The Management of Intercultural Academic Interaction

The Management of Intercultural Academic Interaction: Student Exchanges between Japanese and Australian Universities

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In loving memory of my father
Akira Nemoto

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

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PREFACE

As university student exchanges provide participants with increasing opportunities to involve themselves into different academic cultures, it has become crucial to gain a better understanding of cultural contact between academic systems and to recognise how exchange students with diverse academic backgrounds interact in a host academic context. This study provides insights into this research area by analysing six Japanese exchange students' management of intercultural academic interaction at an Australian university, as well as examining the impact of the structural arrangements of the student exchange program on their participation. The data collection procedures, including a diary study, interviews with students, teachers, and exchange program staff, questionnaires, and a collection of written documents, allowed this study to triangulate the data and to present a thick ethnographic description.

In this study, the theory of language management is utilised alongside of the concept of legitimate peripheral participation and a socio-constructionist genre theory to investigate the cognitive and situated nature of the management processes. The theory of language-in-education planning is also applied to examine the policies and practices of the student exchange program at the host university. Focussing on Japanese exchange students' responses to various academic tasks as well as to their everyday participation in class, the present study mainly analyses the students' negotiation of norms, their awareness and evaluations of contact situation phenomena, their planning and implementation of management strategies, evaluation of the effectiveness of the strategies, and, in occasional cases, their discontinuation of academic management.

The findings suggested that even though students frequently had difficulties negotiating norms, they could manage their participation by transferring their previously-developed knowledge and skills, creating new strategies, and relying upon other host community members. On the other hand, their academic management was occasionally constrained due to insufficient noting and evaluation of contact situation phenomena, avoidance and abandonment of implementing strategies, and lack of reviewing the effectiveness of their strategies. I have argued that their development of academic management competence was interrelated with their goals, motivational investment, and social networks. All of these factors also influenced the developmental processes of their academic

participation. This study, furthermore, indicated a number of obstacles to developing systems of academic support, credit transfer, and subject arrangements. Policies and practices in the student exchange program did not always facilitate the students becoming fuller participants in the host community.

Based on the findings, this study provides important theoretical implications for sociolinguistic research and SLA studies by discussing the detailed mechanisms of academic management, and by reconsidering the importance of the integration of sociocultural perspectives into the cognitive process of intercultural academic interaction. From a pedagogical point of view, the study also indicates that Australian host universities need to systematise support systems for incoming exchange students by improving their evaluation mechanisms of policy implementation, by consolidating reciprocal collaboration in credit transfer with partner universities, and by further developing individual linkages and reciprocal relationships between incoming exchange students and their Australian counterparts.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview of Student Exchanges and Intercultural Academic Interaction

Nowadays, globalisation of higher education allows various learning opportunities across cultural borders. Some universities enthusiastically organise in-country language programs, which are integrated into regular courses, and others emphasise the export of education by providing offshore programs or establishing global distance education through online teaching. Besides these recent trends, student exchanges, which can reciprocally promote the policy of internationalisation at the home and host universities, have been more widely undertaken as one of the traditional approaches to developing educational globalisation and students' intercultural competencies (cf. Gochenour 1993; Wallace 1993; Clyne and Rizvi 1998; Fantini, Arias-Galicia and Guay 2001; Daly 2002; Daly and Barker 2005).

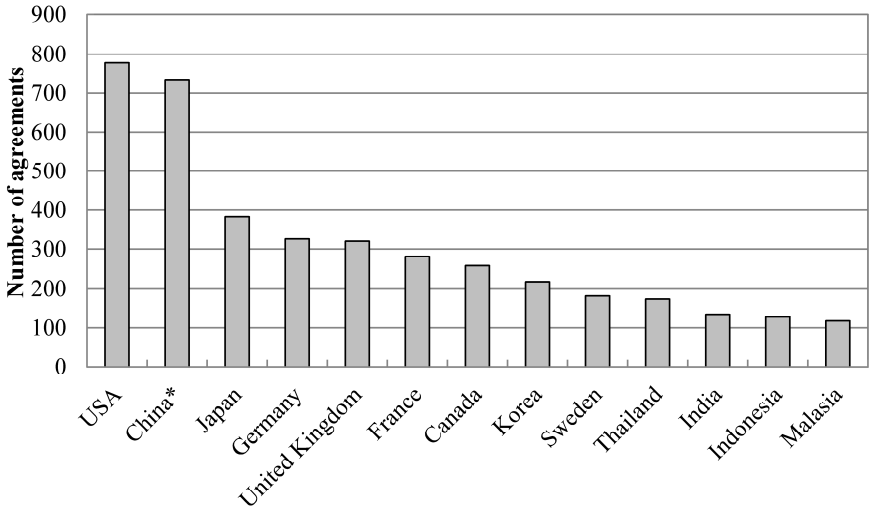
As student exchanges, which principally range from a one-semester to a full academic year enrolment in overseas universities, become widespread, there are growing needs for higher institutions to make allowances for the intercultural variety of educational systems, including the language practices that the systems authorise and the norms that they establish. It is also necessary for universities to evaluate exchange students' intercultural academic interaction, which occurs in "the processes of cultural contact" between varying academic systems (Neustupny 2004: 5). Student exchange programs enable exchange students to involve themselves in regular courses along with regular students and to transfer the credits, which they obtain at their host universities, as a part of their degrees at their home universities. On the other hand, through their participation in a host university, the students are frequently required to negotiate their home norms with host norms and to manage their adjustment to host academic systems. Allowing for variations of academic systems and students' individual academic experiences, this study

discusses individual cognitive and sociocultural processes of Japanese exchange students' management of their intercultural academic interaction in an Australian host university (AU). Furthermore, an investigation is made about how AU structures the student exchange program to assist incoming students' academic interaction.

1.2 Student Exchanges and Japanese Exchange Students

The university exchange agreements, which student exchange programs are based on, constitute a part of formal agreements with overseas higher education institutions. Universities Australia (2009) reports that Australian universities have 5,561 formal agreements in 2009, which involve not only student exchanges but also study abroad arrangements, staff exchanges, and academic or research collaboration. Student exchanges occupy 62.7% of the agreements in 2009, which is approximately equivalent to 3,489 out of 5,561 agreements and is the highest rate out of the four categories (Universities Australia 2009). Among all countries, as shown in Figure 1.1, Japan is the third largest provider of formal agreements for Australian universities behind the U.S.A and China.

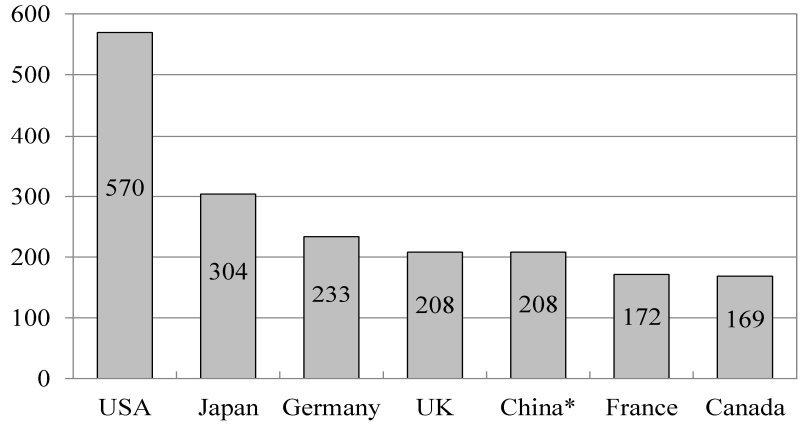
Figure 1.1: Formal agreements by country



*Including Hong Kong and Macau.
Source: Universities Australia "International Links of Australian Universities", May 2009

However, with regard to student exchanges, Japan occupies a larger proportion and provides the second largest partnership with Australian universities among all countries. Figure 1.2 reports that there exist 304 exchange agreements between Australian and Japanese universities.

Figure 1.2: The number of student exchange agreements between Australian and overseas universities



*Including Hong Kong
Source: The Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee (the AVCC)[1] "International Links of Australian Universities", May 2003

These student exchange partnerships between universities in both countries enable frequent student movement between both countries. In Table 1.1 below, the flow of exchange students from Australia to overseas universities shows that Japan was the second most popular destination for Australian students on exchange from 1996 to 1998 and the third from 1999 to 2001. Still, the number of Japanese exchange students, who have been sent to Australian universities, has been consistently growing from 1996 until 2001. In Australian universities, these students are thus a conspicuous cohort in student exchanges, since they constitute not only the third largest cohort among all the groups of exchange students but also by far are the largest among the non-English-speaking background (NESB) exchange students.

[1] Universities Australia's predecessor organisation.

Table 1.1 Number of exchange students sent and received by Australia

Country of host institution	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Exchange Students Sent by Australia						
Canada	168	161	264	349	395	492
China	61	65	55	78	36	40
Indonesia	40	30	41	25	37	17
Japan	208	211	271	232	242	249
Korea	31	42	39	45	40	27
Thailand	54	49	20	23	39	18
USA	369	443	604	597	654	653
Other countries	377	400	648	746	1,004	1,147
Total Sent	1,308	1,401	1,942	2,095	2,447	2,643
Exchange Students Received by Australia						
Canada	225	320	301	313	371	457
China	5	15	6	5	4	17
Indonesia	11	2	0	1	6	0
Japan	171	173	250	280	277	312
Korea	77	60	48	55	69	76
Thailand	11	39	8	21	32	83
USA	560	703	876	952	998	1,038
Other countries	600	757	1,134	1,408	1,642	2,151
Total Received	1,660	2,069	2,623	3,035	3,399	4,134

*China includes Hong Kong.
Source: UMAP Survey 2002, the AVCC 2005

The increasing movement of students on exchange from Japan to Australia has intensified cultural contact between the academic systems of Japanese and Australian universities and has encouraged Australian host universities not only to recognise and evaluate the variation of academic systems but also consider strategies of adjustment (cf. Neustupny 2004). Although Japanese exchange students are a subgroup of international students, their attitudes towards participation in a host university might differ from other NESB international students in that exchange students do not necessarily need to obtain credits at host universities. However, the nature of student exchanges requires Japanese exchange students to be responsible for completing their one-academic-year studies at host universities as representatives of their home universities. Thus, irrespective of their requirement of credits at host universities, it is still necessary for the students to be regular participants and achieve well in their host academic contexts rather than participating partially as visiting students. On the other hand, they are characteristically different from other NESB international students on the grounds that they have membership in two

different communities; while belonging to their home universities they temporarily participate in host institutions. Hence, NESB exchange students, who possess multiple community memberships and are required to experience two different types of community practices one after another, are likely to be more sensitive to the variety of academic systems than are other categories of international students.

In spite of these distinctive characteristics of NESB exchange students, they tend to be administratively categorised into a large group with other international students and are required to individually enrol in the courses at Australian universities. Such homogeneous categorisation is likely to not only cause us to overlook the presence of exchange students at an Australian university context but also to hinder an identification of their adjustment struggles in host academic settings. Given that Japanese universities currently provide Australian universities with the second largest exchange partnerships among all countries and the largest partnerships among non-English speaking countries, more attention needs to be paid to the ways Japanese exchange students participate in Australian host institutions. However, there has been a dearth of research on student exchange programs at the tertiary level and exchange students' participation in an overseas university academic context, so far. This study thus sheds light on such aspects and aims to promote the establishment of better exchange partnerships between Australian and Japanese universities.

1.3 Variations of Academic Interactions

Since the number of NESB international students grows at higher institutions in English-speaking countries, "some groups no longer have a monopoly in education nor is it any more enough to base education exclusively on the standard variety used by dominant groups" (Corson 1999: 14). The presence of these NESB international students should thus encourage universities to consider the new educational needs that such students bring with themselves as well as the problems they experience in university academic contexts.

Before narrowing down the focus to Japanese exchange students, this section discusses these international students' participation in academic settings and the diversity of academic interactions in interculturally different academic systems. Such discussions centre on some of the principal attributes of cultural contact, including characteristics of discourse communities and contact situations, variations of students' academic backgrounds, and the situated nature of academic interaction.

1.3.1 Discourse communities and contact situations

A discourse community involves sets of common goals and constitutes a group of people who share certain language-using practices, including stylistic conventions and canonical knowledge which regulates the world views of group members and how they interpret experience (Swales 1990; Bizzell 1992). Thus, academic discourse communities not only entail culturally, locally, institutionally, and disciplinary different characteristics but also they are distinguished by the language-using practices which the members conduct to achieve their academic goals rather than in the linguistic characteristics of text types and genres, which happen as a result of their strong communal motivations (cf. Swales 1998).

To participate in a discourse community, an individual has to learn the conventions, such as common goals, participatory mechanisms, community-specific genres, a highly specialised terminology, and a high general level of expertise (Swales 1990; Flowerdew 2000). However, the processes of participation can be more complicated when we allow for people's cross-cultural flow from one community to another in that the movement tends to give rise to situations which involve the cultural contact of different language-using practices. Neustupny (1985, 1994, 2004) defines such situations as contact situations, which emerge when norms of more than one system are applied in a particular situation. Taking into account not only intercultural but intracultural differences in contactness, Neustupny (1985, 1994, 2004) distinguished two types of contact situations, specifically, internal and external situations. Internal contact situations may be characterised by variations in social status, gender, age, degree of competence, and other similar features, whereas external contact situations represent intercultural contactness which is defined by a cluster of features operating across the boundaries of national networks. The NESB international students' participation in a university context in English-speaking countries involves a number of external academic contact situations.

Neustupny claims that contact situations must be viewed not merely as situations in which processes of linguistic misunderstanding occur, but as situations in which a number of social processes emerge. Given that interaction fulfils various functions, which cover objectives or aims, motivation, targets, and needs, academic contact situations involve different functions of academic interaction (cf. Neustupny 2004). Therefore, education can routinely repress, dominate, and disempower language users whose practices may differ from the norms that it establishes (Corson 1999). Focussing on the nature of these academic contact situations, the processes of how NESB students gain entry into the

target discourse community and negotiate their participation need to be examined.

1.3.2 Variations of students' academic backgrounds

Identification of various NESB international students' academic backgrounds can be a useful indicator of the degree of cultural contact in academic systems between their home countries and Australia. It also leads to a better understanding of difficulties in their adjustment to the host academic context. However, the approaches of viewing variations of NESB international students' academic backgrounds, which have been predominantly utilised in previous studies, tend to overgeneralise the variations.

