effacements, which means “occasions

where people or materials are treated as if they are no longer necessary to the process, but neither are they actually eliminated or excluded from it” (p. S44)

Munro (1997) gave examples of extrusions in exercising controlling disconnections in operation of a hospital in which

nurses and doctors come together with other paramedics in ways that treat themselves as ‘members’ and leave patients as ‘outside’ the organization. In a very real sense, even when newly accredited as clients or customers, patients remain the objects of consumption: coming ‘in’ for treatment and going ‘out’ when deemed to be cured. (p. S44)

Controlling disconnections are revealed in the way medical staff exercise their power using their knowledge of healthcare for medications for the patients in the relation of professionals and their clients. However, in exercising their power over their knowledge of healthcare, medical staff may miss the knowledge of the patients’ symptoms shared by the patients. This absence of knowledge is caused by seeing the patients as the outsiders even when they are accredited as clients. Their knowledge of healthcare and the knowledge of the patients are supposed to be in a relation for treatment but become a nonrelation through their exercising power.

Likewise, Munro’s (1997) example of controlling disconnections in the form of effacements is that in the United States and United Kingdom, business “staff involved with production keep separate their private lives or keep themselves apart from those concerned with marketing products” (p. S45). In this way, management exercises power by separating staff’s knowledge of production from their private lives and their knowledge of production from knowledge of marketing. However, this controlling disconnection does not mean to eliminate but does ignore the real-world experience that staff have in their work of production or interdisciplinary knowledge between production and marketing.

By looking at the power/knowledge relations (Foucault, 1977; 1980) in connections and disconnections in organisational control, it is necessary to explore the relation between these two concepts. The next section justifies how these concepts are revalued.



### **3.5.3 Revaluing connections and disconnections**

For Munro (1997), “control works . . . through a distribution of connections and disconnections” (p. S60). Links and gaps, or connections and disconnections, work together interactively. In other words, “disconnections may be being created and reproduced simultaneously and integrally, alongside connections” (Munro, 1997, p. S44). Thus, theorising organisational control benefits from considering relations or connections, and the possibilities of absences. Managing organisations involves the relations of connections and disconnections. Thus, there is a possibility of theorising control in terms of “a simultaneous distribution of disconnections alongside connections” (Munro, 1997, p. S48).

Literature in WIL indicates the connections in theory and practice, teaching practices, organising WIL activities, and management (Dimenäs & Norlund, 2014; Jackson, 2017; Smith-Ruig, 2014). Another concept for connections is the link (Barends & Nel, 2017; Dimenäs & Norlund, 2014; Mahomed & Singh, 2011) for discussing stakeholder relationship in WIL. While the disconnections concept is discussed in research in WIL (Barends & Nel, 2017), the term gaps is also used as an example of disconnections (Clark, Rowe, Cantori, Bilgin, & Mukuria, 2016; Du Plessis, 2010; Jonck, 2014; Lasen et al., 2018; Taylor & Govender, 2017). However, the problems of connections/disconnections, links, and gaps in WIL are addressed separately. There is a lack of research in WIL into the interrelations between in terms of connections and disconnections in theorising power/knowledge (Foucault, 1977; 1980). Munro (1997) gave us a richer way of looking, analysing, and interpreting evidence of WIL in language teacher education by exploring how connections and disconnections occur simultaneously and integrally. While “increasing attention [is] being paid to disconnections, little work to date draws attention to the importance of theorising control in terms of a simultaneous distribution of disconnections alongside connections” (Munro, 1997, p. S48). Revaluing connections and disconnections and how they work in organisation control provides a means for theorising power and knowledge in WIL in teacher education. The next section explains how this thesis makes a small but nonetheless original contribution to the advancement of knowledge through using Tiếng Việt concepts as an emergent intellectual culture for theorising the evidence of WIL in language teacher education analysed in this study.

### **3.6 Tiếng Việt concepts: Emergent intellectual culture**

This section provides details and justifications for using Tiếng Việt in my doctoral education. Tiếng Việt concepts bring their unique meanings and values into contributing to new practices in theorising. Specifically, possible variations of relationships among these concepts which may be ignored or taken for granted are formed and explored. In making advantages of their educational elements as alternative in the domination of existing culture, Tiếng Việt concepts present themselves as emergent culture in knowledge production. For Williams (1977), the concept of emergent culture means that “new meanings and values, new practices, new relationships and kinds of relationship are continually being created” (p. 123). Emergent culture refers to the presence in the structure of any educational culture of “a social basis for elements of the cultural process that [is an] alternative or oppositional to the dominant elements” (Williams, 1977, p. 124). Further, Reinelt (2015) argues for the identification of emergent cultural practices that are novel and challenging. These practices have not been coopted by the dominant hegemonic culture. Here, I explain the transposition of Tiếng Việt metaphors into analytical concepts in order to theorise the evidence of WIL in language teacher education analysed in this thesis, and thereby make an original contribution to the advancement of knowledge. In developing my capabilities for theorising, I used Tiếng Việt metaphors to make sense of, and to theoretically analyse the evidence generated from my research into WIL. As explained below, these Tiếng Việt metaphors provided a novel lens for exploring and problematising WIL in language teacher education. Moreover, concepts from Tiếng Việt are not currently being used in researching WIL in language teacher education in research produced largely in English.

Most of my education, and so much of education internationally, is dominated by knowledge produced and disseminated in English, including theories of WIL (e.g., Butin, 2006). It is unsurprising that I had not thought of using Tiếng Việt metaphors as “theoretic–linguistic tools” (M. Singh, 2013b) in my research prior to starting this doctoral project. My reason for neglecting the conceptual resources available to me in Tiếng Việt was that I am an English language education academic, I am doing a PhD in English in Australia, and I understand that for many in this country, it is or should be primarily an English-speaking

nation (Berg, 2011). In addition, I had to undertake an IELTS test to enter this PhD program in Australia. Further, one of the assessment criteria for this thesis requires that it be produced in high-quality English. There is no invitation to consider the use of other languages in such theses. Ostensibly, they are meant to be monolingual. All these mechanisms of English-only monolingual literacy theory, pedagogy, and politics drove me to think that I must theorise in English to contribute to global knowledge production and dissemination.

However, in terms of doctoral education, educational research, and language teacher education, there are many grounds for contesting English-only monolingual literacy theory, pedagogy, and politics. First, bilingual refers to “anyone who uses more than one language for particular purposes at some point in their daily lives” (Pavlenko, 2003, p. 262; also see Pavlenko, 2011). I am, then, a multilingual HDR because I use more than one language for research purposes in my daily life. Second, as a multilingual HDR, I already inhabit the contact zone for languages-and-knowledge, or what might be called a “translanguaging” zone (Garcia & Li, 2014), where I engaged in intercultural intellectual contact to further my doctoral education. For example, I used my Tiếng Việt to interview research participants, translate the transcriptions, and draft my research writing in both English and Tiếng Việt. As multilingual HDRs, we have to make this shadow work in public if it is to gain recognition and credit. Third, research shows that English-only monolingualism is a limitation in an increasingly interconnected world where many researchers and educators have multilingual capabilities (M. Singh, 2013b; M. Singh & Cui, 2011; M. Singh & Guo, 2008). Rather belatedly, ACOLA (2015) argued that smart engagement with Asia requires the leveraging of multilingualism through research, especially given that multilingual researchers now have a comparative advantage in increasingly global knowledge production and dissemination, and in cross-national professional undertakings. Multilingual HDRs can contribute to this “smart intellectual engagement”.

Meeting and working with multicultural people in Australia, exploring their theoretic–linguistic resources, and questioning their intellectual traditions and concepts, I am, in Jullien’s (2014) terms, engaged in a “theoretical” project. As such, I am interested in extending and deepening my capabilities for theorising, for making intelligible what I see in

investigating WIL in language teacher education (Swedberg, 2016). A key reason for fulfilling this need is that theories produced or otherwise disseminated in English are presented as grand, universal tools, while those from Việt Nam are marginalised. Ironically, this marginalisation occurs in the name of internationalising research education. In a related context, Leontidou (1996) explained the situation thus:

Northern local narratives have always been presented, not as local, but as grand, universal stories and generalizations. . . . Local narratives of the South uplifted to the throne of general theories are few, and the Third Italy experience figures prominently among them. (p. 180)

It seems that theories produced or otherwise available in English are presented as having relevance in all other places throughout the world. This raises questions about the possibility for getting beyond the use of Tiếng Việt theoretical tools just in Việt Nam. The next section considers the possibility for uplifting Tiếng Việt metaphors, and transposing them in such a way as to use them analytically for theorising WIL in language teacher education.

### **3.6.1 Theorising WIL using Tiếng Việt metaphors**

This section explains how theorising WIL through Tiếng Việt metaphors was undertaken. I developed my capabilities to turn Tiếng Việt metaphors into analytical concepts by exploring ways of using them to explain, and interpret the evidence generated for this study. Swedberg (2016) contended that researchers use metaphors “to better understand what something is like and how it operates” (p. 11). Metaphors are defined as

1. tools to describe and express sociocultural events and practices;
2. tools people use to persuade others in their culture to see the world and behave in a common way;
3. strategy for instructing, explicating, advising, praising, and nourishing members of a society on important issues. (Chilisa, 2011, p. 132, numbers added)

Miller (2006) explained that metaphors provide for a change in perspective through the ability to perceive similarities in dissimilarities and thus tell us something new. Metaphors

are disconcerting in the strangeness or incongruity they express, which can upset the established intellectual order. Metaphors are ways of knowing or theorising that apprehend relations or make connections and classifications of similarity between dissimilar things. Metaphors are not just words, but indicate thinking or make meaning about life. Miller (2006) warned that

no metaphor has a status higher than another. They are all perspectives on things, each with its own use, beneficial or destructive, with limited or comprehensive application, of short or enduring life. Likewise, the value of each metaphor varies and fluctuates. (p. 64)

I started this task by undertaking a pre-study to see what analytical insights Tiếng Việt metaphors might yield when used as analytical concepts to make sense of service-learning (see M. Singh & N. Nguyen, 2015). With the progress of the research project reported in this thesis, I focused on using Tiếng Việt metaphors as analytical tools to theorise WIL. I started the theorising process by listing metaphors relating to concepts of learning and work. The Tiếng Việt metaphors generated in this process are words taken from everyday language use, and from a dictionary of Tiếng Việt metaphors (see L. Nguyen, 2010). It was a surprise to me that many Tiếng Việt metaphors could help in “understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another” (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003, p. 5). Thus, my initial understanding of WIL in higher education was experienced through the English language accounts reviewed in Chapter 2, not in terms of Tiếng Việt metaphors. To move beyond the ordinary, everyday use of these metaphors, it was necessary to reframe them conceptually to give meaning to learning and work. As indicated in Table 3.2, this transposition of Tiếng Việt metaphors into analytical concepts provided a novel way of looking at WIL.

Table 3.2

*Making Meaning of Learning and Work by Using Tiếng Việt Metaphors*

<b>Tiếng Metaphors</b>	<b>Việt</b>	<b>Word-for-Word Translation</b>	<b>English Translation</b>	<b>Explanation</b>	<b>Insights</b>
<b>Learning (học tập)</b>					
<i>Không thầy đố mày làm nên</i>		No maleteacher dare you make it	Without the teacher, one's success is impossible	The role of the teacher /supervisor is vital	Expert power, gender
<i>Học thầy không tày học bạn</i>		Learn maleteacher not as beneficial learn friends	Learning from peers gets more benefits than from teachers	The significance of peer learning and support	Peer learning, gender
<i>Đi một ngày đàng, học một sàng khôn</i>		Go one day road, learn one basket wisdom	Travelling one day on the road, one learns a basket of wisdom	Experiential learning brings insights	Experiential learning
<b>Work (làm việc)</b>					
<i>Trăm hay không bằng tay quen</i>		Hundred good not as hand familiar	Good knowledge cannot compete with skilful hands	Work experience is more important than academic knowledge	Experiential learning
<i>Một cây làm chẳng nên non, ba cây chụm lại nên hòn núi cao</i>		One tree does not become mountain, three trees gather become mountain high	One tree cannot form a mountain; three trees make a high mountain	Collaboration makes better achievement	Partnership
<i>Lắm thầy thói ma</i>		Many shamans rotten corpse	Many funeral conductors make the corpse rotten	Conflicts due to diverse perspectives ruin the work	Conflicts
<i>Ma cũ bắt nạt ma mới</i>		Ghost old bully ghost new	Old ghosts bully new ghosts	The seniors tend to bully the new staff	Hierarchical power

To define and build the key concepts of *học tập* (learning) and *làm việc* (work), I began with listing the metaphors relating to learning and work. Table 3.2 shows six analytical categories generated from Tiếng Việt metaphors regarding learning and work. Word-for-word translation was used to capture the ideas in Tiếng Việt metaphors. I deliberately chose not to “translate” these Tiếng Việt metaphors by identifying common metaphors in English with seemingly equivalent meanings. For example, *Đi một ngày đàng, học một sàng khôn* would be equivalent to “Travelling broadens one’s mind”. Instead, I used word-for-word translation for *Đi một ngày đàng, học một sàng khôn* as “go one day road, learn one basket wisdom”. Similarly, *Một cây làm chẳng nên non, ba cây chụm lại nên hòn núi cao* for “more heads make better outcomes” referring to a collaborative partnership as “One tree does not become mountain, three trees gather become mountain high” in the word-for-word translation. Using word-for-word translation, this study aimed to capture the sociocultural attributes of these Tiếng Việt metaphors, and provide a focus for investigating potential points of conceptual divergence, and thus possibilities for bringing new insights to research into WIL in language teacher education.

In terms of relations inherent to learning (*học tập*), the concept *thầy* in the metaphor *không thầy đố mày làm nên*, and in *học thầy không tày học bạn* refers to *thầy* as maleteachers, which indicates the gender issue. In Tiếng Việt, the term *cô* means femaleteachers, while the term *thầy* means maleteachers. The idea of word-for-word translation technique using maleteachers (*thầy*) and femaleteachers (*cô*) as one word instead of two is to spell out the gender issue that resides in Tiếng Việt concepts. These metaphors for learning (*học tập*) indicate the attributes of power and gender relations in two different ways.

First, *không thầy đố mày làm nên* emphasises the importance of the experts who may be the teachers, and their supervisors in working in educational contexts. This expert power means that the educators decide the possibility of students’ success through the transmission or transfer of knowledge. Second, this sense of power implies, and operates in ways that negate any power students might have with respect to their education, and questions of knowledge. In *học thầy không tày học bạn*, learning from *bạn* (peers) is said to more beneficial than learning from *thầy*. Here, there is the possibility for questioning these two

metaphors about the apparent conflict in the role of *thầy* (the teacher) and *bạn* (peers) because one privileges educators such as teachers, supervisors, and instructors while the other foregrounds experience sharing. Another point of consideration concerns the question of how peer learning takes place, and its effect on students' learning, given the effects of other factors or stakeholders on their learning. For students who do not interact productively and constructively with *thầy*, their learning interactions with *bạn* may open up options and channels of learning. *Thầy* expect students to have developed the will to learn because this is necessary for them to learn professional knowledge, practices, and engagement strategies in the workplace and at university. In other words, the will to learn is assumed and regarded as a priority for further learning. The will to learn in the workplace is important for employment.

In terms of work, *ma cũ bắt nạt ma mới* refers to the hierarchy power relations evident in the workplace chain of authority. Exercising power is revealed in the way the management shows the difference in their rank and experience, and that of others in the workplace. This phenomenon may take place in higher education when students or academics may disturb the hierarchical power relations favoured by university management during their WIL when authority is invested in those with the workplace knowledge, practices, and engagement strategies. The novices must, to some extent, be inferior to the impositions of those higher in the hierarchy power relations, which often leads to various forms of collaborative resistance from which may emerge new organisational relations of power.

The occurrence of *một* (one), *ba* (three) in the metaphor *một cây làm chẳng nên non, ba cây chụm lại nên hòn núi cao* speaks to the numerical indicators that now prevail in many work contexts for partnerships, including higher education institutions. For instance, *lắm* (many) in *lắm thầy thói ma* brings into sight the complexities teachers face in working with multiple partners. Many stakeholders bring benefits to higher education institutions thanks to multilevel collaboration. However, conflicts may take place due to the diversity of interests at play in these collaborations and can have negative effects if not well managed. These conflicts may not arise from the diversity of perspectives available to such partnerships. The hierarchical relations of power among diverse stakeholders may cause conflicts due to resentment to the imposition of power, lack of appropriate forms of reciprocity, and



resistance to inequitable power/knowledge relations. Thus, numerical indicators are often indicators of the dilemmas facing workplaces, such that international rankings of universities indicate the revitalisation of some countries, and the decline of others.

Having worked through the transposition of Tiếng Việt metaphors into analytical concepts, I was in a better position to provide grounds for justifying why I did so. Thus, my justifications for using Tiếng Việt metaphors to generate analytical tools for theorising include the following reasons. First, the word-for-word translation of these Tiếng Việt metaphors demonstrates respect for the intelligence of monolingual English speakers through assuming that they are willing to learn through Asian–Australian intellectual engagement (ACARA, 2012b). Second, the transposition process employed above respects the intelligence of Người Việt (the peoples of Việt Nam) by indicating possibilities whereby their knowledge may contribute to global knowledge exchange, and thereby interrupt the one-way flow of knowledge from Tiếng Anh (English language) into Tiếng Việt. Third, the use of Tiếng Việt concepts in this thesis makes a small but nonetheless significant contribution to multilingual researchers extending their intellectual freedom by introducing concepts from their repertoire of languages-and-knowledge into scholarly discussions, and debates in contexts dominated by practices that privilege English-only knowledge for theorising.

### **3.6.2 Quyền lực/tri thức (power/knowledge) relations in work-integrated learning**

The Tiếng Việt concept *học tập* (learning) is affected through, and impacted by the power relations between teacher and students, between academics and university managers, and between students and their peers in real-world workplaces. Tiếng Việt metaphors that inform this understanding of the concept of learning bring the quyền lực / tri thức (power /knowledge) relations to the fore in any efforts to work towards a holistic account of WIL in language teacher education. Foucault (1980) emphasised that “there is of power on knowledge and of knowledge on power” (p. 51). However, the focus on quyền lực/tri thức (power/knowledge) relations (Foucault, 1977; 1980) in Tiếng Việt concepts brings further enquiries of whether the reciprocity in learning from *bạn* (peers) comparative to learning from *thầy* (maleteachers), and the benefits of doing so, are affected by other factors such as

age, gender or social status. WIL provides experiential learning through which students obtain a *sàng khôn* (basket of wisdom—knowledge), practices, and engagement strategies.

Tiếng Việt metaphors give meaning to the concept *làm việc* (work) also capture the power/knowledge relations evident in the organisation of workplace hierarchies. While collaborative peer learning is valued by universities, academics, and students, consideration of collaboration in workplaces brings to the fore conflicts with respect to diversity and domination. In workplaces, the domination of power/knowledge structures (Foucault, 1977; 1980) is exercised by management over academics and students. Combining ideas from the Tiếng Việt metaphors about *học tập* (learning) and *làm việc* (work), these metaphors suggest that the investigation of WIL in language teacher education is likely to raise issues concerning power/knowledge relations (Foucault, 1977; 1980) among stakeholders over issues of work and learning, knowledge and skills, labour and achievement, and cause and effect. Further, this study focused on the two Tiếng Việt concepts, *học tập* (learning) and *làm việc* (work), through the lens of *quyền lực / tri thức* (power /knowledge) relations. The assumption investigated in this study is that power/knowledge relations (Foucault, 1977; 1980) have a presence in the integration of work and learning; this relationship is crudely expressed in Figure 3.1.

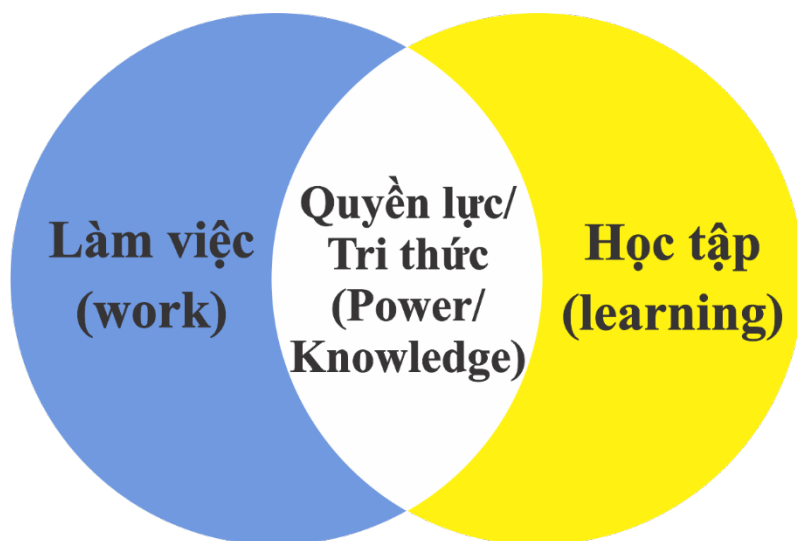


Figure 3.1. Power/knowledge relations in work-integrated learning in Tiếng Việt concepts.

A preliminary consideration of Tiếng Việt metaphors suggested they may be used as analytical tools to study a range of issues related to the integration of *làm việc* (work) and *học tập* (learning) using postmonolingual research methodologies (M. Singh, 2017a, 2017b). Postmonolingual research methodologies deal with the tensions posed by the assertion of monolingualism, and the practices of multilingualism (M. Singh, 2018a, 2018b, 2019) while not excluding existing theories produced in English. The next section discusses how Tiếng Việt concepts were used as part of the theoretical framework in this study.

### **3.7 Discussion**

This section discusses two important issues arising from this chapter. The first concerns the importance of researchers developing their capabilities for theorising. The second relates to the use of theory triangulation (Carter et al., 2014) to establish the conceptual framework presented in this chapter to explore the complexities of WIL in language teacher education.

#### **3.7.1 Theorising WIL using theoretical-linguistic tools**

First, while the importance of researchers developing their capabilities for theorising is recognised, the development of these capabilities among HDRs is not necessarily a feature of their doctoral education (Biesta et al., 2011; Markovsky, 2008; Sutton & Staw, 1995; Swedberg, 2016). That this tendency in international doctoral education reproduces intergenerational academic dependency on the intellectual products of theorists producing work in English is the subject of mounting critiques (Alatas, 2006; Chen, 2010). To develop HDRs' capabilities for theorising, it would seem possible to draw on their existing intellectual resources. These resources may include multilingual HDRs' full linguistic repertoire from which they can draw metaphors, concepts, and images to generate theoretical tools. This move may require monolingual English-speaking research colleagues to press the HDRs to undertake such intellectual engagement, to access multilingual experts in their field, and to benefit from the capacity of supervisors to support postmonolingual doctoral education and, if possible, university support through its doctoral education policy practices.

From the beginning, the aims of this study were to explore two interrelated aspects of an internationally significant phenomenon in higher education. The first aim was to undertake a multisite case study of the integration of work and learning in higher education based on

fieldwork in Việt Nam and Australia. My second aim was to develop my capabilities for theorising, and to do so, as an integral component of my doctoral education. In undertaking this study, I had the opportunity to work with a researcher who not only had demonstrated expertise in WIL (see Harreveld & Singh, 2008, 2009; M. Singh & Harreveld, 2014; M. Singh, Harreveld, & Chen, 2012; M. Singh, 2013a, 2016), but also expertise in using postmonolingual pedagogies for teaching HDRs how to use their full repertoire of languages-and-knowledge to extend their capabilities for theorising (M. Singh, 2015, 2017a, 2018b, 2019).

By accessing appropriate research educators with the necessary expertise, my pathway for learning how to theorise by taking advantage of my full repertoire of languages-and-knowledge was opened. Initially, in my research proposal, I focused my research project on investigating the integration of work and service-learning in higher education. Part of my investment in making a modest but original contribution to knowledge was the proposal to address the question “*How might metaphors in Tiếng Việt inform the conceptual analysis of evidence about the integration of work and service-learning in language teacher education?*” In effect, my research proposal made explicit, and set in train, my intention to investigate the potential of using metaphors in Tiếng Việt along with existing conceptual tools available in English to develop my capabilities for theorising. I expected this move would help me demystify the idea of theory, and negotiate opportunities for me to extend my intellectual freedom. In an initial exploration of this question, I decided to investigate the insights to be gained in Tiếng Việt concepts *học tập* (learning), and *phục vụ* (service) from using Tiếng Việt metaphors as theoretical tools for analysing the conceptualisation of “service-learning” as expressed in higher education programs in Việt Nam (M. Singh & N. Nguyen, 2015). The results of this pilot study revealed that my use of Tiếng Việt metaphors in this study could enhance my capabilities for theorising.

My will to learn through engaging in a comprehensive program of research education enabled me to pursue learning about ways of contributing to knowledge from a local/global perspective, through incorporating Tiếng Việt into research largely produced in English. While my efforts at theorising using Tiếng Việt concepts proved to be a struggle, and time-

consuming work in a context driven by timely completions, so far, the outcomes of this research have met the criteria required by reviewers and editors (N. Nguyen, 2017, 2018, 2019). This challenge encouraged me to extend my capabilities for doing research in WIL beyond using existing theory produced in English. No doubt, there are barriers to educating multilingual HDRs to undertake postmonolingual theorising. Much depends on the research capacity of doctoral supervisors who require adequate expertise, and the willingness to educate HDRs in these skills. Further, difficulties in doctoral supervisors' workload and the demands that they fulfil through income-generating commitments may cause them to hesitate or otherwise make them reluctant in doing so. Thus, postmonolingual theorising may be too risky for multilingual HDRs who do not have adequate support nor decent research education, and find themselves pressed to meet the graduation deadline.

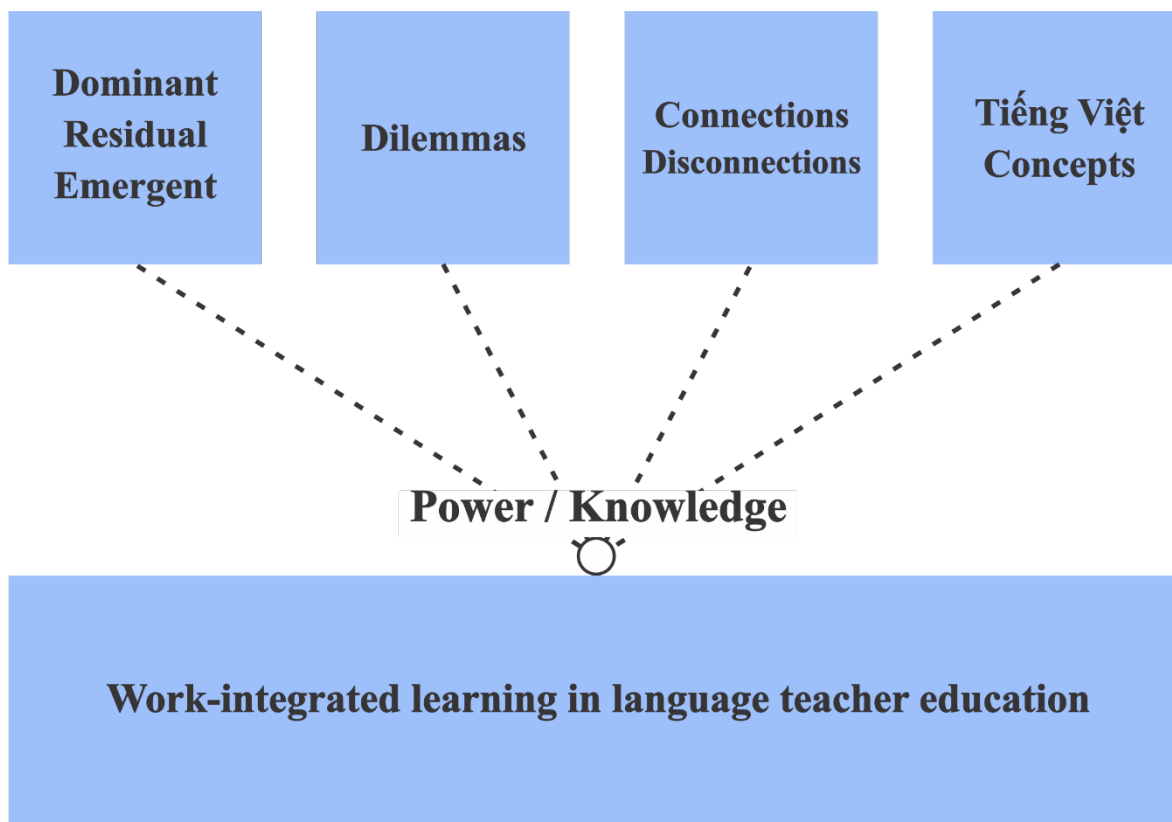
### **3.7.2 Conceptual framework for exploring the material complexities of WIL**

The literature review in Chapter 2 suggests that WIL in language teacher education is likely to be complicated. It was decided to use theory triangulation to establish the conceptual framework using concepts drawn from multiple theoretical perspectives to provide a more useful lens for analysing evidence drawn from multiple sites. Along with concepts produced in English drawn from Williams (1977), Berlak and Berlak (1981), and Munro (1997) as the theoretical resources, Tiếng Việt concepts were used as emergent intellectual resources used for generating theoretical insights into WIL in language teacher education in this study.

This chapter outlined the concepts that were drawn together to construct the framework of power/knowledge relations (Foucault, 1977; 1980) in exploring the factors affecting WIL in language teacher education in this study. Williams's (1977) concepts of dominant, emergent, and residual cultures provided insights into investigating the culture of higher education. Through reworking these concepts in Chapter 5, they are stretched to make meaning of the play of power/knowledge relations (Foucault, 1977; 1980) in WIL in language teacher education. Likewise, Berlak and Berlak (1981) investigated schooling through the lens of control, curriculum, and societal dilemmas. However, because this study was undertaken in the context of higher education, their ideas are elaborated in Chapter 6 in ways that make it possible to explore dilemmas particular to WIL in language teacher

education with regard to power/knowledge relations (Foucault, 1977; 1980). Munro's (1997) study of processes of organisational control suggests that the study of WIL in language teacher education could benefit from attending to both connections and disconnections in the operation of power/knowledge relations (Foucault, 1977; 1980). By extending key concepts from Munro's (1997) research into business organisations, the data analysis presented in Chapter 7 explores what connections and disconnections emerge in policy and practice of WIL in language teacher education.

The implementation of WIL is an innovative approach to higher education and language teacher education in particular. WIL brings together a variety of organisational, group, and individual stakeholders that add to the complexities of education. Methodologically, this chapter proposed the use of theory triangulation as the basis for generating a conceptual framework to explore the complexities of WIL in language teacher education (Bennett, 1997; Carter et al., 2014). Figure 3.2 shows the four sets of theoretical resources from which conceptual tools were drawn to inform this study. These overarching concepts are dominant, residual, and emergent cultures (Williams, 1977); dilemmas of schooling (Berlak & Berlak, 1981); connections and disconnections in organisational control (Munro, 1997); and Tiếng Việt metaphors for work and education.



*Figure 3.2. Conceptual framework for researching WIL in language teacher education.*

By extending the key concepts from three theorists, and the concepts built from Tiếng Việt metaphors, the framework set out to test the possibilities of these ideas regarding power/knowledge relations (Foucault, 1977; 1980) in the complexities of WIL for gaining a more informed understanding and offering a new way of looking at WIL in language teacher education in this study.

### **3.8 Conclusion**

This chapter elaborated the conceptual framework used in this study. A focus of the research methodology employed in this doctoral research project was the triangulation of theories. Theory triangulation has not received much attention in the literature on WIL in higher education or teacher education. However, this study made deliberate, strategic use of theory triangulation to inform the meta-analysis of evidence presented in the data analysis chapters. Theory triangulation was used in this study to look at the data through different but

related lenses that aided the search for linkages and inconsistencies in the evidence. The study used key concepts from Williams (1977), Berlak and Berlak (1981), and Munro (1997) while also integrating Tiếng Việt concepts into these analytical tools to provide the analytical lens for making meaning of the evidence analysed in Chapters 5, 6, and 7 of this thesis. Importantly, these analytical concepts were introduced into this study because the review of literature presented in Chapter 2 made evident the complexities associated with the contested and contestable concepts and characteristics of WIL in higher education but did not provide the range of conceptual tools that such an analysis warranted.

In addition, in this chapter, the concepts of theory and theorising, and their relationship were defined and established. Theorising was integral to the intellectual work involved in research. Not surprisingly, theorising is challenging, demanding, and time-consuming work, and may discourage researchers from trying to introduce new ideas into their projects. In working through this struggle, this chapter elaborated the procedures of theorising in this study using Tiếng Việt metaphors as conceptual tools. Specifically, the concepts of learning and work were defined by using Tiếng Việt metaphors. Doing so enabled a brief exploration of these analytical tools for studying the relationship between power/knowledge relations (Foucault, 1977; 1980) in researching WIL in language teacher education. This work provides some modest insights into possibilities for developing multilingual HDRs' capabilities for postmonolingual theorising as a mechanism for making advances in knowledge. In Chapter 4, details and justifications of research methodology and research methods are provided.



## **Chapter 4:**

### **An Interpretive-critical Analysis of a Multisite Case Study of Work Integrated Learning in Language Teacher Education**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

In Chapter 3, a conceptual framework for analysing evidence of WIL in language teacher education was established, extending the concepts available in the literature reviewed in Chapter 2. This chapter explains and justifies the research methodology and methods used in this study, and to which these conceptual resources were brought to bear in focusing the collection of evidence, and its subsequent analysis and interpretation. This chapter uses simple past tense to report the procedures for conducting this research project (Englander, 2014) in “an orderly and logical manner” (Kar & Kar, 2017, p. 12). Simple present tense is used to make statements, present the structure of the chapter, and introduce the framework and figures (Wallwork, 2016). I begin by justifying my choice of an interpretive-critical analysis for this study, the emancipatory interest of which provided the grounds for justifying my use of postmonolingual research methodology. Details of the flexible research design used for the multisite case study employed in this research are then explained. The overview of the research process indicates the research design for this multisite case study, including the justifications for ensuring that the generation, and analysis of the data was ethical, logical, and reasonable. The rationale for the selection of the case study sites is clarified along with the ethical requirements governing how the case study was conducted to ensure rigour of the research process. A description of the protocol for this study is provided. Details of the data collection and generation procedures used in this case study are presented. The sampling procedures, participant selection, data sources and research tools, principles employed for this multisite case study, and how the data were analysed, and interpreted to address the research questions and process for undertaking postmonolingual theorising are described. This chapter ends with an account of the writing process involved in producing this thesis. The next section explains the choice of philosophical stance for this study’s research methodology.

## 4.2 Methodological orientations to research

Research methodologies are varied (Lather, 2006). For example, Carr and Kemmis (2004) categorised research methodologies as technical, interpretive, and critical orientations. On examining the classification of methodological orientations, including that provided by Kemmis (1991), I found that they tended to obscure rather than inform my understanding (see also Griffin, 2018; Wexler, 2016). In contrast, I found that Lather's (2006) summary of the three orientations better stimulated my critical thinking about how I might communicate my understanding of them using examples from credible sources. To better access what these methodological orientations meant for this study, I searched for possibilities for presenting a concrete illustration of the concepts informing three approaches to research. I decided to use these three orientations to analyse a Vox News report about how job surveillance is changing the work of trucking in the United States (Vox, 2017).

Given that this study focuses on WIL in language teacher education, I chose this Vox News report because it focused on immigrant workers of many nationalities who had learnt English, and used their multilingual capabilities to learn the techniques for labour organising and political campaigning about the work conditions. Williams (1977) engaged in research projects to transform the received relations between universities and society, work and learning, seeing work as constituting the ways in which labouring and learning as a mechanism for establishing the sort of workers we might aspire to be. It might be asked whether Williams (1977) could have had anything in common with Carr and Kemmis' (2004) project which was inspired by the Frankfurt school. Williams shared Carr and Kemmis' intellectual interest in German rather than U.S. philosophical traditions, because they value social involvement and social change, and advance critiques of the closure of thoughts and the determinants of socio-historical delimitations on change. The evaluative critique of WIL articulates a pivotal feature of William's (1977) cultural materialist method.

The new report provides an account from migrant truckers and researchers about how the electronic logging device (ELD), an electronic log monitoring system, affects a trucker's work and life, and that of others. My analysis of this news report is presented in Table 4.1,

which illustrates the key characteristics of interpretive, positivist, and critical methodologies relevant to this research.

Table 4.1

*Analysis of Interpretive, Positivist, and Critical Research Methodologies through Vox News Report*

<b>Research Issues</b>	<b>Interpretive</b>	<b>Positivist</b>	<b>Critical</b>
Research problem	Addressing key features of practice, those which are ignored by positivist research: migrant truckers' health and safety of other people	Constructing a technical solution to a technical problem: reducing migrant truckers' violation of their hours service	Imposing power by putting migrant truckers under surveillance, migrant truckers' privacy, working under coercion, workload pressure
Aims of enquiry	Understanding the complex reality of work/life as experienced by migrant truckers	Uncovering laws that have cause and effect on the work behaviours of migrant truckers	Exploring what might change the oppressive reality of the trucker's work/life by shifting the balance of power
Truth of monitoring system use	Driving quality and life quality of the migrant truckers and other people's lives from their perspectives and experiences	Improving the management and quality of how migrant truckers drive	Identifying features of sociopolitical power that warrant change
Research methods	Interviewing migrant truckers and university researchers about the impact of the new monitoring system	Investing in researching new technology (ELD)	Interviewing migrant truckers and university researchers about the sociopolitical factors
Evidence	Migrant trucker's body and health conditions, weather conditions, truck is personal space, privacy invasion	Safety records, ELDs, paper logbooks, graphs to monitor the migrant truckers' work performance	Migrant truckers' questions (think critically) and challenge (protest) the technical approach of monitor workers, e.g., using ELD; other official figures

Vox News is a U.S. media company that brings everyday people's perspectives on social issues into the public for discussion. For Carr and Kemmis (2004), interpretive methodology involves generating accounts of actors' understandings of social reality. The actors in this news report are migrant truckers who are under surveillance by their employers using a new technological monitoring system. In this sense, Vox News took an interpretive research approach by focusing on the "lived experience for those involved in educational [and other work] processes and institutions" (Carr & Kemmis, 2004, p. 219) and tended to see "transformations of consciousness [as] sufficient to produce transformations of social reality" (p. 181). Employing this interpretive methodology, the Vox News report provided information about which the public could make "practical judgment, which is informed by knowledge grounded in the actor's own understanding and circumstances" (Carr & Kemmis, 2004, p. 145) of the new monitoring system.

Working from an interpretive orientation, the research problem that this Vox News report addressed was the practice of using ELD as a driver monitoring system, as experienced by the migrant truckers, and their reactions to it. To undertake this enquiry, Vox investigated the complexities of the migrant truckers' experiences and reactions to their employers managing them and their work by using this new monitoring system. From the orientation of interpretive methodology, the aim of this Vox News report was to explore how the monitoring system affected the migrant truckers' work/life and the quality of their work rather than how useful the system was as a worker management tool. The research involved five U.S. migrant truckers from different ethnic backgrounds, three males and two females, plus one female and one male researcher in a series of interviews. The interview evidence from these participants brought insights to the relation of equity in knowledge production with participants, power, and gender relation as part of the complexities of the issues being investigated. In terms of gender in education research, Lather (2006) contended that

far more than the inclusion of gender as a variable, this is about how gender structures our very sense of what is possible in the name of research. Particularly important here are theories of intersectionality that provide a non-reductionist framework for the complicated and complicating ways that different differences

interact and shift across various contingencies to shape all aspects of our lives, including our research imaginaries. (p. 50)

In this sense, gendered structure might give other possibilities that emerged from the experience shared by interview participants in the Vox News report.

Vox News used this interview evidence as part of its interpretive methodology to help the public better understand the physical and mental health of the migrant truckers, their concerns about privacy, and how the quality of roads and weather conditions were affected by this monitoring technology. While the interpretive research brought past and existing issues concerning the use of this monitoring system, Carr and Kemmis (2004) argued that this methodological orientation is “relatively passive” (p. 183) as it failed to address future issues concerning the use of the monitoring system.

The technical views of positivist methodology hold that “scientific knowledge is in a continuous state of accumulation and growth” (Carr & Kemmis, 2004, p. 71). The weakness of this methodology is that it seems to ignore the “human, social, economic, political, historical and practical constraints within which real practice occurs” (Carr & Kemmis, 2004, p. 145), leading to “the general philosophical outlook which emerged as the most powerful intellectual force in western thought” (p. 61). Investigating from a positivist orientation, the Vox News report addressed the research problem in finding a technical solution for management to reduce migrant truckers’ driving violations. The truck companies or employers used the monitoring system to explore the cause and effect in relation to migrant truckers’ driving performance. This problem-solving from a positivist orientation focuses on one “single criterion of ‘truth’ or ‘objectivity’ in arriving at conclusions about practical action” (Carr & Kemmis, 2004, p. 145). Looking at the issues of the new management from this positivist orientation meant that employers focused on one problem only, with one single view for a short-term solution, for example, investment in constructing technology to deal with the migrant truckers’ work, safety records, and ELDs. The employers’ solution was described by a female trucker regarding the monitoring system as “one-size-fits-all schedule”, an imposing device for dealing with migrant truckers instead of listening to or negotiating with them as alternatives.

Carr and Kemmis (2004) defined the critical approach in social science as “the science which serves the ‘emancipatory’ interest in freedom and rational autonomy” (p. 136). The emancipatory interest here refers to the nature of power in giving intellectual freedom and empowerment (see also De Souza, 2017; Griffin, 2018; Winkle-Wagner, Lee-Johnson & Gaskew, 2018). From the critical methodology regarding the nature of the migrant truckers’ work in the Vox News report, an expression of freedom in exploring possibilities may have caused the research problem of power imposition, putting migrant truckers under surveillance. In carrying out this enquiry into the oppressive reality of the migrant truckers’ work/life, Vox used more layers of evidence to investigate “a political theory about social life and, equally importantly, about its own processes and their effects on social life [of the migrant truckers]” (Carr & Kemmis, 2004, p. 146). Doing so involved the migrant truckers in interviews as the first layer of evidence. The migrant truckers not only told about their experiences of being under surveillance. Rather, they questioned and challenged social justice through demonstrations, and emphasised the coercion that gave them no other choices except for unemployment. These reactions helped them express their power through freedom of speech. Kemmis (1991) indicated the difference between interpretive and critical methodologies is that a critical orientation “engages the world through social and cultural action, not merely to interpret the world but to change it” (p. 98).

From the view of interpretive methodology, the report interpreted how migrant truckers experienced being monitored by their employers as the first layer of evidence, which brought into discussion the impact of other social and cultural factors that affected the migrant truckers’ lives and other people’s lives. Vox gathered the second layer of evidence from groups who had more support and facilities for claiming and contributing to knowledge. These were university researchers, who in their interview participation used graphs and artefacts as tools to indicate the trend in integrating robots in place of human beings. The news report also used the figures of the reduction in preventable crash rate from the Federal Motor Carrier Safety Administration, and data on fatigue-related crash rates from the committee of the National Academies of Sciences Engineering and Medicine. This third layer of evidence gave more insights into other possibilities of the enquiry such as power

imposition from the employers, social justice, and the sociological issues of integrating technology.

By using layers of evidence, the critical approach set up a multifocal lens for exploring possibilities of the enquiry. The next section explains the philosophical orientation informing this study of WIL in language teacher education, which is justified in terms of an interpretive-critical research methodology.

#### **4.2.1 An interpretive-critical orientation to this study**

While Carr and Kemmis' (2004) study aimed to "develop a more coherent account of the nature of educational theory and practice" (p. 4), it has been subjected to important counterarguments. Elliott (2005) provided cautionary guidance regarding the unquestioning use of Carr and Kemmis' (2004) arguments, specifically their failure to connect theory with practice as they promised to do. Rather than release their primary aim, Elliott (2005) contended that Carr and Kemmis' (2004) study enhanced teacher education researchers' identity as social scientists though offering

the attractive prospect of bringing teacher educators in university departments of education, who were operating at the margins of social science, 'in from the cold'. They were invited to identify with an intelligentsia who see their role in society as providers of educative theoretical critiques of social practices. (p. 371)

Further, with this renewed sense of intellectual identity, Elliott (2005) argued that Carr and Kemmis (2004) fostered a sense among teacher education researchers of their responsibilities and capabilities for empowering teachers. For Elliott (2005), this agenda was reinforced by Carr and Kemmis (2004) marrying the work of academics with an explicit sense of politics. This marriage was affected through

reconciling their academic identity with their political commitment in a way that preserved the distinctiveness of the former. Some felt that much action research in education focused over-narrowly on changing curriculum and pedagogy, to the neglect of the wider political social context of education and the way it shaped discriminatory practices in schools. (Carr & Kemmis, 2004, p. 372)

Together, these three moves served the interests of teacher education researchers. While not reconciling the relationship between theory and practice, Elliott (2005) argued that this agenda made it possible for teacher education researchers to be

empowered to effect a socially just distribution of educational goods if they reflect about the powerful forces that shape their practice in the light of critical theory. It is the role of the academic to apply such theory to the practices of teachers in the form of enlightening critiques. (p. 372)

Thus, it is important to note here that this study did not set out to do what Carr and Kemmis (2004) claimed to do with respect to marrying theory and practice. In terms of Carr and Kemmis' (2004) argument, I was required to "integrate theory and practice" (p. 144) so that my practice of WIL could be subjected to critical reflection, and thereby transformed as I gained further enlightenment. Rather, Elliott (2005) reinforced my sense of scepticism about how a language teacher education researcher might use their research methodology.

This study employed an interpretive-critical philosophical stance (Dempsey, Lincoln & Cifuentes, 2011; Lemaire & Paquin, 2019) to investigate the social issues in WIL in language teacher education. I used the existing organised body of knowledge documents in Chapters 2 and 3 to inform the analysis of this evidence. Thus, in order to address the research questions posed for this study, I conceptualised the project in terms of collecting four layers of data sources (see Table 4.7). This search for four-level data set was informed by Carr and Kemmis' (2004) argument for obtaining information that could be analysed to reveal the relations of power and knowledge operating in these programs of WIL in language teacher education.

The aim of using interpretive-critical research in this study was to understand participants' interpretations of their lived experiences of WIL, and to question how their accounts by situating them in reference to larger structures in order to develop a more informed understanding of what might be done to address any dilemmas in their WIL programs (Carr & Kemmis, 2004). Table 4.2 illustrates the interpretive components, and the critical dimensions represented in the evidentiary chapters in this thesis. A key task for the



interpretive strand of this research was to understand meanings of WIL as constructed by participants. Understanding how participants interpret the organisation of WIL, and why they respond in the ways that they do is integral to understandings possibilities for increasing the effectiveness of WIL programs, or changing them as the case may warrant. However, the interpretations of participants of WIL processes are represent, but one important link in this research. In addition to the interpretive dimension, this research incorporates a critical framework informed by the theories of Williams’s (1977) cultural materialist theory of the relationships among production, organisation, and values; Berlak and Berlak’s (1981) theory of teaching and social change; and Munro’s (1997) theory of organisational control. The critical dimension of this research goes beyond the participants’ interpretations to analyse the material structures evident in university and government policies in order to understand the changing conditions for WIL, and what might be done in this context build educationally worthwhile WIL programs.

