There are many issues which admission policy makers must consider. The article advances a number of criteria which they should adopt. Access and equity must be part of an admission policy so as to ensure that the policy does not discriminate in favour of or against any particular class of individuals. For example, a law school selection procedure with an emphasis on educational attainment will assist those students from a dominant culture and discriminate against all other groups. A progressive admission policy will recognise the link between the types of students it admits and access to justice. It should be able to be implemented with efficiency and standardisation, so as not to place undue stress on the resources of the faculty, and meet with the acceptance of the profession and community at large.

The article then considers the strengths and weaknesses of the different admission procedures commonly employed. Students may be selected purely by academic grades gained in the past. This type of selection requires very little input from the law school and is therefore administratively efficient, although grades are not necessarily reflective of student ability. Standardised psychometric tests have also been used to determine the likelihood of a candidate's success in legal studies. Competency ratings may be used, whereby students are tested for the presence of attributes which may be developed into competent professional skills. A structured interview may also be used which attempts to elicit those qualities of a candidate that could not otherwise be assessed, such as interpersonal skills. Candidate statements would allow potential students to present their considered motivations for studying law. The use of multiple selection critieria is suggested based on the above strategies in order to predict the compatibility of a student with the aims, objectives and teaching strategies of the course. The article offers four worked examples of multiple selection admission policies/methodologies.

EVALUATION

[no material in this edition]

FACILITIES

[no material in this edition]

FINANCIAL ASPECTS

[no material in this edition]

GOVERNANCE

[no material in this edition]

HISTORY

Soochow law school and the Shanghai Bar
A E W Conner
23 H K L J 3, 1993, pp 395-411

Traditionally, no private independent legal profession existed in China. Until the twentieth century, the only lawyers to practise there were foreign barristers, solicitors and attorneys and they did so in the confines of the treaty ports. A major development came in 1912 with the enactment of legislation officially recognising private lawyers and providing for their rights and duties. By the 1920s and 1930s Shanghai had become an important legal centre with a large legal profession and schools offering legal training. One of the most influential schools was Soochow Law School, also known as the Comparative Law School of China, which was sponsored by the US Christian missionary movement. Soochow specialised in teaching comparative law. It was the only law school to offer Anglo-American law and it maintained close ties with US law schools. Soochow contributed to the emergence of the modern legal profession in Shanghai and many of its graduates played prominent roles in legal and civic circles. The school rapidly acquired a national reputation, drawing students from 16 provinces. In 1927 the Soochow law school had its first Chinese dean, who was a former graduate. The expansion of the school was curtailed in the late 1930s by the central government in Nanjing and the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war. Japanese occupation forced the closure of Soochow which officially reopened in 1945. New plans for Soochow were swept aside by the 1949 Communist victory, although it continued to operate until 1952 when the PRC reorganised higher education.

In 1923 Dean Blume saw three main problems facing the law school:

(1) The low standards. These were created by inadequate resources, poor teaching and the admission of unqualified students. The solution was to raise the entrance requirement to two years at college. Soochow later developed its own preparatory school. Students enrolled at Soochow were required to attend class and maintain satisfactory standing in their courses or be asked to leave. Such strict programs drew high attrition rates, for example, out of 84 students only 28 attained the standard required to graduate.

(2) The lack of legal ethics. This was caused by the absence of a tradition of an established legal profession and the low professional behaviour tolerated during the 1910s. Blume's solution was to introduce first year courses on Christian Ethics and Legal Ethics. However, the

government discouraged the teaching of Christian ethics.

(3) The difficulty of providing a suitable education for law students. The most basic problem was to provide students with a legal education which would suit the needs of the country. Soochow's response was to teach comparative law and give students a mastery of the world's chief legal systems. Students took courses in Anglo-American, civil and Chinese law. The enactment of Chinese law codes in 1928 transformed the teaching content giving it a more national character. However, through the efforts of Sun Shelley, the study of foreign law continued on the basis that the ultimate purpose of comparative and foreign law studies was to improve the law of China. Soochow therefore maintained its character despite the promulgation of the Chinese codes. The faculty maintained that they should be free to teach all kinds of law and to criticise it as well.

INDIVIDUAL SUBJECTS/AREAS OF LAW

[no material in this edition]

INHOUSE CLE

[no material in this edition]

INSTITUTIONS & ORGANISATIONS

[no material in this edition]

JUDICIAL EDUCATION

Judicial education on equality
L Armytage
58 Modern L Rev, March 1995, pp 160-186

Judicial education offers an appropriate means of providing judicial accountability without violating the independence of the judiciary. Inquiries into complaints about the judiciary have lead to the introduction of judicial education on gender and ethnic awareness. The emergence of these issues may be due to the changing roles of women in society and the increasing recognition of plurality in communities. The judiciary is undergoing a process of professionalisation, whereby it is seeing itself as a distinct profession to that of the legal profession and not merely an arm of government or a body of public servants. One way in which a profession can shield itself from public complaint and the threat of government regulation is to put in place a system of continuing education. However, attitudes of the judiciary towards judicial education in Australia have been and continue to be very mixed.

In the realm of gender and race equality in the judiciary, continuing judicial education has been charged with a remedial role and operating as an agent for change. In Australia a number of inquiries have tried to assess the need for judicial education on gender and ethnic awareness. Whatever the existence of the need, it is argued that the credibility of the judiciary is impaired if it is not seen to be redressing these perceived problems. These reports, combining with some measure of endorsement of the media coverage (especially the judges' rulings in three rape trials which brought about public criticism of judicial attitudes to women) have been instrumental in the judiciary undergoing a period of intense self-reflection, leading to the recognition of the need for judge-led education on equality.

The educational strategies that aim to educate judges should be firmly based on adult learning theories. However, these foundations should be specifically designed to support the distinctive requirements and learning characteristics of judges. Adult learning is characterised by autonomous, self-directed learning, building upon personal experience with an emphasis on immediacy of application. It has been suggested therefore, that judges epitomise adult learners. Judges, as professionals, possess certain characteristics as learners which should be utilised in the development of equality education.

However, there are also distinctively different features of judges as learners. Judicial appointment establishes a particular threshold of pre-existing competency in legal knowledge and skill. Judicial tenure may affect a judge's motivation to learn. The preferred learning styles of judges tend to be autonomous and entirely self-directed, but exhibit an intensely short-term problem orientation. The motivation for judges' participation in continuing education is largely to develop competence in an area. The lack of importance of job security because of judicial tenure, of professional advancement and of personal benefits have serious implications for planning educational programs.

There are policy issues involved with judicial education. The author submits that the voluntary characteristic of judicial education is of fundamental importance. Judicial education should be judge-led. This should mean that judges should own