Much previous research has attributed international students' difficulties in developing English academic competence to intercultural differences in learning and teaching styles. Ninnes, Aitchison and Kalos (1999) described this overgeneralised paradigm as a cultural-deficit approach. In this approach, researchers have stressed that most learning experiences and strategies brought by international students to a university context in English-speaking countries are inadequate and can give rise to mismatches between such students' and their teachers' expectations (cf. Ninnes *et al.* 1999). Such a perspective homogeneously categorises academic systems by the areas where the international students come from, or by their countries of origin. It has also promoted the stereotypical interpretation of Asian students as engaging in rote learning, receiving knowledge passively, having too high a deference for teachers, and lacking critical evaluation skills (cf. Samuelwicz 1987; Ballard and Clanchy 1991; Kember and Gow 1991; Yap 1997). Proponents of the above-described approach argue that reproductive and surface learning, which Asian students experienced in teaching-centred learning environments, is totally different from academic approaches in English-speaking countries, involving critical and analytical evaluations and independent work to develop and exhibit skills in debating, discussing, and arguing and, at least in formal assessments, in applying and manipulating knowledge (cf. Ballard 1989; Ninnes *et al.* 1999).

However, such an approach disregards the fact that the academic systems in English-speaking countries do not necessarily require students to adopt critical and analytical thinking (cf. Volet, Renshaw and Tietzel 1994). Also, given that there exist substantial variations in teaching and learning from one country to another, including institutional differences as well as the courses taken, we cannot overgeneralise all international

students, particularly all Asian students, into a homogeneous group. We cannot, furthermore, regard all of their home educational experiences as inapplicable in English-speaking countries (cf. Burns 1991; Charlmers and Volet 1997; Ninnes *et al.* 1999). Such arguments have given rise to a cultural-proficiency approach which constitutes the counterpart of a cultural-deficit approach. This approach stresses that, in spite of variations in learning across cultures, the strategies international students used in their home countries can, to some extent, be effectively implemented in English-speaking countries (Biggs 1991, 1996, 1997; Volet *et al.* 1994; Volet and Renshaw 1996; Charlmers and Volet 1997; Mugler and Landbeck 1997). This perspective can further encourage the recognition that NESB international students' participation in Australian universities varies depending on the intracultural differences in their academic backgrounds, which include local, institutional, and individual variations as well as in levels of previous academic achievements in their home countries, such as completion of high school education, undergraduate or postgraduate courses.

When we examine the cultural contact of the academic systems, it is thus effective not only to utilise a problem-oriented approach, which emphasises problems regarding NESB international students participation in the target academic systems but also to adopt an individual proficiency-based approach, which underscores these students' individual different proficiency in applying their prior knowledge and skills in the host academic discourse communities.

1.3.3 The situated nature of academic interaction

An investigation of the processes of academic interaction rather than merely examining end-products has been emphasised in recent decades (cf. Clyne 1994; Hyland 2002; Nemoto 2002; Neustupny 2004). This approach has furthered a consideration of learning processes as situated and has led us to view learning as not only involving cognitive and meta-cognitive processes but also sociocultural ones (cf. Casanave 1992; Harklau 1999, 2000; Morita 2000, 2004; Toohey 2000; Duff 2001, 2002; Nemoto 2004). Given that academic contact situations may involve a clash of socially-recognised ways of undertaking appropriate interaction, it is effective to employ a sociocultural view of NESB international students' learning in a certain community, to identify socially-constructed practices, and to examine the impact of social power on their participation in the community.

Berkenkotter (1991) stresses the importance of the social-cognitive perspective, stating that to foreground individuals as an active, constructive agent of meaning can lead to ignoring the myriad social and historical factors present in the situations. Reinforcing his view, Norton and Toohey (2002), referring to second language acquisition, stress that learners are not only learning a linguistic system but they are also learning a diverse set of sociocultural practices, often best understood in the context of wider relations of power. Riazi (1997) also indicates that the key issue to conceptualising learning in terms that are useful for education is to find out how individual intention and agency insert themselves within culturally- and socially-organised practices and help construct the practices. These claims imply that the activities that students are required to undertake in a certain community are socially constructed in relation to the other community members, teachers' expectations, the beliefs, values, and conventions of the community. Students' activities are thus not static events but can be viewed as dynamic actions in relation to the surrounding rhetorical situations. For instance, with regard to writing, Hyland (2002) explicates the perspective of seeing writers' actions as situated in a specific context. He notes that writing is influenced not only by the personal attitudes and social experiences that the writer brings to writing but also by the impact of particular political and institutional contexts in which it takes place.

Freedman and Medway (1994) claim that not only writing but also utterances involve ways of acting in the social world. Such actions require the consideration and understanding of the context in the way that it is understood by the participants, because a context and the participants' understanding of the text define the meaning or at least the range of possible meanings. Hence, language or discourse needs to be investigated not as a set of idealised forms, but rather as situated utterances in which speakers, in dialogue with others, struggle to create meanings (Bakhtin 1981, 1984, 1986). As argued by Bourdieu (1977, 1984), the value ascribed to speech cannot be understood apart from the person who speaks and the person who speaks cannot be understood apart from the larger networks of social relationships.

The other concept of describing the situated nature of cultural conventions and practices is Bourdieu's (1984) "cultural capital". He claims that all sociocultural groups possess esteemed cultural capital, but that it is not always the same form of capital that is recognised and valued in education, or esteemed in other formal sites. By moving from one cultural field or context to another, power relationships change, and different types of cultural capital become more or less valued. Bourdieu's

concept of linguistic capital further elaborates socioculturally different language use. The concept involves not only grammatical competence of a certain language but also the ability to use appropriate norms for language use and to produce the right expressions at the right time for a particular linguistic market.

In order to investigate these relationships between language or discourse and context, Fishman and others have developed the sociology of language approach, which can be defined as "an integrated, interdisciplinary, multi-method, and multi-level approach to the study of natural, sequenced and socially situated language behaviour" (Fishman 1978: 811). It is divided into two different directions which complement one another, including a descriptive approach, which underscores relationships between language structure and social organisation, and an evaluative approach, which is concerned with the mechanism for deliberately changing those relationships (Tollefson 1981; Corson 1999). Much descriptive research has examined the language use of individuals, especially their acquisition of communicative competence, whereas the evaluation approach has been typically utilised in language planning studies, which may design prescriptive planning activities to change the structure and function of language use (Corson 1999). These two directions enable us to see NESB international students' learning processes of socially-constructed practices not only from a viewpoint of the students' individual language behaviour but also from a perspective of social power and the associated mechanisms, which integrate these students into an academic community.

The three attributes of cultural contact, including variations of academic discourse communities, variations of students' academic backgrounds, and the situatedness of academic interaction are inextricably intertwined and help us to interpret academic interaction as a sociocultural phenomenon, which requires students to learn how to undertake appropriate social practices embedded in a target discourse community.

1.4 The Scope of this Study

1.4.1 The direction of this study

The consideration of individual academic discourse enables us to recognise clusters of discourses used by the same or of different cohorts of students and leads us to identifying the totality of discourse within a certain academic community (Neustupny 1994). In this study, the cultural contact, which NESB exchange students experience during their study at AU, is investigated to illustrate the details of these students' academic

interaction. Some researchers have conducted in-depth case studies rather than cursorily surveyed NESB international students and have revealed that these students can, indeed, adapt to the new academic contexts and develop their English academic competence (cf. Nelson 1990; Swales and Feak 1994; Belcher and Braine 1995; Leki 1995; Spack 1997; Angelova and Riazantseva 1999; Ruiz-Funes 1999; Nemoto 2002, 2004).

However, most of these previous studies were limited to academic writing. Much of this type of research is thus likely to result in exclusion of the interdiscursive nature of academic discourse, that is, how any one discourse activity is situated within the context of many others (Candlin and Hyland 1999; Flowerdew 2002). An exclusive and extensive focus on written texts can lead us to disregarding the multimodality of discourse (Kress 2000). A more comprehensive investigation of NESB international students' participation in a new academic discourse community requires us to focus on the broad range of activities that they undertake as well as the accompanying processes. Moreover, most of the previous studies have been conducted for the duration of a semester or less. Such research needs longer-term case studies in order to provide clearer pictures of the students' individual developmental processes.

Allowing for these shortcomings in previous research on cultural contact, this study is, therefore, designed as a one-academic-year ethnographic examination of six Japanese exchange students' participation in various discipline-specific courses at AU. The focus of this study is placed upon their management processes of assessment tasks, including not only written assignments but also examinations and oral presentations. My study also analyses their everyday participation in classes and the impact of policies and practices of student exchanges on their management of participation in AU. The detailed observations of acts of academic participation and analyses of surrounding practices lead the study to illustrate complex accounts of the students' academic management in an Australian academic context (cf. Hyland 2002).

1.4.2 Research questions

The processes by which Japanese exchange students participate in a new academic culture needs to be examined from not only an individual cognitive but also a sociocultural perspective, as argued above. In addition to these micro-level individual analyses of Japanese exchange students' participation, the impact of social structures on their participation in the host community is investigated. Accordingly, this study will explore three research questions:

(1) What kinds of policies and practices underlie student exchanges between Japanese and Australian universities and how do the policies and practices affect Japanese exchange students' participation in an Australian host university?
(2) How do Japanese exchange students manage their intercultural academic interaction in Australian academic situations and what factors facilitate or constrain their academic management?
(3) How do these exchange students develop their participation in the host academic context throughout their one-academic-year study?

It is assumed that the cultural contact of academic systems complicates AU structuring academic support systems for incoming exchange students, in particular for the linguistic minority students, that is, the NESB exchange cohort. The first research question enables the researcher to examine the obstacles to facilitating Japanese exchange students' academic participation at AU in relation to micro policies and practices within AU, macro policies in governmental and higher-educational levels, and reciprocal collaboration between Japanese and Australian universities.

The second and third questions are designed to explore Japanese exchange students' individual study behaviour in managing their participation in AU. The second research question deals with Japanese exchange students' academic management processes, focussing on all of their academic tasks in conjunction with their behaviour and attitudes towards study through their everyday participation in classes. It examines how they negotiate their native norms with host norms, how they note and evaluate contact situation phenomena, how they plan their own adjustments and subsequently implement management strategies, and how they discontinue their academic management. The third question is employed to discuss the exchange students' individual developmental processes of participation at AU in relation to various cognitive and sociocultural factors.

1.4.3 Justifications and significance

The importance of student exchanges for internationalisation of higher education has been recognised in recent years. Research on student exchanges has dealt with the trends, values, and roles played in internationalisation at governmental and institutional levels (cf. Heginbotham 1997; Daly 2002, 2005; Sowa 2002), and changes in students' personalities and in their attitudes towards learning on their return (cf. Clyne and Rizivi 1998). However, as mentioned earlier,

previous studies have paid less attention to exchange students' study behaviour at host universities and the impact of structural arrangements of exchange programs on their participation. This study attempts to make a contribution to this research area by analysing Japanese exchange students' participation at AU. The findings will provide future Japanese exchange students with knowledge about how to manage their participation in host academic contexts and also suggest how the student exchange programs at host universities should support these students' academic management. Moreover, although an increasing number of Japanese exchange students now enrol in Australian universities, it seems that their Japanese home universities are not given adequate information about host academic systems and the students' actual involvement in the systems. In this regard, the findings are also useful in that they provide Japanese home universities with such information and might enable the universities to organise pre-departure assistance to the students.

This study is also meaningful on the grounds that it will help host universities to identify the problems related to the policies and practices of support programs for incoming exchange students, in particular for an NESB cohort. Hopefully, the findings related to structural arrangements of support programs will facilitate subsequent decision-making and implementation of better policies. In addition, this study will suggest ways by which universities can evaluate policy implementation of the exchange programs to improve the systems and to set further goals. The contribution of the present study is, furthermore, to promote the system of credit transfer and provide suggestions for identifying the nature of the desired interconnection between home and host universities to achieve the purported goals of student exchanges. This study will also add to academic interaction studies of NESB international students. As mentioned earlier, previous studies have frequently downplayed the processes of task management and sociocultural influence on such processes but also have not comprehensively examined a variety of academic tasks, apart from written assignments. The theoretical inquiries which this study conducts into these areas will, therefore, promote our understanding of linguistic minority students' participation in an academic context and help universities to identify the variety of students' educational needs in multicultural academic settings.

The other contribution of the current research is to report on the cross-cultural similarities and differences in academic systems between Japanese and Australian universities. The exchange students, who possess community memberships both in Japanese and Australian universities, are ideal informants to investigate the relationships between their individually

different home academic experiences and their participation in the host university. Thus, the investigation of these students' academic management will identify how they can adapt or modify their previous study behaviour at the host university, according to their disciplinary area.

Most significantly, this study will make a theoretical contribution to expanding Neustupny's (1985, 1994, 2004) Language Management Theory (LMT) by illustrating the detailed processes of academic management by Japanese exchange students. The theory, the details of which will be illustrated in the next chapter, has yet to be extensively applied to academic interaction studies. This study demonstrates several undiscovered phenomena in the process of language management and provide theoretical implications for cultural contact in naturally-occurring academic situations.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW OF ACADEMIC INTERACTION STUDIES

2.1 Introduction

In the past 20 years, a traditional cognition-oriented paradigm in the field of second language acquisition has been integrated with sociocultural approaches to language and learning (cf. Zuengler and Miller, 2006). Along with this paradigm integration, various sociocultural theories have emerged in the area of applied linguistics to date, including situated learning, Vygotskian sociocultural theory, language socialisation, and so on (cf. Lave and Wenger, 1991; Lantolf, 1994, 2000, Lantolf and Appel, 1994; Duff, 1995, 2007, etc). Such a sociocultural nature of learning significantly affects intercultural academic interaction, particularly when students cross-culturally move from context to context. There are a number of factors outside the individual that strongly influence their changing the meaning and the value of their presentation of self. These factors involve aspects of social structure, opportunities for interaction, constraints on behaviour, and other numerous sociocultural processes and features (Corson 1999).