Table 4.2

*Interpretive-critical analysis of evidence in this thesis*

<b>Partnerships for Work-Integrated Learning in Language Teacher Education</b>	
<b>Interpretations of themes</b>	<b>Critical analysis of structures</b>
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Education partnerships for and through Work-integrated learning</li> <li>2. Partnership as an education strategy</li> <li>3. Mutual benefits</li> <li>4. The nature of partnership</li> <li>5. Financially driven collaboration</li> <li>6. Tailored partnerships</li> <li>7. Dependency</li> <li>8. Academic/financial dependency</li> <li>9. Divergence of ideas (Chín người, mười ý)</li> <li>10. Unequal language/power /knowledge relations</li> <li>11. Stakeholders’ discomfort</li> <li>12. Stakeholders’ role confusion</li> <li>13. Organisational structural change</li> <li>14. Workload</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. Dominant trajectory in WIL partnerships</li> <li>b. Emergent trajectory in WIL partnerships</li> <li>c. Residual trajectory in WIL partnerships</li> </ol>

<b>Dilemmas in Work-Integrated Learning in Language Teacher Education</b>	
<b>Participants' interpretations</b>	<b>Critical analysis of structures</b>
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Contributions of work-integrated learning</li> <li>2. Student teachers' work-readiness</li> <li>3. 21st-century capabilities</li> <li>4. Educational opportunities for learners experiencing inequality</li> <li>5. Enactment challenges in work-integrated learning</li> <li>6. Lack of workforce</li> <li>7. Workforce allocation</li> <li>8. Teaching/learning facilities</li> <li>9. Funding</li> <li>10. Education contestation</li> <li>11. Policy settings</li> <li>12. University administrative practices</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. Knowledge as provision versus knowledge as process</li> <li>b. Unique versus common characteristics of learners</li> <li>c. Common educational culture versus workplace learning sites</li> <li>d. Monitoring support standards versus control</li> <li>e. Knowledge as educational resources versus commodification of knowledge</li> </ol>
<b>Connections and Disconnections in Work-Integrated Learning in Language Teacher Education</b>	
<b>Participants' interpretations</b>	<b>Critical analysis of structures</b>
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Crossing curriculum priority</li> <li>2. Learning transformation</li> <li>3. Peer learning</li> <li>4. Social media use</li> <li>5. Student performance</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. Connections and disconnections in WIL programs</li> <li>b. Links and gaps</li> <li>c. Presences and absences</li> <li>d. Relations and nonrelations</li> <li>e. Manufacturing connections and disconnections</li> </ol>

Carr and Kemmis (2004) argued that “both theory (organized knowledge) and practice (organized action) can be treated in a unified way as problematic—as open to dialectical reconstruction through reflection and revision” (p. 42). Elliott (2005) problematised Carr and Kemmis’ (2004) efforts in this regard. However, I wanted to engage in the practice (organised action) of WIL during the course of my doctoral studies, to revise it over the course of time, and to critically reflect upon its role in the larger sociopolitical context of education (Goede, & Taylorlien, 2019; Griffin, 2018). Thus, in terms of the practice of WIL, I engaged in teaching by working as an accredited volunteer primary school ethics teacher delivering ethics lessons at a local school in Sydney, Australia (Appendix 13). This WIL initiative did not begin until 15 months after I had started this study. Nevertheless, it stimulated my critical reflections on the questions relating to this study. Thus, this engagement in the work of ethics

teaching provided important learnings about workplace knowledge, work attitudes, and performance. As an international doctoral candidate, this WIL practice provided me with entry to a new work environment, and way of looking at education partnerships between NGOs and schools, the contributions and expectations of partners and stakeholders involved in education, and the play of power/knowledge relations (Foucault, 1977; 1980).

Given my interests in postmonolingual theorising as outlined in Chapter, 3, I was interested in Carr and Kemmis' (2004) argument that research could provide a language teacher educator with a means for taking responsibility for my own intellectual emancipation from "the dictates of irrationality, injustice, alienation and unfulfillment" (p. 204). Following their suggestion, I explored those habits, customs, precedents, traditions, control structures, and bureaucratic routines to identify those aspects of language teacher education that were contradictory and irrational. The idea that languages must be kept separate in language education and research struck me as a taken-for-granted, unquestioned habit that was contradicted every day when teaching Tiếng Anh (English language) to students who spoke Tiếng Việt (Vietnamese language). In speaking of intellectual emancipation through research, Carr and Kemmis (2004) gave me the transcultural self-confidence to pursue my aim, and interest in developing my capabilities for postmonolingual research, and to alter my education, research, and knowledge production and its dissemination.

In the next section, a multisite case study was employed as the research strategy in the research reported in this thesis (Bishop, 2010; Yin, 2014). In undertaking this multisite case study, the experiences, perceptions, and conceptions of the research participants regarding programs of WIL in language teacher education at two universities were investigated to broaden understandings of this approach to professional learning.

### **4.3 Multisite case study research design**

A multisite case study "investigates a defined, contemporary phenomenon that is common to two or more real-world or naturalistic settings" (Bishop, 2010, p. 588). Undertaking the multisite case study reported in this thesis was to form a common dialogue in work-based learning and teacher education, rather than to compare the two programs across the two countries. This is because any comparatively successful attributes of one

program relative to the other would necessarily be explained in terms of their different contexts. Added to this would be the difficulties in establishing what causal factors led to the effective success of any aspect of either program. Most importantly, using a multisite case study as the research strategy for this project was appropriate for addressing the research questions and research purposes of this project. Admittedly, multisite case study is time consuming, labour-intensive work. However, using multisite case study was expected to generate a complex data set with more possibilities of compelling and robust evidence (N. Tran et al., 2018), and thus was preferable to a single-site case study which would have meant putting “all eggs in one package” (Yin, 2014, p. 64).

As explained in Chapter 1, the research sites for this study of WIL in language teacher education focused on a program in Việt Nam and another in Australia. Thus, this study involved fieldwork in Việt Nam to study WIL in language teacher education program specialising in English, and fieldwork in Australia to study WIL in a language teacher education program specialising in Chinese. The WIL English language teacher education program in Việt Nam was incorporated within accredited units to prepare students for professional work as English language teachers at Hoa Sen University (HSU) in Hồ Chí Minh City. Students participating in WIL English language teacher education program are accredited as an awareness internship. Students can choose one of the options of WIL or take this awareness internship at workplaces in schools or industry, which lasts 16 weeks. In the WIL English language teacher education program, one cohort of WIL students was allocated to teach English to orphan children aged 4 to 13 years at the Pagoda Orphans’ Shelter. Some were children with physical disabilities. Another cohort of WIL students taught English to disadvantaged young adult learners at the Hospitality School. Most of these learners, who were disadvantaged youth from shelters or poor families, were aged 16 to 21 years. Some of these young adults were learners with disabilities and were sent to the Hospitality School for vocational education funded by Hồ Chí Minh City Council. While the hospitality training for the young adults aimed to prepare them for jobs in restaurants, English teaching/learning activities provided by the WIL students focused on helping the young adults improve their English-speaking skills. WIL students could choose one of these two workplaces for their convenience of travelling from home.

Australia's WIL Chinese language teacher education program involved student volunteers from China undertaking a higher research degree at either master's or doctoral level. This WIL Chinese language teacher education program was implemented as a research-oriented, school-engaged model of language teacher education. The WIL students received instructions in teacher research and language education at university, undertook preliminary observations in schools, then made their own efforts to help school students learn Chinese spoken language as a part of their everyday schooling. WIL students used the materials they generated in this process as evidence to analyse how they improved their professional learning resulting in engaging with teaching school students. For those undertaking a master's degree, it took at least 18 months, while those undertaking a doctorate took up to 48 months. Thus, WIL meant the students undertook work in schools. This work was the focus of their preparatory learning experience provided by selected academics and Departmental officers at university off-campus, and the parallel learning experiences they provided to extend their professional learning throughout their WIL degree. In effect, this means university and workplace learning are integrated to deepen WIL students' professional learning. Outcomes for student volunteers in school-based language teaching/learning, and the self-study they undertake in this work, leads to a research report of their professional learning to be examined for the degree awarded.

This research study employed a flexible research design (Robson, 2011). The term "flexible" means the research design emerges and develops over the course of the initial phase of the study, which allows for changes data collection techniques in accordance with advice from the Confirmation of Candidature panel, and the human ethics review process (Sedmak & Longhurst, 2010). The reason for employing a flexible research design was to fit in the availability of research participants, and the constraints of time and the financial resources available to conduct the fieldwork. By using a flexible research design, it was possible to generate a better array of data, which meant that the analysis of evidence provided better insights into the complexities and perplexities of WIL in language teacher education (Robson, 2011). This research design allowed the research process to be extended through revising a growing range of research literature based on the themes that emerged from analysing the data. Moreover, this design made it possible for different strands of data

collection and analysis to be undertaken at different points of time during the research project. Specifically, documents related to the reach of the WIL programs were collected in the first phase of data collection (Jacobsson, 2016). Some of these documents were used for modifying the focus of subsequent interviews to ensure that the probing questions being asked related to what was then known about them. For instance, the data collection in Việt Nam was conducted from October to December 2016. Some research participants sent follow-up emails sharing program artefacts following my departure from Việt Nam, which gave me a basis for enquiring about similar artefacts from participants at the Australian research site.

During the second phase of data collection in Australia, I initially conducted interviews with three of the four participant groups, namely, university managers, program academics, and WIL students at WSU. While waiting for approval through the NSW State Education Research Applications Process (SERAP) for accessing research participants working in public schools in Sydney, I collected more documents about this particular WIL program from interviewees and the university's website. After obtaining approval for the involvement of school personnel in the research, I conducted interviews with this last group of research participants. In my research proposal, I planned to conduct interviews at two sites from October 2016 to March 2017. However, data collection was not completed until June 2017 due to the time it took to obtain official approval to do so, and due to the research participants' availability for participating in interviews. Thus, a flexible research design was quite appropriate and productive for conducting this research.

With respect to the selection of research sites, research participants for interviews were selected from WIL in language teacher education programs at Hoa Sen University (HSU, Việt Nam) and Western Sydney University (WSU, Australia). These two research sites were chosen based on the criteria of relevance, accessibility, and feasibility.

For the Australian research site, I chose the Chinese WIL teacher education program at WSU. This program specialises in preparing volunteer university graduates from China to learn how to teach primary and secondary school students how to learn and use Chinese as part of their everyday schooling. This WIL program was of immediate relevance to my

research project with the Chinese language education in Australia. As most of the prospective research participants were located in the same university where I was undertaking my doctoral education, this enhanced the feasibility of this study. Additionally, by working as a research assistant at WSU on the Local Global Learning project, I learnt about possibilities for gaining relevant evidence about this WIL program and gained an overview of the potential research participants for my project. Moreover, with finance and time constraints for conducting this doctoral research project, thus, as a matter of feasibility, I chose this research site in Australia.

Similarly, in terms of relevance, accessibility, and feasibility, I elected to study the English WIL program at HSU (Việt Nam) as my second research site for this study. In terms of relevance, the university offers a WIL in teacher education program, focusing on English as a major local/global language that is an expression of, and a significant commodity in, the internationalisation of education. In terms of accessibility, I was employed as an academic at this university, and was on official leave to undertake this doctoral project. These factors helped me with accessing potential interviewees and related documents, and made the work of data collection more feasible. This is because I had prior knowledge of this particular WIL program and stakeholders involved, which was operated in the English Department even though I had never been directly involved in it. Thus, I was able to approach them directly without having to secure administrative support from university managers. Additionally, as an academic in the English Department, I did not have any power nor intended to generate impact on or coerce their participation in my research project. I sent them project information sheets (Appendix 2) so that they knew what they could contribute to my project, and doing so helped them feel comfortable to participate voluntarily in the research study with their informed consent (Appendix 3). Two of the participants could not participate due to their schedules. By investigating the WIL programs at these two research sites, I expected to be able to generate a robust array of evidence that would provide insights into the complexities and perplexities of universities integrating work and learning in language teacher education.

#### 4.4 Criteria for quality data collection

This section describes and justifies the criteria for the rigour in data collection of this research study including the principles to ensure its credibility through triangulation, establishing its dependability through a research protocol, and the transferability and confirmability of this study.

##### 4.4.1 Credibility through triangulation

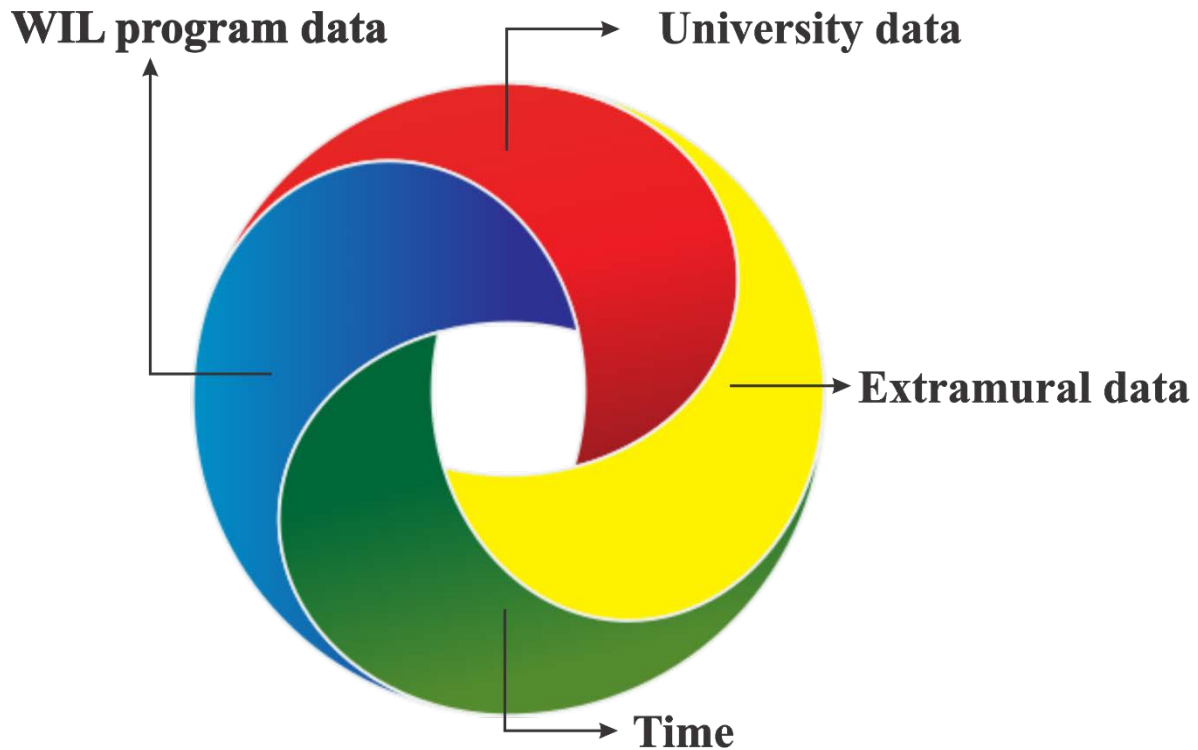
Credibility concerns the accuracy of the data collected or otherwise generated about the educational phenomenon under investigation (Wahyuni, 2012). In claiming that this multisite case study offers accurate data, it is necessary to consider the question “How do we know about the researchers obtained worthwhile evidence?” This criterion speaks to the trustworthiness with which this study was conducted. Educational research across multiple sites can be expected to lead to multiple accounts (Chilisa, 2011). *Pattern matching*, that is, “analysis of case study data by comparing or matching the pattern within the collected data with a pattern defined prior to data collection” (Yin, 2014, p. 240), was used to identify recurrent patterns, categories, and themes across the data set, along with counterevidence that spoke to a given theme but deviated from the emerging pattern. Further, *explanation building*, that is, identifying the propositions used to explain the patterns in the evidence, was explored through using rival explanatory tools (Collins, Onwuegbuzie, & Jiao, 2010; Yin, 2014). Thus, in order to warrant credibility in this study, several approaches to triangulation were employed, namely, *theory triangulation* and *data triangulation* (Carter et al., 2014). In terms of theory triangulation, the decision was made to use more than one set of conceptual tools to analyse and interpret data.<sup>9</sup>

With regard to data triangulation, six sources of evidence were collected in connection to research questions for analysis in this study. They were in the form of four interrelated layers, running from the micro through the meso to the macro levels and across time (Figure 4. 1).

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<sup>9</sup> As noted in Chapter 3, theory triangulation involving analytical concepts from Williams (1977), Berlak and Berlak (1981), and Munro (1997) along with Tiếng Việt concepts, was employed in this study to examine different ways of looking at the key factors affecting WIL in language teacher education (see also N. Nguyen, 2017, 2018, 2019).





*Figure 4.1.* Sources of evidence: The multiple concentric circles over time.

Layer 1 in Figure 4.1 comprises data from those involved in the two WIL programs. These data included semistructured interviews, or purposeful conversations, and artefacts shared by participants such as photographs of teaching activities, students' reflections (Yin, 2014), and program policy documents (Yanow, 2007). However, in the Chinese WIL program, no photographs were shared due to the ethical procedures required for disseminating photographs that include other people. Layer 2 comprises data from the two universities in which the programs operated, including their policies and related educational documents. Layer 3 consists of extramural data such as government policies, media reports, and academic studies relating to these. Layer 4 indicates that all sources of evidence in this study revealed the movement of WIL programs over time. In other words, there is a history embedded in the semistructured interviews, the artefacts provided by participants, students' reflections, university program documents and government policies.

At the interviews, participants shared their day-to-day practice of WIL. However, their day-to-day practice of WIL was moderated and negotiated through university policies and procedures as well as government sociocultural and economic policies, all of which were developed and redeveloped over time. Arber (2014) made a similar point about studying the multilayered nature of phenomena, noting that everyday practices are “mediated by the rules and structure of institutions, and negotiated within the larger fields of social, economic and cultural relations” (p. 65). Thus, this study used four layers of data to triangulate various sources of evidence in the two WIL programs. The aim of this data triangulation was to mitigate or otherwise mediate biases in the research, while bringing into view the terms, and conditions that frame these WIL programs to better understand their situatedness in the world (Chilisa, 2011; Yin 2014).

I began my data collection by accessing publicly available documents about the two WIL programs, specifically the Chinese WIL teacher education program at WSU (Australia) and the English WIL teacher education program at HSU (Việt Nam). Documents were downloaded from those universities’ websites. Later, printed documents were obtained from some of the participants’ interviews. Initially, I used the evidence from the interviews and documents provided by interviewees as the focus for analysis. However, as the analysis of evidence proceeded, I found that these data were not sufficient to understand the multilayered context in which the WIL programs were embedded, and the forces that impacted their operations. Evidence from the two universities and extramural agencies, particularly governments, was gathered and analysed to provide a more informed understanding of the interviewees’ accounts. This additional evidence enhanced the meaning that emerged from the analysis of the interviews. In this way, inter-referencing of participants’ accounts with these additional sources of evidence provided a situational understanding of the WIL programs.

#### **4.4.2 Establishing dependability through a research protocol**

Dependability concerns the consistency of data collection methods used and the possibility of applying these methods at other times to acquire similar evidence (Palaiologou, Needham, & Male, 2015). Dependability refers to the possibility of using the same data

collection repeatedly to obtain the same results as a way of minimising errors and bias in the data collected (Yin, 2014). In addressing the question of dependability, I considered, “Could this study be done to achieve better results”? For the rigour of research of this study, dependability was addressed by preparing a research protocol (Appendix 4) that specified the research focus, research questions, data collection methods, and procedures for data analysis. While other researchers may not aim to acquire the same evidence as collected for this study, by following this research protocol, they will have a basis for establishing the relative trustworthiness of the study, and grounds for considering points of variation (Connelly, 2016). However, the point of any replicated study that I or another researcher undertook would not be to just repeat the investigation reported here, but to make it more rigorous and more dependable.

Changes were made to the initial research protocol in response to feedback from the Confirmation of Candidature panel, the application for ethics approval, the substantive development of Chapters 2 and 3 of thesis, and the availability of research participants. I was able to fix the research protocol, which then served to guide my undertaking of the research reported in this thesis. The research protocol provided an indication of the research plan once it had been firmed up during the initial stage of this study. This thesis reports the results of the research undertaken based on this plan. Further, as noted in the next section, to avoid cherry-picking confirmatory evidence for analyses, and thus generating more favourable or favoured findings, I deliberately selected counterevidence, and addressed contrary arguments (Section 4.7.5).

#### **4.4.3 Confirmability**

The criterion of confirmability used in this multisite case study of WIL in language teacher education was to ensure that this research was not biased due to the influence of the researcher’s own presumptions or preferences (Lamond & Platt, 2016; Wahyuni, 2012). To enhance confirmability, I created an audit trail of what actually happened throughout the research process (Moon, Brewer, Januchowski-Hartley, Adams, & Blackman, 2016) by recording the process of data collection, and the codes that emerged through the data analysis. In doing so, I recorded the list of people I interviewed, albeit using pseudonyms, along with

details of time and venue. Then I used a diary to record the time I invested at each research site; made a record of contextual information relating to the conduct of the interviews, and incorporated in the interview schedule (Appendix 5), the prompts and probes I used (Appendix 6). I used two notebooks for recording during the data collection phase. One notebook was for interview notes and contextual information about each interview with the date noted on the page. The other notebook was for noting any key words, emergent topics, or interesting points that I might ask other participants in subsequent interviews. For this latter task, I listened to the audio recordings in the evening of the same day of interview for drafting possible codes, categories, and themes. This audit trail created a degree of transparency likely to confirm that this thesis provides a realistic and truthful account of the research phenomenon under investigation.

#### **4.4.4 Transferability**

Transferability in this study refers to the degree to which the concepts explored in this research can be transferred to other settings for the purposes of research or education. In effect, transferability is defined as “the domain to which a study’s findings can be generalized” (Yin, 2014, p. 46). For the purpose of this study, key concepts present possibilities for transfer from this study to future research into WIL in language teacher education or for use in informing the development of programs in this field. In Section 8.3, Implications for Policy and Practice (Chapter 8), the issue of transferability is addressed in terms of the short-, medium-, and long-term uptake of key concepts from this study. Through the transfer of existing knowledge produced by Williams (1977), Berlak and Berlak (1981), and Munro (1997) for use in new ways in this study, it is possible to suggest potential transferability of these ideas to future work in this field. In addition, through the generation of new concepts from Tiếng Việt metaphors, it is also possible to suggest the potential transferability of these ideas to future work in this field, as well as doctoral education. The research reported in this thesis opens up for further exploration the possibilities for developing Tiếng Việt concepts that may prove even more significant for affecting the transfer of significant knowledge.

The description of the two research sites in Việt Nam and Australia, including the characteristics of the two programs and details about the context of this study, were provided in part to inform researchers' and educators' understanding of the possibilities for the transferability of the concepts explored through this study (Table 4.3 and Table 4.4). Likewise, the research protocol was provided to enhance judgements about these issues of transferability. With this information, other researchers in comparable or similar research situations may find key concepts from this study potentially transferable to their specific sociological and educational contexts, no doubt with some necessary amendments (Lamond & Platt, 2016). With some careful adjustments to concepts drawn from the research findings presented in Chapter 8, there is the possibility that they may be transferred to different studies in other universities, and other jurisdictions (Wahyuni, 2012). In this educational research project, questions of ethics informed the research design. In the following section, ethical considerations which were a necessary part of the proper rules governing the conduct of this research are discussed.

#### **4.5 Research ethics**

In terms of axiology, undertaking research with humans requires the researcher to deal with ethical issues (Flynn & Goldsmith, 2013) to ensure that the research does not have any harmful effect on the participants. To do so, I completed the National Ethics Application Form (NEAF) (Appendix 7) for conducting this research with human participants. However, I had to apply for a further ethical approval from SERAP (Appendix 8) for conducting research in schools, specifically for interviewing teachers who support HDRs in their volunteer teaching of Chinese to students at public schools in Sydney. These ethical procedures helped me define the accepted or unaccepted behaviour regarding right or wrong actions by researchers, myself included (Robson, 2011). In terms of ethical practices in research, which uses quantitative techniques for data collection and analysis, Zyphur and Pierides (2017) argued that these procedures prevent researchers from addressing the most urgent problems facing humanity today, such as poverty, racial inequality, and climate change. Powell (2018) agreed with these concerns about the philosophy and ethics of social

research that uses these quantitative techniques, but noted that such arguments are unlikely to change attitudes among those who are ideologically and political wedded to such research.

#### **4.5.1 Participant recruitment**

During the pre-recruiting stage, I talked to key informants about who may give the necessary information required to address my research questions, and how I could go about recruiting such participants. For their advice, I drafted a list of research participants and then checked the suitability of those listed with my key informants. In recruiting participants, I initially contacted them via email, providing an information sheet, and inviting them to participate in the research. However, a telephone call was made as initial contact with some potential participants as they tended not to use emails. With some participants at both sites, I had the opportunity to meet them in person; I then invited them to participate in the study. Emails with project information were sent after our initial meeting to confirm their acceptance.

With regard to the research site in Việt Nam, the participants in the English WIL program were working at the same university where I had worked prior to my study in Australia. However, as previously explained, I was not involved in the WIL program that is the focus of this study. Except for those I had invited in person, I sent invitations (Appendix 9) to most participants, selecting those working in WIL. For those participants who were students, none were my students. I approached these students at a WIL training session to introduce my research project, and invited them to participate. In Australia, I searched the university email system to identify the contact details for the prospective participants who had been suggested to me, and invited them to participate via email. For participants working in schools, I joined a Chinese teacher training workshop for mentors and mentees to approach prospective participants to introduce my project, and invite them to participate. However, to engage the school mentors, I had to get approval from the principal at the school where these mentors worked. To do so, I sent an email to school principals (Appendix 10) attaching information sheets (Appendix 2) and the official letter of the Department of Education (SERAP) (Appendix 8) to request approval. Having received letter of approval from the

school principal, I emailed information sheets (Appendix 2) and invitations to school mentors (Appendix 11) before undertaking interviews with them.

Thirty-four (n = 34) participants joined the study after 50 invitation emails were sent to prospective male and female participants known to be involved in the WIL programs in English language teacher education (Việt Nam) (Table 4.3) and Chinese language teacher education (Australia) (Table 4.4). While there may not have been equal numbers of males and females working in WIL, the study aimed to recruit equal numbers of males and females with the hope of gaining insights into gender-related issues relevant to the research. Combined, Tables 4.3 and 4.4 indicate that more females than males participated in this study, with thirteen (n = 13) males and twenty-one (n = 21) females participating in the interviews. This gender differential in research participants seems to be related to the tendency for more female staff than males to be involved in teacher education and language education (Van Der Slik, Van Hout, & Schepens, 2015). This gender differential among the number of participants reflects the nature of work and professional trends in these fields and in WIL; those who saw themselves as having oversight of the two WIL programs were female.

Table 4.3

*Demographic Information of Research Participants in Việt Nam (n = 18)*

Age	Academics		Workplace Supervisors		Undergraduate Students		University Managers	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
18–30					4	3		
31–45	1	4		2			1	1
46–60	1						1	
Gender	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Language for interview	Vietnamese							

Table 4.4

*Demographic Information of Research Participants in Australia (n = 16)*

Age	Academic Supervisors		School Mentors		Postgraduate Students		University Managers	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
22–30					2	4		
31–45	1	2		2			1	
46–65	1						1	2
Gender	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Language for interview	English							

The students involved in the English WIL program in Việt Nam were all undergraduate students in Years 1, 2, or 3 of their degree and ranged in age from 18 to 30 (Table 4.3). In contrast, the students participating in the Chinese WIL program in Australia were all postgraduates in Year 1 or 2 of their teacher research in language education, undertaking a Master or Doctorate of Philosophy, and their ages ranged from 22 to 45 (Table 4.4).

In Việt Nam, WIL took place at a hospitality school where the workplace supervisors were teachers but not involved as mentors. Academic supervisors from the university were in charge of coaching and mentoring, while workplace supervisors at the Pagoda Orphans' Shelters were responsible for monitoring students' workplace performance, behaviour, and attendance. In Australia, schoolteachers played the role of mentors in the Chinese WIL program. Both workplace supervisors and school mentors in these two WIL programs are in the same range of age from 31 to 45.

Most of the participants were bi/multilingual; some spoke Tiếng Việt and English (n = 16), and some spoke Putonghua and Yingyu (n = 8). Only a few were monolingual English speakers (n = 4). Moreover, some of the participants were citizens of Australia (n = 7). Research interviews in the Chinese WIL program were conducted in English while those in the English WIL program were conducted in Vietnamese. The study was based on the following ethical principles.



#### **4.5.2 Informed consent**

Participation in this research study was conducted on a voluntary basis and with the participants' informed consent. Clarke, Barnes, and Ross (2018) defined informed consent as ensuring that research participants are "given adequate information regarding the benefits and risks of [their participation in a research project, and that they] must have capacity in which to make that decision, and the decision must be free of coercion" (p. 1082). In this study, the interviewees accepted the invitations to voluntarily participate by signing the consent form (Appendix 3) for sharing information in the interview after having received an explanation of the purpose of the project. This step was to avoid the possibility of the participants being deceived, and to ensure that they understood their contribution would help me investigate the character of WIL in language teacher education. I also explained that this research project was not being undertaken for commercial or other non-educational purposes. My initial briefing helped each participant consider and anticipate any possible risks that might result from their direct involvement in this study (Robson, 2011; Seidman, 2013). In doing so, data collection for this study was undertaken on a noncoercive basis (Nelson et al., 2011). This means that no force or threat was employed by the researcher to obtain participants' involvement in this study. Specifically, all the participants at WSU and at HSU were told that they would not have any penalties nor pressure such as physical and mental stress imposed on them, and if they felt this to be the case, they could withdraw from further participation in the study and withdraw their interview data (Robson, 2011). Hence, one manager with responsibility for the supervisors and the volunteers involved in Chinese WIL program declined to take part in this study on the grounds of not having expertise relating to WIL in HDR education. I was sympathetic to this person's claims, while also expressing empathetic understanding that recognised the significance of the contributions made by those who volunteered to participate. Further, it should be noted that no incentives such as gift cards, gifts, nor money were used to gain access to, and to involve, the participants who volunteered to take part in this study. Adopting this practice was to eliminate a possible cause of bias in terms of the information the participants were likely to share.

### **4.5.3 Respectful recognition**

Data collection for this study was undertaken with respectful recognition of participants' contributions (Hett & Hett, 2013). To do so, the researcher expressed her acknowledgment of participants' knowledge and gratitude to them in sharing their information and perceptions about WIL. These words were reinforced through attentive listening, creating the space for them to speak and to think, and encouraging them to express their ideas and give voice to what they knew (Chilisa, 2011). In this study, I expressed my appreciation, and respect for each participant's contributions irrespective of their sociopolitical status and irrespective of the relevance or otherwise of the information shared. I asked probing questions to stimulate their sharing of project-related information.

### **4.5.4 Confidentiality and anonymity**

In addressing the issues of confidentiality and anonymity, avoiding invasion of participants' confidentiality and anonymity was important for this research (Wiles, Crow, Heath, & Charles, 2008).

I gave participants an understanding of their rights in this study. Specifically, I provided them with a project information sheet (Appendix 2), and a copy of the approval letter from the university's Ethics Committee (Appendix 7). I then assured the participants of their privacy, and that participation in this study would not harm them (Robson, 2011) by explaining that the information they shared during the interviews, and any artefacts they provided would be stored in password-protected electronic files that could only be managed and operated by myself. After explaining this process, participants felt secure about the privacy of the information they would provide, and this enabled them to feel more confident in sharing their knowledge of their programs. In closing each interview, I emphasised that in order to maintain their confidentiality and anonymity, the information they provided would not be presented in any way that they could be identified. For this reason, when writing reports based on this research, their names were replaced with pseudonyms. In this thesis, the participants have been acknowledged in the front matter as a group rather than by their names.

How might research participants, and research sites be represented in this study in ways that extend the scholarly debates over postmonolingual research methods? In this study, the

actual names of the research participants have been withheld. However, by building upon Nesper's (2000) argument, the form of anonymisation used for the participants in this study is intended to connect their accounts of these two WIL programs to claims made for postmonolingual research methods. Thus, the pseudonyms for the participants have been chosen to represent particular theoretical categories that are pertinent for this study—for example, Jilpa: *life giving*; Cheng: *sincere, honest, true*; Dan Dan = *gradually*; Wanqing = *success*; Andrea = *courageous*; Harry = *estate ruler*; Trí = *intellectual*; Liêm = *sincerity*. This strategy for anonymisation links the research participants in these WIL programs to their repertoire of languages-and-knowledge. Beyond the ethical reasons for choosing these pseudonyms, they were also selected based on the need to have names that represented, and linked their participation in these two WIL programs. Any pseudonyms may be sufficient for ethical reasons, however, in this study the pseudonyms were chosen to represent the nature of the relationship between the participants and the WIL programs.

Thus, the pseudonyms used in this study are constitutive of the postmonolingual research method that has been employed, connecting participants with their multilingual capabilities, and highlighting the systematic relations and processes involved in their articulation. This approach to anonymisation allows for the coordination of evidence with the postmonolingual research method used in this study, and aligns it with an exploration of the tensions between the local/global intellectual dominance of the English language and the local/global practices of multilingualism. The location of these pseudonyms in this study work to inform public debates and policies on research education on the place of multilingualism in knowledge production and dissemination.

#### **4.5.5 Balancing benefits and harms for participants**

This research project was conducted with the aim of producing benefits for those working in WIL in language teacher education, and minimising the risks of harm or discomfort for participants. In conducting this research project, my challenge was to balance the creation of benefits for the project's participants while avoiding harm to them (te Riele & Baker, 2016). By applying the principles of confidentiality and anonymity, this study is

unlikely to harm the participants in participating in research interviews. As the researcher, I benefited overall from collecting and analysing the evidence in relation to the research questions. The participants benefited from sharing their experiences, perceptions, and conceptions in WIL or raising their voices about current issues or initiatives of concern to themselves (Chilisa, 2011), and gaining further insights into the field by reading my research reports arising from this study (e.g., N. Nguyen, 2017, 2018).

#### **4.5.6 Disclosure of research outcomes**

As part of their informed consent, it is the right of participants in research to know the outcomes of the study in which they are involved. Sharing research outcomes is my responsibility as the researcher (Ferris & Sass-Kortsak, 2011). I was aware that failing to provide the participants with research outcomes may cause problems, such as reluctance to participate in future research projects conducted by other researchers. At each interview, the participants were informed that their contributions of knowledge that would make this study possible would be represented in this thesis, and would be readily available online and in other research work, such as articles, book chapters, and conference papers. Participants were advised that they could request copies of any of these research reports, and were provided with my contact details to enable them to do so. Once again, participants were assured that their identities would be excluded from these publications. My doctoral education team only saw evidentiary excerpts from the interviews bearing participants' pseudonyms.

#### **4.6 Data collection procedures**

Preparation for data collection (e.g., documents) and generation (e.g., interviews) is essential for maximising the quality of data available for analysis. Before conducting research interviews at the two research sites, education policies regarding the WIL programs at the two universities were collected from their publicly accessible websites. Online education policies relating to WIL, and teacher education were then obtained from government websites (MOET, 2014, 2017a). The evidence collected from these multiple sources was used in this study to provide insights into the changing macro context in which the two programs operated. Further, the analysis of this documentary evidence helped me revise the interview schedule, and to use this prior knowledge to initiate probing questions during the interviews.

Table 4.5 indicates the range of tasks that were conducted to ensure effectiveness of data generation via the interviews.

Table 4.5

*Preparing for Research Interviews*

<b>Tasks</b>	<b>Researcher's Engagement</b>
<b>Logistical arrangement</b>	Institution research support funding (airfares, travel, and living expenses) Personal budget Travel (vehicles and expenses) Instruments (recorders, notebooks, interview questions, information sheets, and consent forms) Interview schedules (with estimation of timeline and duration of interviews) Room booking for interview: at the university Interview checklist (before, during, and after an interview)
<b>Scheduling interviews with participants</b>	Using emails, phone calls, or meeting in person to arrange the time and venue for the interview
<b>Interview questions</b>	Revised and updated Probes Time estimated for each interview: 60 minutes
<b>Researcher's performance</b>	Dressing professionally Being punctual; arriving well ahead of the scheduled interview time Performing professionally before, during, and after the interview in the given venue
<b>Awareness of local culture values</b>	Greeting Dress Manners Respecting diversity and freedom of speech Hierarchy ideology

To ensure the efficacy of the interviews, extensive time was invested in the preparation stage, which proved to be a demanding task and covered a range of considerations. For example, I sought research funding from the university for the cost of return airfares, and part of my living expenses when undertaking the data collection in Việt Nam. However, I had to use my own financial resources while in Việt Nam to cover the cost of accommodation, food,

and daily transport to the venues for interviews. For example, I could only access interviewees in local suburbs via *xe ôm* (a motorcycle ride service in Hồ Chí Minh City), and have meals at nearby shops. I paid for these services in cash without receipts, which meant I could not claim university funding.

Selecting or booking a venue for the interviews required careful planning, and was not always an easy task. For the research participants in the English WIL program, except for interviewing participants in the community, most of the interviews took place at the university. I booked an on-campus room for interviews through the booking system at HSU using my account as an academic. For the Chinese WIL program, I booked the university's library group study room for each interview in accordance with my entitlement as an enrolled PhD candidate. However, some academics and students changed the time or venue for their scheduled interviews, which challenged me in changing the library room booking or meeting them at an alternative venue such as their offices. Some interviews with university managers took place in their offices, some in a staff room. Accessing the schools in Sydney by train to interview school mentors was time consuming, and I had to plan more time to arrive at school earlier.

Scheduling interviews was one of the most stressful tasks in planning this research, especially in organising fieldwork in Việt Nam due to the timeline being fixed with respect to return dates for the airfare allocated by the university. I had to manage the time for interviewing 25 potential participants in Việt Nam by completing the fieldwork within two months. Interview questions (Appendix 12) comprising open-ended questions were followed by probes to “explore topics in depth, to understand processes, and to identify potential causes of observed correlations” (Weller et al. 2018, p. 1). One colleague of mine was involved in proofing and giving feedback on clarity, simplicity, and answerability of the interview questions, and the estimated length of the interview, and another one for piloting the interview for refinement (Castillo-Montoya, 2016). The interview questions were revised and refined based on emergent issues raised by participants to collect the most relevant and significant information that aligns with the research questions.

Presenting a good image of myself as the researcher was one of my preparatory strategies applied in both research sites. I dressed as an academic. I made a commitment to be on time for every interview, and I fulfilled this self-imposed obligation on each occasion. During the interviews, I used appropriate manners and maintained a good posture when interacting with the research participants. These strategies helped me—a Vietnamese woman and HDR—to acquire their attention, and maintain their interest in contributing to this research project, and sharing their information.

Having been away for two years, but with the awareness of the local culture in Hồ Chí Minh City, I reviewed my knowledge of culture in Việt Nam before conducting interviews. I made a checklist to remind me of important issues such as dressing professionally, using very polite manners on the university campus, expressing a respectful attitude towards participants and their work colleagues, and behaving appropriately at the university, and while visiting the Pagoda Orphans' Shelter. Acknowledgement of hierarchical power relations is valued in the local culture of Việt Nam, being based on age and status. I had to consider hierarchical power relations when preparing to meet interviewees in Việt Nam. For example, I understood that I had to be very respectful in verbal communication via emails or in person with participants who were in institutional positions of authority, in a higher position in the university, or older than me. In discussions, if I disagreed with any points made by participants, I remained quiet so as not to cause a loss of face. Interestingly, the same procedures seemed to work in Australia.

For the Australian research site, I investigated issues relating to culture for communication such as manners, greetings, or dress customs, respect for diversity, and freedom of speech. I understood that these expressions of power relations were integral to securing the knowledge I was seeking for this research. To prepare for these interviews, I started by reading about cross-national case study interviews (Martinus & Hedgcock, 2015), and building rapport in interviews conducted in a second language (Okada, 2015). I also asked the local academics who worked in the field of teacher education for advice before accessing participants for interviews. As explained in the next section, the data analysis process employed in this study entailed examining the collected evidence, and transforming

it into a coherent account that could report on the most significant findings in terms of the research questions introduced in Chapter 1.

#### **4.7 Data analysis**

Data analysis was conducted within case before the cross-case analysis (Yin, 2014) was undertaken. Doing so was not to compare the evidence between the cases. Rather, this was to develop structures of codes and categories of evidence before identifying the emergent themes that prepared the structure of the data chapters.

Eight key steps were involved in the data analysis process used to facilitate the creation of a comprehensive and meaningful account of the evidence. These steps included transcription and translation, data immersion, coding, creating categories, identifying counterevidence, generating themes, theorising, and verifying findings (Green et al., 2007) (see Table 4.6). The evidence-driven, theoretically informed analysis employed in this study provided a systematic means of avoiding the taken-for-granted outcomes, and predetermined views of doing research.



Table 4.6

*Data Analysis Process*

<b>Stages</b>	<b>Purposes</b>	<b>Tasks</b>
<b>Transcription and translation</b>	Generating transcripts Converting data into English	Listening to audio recordings of interviews Translating
<b>Data immersion</b>	Developing familiarity with the data Examining data for evidence and counterevidence	Repeated reading of transcripts
<b>Open coding</b>	Tagging to create units of data Data reduction Data cleaning	Identifying statements Highlighting key words Labelling data with units of meaning (codes)
<b>Categorisation</b>	Grouping codes Finding code relationships	Looking for related codes Grouping codes related to the same issues
<b>Counterevidence</b>	Guarding against confirmation bias Strengthening the research argument	Finding contradictions and exceptions Colour coding
<b>Theme identification</b>	Making overall themes	Grouping codes for higher level
<b>Theorising</b>	Making sense of data Increasing generalisability	Explain the instance of educational phenomena being discussed Using existing social theory to make meaning of themes Using researcher's language/knowledge repertoire for postmonolingual theorising themes

*Source:* Adapted from Green et al. (2007).

#### **4.7.1 Transcription and translation**

Data analysis began with the transcription and translation stage, which involved listening to the recordings of the interviews followed by the repeated re-reading of interview transcripts and contextual data. The interview data collected in Việt Nam were conducted in Tiếng Việt. Some of evidentiary excerpts were presented in Tiếng Việt followed by translation in Tiếng Anh in data chapters of this thesis. As a bilingual researcher, I translated from Tiếng Việt into Tiếng Anh all the interview transcripts, curriculum documents, email records, and policies. An important question to address was whether I would also put Tiếng Việt into the straitjacket of posed by the norms and values of Tiếng Anh (Van Leeuwen, 2006). My translations open up to exploration conceptual divergences between knowledge in Tiếng Việt and Tiếng Anh. The purpose was to contribute to the process of theoretical renewal and reinvigoration in both languages, despite how odd or mistaken they may appear initially. For the purpose of this study, I used three adaptive translation strategies that affected the Tiếng Anh used; gave expressions to postmonolingual research methods, and engaged the cultural and ideological references in the transcripts, and texts sourced from Việt Nam.

Transcription and translation were conducted in the following ways. First, I understood that the translation of excerpts, concepts, and metaphors from Tiếng Việt into Tiếng Anh was not a technical matter for this study. I had the necessary proficiency in both languages to carry out the intricacies of this intellectual work, namely, to convert data and concepts from Tiếng Việt into Tiếng Anh with reasonable accuracy. My understanding of the context and information in the interviews in Tiếng Việt helped me express the intended meaning of the excerpts in Tiếng Anh.

Second, the scholarly process of translation for the purpose of making meaning out of evidence, or in other words theorising the evidence, involved complex and time-consuming intellectual work. My translations benefited from negotiating their meanings by involving both those who provided evidence in Tiếng Việt and monolingual Tiếng Anh-speaking researchers. My translation work focused on ensuring the latter gained an understanding of what the interviewees had said, their work context, and how they used language to express their knowledge. Importantly, the monolingual Tiếng Anh-speaking researchers were

interested in Australian–Asian intellectual engagement (ACARA, 2012b) and thus were keen to learn what was actually said and the possible meanings it had.

Third, as a postmonolingual researcher, I decided that, where necessary, it would be important to situate the evidence in its sociohistorical context. In doing so, the purpose was to demonstrate the need for an in-depth knowledge and understanding of the relevant layers of that situation, from the micro to the macro. This knowledge comes through the postmonolingual researcher developing an informed understanding of the particularities of the context as explained by research participants in their own language and, where possible, through relevant research literature. For instance, with regard to the Chinese WIL program, it proved necessary to situate it in reference to sociohistorical knowledge of the state government's restructuring of the Education Department (NSW Department of Education and Communities, 2012) and the federal government's policy press for increasing international student recruitment (Marginson, 2013b; Murray, 2103).

#### **4.7.2 Data immersion**

Data immersion occurred throughout of the following data analysis processes. Data immersion entailed reading or examining some portion of the data in detail. After generating all transcripts, I went through the text to see beyond the obvious interpretations and insights of the data (Maher, Hadfield, Hutchings, & de Eyto, 2018), which gave me a high level of familiarity with the interview evidence, making the next stages of analysis a little more manageable. I also added to the transcripts the notes about the context of the interview I had made during and after each interview. This gave me more information covering issues in data collection such as the time, venue, weather, and some key events on the day of the interview.

#### **4.7.3 Data coding**

Data coding was part of the process of data reduction, and included data cleaning, during which decisions were made on what to include and exclude in the data set, which would be the focus for the subsequent data analysis stages. I examined and organised the evidence from each interview (n = 34) in the whole data set by assigning a code or label to designated evidentiary units. Rather than using predefined codes, I tagged blocks of the

interview transcripts with codes or descriptive labels that I judged would be useful for addressing this study's research questions (Saldaña, 2016). However, open coding was more than a matter of applying a label to segments of the interview transcripts. I made notes below each excerpt, and used colour coding to aid the quick identification of related segments. A key word or phrase from each excerpt was taken to use as a heading. As the process of open coding progressed, I refined the meaning of each code to ensure it correctly described the excerpt, and had been applied consistently. At this stage, excerpts that were not immediately relevant to the research questions were moved to the end of the file for possible deletion. This data coding allowed for the systematic reduction of the data set while bringing into focus the most significant evidence to address the research questions. Fewer codes and more condensed data were the key outcomes of this coding process.

#### **4.7.4 Categorising**

Categorising entailed organising initial codes into groups to create subsets of evidence. The aim of categorising was to examine the ways the codes might be linked to create coherent categories, and subcategories as a primary product of data analysis (Vaismoradi, Jones, Turunen, & Snelgrove, 2016). I looked for codes that fit together around a shared relationship. The analytic categories were organised to cover all the available evidence from the participants about their WIL experiences in order to provide a basis for a coherent explanation of all the available data. This stage led to the creation of a four-level data categorisation protocol (Table 4. 7).

Table 4.7

*Four-level data coding categorisation protocol*

<b>Levels of data sourced for this study</b>	<b>Data sources</b>	<b>Purpose in collecting this data</b>
<b>Micro-level data</b>	collected from the <i>people</i> directly involved in these WIL programs	participants were interviewed about their understandings of their immediate and extended operational context
<b>Meso-level data</b>	policy texts that provide insight into organisational <i>processes</i>	collected from each of the universities in which these particular participants worked.
<b>Macro-level data</b>	evidence collected via the internet about the larger operating <i>context</i> that impacts on WIL programs	policy texts, including official reports and analyses of policies, from government agencies in Australia and Việt Nam, including university authorities.
<b>Time level data</b>	to take particular note of changes, and consistency over what the participants saw as the life of these particular WIL programs	developed a <i>time</i> map to gain sense of history of change and continuity

The micro-level data were collected from the *people* directly involved in these WIL programs; participants were interviewed about their understandings of their immediate and extended operational context. To gain insight into organisational *processes* meso-level data were collected from each of the universities in which these particular participants worked. The macro-level *contextual* data, consisting of policy texts were collected via the internet from government agencies in Australia and Việt Nam, including university authorities. Added to this, I developed a *time* map to take note of changes and consistency over what the participants saw as the life of these particular WIL programs. All the categories in this protocol can be illustrated with evidentiary excerpts from this data set. I created four levels of categories. All categories that were judged chunks were assigned to the same category

level. Categorisation of the data focused on organising the data set according to its relevance to the research question, and making decisions about whether more data could be eliminated from the analysis process at this stage.

#### **4.7.5 Identifying counterevidence**

Data analysis required me to think critically by questioning views instead of accepting the claims made in the various sources of evidence collected for this study. Some research stops at only reporting the findings in the dominant categories rather than making meaning of the data by using the full range of accounts, including counterevidence (see also Wexler, 2016). Green et al. (2007) cautioned that “selectively analysing the data in this way provides only partial evidence and one-sided meaning. It fails to account for the full range of experiences and provides no explanation of those not included in the category” (p. 548).

To identify counterevidence in the data set in order to make better sense of all data sources across all the categories, I looked for codes that pointed to excerpts that contained contradictory, exceptional, and deviant evidence in order to incorporate this material into my analysis so as to guard against confirmation bias, and by incorporating this counterevidence, build a more nuanced argument. Including the counterevidence in this study made it necessary to explain the contradictions, exceptions, or deviances. When categorising the data to identify the links among codes, colour-coding techniques were employed to manage and categorise the evidentiary excerpts. For instance, the initial coding of participants' accounts in a given category was marked blue, evidence in that category's counterevidence was coloured red, and outliers (K. Singh & Upadhyaya, 2012) were coloured green. Doing so led to more data reduction in which some irrelevant evidence was coded black in anticipation of being deleted. Thus, this stage further helped to understand the data across the full range of sources.

#### **4.7.6 Theme identification**

Identifying key themes in the data categories involved bringing together a series of interrelated categories under a series of overarching strands. These overarching leitmotifs, or themes, were organised with a series of subthemes. For the purpose of this study, a theme

refers to a level of conceptualisation whereby the selected categories identified above could be unified in ways that related to a given research question, with the subthemes as a specific element contributing to a given theme (Vaismoradi et al., 2016). Thus, by identifying these themes, I brought together all the categories of evidence relating to the research questions investigated in this study of WIL in language teacher education. I used these themes and subthemes to organise the evidentiary chapters (5, 6, and 7) to make sense of the various patterns that emerged across the evidentiary excerpts and to develop an overriding explanation to inform the findings of this study. This stage identified the most significant patterns evident in the data, with the umbrella themes covering other subthemes. While various subthemes emerged during this process, the identification of overarching themes helped to make sense of the evidence, and to develop a structure for the evidentiary chapters in this study.

#### **4.7.7 Theorising**

Theorising was the penultimate stage of data analysis used in this research study. Theorising involves two processes, namely, evidentiary excerpt conceptual analysis, and the generation of analytical tools. Evidentiary excerpt conceptual analysis is an advanced data analysis procedure used to display the evidentiary excerpts, and to interpret them through generating analytical concepts, and associated communities (Emerson, Fretz, & Shaw, 1995). Thus, the evidentiary excerpts are used to inform the formulations of the analytical concepts, which in turn are used to interpret the excerpts (Table 4.8). Selecting the evidentiary excerpts for display was to present the primary evidence in a way that stood out from the body of the text to make it readily identifiable to readers. The main method of data display is the presentation of excerpts from the interview transcripts, along with students' reflections, documents, and photographs where appropriate.

Table 4.8

*Interpretive and Critical Evidentiary Conceptual Analysis*

<b>Interpretive evidentiary excerpt analysis</b>	
<b>Order in Which Analysis Was Undertaken</b>	<b>Presentation Order in Evidentiary Chapters</b>

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<b>Step 1.</b> Selecting the evidentiary excerpt for display	Key concept as analytical concept or heading (Step 2)
<b>Step 2.</b> Identifying key concept as analytical concept in the excerpt	Introductory statement about <i>analytical concept</i> (Step 4)
<b>Step 3.</b> Providing a commentary explaining the data in detail using an analytical concept	<i>Orienting information</i> about the data (Step 5)
<b>Step 4.</b> Writing an introductory statement focusing on the <i>analytical concept</i>	Evidentiary excerpt (Step 1)
<b>Step 5.</b> Writing <i>orienting information</i> about the data	Commentary explaining the data in detail using an analytical concept (Step 3)
<b>Step 6.</b> Searching the literature for relevant ideas to extend, deepen, or challenge the evidentiary excerpt of the conceptual analysis	Making the evidence informed using appropriate research literature (Step 6)

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**Critical analysis of material culture of WIL programs**

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<b>Partnerships</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Dominant partnership trajectories</li> <li>2. Emergent partnership trajectories</li> <li>3. Residual partnerships trajectories</li> </ol>
<b>Dilemmas</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Knowledge as provision versus knowledge as process</li> <li>2. Unique versus common characteristics of learners</li> <li>3. Common educational culture versus workplace learning sites</li> <li>4. Monitoring support standards versus control</li> <li>5. Knowledge as educational resources versus commodification of knowledge</li> </ol>
<b>Connections and Disconnections</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Links and gaps</li> <li>2. Presences and absences</li> <li>3. Relations and nonrelations</li> </ol>

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In undertaking this evidentiary excerpt conceptual analysis, I did not rely solely on the research participants' accounts as would be the case in interpretative research. I questioned these excerpts, which led me to look for supplementary evidence such as curriculum documents, and other artefacts I had collected from the two WIL programs. I searched for relevant university and government policies on the internet, and added these to the data on display. Further, counterevidence and counterarguments from the literature that related to WIL and language teacher education were included at this stage of analysis to make my argument more informed and nuanced. In making meaning of the evidence, theoretical



concepts from the studies by Williams (1977), Berlak and Berlak (1981) and Munro (1997) regarding organisational control, school dilemmas, and structures of culture were used to extend the theorising about WIL in language teacher education. Once this process of theorising or meaning making had been replicated across the whole data set, I then turned to the final step in theorising employed in this study.

The second layer of theorising was the last stage of data analysis used in this study. Rather than terminating data analysis by testing existing theories to make meaning of identified themes, this study made a small but nonetheless significant contribution through postmonolingual theorising. This process of theorising involved four steps (see also Chapter 3). First, I began by listing the Tiếng Việt theoretical tools that related to the subcategories generated through the analysis of the evidence. Second, I created a typology by grouping the related Tiếng Việt concepts, while also clustering those that differed, and providing a basis for counterarguments. Third, I focused on conceptualisation to give the Tiếng Việt concepts or metaphors the form of research concept I had defined them with. Fourth, I used these Tiếng Việt concepts such as *học bạn* (peer learning) (see Chapter 7) to develop explanatory propositions written largely in Tiếng Anh. Using both Tiếng Anh and Tiếng Việt concepts as analytical tools in this study provided points of divergence to explore and could, in the longer term, provide a basis for the renewal and reinvigoration of theorising in WIL in language teacher education (Van Leeuwen, 2006<sup>10</sup>).

#### **4.7.8 Verifying findings**

The findings drawn from this multisite case study, and presented in Chapter 8, were generated by moving from a description to an explanation of the data in reference to the research questions (Yin, 2014). In drawing these conclusions, the focus was on making meaning of evidence analysed in Chapters 5, 6, and 7. In presenting these findings, I focus on what the primary evidence indicates about the changes and complexities of WIL in language teacher education. My focus at this stage was on generating and verifying the findings from this study, specifically

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<sup>10</sup> Both parts of a surname that has two parts separated by a space and no hyphen are used in the reference list entry and in-text citation (APA, 2013).

1. the most significant, interesting, and unexpected research findings for each contributory and main research question;
2. verifying each of these findings by an exposition that explained each of them in reference to the primary evidence analysed in the thesis;
3. discussing each finding critically in reference to the literature reviewed in Chapters 2 and 3;
4. clarifying the contribution to knowledge made by each finding through reference to this body of literature.

#### **4.8 Conclusion**

This chapter explained and justified the philosophical basis of this study by grounding its methodology in an interpretive-critical orientation to research; the multisite case study as the strategy for this enquiry; and the research methods used for data collection and analysis of evidence. The interpretive-critical analysis underpinning the research methodology employed in this study was developed through analysing the relationship between research-based knowledge production and workers' responses to it. This chapter then described and justified the flexible research design used for the multisite case study. The specific research criteria governing the rigour of the design and conduct of this research were detailed, along with the research ethics that informed engagement with the research participants, and the use of data they provided. How the findings from this study were verified, along with the processes for research writing, were also explained. Importantly, the research methodology and methods outlined a basis for making advances in knowledge in the course of this study by generating evidence of WIL in two language teacher education programs. Further, with the concepts outlined in Chapters 2 and 3, these provided the tools to undertake the analysis necessary for making meaning of this evidence, and to do so in ways that advance knowledge of WIL in language teacher education. Chapter 5 provides evidence of partnership in WIL language teacher education in this study.

## **Chapter 5:**

### **Partnership for Work-Integrated Learning in Language Teacher Education**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

In Chapter 4, the philosophical stance for the research methodology and methods of data collection and analysis was presented. This chapter frames the analysis of evidence of how WIL partnership is organised in Chinese and English teacher education. The interpretive strand of this research aimed to understand the meanings of WIL engaged in, and constructed by participants. This chapter analyses evidence of factors involved in WIL partnerships in language teacher education. In this chapter, data triangulation is achieved through using different sources of data, including interviews, evidence of policy in language teacher education through WIL from the two universities, along with policy drivers from multiple sources beyond these immediate contexts. In effect, data triangulation described in this chapter was achieved by purposively and systematically analysing data from different time periods, from the different structural locations in the field that had a bearing on the particular programs under study, and from the different people directly involved in these programs, along with those people and agencies whose knowledge or actions influenced the programs. The chapter uses a conceptual analysis procedure involving six steps, starting with a heading, and then an introductory statement, evidence introduction, evidence presentation, and evidence analysis informed by relevant literature in making meaning of the evidence (see also Chapter 4).

Interpretations of WIL processes contributed by the participants in WIL programs generate an important link in understanding the nature of WIL organisation in this research. This chapter begins with changes in organising language teacher education through using WIL partnerships as an education strategy leading to mutual benefits. Evidence of the changes in education is analysed in the following section on the nature of WIL partnerships. The next section in the chapter discusses the dependence in WIL partnerships in relation to language, power/knowledge relations (Foucault, 1977; 1980). It then analyses further the stakeholders' discomfort in WIL partnerships. By extending Williams's (1977) dominant,

emergent, and residual concepts, this chapter includes a meta-analytical discussion of the evidence analysed.

## **5.2 Education partnerships for and through Work-integrated learning**

The school–university partnership has been the target for improvement in teacher education (TEMAG, 2014) in preparing professional graduates. This section provides evidence of how WIL partnerships were used as an education strategy to promote development, and mutual benefits.

### **5.2.1 Partnership as an education strategy**

Partnership as an education strategy in this study refers to the WIL partnerships between universities and industry, and government and nongovernment organisations for engaging student teachers in professional learning. Harry, an academic with many years of experience in WIL, who was responsible for the Chinese WIL program, explained,

The Regional Director wanted the University to provide a degree that would be structured around work-integrated learning, given that the Education Department has experience in this area. With my experience in this field, I proposed that a masters by research would make it possible for the Volunteers to undertake teacher-research projects. It was necessary to advocate it on the university's terms which include building its standing in research and undertaking meaningful employment related teacher education. (Harry, Academic, Chinese WIL)

For Harry, the Chinese WIL partnership in this study was initiated by the regional director, by getting the university involved. In effect, this university outsourced the education of students to partner organisations. However, this research-oriented, school-engaged language teacher education program took the idea that the core capacity to attract good international students depends on research reputation and teaching resources, and both rest on government (Marginson, 2013a).

From the perspective of a university manager, Isabella, the Chinese WIL partnership involved the NSW DET, local Western Sydney schools, and the Municipal Education Bureau in China, and it had been established in 2006. A further agreement between the DET and the

university in 2007 to offer a master's degree by research made it possible to enable students' WIL language teaching/learning in schools to be the exclusive focus of their research-based teacher education at the university:

I can't have the work component unless I have the Department and schools as partners. Without the classroom teachers, there is no work-based component. I activated the partnership as my strategy because my partners have something that I actually need. (Isabella, University Manager, Chinese WIL)

From Isabella's standpoint, the partnership with the DET, schools, and teachers was her strategy for language teacher education through WIL. For her, the partnership was a work-based component of the university's teacher education program to which the partners contributed. Similarly, for Lillejord and Børte (2016), such a "partnership is a [university] strategy to structure, organise, strengthen and professionalise teacher education, while simultaneously renewing teaching practices in both institutions" (p. 555). Such partnerships are used strategically by universities to create experiential professional learning for students in language teacher education and other fields. Through these partnership linkages, stakeholders contribute to the professional learning of prospective teachers through them undertaking teacher research, which is meant to contribute to workplace knowledge in the school community.

To integrate work and learning in the professional education of prospective teachers, the university belatedly took an active role in the partnership. After the initial partnership was established between the DET and the Municipal Education Bureau in China, university academics with expertise in WIL, Asia literacy, and language education were engaged in the partnership. The international partnership between the DET and the Bureau was signed in 2006, and the university signed an agreement with the DET in the following year. With the initiation of this WIL venture in mid-2008, the research-oriented, school-engaged, teacher-researcher education model of WIL came into existence (Appendix 1).

The Chinese WIL partnership reported in this thesis involves three parties, namely, an overseas partner as the main sponsor, the university, and the DET that coordinates the local

schools for WIL partnerships. The concept of international partnership is defined by the university as “partnerships between the University and overseas universities, colleges and other educational institutions and government agencies such as education ministries and scholarship funding bodies” (WSU, n.d.-b, Section 2(a) Definitions). This partnership must “be developed in accordance with the University’s Mission and strategic goals” (WSU, n.d.-b, Section 2(a) Policy Statement), aiming at objectives such as collaborative research, student mobility, and co-supervision of HDR students through a Memorandum of Academic Cooperation. The international partnership for Chinese WIL enables university graduates from China to teach primary and secondary school students how to learn Chinese in Western Sydney, while using their service-learning to contribute to evidence that could inform their professional learning. Assessing outcomes of Chinese WIL is based on the examination criteria for students’ master’s theses reflecting research in their professional learning.

The Chinese WIL program required universities to identify partner organisations so that they could engage with the external communities that provided their students with work-based experiential learning. Many universities have WIL policies, operational units, and academic courses:

Community-engaged or work-integrated learning—a unit or component of a unit that enables a student to participate in an approved learning activity that involves an interactive learning partnership with external community organisations (business, industry, government, not-for-profit or educational sectors). The learning activity can be done individually or in groups, must provide a clear knowledge benefit to student(s) and the partner(s), and is linked to specific learning outcomes including the demonstration of academic knowledge/professional skills related to the course of study. (WSU, n.d.-a, Section 2(c) Definitions)

This policy-based management gives Chinese WIL an orientation of knowledge benefits to students. Specifically, the partnership creates conditions and possibilities for promoting practice relevance in being involved in WIL. However, the fact is that not all community-based teaching activities provided by student teachers meet the learning outcome

expectations of the community without negotiation (Choy & Delahaye, 2011), which may make educators more aware of potential problems in the partnership. This is because community backgrounds and needs are varied (Lillejord & Børte, 2016). While doing partnership with industry (Peach et al., 2012; Govender & Taylor, 2015) is an increasingly university-led strategy, targeting mutual benefits presents the focus of WIL.

### **5.2.2 Mutual benefits**

Mutual benefits in the study reported in this thesis refer to organising WIL through partnerships resulting in mutual interests of partners, including the university and community organisations. In distinguishing WIL from other forms of civic engagement, a university manager, Trí, stated that a WIL partnership is for making change, that is, learning transformations, in both the community partner and the university students:

*Chương trình này khác, rất kén chọn so với các hoạt động cộng đồng thông thường khác như từ thiện. Đó phải là sự hợp tác trong đó một điều phối viên từ trường đại học cộng tác với cộng đồng để giúp sinh viên hoàn thành việc trải nghiệm nghề nghiệp thông qua một dự án phục vụ cộng đồng giúp tạo ra sự thay đổi về kiến thức và tư duy cho cộng đồng đó. (Trí, Quản lý Đại học, Chương trình Tiếng Anh)*

This [English WIL] program is different, being very selective or choosy compared with other ordinary community activities such as charity. It must be a partnership in which a coordinator from university collaborates with the community to help students accomplish their professional learning through a community service project making a change for that community in terms of knowledge and mindset. (Trí, University Manager, English WIL)

The English WIL partnership opens up opportunities and alternatives that promote community development. The promotion of community development involves making changes in the community through education, as well as giving universities a chance to adjust management, and education provisions based on the socioeconomic needs of communities, while also providing students with career-related professional experiences, such as work in language teaching. The education strategy in this WIL partnership entailed the university

collaborating with the Pagoda Orphans' Shelter, and Hospitality School to make a change for those community organisations instead of one-sided support or help as in charity activities or community services. Trí emphasised that in collaborating with community organisations, it was university staff who were involved in supporting students to complete their community service project. For Fleming and Hickey (2013), by targeting outward connections through partnerships, university staff link universities into “networks, alliances, collaborations, exchange relationships and coalitions” (p. 209).

As an education strategy, the use of Chinese WIL partnerships is meant to provide for the mutual benefits of each party. That is, industry or community organisations and those they work with, as well as the university and its students, are expected to secure mutual, but different, benefits from the partnership. From the perspective of a university manager, Ashton, WIL required at least some token considerations of the partner's benefits:

With integrated learning regarded whenever it happens and wherever happens, partnership is absolutely vital. If you go into work-integrated learning situations where you just assume that you can tell students, “You go in and describe what you do”, that's not work integrated learning. That's just using the workplace for your own ends. We have to think of our partner's benefits as well. (Ashton, University Manager, Chinese WIL)

While Ashton did not indicate he was well informed about Chinese WIL or the significance of the partnerships that made it happen, he had a sense of the mutual benefits that both parties had to consider. The risk is that universities may make use of the workplaces of partner organisations, especially schools and nongovernment community organisations, for students' experiential professional learning and not have to pay for doing so. The mutual benefits require universities and students to ensure the balancing of the benefits and contributions they make to these organisations. To do so, these mutual benefits need “transparency and negotiation” (Fleming & Hickey, 2013) rather than “collaborative self-interest alone” (p. 210). Both sides are supposed to take account of what other partners benefit from WIL partnerships in terms of what each party can do for the other. Ashton's evidence brings to the fore the issue of knowing partners' needs, knowing what to do to meet those



needs, and knowing how doing so is important for sustaining WIL partnerships. Undertaking this partnership necessitates linking the university's objectives with fulfilling the needs of all parties. In what follows, evidence of the nature of partnerships for and through WIL is provided.

### **5.3 The nature of partnership**

With evidence sources from research participants' accounts, policy documents and social media reports, this section details the components shaping the nature of WIL partnership in this study.

#### **5.3.1 Financially driven collaboration**

Financially driven collaboration refers to finance as the driver in the Chinese WIL partnership. One academic, Jilpa, explained the university's motivation for developing the international partnership, which represented outlier evidence, as none of the other program managers identified this aspect:

Universities want to have partnerships with industry and community organisations by running this WIL partnerships . . . They always talk about international liaison. Behind all the purposes, there is one important purpose for these partnerships; it means money. For example, one university in Sydney has 7,000 international students. This university has only 10% of student population from overseas students. But it wants to increase the number of full-fee-paying students. I think the first reason for this partnership is finance; university managers' key performance indicators require them to deliver money. Because they've got to bring money in, we have to make sure students "succeed", and because these international students pay from double to triple than the local students' fees. (Jilpa, Academic, Chinese WIL)

Beyond educational benefits, WIL partnerships tend to have financially driven needs and expectations for forming and maintaining this form of collaboration among key partners. In particular, financially driven collaborations are an expression of, and response to, the impact of government funding policies on higher education, which now drives the recruitment of international students. With changes in government policy taking effect from

2013 onwards, more Australian universities have begun to seek income from the less stable international student and domestic postgraduate coursework fee-paying markets. Simultaneously, they have “shifted new appointments toward fixed-term and casual contracts, essentially placing the risk associated with the precarious funding environment onto employees, who could be more readily hired and let go according to shifts in demand” (Bexley, 2013, p. 100).

Jilpa was alluding to the 2008 *Review of Australian Higher Education: Final Report* (Bradley, Noonan, Nugent & Scales, 2008), which led the Australian Government to make a radical change within the university system by deregulating the number of undergraduate places available within each university from the beginning of 2012. To date, in many Australian universities, managers’ “understandings of ‘internationalisation’ have been limited to . . . international student recruitment” (Baik, 2013, p. 132). Marginson (2013b), Australia’s leading tertiary education policy researcher, explained,

As of mid-2013, given the constraints on both public funding for teaching and public funding for research support, if the institutions are to plug the growing gap between aggregate income and real costs, two alternatives are left: a hike in domestic student contributions, or a substantial increase in international student revenues. (p. 70)

Australian universities depend on a fluctuating international education market. . . . The average international students contributed more than \$5000 in surplus to institutional budgets, up to \$10,000 in some institutions, for purposes such as domestic teaching, research, services and facilities. (pp. 60, 62)

For Murray (2013), the dominant view of internationalisation is the international student full-fee-paying program:

[It is a] mistake attracting large numbers of international students to Australia for the alpha and omega of internationalisation of Australian education. . . . It is understandable that the international student program dominates Australian thinking given the centrality of international student fee income for institutions

operating under the current Australian higher education funding model. But we cannot afford to be fixated on it. (p. 114)

According to Schmidt (2018), the Vice-Chancellor of the Australian National University, the provision of education to international students brought Australia approximately US\$28 billion in 2017:

International engagement through education is not just good diplomatic practice. It is a major slice of the Australian economy, constituting Australia's largest non-mineral export. Education exports have earned Australia close to US\$28 billion in 2017. (Schmidt, 2018, para 6)

Here, Schmidt indicates the finance inherent in international education, and the politics in partnerships to promote bilateral collaboration among government organisations from different countries. It is difficult for WIL partnerships to escape the politics of power and financial interests that impact on their operations over time. From evidence in this study, the academic, Jilpa, understood the political characteristics of the Chinese WIL partnership and its connections with government education authorities in China. The political drivers for these university partnerships reside in the often-unspoken financial benefits that motivate their establishment. Each partner organisation has its own interests for which it establishes income targets, but they do not necessarily let the other partners know these details. In effect, implementing WIL partnerships is “dependent on the political frameworks within which [the partners] operate” (Klatt et al., 2017, p. 221). Given that very few programs for fee-paying international students at Australian universities use WIL, the economic imperatives driving universities would seem to shape the direction of partnership that relates to tailoring policy, and practice in WIL.

### **5.3.2 Tailored partnerships**

Tailored partnerships in this study involve universities making some changes in practice of WIL to accommodate the needs and interests of the university. Having been involved in monitoring the English WIL program in Hồ Chí Minh City, two academics and

one university manager stated their views on the challenges of matching the needs of both university and community:

Initially, the program balanced the needs of the community and students' experiential learning. Recently, the university chose some conveniently located community organisations in the city centre for this [WIL] program. This change is somewhat for students' convenience and safety. Some university managers negotiated with community organisations for teaching English activities rather than responding to the real needs of that community organisation. (Tín, Academic, English WIL)

There are many community organisations with various educational needs. However, we prioritised those community organisations that we may have the best chance of achieving a successful collaboration, which means what students can do for the community. (Ngân, University Manager, English WIL)

The political nature of tailored partnerships resides in the selecting of conveniently located communities for WIL, an agenda often driven by the university ostensibly to provide both learning for students and services to communities (Barends & Nel, 2017; Du Plessis, 2010). This tailored partnership makes connections between the university and community in order to affect both-ways knowledge transfer for educational and social development. However, as Ngân explained, the university prioritised serving the Pagoda Orphans' Shelter in the city centre as a partner because the WIL program could operate based on what students and academics have and can do, which did not necessarily address the organisation's needs. This priority was also confirmed by Tín, the academic who directly involved in English WIL program. In this way, the tailored partnership serves the university's interests and affects the knowledge the Pagoda Orphans' Shelter receives. Such tailored partnership does not necessarily express the spirit of community-oriented WIL. Rather, it ignores the human-centric value in community-based language teacher education.

Tailored partnerships present political issues because they represent efforts to make social change and thus may be challenged. Community organisations are sometimes used as the tool for promoting the reputation and interests of the university. One academic, My,

shared her concerns of the benefits to the stakeholders of WIL, which were not tailored to serve both partners' needs:

In some ways, this [WIL] program is used to promote the university's reputation by civic engagement. Some community organisations are chosen due to their convenient locations near the university. What I am concerned about is what types of community organisation might actually benefit from the program. There should be transparent criteria with a clear philosophy for selecting the community organisations . . . rather than for promoting the university's image. (My, Academic, English WIL)

Some tailored partnerships do deliver mutual benefits, but some are designed to serve other interests. The value in educationally tailored partnerships for the university taking student recruitment as its primary aim lies in using its knowledge to address socially significant issues and community-identified problems while creating a desirable public image of the university. Through various media, universities use WIL to market their reputation. In doing so, serving communities partners through WIL benefits of the university. In return, the community may not benefit from the language education in the way it desires.

In trying to reach the performance targets prescribed by universities, tailored WIL partnerships may fail to engage with issues of social injustice, ignoring community interests, and the benefits they seek to gain. An academic, Thu, was concerned about the values of tailored WIL partnerships:

*Có những tổ chức cộng đồng yếu thế. Họ quá dễ bị tổn thương. Họ không có cơ sở tổ chức chương trình giảng dạy tiếng Anh. Điều này có nghĩa là chúng ta phải hỗ trợ và tài trợ cho họ, nhưng trường đại học không mặn mà lắm. Vì sao? Bởi vì những cộng đồng yếu thế này không giúp quảng bá hình ảnh của trường đại học.*  
(Thu, Giảng viên, Chương trình Tiếng Anh)

There are marginalised community organisations. They are too vulnerable. They have no facilities at their places for undertaking English language teaching program. This means we have to support and sponsor them, but the university is

not happy to do so. Why? Because these marginalised communities do not help promoting the university's image. (Thu, Academic, English WIL)

Tailoring WIL partnerships to ensure mutual benefits is much encouraged (Patton, 2017). Some tailored WIL partnerships take into account the issue of social inequality being addressed by community organisations such as the Pagoda Orphans' Shelter. However, being categorised as having a low socioeconomic status, some organisations, and the communities that students serve may not be identified as the good examples required for highlighting the university's reputation in terms of community engagement. WIL is not necessarily implemented in those communities where it is warranted due to an apparent lack of the educational values, which challenges the forging of making fruitful WIL partnerships.

Educationally tailored partnerships in community-based WIL are a challenge to the moral values of all those involved (Liu, 2015). Taking a critical view of tailored partnerships for using community organisation for other purposes, a university manager, Trí, stated the seriousness of the issue at stake here:

Some people want to set up [WIL] partnership to integrate service learning with overseas experience. However, I wonder if it is worth doing or not. I find something a little immoral about doing so. If you go to provide service learning to the community, please do so. If you want to be a tourist, then you can travel. For me, tourism-based service learning looks like they are making use the community; I'm not sure it is possible to integrate both through international partnerships. (Trí, University Manager, English WIL)

Trí questioned tailored partnerships for not providing human-centric education but being immoral by targeting other interests. The immorality is revealed in universities' lack of concern for the social and human benefits of the organisations and communities where they conduct WIL for the moral education of youth (D'Rozario, Low, Avila, & Cheung, 2012). Using community for this kind of WIL partnership challenges the authentic benefits that the community should have, and the moral values in education. The community do not receive the service that they should, which is not fair to those involved. Moreover, the knowledge obtained by the students engaged in this tailored partnership may not address their

professional social responsibility, but just deal with mundane practicalities. The community is used for students to explore surface-level knowledge, ignoring more substantive questions regarding humanistic values. In appealing for transparency in the academy's community engagement strategies, their conduct of tailored partnerships warrants further exploration.

The next section explores dependency residing in WIL partnerships in language teacher education.

## **5.4 Dependency**

In this section, evidence regarding dependency in WIL partnership, including academic dependency, divergence of ideas, and unequal relationships, is presented.

### **5.4.1 Academic/financial dependency**

Here, academic dependency refers to the potential risks to students whereby engagement, collaboration, support, and decisions by the university's partner organisations impacts negatively on the process of their professional learning or means that their research-based knowledge production may not be completed. Emily, a university manager, explained this issue in terms of the key role of the partners in the Chinese WIL program in Sydney:

I have become interested in this partnership and making sure that works because without the partners we don't have the program. If the partnership doesn't work well, students can't do their research, they can't achieve their qualifications and the children in schools don't know the language. (Emily, University Manager, Chinese WIL)

Here, it is useful to clarify the historical drivers for this Chinese WIL partnership. Without the partner organisations—the schools and the DET—wanting their school students to learn and use Chinese, there would be no need for this particular WIL partnership. Without the Municipal Education Bureau in China wanting to send volunteers abroad to learn how to teach Chinese by working in schools, this WIL partnership would not exist. Without the partner schools in which the students from China undertake their WIL as volunteers, there would be no need for the university's HDR program. Without this partnership, the university manager could not have a program that attracts international full-fee-paying students.

Specifically, in the Chinese WIL program, students are responsible for paying their tuition fees for the teacher–researcher program. Some of them may apply for a scholarship covering tuition fees from the Chinese government. In terms of living expenses, students are mainly funded by Ningbo Municipal Education Bureau while the DET and the university only partly contribute to this joint scholarship (Appendix 1). Academic dependency resides in various dimensions of this WIL partnership. As explained in Sections 5.2.1 and 5.2.2 regarding recruiting international students, this academic dependency arises because the university cannot reach its enrolment targets without the collaboration of both partner organisations.

#### **5.4.2 Divergence of ideas: *Chín người, mười ý***

The divergence of ideas and interests articulated by the many groups in WIL partnerships complicates their operations. This divergence is captured in the idea of *Chín người, mười ý*, which means, “nine people bring 10 ideas”. Ashton, a University manager involved in the Chinese WIL partnership in language teacher education, clarified the challenge at stake here:

Another challenge is dealing with perspectives from the different partner organisations. This program depends upon the productive and constructive relationships between at least three partner organisations: University, Education Department in Australia and Education Bureau from overseas. These partners can be looked at in the top of hierarchy and are subordinated by many other people involved in the program. (Ashton, University Manager, Chinese WIL)

While it may take more time for the university’s corporate managers to pursue in making a decision, investing such time is likely to produce better decisions and provide a better understanding of the risks involved and how these might be mediated if not mitigated. The more partners there are, the more challenging WIL implementation is. Ashton focused on the organisational partners but overlooked the schools themselves as key to this WIL partnership. Perhaps more importantly, the individual principals, mentors, and class teachers are the key to the university’s interests in this particular partnership. While multiple WIL partners can contribute to a “convergence of different knowledge” (Wang & Wong, 2017, p. 490), which is good for knowledge production, it may also bring divergences in knowledge,



resources, and labour. Struggles arise in part due to the complicated interests at stake in these multilayered WIL partnerships, where the roles and functions of participants meet are markedly different material interests (Lillejord & Børte, 2016). Tensions arise in multistakeholder WIL partnerships when the various educational ideas, and WIL strategies developed by teachers and academics do not articulate with the interests of organisational managers who have power to impact the direction of the partnership. Each partner has various educational needs and expectations that they expect from the other partners. Through collaboration, they work to give expression to these desired features in the university WIL curriculum, the school-based mentoring in professional teaching/learning skills, and the school students' expected improvements in their learning and use of the language. Planning to address those needs through rounds of negotiations and feedback is integral to the time-consuming and ongoing development of WIL. The outcomes of this multiparty partnership are questionable.

#### **5.4.3 Unequal language/power /knowledge relations**

The idea of an unequal relationship of language, power/knowledge relations (Foucault, 1977; 1980) refers to the reliance on, or dominance of, one partner's contributions in terms of management in a multilayer partnership. When talking about the contribution by the partner organisations, a university manager shared her experiences of implementing WIL in language teacher education:

In the multipartite partnership over time, sometimes the partners were not all equally working together, sometimes one might take the lead and the other ones take less. (Isabella, University Manager, Chinese WIL)

It is not always self-evident which partner organisation may have the upper hand in these relations of languages, power and knowledge. A university might be financially dependent on an international agency for the supply of fee-paying students, and academically dependent on domestic education authorities to continue supporting WIL in language teacher education in schools. This relationship of financial-and-academic dependency arises from partner organisations having different, if complementary, stakes in WIL. Here, Isabella, the university manager, is referring to a series of interrelated events. On the one hand, in mid-

2011, the NSW Minister for Education announced a substantial Departmental restructuring, supposedly “to improve teaching and learning in NSW public schools by increasing the authority of local schools to make decisions about how they deliver education to students” (NSW DEC, 2012, p.3) The Department’s restructuring is discussed further below, in section 5.5.2. On the other hand, King and James (2013) provided an explanation for this dramatic change:

The year 2012 was a landmark in Australian higher education with the commencement of a dramatically new approach to the allocation of undergraduate university places. A new national funding policy removed the cap on the number of university places made available within each university, which previously had been determined through annual negotiation between each institution and the federal government. (p. 11)

Unequal contributions are an integral part of WIL partnerships. Fleming and Hickey (2013) contended that “each partner can offer the other mutual benefits through their contribution, yet the outcomes they receive are likely to be different in return” (p. 214). In part, this is because of the differential hierarchy of needs and the imbalance of language, knowledge, and power that occur in any WIL partnership.

Given the constructive attitudes of partnership managers, WIL partnerships might be assumed to be built in the spirit of democracy. However, WIL partnerships are demanding and require “stakeholder commitment, time, resources and personal energy” (Fleming & Hickey, 2013, p. 211). Thus, consideration of what constitutes a fruitful partnership needs to attend to changing power relations due to shifts or conflicts of interests among the stakeholders. Not all perspectives are heard, not all possible contributions are mobilised as resources, and not all participants are equally acknowledged in the operation of WIL partnerships. This awareness was indicated by Emily, a university manager, who assumed that compromises in communication and involvement were important to maintaining this WIL partnership:

When you are in a partnership, you need to have the mindset that says, “I can’t make the decision that affects the other partners”. We need to communicate with them. The partnership breaks down when the three people didn’t actually act together. (Emily, University Manager, Chinese WIL)

Bilsland and Nagy (2015) emphasised the importance of the collaboration and communication between university and industry in WIL partnerships. However, from the account of the university manager in the Chinese WIL program, the dependence in language/power/knowledge relations (Foucault, 1977; 1980) among partners for mutual benefits is an evident challenge in this multiple partite WIL partnership. This is because partners are required to collaborate and communicate well. Likewise, for Winchester-Seeto et al. (2016), mismatched expectations and disparate views between key stakeholders may cause the miscommunication that affects students’ professional learning.

While communication among partners is highlighted, stakeholders’ discomfort plays a key part in WIL partnership that is explained in the next section.

## **5.5 Stakeholders’ discomfort**

The discomfort of all stakeholders in WIL in language teacher education in this study involved challenges of the stakeholders’ role confusion, the organisational structure change, and the workload of staff and academics.

### **5.5.1 Stakeholders’ role confusion**

Role confusion means that the stakeholders involved in WIL partnerships are not certain about their duties, contributions, and responsibilities in the partnership. Emily, a university manager, acknowledged the roles of the people involved in the Chinese WIL teacher education program were an expression of differential power relations among the partner organisations:

It’s about being clear that to make it work, you have to have the team but it’s clear about their roles and what they have to be and responsible for. We need people from the Department, we need people from the University and local schools to involve in this program. (Emily, University Manager, Chinese WIL)

The university manager used the idea of confusion over the roles of students and school staff as the struggle to take control of the program. However, from the beginning of the program, the roles and responsibilities for school and university personnel, and those of the volunteers, had been documented and introduced to participants each year through a series of workshops. Appendix 1 contains details of the partnership strategy developed to explain the roles and responsibilities of the China Municipal Education Bureau, the NSW DET (Western Sydney Region), and the University of Western Sydney (renamed as WSU) in the school-based Chinese language teacher–researcher education program. WIL partnerships can have problems with differential power relations revealed in the performance of many partners’ diverse roles. In tailored partnerships, these roles are not always subject to “in-depth consideration [for] specific responsibilities of the partners” (Klatt et al., 2017, p. 229). Stakeholders who are not aware of their roles or who are resistant to WIL constitute a part of the ongoing struggles in these partnerships.

The involvement of students, academics, school/community organisers, and organisational managers is a vital but challenging aspect of the work in WIL partnerships. WIL partnerships create many roles for partners at various positions of higher or lower status, which complicates operational relations. A WIL partnership with the diversity of initiatives, and the involvement of many operational partners creates intense demands for organisational strategies. Choy and Delahaye (2011) argued that a WIL partnership provides an effective professional learning environment, but necessitates a “redistribution of power between the learners, academics, workplaces and university administrators to move beyond a teaching orientation” (p. 158).

Confusion over the roles between university-based staff and school-/community-based staff in WIL partnership challenges the quality of language teacher education. Moreover, this question also suggests possible resistance among some university academics to school/community staff being regarded as co-educators. A Hospitality Schoolteacher, Ly, explained the tasks she employed in the English WIL partnership in the hospitality school in teaching English to disadvantaged students:

I provide observational feedback to the university on the students' attitudes in teaching English to the learners here based on their behaviour in doing service learning. I meet in person with the lecturers or ring the lecturers in charge of assessing the students' professional skills to give them feedback. (Ly, Hospitality Schoolteacher, English WIL)

Schoolteachers in community organisations may see their roles as mentoring the students involved in WIL partnerships. However, in the English WIL program, the roles of the community-based staff seemed to fade if not became trivial in mentoring and assessing the students' professional learning, performance and learning (Major & Santoro, 2016). While community supervisors contributed to educating the students into becoming professional teachers through WIL, they were not encouraged to voice their mentoring, with the assessment tending to be unilateral. Along with observational feedback that Ly was supposed to give, the evaluation sheet for community supervisors in English WIL (Appendix 1) shows that she was involved in assessing students' performance in WIL in some general points. These included giving feedback on students' punctuality, attitudes in English WIL rather than teaching profession skills whereas university academics took charge of instructions of language education, and in the assessment of student professional learning. This imbalance in academic/teacher collaboration reflects the nature of differential power relation between experts and on-site educators (Fleming & Hickey, 2013).

Even though community staff who had teaching backgrounds were involved in WIL language teaching partnerships, they had concerns about the WIL partnership, and the lack of guidelines about expectations regarding their involvement. Community staff members with nonteaching backgrounds were not aware of how they might contribute to students' professional learning, or how to give voice to their concerns. A community-based staff member at the Pagoda Orphans' Shelter, Kim, expressed her lack of confidence about being involved in the English WIL program:

It is not necessary to invite us to assess these students. Their coming here from a long distance to this Pagoda Orphans' Shelter in a remote district of the city is much appreciated. They are enthusiastic and very patient to explain the English

they are teaching, working until the children understand the lesson. What we need to do for administrative procedures is just confirm their presence and comment on their performance. (Kim, Community Supervisor, English WIL)

Some school-/community-based representatives tend to see roles as recipients of university largesse and do so with gratitude. They acknowledge the students' and universities' contributions but may not see the value of their own knowledge in contributing to the education of students for the language education profession. Instead of securing mutual benefits through WIL partnerships, their collaboration tends to be positioned as inferior, as community recipients. This challenges the social justice values where all WIL partners are expected to have equal opportunities notwithstanding their ethnolinguistic background, social status, race, or religion. With communities from marginalised groups, recognising their roles needs to build mutual confidence and understanding so that the community organisation takes more charge of the students' role in their workplace and the university's contribution (Burke & Whitty, 2018).

The confusion over the roles of stakeholders in WIL partnerships can lie in the feeling of being alien in the workplace environment. A student, Xiu Ying, expressed her feeling of being isolated in her WIL in language teacher education program:

I still can't take myself as a member of this school. For example, in these two schools, they will have meetings in the morning. When I attend these meetings, . . . they talk about some school activities or somethings about their daily work. Because I am not a permanent staff member, I only work at this school for one day a week, I can't understand what they are talking about. They are friendly but I don't think they treat me as staff. For myself, I don't have a sense of belonging to this workplace. (Xiu Ying, Student, Chinese WIL)

In terms of language, knowledge, and power relations, the student Xiu Ying struggled with empowering herself in getting to know the school community to which she was assigned. According to Major and Santoro's (2016) study, Xiu Ying had difficulty in achieving "workplace knowledge, social privilege, intercultural competence, culture and styles of communication, relations of power [among those who involved in the program] and

strategies and skills in reflecting on critical incidents” (p. 472). Failing to take an active role as a member of this professional community, Xiu Ying did not give herself a voice in either professional or academic and nonacademic or nonprofessional conversations, so her insights into the workplace made her experiences there even more challenging.

Students may not see nor take charge of their professional roles and responsibilities in WIL partnerships. This may be due to their limited experience in teaching/learning, and thus “unacknowledged differences” (Fleming & Hickey, 2013, p. 211), which includes little experience with workplace knowledge, working environment adaptation, and their proactivity in getting along with fellow workers. Other reasons for them not taking charge of their professional learning arise from barriers of their language competence, knowledge of the local educational culture, or limited understanding of the philosophy of education employed in the local community organisation. Their lack of awareness of their contribution in a WIL partnership may limit their professional performance as well as the educational outcomes of the WIL partnership.

Another angle for looking at the confusion over roles concerns the political impact of WIL partnerships revealed in the imposition of power in making WIL partnerships possible in local school/community organisations. Two school mentors, Andrea and Christine, shared their struggles in fulfilling their mentoring role in the school-enhanced language teacher education program at a local school in the Chinese WIL program:

From the school perspective, the Departmental officers have an easy job in their way, because they don't even see the class-teachers or the volunteers doing what they do in their lessons. It's the school who has to monitor the volunteers. Since the program started in 2008 the Department has handed out the policy about everyone's roles and responsibilities to the volunteers and to the supervisors at school and check to make sure it generally happens. (Andrea, School Mentor, Chinese WIL)

Without awareness of the specific guidelines for conducting the WIL language teaching program, a schoolteacher, Christine, expressed confusion about her role in mentoring students working at the school where she works:

The new university management recently introduced a requirement that we fill in a document about the volunteers. I am even not told about this by the Department. The volunteers do not know how often I have to fill in the portfolio as their mentor. I haven't been trained very well. (Christine, School Mentor, Chinese WIL)

The imposition of power adds to the confusion about participants' roles in WIL partnerships, especially for those at the lower levels of the power hierarchy and who perform the key educational work albeit without any roadmap (Call, 2018). The school mentors take orders and do their jobs without any discussion or negotiation. On the one hand, this imposition of power challenges the WIL partnership by creating tensions, and pressure around unresolved conflicts of interests. Due to the lack of satisfactory resolution of these interests, the schoolteachers as stakeholders feel the burden of working under this powerful pressure. On the other hand, it creates a challenge for the WIL partnership when the schoolteachers refuse to take active roles in engaging with these impositions (Major & Santoro, 2016).

### **5.5.2 Organisational structural change**

Evidence in this study regarding organisational structural change entails changes in resource allocation and shifts in staffing allocation, causing policy amendments and substantial challenges for implementing WIL partnerships. Emily, a university manager, explained how major Departmental structural changes impacted the reduced resources it provided for Sydney's language teacher education program and the opportunity this provided for the university to take the lead in managing this WIL partnership:

When the program started in mid-2008 the Department provided a program coordinator who worked to train and support student-volunteers, liaise with the schools, liaised with the university and organised the bridges to Understanding reference committee meetings. The university worked very much under the leadership of the Department. However, when the Department was restructured beginning in 2013, those resources disappeared, and support staff disappeared. It has been only in the last 12 months that the Department has been able to bring



some—but certainly not all of those resources and part-time support staff back.  
(Emily, University Manager, Chinese WIL)

As foreshadowed in Section 5.4.3, Emily is referring to the Department’s restructuring, which is discussed further here. Under the policy *Local Schools, Local Decisions* (NSW DEC, 2012), the Department initiated its massive restructuring in 2013. This led to disbanding of regional offices structure across the state, which involved relocating and making redundant the volunteer leadership team from the Western Sydney Region, and those from the disbanded Curriculum Branch. Second, this provided an opportunity to take over the management of the program. After 2013, the Chinese WIL program was changed dramatically with the university taking over its management, and the assignment of new managers, giving it a more university-driven, China-centric agenda.

A point of struggle in WIL partnerships resides in the confusion created by organisational and policy changes. An academic, Harry, who was involved in the Chinese WIL program in Sydney, explained this situation:

There are academics who work within the program, who provide leadership. Of course, that’s not always an easy matter; they are often confused by the political complexities. Some want the university to run the program even though it was initiated by the Department. Others want a China-centric program, even though the Department wanted it to teach school students how to learn Chinese. Academic leaders committed the initial ideas for this venture know not what to do, where to go because circumstances are always changing. Because of little match between the different partners’ policies and organisational changes, the program’s academic leaders running the program have to struggle with it to see what the best they can do. (Harry, Academic, Chinese WIL)

For Harry, the political complexities involve organisational and policy changes and expectations from the partners, which is related to *The Local Schools, Local Decisions* (2012). The aim of *Local Schools, Local Decisions* was supposed to “give NSW public schools more authority to make local decisions to best meet the needs of their students” (NSW DoE, 2014, n. p.). In effect, it was a means of cutting staff from central and regional

programs to “schools to have more say in how specialist program staff are allocated to schools” (NSW DEC, 2012, p. 16). The *Local Schools, Local Decisions* (2012) restructure of the DET eliminated the regions and their staff, which meant that after 2013, the assignment of the volunteers to schools, and their in-school training and management was transferred to an extremely busy senior executive in the DEC. *Local Schools, Local Decisions* introduced a resource allocation model, which meant that whatever money was made available by the government would be allocated to schools rather than regions for educational purposes. Basic funds are supposed to be provided for prescribed requirements of school operations, including the added burden of administering those funds, as well as educating students. While areas of specific need are supposed to be provided supplementary funds, there have been challenges shared by a university manager:

The new Departmental Directors had much less time and fewer resources to commit to this program. The Department’s Curriculum and Regional Office personnel were redeployed or made redundant due to the restructure. There were just a couple of university academics who had to pick up this work without university support. At this time, no one in senior university management seemed interested in the program. However, when the *Review of Australian Higher Education* [Bradley et al., 2008] began to take effect from 2013 onwards, this stoked renewed interest among university managers in what this Australia–China partnership might offer. (Emily, University Manager, Chinese WIL)

The unexpected changes in the labour force due to Departmental structural elimination of key work units provoked confusion among the principals, school mentors, and class teachers as well as the university academics working in this WIL partnership. The Department made these changes without directly informing their partners. The university WIL partners did not know who to contact or report to about planning or reviewing the WIL partnership because the structures for doing so had been eliminated in the restructure. The Department did not indicate who was in charge of, or involved in, the Chinese WIL partnership or what resources and support staff it would commit to it. The Departmental restructure provided an opportunity for the university manager to take control of the program,

to restore the traditional supervisor–student relationship, and to leverage the university’s dependency on “a fluctuating international education market” (Marginson, 2013a, p. 60). Not all participants were aware of these policy shifts, and their use in driving changes that affected the stakeholders and the implementation of the WIL partnership, but it affected most through shifts in responsibilities governing the program, and the intensification of workloads for teachers, students, and academics alike, in turn creating new sources of tension.

The reduction in the Department’s leadership, support staff, and resources created new burdens for those working at the operational levels in the partner organisation. However, these policy-driven structural changes did not represent the only threats to the success of this WIL partnership. As noted in the discussion in Section 5.4.2, there were other significant threats (Fitzgerald, 2016; Gil, 2018; Munro, 2016; Norrie, 2011; Patty, 2011; Wade, 2014). These structural changes increased the workload of those who remained involved in the WIL partnership but seemed to produce fewer benefits as it was no longer built on advances achieved during its initial phase (M. Singh & N. Nguyen, 2018). That some voices were unheard may have been due to other, conflicting interests embedded in the WIL partnership (Bexley, 2013; King & James, 2013; Murray, 2013). Thus, discontent may not have just related to lack of recognition of school and university staff workloads, the lack of clear benefits for school students, and the work hours demanded of the student volunteers in a program without any negotiation or recognition of what WIL means. Failure to deal with these problems will likely affect the future of the WIL partnership. Details of workload generated by WIL in language teacher education programs are presented in the next section.