The sociocultural factors of academic interactions need to be considered in conjunction with individual cognitive aspects of learning in order to examine the impact of students' internal representations of academic contact situations on their development of contact competence. Considering these two interplaying perspectives, this chapter introduces a socio-constructionist genre theory, the theory of situated learning, studies of NESB students' study behaviour, language management, and the theory of language planning.

2.2 Socio-Constructionist Genre Theory

2.2.1 Poststructuralist language theory and socio-constructionist genre theory

A shift from structuralist to poststructuralist theories of language results in changing our view of language learning. Norton and Toohey (2002) indicate that while structuralists conceive of signs in a language as having idealised meanings and of linguistic communities as being relatively homogeneous and consensual, poststructuralists take the position that the signifying practices of societies are sites of struggle over the meanings, and that linguistic communities are heterogeneous arenas characterised by conflicting claims to truth and power. In this poststructuralist theory, language always happens as text, and as text, it inevitably occurs in a particular generic form, which arises out of the action of social subjects in particular social situations (Kress 1993: 27). Language itself thus reproduces the conventions of cultures and societies, and we learn the most conventional acts by observing how others do them, by using and listening to those others as models, and by noting the reactions of others to our performance and changing our behaviour accordingly (Corson 1999).

Such a poststructuralist perspective has shed light on the sociocognitive aspects of genres and has led to the development of 'a socio-constructionist genre theory' (cf. Freedman and Medway 1994; Russell 1997). The notion of genres started and has been developed in composition studies in which genres were regarded as text types, including the categories of exposition, argument, description, and narrative. However, this traditional view has been re-conceived in the last few decades. Freedman and Medway (1994), for instance, argue that while genres can be characterised by regularities in textual form and substance, current thinking looks at these regularities as surface traces of a different kind of underlying regularity and deems genres as typical ways of engaging rhetorically with recurrent situations. Accordingly, the acquisition of academic discourses, or genres, is not merely a question of grammatical, lexical or stylistic knowledge, but pertains to a communicative and social competence which involves the ability to use language appropriately in different situations (Mauranen 1994). The socio-constructionist genre theory thus tends to keep its analytical focus on the interactions of people with texts and other mediational means (Russell 1997: 226).

2.2.2 Five principles of genres

From a socio-constructionist perspective, Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995) have developed five principles of genres, including dynamism, situatedness, form and content, duality of structure, and community of ownership. With regard to the dynamism, Berkenkotter and Huckin claim that genres are inherently dynamic rhetorical forms that are developed from actors' responses to recurrent situations, and serve to stabilise experience and give it coherence and meaning. In this sense, genres are seen as a constituent of the social world, which is historically accumulated while experiencing continuous minor changes. Yates and Orlikowski (1992) state that genres emerge within a particular sociohistorical context and are reinforced over time as a situation recurs, and that these genres, in turn, shape future responses to similar situations. Furthermore, Swales (1990) stresses the communicative goals in relation to the dynamism, stating that genres are used as a class of communicative events to establish some shared sets of communicative purposes in a discourse community and to further their accomplishment. Likewise, Miller (1984) claims that genres operate as a mechanism for reaching communicative goals and clarifies what those goals might be. Genres thus change over time in response to their users' sociocognitive needs (Berkenkotter and Huckin 1995).

The second principle which Berkenkotter and Huckin stress in the socio-constructionist genre theory is the situatedness of genres. The situatedness is explicitly expressed in Miller's (1984) definition that genres are social actions in response to recurring rhetorical situations. Reinforcing this view, Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995), for instance, stress that knowledge of genres is derived from, and embedded in participation in the communicative activities of daily and professional life, and that genre knowledge is therefore best conceptualised as a form of situated cognition embedded in disciplinary activities. Kamberelis (1995) emphasises the relationship between genres and situated social practices in which discourse and texts are generated. He states that genres derive from, and are responsive to actual discursive and mental practices in the world. Since they are mutually constituting, particular kinds of genres and particular social and cultural practices tend to contribute to the conventionalisation of one another.

The dynamism and situatedness of genres promote the establishment of form and content. The redefined concept of genres emphasises genre knowledge not just as knowledge of formal conventions but also knowledge of appropriate topics and relevant details, including background knowledge of a certain community, a discipline, audience, and situations (Berkenkotter

and Huckin 1995). According to Berkenkotter and Huckin, when we use such form and content, we constitute social structures and simultaneously reproduce these structures. This concept leads to the fourth principle, the duality of structure, which stresses the reciprocal relationship between human agency and social structures. Actors' use of genres contributes to the establishment of social structures and, at the same time, reproduces what other members regularly do. Furthermore, the genre conventions that are established by the reciprocal relationship signal community ownership, involving a discourse community's norms, epistemology, ideology, and social ontology.

As shown in the five principles described above, a socio-constructionist genre theory requires us to pay attention to not only form and content of genres but also the actors who use genres, the goals of the activities which they engage in, the situations in which genres are used, and the social structures of the discourse communities where genres are embedded. However, this notion of genres has not been comprehensively applied to various types of academic discourse, apart from academic writing, although some researchers have begun to extend their analyses of written genres to those of spoken or study genres in relation to social worlds (cf. Bakhtin 1986; Mauranen 1994; Sprague 1996).

2.2.3 Previous genre studies

There exist some empirical studies which have employed a socio-constructionist genre theory. On the basis of Miller's (1984) definition of genres, Freedman (1993) investigated how students learn the genres found in an undergraduate course in law. Freedman compared the students' written assignments for law subjects with those for other courses undertaken by the same students. Their law essays revealed more syntactical and lexical complexity, distinctive rhetorical features, and a distinctive mode of argumentation in comparison with other academic essays. The law essays thus constituted a distinctive subgenre of academic writing. Freedman claimed that this distinctiveness pertains to the students' familiarity with the discipline of law. The social action undertaken by the students in writing these essays involved their better understanding of the purpose of writing shared by students and teachers, construing reality in specified ways, and responding to the whole disciplinary context of law. Her study showed that, in responding to the assignments, the students were able to draw on the appropriate cues so that through this response they enacted the ways of thinking and the ways of identifying, delimiting, construing, and approaching phenomena characteristic of this discipline.

Mauranen (1994) extended analysis of genres to study genres which she defined as those types of discourses established in specific study contexts. She investigated the study genres in British and Finnish universities through Finnish exchange students' participation in a British university. Her study found that similar labels of academic tasks can involve differences in requirements in different academic systems. For instance, it was shown that the English essay was mainly represented as an answer to a question, while the Finnish one was a summary of the readings. In relation to the examinations in the English university, the teacher foregrounded the values of relevance, arguing, and thinking, and regarded knowledge as a necessary background variable, whereas the teacher at the Finnish university valued knowledge as additional analysis and application in examinations. In both countries the seminar, which required students to play a crucial role as a speaker, provided the main spoken genres. However, there existed discrepancies between those two academic systems in frequency of discussion and the discussion topics. Students were more frequently required to participate in discussions at the British university. Also, the discussion topics were also assigned based on articles written by disciplinary authorities in England but on peer papers in Finland. In Mauranen's study, although the exchange students from the Finnish university to the British university did not experience severe problems with language as a code, a number of problems relating to cross-cultural differences in discourse were identified.

Sprague (1996) applied Mauranen's concept of study genres to her comparative study of academic systems at a Japanese and an Australian university. Her research found that, with regard to written genres, students at the Australian university were required to follow stricter writing conventions than those at the Japanese university. It was not common for guidelines for written assignments to be provided at the Japanese university, whereas the Australian university had a policy of providing the guidelines which described the topics to be studied, submission dates for essays, word limits and requirements for presentations at the beginning of a course. Written work at the Australian university also needed to involve correct citations of references while students at the Japanese university were not necessarily required to make in-text references for written assignments, except for their graduation theses.

These previous studies illustrate macro-level analysis of genres from a socio-constructionist perspective, focussing upon the intra- and intercultural differences between academic genres. However, in the studies of intercultural academic interaction it is more important to investigate how students learn specific genres. It is thus necessary to pay

more attention to students' behaviour in the processes of responding to recurrent rhetorical situations.

2.3 Situated Learning

Given the socially-situated nature of genres, genres can be viewed from the perspective of situated learning or situated cognition, which emphasises learning through activities in the situations embedded in a certain community (cf. Brown, Collins, and Duguid 1989; Flower 1989; Flower, Stein, Ackerman, Kantz, McCormick and Peck 1990; Berkenkotter 1991; Lave and Wenger 1991; Rogoff 1991; Wenger 1998).

2.3.1 Learning, activities, and knowledge

On the basis of Vygotskian notions of the sociality of learning (Vygotsky 1978), recent work has attempted to investigate language learning as a socioculturally-situated social practice (Norton and Toohey 2002). Norton and Toohey explain that this approach originates in "a shift from seeing learners as individual language producers to seeing them as members of social and historical collectives" (Norton and Toohey 2002: 119). They also claim that such a shift encourages us to examine the conditions for learning, for appropriation of practices, in any particular community. This notion leads to situated learning, stressing that "to understand what is learned is to see how it is learned within the activity context" (Wilson and Myers 2000: 71).

Brown *et al.* (1989) stress that the activity in which knowledge is developed and deployed is not separable from, or ancillary to learning and cognition, but that it is an integral part of what is learned. Their claim that learning and cognition are fundamentally situated also enables us to interpret knowledge as gained through undertaking socially-constructed activities in a target community and as a product of the activity and situations in which it is produced. Hence, knowledge is not absolute but can only be defined in relation to a specific situation or context (Tyre and Von Hippel 1997). Brown *et al.* explicated how to learn knowledge in a certain community, referring to conceptual knowledge as similar to a set of tools, in that both knowledge and tools can only be fully understood through use. Knowledge is thus regarded as reciprocally constructed within the individual-environment interaction rather than objectively defined or subjectively created (Barab and Duffy 2000). The intricate interrelationships among learning, activities and knowledge, which the

theory of situated learning suggests, require us to examine the processes of acquiring and using knowledge in socially-situated activities.

2.3.2 The concept of legitimate peripheral participation

Situated learning or cognition has been elaborated through Lave and Wenger's (1991) concept of legitimate peripheral participation (LPP), which expands a cognitive apprenticeship model. The earlier cognitive apprenticeship model outlines the processes in which mentors model by making their tacit knowledge explicit and revealing their problem-solving strategies, coach by supporting students' attempts to perform new tasks, and then fade after having empowered the students to work independently (Brown et al. 1989; Belcher 1994). However, several shortcomings of the apprenticeship model have been pointed out by Lave and Wenger (1991) and Belcher (1994). Belcher explains that mentors' roles in providing scaffoldings for the apprentice do not seem to be intuitive to some of the advisors of the students, that the model pays insufficient attention to the community that the learner seeks membership in, and that the model tends to view the learner more as a passive recipient rather than as someone who joins a community by consciously becoming an increasingly more active participant in it.

These shortcomings are covered by Lave and Wenger's (1991) notion of LPP, which represents the multiple ways in which apprentices participate in a variety of social situations that are embedded in a certain community. Legitimacy of participation constitutes a defining characteristic of ways of belonging which is not only a crucial condition for learning, but a constitutive element of its content. Only with legitimacy can newcomers' inevitable stumblings and violations become opportunities for learning rather than cause for dismissal, neglect, or exclusion (Lave and Wenger 1991:101).

Peripherality suggests that there are multiple or varied ways in which a learner or an apprentice is located in the fields of participation, as defined by a community. The term is positively used since it suggests "an opening, a way of gaining access to sources for understanding through growing involvement" (Lave and Wenger 1991: 37). Flowerdew (2000) further elucidates peripherality of this concept, noting that peripheral participation means that participants, who are not central but are on the margins of the activity in question, acquire knowledge through their involvement with it. Lave and Wenger stress that given the complex, differentiated nature of communities, the end point of centripetal participation

in a community of practice should not be limited to a uniform or univocal 'centre', or a linear notion of skill acquisition.

Norton and Toohey (2002) note that the concept of LPP encourages the view that communities are composed of participants who differentially engage with the practices of their communities, and that this engagement or participation in practice constitutes learning. Instead of focussing on the mind of the learner, involving the production of knowledge and acquisition of linguistic or rhetorical structures, the concept looks at the learner's interaction with the lived-in world, the community in which the learner seeks membership, and how active the learner's participation is, rather than regarding the learner as a passive recipient (Belcher 1994). From this perspective, Norton and Toohey (2002) suggest that educational research focus not so much on assessing individual uptake of particular knowledge or skills as on the social structures in particular communities and on the variety of positionings available for learners to occupy in those communities.

2.3.3 Empirical studies of situated learning

Based on the concept of LPP, some researchers have investigated students' development of academic literacy. Belcher (1994), for example, investigated three NESB graduate students' legitimate peripheral participation in dissertation writing through their relationships with their supervisors and the instructor in a L2 dissertation writing class. She found that two of the students' perceptions about their chosen fields not being their desired communities of practice prevented them from growing as full participants in their disciplines. Furthermore, their limited reliance on their supervisors' judgement as well as the hierarchical relationships between their supervisors and themselves negatively affected their participation in the communities. On the other hand, the other student in Belcher's study successfully completed her dissertation, believing that her research would make a major contribution to her field. The collaborative and consensual teaching style, which the student's supervisor introduced, effectively made the student receptive to the supervisor as a teacher and as a supportive critic of her work.

Similarly, Flowerdew (2000) utilised the concept of LPP in a case study of one young Hong Kong scholar's experience in publishing a scholarly article in an international refereed journal after returning from doctoral study in the United States. Although the participant did not initially place a high value on the rhetorical dimension of his work but on his ideas, he understood the importance of the discursive dimension of his

work by repeatedly submitting and editing journal papers as a legitimate peripheral participant. In his study, Flowerdew highlighted the important roles played by the local native editor and the journal's in-house editor and reinforced Prior's (1998) mediated nature of academic writing, which stresses that literary products do not necessarily emanate from a single author but are jointly constructed by various parties.