### **5.5.3 Workload**

The internal conflict of interest due to workload between the academics, and the university, the local schools and schoolteachers regarding its management practices provided another dimension of struggle in the WIL partnerships. Two university academics, Giang and Trâm, and a school mentor, Andrea, gave their perspectives about these issues:

*Tham gia vào chương trình này làm tôi tốn nhiều thời gian hơn so với các công tác khác tại trường. . . Chúng tôi cũng không thể đổ lỗi cho cấp lãnh đạo về những gì ảnh hưởng đến cuộc sống của mình. Đó là cách quản lí của họ để giám sát*

*chúng tôi và đó là bản chất của công việc. (Giang, Giảng viên, Chương trình Tiếng Anh)*

My engagement in [this] service-learning [program] was more time-consuming than doing other academic tasks at the university . . . We cannot blame managers for what affects our life. It's their management for monitoring us and it's the nature of the work. (Giang, Academic, English WIL)

Every academic invests much time with this program, but it has limited institutional recognition in terms of workload. This is shown in the annual report for Performance Management Process. Evaluation academic work performance based on this kind of work is discouraged, and academics do not want to engage it in any further. (Trâm, Academic, English WIL)

Although they gave me professional development, a major problem was that I wasn't given any time recognition in my workload or any financial recognition for my work in this program. It was very difficult for me to fully engage in this service-learning program because the contradictory expectations from the Department and the School was, do your full-time paid job. (Andrea, School Mentor, Chinese WIL)

The fixed managerial framework governing academics' work performance and evaluation according to the university policy limited their contribution and involvement in the English WIL partnership. This suggests that in spite of working with "collaborative self-interest", academics and schoolteachers expected "transparency and negotiability" (Choy & Delahaye, 2011, p. 158) from their managers. Specifically, the number of working hours academics committed to English WIL was not satisfactorily recognised in their workload, and thus failed to acknowledge the contribution they were making. This was partly due to the characteristics of the teaching/learning tasks inherent in the English WIL partnership, which required extra work and not less as managers imagined. Here, mismanagement and unfairness affected negatively on the willingness and enthusiasm of academics to undertake WIL as "little attention to the demands increased workloads placed upon university staff" (Bates, 2011, p. 112).

Similarly, resistance to managerial governance was revealed in dissatisfaction among the teachers involved in the Chinese WIL partnership because their mentoring tasks were not fully and meaningfully recognised in their workload, and work performance. In addition to doing their required job as full-time language teachers, some teacher–mentors found that they had to carry the additional tasks of mentoring the student volunteers in the Chinese WIL partnership. Andrea did not receive any workload recognition for this task, while as a professional, she was expected to undertake it. In various ways, she challenged and opposed this aspect of the WIL partnership because the managers had made all the decisions without engaging in dialogue with the school mentors. The quality of WIL partnership was being challenged in relation to the managerial exercise of power over those whose knowledge was necessary for the school and the student volunteers to secure any benefits.

## **5.6 Critical analysis of dominant, emergent, and residual cultures of WIL**

This section uses Williams’s (1977) concepts dominant, emergent, and residual, along with relevant research literature to elaborate a meta-analysis of the evidentiary analysis in Section 3.3. For Williams (1977), the “dominant” refers to the “hegemonic” (p. 122). While Williams’s concept of “emergent” refers to “new” (p. 123) meanings, values, practices, and relationships, this idea of “newness” should not be unquestioningly associated with positive or necessarily worthwhile endeavours. Likewise, Williams’s notion of the “residual” refers to both positive and negative elements from the past, which may be suppressed but are always available for revival.

### **5.6.1 Dominant trajectory in WIL partnerships**

At one level, evidence from the WIL partnerships analysed earlier in this chapter indicates that the dominant trajectory of university education addressed students’ needs to be work-ready (Patton, 2017; Smith-Ruig, 2014). Evidence from this study indicates that the English WIL partnerships were established as a vehicle for making university graduates employable in an increasingly uncertain local/global graduate labour market where English presently has a significant role. The Chinese WIL partnerships did likewise for graduates who would return to China to seek employment. It also served as an enculturation route that secured graduates advanced standing in an Australian initial teacher education program, thus

providing them options for employment and migration to Australia. These trajectories constitute the hegemonic culture of higher education in which academic qualifications per se are not a dominant precondition for graduate employment due to the demands of the ever-changing world of work (PhillipsKPA, 2014). WIL gives workplace knowledge an increasingly dominant role in higher education, which requires partnerships that involve balancing power relations between university managers and industry managers, and between them and academics and workplace mentors, while matching the needs and expectations of the students and other participants who are involved. Taking a positive view of WIL, Rots et al. (2014) held that “partnership arrangements characterized by . . . collaboration and negotiation between mentors and the faculty of the teacher education instituted by shared power, transparent responsibilities, and professional development of all participants” (p. 292) can give students positive preparation both in attitude and their teaching career. This collaboration to access workplace knowledge demands balancing mutual benefits among multiple partners in these partnerships, which have to adapt to varying workplaces, and the larger economic and political contexts.

However, the dominant trajectory in both WIL partnerships shifted to a deeper level and lay in the direction of finance-driven considerations governing the establishment of national and international WIL partnerships (Bexley, 2013; King & James, 2013). From evidence analysis in this study, considerations about finance are evident in the drive for reputational status in Australia for international student recruitment (Marginson, 2013a; Murray, 2013). Here, the dominant trajectory in the Chinese WIL partnership was expressed in economic power, evident in the enactment of the Chinese WIL program through tailored partnerships. For Qiu (2016), the idea of the dominant educational trajectory refers to the “ideologies of the ruling class” (p. 621). In this case study, this was expressed in the decisions made by university managers in governing the Chinese WIL partnership. The dominant economic trajectory drives this use of power, given university academic dependency on the funding that can be obtained through partnerships such as this. Moreover, Smith and Worsfold (2015) argued that WIL offers “a new way for many universities to attract students, and thus compete against other academic institutions” (p. 24). Thus, in narrow managerial terms, “the future of Australian higher education lies with greater reliance on sources of

revenue that are not the standard government outlays per student, including through the international student program” (Murray, 2013, p. 122).

### **5.6.2 Emergent trajectory in WIL partnerships**

The emergent trajectory in the WIL partnerships moved in the direction of changes. These changes have the new sense of setting up partnerships as an education strategy for mutual benefit of universities and partners regarding students’ professional learning (Barends & Nel, 2017; Fleming & Hickey, 2013; Patton, 2017). The WIL partnerships in this case study showed the values of the shared power between universities and workplaces (Rots et al., 2014) in which language teacher education was not dominated by education institutions. Rather, the divergence of partners’ ideas involved in operating the WIL partnerships meant producing better decisions, but which led to challenges in reaching final decisions through rounds of negotiation. What emerged in the Chinese WIL practices in this study entailed changes in the socioeconomic and political context in which international student recruitment, and the multilayer partnership created the dependency in WIL partnership. Changes in organisational structure of DET followed by operational deployment with less staff brought unsatisfactorily recognised workload to university academics and schoolteachers involved in WIL (Bates, 2011; Jovanovic et al., 2018). The changes in management affect the quality of involvement of academics and schoolteachers in WIL, which shows the tensions in power relations between the managers and the managed. The evidence analysed in this chapter suggests that power/knowledge relations (Foucault, 1977; 1980) are operating across and come from every dimension of these WIL in language teacher education programs. The evidence suggests that there was no division between organisational managers standing in opposition to academics and school mentors or workplace supervisors, or between them and the students, or between the students and those they worked with in the community organisations. For Foucault (1976), “power is everywhere; not because it embraces everything, but because it comes from everywhere” (p. 93), and thus, “there is no binary and all-encompassing opposition between rulers and ruled at the root of power relations” (p. 94). Williams’s (1977) understanding of textuality, reading, and thus writing put him at a distance from theorists like Foucault (1980). Williams argued that the interpretation of even the most complex texts is within everyone’s reach, and thus a female,

bilingual doctoral candidate from Việt Nam. To put textuality, reading, and writing in the grasp of an emerging teacher-researcher is, as Brenkman (1995) argues the responsibility of educators in their own struggles within universities everywhere and within the dominant, residual and emergent discourses of intellectual culture. The emergent challenges in the WIL partnerships in this study were evident in the shifts in power/knowledge relations (Foucault, 1977; 1980) among key stakeholders, partly due to organisational restructuring which led to confusion among stakeholders about their roles and responsibilities.

In Williams's (1977) terms, China's emergent policy governing foreigners offers new meanings for recreating the Chinese WIL partnership. The evidence points to the possible emergence of practices and relationships that serve to create an international environment supportive of China's development as a superpower by undertaking educational restructuring that accords with this agenda (Fitzgerald, 2016; Gil, 2018; Munro, 2016; Norrie, 2011; Patty, 2011; Wade, 2014). That China's agenda and those who are working for it in Australia are publicly disputed also suggests a different emergent trajectory.

### **5.6.3 Residual trajectory in WIL partnerships**

WIL partnerships do not have a fixed, predetermined educational trajectory. Over the course of time, WIL partnerships prove to be dynamically changing, with multiple forces acting on them from well beyond the efforts of any individual students, community organisers, or academics. Evidence in this chapter shows the shift in the practices of the WIL partnerships in Việt Nam and Australia, both of which initially began as vehicles for professional workplace learning for prospective language teachers through prioritising community-driven educational services (Du Plessis, 2011; Jovanovic et al., 2018; Lasen et al., 2018). The agenda is now part of a residual WIL trajectory, which in both cases has changed in substance, taking on the dominant trajectory noted in Section 3.5.1 in accordance with current government policy pressures and university management demands. In this study, the WIL partnerships were initiated to educate learners in schools and community organisations in language, and thus provide real-world professional learning for language teachers by involving them with workplace partners. In the Chinese WIL partnership, the focus was on Australian school students getting to know how to learn and use Chinese as part



of their everyday lives, and the student volunteers documenting what they had achieved through their school-based professional learning. Hamby and Brinberg (2016) explained that these residual WIL trajectories were initially embraced by universities “eager to partner with non-profit institutions for several reasons: [to provide] experiential educational opportunities for their students, [offer] a research venue for their faculty, and [fulfil] the broader university mission of disseminating knowledge created at the university” (p. 228).

The residual WIL trajectory involved tailoring WIL activities to meet the educational needs specified by the university rather than for the needs of the partner organisations. This change in WIL practice took place in the English WIL program in Việt Nam, where the university tried to focus on its interest in sending students to workplaces. The university tailored the English WIL partnership in response to the needs of students’ workplace learning, and while promoting its reputation, thanks to this strategy of civic engagement through students’ teaching English activities or serving the communities with what they can. WIL practice ostensibly was based on the local social context in which disadvantaged children, and young adults in these organisations needed support from university students; the tailored partnership enabled the university to dominate by providing English language learning by WIL student teachers. In this way, the university shifted the initial human-centric WIL partnership agreement of supporting the community to focusing on the WIL student teachers’ professional learning, accredited as an awareness internship of the English teacher education program without acknowledging the actual needs of the community. Not surprisingly, Mahtabi and Eslamieh (2015) argued that the differences in WIL trajectories over time mean that the residual elements “from an earlier stage . . . often very long ago . . . in fact reflect a very different social formation than the present time” (p. 167). The notion of a residual WIL trajectory makes it possible to see the changes in WIL policy practices as they varied across diverse settings, and with changes in the partner organisations. Additionally, changes in this residual WIL trajectory also entailed dominant features in WIL. These actual considerations appeared to be on the wane given what was now the dominant trajectory in the WIL partnerships. The dominant trajectory of the WIL partnerships moved beyond their initial target of affecting two-way knowledge exchange to focus on securing finance through student recruitment. As Williams (1997) suggested, these residual elements belong to the

past, which may now be examined as historical artefacts, but it is doubtful that they will or can be “revived” in any deliberate way given the dominant trajectory in university WIL partnerships “to help solve the grand challenges facing human societies” (Murray, 2013, p. 114).

## **5.7 Conclusion**

This chapter analysed evidence of changes in power/knowledge relations (Foucault, 1977; 1980) in the English and Chinese WIL teacher education programs. WIL in language teacher education revealed the complexities of organising knowledge provision and power sharing among stakeholders involved in WIL partnerships. Issues of power /knowledge changes resided in setting up partnerships, engaging and maintaining collaboration among key partners, managing stakeholders’ relationships, and the workload recognised as key stakeholders’ contributions. Investigating the expressions of, and responses to, changes in power/knowledge relations (Foucault, 1977; 1980) of an education partnership requires a wider view than seeing the current practices, context, and time. This necessitates the exploration of the dynamic interrelations of social, economic, and historical features involved in an education partnership. Williams (1977) offered an in-depth explanation through his key concepts of dominant, residual, and emergent cultures involved in educational culture and process. While maintaining a set of ideologies that partnership promotes mutual development, educators and WIL partners may miss out on the residual elements, and the emergent forms co-exist in the collaboration and co-education of a dominant education culture. However, understanding the nature of WIL partnerships is not to separate these three elements. Rather, they all contribute to shaping an educational culture in an interrelated way. Chapter 6 analyses evidence of the opportunities and challenges in the Chinese and English WIL programs in this study.

## Chapter 6:

### Dilemmas in Work-Integrated Learning in Language Teacher Education

#### 6.1 Introduction

WIL provides students with the knowledge and skills to meet employers' demands of being work-ready graduates (Gribble, Blackmore, & Rahimi, 2015), and enhances the possibility of students' graduate employability (Jonck, 2014). In building their work history and professional network, WIL gives students opportunities for profile references (Smith-Ruig, 2014), giving them more comparative advantages for potential jobs. However, research in WIL has given little attention to the "complex webs of power" (Patton, 2017, p. 164) in this sociological and multifaceted phenomenon in education. There is more to be learnt about the power/knowledge relations among WIL stakeholders in which knowledge is expressed through power, and power is exercised through knowledge of relationship strategies (Foucault, 1980). Other concerns include stakeholder expectations, students' intended outcomes under the impact of power, support in workplaces (Lasen et al., 2018), and the tensions of parallel supervisory relationships between academics and students and host supervisors and students (Winchester-Seeto et al., 2016).

With the rise of WIL in higher education, it is questionable whether university graduates can gain all generic skills in WIL programs in the form of internships, fieldwork, and traineeships, and whether they can easily join the workforce with its diverse roles and demands. However, in a news article, Orrell (2018) stated that WIL benefits all stakeholders and reduces risks, making this approach more debatable in education research.

Exploring the possibilities for increasing the effectiveness of WIL programs, or changing them as the case may warrant is integral to understanding how participants interpret the organisation of WIL and their justifications of what and how they involved in WIL. In Chapter 5, power/knowledge relations in WIL partnership were analysed and discussed. This chapter explores dilemmas in terms of curriculum, society, and policy practice in WIL enactment in language teacher education using Berlak and Berlak's (1981) concept. The chapter starts with students' achievements and contributions to knowledge in WIL. The

struggles regarding resources in WIL enactment are reported. Tensions from policy-based governance are also identified and discussed in this chapter.

## **6.2 Contributions of work-integrated learning**

This section provides an overarching theme of what WIL in this study involves and contributes to students' professional learning, and how it was implemented in language teacher education.

### **6.2.1 Student teachers' work-readiness**

WIL is a vehicle that a wide range of universities use to prepare students, across a variety of disciplines, to graduate so they are ready to commence work. In this study, work-readiness refers to the professional knowledge, practices, and engagement strategies students achieve via real-world teaching/learning experiences through work-integrated service-learning in gaining and developing workplace knowledge (AITSL, 2011). In theory, participation in WIL provides students with work exposure, which gives insights into and contributes to their preparation for work-ready employment. The following evidentiary excerpts illustrate the views of academics, and one student on how participation in WIL enabled students to develop their professional learning.

Students in this [WIL] program took part in teaching English to young adults and children in some Pagoda Orphan's Shelters. Involving them in service-learning helped these students develop more professional capabilities, know more about the potential students of diverse backgrounds and prepare for their future profession. (Tín, Academic, English WIL)

From the perspective of the academic, Tín, work exposure through English WIL gave students real-world opportunities to further their professional learning by engaging in direct teaching/learning experiences. Typically, WIL is implemented as "the main avenue for students to gain hands-on experiences" (Pham et al., 2018, p. 63). In this study, engaging with learners at the Pagoda Orphans' Shelter gave students teaching experiences, and insights into their future jobs, which may include learners of diverse backgrounds and characteristics.

One Vietnamese academic, Thu, argued that students' WIL engagement with children with disabilities in a community organisation increased awareness of their professional role in society, specifically of their responsibility to their students, and contribution to the teaching profession:

Students expressed in their writing reflections that they could better understand their professional responsibilities when engaging in teaching through service-learning. . . . Students gained a better awareness of the professional orientation they are expected to have in teaching, their roles as professionals in the society and the nature of society. (Thu, Academic, English WIL)

The evidence suggests that work exposure in WIL contributed to preparing students to take charge of their work as teachers and to identify themselves as contributors to society's education. These benefits suggest why "WIL is increasingly being embraced as a possible remedy to answer this call for career-ready graduates" (Patton, 2017, p. 163). Beyond that, evidence gathered in this research project suggests that such work exposure frees students from the limits of learning knowledge and technical skills through exam-oriented, teacher-directed instruction through them working to meet the actual requirements of their future jobs.

Another academic, My, asserted that students learnt generic skills for professional teaching including teamwork, problem-posing, and communication through sharing their experiences of teaching/learning English in the workplace. These generic skills are said to be among those demanded by employers (Carvalho, 2016):

Students recognised the benefits of being involved in service-learning for sharing professional experiences, teamwork and developing problem-solving skills in teaching English in the community. (My, Academic, English WIL)

One student, Duong, agreed with this, arguing that WIL helped him enhance his confidence in the work of the teaching profession.

I felt more confident in speaking when teaching English. During that time, my public speaking skills in communicating with learners gradually improved thanks

to the teaching experience. Doing service-learning helped me understand and be ready for the teaching job that I could not imagine before. (Duong, Student, English WIL)

Duong emphasised that WIL enabled him to develop a key teaching skill, namely, the ability to communicate with learners, and improved his self-efficacy and public speaking skills. Having experience in English WIL made Duong confident that he was ready for the teaching profession. Overall, evidence gathered in this research project suggests that through engaging in WIL, students developed workplace skills and enhanced their readiness for employment. Similarly, Smith-Ruig (2014) stated that “WIL is a means . . . to better equip students with the skills needed in the workplace, that is, improve their employability” (p.773).

### **6.2.2 21st-century capabilities**

Evidence shows that the WIL programs in this study provided student teachers with opportunities to engage in professional learning while obtaining 21st-century capabilities (21C capabilities) that Romero, Usart, and Ott (2015) defined as a new set of skills and competencies. The following evidentiary excerpts shared by one university manager and three academics show how they saw WIL students achieving these skills through teacher education.

The university manager (Trí) and the two academics (Tín and Trâm) explained how the English WIL program was designed and planned to engage students in learning a set of working skills and knowledge to prepare them for their future teaching professions. For them, students participating in WIL in language teacher education were expected to obtain the 21C-skills required for employment in changing times:

Through their service-learning, students learnt disciplinary knowledge through practising different skills such as communicating with the community, understanding different community participants and developing analytical skills when teaching English to the children at the community. (Trí, University Manager, English WIL)

Embedding work-integrated learning in language teacher education curriculum helped students know how to apply academic knowledge to identify educational problems in real life situations and explore ways of addressing these. Service-learning helped students foster their observation skills, analytical skills, critical thinking and team building skills through investigating problems in the local community. (Tín, Academic, English WIL)

This [WIL] program focused on improving students' professional knowledge, and important transferable skills; these skills include communication skills, collaboration, knowledge-building skill. (Trâm, Academic, English WIL)

From the perspectives of Trí, Tín, and Trâm, students were engaged in WIL to learn how to develop communication, interpersonal, analytical, team building, collaboration, problem-solving, observation, and critical thinking skills in English WIL. Pellegrino (2017) reported that education stakeholders such as “business leaders, educational organisations and researchers have begun to call for new education policies that target the development of broad, transferable skills and knowledge, often referred to as 21st century skills” (p. 224). Romero et al. (2015) specified 21st century skills as “communication, collaboration, social and cultural skills, creativity, critical thinking, problem-solving, productivity in a globalized world, learning to learn skills, self-direction, planning, flexibility, risk taking, conflict management, and a sense of initiative and entrepreneurship” (p. 149). Evidence from Trí, Tín, and Tram revealed that WIL is meant to educate students with skills for working in the 21st century.

However, for another academic, My, who closely observed student engagement in WIL, emphasised that students learnt knowledge, and skills beyond English teaching skills:

Students improved themselves in terms of skills such as they themselves could ride motorbikes instead of being taken by parents . . . problem-solving skills, for example, when having traffic jam, being late for their class. (My, Academic, English WIL)

The academic-My clarified that students learnt how to ride a motorbike as one skill required when engaged in the English WIL program. Learning how to travel to the workplace by personal vehicle and managing their time to avoid being late for class due to traffic jams was an example of what students engaged in, learnt, and achieved during WIL.

Regarding skills learnt from WIL, one student in Chinese WIL program, Cheng acknowledged that he learnt communication skills, and classroom management skills from a school mentor in the Chinese WIL program at school,

There is a Chinese teacher . . . so I can communicate with her and learn from her. For example, how to manage the local classroom . . . some very practical teaching and management skills of classroom I learnt from her. (Cheng, Student, Chinese WIL)

Another student, Nga, shared that when she was engaged in English WIL at the Hospitality School, she learnt more than teaching skills, such as how to fold a blanket skilfully:

*Ở cộng đồng, em học thêm được nhiều lắm. Chẳng hạn như gấp mền vừa điều luyện, nhanh gọn mà vừa đẹp chứ không phải chỉ gấp lại vài cái là xong.* (Nga, Sinh viên, Chương trình tiếng Anh)

At the community, I learnt more. For example, how to fold the blanket skilfully, quickly and nicely instead of just folding several times. (Nga, Student, English WIL)

The process of WIL is designed to enable students to learn through interacting with other people from different backgrounds in a range of diverse work-related roles. In doing so, they are expected to use their prior disciplinary knowledge gained through their university studies to inform their learning capabilities to deal with their new work situation. For example, Cheng learnt at university and practised at school how to communicate with the Chinese school mentor teacher, and Nga learnt how to communicate well with English language learners at the Hospitality School so they felt secure and liked to teach her how to fold a blanket skilfully. Cheng and Nga both understood it was necessary to establish rapport



to better collaborate with others in their workplaces. Learning through WIL in this study required the students to develop multiple skills in addition to their disciplinary knowledge.

“21st century skills” were referred to in the university course outline that aimed to prepare graduate secondary teachers to acquire the knowledge and work skills to work and live in the 21st century. Given the course that Cheng and Nga took qualified them to become teachers, with WIL accredited as part of that course, they both obtained some 21C skills during their WIL. Van Laar, van Deursen, van Dijk, and de Haan (2017) argued that these 21C skills are needed for a dramatically changing world. The 21C skills are expected to be transferable from one job to the next, as the rising generation of workers are not expected to have life-long careers. Evidence from Cheng and Nga indicated that WIL provided students with the skills needed for work and life in the diverse contexts and workplaces of the 21st century.

### **6.2.3 Educational opportunities for learners experiencing inequality**

One of the contributions of WIL found in this study was that the English WIL program provided student teachers with educational opportunities for working with learners experiencing inequality at one Pagoda Orphans’ Shelter and one Hospitality School. The following evidentiary excerpts shared by two academics, and a Hospitality Schoolteacher explained the social backgrounds, disabilities, and other disadvantages of the children living in the shelters and young learners at the Hospitality School:

Here, these child learners are orphans, without parental guidance for consolidating after the class lessons; they seem to start the next lesson knowing little because they cannot remember what they previously learnt. (Giang, Academic, English WIL)

These are young adult learners with disabilities who make little progress; they have limitation in their learning capabilities. (Phi, Academic, English WIL)

*Một số bạn tâm lý không ổn định. . . một số bạn thì suy giảm nhận thức, học rất chậm, học trước quên sau.* (Ly, Giáo viên Trường Khách sạn, Chương trình Tiếng Anh)

Some young adult learners do not have stable psychology . . . some of them are with a cognitive impairment, very slow learners, who forget all of what has been taught. (Ly, Hospitality Schoolteacher, English WIL)

Orphaned children here are recognised as children under 16 years old who have no parents, and receive no support from their relatives in bringing them up. One academic, Giang, explained that some of the children learners at the Pagoda Orphans' Shelter had been abandoned and left outside the shelter, some had cerebral palsy, and some had been sent there because their parents had died.<sup>11</sup> These learners had begun their life with substantial disadvantage compared with other children of the same age due to the lack of care and guidance from their family and relatives.

An academic, Phi, involved in WIL at the Hospitality School pointed out there were significant challenges for WIL students required to work in a school where some of the young learners had disabilities. In English WIL program, the learners with disabilities, including those with a cognitive impairment, struggled to make progress in learning English as a foreign language. Similar evidence was given by the Hospitality Schoolteacher, Ly, who indicated that the physical and mental health of the students challenged the WIL learners. Some of the orphans had disabilities that compounded their already existing inequality within their age cohort. Being both orphaned and with disabilities set up structural disadvantages, and the young learners therefore had more challenges in learning English. Here, the English WIL program provided student teachers with opportunities for professional learning while engaging them in learning how to teach learners who were experiencing inequality.

Ly, a Hospitality Schoolteacher, also explained how WIL students provided learning opportunities for the young learners with disabilities and whether these did much to redress inequality:

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<sup>11</sup> In Việt Nam, the orphans in this study were generally with disabilities since birth and abandoned by their single mothers who had left them at the Pagoda Orphans' Shelter and did not return. For Mont and Nguyen (2011), "disability during childhood is significantly correlated with lack of educational attainment, an important determinant of poverty" (p. 340).

There is one boy who has an intellectual disability but is very enthusiastic in English class activities. He enjoys doing the activities, seems to learn many things in English but almost forgets after the lessons. I feel sorry for him. I know that teaching him can be like a waste of time and energy, but the students were happy to help him. (Ly, Hospitality Schoolteacher, English WIL)

Ly pointed to the struggles of teaching young learners with disabilities due to them having a limited capability for learning. However, WIL students were determined to give a learning opportunity to a 16-year-old young learner with an intellectual disability like those of his classmates. Thus, WIL can give a modest starting point for pursuing equity in and through education. For Burke and Whitty (2018), equity needs to take into account differences in demographic attributes such as class, ethnicity, disability, race, and gender through their relationship with inequalities. WIL students in this study supported the disadvantaged, marginalised, and vulnerable groups in the hope of making their lives better while they benefited from their own professional learning, which would, presumably, ensure securing good jobs as teachers. Two students, Dương and Liêm, shared how WIL at the Pagoda Orphans' Shelter gave them opportunities for learning how to know about students to organise appropriate English teaching activities:

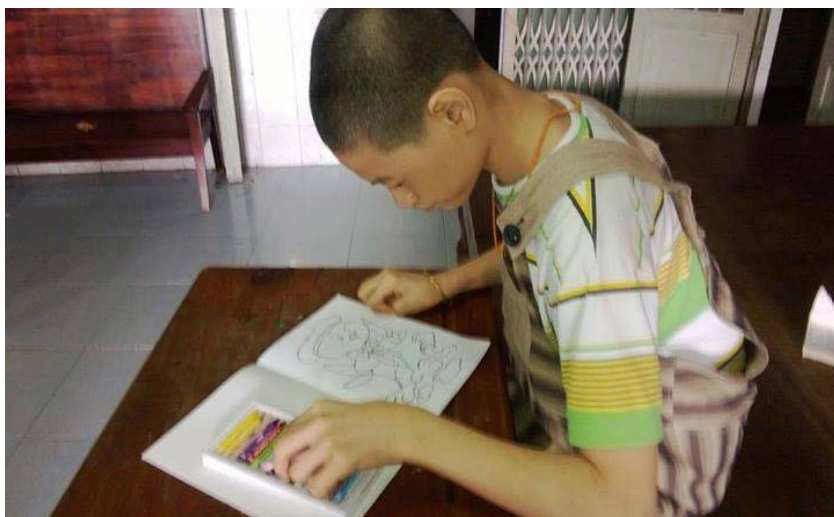
*Em đang dạy cho hai em nhỏ bị khuyết tật. Em nhận thấy rất là nhạy cảm khi mình cứ kể về gia đình của mình trong khi các em thì chưa hề gặp ba mẹ của các em trong đời. Tham gia chương trình này giúp cho em hiểu rằng rất nhiều người đang cần giúp đỡ. (Dương, Sinh viên, Chương trình tiếng Anh)*

I was teaching two children with disability. I realised that it's very sensitive to talk about my family when working with learners who have never met their parents in their lives. Participating in this [WIL] program helped me understand that there are many people that need help. (Dương, Student, English WIL)

Some of these children have cognitive impairments. We had to be patient with them. We just gave them easy exercises such as tracing or drawing to help them feel that they are able to learn. (Liêm, Student- Reflection, English WIL)

For Dưòng, what he learnt from WIL was beyond ELT as he identified the differences residing in societies between ability and disability, family and orphan, and advantages and disadvantages. While Dưòng may not have been able to make changes to those issues, his workplace experience may have given him more insights into the diversity of learners and the possibilities of job variation, workplace settings, and working capabilities required.

A student, Liêm, reported in his self-reflection that he had helped children with disabilities access knowledge and develop confidence in their efficacy through an easy or relevant learning activity. By providing a different teaching activity, Liêm created the necessary support to address equity in language education by giving the children with disabilities an advantage to make their learning opportunities possible. For Cochran-Smith et al. (2016), equity refers to distribution of opportunities and resources. According to Alexiadou and Essex (2016), equity is a situation in which “all individuals reach at least a basic minimum level of skills” (p. 7). By providing opportunities and learning materials for tracing and drawing, Liêm helped these children with a basic level of knowledge and skills. Figure 6.1 is a photograph taken during WIL teacher education that reflects equity in accessing learning.



*Figure 6.1.* Educational opportunity for a young adult learner with a disability.

*Source:* Dưòng, November 2016.

In Figure 6.1, 13-year-old orphan boy, Tâm, is engaged in a learning activity while other learners were studying English with the support of WIL students working at the Pagoda Orphans' Shelter. Tâm has cerebral palsy, which is recognised as “a group of disorders related to movement and posture that originates with damage to the developing foetal or infant brain” (Skibbe & Aram, 2018, p. 29). Being an orphan with cerebral palsy<sup>12</sup>, Tâm lived with little chance of education. The WIL language teaching program at the Pagoda Orphans' Shelter gave Tâm a chance to access some limited educational experiences. While other orphan children were studying English, Tâm was provided with materials for drawing, an activity normally undertaken by children aged 3 to 5. According to Dương, the orphan boy Tâm looked happier after having had a learning opportunity that he might not otherwise have experienced. In this case, through WIL, this child had a modest learning experience, but nothing necessary to producing substantive educational equality. Changing the social prejudice against people with disabilities, which is underwritten by an ideology that insists there is no point in educating children like Tâm, will not be achieved by WIL. This ideology restricts the ambitions and potential of individuals from marginalised groups, depriving them of the chance for learning capabilities that make a potential contribution through further education and work.

The expectation is that education is a vehicle for giving equal opportunities to those with disabilities, rather than just “responding to students' special educational needs” (Liasidou, 2014, p. 123) by separating them into special facilities. Tâm was treated as a member of the class at the Pagoda Orphans' Shelter having an opportunity to learn a little through WIL. The English WIL language teaching/learning program contributed a little to equity in education by giving children with disabilities an opportunity to learn. The contribution of English WIL program to equity in education shows that “equity [is] not just in abstract terms but in concrete form appropriate to prepare quality teachers” (Liu, 2015, p. 146). The English WIL program added to the agenda for giving “equal right to access

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<sup>12</sup> In Việt Nam, healthcare and education for children with cerebral palsy remain problematic. Vietnamese children with cerebral palsy do not attend mainstream school (Khandaker et al., 2017). In addition, “children over 6 years of age who attend school are only covered by voluntary health insurance, requiring guardians to purchase treatment based on their ability to pay” (p. 2).

education for all kind of learners such as people with disability, minority people and vulnerable children” (MOET, 2017a, p. 1), which aims to eliminate inequality in education, though makes little substantive difference. This also addresses one of the two educational goals for young Australians (Ministerial Council for Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs [MCEETYA], 2008) in which Australian schooling promotes equity and excellence:

Goal 1: Australian schooling promotes equity and excellence

Goal 2: All young Australians become

- Successful learners
- Confident and creative individuals
- Active and informed citizens. (pp. 7–8)

Thanks to the informal method of professional learning through WIL at the Pagoda Orphans’ Shelter and the Hospitality School, Vietnamese university students had opportunities to give young learners with disabilities opportunities to access knowledge, which articulates the education agenda of equity in education, an integral part of their preparation for the teaching profession.

### **6.3 Enactment challenges in work-integrated learning**

This section describes the challenges in WIL in language teaching. These challenges include resources, staff allocation, teaching/ learning facilities and funding.

#### **6.3.1 Lack of workforce**

Workforce in this study includes personnel and time supplied in WIL, such as academics and workplace supervisors and WIL students, with the necessary professional knowledge, practices, and engagement strategies required for WIL. The following excerpts shared by a Hospitality Schoolteacher, academics, and a university manager give insights into the struggle for workforce in WIL in language teacher education.

For the Hospitality Schoolteacher, Ly, a challenge for the WIL program was the lack of actors involved, namely, academics and students. A placement test was employed by the school to appropriately categorise their learners for the right level of English language education that WIL students would provide. However, the test outcomes did not help with this purpose because the supply of students by the university did not meet the number needed by the vocational school to provide for its learners:

Learners at this vocational school are in various learning backgrounds. However, after the placement test organised by our school for classifying their learning capability levels, these students were arranged in the same class due to the lack of students and academics in charge of the [WIL] program. This lack of personnel is because students may choose this school or other places for their service-learning leading to less students to the learning demand. (Ly, Hospitality Schoolteacher, English WIL)

For one academic, Tram, the reason for this lack of people was the time-consuming and demanding nature of WIL, which made some academics reluctant to participate. Students were also under time pressures to arrange their WIL program schedule while concurrently being required to maintain their university study program:

Not many academics were eager to join in this service-learning program because the involvement is time-consuming. Students faced the same problem of time. They had to attend many training sessions before they went for 16 weeks of service-learning in an official term. They had to manage their time while simultaneously doing other courses. Some students registered for participation but due to the time constraints, they had to cancel. (Tram, Academic, English WIL)

A university manager, Trí, admitted that the students struggled with these conflicting time requirements, but he did not suggest making the WIL program an accredited course within the students' degrees:

Most students were keen on joining in this [WIL] program as they can help the community during their experiential learning. However, time is a challenge

preventing academics. Academics were not enthusiastic to be involved due to the complex nature of the work required. (Trí, University Manager, English WIL)

Thu, another academic involved in this WIL program in Hồ Chí Minh City explained that the reason for the lack of involvement from academics was the additional work of WIL, while the workload recognition from the university was not much different from academic work on campus:

*Làm chương trình này thì em phải huấn luyện cho các bạn sinh viên kỹ năng dạy học. Em tốn hơn gấp đôi thời gian cho chương trình bên cạnh những công tác khác nhưng lãnh đạo trường ghi nhận có khác gì mấy đâu chị. (Thu, Giảng viên, Chương trình tiếng Anh)*

In this program, I trained students in professional teaching skills. I spent more than double amount of time working on service-learning in addition to my other on-campus academic tasks but there was not much difference recognition of this by university management. (Thu, Academic, English WIL)

In relation to the lack of engagement due to time and workload in WIL, Bates (2011) highlighted the workload demands on academics regarding the service roles in WIL, as well as performing on-campus university tasks being given little consideration by university management. Specifically, Bates argued that “the growing body of literature on the need for a diversity of approaches in WIL teaching still pays little attention to the demands increased workloads place upon university staff” (p. 112). The challenge of workforce due to the lack of engagement from academics and students in WIL is thus primarily related to the interconnected workload demands required for WIL and the lack of satisfactory recognition of the requisite work by university management in organising WIL.

### **6.3.2 Workforce allocation**

Workforce allocation refers to the number of students allocated to serve the language learners in the community in the English WIL program in this study. Evidence shared by an academic, and a university manager indicates the tension over the allocation of workforce for English language teaching/learning to disadvantaged children in Việt Nam through WIL:



When I reported to the university managers, they said it was a waste of human resources when allocating 6 students to teach 10 orphaned children with disability at the [Pagoda Orphans'] Shelter for one term. However, students could only manage one-by-one, and their service-learning in language teaching was done with a small number of children with diverse disabilities. (Phi, Academic, English WIL)

This service-learning program is flexible depending on how the characteristics of the activities at the community. However, the university operates the program with fixed funding and timetable for students. In terms of management, this is easy to calculate the staff workload easily. (Ngân, University Manager, English WIL)

As clarified by an academic, Phi, teaching children with diverse disabilities in the English WIL program required students to deliver one-on-one teaching activities. However, for Ngân, the university management expected that they would provide group or class-based teaching for ease of managing workforce allocation, and workload assessment. Specifically, university management found it was a waste of workforce for allocating six students to teach 10 children with disability in the community in the English WIL program. In terms of workforce and funding, management expected that such numbers of students could serve a big group of learners, which could take place in other communities.

As a note, the lack of academics, workplace staff, WIL students, and time for student supervision were recognised as key organisational barriers in the English WIL program. PhillipsKPA (2014) pointed out that in WIL partnerships with workplace organisations, “the two main barriers for organisations currently providing WIL opportunities are lack of resources and time for supervision of the university student” (p. 7). Thus, for the university, allocating six students for 10 children was a waste of time and resources, causing a tension in university management between the policy of funding and human resources, and the practice of WIL. This tension brought to the fore further questions about the nature of WIL in language education with learners who are with disabilities, and the variation of WIL practice required for diverse settings and recipients of WIL.

### 6.3.3 Teaching/learning facilities

Teaching/learning facilities include conditions and materials, such as teaching space, equipment, and classroom teaching aids necessary for delivering lessons in ELT. In the following excerpts, the Hospitality Schoolteacher and a student's written reflections on WIL at the Pagoda Orphans' Shelter provide insights into issues relating to the intersection of education/workplace facilities:

We do not have slide projectors for teaching at this vocational school. The internet connection is very poor. Students have to use teaching/learning facilities such as blackboards and chalk in classrooms with fans in hot, humid weather. (Ly, Hospitality Schoolteacher, English WIL)

The shelter was not as well-equipped as the university's teaching/learning classrooms. We did not have private and quiet rooms for teaching the children. We taught the children in lounge room of the pagoda. All the fans were broken, which made it very challenging for afternoon classes. (Thuận, Student- Reflection, English WIL)

Both the Hospitality Schoolteacher and this student were directly involved in English WIL Program. For the Hospitality Schoolteacher, young adult learners at the hospitality school ranged in age from 16 to 21 years, whereas at the Pagoda Orphans' Shelter, the learners were both orphaned children and young adults aged from 4 to 13 years; some learners in these two groups had disabilities.

For Ly, the Hospitality Schoolteacher, the young adults who studied at the hospitality school in a traditional classroom with chalkboards could not access other teaching/learning facilities such as projectors or a good internet connection. Evidence from Thuận's reflection revealed that the facilities for teaching/learning English to orphaned children and young adults with disabilities at the Pagoda Orphans' Shelter were even more inadequate. Teaching/learning activities were conducted in the lounge room inside the pagoda, which was normally called a shelter, referring to the orphans' home. The learning/teaching activities in English WIL took place in the lounge room of the pagoda where many people went to visit

the pagoda or to do other charity activities taking place there. This “classroom” gave the children no private space for learning.

Of course, workplaces such as orphanages are not necessarily designed or equipped for teaching/learning purposes. There was no exception either in having a private room when I conducted the interviews with participants at the Pagoda Orphans’ Shelter. The interviewee and I sat in the shelter, which was the front part of the pagoda where the orphan children normally studied English with WIL students. There must have been some distractions for the participants as some other people came and went, carrying food and groceries provided at the pagoda. A lack of facilities presents a common challenge in some workplaces, such as communities of low socioeconomic backgrounds or marginalised groups. However, whether WIL students are prepared to engage in professional learning in workplaces that encounter inadequate teaching/learning facilities or have insights into the variation of jobs and learners could be taken into account.

#### **6.3.4 Funding**

Funding is an important resource, and a challenge for the WIL in language teacher education programs organised in this study. The following excerpts shared by two university managers, and an academic raise issues about funding in two WIL programs.

Students have to pay for participating in this [English WIL] program as a credit-based course of 16 weeks in their study program. However, the university just subsidises finance and supports personnel at some communities. The program cannot rely on the tuition fees. It cannot be sustainable to engage students and the program if we just do base on tuition fees. Our current challenge is fundraising from many sources for organising it. (Nghiêm, University Manager, English WIL)

*Nhà trường cũng có hỗ trợ chương trình này về mặt tài liệu và kinh phí tổ chức các hoạt động ngoại khóa. (Thu, Giảng viên, Chương trình tiếng Anh)*

The university supported this [WIL] program in terms of English teaching/teaching materials and funding for some extracurricular events. (Thu, Academic, English WIL)

Many schools have been involved in this [WIL] program for teaching Chinese language since it began in mid-2008; some have left, and new ones have been added. They are not making any direct financial contribution. Along with support funding from Ningbo Municipal Bureau of Education and the University, the Education Department has provided a small contribution in this Joint-Scholarship for students' living expense from the beginning of this program. (Emily, University Manager, Chinese WIL)

In the English WIL program, the students had to pay their own tuition fees to participate in the WIL in language teacher education program as a credit-based course that lasted 16 weeks in a term. The university manager, Nghiêm, and the academic, Thu, indicated that the university used the students' fees to provide teaching/learning materials, books, and WIL-related events, such as extracurricular activities, and subsidised finance and supported personnel in some communities to host this WIL venture. There were no other sources of funding from either the government or other organisations. For Nghiêm, the issues of tuition fees and funding affected students' participation and the sustainability of the English WIL program. Likewise, the cost of WIL participation was also a pressure for the participant students (Grant-Smith et al., 2018).

Different from the English WIL program, evidence from one university manager, Emily, showed that international students from China received a joint scholarship for their living expenses from three partners involved in the Chinese WIL program. Given that Chinese WIL students received a joint scholarship for their living expenses, they were required to pay their own tuition for the teacher research study program for their master's or doctoral degrees. The issue of funding for international students engaging in WIL was also raised by L. Tran and Soejatminah (2017), who pointed out that the issues of cost and funding lead to international students' unwillingness to participate in WIL. Specifically,

International students are reluctant to undertake work-integrated learning program as this is often designed as an extended dimension of their program . . . This also means the cost for their degree with embedded integration of work experience and learning will be higher than the one without work-integrated learning. (p. 264)

The operationalisation of WIL depends on spreading costs across partner organisations. Funding from WIL organisations was identified as a challenge experienced by university managers and academics, which has been echoed by other researchers. Schonell and Macklin (2018) noted that “academics in many mainstream, publicly funded institutions where student numbers are high, and funding is tight often struggle to provide students with opportunities that match the WIL experiences delivered by the world’s top universities” (p. 2). The lack of funding from universities, and government poses challenges to the potential of WIL securing worthwhile educational outcomes, and undermines their long-term sustainability.

## **6.4 Education contestation**

This section provides evidence of education contestation through policy settings and administrative practices in WIL in language teacher education.

### **6.4.1 Policy settings**

Contestation in policy settings occurs when embedding WIL in English teacher education in an academic credit system of education, leading to struggles and confusion for internal stakeholders including academics, students, and managers. The following excerpts from students and academics identify challenges in embedding WIL in English language teacher education in Việt Nam.

For Trung, a student engaging in the English WIL program, the major challenge for his participation in WIL was an overlapping schedule. This was because the English WIL program was designed as a unit of service-learning on the basis of civic engagement that required students to serve the community while in their workplace learning:

This [English WIL] program helped me with experience and skills for my future in the teaching profession. However, it took place at the same time as the other courses I was enrolled during a term, which made participation into this program very challenging for me. (Trung, Student – Reflection, English WIL)

While the English WIL program was accredited as an awareness internship, which was the first of the two of internships in the English Teacher education course, Trung had to

manage time in a credit-based system of education to participate in WIL, which challenged him if WIL and the other selected course overlapped.

Giang, an academic, confirmed this time overlapping due to the credit-based system, which led to challenges for most of the students participating in the English WIL program:

Students joined this [WIL] program which took place at the same time as their other credit-based courses during the term. They had to spend much additional time to fulfil their credit-based course requirements while teaching English at the community took much time affecting their performance and engagement in other courses. Not surprisingly, they got stressed. (Giang, Academic, English WIL)

From Giang's sharing, WIL did not simply require students to do WIL in the community for one term. They had other courses to fulfil at the same time, which meant they had to select the course that matched their time. However, WIL in the community was time consuming and flexible due to the characteristics of the recipients and the community. For Giang, due to time management pressures for completing the core compulsory courses, students who tried to do both in one term experienced stress, and suffered from exhaustion.

In explaining the challenges for WIL students who had to maintain study with other courses at the same time, Trí, a university manager, argued that students had the option to choose other subjects while participating in WIL. For Trí, students could choose to engage in WIL on weekends or students could be absent in other subjects up to 30%, according to policy on student attendance if time overlapping took place:

To participate [in the English WIL program], students can choose the most convenient time or weekend to do their service-learning for the community organisation. They have an option for balancing service-learning activities and other accredited subjects. To do so, they are allowed to be absent for up to 30% of the course if they are engaged in service-learning for a community organisation. Unfortunately, there have not been any strategies and policies which make such situation actually workable. (Trí, University Manager, English WIL)

Organising and participating in WIL in language teacher education seemed to challenge the quality and sustainability of the program due to the policy and practice of WIL in the setting of the academic credit system of education in Việt Nam.

The academic credit system for university education authorised by MOET (2014) requires students to choose from compulsory and elective units for their disciplinary and professional studies to complete the 120 credits required for a four-year undergraduate degree:

The rectors shall promulgate the curricula to be applied in their institutions with a minimum of 180 credits for a six-year curriculum; 150 credits for a five-year curriculum; 120 credits for a four-year curriculum; 90 credits for a three-year curriculum; 60 credits for a two-year curriculum. (MOET, 2014, p. 3)

Time of education of a school is from 8 a.m to 8 p.m every day. Depending on the actual conditions of the institutions, rectors shall provide specific regulations on time of education of their institutions. Depending on the number of students, number of classes and facilities of the institutions, heads of registrar offices shall arrange the timetable for specific classes. (MOET, 2014, p. 4)

The policy of the academic credit system originated with MOET (2014), but implementing this policy depends on the actual status of the institution. This is to say, the local policy of the institution is decided by the number of students, classes, and facilities. Being part of the curriculum in language teacher education, the English WIL program in Hồ Chí Minh City was designed as an elective course in the academic credit system. Students could choose either WIL or another elective with the same number of credits required as part of their degree. However, under an academic credit system, the students taking other compulsory university units simultaneously while joining in WIL took more time than a standard and compulsory unit on campus. This struggle was due to the imposition of multilayered policies in education management. These authorities included MOET, and the university in which the WIL program was embedded in language teacher education. The conflict between the policy, management, and WIL was similar to the tensions created by policies promulgated by state government school systems, state and territory education

jurisdictions, and teacher regulatory authorities in each state and territory in Australia (Mayer, 2014).