As shown in the above studies, most of the previous empirical studies which employ the concept of legitimate peripheral participation have focussed on highly specialised worlds in which student scholars are required to undertake apprenticeship in completing their written work. However, Artemeva, Logie and St-Martin's (1999) study outlined the design of a mandatory communication-skills course for first-year and second-year engineering university students, while employing the theories of situated learning and a socio-constructionist genre theory. The course was designed to support not only the students' development of necessary rhetorical strategies in the discipline but also their successful integration into the engineering school environment. The supplementary course stressed a social view of disciplinary genres and the development of a particular perspective of the audience, while it allowed the students to interact with their instructor and peers in the processes of completing written assignments. The course, furthermore, introduced an electronic course newsgroup, which encouraged peer interactions on the website, and provided a dialogic environment in the classroom. Although Artemeva *et al.*'s study innovatively incorporated the theories of situated learning and a socio-constructionist genre into the structure of a concurrent supplementary writing course along with the main disciplinary courses, the effectiveness of the course and the students' achievement were not paid much attention.

As illustrated in the studies described above, teachers' and instructors' scaffoldings in a highly specialised world or in a specially-tailored course facilitated the establishment of apprenticeship structures, which enabled students' active participation in order to become a full member of the communities. However, in general, undergraduate NESB international students are not automatically provided with such scaffoldings and courses once they enrol in a university. Therefore, these students are probably required to participate in different ways in the new discourse community in order to obtain the knowledge and access to resources necessary to function as community members.

2.3.4 Limitations of the concept of situated learning/cognition

Situated cognition theory is an ambitious and still-evolving approach to understanding learning in both its individual and social aspects (Kirshner and Whitson 1998). The concept of LPP downplays the fact that all novice members cannot be regarded as equal in that some of the non-native-background students may be full participants of the community while many others might remain at the margins (cf. Toohey 1998; Kanno 1999; Toohey 1999).

Toohey (1998) stresses that conceptualising L2 learning as a process of moving from being an outsider to being an insider is much too simplistic. In her study of children in a kindergarten community in 1996, the participants were inside by virtue of their presence in the classroom as legitimate peripheral participants, but inside was not a place wherein participants moved inexorably toward fuller and more powerful participation (Toohey 1998). Kanno (1999) has also indicated that, except for the relationship between graduate scholars and their supervisors, students' participation in intercultural academic settings does not involve a kind of apprenticeship as the standard mode of learning. In fact, her study showed that learners were often blocked physically and mentally from opportunities to interact with native speakers, which was vital to their acquisition of the L2 (Kanno 1999). Furthermore, from a broader perspective, some researchers have pointed out obstacles to understanding cognition as situated, claiming that the concept of situated cognition little discusses internal representations and needs more development of cognitive aspects to describe subjectivity in addition to the social dimension (cf. Anderson, Reder, and Simion 1996; St. Julien 1997; Kirshner and Whitson 1998; Wilson and Myers 2000).

Despite such limitations, the concept of LPP undoubtedly makes invaluable contributions to research on SLA and intercultural academic interaction in that it enables us to direct attention to students' management of participation in relation to not only a variety of social situations where learning occurs but also the role of content played in learning. Thus, allowing for the limitations, studies of NESB students' academic interaction need to deliberately employ the concept of situated learning, while dealing with the students' frequently-changing positionings in social contexts and the cognitive aspects of students' adjustments to a new discourse community.

2.4 Study Behaviour of NESB Students

Studies of NESB students' academic interaction help us to understand how the students cope with requirements in academic contact situations. To have a better understanding of it, it is crucial to identify the kinds of strategies, which the students implement, and to examine the processes of their implementation of these strategies.

2.4.1 Strategies enhancing study behaviour

Previous research has found that NESB international students can implement various strategies to enhance their study behaviour in the processes of accomplishing writing tasks in experimental or naturally-occurring academic settings. Doyle's study (1983), for example, has indicated some strategies which reduce the gap between students' interpretations of writing tasks and their instructors' intentions when students clarify the requirements of tasks. The strategies involve students' offering provisional or restricted responses to assignments and questions, and requesting that the teacher make task instructions more explicit or provide models to follow. Some researchers have also identified strategies to contribute to students generating and elaborating ideas for written tasks, including brainstorming, fast writing, clustering, examining, and activating prior knowledge (Keh 1990; Angelova and Riazantseva 1999; Ruiz-Funes 1999).

Moreover, various strategies have been identified at the drafting and reviewing stages of writing. Strategies which students can employ at the drafting stage include relying on past writing experiences (Nelson 1990; Leki 1995), and compiling and utilising a list of useful expressions (Angelova and Riazantseva 1999). At the final stage of writing, utilisation of an editor can be one of the most common strategies used by NESB international students to correct their texts. Although the effectiveness of the strategies can be questionable, Marriott (1999) indicates that a variety of personnel may be available to act as editors, such as classmates, language partners, housemates, friends or tutors in a dormitory, homestay parents, private tutors or proofreading agents, apart from specialised university staff who assist students with their writing.

NESB international students' implementation of strategies has also been investigated from the viewpoint of students' regular participation in classes. For instance, Mulligan and Kirkpatrick (2000), in their study of NESB international students' and ESB (English-speaking-background) students' participation in lectures, identified a number of activities and

strategies undertaken by the students. In order to take notes in lectures, some of the NESB students utilised a 'not listening' strategy which referred to them getting the details from the slides without listening to the lecturer's commentary or they adopted the strategy of literally recording the words as they heard them, without any cognitive processing for comprehension. Mulligan and Kirkpatrick examined pre- and post-lecture activities, including reading the assigned textbook, checking the previous week's lecture notes, completing assigned exercises or other materials, and reviewing the lecture notes. As a result, they revealed that NESB students were more likely to read the assigned readings before lectures. Mulligan and Kirkpatrick's investigation of pre- and post-lecture activities, furthermore, enabled the identification of NESB students' re-working strategies to review their lecture notes, involving copying the notes out again by hand or on a computer and annotating them from further reading.

Sutherland, Badger, and White's (2002) study also identified some note-taking and reviewing strategies used by students, such as visualising important points in a mind map in class and subsequently elaborating them by listening to the tape-recording of the lectures, reviewing just the main points of the lecture notes, and using different colour and size pads to distinguish the notes for each subject and for lectures and tutorials. Gage and Berliner (1992) also emphasise students' utilisation of visual models for reviews, arguing that such models can provide "accurate and useful representations of knowledge that is needed when solving problems in some particular domain" (Gage and Berliner 1992: 314).

Furthermore, from a broader point of view, several researchers have examined NESB students' strategies to cope with their participation. For example, Abel (2002) examined previous empirical studies and recommended several strategies for international students to achieve academic success, such as time management, getting the right kind of peer tutoring, joining a study group and discussing study materials with friends, and seeking out teachers who encourage class participation. Moreover, Ninnes' (1999) six-month case study of five Indian students enrolled in the Master of Business Administration program at an Australian university illustrated the students' strategies to cope with their participation in the course. The participants implemented a variety of strategies to adapt to the new learning environment, such as consulting senior students, lecturers, learning support staff, library staff, computing staff, or an international student advisor, having discussions with fellow students, utilising subject outlines as an important source of information, and linking their current tasks with their previous study experiences. Also, in his study, the students' perception of task requirements positively and negatively

affected their motivation to undertake assignments. Two of the participants regarded the tasks as leading to their future employment and successfully completed the tasks, whereas one of the participants' insufficient performance in the tasks resulted from his misinterpretation and under-evaluation of some of the lecturers' expectations.

Although the above findings from previous studies have suggested a variety of strategies which NESB international students can implement as a means of managing their participation, we need a more in-depth investigation of students' study behaviour in various academic tasks. Furthermore, most of the activities and strategies, which previous research introduced, were dealt with independently, irrespective of the processes in which they occurred. It is thus necessary to investigate how and why students implement certain strategies, the factors affecting their use of strategies, and the effectiveness of these strategies.

2.4.2 Language management

LMT can be effectively applied to elaborate on the adjustment processes of NESB international students (cf. Neustupny 1985, 1994, 2004; Jernudd and Neustupny 1987). Using a language management framework, Neustupny (1985, 1994, 2004) has delineated the corrective adjustment processes of language learners' developing interactive competence in contact situations. The theory illustrates the stages of the adjustment process, starting from students' deviations from norms, their awareness and evaluations of these deviations, their adjustment designs, and their implementation of these designs or plans to rectify the deviations. Use of this framework enables us to study an individual's interaction at the micro-level through her/his corrective adjustment processes that are evident in academic contact situations.

Language management can be examined in various ways. Neustupny (1994, 2004) has defined three major categorisations of language management, involving pre-/in-/post-management, self- and other-management, and simple and organised management. Pre-/in-/post-management are utilised to describe when management is executed. Pre-management represents language management which is undertaken before a deviation appears, such as students' attendance at academic writing courses to improve their academic writing skills in English. On the other hand, in-management and post-management are executed in the middle of undertaking target activities or after a deviation emerges respectively. Neustupny also divided language management into self- and other-management depending upon the degree of students' reliance upon others

in the management. Self-management refers to the cases where students manage their participation by themselves, whereas other-management requires others as resources to manage it. Neustupny made a further distinction between simple and organised management. Simple management refers to management in discourse on an individual level, whereas organised management is systematic management, which is conducted in various degrees by the government, institutions, teachers or others. According to Neustupny, organised management usually involves a considerable number of participants and extensive theoretical legitimation of standpoints, and it also implies complicated implementation mechanisms. These categorisations developed by Neustupny enable us to view language management from multiple perspectives.

2.4.3 Application of LMT in empirical studies

Neustupny's LMT has been recently applied to the study of the norms in interview contact situations, research on bilingual education, and an analysis of the development of English academic competence at a university context (Jernudd 2002; Kato 2002; Nemoto 2002, 2004; Neustupny 2004). Kato (2002) focussed on norm deviations and subsequent adjustment behaviour in his study of interview contact situations where Japanese learners were required to interview Japanese native speakers. The examination of Japanese learners' norm deviations from a perspective of native Japanese speakers led his study to find that the native Japanese speakers applied multiple norms in judging Japanese learners' linguistic behaviour in the interview settings. The norms found in his study involved Japanese interview norms, Japanese communication norms, personal norms of the Japanese native speakers, and contact norms whereby Japanese native speakers were lenient with Japanese learners' mistakes because they realised the learners' struggles with communication in Japanese. Kato's study has indicated that the types of norms, which Japanese native speakers applied, determined the degrees of their subsequent awareness and evaluations of Japanese learners' deviations.

In his study of bilingual education at Hong Kong universities, Jernudd (2002) applied LMT to teaching acts between students and teachers, study acts by students, and administrative acts between students, members of faculties and administrators. His study revealed that participants noted deviations from English communication in contexts where English was the medium of instruction. The deviations derived from the instructor's insufficient skills of using the language, a student's inability to comprehend and to seek clarification, a student's lack of background knowledge to

enable meaningful communication, discontinuities of language use within and outside the classroom, and subject instructors' inability to help students to manage English. Jernudd also indicated problems with students' self-perception and acceptance of deviations, claiming that teachers' corrections can often fall short of what students themselves plausibly perceive to be deviations. In order to promote active learning and self-adjustment by students, he recommended teaching the existence and validity of target norms by demonstrating directed language management techniques, which enable students to reflect and deliberate upon discourse. Furthermore, Jernudd's study pointed out some inadequacies of administrative acts, involving terminological problems pertaining to discrepancies between specialised English terminologies employed in universities and general usage. He also indicated tensions between the actual language use which commonly involved use of Chinese by the students and the university policy in which English was to be used as the medium of instruction.

Nemoto (2002) previously applied LMT in a study of Japanese exchange students' development of academic literacy of English. I investigated Japanese exchange students' corrective adjustment processes in their acquisition of English written norms at an Australian university, focussing on the ways they implement management strategies. The findings, which were categorised in terms of the three main stages of the writing process – planning, translating, and reviewing – suggested that the exchange students experienced various norm deviations with regard to clarifying task requirements, finding appropriate references, reading articles, generating and elaborating ideas, handling rhetorical styles, text structure and organisation, academic register, and lastly, confirming the appropriateness of the text.

In the above study, the management strategies that were implemented by the participants included utilisation of peer feedback, teachers' or tutors' feedback, feedback from the teachers' comments on the returned assignments, activation of their prior disciplinary knowledge and skills, and use of peer editors or an instructor at study support centres for proofreading. The most successful participant, at an early stage of his enrolment at the host university, established a routine of undertaking written assignments. The participant selected the most reliable management strategy among the several available strategies and used the instructor at the study support centre for editing support. His consistent implementation of this strategy helped him to develop autonomous learning skills and to successfully manage written assignments throughout his one-academic-year study in Australia. This study also showed that students' different

problem awareness and evaluations were related to their goals of learning, their acceptance of others' advice or feedback, and to the teachers' acceptability of participants' written work.

In my subsequent study, the investigation of Japanese exchange students' management of academic writing has been extended into their study management processes in various assessment tasks (Nemoto 2004). In the study, I shed light on not only positive but also negative aspects of their management processes. My study identified the absence of negative evaluations of deviations, students' avoidance behaviour at the stage of adjustment planning, and their ineffective implementation of management strategies. All of these contributed to the students' discontinuing their management processes. The study also demonstrated that Japanese exchange students can effectively transfer and modify their previous disciplinary knowledge and study skills at the host university through recognising similar features from among the situations at their home and host academic contexts.

As shown in these empirical studies, Neustupny's LMT is applicable to research on the processes of various language-related phenomena. However, simple management in contact situations has not been comprehensively investigated in conjunction with organised management, which involves "systematicity through language teaching and systematic public and language policy" (cf. Neustupny 2004). Such systematicity will be best investigated if we take into consideration social and institutional attitudes and support to linguistic minority students' participation in academic contact situations. In this regard, the theories of language planning, which enable identification of the social structures in educational systems including policies and practices, can be effectively applied to this type of examination.

2.5 Language Planning

The theory of language planning can promote our understanding of the way an academic system is organised and the impact of social structures on linguistic minority students' participation in the system. Discourse and structural arrangements are intricately reciprocal since discourse is being constantly influenced by structural arrangements that the discourse influences (Corson 1999). Accordingly, policies of academic systems greatly affect language use practices, which are embedded in the target systems, and novice students' behaviour to learn these practices. This section illustrates basic theories of language planning, an application of these theories, and a current approach to language planning.