The WIL program in Việt Nam as an elective course is an example of local policy. Similarly, Wright (2016) pointed out that

even when policy originated in central government, policy-making was . . . a “chaining of genres” from speeches, to newspaper reports, to legislation, to ministerial guidance notes, to local policies and beyond that into technologies such as forms, computer screens to fill in or data systems to complete—as well as the discourses used in actual interactions between “front-line” staff and citizens or clients. (p. 60)

In addition to local policy at the institutions, other aspects emerged such as finding opportunities for students’ experiential learning through WIL, workplaces, and promoting the institution’s image through civic engagement. These may even form policy not under the name of any particular policy of an institution but in the form of administrative practices.

#### **6.4.2 University administrative practices**

University administrative practices refer to paperwork procedures required by the institution in the English WIL program. Two academics explained their struggles with bureaucratic administrative practices in WIL in the following excerpts.

For an academic involved in English WIL program, Trâm, procedures in claiming for funding were challenging for both students and academics:

We had to claim for financial support from university. This required clarification of the service-learning program, including listing all the receipts and number of students and staff participants and beneficiaries, in order to get approval. It was very challenging for students to make an expenditure report by collecting enough all their invoices and receipts. This work was very complicated. I had to involve students and academics to organise invoices and receipts to get the claiming procedures done. (Trâm, Academic, English WIL)



Given that financial support required claiming from university was good for both students and the WIL program, for Trâm, the claiming procedures that required evidence of expenditure such as invoices and receipts in the context of Việt Nam was really a challenge whereby she had to involve others. This is because in Việt Nam, invoices and receipts are issued in major transactions at shopping centres and companies, while expenditure in WIL did not always take place at those places. WIL students and staff tended to pay in cash at the convenient shops near the WIL sites. The bureaucratic procedure in claiming for funding did not only cause struggles for students and academics. Rather, they forced people involved to deal with it negatively by chasing for invoices and receipts that did not reflect authentic WIL expenditure.

With regard to bureaucratic procedures, another academic engaged in WIL, Phi, contended that the bureaucratic administrative practices, such as meetings and reports to managers of different levels from the dean to the financial manager, caused challenges in WIL, leading to stress due to its complexities:

We had to write many minutes for the project management team's meetings, reports of site visits, the curriculum for the training program, accounts of planning discussions with community organisations, and students' reflections. These had to be submitted the university managers, first to Dean then Financial Manager. I had to guide and help students do all of those, which was so very complicated and stressful. (Phi, Academic, English WIL)

Bureaucratic administrative practices enter into WIL in language teacher education, affecting the way academics, students, school personnel, and community workers performed their work. They all had to deal with organisational power holders such as deans and financial managers from whom they had to seek approval for making claims for expenditure and reimbursement. Bureaucracy can be defined as “forms of management . . . a process of organizing scattered transactions and actions according to rational and objective rules” (Koybasi & Ugurlu, 2017, p. 196). However, expressed in terms of power, bureaucracy is a form of power used to manage subordinates by organising them through required transactions and actions, which organisations use to assert that their rules of power are rational and

objective, while those of workers are not necessarily so if they do not comply with these rules. Bureaucracy operates through WIL via recognised machinery in which “matters are dealt with through standardized and formal routines” (Sandström, Klang, & Lindqvist, 2017, p. 6), supposedly on the grounds of efficacy and rational solutions. Bureaucratic procedures drive students to contact the relevant community or school personnel or academics in accordance with specified procedures; likewise, similar procedures govern the work of staff. Hayes, Wynyard, and Mandal, (2002/2017) suggested that bureaucracy is a feature of universities that is supposed to be “impersonal, guided by written rules and regulations” (p. 7). However, managers are known to make personal use of rules and regulations to secure their own interests, and the interests of their supporters. For Clark et al. (2016), WIL often engages university staff in complex administrative responsibilities. Organising WIL for global experience entails more time and labour due to administrative practices (Jackson, 2018b). Likewise, the WIL research in Việt Nam indicated that administrative practices involved and required the time of stakeholders such as university staff, WIL coordinators, and students engaging in WIL (Bilsland & Nagy, 2015; Khuong, 2016). In this study, the complexity of university administrative procedures posed challenges for those organising the English WIL language teacher education program in Việt Nam. Despite the limitation of evidence, this outcome may be seen as transferability to WIL in Australia and elsewhere.

## **6.5 Critical analysis of dilemmas in WIL**

Berlak and Berlak (1981) defined dilemma as “the range tensions ‘in’ teachers, ‘in’ the situation and ‘in’ society over the nature of control teachers exert over children in school” (p. 135). This section extends Berlak and Berlak’s (1981) concept of dilemmas of schooling in higher education settings and discusses the curriculum, societal, and control dilemmas in WIL in language teacher education.

### **6.5.1 Knowledge as provision versus knowledge as process**

Evidence from students gaining 21C skills through WIL expressed a curriculum dilemma in terms of knowledge forms. When engaging in language teaching with learners in communities and local schools, WIL students received teaching/learning strategies through guidance, scaffolding, and mentoring from academics, and workplace supervisors to support

their professional learning (AITSL, 2011). These strategies gave students the theory-based knowledge necessary for their professional learning. However, WIL students also engaged, struggled, and dealt with many problems relating to the process of gaining knowledge through their workplace learning while preparing themselves with, and for 21C skills that are expected to be transferable from one job to the next, specifically, students involved in communicating and showing their collaboration with their workplace supervisors, and the communities they worked in. When learning and developing their social and cultural skills, WIL enabled students to foster their creativity and critical thinking while dealing with problem-solving, facing risks, and managing potential conflicts. These are identified as 21C skills (Romero et al., 2015), which students accumulate through a process of professional learning. The skills might not be obtained without WIL experience; however, some were not fully perceived by WIL students in the training provided by the academics, and workplace supervisors.

Berlak and Berlak (1981) formulated the dilemma in terms of the pulls toward “viewing public knowledge as organized bodies of information, codified facts, theories, generalizations, on the one hand, as a process of thinking, reasoning and testing used to establish the truth or adequacy of a body of content or set of propositions, on the other” (p.147).

In terms of the evidence analysis, the dilemma involved the tension between students who obtained knowledge as a provision, and gained knowledge through a process. While learning professional skills through concepts, theories, and evidence of teacher education provided by their university in core compulsory courses, students gained professional knowledge through observing, engaging, and contributing to workplace teaching/learning experiences in WIL (Patton, 2017; Winchester-Seeto et al., 2016).

The evidence suggests that WIL created opportunities for students to think critically about the process of obtaining 21C skills, and test the taken-for-granted knowledge provided through their university courses. Otherwise, some students may have relied passively on the academics, and workplace supervisors without taking charge of their own professional

learning by generating knowledge through engaging with, and exploring insights gained through, their workplace experiences.

### **6.5.2 Unique versus common characteristics of learners**

The evidence of societal and curriculum dilemmas in WIL in language teacher education in this study shows that delivering a modicum of equal opportunity to young learners with unique characteristics, and with disabilities challenged student teachers in the English WIL program. The student teachers had to balance the demands on their time created by the university while creating teaching/learning materials, and interacting with the learners. There was a hierarchy of demands on the student teachers where their work with the learners was subordinate to their core compulsory university courses.

The dilemma at issue here does not appear to correspond with that found by Berlak and Berlak (1981). In terms of teaching children with variations of characteristics, Berlak and Berlak reported that, on the one hand,

teachers are drawn towards dealing with children in ways that focus upon how they resemble one another. An extreme shared characteristics resolution is to take children as sufficiently similar so that everyone in the classroom can be taught the same material in the same way at the same time. (p. 153)

A suggested resolution to this dilemma would be to personalise learning with specific guidelines, and support in curriculum design for learners with disabilities. The analysis of the evidence in this chapter saw students being drawn towards dealing with the children with disabilities in the name of equal opportunity, which meant the children were given learning opportunities, but these were not the same opportunities as those given to the other children with common characteristics or without. However, progress in this regard was challenged because not every student who wanted to work with these children was able to do so due to the expectation from their university that they complete other courses at the same time as WIL. The dilemma also resided in students giving equal teaching opportunities to children with disabilities and the number of students allocated to the community. While the WIL provided to children with disabilities required delivery of one-on-one, the university found it

was a waste of labour for six students to teach 10 children. With the university's assumption that all young learners have common rather than unique characteristics, the tension between the workforce and creating social justice through WIL seemed to end at the starting point.

### **6.5.3 Common educational culture versus workplace learning sites**

The evidence analysis also indicates a societal dilemma between common educational culture and workplace learning sites. Common educational culture in higher education includes academic knowledge and practical experience in the form of unregulated extra-curricular internships and WIL for employability skills and work-readiness (Jackson, 2018b) with which students are able to work in the 21C. Workplace learning sites refer to schools and communities where students go for their professional learning through WIL. While all WIL students are sent to these sites for a common target of learning through working, these workplace learning sites are varied. Learners in these sites may experience both equality and inequality due to socioeconomic status, whereby teaching facilities and funding are not well organised or well equipped to support students in developing their professional learning. For Berlak and Berlak (1981), this dilemma captures the tension between developing in students

a common set of social definitions, symbols, values, views of qualities that 'good' men and women in that culture and/or 'good' citizens of that nation should possess and, on the other, towards developing [their] consciousness of themselves as members of a sub-group, distinguished from others, perhaps by distinctive customs, language, dress, history, values and appearance. (p. 163)

Today, societal dilemmas entail an added tension. On the one hand, students develop a common set of values, the professional standards for teachers, which are supposed to make them capable of "quality" teaching and able to contribute to the nation's education culture (ACARA, 2012a). Part of this involves them developing a professional disposition to educate learners from different subgroups with distinctive attributes, for instance, disabilities. On the other hand, students now have to develop a professional disposition whereby they see themselves, and their learners, as members of an international community distinguished not only by the current dominance of the English language, but also by the rise of Chinese as an

internationally significant language (Chan, 2018; Plumb, 2016). However, English and Chinese represent cultures with distinctive customs, histories, and values.

There are dilemmas with respect to whether WIL serves the concerns of university students ahead of those of schoolchildren or children in communities such as Pagoda Orphans' Shelters. For the student volunteers from China, they had to deal with the tensions between the commonalities and differences in university education cultures in China and Australia, as well as those of the schools that served as their workplace learning sites. These differences between the university education cultures in Australia and China provoke dilemmas for language teacher education. Likewise, in Việt Nam, the differences between and across universities and communities in terms of workplace learning sites, social status, local customs, needs, and expectations of these sites added to this dilemma.

#### **6.5.4 Monitoring support standards versus control**

The analysis indicates a control dilemma in the university's governance system between providing support through policy-based standards and implementing control through using monitoring tools in WIL. The university support standards included administrative procedures such as claiming for financial support from the university, minutes as records of academics' workload, and the academic credit system for giving students electives in their study program. However, this support also represented a system of control that limited students' learning choices and created pressure for both students and academics through bureaucratic monitoring tools. In terms of university administrative systems, Abugre (2018) also pointed out the weakness in institutional policies and that "the inconsistency in administrative procedures frustrated many staff members in the performance of their work" (p. 334). The administrative processes aim to support staff but reflect bureaucratic control. Berlak and Berlak (1981) made a distinction "between who sets and who maintains or monitors standards, [between] teachers controlling standards and towards allowing children to control standards themselves" (p. 141). The analysis above contrasts with Berlak and Berlak's (1981) view, whereby university and professional standards for teachers set by a semigovernment agency (AITSL, 2011) control or otherwise govern the works of both academics and students, constraining the academic freedom of both.

### **6.5.5 Knowledge as educational resources versus commodification of knowledge**

The control dilemma shown by the analysis in the previous section points to a tension between the lack of workforce that is required in WIL, and the complexity in managing this workforce. In addition to the lack of workforce, there were insufficient resources: insufficient time, teaching/learning facilities, and funding. Together, these made WIL more demanding than on-campus teaching/learning. Academics' involvement in WIL is officially recognised as part of their workload, and as a part of the universities' human resource policies, with the necessary finances from education institutions that are increasingly self-financing (Wong, Mak, Ng, & Zhao, 2017) marks a major shift from an educational to a business agenda. Turning public universities into entrepreneurial universities is a government policy for turning the education of those who can pay over to private money-making interests (Jessop, 2017). It is difficult to make a direct comparison of this dilemma with Berlak and Berlak's (1981) finding that "the significance of patterns of resolution to this dilemma also lies in what resources are being differentially allocated" (p. 159). Universities are concerned with academics controlling and allocating many and varied resources such as devotion, time, and materials. However, Illich's (1973) view, who was writing in the same era, argued that universities focus on in-school resources and do not consider that workplaces and the community have pertinent resources for teaching and learning. Perhaps more significantly, Berlak and Berlak (1981) understood that "the most significant resources teachers allocate are knowledge, and the quality of the learning experience by which the teacher transmits the knowledge" (p. 159). However, given the significance of knowledge as a resource, since the early 1980s, it has been turned into an economic commodity, increasingly removed from academic control, and "quality" has been used as a marketing vehicle to rework students' learning experiences according to business principles governing cost effectiveness, as opposed to educational principles concerned with equal opportunity.

## **6.6 Conclusion**

This chapter reported on the dilemmas in terms of curriculum, society, and policy practice in WIL in language teacher education. WIL provided students with work-readiness

and 21C skills in their professional learning for language teaching and for their potential jobs and lives. As teachers of the 21C, they are prepared for diverse learning/teaching experiences in a rapidly changing world rather than ready-made teaching skills, and knowledge once provided solely by a university-based teacher education curriculum. However, although the 21C skills students obtained gave them good employment possibilities, they were required to be more proactive, taking charge of their own learning, as these learning opportunities were not offered identically at all workplaces.

The dilemma of curriculum also resided in students struggling with professional learning standards, and the learning outcomes at each workplace learning site were varied, which was reflected in workload, and facilities allocated within a specific timeline for all WIL students.

The chapter also highlighted the society dilemma in ELT in WIL. University students contributed to making social changes by giving equal opportunities to learners with disabilities, although there was tension in using the appropriate pedagogy for these learners of unique, and common characteristics in the same teaching session. Despite the evidence limitation, this society dilemma may be transferable to Australia, and elsewhere.

The results show another dilemma, or tension, of control in policy practice. While WIL provided language teacher education with opportunities for professional learning and contributing to the community, there were struggles relating to the workforce, such as academics, community staff, and WIL students, facilities and funding, and tensions from policy-based governance. Administrative procedures in WIL were used as monitoring standards for behavioural management of the stakeholders involved. However, this tool seemed to support the managers and policymakers rather than the key stakeholders, including academics and students, causing unease for them in WIL engagement. Chapter 7 presents evidence of how connections and disconnections were organised in WIL in language teacher education.



**Chapter 7:**  
**Connections and Disconnections in Work-Integrated Learning in Language Teacher  
Education**

**7.1 Introduction**

WIL has been deliberately used in education to connect theory and practice through engaging students in workplace learning while applying their acquired disciplinary knowledge (Barends & Nel, 2017; Mahomed & Singh, 2011). The New Colombo Plan program in 2014 was established to support Australian undergraduates to undertake studies and internships in Indo–Pacific nations (Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade [DFAT], n.d.), aiming at this theory and practice connection. Specifically, the New Colombo Plan program embeds student mobility throughout Asia as part of the Australian Federal Government’s strategy for enabling students to make meaningful, productive, and sustainable Australian–Asian connections (L. Tran & Vu, 2018) while undertaking their work placements. Chapter 6 examined the opportunities and challenges as dilemmas in conducting English and Chinese language teacher education through WIL. This chapter starts with evidence of how WIL engaged students in contributing to Australian–Asian engagement as a cross-curriculum priority through teaching spoken Chinese language to Australian school students. Evidence presented in the following section entails student learning transformation through engaging in WIL for professional learning. In doing so, peer learning that occurred between WIL peers at workplaces is presented. In the next section, evidence of the use of social media by students and academics for their communication in WIL programs raises issues concerning education management for productive and safe learning environments. The last section presents evidence of WIL student performance integral to providing feedback, undertaking assessment, and reporting on learning. This chapter then provides a meta-analysis that explores the connections and disconnections in WIL in language teacher education. In the next section, the Australian–Asian cross-curriculum priorities were not initially targeted in investigation but emerged as one of the key themes in this study.

## 7.2 Crossing curriculum priority

Crossing curriculum priority in this study refers to the contributions made by student teachers in language teacher education to “cross-curriculum priorities” (ACARA, 2012b) in their school communities. In the following evidentiary excerpts, two school mentors, a Hospitality Schoolteacher, and a student clarified how WIL students helped Australian schools engage with Asia through supporting language learning.

It’s challenging for the children to practise Chinese by saying “Ni hao” in class. However, when they see a young Chinese teacher–researcher walking around the school with me, in class, or in the school playground . . . that is different. They have invaluable access to this person. This is the reason why the school is happy to keep going with this WIL program. It is wonderful having a Chinese person here to help our students practise the Chinese language, and feel like it is a real life language, and not something we study in books. (Christine, School Mentor, Chinese WIL)

*Các bạn sinh viên đã có những đóng góp tích cực cho trường. Thông qua những hoạt động các bạn ấy dạy, các em học viên ở đây học thêm nhiều kỹ năng nghe nói và chơi trò chơi để học. Chương trình chính của trường thì chỉ tập trung vào grammar với reading thôi. (Ly, giáo viên Trường khách sạn nhà hàng, chương trình Tiếng Anh)*

These WIL students have made a positive contribution to our school. Through their teaching activities, our students learn many English skills such as speaking, listening, and language games. Our curriculum at this school focuses on grammar and reading. (Ly, Hospitality Schoolteacher, English WIL)

These young volunteer teacher–researchers come with new ideas and high technology, with pop music from China, or the latest Internet games in China. The schoolchildren like that. The volunteers also offer fresh new ideas for my own teaching. We work collaboratively over time as they become more confident. They contribute to discussions about what we can do with games, activities, or

with the design or use of the PowerPoint. They also contribute to producing teaching/learning resources. (Andrea, School Mentor, Chinese WIL)

I can make some practical suggestions to contribute to teaching local school students how to learn about Chinese food. For example, during the first term, I helped the local teacher conduct some cooking activities such as making dumplings. (Wanqing, Student, Chinese WIL)

For two participants Christine and Ly in this study, WIL enabled young Australian school students and Vietnamese young adult learners to participate in co-curricular activities in learning Chinese and English languages, respectively. Soong, Caldwell, and Restall (2018) explored the educational practice of Asia literacy as a cross-curriculum priority through teaching Chinese language to students in a private school in South Australia. The WIL students in this study contributed to Australian school students' Asia literacy knowledge by providing Chinese language teaching/learning activities in class. In doing so, the Chinese WIL students learnt professional skills about how to prepare lesson plans so they could deliver and scaffold teaching/learning activities from school mentors, class teachers, and university supervisors (M. Singh & N. Nguyen, 2018). In effect, the WIL students from China faced the challenge of learning how to make it possible for school students to learn, and use spoken Chinese as a local language. As Chinese speakers, their presence in schools and interaction with Australian students helped these students to engage in learning how to speak Chinese by using it in their own everyday real-life sociolinguistic activities.

Scaffolded by their workplace supervisors, the WIL students in Việt Nam helped recipients in their learning journey through curriculum-based ELT. Gauci and Curwood (2017) examined Australian teachers' views on addressing the Asian–Australian engagement cross-curriculum priority in the Years 7 to 10 English curriculum. They found that although English teachers see educational value in addressing this cross-curriculum priority, many reported being ill equipped or underresourced to address it in ways that would deepen students' learning. This cross-curriculum priority may encourage teachers in Australia to explore English language education in Asia. To enable English teachers to address this cross-curriculum priority with their students, the study of WIL students' ELT in Việt Nam provided

one vehicle for accessing key information from which curriculum materials might be developed. Ly, a teacher at the Hospitality School in Việt Nam, explained that the added value of the WIL students was in helping young adults how to listen to and speak English through using games and teaching/learning activities. Moreover, the WIL students' experiential learning gave their teacher educators knowledge to canvas issues of student-centred, learning-focused pedagogy, curriculum, and assessment in language education. Through their students' WIL-driven professional learning, the teacher educators explored future possibilities for improving the implementation of student-centred, learning-focused education in schools.

One school mentor, Andrea, acknowledged that students in Chinese WIL program, who intended to teach school students how to learn Chinese, contributed to the Australian–Asian cross-curriculum priority. In particular, they engaged in activities by making use of the ever-advancing information, communication, and surveillance technologies, especially the internet. With help from school mentors with ideas for teaching/learning activities, the WIL students generated curriculum resources using their existing knowledge of Chinese music and games. For instance, the male WIL student, Wanqing, helped school students learn how to use the Chinese vocabulary by providing them with knowledge of jiǎozi (饺子) or dumplings. However, while they spoke the Chinese language, to make it learnable, the WIL students had to get to know their students as language learners, their existing school knowledge, and playground activities to develop locally appropriate teaching/learning activities (ACTA, 2015, pp. 6–11). In doing so, the Chinese WIL students were able to embed the cross-curriculum priority for Australian–Asian engagement through their presence in the everyday life of the schools in which they volunteered, through a focus on making Chinese language learnable for school students.

### **7.3 Learning transformation**

Evidence of learning transformation in this study points out the students' transitions from their professional learning in language teaching through WIL to their critical reflections. Evidence shared by one academic and three students involved in WIL clarified how they saw such learning transformations occurring:

The university students found that they could do useful work through engaging in teaching children with disability in the shelters. More importantly, the students themselves gained a concrete awareness of inequalities in society. While the students come from rich family backgrounds, through WIL they now know that there are more lives that need help. The students also understand more about their work as teachers in society and why they are expected to have a professional orientation. (Tín, Academic, English WIL)

From these [Pagoda Orphans'] Shelters, I had more understandings of the inequitable distribution of wealth and poverty in society, what our society lacks and needs. I understood that there are still many people who need help. (Duong, Student, English WIL)

I learnt how to serve and communicate with different communities. I gained insights into people with disabilities, along with the inequitable differences between rich and the poor in society. I applied my professional knowledge of communication in connecting people with disabilities. (Thuận, Student, English WIL)

I learnt about the ways teachers encourage students in learning the Chinese language, which is different from my way of teaching Chinese. I gradually changed my Chinese teaching strategies to focus on making it possible for students to learn Chinese which they could use in their everyday lives. (Cheng, Student, Chinese WIL)

WIL is meant to enable student teachers to develop professional engagement, knowledge, and practices that are a part of their prospective career as language teachers. In terms of professional knowledge, they are expected to get to know students, and how they learn, and incrementally build their knowledge of curriculum content, and how to teach it. Likewise, they are expected to develop professional practices for planning and implementing effective teaching and learning, creating and maintaining supportive and safe learning environments, and practices for assessing, providing feedback, and reporting on learners' language learning. The students' learning transformations were stimulated through their

critical reflections on the complex and contradictory connections and disconnections between their work–life trajectory, made evident in the workplaces where they were working and learning. For Liu (2015), learning transformation that involves critical reflection is defined as “questioning the validity of a long-taken-for-granted meaning perspective predicated on a presupposition about oneself” (p. 145). For instance, with respect to professional learning engagement, WIL gave a vehicle to the student volunteers from China to think critically through engaging professionally with colleagues, parents/carers, and the school community (AITSL, 2011, p. 19; NESAS, 2018, p. 19). The WIL students from China were well versed in examination-driven, textbook-centred, teacher-based instruction in languages. Their program in Sydney focused them on reflecting on this learning through developing professional knowledge, practices, and engagement strategies as specified by the state, and national authorities governing the accreditation of teacher education programs and teacher registration.

The WIL students in the English language program were required to reflect critically on the problems posed by wealth and poverty, question the causes and solutions. WIL provided these university students from relatively wealthy families with opportunities for professional learning through helping young adults or children with disabilities by teaching them English language skills. For instance, WIL provided Thuận a new professional learning context that gave him different ways of being a teacher and thus, different pedagogies and a different educational philosophy to that he had learnt previously. Through critical reflection, they were challenged to develop their knowledge of the socioeconomic structuring of rich/poor and advantage/disadvantaged. The WIL students were learning that, as professional teachers, they could use their capabilities to work to advantage the education of children with disabilities and orphaned children through working with charitable or religious nongovernment organisations.

The WIL students’ critical analysis of their unexamined presuppositions about the relationship between wealth and poverty could lead to professional practices, and engagement strategies that then provide further knowledge. For Liu (2015), teacher educators can employ WIL to have prospective teachers reflect on the content of their professional

knowledge, practices, and engagement strategies, as well as the reasons why they engage in professional learning through critical reflection, and how their critical reflections provide the transformative learning necessary for improving their professional capabilities. For some of the WIL students from wealthy backgrounds, understanding the relationship between wealth and poverty in society was translated into them helping to redress the needs of the poor through charity. However, such practices fail to generate knowledge about how the wealthy appropriate power and resources for themselves at the expense of the poor. Reid-Henry (2015) explained that inequality is managed by the rich through charities and religious organisations rather than identifying, and then meeting responsibilities to others. For students who see wealth and poverty as disconnected rather than connected, this poses an educational challenge for their teacher educators to be addressed (if seen as relevant) through public reasoning about the common good and finding useful concepts through which to express these ideas.

WIL students' professional learning transformation resides in observing and engaging in teaching/learning experiences in local school communities, which provides a stimulus for reflecting on their internationally sourced understandings. The following evidentiary excerpts shared by one student and a workplace supervisor indicate this local global connectedness.

I observed how other teachers have students learn other subjects in English, and how they managed their students' learning. Also, I learnt some professional knowledge and skills from the local teachers, which opened my mind to the work of teaching . . . They showed their students how to learn the subjects they were studying; how to improve their learning by pursuing their interests. In China when teachers raise questions, the students always wait for the correct answers to be provided by the teachers. However, here the local teachers pose a question and invite open-ended answers from students. Their questions are framed so that there is not one correct answer. They want students to broaden their ideas and to open their mind to a range of possible answers. (Tajon, Student, Chinese WIL)

*Chương trình này tạo cho sinh viên một cơ hội tốt được trải nghiệm nghề giáo. Dạy học thông qua chương trình này đòi hỏi sinh viên phải phát triển năng lực làm quen với người học và có hướng ứng xử cho từng lứa tuổi, năng lực học tập và kiến thức nền của người học. (Ly, giáo viên Trường khách sạn nhà hàng, chương trình Tiếng Anh)*

This [WIL] program provided a good opportunity for the university students to experience what it means to be a professional teacher. Teaching through WIL demanded the university students in developing professional capabilities for getting to know their learners and dealing with all features of ages, learning capabilities and background knowledge of learners. (Ly, Hospitality Schoolteacher, English WIL)

WIL experiences may make students ready for professional work as teachers at different sites, capable of educating learners with a diversity of characteristics. For instance, Taylor and Govender (2017) contended, “WIL does contribute to increasing employability, enabling future graduates to enter the workplace confidently . . . [and in this way] WIL does not just lead to employment; it results in a ‘path to better employment’” (p. 117). In this study, evidence indicates that a change in professional learning occurred when Tajon engaged in the real teaching/learning activities in a school setting; he learnt how the local teachers engaged students in learning and how those students interacted educationally with their teacher. Tajon learnt firsthand the differences between the student-centred, learning-focused education of this particular learning context and the educational culture in which he had been schooled in China that made the language the focus of examination-driven, textbook-centred, teacher-based instruction. Tajon’s personal learning transformation was formed through his day-to-day WIL and informed through his critical reflections based on his university workshops and readings. Similarly, in English WIL program, Ly, the schoolteacher pointed out the capabilities that student teachers obtained through WIL as a process of transformation from teaching English to learners to learning about learners they teach. Learning transformation through WIL makes possible a change in professional learning. According to Abery et al. (2015), learning transformation takes place when opportunities are provided for WIL students to experience and observe new phenomena as a step to challenge the prevailing



assumptions they have already acquired. This experience helped WIL students prepare themselves for the diversity of workplace colleagues, learners, and teaching environments, the people they are required to learn how to work with.

Teacher educators come to understand whether prospective teachers are achieving learning transformation based on the reflection-based action of WIL students who are expected to use evidence from their work-based learning, such as their written reflections and selected artefacts to triangulate their learning of professional knowledge, practices, and engagement strategies. Mezirow (2000) held that learning transformation begins with the critical analysis of unexamined presuppositions, and progresses to action “based upon the resulting insight” (p. 8). Learning transformation requires critical reflection—questioning the credibility of long-taken-for-granted perspectives—and is predicated on the presupposition that WIL students’ knowledge, practices, and engagement strategies warrant testing against other sources of evidence. Such learning transformation occurs through challenging or negating the knowledge, practices, and engagement strategies that have been very close to the centre of WIL students’ conceptions of themselves as potential teacher–researchers. Abery et al. (2015) added that WIL requires resources such as supervision, mentoring, and preparation of all stakeholders about what to do during WIL and clarifying the shared responsibility between students, the university, and community workplace organisation.

#### **7.4 Peer learning: *Học bạn***

Evidence in this study about peer learning or *học bạn* (learn friend) entails the learning process that takes place between students of the same cohort in the WIL Chinese program, students, and their language learners in the English WIL program.

In the following evidentiary excerpts, university students, and a staff member at the Hospitality School indicated that the English WIL program enabled peer learning:

The university students inspired these learners. For example, they shared why they study English as their major, and why they teach at this hospitality school. The students and learners are of similar ages; they trust and inspire each other easily. The learners admired these university students who are at the same ages of theirs. The university students treated them as friends. Thus, the learners have motivation

in learning for doing whatever they like. (Ly, Hospitality Schoolteacher, English WIL)

When participating in this [WIL] program, we just used the word “help” but not “teach” to refer to teaching English to these young people at this hospitality school because they are as old as us. Some of them have disability and come from Orphan Shelters or poor families. They know other things than us such as making cakes and dishes and they showed us how to do these things. (Nga, Student, English WIL)

*Em học được từ mấy bạn trẻ này. Mấy bạn chỉ cho em cách nấu chè và chia sẻ cho em một số bí quyết nấu sao cho ngon.* (Phụng, Sinh viên, Chương trình Tiếng Anh)

I learnt from these young people. They also showed me how to cook sweet soup and shared with me some tips for making it delicious. (Phụng, Student, English WIL)

For Ly, the Hospitality Schoolteacher, and students Nga and Phụng, the English WIL program provided students of language teacher education with a vehicle for learning from their learners, who they treated as their peers. WIL was a productive educational strategy, given that it created peer learning that allowed for the flexible, informal acquisition of knowledge and skills by the different workplace participants.

In the Chinese WIL program, a student shared her experience of learning teacher research from her peers who was younger than she was.

I find it more productive to have a chat about my teacher-research project with my friend enrolled in the same program, than a formal meeting with my supervisor. My friend is younger than me. We spoke the same language that is Zhongwen, so we could communicate easily in our first language. We talked about what and how we understand about doing teacher-research. We just kept talking and sharing. I did not hesitate to ask questions or for advice from her. (Lili, Student, Chinese WIL)

For Lili, learning from her peer was not about teaching experience in school-enhanced Chinese language teaching activities. Rather, she learnt research skills from her younger peer of the same cohort who shared knowledge of teacher research in which they both engaged in the Chinese WIL program.

There are four points to be made here about the nature of peer learning in these evidentiary excerpts about WIL. First, these interviewees value peer learning because of the reciprocal gains in professional learning that workplace participants are able to achieve. Their experiences accord with the view of peer learning as “a two-way, reciprocal learning activity . . . and a way of moving beyond independent to interdependent or mutual learning” (Boud et al., as cited in Havnes, Christiansen, Bjørk, & Hessevaagbakke, 2016, p. 77). Phung and Nga worked to help a group of young adults with disabilities to learn English. In turn, the WIL students learnt from them about cooking skills such as the secrets of successful cooking by making sweet soup. Thus, a defining feature of peer learning is that the WIL students learnt that the young adults with disabilities were of equal worth as human beings. An important lesson for the WIL students was that they could learn from those with whom their professional learning program made it possible to work. In this instance, peer learning entailed this group of WIL students engaging in professional learning about how to make English learnable for the young adults while also learning that as worthwhile human beings, the young adults with disabilities had knowledge and skills from which they could learn. In WIL, peer learning entails a degree of reciprocity, whereby students learn from those in the community they are serving by developing their own professional knowledge, practices, and engagement strategies.

A second issue regarding the reciprocal, mutually beneficial relationship involved in above evidentiary excerpts about peer learning warrants consideration here. In the above evidentiary excerpts, peer learning is discussed in terms of the WIL students and young adults with whom they worked being equal given that they were of a similar age. This view accords with that of Sampson and Cohen (2001), who saw peer learning in higher education as involving informal interactions among students of similar ages working together to obtain specific learning outcomes outside formal teaching sessions. Much peer learning among

university students occurs among those of a similar age. Even when there are mature age students, they tend to form study groups with peers of a similar age. Thus, it is reasonable to assume that students working with community members of a similar age would prove useful in stimulating peer learning. However, it is important to note that a similarity in age provides just one dimension on which there are grounds for peer learning. For instance, the divergences in language capabilities provided the WIL students who spoke Zhongwen (中文) the English knowledge to share with monolingual English-speaking school students who wanted to learn Zhongwen (中文). Further, the differences between the English WIL students and the young adults in terms of ability/disability, family/orphan status, and wealth/poverty may provide points for peer learning, making possible negotiations between the connections and disconnections in these inequitable power/knowledge relations (Foucault, 1977; 1980).

A third point to be made about above evidentiary excerpts peer learning in WIL using the Tiếng Việt concept “*học bạn*” or “learn friend” (word-for-word translation). Specifically, in terms “*học bạn*” this evidentiary excerpt indicates the friendships created through peer learning. “*Học bạn*” means learning from friends, acquaintances, or those with whom we have good relationships. For instance, *học bạn* is used in the following metaphor “*học thầy không tày học bạn*”, which means learning from maleteachers may not always be as beneficial as learning from one’s friends. In terms of the value of peer/friend relations for education, Riese et al. (2012) explained that “peer relations are addressed in terms of friendship . . . and that friendship relations may be significant with regard to the learning outcomes from peer learning” (p. 602). This appears to be consistent with the views expressed by a WIL student, Lili, with regard to the role of friendship in her peer learning. In the evidentiary excerpt above, Lili explained how she learnt from her friend who was also undertaking a PhD through Chinese WIL program. Here, *học bạn* refers to PhD candidate Lili’s friend, who was willing to share her knowledge. *Học bạn*, or peer learning based on existing friendships, has the advantage of building on the trust and respect for privacy that is central to any worthwhile friendship. The presence of *bạn* in peer learning means that WIL students can feel at ease in sharing both what they know and what they do not know but want to know without worrying about being “ignorant” as they feel about themselves when

discussing with their university supervisor or community mentor. While university students can learn from their peers/friends in their workplace through WIL (Jackson, Ferns, Rowbottom, & McLaren, 2015; Trede, 2012), there is more to be learnt from this type of peer/friend learning.

A fourth point to be made about the above evidentiary excerpts regarding peer/friend learning in WIL is peer/friend learning can involve students of different ages, such that a younger learner can teach an older learner. In the particular instance of peer learning involving Lili, the *bạn* (friends) relationship between these two doctoral candidates of different ages enhanced their peer learning as both were simultaneously engaged in teacher research education through WIL. Despite differences in their ages, Lili learnt research skills from her friend. Differences of progress through their doctoral candidature, and thus differences in their ages, provided an important vehicle for this instance of peer learning. In this study, the mutual benefits gained through such cross-age peer learning, which sees older and younger WIL students working and learning from each other, reside in the gaps in professional knowledge, practices, and engagement strategies between the two. For Silverman et al. (2017), “novices learn through interactions with ‘more knowledgeable others’ who can provide modeling and support for accomplishing challenging tasks” (p. 487). Peer learning through WIL reflects Meschitti’s (2018) definition as “a move from learning in which a hierarchical relation is assumed, to a reciprocal relationship” (p. 2). However, the move to the reciprocity inherent in peer learning through WIL does not eliminate hierarchical power relations of experience which govern language and knowledge. Arguably, peer learning through WIL brings to the fore the hierarchical relations constructed around ability and disability, wealth and poverty, English and Zhongwen, student-centred, learning-focused education and language-focused, examination-driven, textbook-centred, teacher-based instruction. Tiếng Việt concept “*học bạn*” (also see section 3.6) The peer learning approach provided the WIL students with the evidence necessary for critically reflecting on possibilities for the teaching profession to mitigate or otherwise mediate these inequitable power relations.

## 7.5 Social media use

Social media use in the evidence of this study included the use of social websites and applications that enabled students to communicate, share learning content, or network with university academics, mentors, workplace supervisors, and their peers in their professional learning in WIL. From the perspectives of two academics, one student, and one university manager, academics and students engaging in WIL tended to use social media tools for their communication and student support while they were working off-campus.

Communicating with students, specifically via Facebook makes better understanding and relationships between academics and students. Almost every night during the week, I spent time communicating with them via Facebook. It was not simply delegating tasks to each student. I had to listen to their struggles with all my empathy. For example, what happened unexpectedly, how they felt and how they made efforts to deal with problems. (Giang, Academic, English WIL)

From the perspective of Giang, the academic supervisor, social media enabled academic–student communication in WIL to take place in multiple dimensions, including socialising with students, providing off-campus support through virtual interactions, and monitoring or delegating tasks. The educational uses of social media provided a tool for expanding teaching/learning opportunities and providing more communication channels for supporting the professional learning of their WIL students, such as responses from academics to students’ requests for support or social life issues relating to WIL. This use of communication tools articulates the agenda of using a wide range of information and communication technology (ICT) knowledge and skills in preparing the WIL students for the teaching profession (ACTA, 2015; AITSL, 2011; MOET, 2017b). In addition to providing academic assistance, Facebook helped Giang understand the WIL students by listening to their struggles and being able to engage with their concerns through this communication tool. As such, Facebook made it easier for the WIL students to have their voices heard by sharing with their academic supervisor their concerns, struggles, and feelings, and developing their problem-solving capabilities by getting useful advice from their academic supervisors.

In the Chinese WIL program, Dan Dan, an academic supervisor, acknowledged that WeChat, which is a popular messaging and multipurpose social media app developed in China, brought more alternatives to interactions between academics and students in the Sydney program.

We have a WeChat group. It was approved by the university for ethical issues. We used both WeChat and emails. Most happened on WeChat because it was so convenient. I kept the conversations professional. I would remind them to come to teacher–researcher education workshops, and ask them if they have done their school-assigned tasks. (Dan Dan, Academic, Chinese WIL)

For Dan Dan, WeChat proved useful for communicating with students as it was more popularly and frequently used than the formal communication protocol of emails required by the university. A WeChat group was formed by the WIL students because it was convenient for the users. Using WeChat enabled the students to receive the most up-to-date information relating to their professional learning, such as the time and location of the language teaching and research education workshops, the tasks required, and to communicate with their academic supervisors. Despite the convenience that WeChat provided, using WeChat for professional work required formal university approval. For Dan Dan, this procedure was required to make sure that the use of WeChat within a group of WIL students met the ethical requirements of the university regarding the privacy policy<sup>13</sup> governing the use or discourse of personal information through social media tools such as WeChat. Additionally, for the NSW Department of Education (2016), the term ICT, which now includes social media use, helped the WIL students to understand the code of conduct required of the teaching profession. This is to protect confidential information and to ensure the privacy of individuals through avoiding unauthorised disclosure that may cause harm to people and prepare them to engage in a teaching environment in Australia. However, the university cannot manage WeChat as it is not in the technology package paid and operated by the university.

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<sup>13</sup> “Staff must undertake a risk analysis for any new activities or projects that deal with collection, use or disclosure of personal or health information in order to assess whether these have the potential to impact on individual privacy and, if so, how these will be managed in accordance with the Plan” (WSU, n.d.-c).

In Thinh's reflection of the English WIL program, he acknowledged the convenience of Facebook for communication regarding WIL tasks. For him, students were reminded of relevant deadlines without having to meet the academics in charge of the WIL program:

*Giảng viên đã thông báo cho chúng em qua Facebook về thời gian tổ chức các hoạt động ngoại khóa tại Mái ấm cho nhóm trẻ chúng em đang dạy. Bạn em tham gia cùng chương trình này đã nói cho em biết thông báo này liền ngay cả trước khi em đọc nó. Công nhận Facebook rất nhanh chóng và tiện lợi. (Thịnh, Sinh viên-Việt cảm nhận, Chương trình tiếng Anh)*

Our university lecturer [supervisor] informed us via Facebook the time for organising extra activities at the Pagoda Shelter for the children we teach. My friend in this [English WIL] program told me about this announcement even before I read it. Facebook is very quick and convenient. (Thịnh, Student-Reflection, English WIL)

Facebook was identified as being up-to-date and convenient for communication by this student in the English WIL program. However, Thịnh did not seem to be aware of the potential risks of speedy information sharing via Facebook that may directly or indirectly affect the people involved. Additionally, the university where he was studying cannot control the risks that may occur in communication via Facebook between academic and students and among students.

Managing a social media communication platform such as Facebook or WeChat, it is essential in professional learning to implement education policy to ensure “the safe, responsible and ethical use of ICT in learning and teaching” (AITSL, 2011, p. 15). A university manager of English WIL in Việt Nam, Ngân was concerned about managing legal matters relating to the use of social media that involved staff and students:

Facebook is just one of our communication channels but it's not official. Currently, it is not manageable. Students created and posted on the Facebook. The group emerged from doing service-learning. They covered anything both relevant and irrelevant to their service-learning activities. The group included many people. I decided to apply to the University for Facebook to be an official



communication channel to limit the possible problems caused by social media.

(Ngân, University Manager, English WIL)

For Ngân, making Facebook an official site of the university<sup>14</sup> would bring communication regarding WIL between academics and students under the control of the university. Students posting information on Facebook group without considering the possible harm that may be caused by infringing the privacy of other people is a key issue. Ngân's strategy was to avoid potential problems that social media may bring to the university by having an official Facebook site for the WIL program. Thus, the university took charge of managing possible risks for students, and minimised the likelihood of them becoming potential victims of "trollers, stalkers, predators, and paedophiles" (Boddy & Dominelli, 2017, p. 173) while interacting on Facebook. Sharing information via social media may make students' learning more accessible while making students more vulnerable. However, except for using university official communication tools, such as emails or other e-resources where evidence of communication could be captured by the university, it is impossible for the university to control communication between academics and students via Facebook.

The benefits of students and academics using social media would seem to be undeniable. Specifically, Aaen and Dalsgaard (2016) argued that the use of student-managed Facebook groups for communication is "a third space of 'school life' between a personal first space of 'social life' and an institutional second space of 'schoolwork'" (p. 183). The professional practice of communication using the social media platform of Facebook can give students a non-institutional space where they can share and discuss what they learn through WIL with their peers. However, because more groups of people and organisations are involved in WIL, these forms of communication create complexities in education management.

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<sup>14</sup> "Official social media site—means any social media account that uses the University's logo, and/or name and represents the University on an official level" (WSU, n.d.-d).

## 7.6 Student performance

While the Chinese WIL students were required to engage in professional learning in local school communities, feedback from some indicated that their workplace performance was inadequate. The following feedback regarding the WIL students' performance comes from their workplace mentors, community supervisor, academic supervisors, and university managers.

Some student volunteers did not focus on teaching. Rather, these particular volunteers focused on their own eating, their own living, and their study which they mistakenly did not see as related to their work in school. When these volunteers came to my school, they talked about their study all the time without comprehending that their work in school was integral to their study. (Christine, School Mentor, Chinese WIL)

Students as volunteers in the program designed were expected to engage in professional learning through WIL in a school community. However, it would appear that some students spent their time at school dealing with unrelated topics concerning their eating habits or living conditions. For the school mentor, Christine, these behaviours were professionally unacceptable, as the volunteers were not fulfilling their obligations to the school or its students. Further, some of these volunteers failed to understand the integration of their schoolwork with their professional learning research that they were expected to communicate through a thesis.

Feedback about WIL student underperformance was corroborated by University managers involved in the program. Two University managers confirmed that there had been particular cases of WIL student volunteers underperforming:

There were always underperformers among the student volunteers. However, only one was sent back to China. Some student volunteers who come here are conscientious about doing education research through teaching at schools. However, some come here are conscientious about having a holiday. (Ashton, University Manager, Chinese WIL)

We actually sent one student volunteer home to China. She was underperforming, not turning up to workshops, and not meeting her commitment to the school that she was to work as a volunteer. She had no commitment to doing her thesis. Really she was not here for the right reason. One student volunteer worked for an international education business, but we helped her pass her thesis even though she did little volunteering in schools. (Emily, University Manager, Chinese WIL)

Ashton, a University Manager, indicated that WIL student performance was expected to show evidence of progress towards the level of accomplishment that professional language teachers are required to work at. Most of the WIL students were conscientious in undertaking research into their teaching, and their students' language learning. However, it seems that some saw this as a chance for an overseas holiday, to conduct a business venture, or to enjoy a romance. Following Ashton's explanation, another University manager, Emily, confirmed that one case of student underperformance who failed to meet the commitment to WIL as the course required. In this study, feedback from the university indicated that some WIL student volunteers, but certainly not all, were underperforming as volunteers in their allotted schools, and failed to fulfil their professional responsibilities despite receiving \$27,000 as financial support for 18 months from the three partner organisations to engage in the Chinese WIL program (Appendix 1). Jackson's (2017) study of WIL in Western Australia indicated that "student workplace performance to industry expectations and standards is critical. Student performance in the workplace may differ greatly from that in the classroom . . . it is important [workplace supervisors] are involved in the assessment process" (p. 557) to identify student performance on campus and at workplaces, and their WIL outcomes.

As in Ashton's feedback, one reason for the underperformance of some student volunteers was that they did not make a primary commitment to their priorities. Similarly, Chang (2016), a journalist for *Business Insider Australia*, reported that, rather than doing their university studies, some international students from China are making

\$3000 a week selling Blackmores and baby formula to people in China. . . . Before coming to Australia, [they] had already researched the market and found that selling Australian health products to China through WeChat was a lucrative

business . . . so [they set] up their own online shop on the messaging platform . . . and the increasing number of Chinese international students in Australia . . . have tapped into this demand for high quality health goods. . . . These online stores operate as an unregistered business without paying taxes . . . there's no shortage of students who are slowly turning themselves into savvy wholesalers and entrepreneurs. (Chang,2016, n.p.)

Given that the Chinese students in the news article were not those in the Chinese WIL program, WIL is a challenge for students who pursued other options or priorities during their course, leading to their underperformance, which causes consequences for the program operations and the schools. For Iserbyt, Ward, and Li (2017), student performance can be “measured and described in terms of incorrect and correct performance, the latter being highly related to student learning” (p. 74). The Chinese WIL students reported as underperforming failed to meet the correct work performance at school and/or the course requirements through WIL.

Feedback from the WIL students who performed well across a range of criteria provided insights into their school experience and university engagement. However, two students joining the Chinese WIL program as volunteers indicated that they did not have any particular commitment to, and sometimes misunderstood the nature of, this venture:

My main purpose here is to distance myself from my previous career, to reflect on my previous career, and to get to know what I want and how to get to do it. I was not particularly interested in volunteering to teach school students how to learn Chinese. Because I have been teaching for almost twenty years and I was working in that job in just one place for such a long time, I needed a break from my routine work to gain new insights. (Mei Hua, Student, Chinese WIL)

I know some student volunteers who communicate and work well with the local teachers. If they really want to do that, they can. However, even though I am a student volunteer, I am not ready to teach school students how to learn Chinese. That's because I am a bit lazy. I focused more on my research. There is so much

to study and I am more interested in doing research because it's my own focus. I am not interested in service learning or WIL. (Peizhi, Student, Chinese WIL)

WIL is promoted in higher education as a tool for combining academic knowledge and professional learning. Smith-Ruig (2014) acknowledged, "WIL enhances the employability of students, by improving their job knowledge and skills and work-ready attitudes and behaviour" (p. 773). However, the disengagement with WIL of Mei Hua and Peizhi indicated that they were reluctant to be involved in teaching Australian school students how to learn Chinese. For Mei Hua, it was a gap year in her career, providing a chance to escape teaching. For Peizhi, contrary to the requirements of the WIL master's degree in which she had enrolled, her preference was for doing research that was disconnected from teaching. Peizhi admitted that her "laziness" meant she lacked any desire to engage in WIL. While they acknowledged that other WIL students performed well to realise their professional commitments, they were not interested in teaching, even though that is what they had volunteered to do. Instead, they focused on research that was unrelated to their work in schools, and thus, they failed to meet the requirements of the WIL program. In effect, the two WIL students were contributing to the barriers to local school students learning Chinese, preventing them from using the language effectively. The evidence analysed here suggests that the recruitment of WIL students, and their workplace monitoring requires close attention to mitigate or otherwise mediate underperformance.