2.5.1 Language planning theory

Language planning has been described as "the organised pursuit of solutions to language problems" (Fishman 1973: 79) and, furthermore, that it involves "deliberate efforts to influence the behaviour of others with respect to the acquisition, structure, or functional allocation of their language codes in order to maintain, preserve, or change current behaviour" (Cooper 1989: 45). It is directed by, or may lead to the promulgation of a language policy by different levels of planners, such as government, other authoritative bodies, or persons (Kaplan and Baldauf 2003). Many researchers have interpreted language planning in different ways, but such planning is generally divided into three types of planning: corpus, status, and acquisition or language-in-education planning (cf Weinstein 1980; Cooper 1989; Clyne 1997; Kaplan and Baldauf 1997; Corson 1999). Corpus planning and status planning are traditional concepts of language planning, which are respectively related to language forms and external social goals, whereas acquisition or language-in-education planning consists of user related learning goals that need to be achieved usually through the educational system (Kaplan and Baldauf 2003).

These three types of language planning are considered in relation to two different levels of goals: the goals of policy planning and cultivation planning (Haugen 1983, 1987; Kaplan and Baldauf 1997, 2003). While the policy planning goals pertain to the form of language planning, the cultivation planning goals deal with its function. These policy and cultivation planning goals are interdependent and planning may occur at a number of different levels, such as macro or polity level, meso or community/organisational level, or at the micro or individual level (Kaplan and Baldauf 2003). Although macro-level language planning is likely to be more frequently undertaken, it has been argued that the impact that language planning and policy has depends heavily on meso- and micro-level involvement and support (Williams 1994; Kaplan and Baldauf 1997, 2003). These theories of language planning have been widely employed to investigate various sociolinguistic areas, including language revival, renovation, maintenance, and foreign or second language acquisition.

2.5.2 Criticisms of language planning

While the impact of a language planning theory on solving language problems has been acknowledged, traditional approaches to language planning have not been impervious to criticisms. Fishman (1994) points

out five major criticisms, which have been made of language planning (cf. Luke, McHoul, and Mey 1990; Tollefson 1991): (1) language planning is conducted by elites that are governed by their own self-interest; (2) language planning reproduces rather than overcomes sociocultural inequalities; (3) language planning inhibits or counteracts multiculturalism; (4) language planning espouses world-wide Westernisation and modernisation leading to new sociocultural, econotechnical and conceptual colonialism; (5) only ethnography can save language planning research from fostering the above mentioned negative aspects.

Fishman has argued against these criticisms on the ground that they predominantly focus on language planning theory rather than on an analysis of practice. He has also claimed that the most of the issues raised by these criticisms cannot be fully rectified. This counterargument is based on beliefs that authorities will continue to be motivated by self-interest, that new structural inequalities will inevitably arise to replace the old ones, that more powerful segments of society will be reluctant to change themselves than to change others, and that Westernisation and modernisation will continue to foster both problems and satisfactions for the bulk of humanity. Fishman concluded that the critics never seem to grasp that language planning can be implemented by both those who favour and those who oppose the socio-political climate.

Neustupny (1994) has also indicated that those classical theories of language planning of the 1960s and the 1970s neglected language problems in discourse and concentrated almost exclusively on society-wide language treatment and language teaching, which are highly-organised and community-controlled processes. He claimed that they failed to consider language planning in the more general context of language change and language management and that they thus tempted linguists to consider community-based rather than discourse-based arguments. All of the above criticisms are likely to result from seeing language planning as solely conducted by authoritative bodies, which ignore the rights of minorities. Thus, in order to implement language planning effectively, it is important to allow for micro-level planning and practice to cover a diversity of languages and language users in a community.

2.5.3 Language planning practice

The criticisms orientated towards language planning theory have led us to reconsidering the importance of language planning practice. The implementation processes of language planning can follow two contrastive

directions: top-down planning and bottom-up planning (Kaplan 1989). Kaplan claims that top-down planning is defined and prescribed, for example, by government for its own purposes. Thus, implementation of top-down language planning was originally considered as following the four major dimensions, involving selecting a norm by deciding what language is to be the norm, codifying the norm by giving it styles and spheres of usage, implementing its function by spreading the newly codified norm, and elaborating its function to meet the language needs of the culture (Haugen 1983, 1987).

On the other hand, bottom-up planning is a grass-root level type of planning and originates in the needs identified among the populace. Kaplan (1989) claims that although bottom-up planning is more time consuming and more costly to design, this planning more significantly increases the probability of the avoidance of problems than top-down language planning, which often fails to recognise the real needs of populations. From this perspective, Corson (1999), for example, elaborated upon the process of designing language policies, stressing problem identification, fact gathering, decision-making, and implementation and evaluation of the policies. Similarly, Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) illustrated a language planning model, identifying five steps of the process, including survey, survey report, policy decisions, implementation plan, and execution. In this model, the survey produces a survey report, which in turn results in a series of policy decisions, and then policy decisions lead to an implementation plan, which finally is realised through execution of the plan (Kaplan and Baldauf 1997).

As a part of the bottom-up approach to language planning, Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) stressed the empowerment of minorities in language planning practice based on the belief that language planners can contribute not only to the education of the advantaged but also the empowerment of the disadvantaged. However, they have indicated that while the macro national language planning schemes have dominated the language planning literature, micro situations have been ignored and thus much less is known about the participants or how decisions in such situations are made. Hence, they emphasise the need to investigate micro language planning, which allows for the impact of individuals on language learning and usage decisions. As the scale and complexity of language interaction has increased in recent years, there has been an increasing need for language planners to incorporate a host of hitherto neglected variables which impact upon language in society, and to focus on the interdependence of humans and nature (Williams 1991).

This increasing awareness of interdependence between humans and nature in a community leads to Muhlhausler's (2000) ecological approach to language planning. This approach underscores the diversity of languages in relation to a social context rather than standardisation of, or streamlining of languages. Muhlhausler claims that the ecological approach to language planning is thus part of, and closely interrelated with a large range of natural and cultural ecological factors sustaining linguistic diversity. It also focuses on maintenance of a maximum diversity of languages and identification of these factors (Muhlhausler 2000). The ultimate aim of ecological language planning is to bring about an ecological balance, which no longer requires management but encourages self-regulation by the participants. A bottom-up and ecological approach of language planning can thus enable language planners to design effective language policies, which provide minorities with maximum opportunities to adjust to the community.

2.5.4 Language-in-education planning

Language-in-education planning or acquisition planning is a relatively new development within the concept of language planning, and deals with the system of language education, focussing on micro-level involvement of, and support to individuals (cf. Cooper 1989; Kaplan and Baldauf 1997, 2003). This type of planning can affect linguistic minority students' participation in an academic context and be utilised to systematically meet individual linguistic needs and identify the linguistic diversity of the minorities. The planning aims at developing both policies and the specific methods and materials to support individual and community language development for the variety of uses to which the language is to be put (Kaplan and Baldauf 2003). While some researchers have introduced this kind of planning predominantly through literature reviews (Kennedy 1984, 1989; Ingram 1990; Paulston and Mclaughlin 1994), Kaplan and Baldauf (1997, 2003) have presented a relatively comprehensive illustration of language-in-education planning.

Kaplan and Baldauf have delineated language-in-education planning, distinguishing policy planning goals from cultivation planning goals. According to them, language-in-education policy planning goals are to set criteria for those processes in the educational system that determine what languages will be taught to whom, in what manner, using what material as well as how success will be assessed. Kaplan and Baldauf categorise the criteria into seven types of policies, including access, personnel, curriculum, methods and materials, resourcing, community, and evaluation

policies. The access policy provides a statement of who must study what languages. The personnel policy examines the requirements for teacher selection. In the curriculum policy, the space in the curriculum allocated to language instruction is decided. The community policy is made as a result of consultation with communities about what languages they believe are the most appropriate to be taught in their schools. The methods and materials policy refers to what types of methods are prescribed and what types of materials are provided in the curriculum. The resourcing policy pertains to funding which is provided in language programs. Furthermore, the evaluation policy provides criteria by which the impact of language programs can be measured in order to set desired goals of the programs

The other level of planning goals which Kaplan and Baldauf illustrate are language-in-education cultivation planning goals. These goals aim to define how language learning programs are to be tailored to meet the needs of various groups learning languages for different reasons and with different backgrounds, such as for language reacquisition, language maintenance, foreign/second language learning, and language shift. Although his focus is limited to language policies in school, Corson (1999) has also provided some implications about language planning in the education sector from a viewpoint of the relationship between discourse and power. He has claimed that language policies should help students from marginal backgrounds to escape the unreasonable pressures to conform that schools often place on them. As he has indicated, language policies also need to not only offer a vehicle for educators to use in challenging unfair practices and structures but also to provide a planned way for educational institutions to extend high-quality education to all their students without discrimination.

Language-in-education planning, which focuses on diversity in a pluralistic community and a micro level of planning to meet the needs of students, thus contributes to research on intercultural academic interaction. Language-in-education planning is effectively applied in this study since it enables identification of the policies and practices of, and problems with educational systems. Such planning also allows this study to evaluate the policies and practices in order to facilitate the integration of linguistic minority students into host academic discourse communities.

CHAPTER THREE

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Conceptual Frameworks

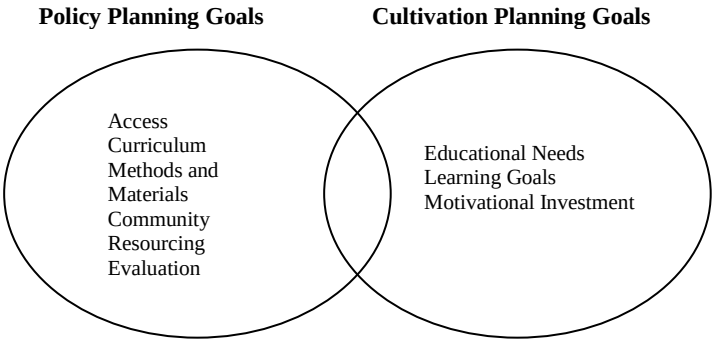
Japanese exchange students' negotiation of participation in an Australian university is investigated by employing two contrasting but interplaying approaches, one involving a community-based approach which explores the structural arrangements of the student exchange program at AU and the other, a behaviour-based approach which predominantly examines students' academic management. These different approaches require this study to adopt two different conceptual frameworks.

3.1.1 Planning of a student exchange program

The first conceptual framework is based on Kaplan and Baldauf's (1997, 2003) theory of language-in-education planning and is employed to examine the policies and practices of the students exchange program at AU. As shown in Figure 3.1, their concepts of language-in-education policy planning goals and cultivation planning goals are applied in this study. From the perspective of policy planning goals in their theory, I adopted the following six criteria: access, curriculum, methods and materials, community, resourcing and evaluation policies. These criteria are utilised to analyse how effectively the support system for incoming exchange students at AU is organised and how macro-level policies influence the structure of the system. Cultivation planning goals were the other perspective of language-in-education planning that this study employs. The adoption of these goals enabled this study to examine how student exchange programs meet Japanese exchange students' educational needs and goals as well as how the systems influence students' motivational investments whereby students allocate learning efforts in various rhetorical situations. Focussing on the dynamic nature of motivation, this study utilises the term "motivational investment" based on

the notion of investment, which sheds light upon the relationship between learners' desires to learn the target language and sociocultural constraints on learning and practising the language (Angelil-Carter 1997; Mckay and Wong 1996; Norton Peirce 1995).

Figure 3.1: Language-in-education planning of a student exchange program



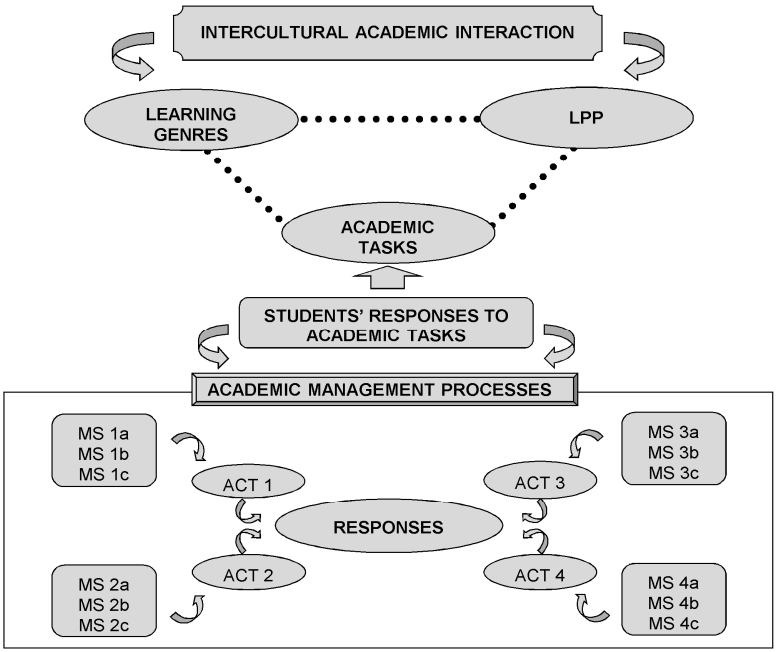
The conceptual framework allows this study to identify various relationships among policies of student exchanges, the practices and Japanese exchange students' actual participation at AU. This structural investigation of the student exchange program is integrated into the following analysis of Japanese exchange students' academic management processes. This combination will enable the study to present in-depth and micro-level descriptions of the host community's support to Japanese exchange students and the students' involvement in the community.

3.1.2 Integrated model of intercultural academic interaction

Taking into account the sociocultural and cognitive aspects of intercultural academic interaction, in this study, Neustupny's (1985, 1994, 2004) language management framework is modified and incorporated with Lave and Wenger's (1991) concept of LPP and Miller's (1984) socio-constructionist genre theory. Theories of situated learning and socio-constructionist genre emphasise the role that context plays in learning, since "rhetorical transactions and social actions take place within the tacitly understood and richly complicated context" (Artemeva *et al.* 1999). Using the integrated model of intercultural academic interaction, this study incorporates such a role of context in learning into the individual cognitive

processes of language management. As shown in Figure 3.2, the current study highlights what and how Japanese exchange students learn and where the learning occurs, focussing on three interplaying sociocultural constituents of intercultural academic interaction, involving academic genres, LPP and academic tasks.

Figure 3.2: Integrated model of intercultural academic interaction (Based on Miller 1984; Neustupny 1985, 1994, 2004; Lave and Wenger 1991)



ACT: activity, MS: management strategy

Host academic genres constitute the objects that Japanese exchange students are required to learn in the host university. Given that genres are social actions in response to recurrent rhetorical situations, the students learn genres by actually engaging in activities. LPP represents such engagement in relation to social positionings. Students' engagement in social practices enables them to learn genres and the degrees to which students learn genres determine how effectively they can engage in social practices.

The other constituent of this framework – an academic task – embodies the recurrent rhetorical situations where the students engage in social practices and learn genres. In an academic discourse community, academic tasks that constitute a major part of the students' assessment, such as written assignments, oral presentations or examinations, provide students with a range of recurrent rhetorical situations to which they must respond. The social action in response to a particular task, furthermore, constitutes a response to the whole disciplinary context for that assignment, as expressed in the lectures, seminars and course readings as well as to the implicit institutional values of a university (Freedman 1993). The focus on academic tasks thus results in covering the recurrent rhetorical situations where the students play "two basic roles as either a recipient or a producer of discourse, that is, a recipient of knowledge through lectures, tutorials and textbooks, and a role to produce academic tasks" (Mauranen 1994: 4). Attention paid to these three interplaying constituents of intercultural academic interaction allows this study to examine the students' sociocultural behaviour in response to the academic tasks at AU and their accompanying cognitive development of genre knowledge.

It is, furthermore, necessary to explore the processes in which the students engage in activities and learn genres in order to effectively investigate their intercultural academic interaction. From this perspective, the lower part of Figure 3.2 also shows the processes of students' responding to academic tasks. They are required to undertake activities, such as clarifying the requirements, reading and understanding prescribed articles, or writing a draft in accordance with the target written conventions (eg. ACT 1-4 in Figure 3.2). However, the activities need to be frequently supplemented with, or consolidated by a variety of management strategies in order to facilitate their participation (cf. MS1a to 4c in Figure 3.2). This is because their negotiation of participation as a legitimate peripheral NESB member in Australian academic settings can give rise to various problems, which manifest themselves as norm deviations (cf. Neustupny 1985, 1994, 2004). Furthermore, this study assumes that, in the processes of participation, Japanese exchange students are able to successfully apply some of the disciplinary knowledge and native strategies that they acquired through their home academic experiences, because they are legitimate peripheral participants from a linguistic perspective in the Australian context but might not be peripheral from a viewpoint of disciplinary expertise. Possession of this prior knowledge and skills might lead the students to implement some management strategies to facilitate their undertaking of activities in academic contact situations.

3.1.3 The model of micro processes of academic management

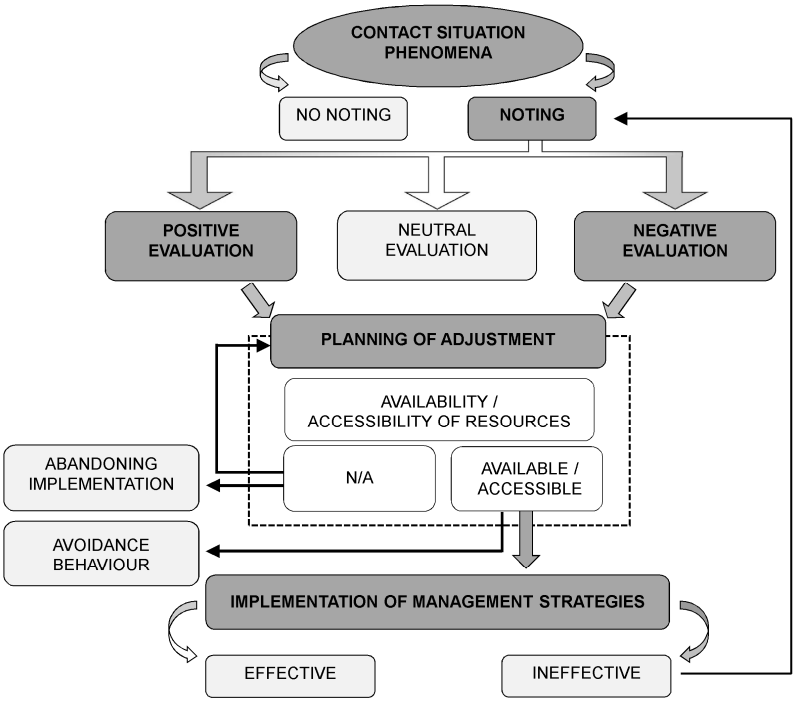
In Figure 3.3 below, the management process is further explored at the micro level by applying LMT to academic interaction. This conceptual model modifies the original language management framework and supplements some phases of academic management, including re-evaluation, availability and accessibility of resources, avoidance behaviour, effectiveness of management strategies, and re-commencement of a correction cycle. This study also focuses on the processes of norm negotiations at the initial stage of academic management and deals with not only norm deviations but also various contact situation phenomena as components of triggering the management. Thus, this conceptual model involves the management processes, which move along a continuum from students' encounter of contact situation phenomena to their implementation of management strategies.

As a result of negotiation of norms, NESB students, including Japanese exchange students, can encounter various positive and negative contact situation phenomena, commonalities of disciplinary knowledge, and cross-cultural situational similarities. These phenomena may, or may not be noted by themselves or others. This noting may lead to evaluations of these phenomena by students or by others, such as their teachers or peers. Three types of evaluations exist at this stage: positive, neutral, and negative. The positive or neutral evaluations can cause students to ignore the seriousness of norm deviations and do not lead to adjustment strategies, whereas a negative evaluation may then lead to the next stage of planning an adjustment. On the other hand, it is assumed that positive contact satiation phenomena, including commonalities of disciplinary knowledge and cross-cultural situational similarities, lead to the adjustment planning stage, when these are evaluated positively.

The three types of evaluations, which students themselves or others make, are not static but can be changed by students' own or others' subsequent re-evaluations. Negative evaluations of students' norm deviations by others, for instance, can be subsequently re-evaluated positively or neutrally by students themselves. At the planning stage, potential appropriate strategies are considered, and students select the most appropriate strategies. However, the availability and accessibility of resources, which the students can utilise for management strategies, may limit their implementation of them. For example, if the resources that students want to employ are not available or accessible, students might search for other potential strategies to use or might abandon the implementation of any strategies at all. In contrast, if the resources they want to use are available and accessible, they could implement the

pertinent strategies. Yet, in some cases, students do not implement management strategies but rather engage in avoidance behaviour instead, for instance, where they are reluctant to use the resources for some reasons. At the final stage of the process, students may appraise the effectiveness of their management strategies. Their evaluations of the strategies, occurring in the middle of, or after undertaking assigned tasks, can be triggered by teachers' or by peer feedback or by their own self-perceptions of the outcome of the adjustment strategies. If the strategies they implemented turn out to be effective, students may continue to utilise them with some modifications, if necessary. On the other hand, when the adjustment strategies themselves contain a deviation, the correction cycle may re-commence and be followed by noting or lack of noting.

Figure 3.3: Model of micro processes of academic management (Based on Neustupny, 1985, 1994, 2004)



3.2 Participants

3.2.1 Backgrounds of participants

A one-academic-year case study was conducted with six Japanese exchange students, two males (with the pseudonyms of Shingo and Kenji) and four females (with the pseudonyms of Mami, Yuka, Chie, and Aya) who enrolled at AU in March and July 2002.

Table 3.1: Profiles of the six Japanese exchange students

	Shingo	Mami	Yuka	Kenji	Chie	Aya
Year level in Japan	Fourth	Fourth	Third	Fourth	Third	Masters (1st year)
Major in Japan	Economics	American Studies	English Literature and Linguistics	Sociology	International Studies	Physics
TOEFL score (TWE or ER)	550 (4.0)	233 CBT (3.5)	230 CBT (4.5)	593 (3.5)	560 (4.0)	530
Credits needed	10 points (3 subjects)	Not necessary	20 points (10 subjects)	6 points (3 subjects)	15 points (8 subjects)	10 points (5 subjects)
Previous study abroad	None	1 month in U.S.A	6 years in Germany	None	6 years in England and U.S.A	6 weeks in England and U.S.A

(a) Years and majors

As shown in Table 3.1 above, three of the participants, Shingo, Mami, and Kenji were fourth-year students at their home university. Yuka and Chie were in their third year of undergraduate courses, and Aya was in her first year of a two-year Master course. The participants undertook various majors at their Japanese home universities. Kenji specialised in Sociology at his home institution in Japan. Mami, Yuka, and Chie majored in courses requiring English skills – American Studies, English Literature and Linguistics, and International Studies – whereas Economics and Physics, which Shingo and Aya majored in, more frequently required mathematical calculations rather than verbal descriptions in their respective assessment tasks.

(b) English language scores

The official minimum scores required for exchange students' enrolment at AU were TOEFL 550 with a TWE (Test of Written English) score of 5.0,

TOEFL-CBT (Computer Based Testing) 213 with an ER (Essay Rating) score of 5.0, or the IELTS 6.0 with Writing 6.0. Nevertheless, it seems that the university flexibly assessed the scores for the three types of writing tests, because the scores, which all the participants obtained in such tests, were below the minimum requirements. Shingo was accepted with his TOEFL score of 550 with TWE 4.0. After her second failure to achieve the requirement, Yuka finally achieved a TOEFL-CBT score of 231 with ER 4.5 and was able to secure an exchange student place. Mami achieved TOEFL-CBT 233 with ER 3.5. Although Mami's first preference was studying at a university in the U.S.A, she followed the exchange program coordinator's advice that she should choose an Australian university rather than an American university where securing exchange positions was more competitive.

Kenji and Chie were from a university which possessed a large number of returnee students from English-speaking countries. The presence of applicants, who possessed relatively high scores on the English proficiency tests, thus made the selection competitive. Kenji achieved much higher scores than the minimum entry requirement, with a TOEFL score of 593 with TWE score 3.5, which helped him to be selected as an exchange student. Although Chie's score of TOEFL 560 with TWE 4.0 was average, her English communication skills, which she had developed when residing in England and the U.S.A for about six years, was highly evaluated in the selection interview and allowed her to obtain an exchange position. Aya was the only participant who did not pass the overall minimum entrance language score but her academic experience allowed her to be accepted as an exchange student. In her case, not only her academic results but also the award from NASDA (National Space Agency of Japan) had a larger influence on the selection procedure at her home university than her TOEFL score of 530. After being selected as an exchange candidate at her home university, Aya negotiated her enrolment with the exchange program coordinator and the head of the School of Mathematical Science at AU. This took 20 or more email interactions, but her request was refused. As a last resort, she sought help from her teacher at her home university, who had a personal connection with the head of school at AU. Her teacher discussed her enrolment with the head and guaranteed her disciplinary competence and English proficiency. In the end, AU admitted the achievement scores from the overseas English language schools where she had previously studied as equivalent to the required language scores for enrolment.

(c) Credits needed at the Australian host university

Shingo, Yuka, and Aya planned to graduate in Japan within the regular terms of study – four years for Shingo and Yuka, and two years for Aya - and thus the three of them needed to transfer the credits that they obtained at the host institution to their home universities. All of the credit points shown in Table 3.1 above are the ones they needed at their Japanese home universities – four credit points per subject at Shingo's university and two credit points per subject at the other participants' universities. Shingo, who aimed to advance to the Masters course the following year, needed to complete three subjects at AU at least to cover the points equivalent to 10 credit points at his home university. Yuka had just completed her second year of study and had 20 more points to obtain for graduation. Thus, she felt the need to obtain as many points as possible at the host institution in order to devote her fourth year in Japan to searching for employment and writing up her graduation thesis.

Since Aya was enrolled in a Master's coursework program with a research component in Japan, she also needed to complete at least five more subjects, which was equivalent to 10 points at her home university. On the other hand, Kenji and Chie planned to take five years to graduate and thus were not motivated to transfer all the credits they obtained at the host university back to their home institutions. Kenji had six more credit points and Chie had another 15 points for graduation. Furthermore, Mami did not need any credit transfer from her host to home university, since she had already obtained all the credit points, except those for her graduation thesis that she was supposed to undertake in her fifth year at her home university.

(d) Prior study abroad experiences

The participants' study abroad experiences can be divided into three types. Although the two male participants, Shingo and Kenji, had never experienced study abroad, two of the female students, Yuka and Chie, had previously studied at overseas primary and secondary schools, and the other two, Mami and Aya, had participated in intensive English programs overseas during their university holidays. Yuka was a returnee student from Germany where she stayed with her family for a total of six years: three years at the age of five to seven and another three years when she was 12 to 14 years of age. Her enrolment in a Japanese school in Germany prevented her from immersing herself in German. However, the EFL courses at the school and her attendance at an English language institution after regular school hours endowed her with enjoyment of learning English for communicative purposes. Chie also sojourned in the

U.S.A and England for about three years in each country. After experiencing an overseas stay in her childhood in the U.S.A, she had another opportunity to study abroad in England at the age of 15 due to her father's business. In England, she was educated at a Japanese school for about three years. As is the case with Yuka, the school allowed Chie to improve her English skills in ESL classes and some immersion classes, although the main goal of the school was to enable the Japanese students to keep up with secondary education in Japan.

Mami participated in an English language school in Boston for one month. In spite of the short period of her stay overseas, her study at the language school helped her to improve her confidence in English speaking and listening. Furthermore, socialising with Asian classmates at that time provided her with situations for English interaction outside the classroom. Aya participated in a three-week intensive English program overseas twice, including one in England and one in the U.S.A. These learning experiences had the effect of taking much pressure off her when communicating in English and provided her with the opportunities to enjoy intercultural interaction.