WIL is a challenge for some academics who find it perplexing to support their students' integration of their workplace learning into their academic studies. For Winchester-Seeto et al. (2016),

supervision of students, both by the university and at the placement site, is acknowledged as playing a critical role in Work Integrated Learning (WIL) programs, and is a key factor underpinning their success. It is only one of many roles and responsibilities needed for WIL to flourish, but supervision is the least understood and remains under-theorized and largely under-explored. (p.101)

Given that the focus of WIL is workplace learning, student supervision provided by academics contributes to student performance.

Further, given the limitations of the evidence, it is worth speculating on other possible explanations for the student volunteers' underperformance. It would be interesting to know whether this difference in performance resided in the assessment criteria used by the academic supervisor in the teacher-researcher language education program, and the criteria used by the workplace mentor for the language teaching lessons. Another possible reason could be the expectations of the school, and the mentor in relation to professional standards of WIL students while these students were in the initial stage of learning how to teach Chinese language to young Australian learners.

## **7.7 Critical analysis of connections and disconnections in WIL programs**

This section provides an overarching discussion on the power /knowledge connections and disconnections from the evidence in chapter 7. Relevant research literature is used to situate this evidence in wider scholarly discussion and to elaborate this meta-analytical commentary. To do so, the conceptual framework proposed by Munro (1997) is used to bring into focus, and to tease out, the various ways in which the connections and disconnections used in the organisation and control of the WIL programs were distributed or otherwise enacted. The meta-analysis developed here extends Munro's (1997) framework by elaborating its key propositions to contribute an understanding of the connections and disconnections evident in the language, knowledge, and power of WIL in language teacher education.

### **7.7.1 Links and gaps**

WIL in teacher education produces connections between theory and practice and between disciplinary knowledge and workplace knowledge (Dimenäs & Norlund, 2014; Mahomed & Singh, 2011). In Munro's (1997) terms, connection means linking or "making things happen" (p. S59). Disconnection is defined as a gap in communication or space between stakeholders' relations. For Munro, connections and disconnections, or links and gaps, operate interactively in organisational control.

According to the evidence analysed in the WIL programs in this study, student teachers participated in producing cross-curricular activities for teaching Chinese and English languages. For Barnes, Moore, and Almeida (2018), there is a connection between cross-curriculum priorities and key learning areas in the Australian Curriculum. This connection is of concern regarding the gaps in policy and practice of curriculum. As Barnes et al. (2018) argued,

Cross-curricular priorities (CCPs) in the Australian curriculum are content areas that policymakers have chosen to include across several learning areas. Many educators see this as a radically different approach to curriculum, as other countries' curricula have only standalone learning areas. (p. 4)

Whether all participants, from WIL students to school/community organisers and mentors, and university academics and managers, had a clear idea of Australian–Asian literacy, or not, is uncertain. With respect to cross-curriculum priorities, Gauci and Curwood (2017) reported “a gap between what is mandated in curriculum documentation, and teachers' understanding of the requirements” (p. 168). Further, it is not clear whether all WIL students, school mentors, university academics, or managers involved in this study had a solid understanding of WIL and the connection between the service provided to schools or community organisations and what this meant for the students' university studies. Thus, the connections made in the WIL programs also produced disconnections between school/community organisations, and the university in terms of understanding and undertaking school curriculum policy.

While cross-curriculum priorities were regarded as one of the key parts of the school curriculum, they were not monitored, and evaluated as part of the Chinese WIL program, which created a power /knowledge gap in the school operation. Peacock, Lingard, and Sellar (2015) argued that the connections possible through cross-curriculum priorities generate gaps because they are as a policy imaginary invested “within their own spatio-temporality which becomes at times difficult to disentangle from the space-times it simultaneously constructs for agents 'outside' the curriculum” (pp. 370–371). On the one hand, the policy imaginary invested in Australian–Asian engagement with cross-curriculum priorities generated

connections through the transnational partnership in the Chinese WIL program. On the other hand, in this instance, the policy imaginary met with difficulties, which led to the disentanglement of the cross-curriculum priority by agents operating “outside” the curriculum. Specifically, disconnections arose from the NSW Department of Education’s (2014) wholesale restructure through its *Local Schools Local Decisions* undertaking. The gaps produced through the Department’s restructure included the substantial decline of its leadership in terms of curriculum design, guidance for students, and human resource support for the Chinese WIL program. The Department’s restructure did not delete the agenda of Australian–Asian engagement; the additional teaching and learning resources provided by the WIL student volunteers from China continued to be used in support of cross-curriculum activities. However, the university’s restructure moved leadership of the program towards a focus on the relationship between supervisors and research students and away from a research-oriented, school-engaged, language teacher education program that affects cross-curriculum priorities in the Chinese WIL program (Daniel, personal communication, 22 January 2018).

This concern is consistent with Barnes et al.’s (2018) argument, that

while the ‘idea’ of prioritizing a particular learning area by making it transdisciplinary is admirable, the realization of a particular learning area, such as Sustainability, within other learning areas assumes that the enactors of curriculum (e.g., school leaders, teachers, students) see its value and importance. (pp. 4–5)

Gauci and Curwood (2017) observed that “the bureaucratic nature of Australia’s education system [is such] that there appears to be a disconnect between policy makers and educators” (p. 170). Likewise, university partnerships see WIL programs as caught in the bureaucratic systems that disconnect curriculum policymakers from educational actions, affecting this cross-curriculum priority. For instance, the connections with Việt Nam that Australian teachers made for their students in the name of Australian–Asian literacy produced problematic disconnections. Gauci and Curwood (2017) argued this by pointing to problems in using a popular text to teach Australian–Asian literacy:



Anh Do's *The Happiest Refugee* (2010) [is] a text that addresses the cross-curriculum priority. The reasoning behind this choice ranged from its genre as an autobiography, student familiarity with Anh Do, the comedic undertones of the text, and its perceived clarity in highlighting Australia's engagement with Asia through refugee experiences. [However] it can be problematic [to] frame Australia's "engagement" with Asia through refugee patterns. (p. 169)

On the one hand, the WIL programs gave rise to certain connections, making links to intellectual resources that addressed social needs, serving as channels of communication through collaborating with organisations and building relations with education stakeholders. On the other hand, the WIL programs produced disconnections, among which the Australian–Asian cross-curriculum priority was one of its key gaps. The key point here is that these gaps formed an integral part of the WIL programs.

### **7.7.2 Presences and absences**

WIL in teacher education shows disconnection among key stakeholders as the absence of partnerships involved (Barends & Nel, 2017). The presence and absence of connections and disconnections in the WIL in language teacher education programs varied over time. For Munro (1997), "The enactment of organization control, whatever else is involved, depends for its effects upon a distribution of both presences and absences" (p. S44). Munro defined absence as "a gap, or a space between relations" (p. S44) and as "the form of deletions, displacements, disposals, decouplings and divisions" (p. S61). Munro (1997) contended that the "existence of various fissures, crevices and interstices within organizational processes may have important consequences for the nature of work in organizations" (p. S45). There was evidence of connections with respect to student performance developed through peer learning that aided students' learning transformation. In these connections, critical reflection was present in students' learning transformation (Liu, 2015). Meschitti (2018) pointed to the importance of reciprocal relationships to the connections necessary for peer learning.

In contrast, evidence regarding student underperformance indicates the presence of disconnections as absences in expected connections. These disconnections suggest absences in the connections made through the recruitment of the WIL students who might have been

expected to have adequate knowledge of language education, and the necessary professional commitment for carrying out what they had volunteered to undertake (and had received a scholarship to support them). In terms of employability skills required, Pham et al. (2018) pointed out the disconnection relating to WIL with international students, arguing that “international students had an inadequate proficiency in English language which caused confusion, miscommunication and incorrect interpretation of mentor’s and supervisors’ instructions in the workplace. [This explains why] employers have often expressed reluctance in hosting and employing international students” (p. 72).

There was also disconnection between the criteria used for selecting the university academics to be involved in the WIL programs and the expert knowledge required, namely, knowledge of both language teacher education and research-oriented workplace experiential learning. While L. Tran and Soejatminah (2016) emphasised the connectedness of WIL, “the students’ perception of WIL also stretches beyond the conventional assumption about WIL as they also regard WIL as a means to help them enhance social connectedness with people other than their peers and teachers” (p. 352). These absences in the connections made through the WIL program also resided in the allocation of academic supervisors without consideration of their substantive expertise in the requisite fields of knowledge. Apparently, few demonstrated academic readiness to supervise a higher degree by research that involved school-engaged, teacher research in Chinese language education. Where university and departmental managers disregarded these disconnections, the absence was due to a lack of connection with other stakeholders such as workplace mentors and the learners or students who were meant to be beneficiaries of the WIL programs.

The disconnections within the organisation, and processes of these particular WIL programs were evident in the various absences of expert knowledge, a significant issue for the management of academics’ workloads and WIL students’ work and learning (Bates, 2011; Winchester-Seeto et al. 2016) (see Chapter 5). The key organisational stakeholders manage the appearance of learning and work occurring through the connections they foreground, not the absences they manage to ignore. In the connections made possible by WIL, there are disconnections in the various gaps or cracks. These disconnections exist

within and between universities and their partner organisations, which make possible the creation of certain presences and absences in language teacher education programs.

### **7.7.3 Relations and nonrelations**

WIL is identified as a multifaceted phenomenon of power/knowledge relations (Foucault, 1977; 1980; Heizmann & Olsson, 2015; Patton, 2017). Concerning organisational control, Munro (1997) asserted that “drawing on contemporary social theory, it can be easily recognized that every relation is also a non-relation” (p. S44). Munro (1997) observed that “a way of seeing is also a way of not seeing. . . . What is ruled in, must also be ruling something out” (p. S44).

Research indicates that there are disconnections in the use of social media for knowledge sharing and knowledge production. Manca and Ranieri (2016) reported that this is because, “despite the affordances of social media in supporting content production and sharing, only [a] few people are actually creating and distributing content. The main trend is to consume rather than to produce digital resources” (p. 228). Here, it is not the case that connection goes in one direction and disconnection another, but rather, they are married. In an equivalent way, social media is now used as an information communication and surveillance technology (ICST) (Hope, 2015). On the one hand, Facebook and WeChat were used to connect academics with students, as well as students with other students, interested in sharing information and communicating about WIL, given that they were located at different sites. These social media tools helped academics to understand and support their students, which was useful, convenient, and maybe time saving for both academics and students, or it may have created new demands outside their work hours. On the other hand, the surveillance functions of this technology could have created new forms of disconnection among students and/or between them and academics, given that they understood the university had created a system with many possibilities for managing students and academics. Thus, disconnections arise with ICST as this technological advancement is used for legally and politically protected expressions and thereby minimises what is communicated.

Thus, it seems reasonable to argue that research into the connections and disconnections in WIL might not rely on a single focus on them as separate entities but see

both as working simultaneously. Over a decade ago, Dawson, Burnett, and McArdle (2005) from Australia's Queensland University of Technology reported that universities' heavy investment in the governance of learning and teaching through online infrastructure facilitates both flexible learning options and unobtrusive modes of surveillance. Such modes of surveillance can impact student learning, affecting their online browsing, the range of topics they discuss, and their written contributions to asynchronous discussion forums. In the years since ICST use was categorised as being a part of teachers' professional knowledge, there has been a massive growth in ICSTs in universities and schools, making the monitoring of students and staff ever more pervasive (Hope, 2015). While the surveillance of academics, teachers, and students has proliferated, Page (2017) reported that it also facilitates students recording teachers on mobiles; parents, schools, and universities conducting surveillance using online and offline networks; and intrapersonal self-surveillance through data-driven reflective practice.

Social media use among academics and students entails educational communicative relations for sharing knowledge while also making possible surveillance by a variety of agents. Each communication and information-sharing connection also provides nonrelations used for surveillance, such as checking WIL students' connections or disconnections with their school/community organisation, and the service they are meant to provide. Such multidimensional connections may encourage WIL students to be more circumspect. In terms of benefits, such connections via social media are used by universities to provide alternative vehicles for communicating with their students and academics (Selwyn, 2011). However, by ruling in the use of social media as a means of communication and surveillance, this technology may also rule out the privacy and freedom of choice of students and other people involved in WIL. They may not like to use this ICST (see also M. Singh & N. Nguyen, 2018) and so moderate the ways they join in or be a part of this connection, ruling out certain possibilities for learning. In universities, social media is seen as a way of sharing knowledge, and its educational use by students is ruled in for this reason. However, what is not seen from this perspective is who produces the knowledge that makes social media useful. The question is, in effect, whether universities rule out the possibility of students being producers through the use of such media.

#### **7.7.4 Manufacturing connections and disconnections**

From the WIL programs reported in this chapter, the evidence points to certain connections and disconnections having been created. Munro (1997) reminded us that at least some inter-organisational connections and disconnections are created as a means of control . . . [such that] "division can be manufactured." (p. S44). While the WIL programs made connections by bringing together information for sharing through making experiential learning possible, this field of knowledge presents possible threats through the use of social media that created disconnections. Despite the benefits of social media use for connecting networks and knowledge sources, users with little access to social media can be targeted by criminals, marketers, and fraudsters (Boddy & Dominelli, 2017). This challenges universities in educating students to protect themselves through particular policies, which students may see as disconnections. Where these connections and disconnections have been manufactured or otherwise capitalised upon, the resulting divisions provide a useful mechanism for controlling power and knowledge. The formation of disconnections by universities entails operating university official social networks such as Facebook, requesting students change their email passwords every six months, or having warning or alert systems for spam emails. These disconnections seem to disturb students and staff but intentionally educate students in protecting themselves and support staff in their work commitment. The measures help students and staff deal with unintended self-disclosure (Lachman, 2013). In terms of knowledge, with concerns of social media use as the sacrifice of mind by the "younger generation of intellectual kleptomaniacs" (Selwyn, 2011, p. 4), which may disconnect knowledge sharing from knowledge production, university official social media sites are of concern. Other good disconnections are intentionally generated by universities in sending warnings to students and their families against leveraging social media in learning, which negatively affects their learning outcomes due to distraction (Greenhow & Lewin, 2016).

Universities use social media as alternative spaces for students to communicate with academics and staff for their learning. Students also use social media for information sharing and learning with other students, which connects them with their peers and changes the way they communicate (Lachman, 2013). While universities give options in communication channel between students and academics, social media use gives us a sense of connection

and disconnection simultaneously (Boddy & Dominelli, 2017). Social media use supports students' knowledge achievement in developing their abilities to nurture and maintain the connections of information and resources (Selwyn, 2011). Some disconnections are not bad as assumed, but they appear with good reason. Some connections, however, are not always good, and could even be seen as risky or harmful. Specifically, social media use seems to disconnect power relations through breaking the hierarchical structures among citizen and government, employee and employer, through voices raised that "promote openness and transparency" (Boddy & Dominelli, 2017, p. 180). A recent connection was seen in the disruptive innovation and emerging technology and its users of the financing apps WeChat, and other communication options via Viber or Facebook Messenger, bringing users more benefits and convenience. Other connections include knowledge co-producing among learners through "communicating, sharing, collaborating, publishing, managing, and interacting" (Greenhow & Lewin, 2016, p. 6).

## **7.8 Conclusion**

This chapter analysed evidence relating to organising WIL in language teacher education programs in Sydney and Hồ Chí Minh City. Five themes emerged in this evidentiary chapter.

Cross curriculum priority is an emergent theme that brings into discussion of WIL in language teacher education. Student learning transformation was formed as a consequence of students' engagement in WIL and was informed by their critical reflections upon learning and critical questioning of the knowledge and practices they were involved in. Peer learning, as an outcome of WIL engagement, reflected reciprocal gains through which students learnt from those they worked with. These included their language learners at the English WIL workplaces in Hồ Chí Minh City and their fellow students in the Chinese WIL program in Sydney. Tiếng Việt concept *học bạn* (peer learning) provided another lens through which to look at the evidence of peer learning in this study by considering the ways in which students engaged in learning from friends, acquaintances, or those with whom students had good relationships. Social media use gave academics and students multidimensions of communication in WIL. This was used as a tool for expanding students' opportunities in

professional learning and as a non-institutional space for sharing and discussing what they learnt through WIL with their peers. However, while helping students to be more accessible to learning, social media use could also make students more vulnerable. Using social media in/for WIL can require universities to manage potential risks for WIL students, while taking advantage of social media for knowledge sharing and producing.

This chapter also provided a meta-analysis of evidence of connections and disconnections in WIL in language teacher education programs by elaborating on Munro's (1997) concept of organisational control. Findings of WIL in this study indicate that connections and disconnections co-existed. The connection of academic knowledge and workplace experience resides in WIL student performance. However, appropriate measures, such as early warning systems, were preferable to the early termination of the study program of underperforming students disconnected from their WIL. Beyond the prevailing assumption that most connections are good, disconnections did not necessarily present as bad. On the one hand, social media use was found advantageous for the student-academic connection for academic scaffolding and off-campus support. On the other hand, university policy in using official media tools and its surveillance technology disconnected students by distraction in learning, potential risks from media criminals, and unexpected outcomes due to its management of confidential information and others' privacy.

The study indicates the possibilities of connecting the disconnections. WIL provided students with peer learning in the education community and workplace learning. Despite this connection of knowledge in learning transformation through WIL, students sometimes failed to realise the nature of disconnection located in power/knowledge relations (Foucault, 1977; 1980) between ability and disability, the rich and poor, and the education inequality in the particular society where this research took place.

## **Chapter 8:**

### **Complexity of Factors in Work-Integrated Learning in Language Teacher Education**

#### **8.1 Introduction**

In setting out to investigate a research problem associated with a service-learning program used for educating English teachers in Việt Nam, I began with what I came to understand was a technical view of doing research (Carr & Kemmis, 2004; Elliott, 2005; Lather, 2006). However, engaging with research by reading and using it in this study, and doing the research reported in this thesis provided me with a productive form of professional learning and a source of improved professional practice (Borg, 2010). In particular, my exploration of this complex relationship between research knowledge and what I learnt to do as a researcher enabled me to move, albeit gradually, beyond the predetermined view I had about doing research to a much richer methodological orientation (Elliott, 2005). Engaging in and with research enabled me to explore further the range of conditions that promoted my research engagement as a language teacher, by challenging myself to engage in the struggles of doing research. Doing this research and reading the research literature furthered my understanding of WIL in language teacher education, and of language in research and doctoral education.

In Chapter 1, the research problems in the literature of WIL in teacher education were presented, including the lack of theorisation of WIL, the complexities of students' professional learning, the workload for academics in WIL, and stakeholders' relationships, which this study aimed to address. This study focused on exploring the key factors affecting WIL in English and Chinese language teacher education in Việt Nam and Australia. The significance of this thesis lies in the changing nature of work, education, language, and higher education. Chapter 1 briefly described a theoretical framework using concepts from Williams (1977), Berlak and Berlak (1981), Munro (1997) and Tiếng Việt, and an interpretive-critical analysis (Carr & Kemmis, 2004; Elliott, 2005; Lather, 2006) was used as a philosophical stance to investigate WIL in language teacher education.



In Chapter 1, in outlining the two WIL programs that were the focus of this study (see Section 1.7), the heterogeneity of aims, approaches, and resource allocation patterns in WIL programs, policies, and norms were noted (Allen & Peach, 2011; Amaro-Jimenez, 2012; Barends & Nel, 2017; Castellan, 2012; Conroy et al., 2014; Du Plessis, 2010; Gao, 2015; Puncreobutr, 2016). The differences between these two WIL programs were tabulated, along with an acknowledgement of differences in the national and international structuring of socioeconomic inequalities in which their host universities and higher education system operate. It is important to note that while acknowledging the differences between these two WIL programs in two different universities, this study was not to compare these two programs or their universities. In establishing the delimitations for the research reported in this thesis in Chapter 1, the purpose of this study was to investigate the key factors affecting WIL in English and Chinese language teacher education in Việt Nam and Australia, respectively.

The current chapter provides the key findings that emerged from data analysis in relation to the contributory and main research questions. For the contributory research questions, some key findings also relate to other research questions using cross-referencing among sections. In addition to the findings relating to WIL in language teacher education, the findings from using my repertoire of languages-and-knowledge in both English and Tiếng Việt are discussed in reference to the subsidiary research question. Implications for theorising, policy and practice in WIL are provided. Likewise, the limitations and suggestions for further research are presented. The chapter concludes with my critical self-reflections on this research undertaking; I look back and review what I have gained in my doctoral journey.

## **8.2 Key findings**

To answer the research questions proposed in Chapter 1 (see Section 1. 2), this section summarises the research findings based on the interpretive-critical analysis of evidence of WIL in language teacher education presented in this thesis. For each research question, the findings are set out in a brief statement, followed by an exposition of the evidence that supports this finding, in turn followed by a critical discussion of the finding in the context of literature from the field of study, namely, WIL in teacher education. The purpose of critically

discussing the findings in reference to the field of study is to establish the grounds for original contributions to the knowledge made by this study (see also Strunk & Betties 2019; Wexler, 2016). While the key findings are organised to address the contributory, main, and subsidiary research questions, it should be noted that this organisation serves necessary analytical purposes. Reflecting the complexity of the issues under investigation, the insights from some findings have relevance to more than one research question.

### **Contributory Research Question 1:**

*What are the expressions of, and responses to, changes in English and Chinese language teacher education WIL programs?*

#### **8.2.1 Work-readiness for WIL student teachers**

Evidence found in both the English and Chinese WIL programs in this study indicates a range of changes as students' professional learning outcomes leading to student teachers' work-readiness.

Let me summarise the evidence that supports this finding. Interviews with academics and students suggest that the student teachers in these two WIL programs benefited through developing work-readiness and workplace skills needed for employment as teachers (Section 6.2.1). Additionally, professional learning in WIL provided the student teachers with generic skills relevant to teaching such as teamwork, communication, and observation, and critical thinking. These skills helped them figure out how to prepare themselves for the job requirements expected of professional teachers. Evidence in Section 6.2.2 indicates that through the Chinese WIL program, the student teachers were prepared for the professional work of teachers by developing the necessary knowledge, practice, and engagement strategies required by AITSL's (2011) professional standards for teachers. These included strategies for getting to know students and how they learn, how to plan and teach content and language integrated lessons, how to provide students with constructive feedback, how to construct modes of assessment that promote learning, and to report on students' progress. From the student teachers' perspectives, WIL gave them practical knowledge for navigating the work of teaching and insights into their future jobs as teachers, albeit without taking for

granted that they would necessarily become teachers after successfully completing their language teacher education programs.

Related research undertaken with students from different disciplines has produced evidence that affirms the beneficial impact of WIL on students' employability (Jackson, 2013; Jonck, 2014; L. Tran & Soejatminah, 2017). Likewise, recent reviews of the literature on WIL indicate that it contributes to students' work skills, work-readiness, and employability (Patton, 2017; Pham et al., 2018; Smith & Worsfold, 2015; Smith-Ruig, 2014). The finding from this study regarding the work-readiness of WIL student teachers adds credibility to these arguments by extending them to WIL programs in language teacher education that provide student teachers with the specific workplace skills that are likely to enhance their employability.

### **8.2.2 Staff workload recognition**

This study found dominance and resistance reflected in the way both academics and schoolteachers experienced the challenge of increased workloads created by the WIL programs in language teacher education.

Evidence of changes in workload creating pressure on academics was presented in the English WIL program (Section 5.5.3). Academics were involved in many activities both on and off campus. The community supervisors were partly involved, but there were no clear guidelines about what was expected from them and the contributions of each partner organisation. For example, an academic in the English WIL program, Giang, took for granted that the extra workload was expected by university management, but management never made this clear. Academics had to take on the additional workload in order to please management and maintain their employment. Interview evidence shows the expression of academics' resistance on unsatisfactory workload recognition, which was identified in their disengagement in WIL.

In the Chinese WIL program, evidence indicates that the school mentors questioned the added workload that WIL had created making changes in their schedules at school. For instance, a schoolteacher as mentor in the Chinese WIL program, Andrea, raised issues about the burdens of WIL workload relative to the absence of any formal recognition for the work

of the school mentors. Overall, the evidence indicates that management gave little recognition to the emergent workload required of the WIL programs. As a result, not many academics wanted to be involved, which is a factor complicated by management's lack of acknowledgement of extended academic work involved (Section 5.5.3). The evidence indicates that workload in WIL in language teacher education may cause unwarranted burdens for both academics and school mentors.

Some empirical studies have addressed issues of appropriately recognising the WIL workload of academics in assessing student learning (Bilgin et al., 2017); teaching, administering, and supporting WIL (Clark et al., 2016); and in early childhood WIL programs (Jovanovic et al., 2018). While the workload of various categories for WIL academic and administrative staff has been studied by Bates (2011) using survey evidence, that study did not address the workload for workplace supervisors. However, there has been a lack of research into issues of workload in WIL teacher education (Barends, 2017; Dimenäs & Norlund, 2014; Du Plessis, 2011; Moore et al., 2012). While issues of workload in WIL in Chinese language teacher education have been reviewed (M. Singh & N. Nguyen, 2018), there is a need for research reporting primary evidence on WIL in language teacher education. The study's finding with regard to staff workload recognition, specifically the workload of academic supervisors involved in the English WIL program and the school mentors in the Chinese WIL program, suggests power imbalances that promote dominance and resistance in relations between staff and management.

### **Contributory Research Question 2:**

*What opportunities and challenges arise in conducting English and Chinese language teacher education through WIL?*

#### **8.2.3 Assessing WIL student teachers**

An important finding arising from this study was the challenge of balancing the involvement of the university academics and the partner organisations in assessing WIL student teachers. In each WIL program in this study, the university retained substantial

control over the assessment of student teachers' performance, while workplace supervisors made little contribution to their assessment.

A brief account of the evidence presented in this thesis indicates the support for this finding. Evidence in Chapter 5 (Section 5.5.1), shows the confusion over the community supervisors' role in the English WIL program in assessing student teachers' professional learning and their resulting lack of involvement. The community supervisors gave observational feedback, confirmed the student teachers' presence, and commented on their performance in terms of administrative procedures rather than assessing their workplace learning. The community supervisors' lack of involvement in assessing the student teachers led to some seeing themselves as inferior in the partnership between community and university. In the Chinese WIL program, the evidence in Section 5.5.1 shows that the school mentors did not assess the student teachers' professional learning but were involved in giving general feedback on their performance. One reason for this resided in the university taking charge of assessing student teachers' performance through the external examination of their research reports or theses. The university, as the organisation responsible for the award of the academic qualification, for example, the master's or doctoral degree, had to guarantee their professional learning as teacher-researchers.

Assessing student teachers in the English and Chinese WIL programs indicates the dilemmas of power/knowledge relations (Foucault, 1977; 1980) in getting external knowledge sources for the degree awarded by the university in language teacher education. Specifically, educating student teachers for the teaching profession involved both university and industry/community organisations, while the role of assessing student teachers' professional learning and awarding the degree was conducted and decided by the university based on general feedback from workplace supervisors. The dilemmas in WIL in this study resided in the power/knowledge relations (Foucault, 1977; 1980; Heizmann & Olsson, 2015) between the university academics and workplace supervisors that were supposed to co-exist in assessing what student teachers knew in terms of working capabilities, and employability through their professional learning. On Foucault's (1980) account, power and knowledge are related, although they exist quite independently, such that through knowing people they may

be controlled, to a degree, and through controlling people, they may be known to a degree. Here it is useful to reflect on this finding regarding assessing student teachers' WIL performance in reference to the claims and mentions made with respect to this issue in literature in this field. For example, in a study of WIL in teacher education in Victoria, Moore et al. (2012) claimed that student teachers in the program were supposed to meet the eight professional standards required for teachers in Australia (AITSL, 2011). However, they offered no evidence about what these student teachers learnt or how they were assessed against these professional standards. Likewise, Du Plessis (2010) mentioned the general problems of "placing of students at approved schools, mentoring and supervising them during school visits, building relationships with all stakeholders, assessment and feedback" (p. 213). However, she did not present any analysis of evidence into the problems of assessment of WIL in teacher education. The research reported in this thesis provides evidence in relation to one aspect of assessing student teachers' performance, namely, issues relating to the involvement of workplace supervisors.

Nevertheless, in terms of this finding, there is a study, a literature review, and claims that recognise the value of involving workplace supervisors in assessing WIL student teachers' performance. For instance, Jackson's (2018a) study addressed workplace supervisor involvement in assessing Business Studies undergraduates' WIL performance in which "the tension created in combining assessments where workplace supervisors make evaluative judgements on performance, yet students are also agents in their own assessment" (p. 556). Furthermore, Lasen et al. (2018) drew on a review of the research literature to argue for assessment partnerships among key stakeholders to create "opportunities for collaborative design, professional learning, dialogic review and student agency and reflexivity" (p. 14). Ferns and Zegwaard (2014) made the claim that "feedback from workplace supervisors is . . . a crucial component when measuring intangible outcomes" (p. 180). Similarly, Smith (2016) asserted that there is a need for workplace supervisor to be involved in WIL assessment. The involvement of workplace supervisors in assessing student teachers' performance was recognised in an empirical study in Business Studies (Jackson, 2018a) and advocated in the WIL literature (Ferns & Zegwaard, 2014; Lasen et al., 2018; Smith, 2016). In terms of assessing WIL student teachers, the finding from the evidence analysis in this study identified

the dilemmas in involving workplace supervisors in WIL assessment and their confusion over their roles in assessing students' professional learning in WIL in language teacher education.

#### **8.2.4 Dilemmas of social media use**

A finding from this study is that the use of social media in WIL in language teacher education was a source of dilemma.

An exposition of the evidence that supports this finding is warranted here. In two WIL Chinese and English language teacher education programs, social media, including Facebook and WeChat applications, were used by students and academics for communication more often than the email system, which was the official communication channel of the university (Section 7.5). Evidence shows that students and academics of two WIL programs could communicate with one another via Facebook and WeChat easily. Their use of these social media tools in WIL in language teacher education helped to change social and academic relationships between students and academics and between students and workplace supervisors in educating teachers. Their connection via social media in a less formal manner regarding student teachers' tasks assigned, academic support, and instructions provided in urgent cases provided by academic and workplace supervisors contributed to changing relations in the hierarchical power between the trainees and the trainers in language teaching professional learning. Their informal communication via Facebook helped "openness and transparency" (Boddy & Dominelli, 2017, p. 180). Giang, an academic in the English WIL program, acknowledged this change in power/knowledge relations (Foucault, 1977; 1980) between student teachers and academics through Facebook in WIL engagement (Section 7.5). Student teachers and academics were more engaged in WIL activities thanks to the quick, convenient, flexible, and informal communication via Facebook. Dan Dan, an academic in the Chinese WIL program, admitted using mainly WeChat to communicate with student teachers about WIL.

However, information and communication among student teachers and academics through social media was out of control of the university making a disconnection, which challenged university management. One University Manager in the English WIL program, Ngan, suggested having an official Facebook group for the WIL program (see Section 7.5)

so that the university could control what students post on Facebook or what communication was about. The dilemma found in WIL in language teacher education included the university not being able to control communication between student teachers and academics, and could not protect the university's reputation regarding social media use. In terms of management, the university could not control student teachers and academics without knowing what was communicated between them even though one university staff worked as a moderator looking after the WIL Facebook group. This is because, unlike an email system, it is difficult to collect evidence of communication posted on the Facebook platform. The second challenge for the university in failing to control this issue is that the university could not estimate nor control what possibilities or risks may harm the university reputation from communication between student teachers and academics via social media.

Previous studies have pointed out that free social media tools such as Facebook and WeChat attract students' use because they help them to stay updated about their studies (Ștefănică, 2014). For example, Facebook helps promote interactions between students or classmates (Aaen & Dalsgaard, 2016). However, research on university teaching practice shows that social media use is "still rather limited and restricted and that academics are not much inclined to integrate these devices into their practices for several reasons, such as cultural resistance, pedagogical issues or institutional constraints" (Manca & Ranieri, 2016, p. 216). Research on social media use conducted in Europe and the United States indicated the complexities of benefits and challenges for formal learning in classroom and informal learning for network members (Greenhow & Lewin, 2016). Relating to the complexities, social media use and ethical issues were addressed in the field of social work (Boddy & Dominelli, 2017). Likewise, this study found that the use of social media in WIL in language teacher education led to dilemmas for university management.

### **Contributory Research Question 3:**

*How does the organisation of WIL in English and Chinese language teacher education help students' professional learning?*



### **8.2.5 Social justice and WIL student teachers**

This study found that through the English WIL program, students learnt about a range of social justice issues concerning the power relationships between wealth and poverty, and between disability and ability.

Let me provide a short exposition of the evidence that supports this finding. Through engaging in both WIL programs, the student teachers had opportunities to identify that generating social justice is integral to the work of the teaching profession. From the evidence in Chapter 6 (Section 6.2.3), WIL enabled students to develop English teaching skills and understanding of social in/justice. Specifically, student teachers developed their professional skills through teaching English to children at a Pagoda Orphans' Shelter while creating educational opportunities for learners experiencing inequality in the shelter. This university-based and workplace knowledge connection was formed through WIL. However, they did not develop awareness of how to take further actions with and for marginalised groups through their professional work. While having an awareness of the need to address social injustice, it seemed to be disconnected as the student teachers did not engage in doing anything further through their language teaching professional learning.

In reference to the literature in this field, this finding can be considered in relation to other recent, relevant studies. Mills and Ballantyne (2016) reported that “community-based learning can enable preservice teachers to re-orient their identities and view social justice issues in a transformative way” (p. 272). However, teacher education struggles to maintain a focus on social justice in the face of market-oriented principles and values which “focus on the accumulation of transferrable skills that prepare individuals for paid work” (Burke & Whitty, 2018, p. 273). The finding from this study with respect to social justice, and WIL student teachers indicates continuing efforts in WIL in language teacher education to contribute to issues of social justice, fragile though these may be given the contemporary economic drivers of universities. For example, the English WIL program at the Pagoda Orphans' Shelter serving children who experienced structural inequalities in terms of social class and disability gave student teachers an understanding of social inequality as part of their readiness for working as professional teachers.

### 8.2.6 Student teachers' peer learning

A key finding from this study is that the student teachers who engaged in WIL language teaching/learning benefited from peer learning.

Evidence in Chapter 7 (Section 7.4) indicates that peer learning (*học bạn*) regarding research skills was possible between Chinese student teachers sharing their knowledge through WIL. In the Chinese WIL program, student teachers learnt from their peers in the same cohort of HDRs even though they were of different ages. In contrast, when engaging in teaching English to learners at the Hospitality School, student teachers learnt some social skills from English language learners of the same age as themselves who they treated as their peers. Here, the connections resided in diverse sources of knowledge shared between cross-age student teachers in the same cohort in the Chinese WIL program, leading to mutual benefits among peers (Meschitti, 2018). However, disconnections from hierarchical power relations existed when the student teachers in the English WIL program learnt from their learners who had diverse knowledge backgrounds and social status. In this study, student teachers' peer learning in the WIL programs entailed both connections and disconnections of power/knowledge relations (Foucault, 1977; 1980), which provided them with more options for accessing knowledge in their professional learning. Foucault (1980) saw power/knowledge relations as limit and possibility, which means that power/knowledge relations limit what student teachers do and open up possibilities of their acting. For Foucault (1980) the existence of an individual's consciousness is conceptualised as being the product of the discursive networks through which power flows. For Higgins (1995), this approach to power and consciousness contrast with the view of power as works on and against individuals to subordinates individuals.

Relating to the existing literature, this is the contribution made in this study regarding the definition of peer learning. Riese et al. (2012) refers to peer learning as learning situations among students in the same cohort. Students in the same cohort might be assumed to be of the same age. Silverman et al. (2017) reported that "cross-age peer learning, in which older and younger students work together, has been shown in a few studies" (p. 486). For Silverman et al. (2017), cross-age peer learning sees younger students learning through interacting with

older students who are more knowledgeable. In contrast, the finding from this study relating to student teachers' peer learning suggests something a little different from the existing literature. In the Chinese WIL program, cross-age peer learning found older Chinese student teachers learning from younger peers due to the variability in the ages of candidates, which ranged from the early 20s to early 40s. However, the taken-for-granted view that there is no cross-age peer learning by which younger peers share knowledge with older peers through WIL, causes disconnections with this kind of peer learning opportunity.

### **8.2.7 Australian–Asian engagement**

A finding from the evidence analysed in this thesis suggests that the Chinese WIL program contributes to Australian–Asian engagement as expected in Australia's cross-curriculum priorities (ACARA, 2012b).

Chapter 7 of this thesis presented evidence of contributions of WIL regarding engaging with Asia as a cross-curriculum priority (Section 7. 2). In the Chinese WIL program, student teachers helped Australian schools engage with Asia through supporting Chinese language learning while involved in WIL extracurricular activities to further their professional learning. Student teachers contributed to teaching Chinese at these Australian schools by introducing new ideas through their teaching/learning activities. They also engaged school students in understanding Chinese culture, for instance, by making dumplings as part of cross-curricular activities for learning Chinese. Evidence in Section 7.2 shows that the host supervisors in schools saw the language and culture of China being valuable in terms of this curriculum priority. However, it was not evident that the university or other partners in the Chinese WIL program saw Australian school students and their teachers learning Chinese language and knowledge as of any educational value.

The connections in the Chinese WIL program included Australian government and industry setting up a partnership for knowledge exchange, and student teachers engaged Australia with Asia through teaching Chinese language and extracurricular activities. However, apart from recognition from schoolteachers regarding what student teachers contributed, the disconnections found in this Chinese WIL program entailed the lack of acknowledgement and engagement of managers of local schools or governing bodies in

education in Australia to promote Australian engagement with Asia by the Chinese student teachers through WIL. Other disconnections include the Australian Government's refusal to invest in educating Chinese teachers to be employed at schools to connect with China. Agreement in the Chinese WIL partnership indicates that the Chinese partners were involved from recruiting to sponsoring students for the program, while the university and local schools partly contributed to student teachers' stipends for the partnership of knowledge exchange.

With regard to literature in the field of Australian–Asian engagement, Salter's (2015) study dealt with knowing Asia, or Asia literacy, that is, “‘knowing Asia’ as knowledge that can be colonised and Australia as the entity seeking to colonise what Asia has to offer, assuming that Asia can be ‘used’ for whatever purposes Australia decides” (p. 790), which opens up space for further investigation as to “why and how Asia literacy is imagined and implemented in schools” (p. 791). Gauci and Curwood's (2017) study examined the NSW English teachers' attitudes towards “addressing the cross-curriculum priority Asia and Australia's engagement with Asia within 7–10 classrooms” (p. 163), which gave insights into professional development opportunities for teachers with regard to addressing Asia and Australia's engagement with Asia. There have also been research projects funded by the OLT for connecting Australian university graduates' life and work with people throughout Asia (M. Singh, Han, N. Nguyen, & Howard, 2016; L. Tran & Vu, 2018). Likewise, research has explored academic and workplace knowledge connections (Smith-Ruig, 2014) and the lack of a link between university academic work and workplace context (Bilsland & Nagy, 2015) as disconnections in WIL. While these studies see connections or disconnections as separate, the finding from this study with respect to Australian–Asian engagement indicates that connection and disconnection are integral components in WIL in language teacher education. This finding regarding the WIL Chinese program in language teacher education adds to the scholarly conversations about Australian–Asian intellectual engagement through language education as knowledge exchange.

## **Main Research Question:**

*What are key factors affecting work-integrated learning in language teacher education in Việt Nam and Australia?*

### **8.2.8 Tensions between policy and practice in WIL partnership**

In this study, tensions were found between policy and practice in the WIL programs. Support for this finding is presented in the evidentiary chapters of this thesis and is briefly summarised here.

The academic credit system for university education authorised by MOET (2014) challenged student teachers in joining in WIL as an option for their ELT course at the university. The academic credit system for university education allowed students to choose some units including WIL in their study pathway. However, WIL was designed as a unit as a replacement for an internship, while a traditional internship had a fixed time slot in the curriculum. To participate in WIL, student teachers had to manage their time to avoid schedule overlapping. Evidence from an academic, Giang, and a student, Trung, indicates the tensions in participating in WIL (Section 6.4.1) in which student teachers registered for WIL but could not manage their time due to schedule overlapping with other units in the same semester. The tensions between policy in the academic credit system and practice of WIL with flexible time requirement challenged the sustainability of the WIL program and student teachers' engagement in WIL.

Tailored partnership, which entailed some changes in making a partnership, was one of the policy–practice tensions in WIL. While WIL was employed as an educational approach from university policy for students' workplace learning through partnership, some changes in partnership were made in implementing WIL. To reach their safety-oriented agendas in seeking workplaces for students, the university providing the English WIL program tailored the partnership by targeting convenient workplaces (Section 5.3.2). This tailored practice gave the possibilities of limiting workplace learning opportunities for students because the community organisations did not have authentic needs for providing students with learning

through WIL. Evidence of tailored partnership also indicates the political aspect of WIL by making convenient workplace partnerships through which WIL was used just for promoting the reputation of the university. No WIL programs have the same structures as others' due to the variation of settings, partners, disciplines, and stakeholders. However, whether tailored partnership would make WIL effective or benefit the university, and tensions between policy for WIL and practice, bring into discussion the challenges of WIL sustainability, student learning, and the possible risks for the university as the educational provider without having relevant tailored policies in WIL.

This finding regarding the tensions between policy and practice in WIL partnerships can be usefully considered in reference to the literature in this field. Teacher education has been identified as a policy problem that is affected by political agendas (Mayer, 2014). The finding arising from this study about key factors affecting WIL in language teacher education in Việt Nam and Australia is that fixed policy and tailored policy occurred within the same WIL program due to different agendas (see Section 5.3.2). The tensions between policy and practice in this study affected the quality of the WIL programs, the potential of partnerships, and the sustainability of the WIL in language teacher education programs.

WIL is a vehicle for knowledge production in the rising generation of university educated workers. WIL shifts the divisions of intellectual labour by giving those in industry a measure of ownership in the means of producing and distributing the intellectual culture and skills of workers. The productive forces of the workplace exercise determinacy upon the productive forces. Williams (1977) prepares researchers to be on the lookout for the unexpected, and the unorganised in the integration of work and learning, while being alert to the potential for WIL being narrowly constructed via the socioeconomic interests of elites (see also Kono, Mcneill & Murray, 2018; Löwy & Sayre, 2018; Milner, 2016; Paixão, 2018; Reinelt, 2015). This study shows participants in the two WIL language teacher education programs as actively engaging in historically informed educational strategies rather than operating merely as calculators of narrow interests or passively complying with and following given rules. The distortions within the academic world itself affect their patterns of work and learning; the time they need devote to communicating rationally about these

strategies, and the money involved that operates as a solvent dissolving the gloss of the dominant rhetoric about work integrated learning. The resulting contradictions or dilemmas, along with the connections and disconnections which this study identified in these WIL language teacher education programs, provide insights into the difficulties of achieving worthwhile educational change, but also suggest implications for generating emergent ideas for integrating work and learning. The socioeconomic conditions for transforming work integrated learning necessary to develop students' expert knowledge as scientifically-informed intellectuals rather than trained technocrats are constrained by the failure of the industrial and party-political wings of labour movements to work in harmoniously, demonstrating the limitations of social democratic institutions.

### **8.2.9 Challenges of integrating work and education**

Findings of this study indicate the imbalance between the work required for operationalising the two WIL programs, and the recognition of this work, causing unwarranted pressure on academics and workplace supervisors.

Let me summarise the evidence from this study that supports this finding. Academics and workplace supervisors were assigned labour-intensive tasks in WIL, leading to an increase in workload and more responsibilities without any special or different recognition as it should have (see Section 5.5.3). Their adaptation to such emergent tasks in WIL that were added to their full-time jobs did not guarantee their enthusiasm or commitments in participating in WIL. The tensions in work due to WIL characteristics leading to little engagement from academics and workplace supervisors necessitate anticipating potential problems before setting up a new partnership to optimise educational values of WIL that academics and workplace supervisors would contribute. Time was a major challenge for both academics and students in the English WIL program. Academics struggled with time for the English WIL program while maintaining other academic tasks. Disengagement of academics in WIL due to time consumption brings into questions of WIL management that involves issues of policy and practice for WIL.

By situating this finding regarding the challenges of integrating work and education in reference to relevant literature, it is possible to gain insights into the contribution it makes to advancing knowledge in this field. Research into the complexities of assessing WIL students, in which diverse and complex assessment strategies were involved, leading to academic workload for staff, was conducted at an Australian university (Bilgin et al., 2017). Choy and Delahaye (2011) discussed the complexities of relationships and discourses in a partnership between a university and a nongovernment organisation for co-constructing WIL curriculum for worker–learners that requires more research to unpack the complexities. In WIL teacher education, Winchester-Seeto et al. (2016) reviewed the literature on the issues of the complexities of student supervision. This research addressed issues of the impact of workload in WIL on academics and workplace supervisors, which contributes to the conversation on WIL complexities from evidence in WIL in language teacher education. Evidence from a survey in WIL indicated that university academic and professional staff had “little time for research and scholarship” (Bates, 2011, p. 115). Ferns and Zegwaard (2014) reported that the time and resources required to support and guide students during their work placement created an additional work pressure for host organisations. In this study, the finding regarding factors that affect WIL in language teacher education in Việt Nam and Australia entailed the challenges of time that negatively affected academics and workplace supervisors’ willingness to participate in both WIL in language teacher education programs.

What is the place of the university in William’s (1977; 2014) work? Williams knew how disconnected universities were from their communities (West, 2017). Williams struggled to build connections between his intellectually challenging university education by grounding it in the material struggles of ordinary people. William’s interest in education shaped his ideas on the need to create new popular institutions that married culture and education to create a public sphere of common discourse. Williams saw the structural separation of the university as a problem. He worked to launch a public sphere that broke with sequestration of universities from society as a whole (see also Milner, 2016; Paixão, 2018; Reinelt, 2015). WIL should develop students’ individual intellectual energies and capabilities. Students are social beings, in the both sense that their survival depends on being within society, and in seeing their deepest sense of self-fulfilment as lying in dedicating their



energies and passions to the service of others. Work integrated learning may provide students with a way to develop their sense of social beings with a need for others in order to survive, while acknowledging that they are also social beings in the sense that they are the medium for free self-development of themes and others. However, bridging this divide is the dilemma identified in this study. Organisational culture swings between a narrow, evaluative orientation, and a broader exploration of work and learning. This work has explored the tensions in relations between them bringing into focus how the intellectual culture does not welcome newcomers and does not give them what they need to thrive.

#### **8.2.10 Education management in an era of ever-advancing technologies**

This study found challenges to management with respect to the use of ever-advancing technologies in these two WIL in language teacher education programs.

Support for this finding can be found in the evidentiary chapters of this thesis (see Section 7.5). Evidence from academics of the two WIL programs indicates that social media use was very useful and convenient for communication between staff and student teachers, but the evidence from academics also raised concerns of whether university is able to control their communication or manage potential issues. Students and staff in the English and Chinese WIL programs tended to use communication options, such as WeChat or Facebook, outside the control of the universities.