3.2.2 Selection of subjects

As shown in Table 3.2, the six participants enrolled in various subjects at the Australian host university. As a full-time student, the exchange students were basically required to enrol in a minimum of seven subjects – four in the first semester and three in the second semester – during their one-academic-year study at AU. Four of the participants – Mami, Yuka, Kenji, and Chie – enrolled in the Faculty of Arts at AU, whereas Shingo participated in the Faculty of Economics and Aya studied in an Honour's course in School of Mathematical Science. All the participants selected subjects from among those offered in their faculties or school. Although some of them attended a few second-, third-, or fourth- year subjects, the five undergraduate students principally selected first-year subjects involving the subjects recommended by exchange program staff at AU – Practical English, Australian Culture, and Australian Nature Experience. On the other hand, as an Honours student, Aya studied three fourth-year subjects and one third-year subject in her first semester, and then she undertook research in her second semester. Shingo and Chie were not able to continue their studies after completing their first semester. The details of these two participants' incomplete participation in AU will be shown in Chapter Eight.

Table3.2 Subjects enrolled by the participants

	Sem1 2002			Sem2 2002			Sem1 2003		
Shingo	Principles of Macroeco-nomics (1st year)	International Management (3rd year)	International Economy (3rd year)	Practical English (1st year)	Discontinued				
Mami	Sociology (1st year)	Politcs (1st year)	French (1st year)	Practical English (1st year)	Sociology (1st year)	French (1st year)	Anthropology (2nd year)		
Yuka	Effective Writing (1st year)	Linguistics (1st year)	Australian Culture (1st year)	Practical English (1st year)	Linguistics (1st year)	Japanese Linguistics (2nd or 3rd year)	Interpretation & Translation (2nd,3rd or 4th year)	Practical English (1st year)	
Kenji					Linguistics (1st year)	Sociology (3rd or 4th year)	Australian Culture (1st year)	Anthropology (1st year)	Sociology (3rd or 4th year)	Linguistics (1st year)	Australian Nature Experience (1st year)
Chie					Australian Indigenous Societies (1st year)	Contemporary Japan (1st year)	Australian Culture (1st year)	Practical English (1st year)	Discontinued		
Aya					Computational Astrophysucs (4th year)	Planetary Systems (4th year)	Stars and Galaxies (3rd year)	Observation Trip (4th year)	Research		

3.3 Data Collection Procedures

Five types of data collection procedures were principally employed in this one-academic-year ethnographic examination of Japanese exchange students: a diary study, follow-up interviews, semi-structured interviews, questionnaires, and collection of written documents. The triangulation of methodology allowed this study to collect the extensive amounts and different kinds of data and to present a thick ethnographic description (Geertz 1973). The qualitative data also provided "concrete and complex illustrations" of the students' participation in the host academic context (Wolcott 1994: 364). As shown in Table 3.3 below, a diary study and follow-up interviews, which constituted principal methodological procedures, were employed in the case study of Japanese exchange students. Semi-structured interviews were, furthermore, administered with five exchange program staff at AU as well as 10 exchange program staff, four teachers, and five students at the five Japanese partner universities (JUs), from which five out of six participants in this study came. All the interviews were tape-recorded and subsequently transcribed. The information elicited in the interviews was further followed up at subsequent interviews or through e-mail interactions. Although interviews with native-Japanese-speaking participants were conducted in Japanese, this study provides English translations of the comments which they made in the interviews.

Table 3.3: Data triangulation

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES	INFORMANTS & MATERIALS
Diary study & follow-up interviews	Japanese exchange students
Semi-structured interviews	Japanese students at home universities
	Teachers at home universities
	Exchange program staff at home and host universities
Collection of written documents	Written drafts
	Returned assignments
	Subject outlines
	Lecture notes, handouts and assignment guidelines
	Brochures of exchange programs
	Curriculum guidelines at Japanese universities
Questionnaires	Teachers at AU

A variety of written documents were also collected to consolidate the data about Japanese exchange students' participation in the host institution, their home academic environments, and the policies and practices of student exchange programs. These documents included students' written drafts, returned assignments, overall academic records, subject outlines, lecture notes, handouts, assignment guidelines, brochures of exchange programs, and curriculum guidelines at Japanese universities. Furthermore, brief email questionnaires were administered to 26 teachers of the subjects in which Japanese exchange students enrolled at AU in order to identify the teachers' recognition of the exchange students in their classes and the type of support they provided to these students (cf. Appendix A). I also subsequently interviewed three of the teachers to elicit more detailed information.

3.3.1 Diary study and interviews

Diary-keeping enables the diarists to record events and feelings about their concurrent learning experiences (Matsumoto 1994: 367). In this study, a diary study was employed to monitor the activities Japanese exchange students undertake, the problems they encounter, and the strategies they implement as well as to identify the students' various internal representations in the processes of engaging in tasks as well as during their everyday participation in classes. The diary entries which are documented through regular entries enabled the researcher to analyse recurring patterns or salient events (cf. Nunan 1989; Bailey 1990).

Diary entries were kept from the day the exchange students started working on set tasks until the last day they completed these tasks, recording the kinds of in-class and out-of-class activities they undertook, their evaluations of the activities, and the time required for undertaking them. As shown in Appendix B, prior to their commencement of a diary, the format was provided to the students to avoid the inclusion of data which was irrelevant to the research (cf. Miyazaki 1999). A sample of diary entries was also shown to them and the researcher explained how to fill in the diary format. This study took into consideration their preference to practice writing in English as often as possible. Thus, the written scripts on the entries were not limited to Japanese but the participants were allowed to write either in English or Japanese.

The self-reporting nature of diary studies was supplemented by questioning in subsequent follow-up interviews. Japanese was used as the medium of communication in the interviews in order to make the process of investigation meaningful and make the interviews comfortable to the

participants (cf. Riazi 1997). The homogeneity of the nationality between the researcher and participants also provided the researcher with insider awareness of participants' academic adjustment to the host university context in Australia (cf. Hornberger 1994; Riazi 1997). This resulted in developing rapport between the researcher and participants, and allowed them to have a highly interactive research atmosphere.

Throughout their study at AU, all of the interviews were conducted on the day the students completed specific tasks or at least within a few days after their completion of the tasks. Students were interviewed in order to explore the activities and strategies mentioned in their diary entries, and they were encouraged to elaborate on their behaviour in the process of their undertaking the assigned tasks, while following the events and happenings in sequence. The interviews covered students' perceptions of the activities to complete a certain task, the problems they encountered when they undertook the activity, how they realised the problems, how they evaluated them, the strategies they implemented to overcome the problems, why they implemented those strategies, and whether or not they considered the strategies effective. In the interviews, the researcher also elicited comments on the study behaviour of other Japanese exchange students who were enrolled in the same subjects as the student interviewees. Moreover, this study sometimes used participant verification by requiring the participants to confirm the researchers' interpretations of findings (cf. Ball 1998; Flowerdew 2002). I also requested the participants to elaborate upon crucial or ambiguous findings, which I sometimes found in the transcripts, in the following interview sessions.

During the periods when the students did not engage in any tasks, the researcher requested the students to keep diary entries on their everyday participation in classes for a week, and subsequently administered follow-up interviews. The interviews were thus conducted almost once a week during the semesters. After the participants were back in Japan, several further email interviews were administered to consolidate the data about their participation in AU and credit transfers. I also interviewed Shingo, Yuka, and Mami at their home universities several months after their return to Japan. In these ways, the combination of diary entries and interviews enabled the researcher to elicit details of academic situations and accompanying academic management by the participants. In addition, prior to the diary study and follow-up interviews, detailed information about Japanese exchange students' backgrounds was obtained through preliminary interviews in which the participants were required to describe several topics: their purposes of participation in the exchange programs, types of task requirements and types of strategies for accomplishing the

tasks at their home universities, their preparation for participating in AU, experiences of EFL courses at their Japanese home universities, prior experience of study abroad, and their subject selection at AU.

3.3.2 Interviews with exchange program staff

Semi-structured interviews in conjunction with examination of written documents were extensively utilised to collect data from exchange program staff at the home and host institutions. According to Nunan (1992), the advantages of the semi-structured interviews are two-fold: providing the interviewees with a degree of power and control over the course of the interview, and providing the interviewer with a great deal of flexibility. In advance of the interviews with 10 Japanese exchange program staff at JUs, information about student exchange programs was collected through the websites of the exchange programs at each university, and the list of questions asked in the interviews were sent to the staff through email beforehand in order to enable them to prepare for the interviews (cf. Appendix C). These interviews aimed to investigate the policies and practices of student exchange programs, focussing on the goals of the programs, the systems of credit transfers, and their support to Japanese exchange students' preparation for study abroad. Furthermore, an exchange program coordinator at one of JUs was interviewed again when she visited AU with two administrative staff in March 2003. The interview helped the researcher to elicit the objectives of their visit and how their visit was organised.

Similar questions were asked in semi-structured interviews with five exchange program staff at AU (cf. Appendix D and E). Three of the staff belonged to the department of Japanese Studies and had alternately coordinated the program which sent students to Japanese partner universities for the past 10 years. Another two belonged to the international office, which coordinated incoming programs from Japan and other countries while organising outgoing programs to all the countries except Japan. The focus was placed on the institutional support for Japanese exchange students' social and academic adjustment to the host community.

3.3.3 Interviews with teachers and students at Japanese universities

Semi-structured interviews with four teachers and five students in the courses from the exchange students' home universities aimed not only to support the participants' self-reports on their home academic experiences

but also to compare the systems between the academic cultures found in Japan and Australia. The questions in the interviews involved types of classes, types and number of tasks in the courses, teachers' expectations of students' academic performance, students' attitudes towards participation in classes, and their actual study behaviour (cf. Appendix F). Curriculum guidelines of the courses, teachers' handouts and subject outlines at the Japanese universities were also collected at the interviews.

3.4 Data Analysis Procedures

Reflecting upon the conceptual frameworks, this study analysed the data inductively. As Leki (1995: 240) stresses, mentioning the number of times that certain findings appear can lead to a distortion of the relative importance of the findings displayed. Since this study was a detailed investigation of a limited number of cases, the data was not quantified except for the analysis of a whole picture of individual different academic management approaches by the participants (cf. Chapter Seven). Furthermore, the findings are not generalised to the overall population, but rather an in-depth analysis was made of each case.

The interview transcriptions of exchange program staff and written documents of the programs were analysed on the basis of Kaplan and Baldauf's (2003) criteria of language-in-education planning, which I discussed above. Six out of seven criteria were utilised as independent variables. The data based on these criteria was further analysed in relation to the educational needs, goals and motivations of Japanese exchange students as well as reciprocal collaboration between Japanese and Australian universities. The analysis of academic management processes, furthermore, involved examination of all the interview transcripts, diary entries, and other written documents obtained from the six students. First of all, the data was individually categorised. As a result of reviewing the documents a number of times, the data was re-organised according to the stages of academic management, involving stages of negotiating norms, noting, evaluation, adjustment planning, implementing management strategies, and evaluation of the strategies. Then, the crucial findings relating to each stage were selected from the documents. Based on the analysis of some of the similar findings, several clusters were generated. Following Marshall and Rossman (1999), the other findings were added to these clusters, and then the characteristics of the clusters were analysed to identify salient categories, themes, and recurring patterns. Finally, some hypotheses of the data analysis were developed. The emergent hypotheses

were tested against the other data to ensure the validity and plausibility (cf. Marshall and Rossman 1999).

For an investigation of Japanese exchange students' developmental processes of academic participation, the cases of six participants were largely divided into two groups, involving incomplete and completed cases. To begin with, the participants' cases were respectively elaborated using within-case analysis where "the data of a single qualitative case" was analysed (Merriam 1998: 194). The data of each participant was categorised into several stages covering the students' one-academic-year study. At each stage of their participation, a comparative analysis was made of their study behaviour and the attitudes towards their involvement in the host community. Then, this study conducted cross-case analyses of Shingo and Chie's incomplete cases as well as completed cases by the other four participants, in order to identify the variables that transcended particular cases (cf. Yin 1989; Patton 1990; Miles and Huberman 1994; Merriam 1998). This type of analysis also enabled this study to "generate logical discrepancies in the already-analysed data and suggest areas where data might be logically uncovered" (Marshall and Rossman 1999: 116). The identified variables of incomplete and completed participation were, furthermore, compared to explore the factors facilitating or constraining Japanese exchange students' academic participation at AU. In addition, this study analysed the data collected from teachers at AU as well as from teachers and students at participants' home universities in Japan. The findings in the interview transcripts and questionnaires were integrated with the main data analysis procedures, which were discussed above.

CHAPTER FOUR

POLICIES AND PRACTICES OF A STUDENT EXCHANGE PROGRAM

4.1 Introduction

Although student exchanges aim to promote both students' intercultural experience and language development, the nature of such one-academic-year participation necessitates us to consider student exchanges as not merely a cultural experience program, which allows students to participate in a different academic culture as a guest. Rather, we should focus on the role played by student exchanges as a collaborative language education program between home and host universities.

The view of student exchanges as a language education program enables us to allow for intensified cultural contact between the academic systems of Japanese and Australian universities and to attend to obstacles to Japanese exchange students' development of academic competence in English at the host universities. Although the importance of organised management of cultural contact at the institutional level has been reconsidered (cf. Neustupny 2004), the structural arrangements of student exchanges have not been comprehensively discussed to date. This chapter investigates how student exchanges are organised as a language education program and the impact of structural arrangements on Japanese exchange students' participation in an Australian host university. When we examine how the structures of communities facilitate or constrain learners' access to the linguistic resources, it is effective to pay close attention to how communities and their practices are structured (cf. Norton and Toohey 2001). Based on the previously-mentioned conceptual model, which employs Kaplan and Baldauf's (2003) criteria of language-in-education planning, the investigation of this chapter is made on the basis of two research questions:

(1) What kinds of policies and practices underlie student exchanges from Japanese to Australian universities?

(2) How do policies and practices assist Japanese exchange students' participation in an Australian host university?