Research into WIL has indicated that students could learn from their workplace peers through using communication tools, including social media such as Skype, blogs, and online chat (Jackson et al., 2015). Research by Boddy and Dominelli (2017) indicated that social media is increasingly being used in education. For Aaen (2016), social media provides students with more learning opportunities. The finding from this study regarding social media use by academics and students in WIL adds to the significance of managing communication in WIL in language teacher education. Importantly, this finding in relation to the key factors affecting WIL in language teacher education in Việt Nam and Australia concerns the possible risks both to the university in using ICSTs (ACTA, 2015; AITSL, 2011; MOET, 2017b) for operating WIL programs and to the students in terms of professional learning due to the

tensions between policy and practice in WIL. The finding indicates a major challenge for university management in these changing times, with the domination of technology. Specifically, the university could not manage communication between students and academics taken outside the university's official communication channel, such as its email system or application package paid for by the university, while students or staff tended to use preferred alternative communication tools such as Facebook and WeChat. Struggling to track what students and staff do in WIL activities generates further possibility of harm to the university due to sharing, such as issues of authorship, copyright, or intellectual protection, which students may not be aware of when communicating via social media. This finding also raises concerns to do with privacy, ethical issues in international WIL programs when students go to a workplace in another culture, and, most importantly, the reputation and image of the university.

In Williams's (1977) terms, no mode of WIL, no dominant institutional order, and therefore no dominant intellectual culture ever includes or exhausts all human practices, energies and intentions. There is emergent theorisation of WIL that is possible through Tiếng Việt. There are Williams's (1977) residual intellectual resources which have yet to be fully mobilised in this field. The dominant mode of WIL that comes to the fore in this study represents both a selection from a range of possibilities, and an exclusion of other actual and possible practices of WIL (see also Milner, 2016; Paixão, 2018). This explains the conflict between dominant, residual and emergent modes of WIL in the particular historical moment that was the focus of this study. As such, WIL is an unstable, varied and portable system. As an economy of work and learning experiences WIL is governed by the interplay of dominant, emergent and residual socio-economic forces and meanings. Williams (1977) favoured educational processes that require people's active and critical intellectual engagement in reaching them on their own conclusions through fellowship and over time (West, 2017). He was critical of those who presumed to deliver all the answers to ordinary people. He regarded the offering of conclusions as anti-educational, and as such demeaning and infantilising.

In Williams's (1977) terms, the transformative potential of WIL and its deepest impulse in forming cultural politics made WIL part of the process of socioeconomic change. Consistent

with the theory of cultural materialism, Williams (1977) emphasised the linking of education and democracy, which means highlighting the processes by which dominant forces appropriate WIL using its enforcement of the values of elites on educational institutions and other societal structures.

### **Subsidiary Research Question**

*How might Tiếng Việt concepts be used to interpret evidence of WIL in English and Chinese language teacher education?*

#### **8.2.11 Tiếng Việt concepts in postmonolingual theorising**

Tiếng Việt concepts were used in postmonolingual theorising in this thesis using my repertoire of languages-and-knowledge in Tiếng Việt to engage intellectually with knowledge of existing social theory of Williams (1977) to contribute to knowledge through interpreting evidence of WIL in language teacher education. In terms of Williams's (1977) theory, the use of Tiếng Việt concepts in this study to theorise evidence of WIL in language teacher education represents an instance of an emergent intellectual or scholarly culture. Williams (1977) encourages researchers to look for emergent sites from outside the consecrated space and the geographical-and-linguistic boundaries of prevailing knowledge production and dissemination.

The following steps summarise how Tiếng Việt concepts were used in theorising WIL in the research study reported in this thesis:

1. Tiếng Việt theorising (Four steps): listing the Tiếng Việt metaphors as theoretical tools; creating a typology of Tiếng Việt concepts relating to concepts Work and Learning; conceptualising; and developing explanatory propositions
2. Methods – collect evidence - ethics: pseudonyms, translation
3. Data interpretation – map interrelationship among evidence and key concepts (eg. Học bạn = friends learning) - test against the literature

#### 4. Findings – use Tiếng Việt concepts to explain mechanisms at work in WIL

This study found that using Tiếng Việt concepts as analytical tools in the interpretation of evidence proved beneficial, adding value to the researcher’s capabilities for theorising. Evidence in support of this finding is summarised here. The Tiếng Việt concepts used to interpret evidence were presented in this thesis. The concepts *học tập* (learning), *làm việc* (work), *học bạn* (peer learning), and *chín người mười ý* (divergence of ideas) were developed from my knowledge of Tiếng Việt metaphors based on how they are used in people’s everyday lives and how they are presented in Tiếng Việt dictionaries. In effect, I made educational advantage of my prior knowledge of Tiếng Việt to extend my knowledge of how to theorise using analytical concepts drawn from both English and Tiếng Việt. By taking advantage of my repertoire of languages-and-knowledge in this research, I was able to explore the complexities and dilemmas of the inter- and intra-organisational enactment of WIL in language teacher education. In terms of using existing theory produced and disseminated in English, this study of WIL in language teacher education benefited from stretching Williams’s (1977) conception of dominant, residual, and emergent cultures; elaborating on Berlak and Berlak’ (1981) notions of school dilemmas, and extending the ideas of Munro (1997) on organisational control. It was possible to recontextualise these conceptual tools in ways that brought added depth to the analysis and interpretation made in each of the evidentiary chapters. Further, the triangulation of these theoretical tools in this research also made it possible to explore the complexities of WIL in language teacher education.

This finding with respect to the use of Tiếng Việt to interpret evidence of WIL in English and Chinese language teacher education can be usefully discussed in relation to literature in this field. Writing from the universities of Gothenburg and Borås, Dimenäs and Norlund (2014) challenged “the lack of theorization [in the] field of work-integrated learning [in teacher education, which] has been characterized as undertheorized” (p. 2). They explained that theorising works “to construct, operationalize and try out an analytic tool to be used in connection to studies of the character of work-integrated learning” (Dimenäs &

Norlund, 2014, p. 2). However, despite addressing the question of knowledge transfer from one situation to another, their work of theorising did not introduce any analytical concepts from the Swedish language. Rather, they used an existing theoretical concept produced in English. However, unlike their research, I made use of Tiếng Việt metaphors in my daily life for the purposes of theorising the research reported in this thesis. Doan (2017) has done likewise, arguing that student teachers' full linguistic resources and epistemologies, known as *sàng khôn*, contribute to their agency and can be used as tools to theorise new knowledge in the context of mobility education. In contrast, D. Nguyen (2018) focused on translanguaging between English and Vietnamese as an everyday recurring sociolinguistic activity among speakers of Tiếng Việt rather than as a vehicle for theorising. Likewise, Edwards (2018) explained that translanguaging refers to dynamic practices whereby bilinguals make sense of their multilingual worlds by centring their multiple languages in everyday consecrations. In contrast, in this study, I used Tiếng Việt as a source of conceptual tools and used these to make meaning of the evidence. In effect, my strategy moved beyond communicating, by blending English and Tiếng Việt for the invention of analytical concepts in Tiếng Việt and using these for theorising in research reported mainly in English.

### **8.3 Implications for theorising, policy and practice**

The results of this study have theoretical, practical and policy implications for a range of WIL practitioners including researchers, academics, university managers, workplace managers, schoolteachers, and policymakers in language teacher education. In terms of theorising, the use Tiếng Việt concepts in theorising in WIL language teacher education and research opens up possibilities for researchers of other disciplines to theorise using their languages other than English as theoretical tools, which indicates an important contribution to knowledge of postmonolingual knowledge production and dissemination. Findings of the study have policy and practical implications for supervising undergraduate and postgraduate students doing WIL, building strategic engagement with industry for students' professional learning, and fostering and maintaining respectful, collaborative and productive WIL relationships with staff, students and colleagues across partners in organising WIL.

### **8.3.1 Supervising undergraduate and postgraduate students' coursework and research WIL projects**

In supervising students in WIL projects, findings of this study have implications for generating principles of language learning and teaching in workplace learning practices, WIL curriculum and assessment, effective WIL teaching/learning skills, and innovative teaching/learning materials appropriate to WIL programs.

#### **8.3.1.1 Principles of language learning and teaching in workplace learning practices**

In terms of rethinking the hoary question about the relationship between theory and practice, this study suggests possibilities for the principles of language learning and teaching, and effective workplace learning practices. Engaging in WIL in language teacher education gave student teachers insights into the relation between theoretical and practical knowledge that informs the work of the teaching profession. Specifically, WIL student teachers developed an understanding of the principles or theories of language learning and teaching and observed the practice knowledge used in workplaces, such as a school or an English language centre. They learnt from what happened and tried to implement their own versions of these. Through professional learning via WIL, student teachers gradually developed their theoretically informed, evidence-driven workplace practice knowledge to be a member of the teaching profession.

#### **8.3.1.2 WIL curriculum and assessment**

This study of the implementation of WIL in language teacher education has implications for curriculum design and assessing student teachers' professional learning. WIL is designed to be embedded in the curriculum rather than be a standalone component. Because universities are the institutions responsible for awarding language teacher education degrees, they have a major responsibility in deciding on the mode of assessment and whether student teachers have satisfied the assessment requirements. Thus, assessment in WIL tends

to be dominated by universities, if not academics. However, the actual professional learning that occurs in the workplaces is monitored and observed by workplace mentors. Future implementation of WIL in language teacher education may take into account ways of involving workplace supervisors in contributing to curriculum design, the criteria for student teachers' recruitment into the teaching profession, and assessing student teachers' professional learning outcomes. Doing so would serve as a means of linking university knowledge to the workplace. To effect such participation by workplace mentors, their employers would have to ensure appropriate remuneration for this additional work generated by WIL.

#### **8.3.1.3 Effective WIL teaching/learning skills**

The development of effective WIL teaching skills in particular domains of language teacher education, for instance, teaching English for special purposes, can usefully be informed by the results from this study. WIL could be a useful tool to help student teachers develop effective teaching skills by engaging in workplace learning for purposes, such as teaching English for tour guides and teaching English for nurses. Student teachers could develop effective skills for teaching English for special purposes through workplace learning activities under supervision by university academics and mentoring from workplace supervisors. WIL partnerships with industries such as tourism and health are worthy of consideration by university managers responsible for programs in WIL and English for special purposes.

#### **8.3.1.4 Innovative teaching/learning materials appropriate to WIL programs**

Evidence from this study shows that using innovative learning materials appropriate to a wide range of WIL programs are beneficial but are not without problems. Social media use in WIL in language teacher education might enable academics to pursue the future of education by going beyond the use of Facebook, or WeChat to engage emerging tools for communicating with WIL student teachers and workplace supervisors for more collaborative

approaches to WIL. Making use of social media as a learning resource in WIL in language teacher education enables student teachers to study using online platforms before and after learning in actual workplaces, whether these are classrooms or pagodas. Workplace mentors might see opportunities for setting up online WIL programs in language teacher education that enables student teachers to do online language teaching/learning activities as a vehicle for extending their professional learning for their futures. Likewise, providing a variety of options for student teachers with diverse skills in using digital technologies to induct their peers, supervisors, and mentors into the use of these would represent an important contribution to WIL teaching/learning activities.

### **8.3.2 Building strategic WIL engagements with industry, government and other academic institutions**

This study has important implications for building strategic WIL engagements with industry, government and other academic institutions including preparing students for diversity of workplaces, communication among WIL industry, government and academic partners, and addressing challenges and changes in WIL.

#### **8.3.2.1 Diversity of workplaces**

WIL programs in this study took place in diverse settings such as an orphans' shelter, a hospitality school for disadvantaged children, and primary and high schools, thereby giving student teachers an understanding of the variation and the changing nature of workplaces. It is useful for student teachers to develop their professional capabilities by engaging in teaching/learning in diverse workplaces to address authentic social needs. This is because learning to teach in a school through WIL may give them a predetermined mindset that teaching only takes place in schools. Moreover, learning the professional skills required for teaching in workplaces other than schools through WIL might also help student teachers to initiate teaching/learning activities in diverse workplaces in their future jobs. Organising WIL in diverse workplaces requires a comprehensive plan, including establishing the educational agenda for the partnership; the expectations, responsibilities, and contributions



of each partner organisation; identification of strategies to maintain mutual benefits and ensure the long-term sustainability of WIL program; and the WIL stakeholders' roles, responsibilities, and benefits. Policy for the privacy and safety of academics, WIL students, workplace supervisors, and the learners participating in a WIL language learning program is a key issue to consider when planning such a program.

### **8.3.2.2 Communication among WIL industry, government and academic partners**

This study indicates that successful WIL partnerships rely on multilevel communication among academic supervisors, workplace mentors, student teachers, and partnership managers. Effective WIL partnerships depend on the definition of their education agendas and mutual benefits being well defined and recommunicated regularly so that each party understands their proper contributions, responsibilities, and expectations based on what has been agreed in the formal partnership agreement. However, memorandums of understanding are typically written in such broad terms as to be unhelpful at the operational stage. There are many unanticipated problems such as student teachers' underperformance, quitting the WIL program, or claiming that due to their university studies, they cannot fulfil their agreed workplace obligations. Managers of the partner organisations need the communication skills to deal with these without damaging the partnership.

### **8.3.2.3 Addressing challenges and changes in WIL**

The inevitable challenges and changes programs in WIL in language teacher education experience may be considered using insights from this study. Among the challenges to be addressed is training for academics and school mentors, especially for those who work with student teachers who speak a language other than English and may encounter issues with communication and workplace culture. Additionally, training university academics and student teachers in workplace safety and ethical issues at WIL sites is essential. Doing so

ensures that they are safe when working off-campus, know how to protect children, and do not cause harm in workplaces during WIL activities.

Despite the intensification of workloads across all workplaces, there is a need for better estimation and recognition of the increased workload for both workplace mentors and academic supervisors to encourage greater WIL engagement, which represents a substantial shift from mass lectures to more individualised mentoring of student teachers. In particular, staff in one or both workplaces take on substantially more work when there are organisational restructures from partner organisations.

### **8.3.3 Fostering and maintaining inclusive, respectful, collaborative and productive WIL relationships with staff, students and colleagues across partner organisations**

Potential implications of this study would be fostering and maintaining inclusive, respectful, collaborative and productive WIL relationships with staff, students and colleagues across partner organisations. These include working with WIL staff, students and colleagues, multilingual staff, students and colleagues using their repertoire of languages-and-knowledge for theorising, and professional learning for WIL staff, students and colleagues.

#### **8.3.3.1 Working with WIL staff, students and colleagues**

The results of this study have implications for how WIL colleagues might work together more collaboratively and flexibly. One of the problems identified in the WIL programs in this study entails the relationship between academic supervisors and workplace supervisors. Due to the differences in the nature of their work and time availability, academic supervisors and workplace supervisors held the view that one did more than the other to provide professional learning to student teachers. Future WIL in language teacher education could benefit from the regular clarification and re-statement of professional roles and responsibilities of each party—academic supervisors, workplace mentors, student teachers, and partnership managers. Managers of the WIL partnerships need to establish regular, recurring events, such as collaborative workshops, to maintain communication channels between them and the student teachers. University management also needs to provide

workload allowances to enable academics to schedule workplace visits so that they can engage with workplace mentors and student teachers and address problems they may be having. With mutual understanding and sympathy established through frequent, recurring communication, academic supervisors and workplace mentors would be better prepared to express their ideas and indicate to partnership managers any problems that need to be addressed.

### **8.3.3.2 Multilingual staff, students and colleagues using their repertoire of languages-and-knowledge for theorising**

A distinctive implication of this study relates to the analytical concepts selected for use as part of the theoretical framework this study. Specifically, as a multilingual researcher, my intellectual assets include my repertoire of languages-and-knowledge in both English and Tiếng Việt. Both languages proved relevant to the conduct of this research and the development of my understanding and capabilities for theorising. In this study, I used postmonolingual research methodologies (Singh, 2019) to explore how concepts or metaphors from my repertoire of languages-and-knowledge could be used purposefully as analytical tools to make meaning of evidence of WIL in language teacher education.

### **8.3.3.3 Professional learning for WIL staff, students and colleagues**

Given the apparent lack of attention to the professional development of academics in WIL by universities involved in the two programs in this study, the results of this study have implications for furthering the professional learning of, in particular, WIL language teacher educators. To do so, it would be worthwhile for the WIL partner organisations to establish structural mechanisms for collaboration between schools and universities to affect a two-way exchange of knowledge. For instance, academic supervisors, workplace mentors, student teachers, and partnership managers could engage in face-to-face language teaching workshops, discussing the possibilities of WIL for student teachers' professional learning and identifying ways of improving collaborative education through WIL. Other forms of professional development communities could include online forums or webinars that allow the sharing of experiential knowledge among academic supervisors, workplace mentors,

student teachers, and partnership managers. These online activities may also be followed up by offline meetings to further discuss academic and workplace life. Where schoolteachers become involved in work-based research with university academics and student teachers, the outcomes of such teacher research are likely to enhance WIL knowledge production and dissemination. Overall, the aim here would be to develop a sense of community and collegial support across workplaces, to come to new understandings of WIL in language teacher education, and to share experiences of the benefits and challenges of WIL. Having considered the implications for policy and practice arising from this study, the next section addresses the limitations of this study through making recommendations for future research.

#### **8.4 Limitations informing recommendations for future research**

The evidence and arguments presented in this study provide a picture of WIL in language teacher education. However, they also suggested possibilities for further investigation. Given the limitations of the research reported in this study, it is necessary to consider possibilities for further research in WIL in language teacher education and postmonolingual theorising.

##### **8.4.1 Language policy in WIL in language teacher education**

The scope of this study focused on the collection and analysis of evidence from WIL in language teacher education programs. One program focused on teaching nonbackground, mainly English-speaking school students learning to use Chinese language. The other program focused on teaching English to speakers of Tiếng Việt. In a sense, this study opens up possibilities for further exploration into the relationship between policies governing university education and work at multiple levels from the macro to the micro. Likewise, the effects of the dominance of the monolingual mindset in language teaching and policy, including its commodification and/or use in soft power on language learning and language use in WIL programs, warrant closer investigation.

Further, WIL in language teacher education programs in this research involved learners who were monolingual and bilingual but did not examine the impact of this difference on

WIL. Future research could be carried out into the challenges and changes of language policy in WIL in language teacher education. An investigation into the struggles of using English medium instruction to teach English to bilingual learners through WIL would be worthwhile. Likewise, interview evidence used in this study came from student teachers, academics, university managers, and workplace supervisors. Further research might explore perspectives from people in the community, learners in WIL programs, and managers in workplaces or communities regarding the contribution of WIL in language teacher education in terms of student teachers' workplace knowledge and professional learning.

#### **8.4.2 WIL professional learning for workplace and academic supervisors**

This research study explored student teachers' professional learning through WIL in language teacher education. Further research could be conducted into professional development activities for workplace and academic supervisors in this field. Professional development activities are likely to be beneficial if they provide workplace mentors and academic supervisors opportunities to exchange their workplace practice knowledge, the content and form of these activities are explicitly connected with their recurring everyday WIL duties and activities, relevant WIL theory is used to frame their interrogation, and the activities are led by an experienced researcher with expertise in WIL in language teacher education. An investigation into such professional development activities could explore the dispositions of those who have a desire to engage in research and with research literature, have inclination for engaging in researching their own WIL programs, and those with the capabilities for engaging in more substantial research projects and aware of the opportunities for pursuing funding for such research.

#### **8.4.3 Connections and disconnections of communication in WIL**

This study focused on the connections and disconnections in the changing relationships between universities and their partner organisations, and between universities and academic supervisors and workplace mentors; the latter were raised as an issue. It could be worth studying the communication between universities and student teachers, student teachers and supervisors, and academic supervisors and workplace supervisors in WIL in language teacher education. Perhaps, more substantially, the management of connections and disconnections

through communication and interpersonal skills among stakeholders and partners is worthy of further investigation to ascertain how these are used to affect dominance and residualisation in WIL in language teacher education programs. Work and learning, economics, and education are connected through WIL programs. However, university managers' desire to engage in the process of labour formation (i.e., producing language teachers, as in this study) can be at odds with those of workplace partners. In particular, under the inter-related impacts of shifts from a unipolar world governed by the United States to a multipolar world in which China is asserting its roles and responsibilities, the shift to valuing industry's definition of professional learning and efforts to systemically rationalise the added value is secured through chaining working and learning together. Investigating communication and interpersonal skills for the management of such connections and disconnections among stakeholders and partners now seems warranted.

#### **8.4.4 Learning resources for assessment**

This thesis presented a limited investigation into how social media was used as a learning and teaching resource in WIL. More research is suggested into how the use of innovative learning resources such as new social media could bring improvements to WIL programs. For instance, a study investigating how social media is used in blended learning for WIL in language teacher education would be interesting and timely. Moreover, research attention now needs to turn to the most promising technologies likely to transform work and learning in the next decade, and to investigate how ever-advancing work and learning technologies will impact the future of WIL.

Further, student teachers' performances were analysed in this study. Future studies could explore summative assessment in WIL through student teachers' reflections on the professional learning they gain through acquiring workplace practice knowledge, along with the challenges and possibilities of assessing outcomes of student teachers' professional learning through involving workplace supervisors in WIL assessment. The possibilities of the ethical use of mobile technology to undertake formative and summative assessment of WIL student teachers and support for workplace mentors could be investigated. For example, WIL student teachers could use smartphones to record video, photographic, and written

information that could be used to make judgements about the various professional standards expected of graduating student teachers.

#### **8.4.5 Possibilities for postmonolingual knowledge production and dissemination**

In effect, this study acknowledges that my repertoire of languages-and-knowledge was integral to the research I conducted, thereby highlighting the prospects for postmonolingual knowledge production and dissemination. Given that postmonolingual knowledge production was evident in the data collection, use of conceptual tools, and the consideration of the complexities of translation, further research into the possibilities for postmonolingual dissemination is warranted. From conception to execution, the research reported in this thesis involved my use of English and Tiếng Việt for managerial, ethical, empirical, and theoretical purposes. This thesis was shaped by informed decisions regarding postmonolingual research methodologies that recognise that these multilingual research practices stand in tension with the taken-for-granted monolingual use of only English for research publication purposes. Thus, the results of producing this postmonolingual thesis suggest that studying the knowledge contributions produced and disseminated through multilingual resources by other multilingual researchers in contrast to the taken-for-granted and exclusive use of academic English is necessary.

#### **8.5 Critical self-reflections on engagement in research**

This section, which concludes this thesis, provides some of my critical self-reflections about doing this doctoral research project. This exercise in critical self-reflection provides a vehicle for reasoning about and making meaning of my experience of doctoral research education, serving to add depth to my knowledge about what I have been doing for the past four years as a way of building potential connections with my likely future work/life trajectory.

This thesis owes much to the insights of Raymond Williams (1921-1988). We were both from working-class backgrounds, and we both went on to higher education and to work in universities. We both came from rural peripheries. Williams came from the Welsh borderlands having been colonised by the English, I am from the rural Việt Nam having been

colonised by the Chinese, French and Americans. Williams had a distinctive Welsh dialect, while I had a distinctive Tiếng Việt dialect. However, neither of our fathers were agricultural workers or farm owners. Our fathers worked in modern public services. Williams's father was a railway signalman, and my father was a medical officer. There are other parallels between Williams and me. We both experienced the personal contingencies of war — Williams in France, and myself in the American War against Việt Nam. Like Williams, before I had read any research describing and analysing the changes and variations in our ways of making a living, I experienced them through my childhood labours; contributing to earning the family income is what I was learning as a child.

### **8.5.1 *Nói có sách, mách có chứng*: Evidence-driven, fact-checked, and theoretically informed research**

The word-for-word translation of *Nói có sách, mách có chứng* is “Say with book, tell with evidence”. In other words, this Tiếng Việt metaphor means evidence is needed in making any claims. Engaging in research and working hard, I learnt to practise a genre of research best defined as “evidence-driven, fact-checked, and theoretically informed”. In particular, I undertook fact-checking by testing the claims made in interview evidence against university policy and extramural drivers, and vice versa, to provide a better a sense of, and a level of confidence to, question what was being overlooked in WIL policy practices. It took time for the curation of so much evidence.

In societies where Vietnamese women researchers can be stereotyped and caricatured, evidence-driven, fact-checked, and theoretically informed research is significant and powerful. Thus, I have tried to be careful in my choice of words throughout this thesis because I do not want my use of English to distract from the issues raised or to allow those with the power and knowledge to escape questioning, letting them off by pointing their fingers at my inappropriate use of English, while they dodge accountability for the dilemmas that they produce. To test my argument, I have invested time and effort not only in producing this thesis, but also in contributing to an international scholarly conversation in this field through publications I have produced during the course of this study. Accordingly, I have reformulated my argument in the light of counterevidence and contrary arguments from



which I have benefited, thereby enhancing the robustness of this thesis. However, self-care has also been a running consideration throughout my candidature, a necessity for dealing with the merciless demands of research work and family life.

Using language for producing and disseminating knowledge was an important learning I gained from doing this research project. Trying to write good English sentences did not help me with my research writing. As a lecturer in English, with 10 years of experience, I focused too much on grammatical issues in my research writing, which took time away from my need to express my ideas and arguments. After much time struggling in research writing in academic English, I realised that my supervisor's advice regarding crafting the logic of my argument through building coherent links and creating cohesive ties were as important as the need for me to use scholarly language in my research writing. I also learnt to make better use of my bilingual capabilities to generate ideas. I formulated arguments first in Tiếng Việt, which was easy for me to write down any ideas without obstructions of linguistic issues. Then during the crafting stage of my research writing in academic English, I shifted my focus to communicating with readers. It was then that I learnt what to do to craft the presentation of my research writing through ensuring coherence in my argument, creating cohesion through using ties to link sections, incorporating challenges raised against what I had said in conferences and seminars to build a stronger argument, and focusing on the point of difference between my research findings and exactly what other researchers stated in their work.

### **8.5.2 Intersectionality in power/knowledge and gender issues in research**

As a researcher, I am primarily interested in what is happening to the people who have the least opportunities for capitalising on their power and knowledge, and how my research can be a vehicle for advancing their efforts to rebalance power and knowledge relations. This makes the intersectionality of systems of injustice based on language, race, class, gender, and other factors a constant consideration in my research. In particular, this means that mainstream or liberal positions have to be challenged, points of hypocrisy have to be named regardless of who holds the centre of power and knowledge, and all parties held accountable.

While the study reported in this thesis focused on the use of WIL for young adults and children, their important responses were not included in this research because this was not a deliberate oversight but rather a decision made upon important ethical grounds that are fully justified. Nevertheless, this study shines a small light on young adults with disabilities and orphan children whose chances for language learning are limited. Direct evidence of language learning and use by these young adults and children has been overlooked in this study for various reasons. However, some insights into their leaning experiences have been brought into this study through the accounts of those with the power and knowledge to do better. My principal supervisor has a strong commitment to holding me accountable for my research, and I have worked to do the same with those with the power and knowledge to make WIL better serve young adults and children who have the least in terms of power and knowledge.

With the press for timely completion, often presented as a moral imperative by research management, one of my insights from this doctoral research project relates to gender issues. There were too many life projects for me as a female to undertake during this doctoral research study. I have had to manage my research work as a doctoral candidate, engage in time-consuming negotiations with research communities for permission to undertake this study, and do likewise with many participants who contributed valuable evidence for this study, while being a mother of twin sons who needed support through Years 2 to 4 in a new school culture. These were major challenges for me.

As a PhD candidate, I worked on many research activities including attending many research training workshops and scholarly seminars, and presenting my work at conferences to draw out the questions and challenges I needed to address in progressing my doctorate. Engaging in these important research activities required me to plan very carefully in terms of time and finances while maintaining my parenting role. I have had to deliver my sons to school by 9.00 a.m. every school day and collect them at 3.00 p.m. In the six hours in between, I worked in the library on my thesis. After supervising my sons in their homework and preparing the family meal, I returned to the library again to work until after midnight

while my husband cared for the children. This means that I have had to stay up very late to work on my research for the past four years.

Learning to become a researcher required me to know how to multitask. Taking care of my children, supporting them in their after-school activities, teaching them Tiếng Việt, connecting with relatives to maintain family relationships and cultural identity formation with internet phone calls, and taking them back to our home town during their school holidays has really challenged me. Some people may focus on just one priority at a given point of time. However, I could not delay any of these; as a doctoral student and a mother, I had to undertake these tasks simultaneously. Likewise, learning English for research publications purposes and how to incorporate Tiếng Việt into these publications was one of my ways of learning to understand the purpose of reviewers' feedback, whether it was from my doctoral supervisors, audiences at conferences, or written comments from reviewers. I also volunteered to review conference papers to develop my capabilities for contributing to this important scholarly work, which was so necessary to strengthen research integrity and quality. Learning is engaging in work, academic work, mothering work, and volunteering work. My engagement in these learning activities has been an integral part of preparing myself to further my academic career after completing my doctoral studies.

### **8.5.3 Dinosaur research and research methodology**

My thinking about research methodology was stimulated by the picture book *Boy, Were We Wrong About Dinosaurs!* (Kudlinski, 2005), which was my special gift to my 6-year-old twin sons who were then very interested in dinosaurs. This book recounts the more than one hundred years of research into dinosaurs: no timely completion here. After I read this book to my sons before bedtime, my boys surprised me as they unexpectedly kept asking questions that challenged me to read and think more about research methodology. The English translational equivalence for Tiếng Việt questions just aimed to give meanings of the contents that children communicated regarding their enquiries of dinosaur research. Thus, the word-for-word translation technique as part of theorising was not used in the following questions:

1. *Làm sao các nhà khoa học biết khủng long là gì hở mẹ? Làm sao mà họ biết thực sự là chúng trông như thế nào?*

(How do scientists know what dinosaurs are? How do they know what they actually looked like?)

2. *Vậy bằng cách nào các nhà khoa học giải thích cho người ta là họ biết về khủng long? Ủa, nhưng mà sao mỗi lần phát hiện mới về khủng long, người ta lại nói trước đó toàn sai thôi vậy?*

(How do researchers explain and justify what they claim to know about dinosaurs? Why have the latest findings about dinosaurs found the results of previous research to be wrong?)

3. *Làm sao mình tin được các nhà khoa học, vì mỗi lần họ nói về khủng long đều toàn khác nhau? Có đúng là người ta giữ gìn những gì thuộc về khủng long? Làm sao mình biết là họ làm? Hay họ có ai phụ giúp họ tìm kiếm ra nguồn gốc khủng long, ai đó giữ lại được cái gì về khủng long? Nếu có được xương khủng long, vậy xương đó của ai?*

(How can we trust these researchers given that their theories have kept on changing over the years? How can we trust them in looking after the dinosaurs' remains? How do these researchers relate to the people on whose properties the dinosaurs' remains were found? Who do dinosaurs' bones belong to?)

These questions helped me construct the relation of the three key terms in research methodology, namely, ontology, epistemology, and axiology. My children questioned why the researchers reached different conclusions about the dinosaurs at different points of time. They expected that the answers the researchers found at any one time should be the truth. My response to this was that at any given time, the researchers gave their findings based on the current evidence and theories they had, including theories of cause and effect. As researchers have found new evidence, asked new questions, and developed new theories, they have come to know more about dinosaurs, or so it would seem. The researchers have developed more informed inferences based on the accumulation of more evidence, which they have

interpreted through the lens of changing theories. Importantly, the book *Boy, Were We Wrong About Dinosaurs!* (Kudlinski, 2005) concludes with an invitation to the rising generation of researchers, including my sons, to continue this research to answer the many questions that remain to be posed and investigated. This gave my children the dream of becoming researchers; they said they want to find out more about the how, what, and why of dinosaurs in the light of anthropocentrism.

*Boy, Were We Wrong About Dinosaurs!* (Kudlinski, 2005) and my children's questions gave me insights into key issues of research methodology, which I read about during the course of this doctoral project. There are ontological issues concerning the question "What are these bones evidence of?" There are epistemological questions such as "How can we find out more knowledge from these bones?" Further, there are axiological questions concerning, "How should researchers relate to this nonhuman evidence?". There are ethical questions at stake here: "Should it be preserved or crushed into fertilizer?" This picture book gave me insights into the complex processes and issues involved in conducting any kind of research. There are questions about the length of time it takes for researchers to make a worthwhile contribution to knowledge; this seems like an intergenerational undertaking rather than a four-year project. Then there are different stages of doing research and the importance of asking questions, including interrogating the questions that have been asked.

What, then, is research? The dinosaur book raises key methodological questions or philosophical issues about researching the relationship between work and learning. Specifically, these questions include "*What is work-integrated learning (ontology)?*" "*How can we know what work-integrated learning is (epistemology)?*" "*How might a researcher relate to those involved in work-integrated learning?*" "*How might the researcher affect the nature of work-integrated learning through studying it (axiology)?*" In exploring WIL in the study reported in this thesis, it has been looked at from different angles, while knowing that either singularly or in combination, none of these would give the ultimate "truth" about WIL in language teacher education. Perhaps, at best, the evidence analysed about WIL in language teacher education in this study shows the limitations of previous research, and some instances have identified the points where it may have misled us. My PhD study in WIL in language

teacher education reported in this thesis has made significant original contributions to knowledge of WIL organisation and requirements for engaging with industry and conducting collaborative research in the following:

1. *Extending knowledge of issues in WIL*

While previous research focused on the benefits of WIL in students' professional learning at workplaces in terms of work readiness and employability, my investigation of WIL in language teacher education programs in Việt Nam and Australia in this study extended the knowledge of issues in WIL organisation, policy practice and the lack of theorisation. Given that organising WIL involves funding and resources as key issues, stakeholders' relationships are other major factors in WIL, and policy settings are integral to struggles of WIL practices.

2. *Tiếng Việt concepts as theoretical tools in developing theorising capabilities*

My doctoral study enabled me to question, critique and challenge existing literature that lead me to think of other possibilities in which research in WIL can be explored. As a multilingual researcher, I took advantages of my linguistic repertoire in Tiếng Việt as theoretical tools for theorising WIL, and interpreting the evidence of this study. Doing so helped me develop theorising capabilities using postmonolingual research methodology. In addition, I accessed sources of knowledge written in Tiếng Việt through extended research education networks of Vietnamese diasporic scholars (Appendix 14) from whom I learnt to improve my research capabilities.

3. *Supervising students in workplace learning*

Understanding the relationships and interactions between academic supervisors-students, students and mentors at workplace contributes to effective student supervision in workplace learning. Based on evidence in my doctoral research in WIL and other research activities I was involved in, I found that both academic supervisors and workplace supervisors need to have adequate training and work capabilities to supervise students' projects at the undergraduate coursework level, use specific

strategies for supervising these projects involved a spiralling scope and sequence approach to curriculum.

4. *Building strategic WIL engagements with industry, government and other academic institutions.*

Findings of this study indicate that there are challenges and potential problems in engaging with industry, government and other academic institutions in WIL programs. WIL organisation thus requires a range of strategies for connecting with world-class experts for initiatives and innovations through partnership; implementing WIL projects with the involvement of educational institutions, industry and government that benefit and influence global community; and research collaborations between industry and university, between education institutions through multi-disciplinary projects and government-funded industry-research schemes.

5. *Requirements to foster and/or maintain inclusive, respectful, collaborative and productive working relationships with WIL staff, students and colleagues at all levels.*

Along with findings from the research study reported in this thesis, and my experience of WIL as a volunteer ethics teacher in Australia (Appendix 13), I found that there are dilemmas in working relationships with staff, students and colleagues at all levels including engaging students experience inequality in WIL; poor communication due to bureaucracy from policy settings; privacy and human ethics through social media use in WIL programs; and allocating students, academic supervisors and workplace supervisors

For respectful and collaborative relationships among students, academic supervisors, workplace supervisors and university staff, it is crucial in clarifying:

1. Roles and responsibilities among staff, students and colleagues at all levels before starting a WIL program

2. Policy and agreement with stakeholders in WIL programs without affecting the benefits of each side

The productive working relationship needs to take the following into consideration:

1. Well-defined term of WIL for implementation
  2. Orientating for and training students before starting WIL programs
  3. Training and professional development for academics and staff in charge of WIL
  4. Recognising workload in WIL
  5. Managing and eliminating bureaucracy at institutions
6. *Preparing students' professional and transferable skills for employability*

Evidence in this study showed that WIL language teacher education programs required collaboration between university and industry in providing students with good background for building and developing professional skills and transferable skills in workplaces. They learnt work-related skills required for their teaching professions and other skills such as communication, problem solving and teamwork skills required by variation of employers, which is good for their potential careers. These transferable skills they obtained in WIL contributed to their work readiness, and prepared them for adapting to social changes in times of superdiversity.



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## Appendix 1: Two WIL programs

### English WIL Program

The following information of English WIL is extracted from the approved service-learning project proposal and the course outline of service-learning program initiated in May 2014 at English Department, Hoa Sen university.

#### 1. Learning outcomes assessment accredited as awareness internship for ELT

<i>Components</i>	<i>Assessment Forms</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Schedule</i>
1.	<i>Supervisor's assessment</i> Class observation (10%)  Working attitude and project's promotion (10%)	20%	<i>At the end of week 10</i>
2.	<i>Reflections</i> Report (25%) Layout – 20 points - Sections (heading, numbering): 5 points - Font size, line space, indentation: 5 points - Spelling and Grammar: 10 points Contents – 80 points - Introduction: 10 points - Community and working environment: 10 points - Work description: 10 points	40%	

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Reflection: 30 points</li> <li>- Recommendations: 10 points</li> <li>- Conclusion: 10 points</li> </ul> Lesson Plans (10%) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Format, spelling and grammar: 30 points</li> <li>- Contents: 70 points</li> </ul> Intern's Diary (5%) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Format, spelling and grammar: 30 points</li> <li>- Contents: 70 points</li> </ul>		
<b>3.</b>	<i>Presentation</i>  English Language Teaching at communities as workplace	40%	<i>To be scheduled after week 16</i>

## 2. Community supervisor's assessment

### Supervisor's comments

Full-name: .....

Student's ID: .....

..

Supervisor: ..... Community: .....

..

Evaluation: /20	Significant improvement is required	Addressed, though some improvement needed	Thoroughly addressed	
<b>General Performance</b>	Attendance and punctuality (extra activities and serviced classes at the community)			
	1	2	3	4
Group work (cooperate well with other team members for the SL Project's goals and objectives and in organizing extra-curriculum activities for learners)				



	1	2	3	4	5
	Creativity (frequent contribution of breakthrough-yet-practical ideas for the better implementation of SL Project)				
	1	2	3	4	5
	Communication skills (communicating effectively with community managers, peers and learners for the smooth implementation of the Project)				
	1	2	3	4	5

Date: .....

(Supervisor's signature)

### **Chinese WIL Program**

The following information of English WIL is extracted from the memorandum of understanding signed on 23<sup>rd</sup> July 2012 between University of Western Sydney, The State of New South Wales by its Department of Education and Communities, and The People's Republic of China Ningbo Municipal Education Bureau in Research-Oriented, School-Engaged Teacher Education (ROSETE) Program.

#### **1. Background**

On 3 April 2006 the Department signed a Memorandum of Understanding ("MOU") with the People's Republic of China ("PRC"). In the MOU, the Parties agreed to facilitate information exchange on curriculum support in NSW schools and curriculum reform in schools in the PRC.

In February 2007 the Department's Western Sydney Region signed an MOU with the University and the NMEB. The Parties agreed to promote, expand and research the study of the Chinese language and culture in Western Sydney Region schools. NMEB agreed to support the teaching of, and research into the Chinese language in Western Sydney Region by assisting in the recruitment of Volunteer university students to assist in stimulating the learning of the Chinese language; the provision of Chinese language teaching and learning resources and providing other related Chinese language learning in schools ("the Project").

On 10 August 2009, the Department signed an additional MOU with the National Office for Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language (Hanban). The Partners recognize that the success of the first five-year program was largely due to the student Volunteers' active engagement in a program of research oriented, school engaged teacher-researcher education, and that this is very important to the Project's future growth and success of stimulating the teaching and learning of the Chinese language and culture in Western Sydney Region schools.

## **2. Cooperation**

The MOU signed in 2012 was for a period of 5 years, and commence with the recruitment of a maximum of 10 student Volunteers for the 2013 intake, and end with the last cohort arriving in 2017 and completing their studies at the end of 2018, and graduating in 2019 if successful in their theses examinations.

## **3. Roles of partners**

- 3.1 The Department will provide support for, and expand the teaching, learning and research with respect to Chinese language and culture in Western Sydney Region schools.
- 3.2 NMEB will support the research education of the student Volunteers and the teaching of the Chinese language in Western Sydney Region of New South Wales Department of Education and Communities by assisting in the recruitment of student Volunteers to become teacher-researchers; the provision or development of Chinese language teaching and learning resources and providing other support related to teaching, learning and researching Chinese language education in schools.
- 3.3 The University, in conjunction with the other Parties, will support educational research and teacher-researcher education to stimulate the learning and teaching of the Chinese language and culture in Western Sydney Region schools. This includes providing research education and training programs at the Masters and/or Doctoral levels to student Volunteers from Ningbo with appropriate qualifications in the field of education. As part of this University program the enrolled students will participate in a scheduled program of study, including attendance at, and participation in a range of

designated academic activities, such as workshops, seminars, lectures, symposia and conferences. The University will also provide shared work stations, computers, printing and photocopying facilities and library services to support the research and teaching work of the student Volunteers.

3.4 The Partners will also explore the development of collaborative research and evaluation projects, for which external funding will be sought; explore possibilities for exchanging research and teaching personnel; and exchange research publications produced by Partners which are relevant to this project.

3.10 All fees and expenses relating to the student Volunteers enrolling in the Master of Education (Honours) (Med (Hons) or the Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) programs in education with the University, including international airfares, travel and accommodation while in Australia, health insurance, living expenses, and university fees will be the responsibility of the student Volunteers themselves.

3.11 All fees and expenses relating to school students and other students involved in this project who visit Department or NMEB schools, including international airfares, travel and accommodation while in Australia or China, health insurance, living expenses, will be the responsibility of the students themselves.

3.12 Arrangements for student Volunteers travel expenses including international airfares, accommodation and domestic travel will be made by their respective organisations.

#### **4. Living Allowance and Scholarships**

4.2 The range of Living Allowances and Scholarships specified are capped both in terms of the number of student Volunteers and in (\$Aus) dollar terms with respect to the level of contribution to be made by the Parties.

4.3 The Bureau will contribute to each student Volunteer a Living Allowance of AUS \$10,000 per year (AUS \$15,000 over 18 months) during the Med (Hons) program.

- 4.4 The Department will contribute to each student Volunteer a Western Sydney Region Scholarship of AUS \$3,000 per year (\$4,500 over 18 months) for participants in the MEd (Hons) program.
- 4.5 The University will contribute to each full-time MEd (Hons) research candidate in this program the UWS ROSETE Teacher-Researcher Award valued at AUS \$4,500 for on-time submission of their thesis prior to their return home.
- 4.6 The University will contribute to each full-time MEd (Hons) research candidate in this program 'candidature research funds' of AUS \$2,000 per year (\$3,000 over 18 months) to be used for the finalization of their thesis and participation in designated conferences and seminars.
- 4.7 The University will contribute an additional AUS \$2,000 per year (\$3,000 over 18 months) in 'candidature research funds' for those participants in this program who successfully apply to upgrade to a PhD from the Med (Hons) program, for use the finalization of their thesis and participation in designated conferences and seminars.
- 4.8 Funding arrangements for the PhD program will be subject to further negotiations by the Parties.

## **Appendix 2: Project Information Sheet**

### **English Version**

#### **Project Title: A Study of Service-Learning in Higher education: Creating Scholarly Commons through Intellectual Dialogues between Educational Cultures**

**Project Summary:** This project aims to explore the possibilities of theoretic-pedagogical improvements in institutionalization service learning in Higher education through case studies in Vietnam and Australia testing the theoretic-pedagogical potential of Vietnamese conceptual tools. It will examine the various ways in which service learning is named and implemented in these Western and Non-western university and community contexts. Based on this investigation, this study will show what service learning looks like, pedagogically in terms of the interrelationship between education and production.

You are invited to participate in a research study being conducted by Nguyen Thi Hong Nhung, School of Education, Western Sydney University.

#### **How is the study being paid for?**

The study is being sponsored by Western Sydney University and Vietnam International Education Development (VIED).

#### **What will I be asked to do?**

You are invited to participate in a semi-structured elicitation interview. Prior to the interview, you are invited to bring to the interview a document or an artifact (to be photographed for the research purpose of this project) that demonstrates your knowledge, experience, and skills you hold in relation to Service Learning. The interview will be as informal as a discussion.

**How much of my time will I need to give?**

It is estimated that it will take 60 minutes to complete.

**What benefits will I, and/or the broader community, receive for participating?**

You will be given an opportunity to think and speak about your experience of service learning and the role of this approach to learning in education systems. This will, therefore, be an opportunity to contribute to research into service learning.

**Will the study involve any discomfort or risk for me? If so, what will you do to rectify it?**

No discomfort is envisaged as you will be asked about your experiences and opinions related to your work life or your knowledge of the field.

**How do you intend to publish the results?**

All aspects of the study, including results, will be confidential and only the chief investigator will have access to information on participants. A report of the study may be submitted for publication, but individual participants will not be identified in the report. The minimum retention period for data collection is five years post-publication.

**Can I withdraw from the study?**

Participation is entirely voluntary and you are not obliged to be involved. If you do participate, you can withdraw at any time without giving a reason. If you do choose to withdraw, any information that you have supplied will be withdrawn at that stage.

**Data storage**

There are a number of Australian government initiatives in place to centrally store research data and to make it available for further research. For more information, see

<http://www.ands.org.au/> and <http://www.rdsi.uq.edu.au/about>. Regardless of whether the information you supply or about you is stored centrally or not, it will be stored securely and it will be de-identified before it is made available to any other researchers.

**What if I require further information?**

Please contact Nguyen Thi Hong Nhung should you wish to discuss the research further before deciding whether or not to participate.

Tel: +61 47360091 (Ext: 2091)

Email: 18286915@student.westernsydney.edu.au

**What if I have a complaint?**

This study has been approved by the Western Sydney University Human Research Ethics Committee. The Approval number is H11783.

If you have any complaints or reservations about the ethical conduct of this research, you may contact the Ethics Committee through the Research, Engagement, Development and Innovation office on Tel +61 2 4736 0229 Fax +61 2 4736 0905 or email [humanethics@westernsydney.edu.au](mailto:humanethics@westernsydney.edu.au).

Any issues you raise will be treated in confidence and investigated fully, and you will be informed of the outcome.

If you agree to participate in this study, you may be asked to sign the Participant Consent Form.

## **Vietnamese version**

### **Thông tin về đề tài nghiên cứu sinh**

**Tên đề tài nghiên cứu:** *Phát triển khả năng viết lý thuyết thông qua nghiên cứu về mô hình Học Tập Phục Vụ Cộng Đồng bậc Giáo dục đại học: Tìm kiếm chung học thuật thông qua đối thoại tri thức giữa các nền văn hóa giáo dục.*

**Tóm tắt đề tài:** Nghiên cứu này nhằm tìm hiểu các mô hình Học Tập Phục Vụ Cộng Đồng bậc giáo dục đại học thông qua nghiên cứu ở Việt Nam và Australia để thử nghiệm tiềm năng của công cụ Ngôn thuyết Việt Nam cho lý thuyết sư phạm. Đề tài được thực hiện để tìm hiểu mô hình Học Tập Phục Vụ Cộng Đồng được thực hiện, xem xét, đánh giá như thế nào trong các trường đại học và cộng đồng ở các nước phương Tây và phương Đông.

Trân trọng kính mời anh / chị tham gia vào đề tài nghiên cứu do nghiên cứu sinh Nguyễn Thị Hồng Nhung thực hiện dưới sự hướng dẫn của Giáo sư Michael Singh, thuộc Khoa Giáo dục, Trường Đại học Tây Sydney.

### **Kinh phí nghiên cứu như thế nào?**

Nghiên cứu được tài trợ bởi Đại học Tây Sydney và Cục Đào Tạo với nước ngoài của Việt Nam (VIED).

### **Tôi sẽ được mời đóng góp gì?**

Anh / chị được mời tham gia vào một buổi phỏng vấn. Nếu anh / chị nhận lời tham gia buổi phỏng vấn, anh / chị vui lòng mang theo một văn bản hay một vật phẩm nhỏ liên quan đến kinh nghiệm, kỹ năng và hiểu biết của anh / chị về lĩnh vực Học Tập Phục Vụ Cộng Đồng. (Anh / chị vui lòng cho phép tôi chụp lại vật phẩm đó về làm mẫu nghiên cứu). Buổi phỏng vấn sẽ giống như một cuộc trò chuyện vậy.



## **Tôi mất bao lâu cho việc tham gia này?**

Buổi phỏng vấn khoảng 60 phút

## **Nếu tham gia thì tôi sẽ được gì?**

Anh / chị sẽ có cơ hội để suy nghĩ thêm và đưa ra những quan điểm cũng như cơ hội đóng góp cho việc thực hiện mô hình Học Tập Phục Vụ Cộng Đồng ngày càng hiệu quả hơn trong thực tế và trong cả những nghiên cứu về sau.

## **Nghiên cứu này có đem cho tôi nhiều bất lợi hay nguy cơ gì cho tôi không? Nếu có, bạn sẽ làm gì để khắc phục điều này?**

Dự kiến là nghiên cứu này không có cảm giác khó chịu hay bất lợi cho anh / chị vì chỉ phỏng vấn anh / chị về kinh nghiệm và ý kiến của anh / chị liên quan đến công việc hoặc kiến thức của anh / chị về lĩnh vực này.

## **Kế hoạch công bố kết quả nghiên cứu của bạn thế nào?**

Tất cả những gì liên quan đến kết quả nghiên cứu, sẽ được giữ bí mật và chỉ điều tra viên mới được tiếp cận với thông tin về người tham gia. Khi công bố nghiên cứu này, thông tin cá nhân về người tham gia không hiển thị trong báo cáo. Thời gian lưu giữ dữ liệu nghiên cứu này là tối thiểu năm năm sau khi công bố.

## **Tôi có thể rút khỏi nghiên cứu không?**

Việc tham gia là hoàn toàn tự nguyện và anh / chị không có nghĩa vụ phải tham gia. Anh / chị tham gia rồi vẫn có quyền rút lui bất cứ lúc nào mà không cần nêu lý do. Nếu anh / chị rút lui, dữ liệu đóng góp từ anh / chị cũng sẽ được rút ra tại thời điểm anh / chị quyết định.

## **Lưu trữ dữ liệu**

Chính phủ Úc đã có những sáng kiến cho việc lưu trữ dữ liệu để sao cho thuận tiện khi nghiên cứu và giúp cho những nghiên cứu về sau. Để biết thêm thông tin, xem <http://www.and.s.org.au/> và <http://www.rdsi.uq.edu.au/about>. Bất kể các thông tin mà anh /

chị cung cấp hoặc về anh / chị được lưu trữ an toàn và nó sẽ đổi mã để không còn thông tin cá nhân trước khi dữ liệu đó chuyển giao cho các nhà nghiên cứu khác.

**Nếu tôi muốn biết thêm thông tin thì phải làm sao?**

Nếu anh / chị cần thảo luận thêm về nghiên cứu trước khi quyết định có tham gia hay không, vui lòng liên hệ Nguyễn Thị Hồng Nhung điện thoại di động: +61 47360091 (số nội bộ: 2091)  
Email: 18286915@student.westernsydney.edu.au

**Nếu tôi muốn khiếu nại thì phải làm sao?**

Nghiên cứu này đã được sự chấp thuận của Ủy ban Đạo đức nghiên cứu Đại học Tây Sydney.  
Số Phê duyệt là .....

Nếu anh / chị có bất kỳ khiếu nại về hành vi đạo đức của nghiên cứu này, anh / chị có thể liên hệ với Ủy ban Đạo đức nghiên cứu, theo số điện thoại văn phòng: Tel +61 2 4736 0229  
Fax +61 2 4736 0905 hoặc email humanethics @ westernsydney. edu.au.

Bất kỳ vấn đề nào anh / chị nêu lên sẽ được xử lý và điều tra đầy đủ và hoàn toàn bảo mật.  
Anh / chị thông báo kết quả.

Nếu anh / chị đồng ý tham gia vào nghiên cứu này, anh / chị vui lòng ký vào tờ Đồng ý tham gia.

# Appendix 3: Consent forms in English and Vietnamese

**Human Research Ethics Committee**  
Office of Deputy Vice Chancellor and  
Vice President, Research and Development



## Participant Consent Form

This is a project specific consent form. It restricts the use of the data collected to the named project by the named investigators.

Project Title: Developing Theorising Capabilities through a Study of *Service Learning in Higher education: Creating Scholarly Commons through Intellectual Dialogues between Educational Cultures*

I, \_\_\_\_\_ consent to participate in the research project titled "*Developing Theorising Capabilities through a Study of Service Learning in Higher education: Creating Scholarly Commons through Intellectual Dialogues between Educational Cultures*"

I acknowledge that:

I have read the participant information sheet and have been given the opportunity to discuss the information and my involvement in the project with the researcher/s.

The procedures required for the project and the time involved have been explained to me, and any questions I have about the project have been answered to my satisfaction.

I consent to participate in the semi-structured elicitation interview with audio recording and to allow photographic record and / or another form of record of any objects or documents, photographs, written excerpts, souvenirs relating to Service Learning / Work-integrated learning for the purpose of research.

I understand that my involvement is confidential and that the information gained during the study may be published but no information about me will be used in any way that reveals my identity.

I understand that I can withdraw from the study at any time, without affecting my relationship with the researcher/s now or in the future.

Signed: .....  
Name: .....

Date: .....

Return Address:  
NGUYEN Thi Hong Nhung  
Centre for Educational Research  
School of Education  
Email: [18286915@student.westernsydney.edu.au](mailto:18286915@student.westernsydney.edu.au)  
Tel: +61 47360091 (Ext: 2091)

This study has been approved by the Western Sydney University Human Research Ethics Committee. The Approval number is: H11783

If you have any complaints or reservations about the ethical conduct of this research, you may contact the Ethics Committee through the Office of Research Services on Tel +61 2 4736 0229 Fax +61 2 4736 0905 or email [humanethics@westernsydney.edu.au](mailto:humanethics@westernsydney.edu.au). Any issues you raise will be treated in confidence and investigated fully, and you will be informed of the outcome.

**VIETNAMESE VERSION**

**BẢN ĐỒNG Ý THAM GIA NGHIÊN CỨU**

Đây là hình thức đồng ý tham gia dự án và giới hạn việc sử dụng các dữ liệu thu thập cho đề tài nghiên cứu của chính nghiên cứu viên đề tài dưới đây:

Tên dự án: *Phát triển khả năng viết lý thuyết thông qua một nghiên cứu về Học tập phục vụ Cộng Đồng bậc giáo dục đại học: Tìm điểm chung học thuật thông qua đối thoại tri thức giữa các nền văn hóa giáo dục.*  
Tôi, \_\_\_\_\_ đồng ý tham gia vào các dự án nghiên cứu có tựa đề "*Phát triển khả năng viết lý thuyết thông qua một nghiên cứu về Học tập phục vụ Cộng Đồng bậc giáo dục đại học: Tìm điểm chung học thuật thông qua đối thoại tri thức giữa các nền văn hóa giáo dục.*"

Tôi xác nhận rằng:

Tôi đã đọc tờ thông tin tham gia và đã có cơ hội để thảo luận về những thông tin và sự tham gia của tôi trong dự án với nghiên cứu viên.

Tôi đã được giải thích các thủ tục cần thiết cho đề tài nghiên cứu và thời gian tham gia, tất cả các câu hỏi của tôi về dự án đã được trả lời thỏa đáng.

Tôi đồng ý tham gia vào các cuộc phỏng vấn gợi mở (có ghi âm), ngoài ra tôi cho phép chụp ảnh vật phẩm như văn bản, hình ảnh, trích dẫn, quà lưu niệm liên quan đến chương trình Học Tập Phục Vụ Cộng Đồng / Học xen kẽ làm việc cho mục đích nghiên cứu đề tài này.

Tôi hiểu rằng sự tham gia của tôi là bảo mật và những thông tin thu được trong nghiên cứu này có thể được công bố nhưng thông tin cá nhân của tôi trong kết quả thu được sẽ hoàn toàn bảo mật.

Tôi hiểu rằng tôi có thể rút ra khỏi đề tài nghiên cứu bất cứ lúc nào mà không ảnh hưởng đến mối quan hệ của tôi với các nghiên cứu viên hiện tại và sau này.

Ký tên: .....  
Tên: .....  
Ngày: .....  
Địa chỉ: Nguyễn Thị Hồng Nhung  
Trung tâm Nghiên cứu Giáo dục  
Khoa Giáo dục, Đại học Tây Sydney, Úc.  
Email: 18286915@student.westernsydney.edu.au  
điện thoại: +61 47360091 (số nội bộ: 2091)

Nghiên cứu này đã được Ủy ban Đạo đức nghiên cứu Đại học Western Sydney duyệt. Số Phê duyệt là: H11783

Nếu anh/ chị có bất kỳ khiếu nại về hành vi đạo đức của nghiên cứu này, anh/ chị có thể liên hệ với Ủy ban Đạo đức thông qua Văn phòng Dịch vụ Nghiên cứu Tel +61 2 4736 0229  
Fax +61 2 4736 0905 hoặc email [humanethics@westernsydney.edu.au](mailto:humanethics@westernsydney.edu.au). Bất kỳ vấn đề nào anh / chị nêu ra khi khiếu nại sẽ được xử lý một cách bảo mật đầy đủ, anh / chị sẽ được thông báo kết quả sau đó.

## Appendix 4: Research Protocol

<p><b>Project title:</b></p> <p><b>A Study of service-learning in Higher education: Creating Scholarly Commons through Intellectual Dialogues between Educational Cultures</b></p>	
<p><b>Investigators:</b> Principal investigator: Ms Nguyen Thi Hong Nhung, Principal Supervisor: Professor Singh, Associate Supervisors: Dr David Wright, Dr Jinghe Han</p>	
<p><b>Research aims</b></p>	<p>Primary aim: To characterise the dynamics of the forces governing the institutionalisation of service-learning in languages teacher education</p> <p>Secondary aim: To test the use of Tiếng Việt concepts as analytical conceptual tools for analysing evidence of service-learning in languages teacher education, and ascertain what this means for developing multilingual higher degree researchers' capabilities for theorising.</p>
<p><b>Research questions</b></p>	<p><b>Main research question:</b></p> <p><i>What are key factors effecting service-learning in languages teacher education in Vietnam and Australia?</i></p> <p><b>Contributory research questions</b></p> <p>1. What are the expressions of, and responses to changes in English and Chinese language teacher education service-learning programs?</p>

	<p>2. What challenges and opportunities arise in conducting English and Chinese language teacher education through service-learning?</p> <p>3. How is English and Chinese language teacher education organised through service-learning?</p> <p><b>Subsidiary research question:</b> How might Tiếng Việt concepts be used to interpret evidence of service-learning in English and Chinese language teacher education?</p>
<p><b>Research methods</b></p>	<p><b>Type of study:</b> A multi-site case study using a flexible research design</p> <p><b>Research sites:</b> Western Sydney University (Australia) and Hoa Sen University (Vietnam)</p> <p><b>Data sources:</b> Semi-structured interviews, workplace artefacts, education policies, and related reports</p> <p>Participants: (n=50)</p> <p>Vietnam: (n=25) academic supervisors (n= 6), community supervisors (n=4), students (n=10) and university managers (n=5)</p> <p>Australia: (n=25) academic supervisors (n= 5), school mentors (n=5), students (n=10) and university managers (n=5)</p>
<p><b>Preparation prior to data collection</b></p>	<p>Research ethics application (NEAF), State Education Research Applications Process (SERAP) and formal written forms of these ethics' approval</p>

	<p>Designing participant information sheets, participant consent forms</p> <p>Review interview skills</p> <p>Collecting education policy documents to revise interview questions</p> <p>Scheduling the interviews with a specific timeline</p> <p>Pilot interviews</p>
<b>Data collection methods</b>	<p>Recruiting participants</p> <p>Contacting participants</p> <p>Conducting interviews</p> <p>Following-up interviews</p>
<b>Planned data analysis procedures</b>	<p>Transcribing</p> <p>Translating</p> <p>Coding</p> <p>Analysing</p>
<b>Research report writing</b>	<p>Drafting, crafting and revising the thesis</p>
<b>Projected outcomes</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. An account of knowledge and power relations in WIL in languages teacher education</li> <li>2. Insights into the possibilities for analysing evidence of WIL using concepts from a language of other than English</li> <li>3. Understanding the potential contribution that bi/multilingual high degree researchers might make to doctoral education if they elect to use their full repertoire of languages-and-knowledge</li> </ol>
<b>Anticipated thesis structure</b>	<p>Front-matter: This includes acknowledgment, statement of authentication, table of contents, list of tables, list of figures, list of abbreviations, abstract.</p> <p>Chapter 1: Introduction</p> <p>Chapter 2: A Review of Research Literature in service-learning</p>

	<p>Chapter 3: Theorising service-learning in Languages Teacher Education</p> <p>Chapter 4: Research methodology and methods</p> <p>Chapter 5: How English and Chinese language teacher education is organised through service-learning</p> <p>Chapter 6: What opportunities and challenges arise in conducting English and Chinese language teacher education through service-learning.</p> <p>Chapter 7: What are the changes in English and Chinese language teacher education service-learning programs</p> <p>Chapter 8: Conclusion of service-learning in Languages Teacher Education</p> <p>References</p> <p>Appendices: includes all protocol-specific documents including participant information statement, consent form, and interview schedule</p>
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**Appendix 5: Full list of interview respondents<sup>15</sup>**

<b>Number</b>	<b>Name</b>	<b>Stakeholder type</b>	<b>Age group</b>	<b>Gender</b>	<b>Date of interview</b>	<b>Duration</b>
1.	Andrea	School Mentor	31-45	F	5 May 2017	60'
2.	Ashton	University Manager	46-65	M	13 March 2017	55'
3.	Cheng	Student	22-30	M	15 February 2017	50'
4.	Christine	School Mentor	31-45	F	25 May 2017	65'
5.	Dan Dan	Academic	31-45	F	10 March 2017	45'
6.	Duong	Student	18-30	M	27 October 2016	57'
7.	Eddie	Academic	31-45	M	11 March 2017	62'
8.	Emily	University Manager	46-65	F	4 April 2017	45'
9.	Giang	Academic	31-45	F	24 October 2016	52'
10.	Harry	Academic	46-65	M	14 April 2017	48'
11.	Isabella	University Manager	46-65	F	12 April 2017	41'
12.	Jilpa	Academic	31-45	F	14 March 2017	55'

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<sup>15</sup> Information was correct at the time of interview. Pseudonyms were used for ethical issues.

13.	Kim	Community Supervisor	31-45	F	7 December 2016	57'
14.	Liên	Student	18-30	M	2 November 2016	35'
15.	Lili	Student	22-30	F	16 February 2017	53'
16.	Ly	Hospitality Schoolteacher	31-45	F	5 December 2016	57'
17.	Mei Hua	Student	22-30	F	24 February 2017	56'
18.	My	Academic	31-45	F	30 November 2016	75' <sup>16</sup>
19.	Nga	Student	18-30	F	10 November 2016	51'
20.	Ngân	University Manager	31-45	F	9 November 2016	44'
21.	Peizhi	Student	22-30	F	12 June 2017	58'
22.	Phi	Academic	31-45	F	2 November 2016	38'
23.	Phụng	Student	18-30	F	27 October 2016	46'
24.	Tajon	Student	22-30	M	17 February 2017	51'
25.	Thịnh	Student	18-30	M	9 December 2016	33'
26.	Thu	Academic	31-45	F	3 November 2016	74'

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<sup>16</sup> Interviews were planned for 60 minutes each but some participants were willing to share more.

27.	Thuận	Student	18-30	M	26 October 2016	40'
28.	Tín	University Manager	31-45	M	9 November 2016	52'
29.	Trâm	Academic	31-45	F	11 November 2016	56'
30.	Trí	University Manager	31-45	M	12 November 2016	61'
31.	Trung	Student	18-30	M	28 October 2016	43'
32.	Văn	Academic	46-60	M	29 October 2016	54'
33.	Xiu Ying	Student	22-30	F	8 May 2017	69'
34.	Wanqing	Student	31-45	F	15 March 2017	59'

## Appendix 6: Interview Probes<sup>17</sup>

TYPES/ PURPOSES OF PROBES	PROBES
1. <b>Clarifying what the interviewees say</b>	<p>When you say administration, could you please tell me more about how the administrative procedures that affect students' engagement in service-learning activities?</p> <p>I'm not quite sure I understood "transferable skills", could you tell me about these?</p> <p>What do you mean by that? Any other examples that make you think your supervisor is not academically strong?</p>
2. <b>Being curious</b>	<p>Really, did they have any explanations?</p> <p>Oh, what about her expertise? Anything related to your research topic?</p>
3. <b>Getting more details from interviewees</b>	<p>Can you tell me more about why Chinese language was the target in the partnership? What if the school students fail the Chinese tests?</p> <p>Can you give me an example of what you call "the boundary of service and learning"?</p> <p>Did you ask them the reasons for the change here?</p> <p>Unfair? Why unfair?</p> <p>When facing the challenge of fundraising, do you have any ideas of setting up education partnerships? If so, any strategies for these?</p>
4. <b>Getting the interviewees reasons, rationale, justification – and feelings, thoughts</b>	<p>Why is engaging students with real world experience important to you?</p> <p>What is the reason for that?</p> <p>Why do students' workplace knowledge stand out in your memory?</p> <p>How did you feel about the lack of recognition from management as you mentioned?</p> <p>What was significant about doing research while supporting schools to you?</p>

<sup>17</sup> Other types of probes were also used during the interviews such as silent probes, uh-huh probes and echo probes

<p>5. <b>Asking about interviewees' response</b></p>	<p>Some school students refused to learn Chinese, could you tell me more about your thinking on that?</p> <p>Have you always felt this way about the saturation of student engagement in service-learning in English Language Teaching?</p>
<p>6. <b>Getting interviewees ideas on counterfactuals – counter-evidence or counter-arguments</b></p>	<p>I have recently read the university policy that requires community service experience as the preference for student recruitment. How would you feel about a policy like that?</p> <p>Some overseas service-learning programs involve students in work experience and also for promoting their home cultures and languages, what do you think about this?</p> <p>What do you think about some universities in the world sending students overseas serving the community as a part of education partnership?</p> <p>Suppose a potential employer in language teaching came to your university saying that he/she just needs students with formal internships, not service-learning experience in communities. How would you respond to that idea?</p> <p>In this article (<i>researcher showed interviewee the paper</i>), the author claims that university managers and local schools do not fully support students in service-learning programs leading the workplace challenges for students. How would you respond to that idea?</p>
<p>7. <b>Asking interviewees to review a range of possible influences</b></p>	<p>What do you think causes these challenges in making Chinese learnable for Australian school students in this program?</p> <p>You said changes, how do you think the university students' experience contributes to these changes?</p>

## Appendix 7: Ethics Committee Approval

Locked Bag 1797  
Penrith NSW 2751 Australia  
Research Engagement, Development and Innovation (REDI)



REDI Reference: H11783  
Risk Rating: Low 2 - HREC

### HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

1 September 2016

Professor Michael Singh  
School of Education

Dear Michael,

I wish to formally advise you that the Human Research Ethics Committee has approved your research proposal H11783 "Developing Theorising Capabilities through a Study of Service Learning in Higher Education: Creating Scholarly Commons through Intellectual Dialogues between Educational Cultures", until 31 May 2019 with the provision of a progress report annually if over 12 months and a final report on completion.

#### Conditions of Approval

1. A progress report will be due annually on the anniversary of the approval date.
2. A final report will be due at the expiration of the approval period.
3. Any amendments to the project must be approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee prior to being implemented. Amendments must be requested using the HREC Amendment Request Form: [http://www.westernsydney.edu.au/\\_data/assets/pdf\\_file/0018/491130/HREC\\_Amendment\\_Request\\_Form.pdf](http://www.westernsydney.edu.au/_data/assets/pdf_file/0018/491130/HREC_Amendment_Request_Form.pdf)
4. Any serious or unexpected adverse events on participants must be reported to the Human Ethics Committee via the Human Ethics Officer as a matter of priority.
5. Any unforeseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project should also be reported to the Committee as a matter of priority
6. Consent forms are to be retained within the archives of the School or Research Institute and made available to the Committee upon request.

Please quote the registration number and title as indicated above in the subject line on all future correspondence related to this project. All correspondence should be sent to the email address [humanethics@westernsydney.edu.au](mailto:humanethics@westernsydney.edu.au).

This protocol covers the following researchers:

**Michael Singh, Jinghe Han, David Wright, Thi Hong Nhung Nguyen**

Yours sincerely

A black rectangular box redacting the signature of Professor Elizabeth Deane.

Professor Elizabeth Deane  
Presiding Member,  
Human Researcher Ethics Committee  
Western Sydney University

## Appendix 8: SERAP approval letter



Ms Thi Hong Nhung Nguyen  
Bringelly Road  
KINGSWOOD NSW 2747

DOC17/264438  
**SERAP2017073**

Dear Ms Nguyen

I refer to your application to conduct a research project in NSW government schools entitled *a Study of Service Learning in Higher Education*. I am pleased to inform you that your application has been approved.

You may contact principals of the nominated schools to seek their participation. **You should include a copy of this letter with the documents you send to principals.**

This approval will remain valid until 22-Mar-2018.

The following researchers or research assistants have fulfilled the Working with Children screening requirements to interact with or observe children for the purposes of this research for the period indicated:

RESEARCHER NAME	WWCC	WWCC EXPIRES
Thi Hong Nhung Nguyen	WWC0822104V	06-OCT-2020


I draw your attention to the following requirements for all researchers in NSW government schools:

- The privacy of participants is to be protected as per the NSW Privacy and Personal Information Protection Act 1998.
- School principals have the right to withdraw the school from the study at any time. The approval of the principal for the specific method of gathering information must also be sought.
- The privacy of the school and the students is to be protected.
- The participation of teachers and students must be voluntary and must be at the school's convenience.
- Any proposal to publish the outcomes of the study should be discussed with the research approvals officer before publication proceeds.
- All conditions attached to the approval must be complied with.

When your study is completed please email your report to: [serap@det.nsw.edu.au](mailto:serap@det.nsw.edu.au)  
You may also be asked to present on the findings of your research.

I wish you every success with your research.

Yours sincerely

  
Dr Robert Stevens  
**Manager, Research**  
22 March 2017

**School Policy and Information Management**  
**NSW Department of Education**  
Level 1, 1 Oxford Street, Darlinghurst NSW 2010 – Locked Bag 53, Darlinghurst NSW 1300  
Telephone: 02 9244 5060 – Email: [serap@det.nsw.edu.au](mailto:serap@det.nsw.edu.au)



## Appendix 9: Invitation letter

**Human Research Ethics Committee**  
Office of Deputy Vice Chancellor and  
Vice President, Research and Development



### INVITATION LETTER

Dear Sir/Madam,

I hope this email finds you well.

My name is Nguyen Thi Hong Nhung. I am a Ph.D. student at Western Sydney University, School of Education. I hereby cordially invite you to participate in my research project.

**My research project entitled *Developing theorising capability through a study of service learning in higher education: creating scholarly commons through intellectual dialogues between educational cultures.***

My study aims to investigate how service learning is named and implemented through a multi-site case study in Vietnam and Australia testing the theoretic-pedagogical potential of Vietnamese conceptual tools.

Your participation in a semi-structured interview which will be audio-recorded for data collection in this project will greatly contribute to knowledge that the outcomes of this project may bring. You will be asked about your knowledge, involvement, and experiences in Community activities. You will be invited to give views on the programs of serving the community for learning, the relationships among students, university and community and possible changes or orientations that might help these programs be more beneficial and effective. If you are willing to participate in the interview, you will be invited to bring documents, photographs, written excerpts, souvenirs that demonstrates your knowledge, experience, and skills you hold in relation to service learning to be photographed for research purpose.

Your participation in this research is totally voluntary. You may withdraw from the audio recording at any stage without any penalty. If you choose to withdraw, your data will be withdrawn at that stage.

If you wish to receive a copy of the audio recording or the final research outcome of this project, I will be happy to provide that upon your request.

If you would like to know more about any aspects of the project, please feel free to contact me at +61 47360091 (Ext: 2091) or via email: [18286915@student.westernsydney.edu.au](mailto:18286915@student.westernsydney.edu.au)

I look forward to your response. Thank you.

Kind regards

Nguyen Thi Hong Nhung



**THƯ MỜI THAM GIA PHÒNG VẤN CHO ĐỀ TÀI NGHIÊN CỨU SINH TIẾN SĨ**

Kính thưa anh /chị

Tên tôi là Nguyễn Thị Hồng Nhung hiện đang làm nghiên cứu sinh tiến sĩ tại Đại học Tây Sydney, thuộc Khoa Giáo dục. Tôi xin trân trọng mời anh / chị tham gia vào đề tài nghiên cứu của tôi.

Tên đề tài nghiên cứu: *Phát triển khả năng viết lý thuyết thông qua một nghiên cứu về Học tập phục vụ Cộng Đồng bậc giáo dục đại học: Tìm kiếm chung học thuật thông qua đối thoại tri thức giữa các nền văn hóa giáo dục.*

Nghiên cứu của tôi nhằm tìm hiểu các mô hình Học Tập Phục Vụ Cộng Đồng được thực hiện như thế nào trong trường đại học và cộng đồng thông qua nghiên cứu ở Việt Nam và Australia và đồng thời thử nghiệm tiềm năng của công cụ Ngôn thuyết Việt Nam.

Sự tham gia buổi phỏng vấn (có ghi âm) của anh / chị sẽ góp phần quan trọng vào kiến thức mà kết quả mà đề tài nghiên cứu này có thể mang lại. Anh/ chị sẽ được mời chia sẻ về những hiểu biết, kinh nghiệm tham gia cùng quan điểm của mình trong các hoạt động cộng đồng, các mối quan hệ giữa các học sinh, trường đại học và cộng đồng và thay đổi có thể hoặc định hướng có thể giúp các chương trình này mang lại lợi ích và hiệu quả hơn. Nếu anh/ chị nhận lời tham gia, tôi xin mời anh / chị mang đến buổi phỏng vấn vài tài liệu, hình ảnh, trích đoạn văn bản hay đồ lưu niệm nhằm chia sẻ kiến thức, kinh nghiệm và kỹ năng của anh / chị liên quan đến mô hình Học tập phục vụ cộng đồng. Tôi xin phép chụp ảnh những đồ vật này cho mục đích nghiên cứu.

Việc tham gia của anh / chị trong nghiên cứu này là hoàn toàn tự nguyện. Anh / chị có thể rút lui bất cứ khi nào anh / chị muốn mà không ảnh hưởng đến công việc hay uy tín. Do đó, dữ liệu anh / chị đóng góp từ cũng sẽ được rút ra tại thời điểm anh / chị quyết định.

Nếu anh / chị muốn nhận lại đoạn ghi âm hoặc kết quả nghiên cứu cuối cùng của đề tài nghiên cứu này, tôi sẽ đáp ứng yêu cầu này của anh / chị.

Nếu anh / chị muốn biết thêm về bất kỳ thông tin nào về đề tài nghiên cứu này, xin vui lòng liên hệ với tôi qua số điện thoại +61 47360091 (Ext: 2091) hoặc qua email: 18286915@student.westernsydney.edu.au

Tôi rất mong được anh / chị nhận lời tham gia cuộc phỏng vấn. Xin thành thật cảm ơn.

Trân trọng

Nguyễn Thị Hồng Nhung

## **Appendix 10: Information sheet to principal**

Dear Sir/Madam,

My name is Nguyen Thi Hong Nhung. I am a Ph.D. student at Western Sydney University, School of Education.

Western Sydney University has given approval for my research. A copy of their approval is contained with this letter. I would like to ask you for support for undertaking my research project at your school. This study will meet the requirements of the Research Ethics Committee (Human) of Western Sydney University.

The project entitled '*a study of service learning in higher education*'.

### **Aims of the Research**

The research aims to:

- investigate the instances of Service and Learning in Higher Education through case studies in Vietnam and Australia
- examine the various ways in which service learning is implemented in university and community contexts.

### **The significance of the Research Project**

The research is significant in four ways:

1. providing schools and teachers with a greater understanding about the influence of work-integrated learning on the career development of school students
2. contributing to efforts to enable collaboration between 'industry' (broadly defined) and educational institutions through Service Learning.

### **Benefits of the Research to Schools**

The research findings will benefit schools in terms of the following:

1. Giving insights for educators and policymakers at schools for engaging students in service for learning
2. Giving insights into the relationship between teachers and students in curriculum development in schools.
3. Informing the improvement in pedagogies in language teaching

### **Research Plan and Method**

Interview data with schoolteachers will be collected. The teachers will be expected to share their experience, opinions and relevant artifacts in work-integrated learning by the program of teaching Chinese to school students. Permission will be sought from the teachers prior to their participation in the research. Only teachers who consent will participate. All information collected will be treated in strictest confidence and neither the names of school nor individual teachers will be identifiable in any reports that are written. The role of the schoolteachers is voluntary and may decide to withdraw the school's participation at any time without penalty. The data to be collected is not of a sensitive case and will not cause any harm or stress for participants.

### **School Involvement**

Once I have received your consent to approach teachers for this study, I will

- arrange for informed consent to be obtained from teachers
- arrange a time with your schoolteachers for data collection to take place
- obtain informed consent from teachers

Please find attached the copies of the Participation information, Invitation and Consent Form for teachers.

I look forward to your approval for this research. Thank you for taking the time to read this information.

Thị Hồng Nhung Nguyễn  
Researcher  
Western Sydney University

## **Appendix 11: Invitation letter to schoolteachers**

**Project title: a study of service learning in higher education**

Dear Sir/Madam,

I hope this email finds you well.

My name is Nguyen Thi Hong Nhung. I am a Ph.D. student at the School of Education, Western Sydney University. I hereby cordially invite you to participate in my research project. My research project entitled '*a study of service learning in higher education*'. This research project meets the requirements of the Human Research Ethics Committee of Western Sydney University, the approval number is **H11783**.

My study aims to investigate the instances of Service and Learning in Higher Education through case studies in Vietnam and Australia. It will examine the various ways in which service learning is named and implemented in these Western and Non-western university and community contexts.

Your participation in a semi-structured elicitation interview which will be audio-recorded for data collection in this project will greatly contribute to the outcomes of this project.

You will be invited to give views, share your knowledge, involvement and experiences in The Research Oriented School Engaged Teacher-researcher Education (ROSETE) program in which students from Western Sydney University volunteer to teach Chinese to school students at your school.

You will be asked about the relationships among students, university and schools and possible changes or orientations that might help these programs be more beneficial and effective.

If you are willing to participate, you are also invited to share some documents, photographs, written excerpts, and souvenirs relevant to this program. These items will be photographed for research purpose.

Your participation in this research is totally voluntary. You may withdraw from the audio recording at any stage without any penalty. If you choose to withdraw, your data will be withdrawn at that stage.

If you wish to receive a copy of the audio recording or the final research outcome of this project, I will be happy to provide that upon request.

If you would like to know more about any aspects of the project, please feel free to contact me at +61 47360091 (Ext: 2091) or via email: 18286915@student.westernsydney.edu.au

Your response will be highly appreciated. I am looking forward to working with you.

Kind regards

Nguyen Thi Hong Nhung

## Appendix 12: Interview questions for two WIL programs

### English work-integrated learning program

Types of stakeholders	Interview questions
<p><b>Academics</b></p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Could you please tell me about your role, in this service-learning program through teaching English to young learners?</li> <li>2. Can you share some of your impressive experiences when involved in this program?</li> <li>3. What are your views about what knowledge and skills were targeted in preparing teachers through this program?</li> <li>4. In your opinion, what were the students' learning outcomes?</li> <li>5. How do you think this program would help students with their future employment?</li> <li>6. Could you please tell me about assessing students' workplace learning outcomes?</li> <li>7. How are universities, students and communities connected?</li> <li>8. Would this program be worth doing in teacher education of other disciplines? If so, what amendments would you like to suggest?</li> </ol> <p><b>Vietnamese</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Anh / chị vui lòng chia sẻ vai trò của mình trong chương trình Học Tập Phục vụ Cộng đồng thông qua việc dạy tiếng Anh cho trẻ em?</li> <li>2. Xin anh / chị chia sẻ vài kỷ niệm ấn tượng khi tham gia thực hiện chương trình này.</li> <li>3. Theo anh/chị, chương trình này chú trọng vào kiến thức và kỹ năng nào của sinh viên để trở thành giáo viên?</li> <li>4. Theo anh /chị, sinh viên đạt được những kiến thức gì trong chương trình này?</li> <li>5. Theo anh/chị, chương trình này giúp ích gì cho nghề nghiệp tương lai của sinh viên?</li> <li>6. Anh / chị vui lòng chia sẻ thêm về cách đánh giá kiến thức sinh viên đạt được khi tham gia chương trình này.</li> <li>7. Trường đại học, sinh viên và cộng đồng kết nối với nhau như thế nào thông qua chương trình này?</li> </ol>

	<p>8. Theo anh/ chị, chương trình có thể áp dụng đào tạo giáo viên các môn học khác được không? Anh / chị có gợi ý thay đổi gì?</p>
<p><b>Undergraduate students</b></p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Could you please say something about you, your role, and the reasons for your participation service-learning program through teaching English to young learners?</li> <li>2. What do you think are your achievements in terms of knowledge and skills from this service-learning program? What you were your expected, unexpected outcomes of this program?</li> <li>3. What types of training were provided by the university or by the communities prior to and during this program?</li> <li>4. How were you supported by academics and community supervisors in your workplace learning?</li> <li>5. In your opinion, how are universities, students and communities connected to one another?</li> <li>6. What knowledge do you think you may have contributed to teaching English to young learners at communities?</li> <li>7. What were the opportunities and challenges for you in workplace learning through this program?</li> <li>8. How do you think this program could be improved?</li> </ol> <p><b>Vietnamese</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Bạn có thể chia sẻ một chút về mình, vai trò và lí do bạn tham gia vào chương trình Học Tập Phục Vụ cộng đồng thông qua dạy tiếng Anh cho trẻ em.</li> </ol>

	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>2. Theo bạn, bạn học được kiến thức và kỹ năng gì. Kết quả nào như mong đợi và không như mong đợi?</li> <li>3. Bạn được trường và cộng đồng tập huấn gì trước và trong khi tham gia chương trình này?</li> <li>4. Khi tham gia học tập kinh nghiệm môi trường làm việc trong chương trình này, bạn được giảng viên và nhân viên cộng đồng hỗ trợ như thế nào?</li> <li>5. Trường đại học, sinh viên và cộng đồng gắn kết với nhau thế nào?</li> <li>6. Theo bạn, bạn đã có đóng góp gì cho chương trình dạy tiếng Anh cho trẻ em?</li> <li>7. Tham gia chương trình này, bạn có những cơ hội và thách thức gì?</li> <li>8. Theo bạn, chương trình này có thể cải thiện như thế nào?</li> </ol>
<p><b>Workplace supervisors</b></p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Could you please say something about your role and contributions in this English teaching service-learning program?</li> <li>2. What knowledge and skills do you think students obtained through this program?</li> <li>3. How did the university collaborate with the community in this program?</li> <li>4. How were you involved in assessing students' professional learning outcomes?</li> <li>5. What challenges do you think existed in this program?</li> <li>6. Would this program be worth doing in teacher education of other disciplines? How do you think this program could be improved?</li> </ol> <p><b>Vietnamese</b></p>



	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Anh /chị có thể chia sẻ một chút về vai trò và sự đóng góp của mình trong chương trình Học Tập Phục Vụ cộng đồng thông qua dạy tiếng Anh cho trẻ em ?</li> <li>2. Theo anh/ chị, sinh viên đạt được những kiến thức và kỹ năng gì khi tham gia chương trình này?</li> <li>3. Trường đại học đã hợp tác với cộng đồng thế nào?</li> <li>4. Anh /chị được mời tham gia đánh giá quá trình sinh viên học tập kinh nghiệm làm việc thế nào?</li> <li>5. Theo anh / chị, chương trình này có những thách thức gì?</li> <li>9. Theo anh/ chị, chương trình có thể áp dụng đào tạo giáo viên các môn học khác được không? Anh / chị có gợi ý thay đổi gì?</li> </ol>
<p><b>University Managers</b></p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Could you please tell me about your role in the English teaching service-learning program?</li> <li>2. Could you please tell me what key educational values that this program targeted at?</li> <li>3. How important were partnerships in this program?</li> <li>4. How did the university collaborate with partner organizations in students' workplace learning?</li> <li>5. How did the university support students regarding finance, orientation, guidelines, facilities, personnel and time?</li> <li>6. What were the achievements and challenges of this program?</li> <li>7. What are your views about this program be worth doing in teacher education of other disciplines? If so, what are your recommendations?</li> </ol> <p><b>Vietnamese</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Anh /chị có thể chia sẻ một chút về vai trò của mình trong chương trình Học Tập Phục Vụ cộng đồng thông qua dạy tiếng Anh cho trẻ em?</li> <li>2. Xin anh / chị cho biết về những giá trị giáo dục quan trọng trong chương trình này.</li> <li>3. Vấn đề đối tác quan trọng như thế nào trong chương trình này?</li> <li>4. Trường đại học đã hợp tác với đối tác trong vấn đề kinh nghiệm học tập nơi làm việc của sinh viên</li> <li>5. Trường đã hỗ trợ sinh viên về mặt tài chính, định hướng, hướng dẫn cụ thể, cơ sở vật chất, nhân sự và thời gian như thế nào?</li> </ol>

	<p>6. Chương trình này đã đạt được gì và có những thách thức gì?</p> <p>7. Theo anh/ chị, chương trình có thể áp dụng đào tạo giáo viên các môn học khác được không? Anh / chị có gợi ý thay đổi gì?</p>
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### Chinese work-integrated learning program

Types of stakeholders	Interview questions
<b>Academics</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Could you please say something about you and your role, in this work-integrated learning program through teaching Chinese at local schools?</li> <li>2. Can you share some of your impressive experiences when involved in this program?</li> <li>3. Please tell me what knowledge and skills were targeted in preparing teachers through this program?</li> <li>4. What were the students' learning outcomes?</li> <li>5. How do you think this program would help students with their future employment?</li> <li>6. Could you please tell me about assessing students' workplace learning outcomes?</li> <li>7. In your opinion, how are universities, students, and communities connected?</li> <li>8. Would this program be worth doing in teacher education of other disciplines? If so, what amendments would you like to suggest?</li> </ol>
<b>Postgraduate students</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Could you please say something about you, your role, and the reasons for your participation in this work-integrated learning program through teaching Chinese at local schools?</li> <li>2. What do you think are your achievements in terms of knowledge and skills from work-integrated learning, specifically in this program? What you're your expected, unexpected outcomes of this program?</li> </ol>

	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>3. What training was provided by the university and the local schools prior to and during this program in terms of teacher-research and Chinese language teaching?</li> <li>4. How were you supported by academics and school mentors in your professional learning?</li> <li>5. In your opinion, how are universities, students and communities connected to one another?</li> <li>6. What knowledge do you think you may have contributed to teaching Chinese at schools through your research?</li> <li>7. What are the opportunities and challenges for you in terms of learning how to teach Chinese language and learning how to do teacher-research in this program?</li> <li>8. How do you think this program could be improved?</li> </ol>
<p><b>School mentors</b></p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Could you please say something about you and your role, in this work-integrated learning program through teaching Chinese at local schools?</li> <li>2. What were your contributions? Can you share some of your impressive experiences when involved in this program?</li> <li>3. Please tell me what knowledge and skills the students were supposed to gain through this program?</li> <li>4. How do you think this program would help students with their future employment?</li> <li>5. In your opinion, how are universities, students and communities connected to one another?</li> <li>6. How were you involved in assessing students' professional learning outcomes?</li> <li>7. What do you think were the significant challenges in this program?</li> <li>8. Would this program be worth doing in teacher education of other disciplines? How do you think this program could be improved?</li> </ol>
<p><b>University Managers</b></p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Could you please tell me about your role in the Research Oriented School Engaged Teacher-researcher Education (ROSETE) program?</li> <li>2. How do you think education partnerships contribute to this work-integrated learning program through teaching Chinese at local schools?</li> </ol>

	<ol style="list-style-type: none"><li>3. Could you please tell me what key educational values that this program targeted at?</li><li>4. How did the university support students in with regard to finance, orientation, guidelines, facilities, personnel and time?</li><li>5. How were partner organisations involved in students' workplace learning?</li><li>6. What were the achievements and challenges of this program?</li><li>7. Would this program be worth doing in teacher education of other disciplines? If so, what amendments would you like to suggest?</li></ol>
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## Appendix 13: My Work-integrated learning engagement

### 1. Training to be a volunteer Ethics Teacher



### 2. Training: Annual Child Protection Training (ACPT) course

Tuesday 6 November 2018

Dear Nhung,

Yesterday we enrolled you into the 2019 Annual Child Protection Training (ACPT) course. It's a practical refresher designed to help ethics teachers be confident and comfortable in playing their role to help protect children from harm.

You can [click here to launch the course](#) (you may need to pass through the login screen first) or you can find it on your dashboard.

### **3. Being acknowledged for contributions**

#### 3.1 Thank you email 2017

#### **[Thank you from the Primary Ethics office - and from 36,500 children!](#)**

Dear Nhung,

Congratulations on a fantastic year of volunteering with Primary Ethics. Your efforts made 2017 the biggest year for ethics to date. More than 36,500 children participated in ethics classes this year.

Let's let that sink in for a bit...36,500! That's a phenomenal effort. That's 2239 classes in more than 450 schools. Thank you for making that possible, and we hope you have a well-earned holiday break.

#### 3.2 Thank you email 2018

**[School's out! | Volunteer survey | New 'Applying policies' course | Upcoming training | Regional manager appointments | 2019 curriculum is live](#)**

Dear Nhung,

Thank you for volunteering in 2018! Together, we enabled 40,000 children to experience ethics classes. We dearly hope to see you back in 2019, when we are expecting to see a rise in families choosing the ethics option as information and enrolment becomes easier to access.

We've a couple of important updates to share below, along with our very best wishes for the festive season.

## Appendix 14: Extended research education networks

The following website and Facebook groups provide knowledge written in Tiếng Việt.

1. **Vietnamese Australian scholar: Professor Nguyễn Văn Tuấn (University of New South Wales)** <https://www.nguyenvantuan.info/>  
(Research skills, writing for publication)

nguyễn văn tuấn

nguyenvantuan.info

**Tuan V. Nguyen**  
Fellow of the American Society for Bone and Mineral Research  
Fellow of the Garvan Institute of Medical Research

**home** | **research notes** | **blog (in viet)** | **research** | **lectures** | **about me** | **contact me**

*Hello and welcome to my website!* I am a medical scientist who specializes in osteoporosis and bone-related diseases. My lifetime goal is to discover etiologic factors, including genes and exposomic metabolites, that contribute to the development of osteoporosis, and then translate the discovery into prevention of fragility fracture. I pursue both *clinical* and *genetic* research, often combining the two, to address issues that are transformational, shaping policy and practice leading to better treatment and control of osteoporosis.

I am a Senior Principal Research Fellow of the Garvan Institute of Medical Research. I currently hold 3 professorships in osteoporosis research ([UNSW Sydney](#)), predictive medicine ([UTS Australia](#)), and epidemiology (University of Notre Dame Australia). I also hold appointments as Distinguished Visiting Professor of Ton Duc Thang University (Vietnam), Honorary Professor of Danang University (Vietnam), and a number of other visiting

<https://www.nguyenvantuan.info/research-blog/how-well-garvan-and-frax-models-predict-fracture>

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nguyenvantuan.info/sci-writing

**Tuan V. Nguyen**  
Fellow of the American Society for Bone and Mineral Research  
Fellow of the Garvan Institute of Medical Research

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Cách viết bài báo khoa học  
Phần I. Cấu trúc bài báo (50 trang).  
PDF

Cách viết bài báo khoa học  
Phần II. Tiếng Anh  
PDF

Cách đọc bài báo khoa học  
PDF

**Cách đặt câu hỏi trong hội nghị**

Trong các hội thảo khoa học chúng ta biết rằng có diễn giả và khán giả (và chủ tọa). Diễn giả nói, khán giả đặt câu hỏi, chủ tọa điều phối hội thảo và trao đổi giữa diễn giả và khán giả. Đặt câu hỏi và bình luận trong hội thảo tối nghi cũng chẳng khác mấy "comment" trên các diễn đàn xã hội như facebook và blog. Có người hành xử lịch sự, người làm ra vẻ "ta đây" cái gì cũng biết hết, kẻ thì trịch thượng, người lại thích thoả mà người khác, v.v. (1). Nghiêm chỉnh mà nói, cách hỏi trong hội nghị cũng là cả một nghệ thuật. Dưới đây là vài kinh nghiệm mà tôi muốn chia sẻ cùng các bạn ở đây.

Có vài nguyên tắc văn minh (thực ra qui ước thì đúng hơn) về cách đặt câu hỏi trong hội thảo. Cũng chẳng có sách vở gì, tôi nghĩ đến những qui ước sau đây:

**Lịch sự.** Lúc nào cũng tỏ ra lịch sự với diễn giả. Nên nhớ rằng diễn giả cũng chịu áp lực lớn để đứng trên bục, và họ có thể quên, có thể nhớ không hết, có thể có thiếu sót nào đó. Vì thế, người đặt câu hỏi nên tỏ ra cảm thông cho diễn giả, và có thể bắt đầu bằng câu đại khái như "Có lẽ tôi nhớ không kĩ những gì anh nói, nhưng tôi muốn hỏi lại cho chắc chắn là ..." (*Perhaps I could not catch what you said earlier, but could I please clarify with you ...*).

**Ngắn gọn.** Thông thường phần thảo luận chỉ có 5 phút sau bài nói chuyện, mà có thể có nhiều người muốn hỏi, nên người hỏi phải hỏi ngắn, và đi thẳng vào vấn đề. Để hỏi một câu hỏi ngắn mà có ý nghĩa là không dễ chút nào. Để có người bắt đầu câu hỏi trong đầu của người khác thì không phải là điều dễ dàng.

ENG 8:49 PM  
US 8/13/2019

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Nguyễn Tuấn x +

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Nguyễn Tuấn

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DO YOU KNOW NGUYỄN?

To see what he shares with friends, send him a friend request.

1 Mutual Friend

Intro

vietnam born, australian citizen, sydney sider.  
www.nguyenvantuan.info

From Sydney, Australia  
Joined on August 2016

Nguyễn Tuấn  
11 August at 11:01

Phiên chợ quê. Phố Mỹ, Bình Định. Mới sáng sớm (6:30) mà trời sáng chum, nhiệt độ 28 độ C, sinh hoạt chợ búa địa phương đã nhộn nhịp, tất cả hàng quán đều mở cửa. Tiếng nấu vung vang, không thể làm lẫn vào đâu. Thờ kháo sát thì trường (lắng nghe người địa phương ra/trả giá):

- \* Một li cà phê đen: 6000 đồng
- \* Một tô bún tôm: 5000 đ
- \* Một ki lô khô qua: 3000 đ... See more

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