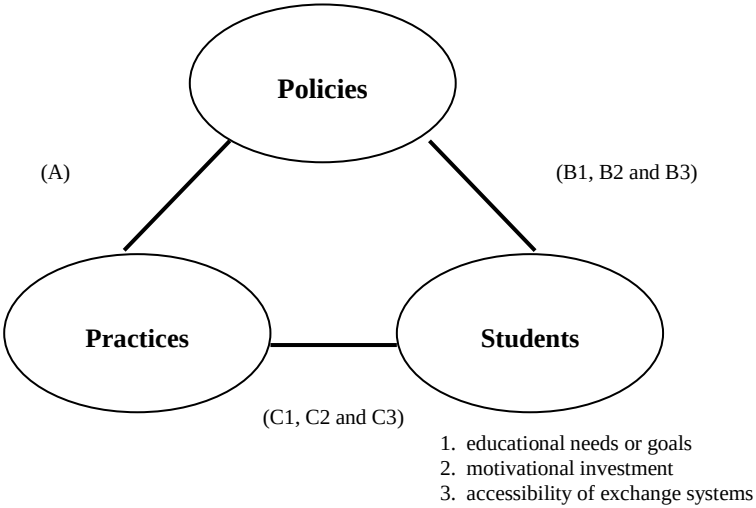
4.2 Overview of Findings

AU has student exchange agreements with 11 Japanese universities among 139 agreements with partner universities all over the world (Monash Abroad 2005). According to the exchange program staff at AU, all JUs surveyed for this study, except one, constantly exchange one or two students with an Australian university every year. In 2002, AU accepted 11 Japanese exchange students out of a total of 243 overseas exchange students and sent 14 exchange students to Japan.

As shown in Figure 4.1, the findings describe various relationships among what the student exchanges aimed at (Policies), how the exchanges were actually undertaken (Practices), and how Japanese exchange students participated in student exchanges (Students). This study found seven types of tensions in structuring student exchanges among policies, practices, educational needs or goals of Japanese exchange students, their motivational investments and accessibility of current exchange systems to the students.

Tension A represents the imbalance between policies and practices of student exchanges. Tension B1 pertains to the discrepancies between policies and students' educational needs or goals, whereas Tension B2 deals with the impact of policies on students' motivational investments. The tensions between policies and the accessibility of exchange systems to the students are also shown as Tension B3. Similarly, Tension C1, C2 and C3 occurred as a result of incommensurability of practices with the students' needs or goals, motivational investments and the accessibility of systems. I identified these tensions in relation to credit transfer systems, subject arrangements, and academic support systems.

Figure 4.1: Seven types of tensions in structuring student exchanges



4.3 Credit Transfer Systems

4.3.1 Conflicts between subject selection and credit transfer

Tensions in credit transfer systems resulted from three factors: first, conflicts between subject selection and credit transfer; second, the complexity of administrative procedures; and third, the incompatibility of grades between AU and JUs. AU's policy of subject selection conflicted with JUs' policy of credit transfer and the mismatch gave rise to Tension A and C3 within credit transfer systems. The exchange program coordinator at AU recommended that the students should select first-year subjects on the grounds that such subjects provided students with an induction to academic discourse and practices relevant to academic settings, such as how to manage weekly assigned articles and how to write an academic essay.

However, the policy of credit transfer at JUs hindered the participants from selecting first-year subjects, since it required them to select subjects which were similar to those offered at JUs but not equivalent to the ones they had previously studied (Tension A). The students, who were third- or fourth-year undergraduates and one first-year postgraduate student at their home universities, had finished studying all basic subjects in their disciplines before participating in the student exchange program at AU.

Consequently, the first-year subjects tended not to be eligible for credit transfer and thus were frequently inaccessible to the Japanese exchange students (Tension C3). For this reason, Chie did not expect any credit transfer but preferred to select the subjects which she wanted to study.

4.3.2 Complexity of administrative procedures

The complexity of administrative procedures of credit transfer also led to Tension A and C3. While a credit transfer system is one of the characteristics, which make student exchanges worthwhile, the administrative procedures of transferring credits from AU to JUs were not effectively undertaken (Tension A). Japanese exchange students were required to negotiate availability of credit transfer with the teachers in their schools at JUs and to submit various documents, including academic results, course outlines, and self reports on their academic achievements. Consequently, the students felt reluctant to gain access to the credit transfer systems (Tension C3).

The complexity also pertained to the fact that the coordinators of student exchange programs at JUs could not mediate home and host academic systems because not the coordinators themselves but teachers of students' home schools were basically in charge of credit transfer. The exchange program staff at JUs have thus claimed that quite a few Japanese exchange students prefer to avoid relying upon credit transfer from overseas host universities and obtain most of the required credit points, other than the graduation thesis, at their home universities before participating in a student exchange program.

In this study, three of the participants successfully transferred credits to their Japanese home universities, despite such inconvenience. Yuka's school at her home university allowed her to transfer all the credits which she obtained at the host university. When she explained the features of the course to the teacher who was in charge of credit transfer, Yuka emphasised the similarities between the subjects she attended and those offered in her home school in order to persuade the teacher to allow her the credit transfer. She commented, "I might have twisted the similarities around. But I think I needed to, otherwise the teacher wouldn't give me anything".

Kenji, who had deliberately selected and studied transferable subjects at the host university, was confident of being permitted to transfer credits. Since he needed only six more credit points for graduation, apart from his graduation thesis, he did not require transfer of all the subjects. His home school allowed him to transfer 12 credit points for the two Sociology

subjects at the host institution into three subjects relevant to his major in Japan. In his case, six credit points from one of the subjects, a third-year Sociology subject, was calculated as equivalent to two subjects, since the teacher acknowledged the adequacy of the level and the quality of the subject and allowed for the length of the contact hours.

Aya was from a university which had not previously organised any administrative procedures relating to credit transfers from AU. Therefore, she was advised in advance of her departure to Australia that credit transfer would not be feasible. However, due to her slow progress on the Master's thesis for her home course, she needed to transfer credits so as to allow more time for thesis writing upon returning to her home university. In order to convince the teachers in her home school, she collected written references from four of her teachers at the host university, including an outline of subject objectives, syllabuses, and brief descriptions of her achievements. As a result of her efforts, the credits which she obtained in four subjects at the host institution – three honours subjects and one third-year undergraduate subject – were successfully transferred into her Master's course.

In contrast to these three participants, Shingo was not allowed to transfer all of the credit points to his home institution. He submitted all the relevant documents and requested a credit from one subject. Nevertheless, his overall result for the subject, 50 percent, was not calculated as equivalent to one subject at his home university and was awarded only three out of four possible credit points. These findings revealed that Japanese exchange students needed to involve themselves thoroughly in complex administrative procedures when they transferred credits from AU to their home universities in Japan.

4.3.3. Incompatibility of grades and credit points

The other tension of credit transfer systems was related to the incompatibility of grades. Irrespective of their academic results, the credits, which the Japanese exchange students obtained at their overseas partner universities, were accepted as "pass grade only" at JUs. The policy of transferring grades at JUs could thus result in Tension B2 because the policy per se tended not to encourage them to invest a lot of effort and to increase their participation at the host academic settings. Hence, it seems that the current system of credit transfer does not play a role as "a motivation enhancing device" for Japanese exchange students' participation in the host academic community (cf. Kaplan and Baldauf 1997). This problem needs urgent attention by universities on both sides.

The insufficient development of credit transfer systems is related to difficulties in transferring different credit points because of the imbalance in course length and in the amount of assessment between the Japanese and Australian universities. Subject contact hours are basically 90 minutes per week in Japan and 120 or 180 minutes per week in Australia**,** and thus the amount of assessment per subject tends to be larger at AU than at the Japanese universities. Due to these differences, exchange students from AU to the Japanese universities need to enrol in two subjects to obtain six credit points, which is equivalent to one subject at AU. However, this calculation is not necessarily applicable vice versa. The six points, for instance, which Japanese exchange students obtains by completing a subject in Australia is not always calculated as the equivalent of two subjects in Japanese universities. There is thus no one-to-one relationship in credit transfer between the Japanese and Australian universities.

In order to solve the problems connected with credit transfer, course length and differing academic years, Australian universities actively promote a study-abroad program, UMAP (University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific Region) which devises an original system of UCTS (UMAP Credit Transfer Scheme) (cf. the Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee 1999). In Japan, when the Association of International Education, Japan (AIEJ) distributed scholarships, the priority is also placed on the Japanese universities which apply a policy of credit transfer through UCTS (AIEJ 2004). In contrast to these public statements, this study found that this system has not been implemented widely by the Australian and Japanese universities. The exchange program staff in these universities agreed on the usefulness of the system, but negotiation between the Australian and Japanese universities has not yet resulted in an UCTS agreement and introduction of this credit-transfer system.

Such inflexibility of credit transfer tended to negatively affect the length of the regular four-year degree of Japanese exchange students' undergraduate study. According to exchange program staff at JUs, who were interviewed in this study, it was common for the students, especially those who participated in student exchanges after completing their third year of study, to expand their undergraduate study to five years. In this study, two out of three fourth-year participants allocated another year for seeking employment and writing up their graduation theses after returning to their home universities. Thus, exchange program staff at JUs stressed the need to balance the subjects offered at home universities with those at host universities so that student exchanges could promote exchange students' progressive learning in their disciplines. These findings indicate that it is necessary for the Australian and Japanese universities to

undertake reciprocal information exchange about the curriculum and collaborate in discussion about how the UCTS can be introduced at universities in both countries.

4.4 Subject Arrangements

The policy of subject arrangements in the student exchange program at AU appears to have been designed whereby incoming exchange students were recommended to take either or both of two specific subjects – Australia Culture and Australian Nature Experience. In addition, NESB exchange students were recommended to enrol in another subject in the course of Practical English per semester. Regular subjects were then chosen by the students to complete their enrolment. These arrangements meant that the recommended subjects by exchange program staff covered four out of the seven subjects, which exchange students were required to enrol in during their two-semester studies.

However, the arrangements of the two recommended subjects for all exchange students – Australia Culture and Australian Nature Experience – triggered Tension A and C3, because of negative outcomes of the access policy, which treated all of the students as a homogeneous group. The access policy led the coordinators of these subjects to pay closer attention to the linguistic majority – English-speaking background (ESB) and near-ESB exchange students, who constituted 88 percent of the incoming exchange students. Consequently, the policy, which was designed for all the incoming exchange students, ironically contributed to giving rise to inequity between linguistic majority and minority exchange students (Tension A). Although the inequity was not directly reflected in the marks, the students made a critical comment about the atmosphere of the classes of Australian Culture and the teacher's attitudes towards ESB and NESB exchange students. For example, since ESB exchange students dominated the in-class discussions, Yuka reported:

(1)

> I don't like the lecture because I have the impression that the teacher mainly speaks to the exchange students from Europe and North America in class. He likes to talk about the differences and similarities in culture between Australia and other Western countries. He doesn't care about Asian countries and Asian students. (Yuka)

This finding demonstrates that the classroom communities were not necessarily accessible to Japanese exchange students (Tension C3).

Furthermore, the curriculum policy of allocating Australia Culture and Australian Nature Experience to exchange students was not followed by adequate methods and materials policies of the subjects. This inconsistency led to Tension C1. The course syllabi of these recommended subjects mainly emphasised students' participation in lectures, field trips, and fieldwork for assessment and aimed to introduce Australia's unique culture and nature through activities. In addition to the attendance-based assessment, these subjects required students to undertake written assignments, oral presentations, and examinations, but these tasks were not assessed as severely as in other regular subjects. Such arrangements did not necessarily meet Japanese exchange students' educational goals at AU, because they generally aimed to improve their previously-developed disciplinary knowledge and skills through their involvement in the host academic environments. For this reason, half of the Japanese participants did not select Australia Culture or Australian Nature Experience. The remaining three participants – Yuka, Chie and Kenji – enrolled in Australian Culture, while Kenji also participated in Australian Nature Experience. However, as Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) claim, the simplified content and materials of these subjects did not enable them to maintain their interest in the subjects (Tension C2). For example, since Kenji expected to develop his theoretical knowledge about the relationship between tourism and society for his forthcoming graduation thesis in Japan, he was disappointed at general cultural information provided by these subjects. Although he felt confident in compensating for his linguistic disadvantage by activating his disciplinary expertise, the subjects did not require him to apply his previously-developed academic knowledge and skills. He commented, "The most important thing in these subjects is how well we understand English and how familiar we are with Australia. We don't need any academic skills".

Selecting a non-demanding subject in addition to three other subjects might help Japanese exchange students to cope with all the academic requirements. However, the attendance-based assessment and leniency in assessment in the recommended subjects did not motivate the three participants to undertake the assigned tasks properly. It seems that the methods and materials policies of Australian Culture and Australian Nature Experience were oriented from the view of student exchanges as a cross-cultural experience program. Hence, Japanese exchange students, who aimed to achieve well academically, tend to be dissatisfied with such subject contents.

Similar to Australian Culture and Australian Nature Experience, in the Practical English course, conflicts existed between the curriculum policy and methods and materials policy since the exchange program staff and the subject coordinator had different expectations of the course. Such conflicts triggered Tension A and C1. Practical English provided a subject per semester to first- to third-year NESB undergraduate students. Thus, exchange program staff at AU strongly recommended the Japanese exchange students to enrol in the subjects of this course, based on their belief that Practical English served as an introductory subject of academic English. Accordingly, the four participants – Yuka, Mami, Chie, and Shingo – enrolled in the subjects in Practical English. Although Mami and Chie initially intended not to select the subjects, their chosen subjects were actually changed by the exchange program staff at AU to include a Practical English subject.

However, contrary to the expectations of student exchange program staff at AU, the coordinator of the Practical English course stated that the purpose of the course did not mainly aim to help NESB international students to learn English academic discourse, but to introduce linguistic and sociolinguistic theories and practices to these students. Thus, the curriculum policy, which allocated Practical English as an introductory English course to exchange students, did not sufficiently function in practice (Tension A). Although the subjects briefly provided some academic introduction, such as how to deal with conventions of academic writing in English, the four Japanese exchange students had difficulty understanding the linguistically-oriented content and managing the required tasks. All of them, even Yuka, who majored in English Literature and Linguistics in Japan, commented that Practical English was the most challenging among the four subjects in which they were enrolled. Such struggles demonstrate that there existed mismatch of the course content with Japanese exchange students' educational needs and expectations (Tension C1). The method and materials practice, furthermore, caused Tension C2 on the ground that it did not help the students to improve their motivational investments and increase their participation at AU.

Despite the tensions, which were discussed above, the access policy of Practical English led this course to have an advantage over the other subjects. Since it was tailored particularly for NESB students, the subject provided Japanese exchange students with rhetorical situations where they could actively participate. For instance, while criticising the complicated content of the course, Yuka stressed the comfort of studying with NESB international students by stating, "In Practical English, I feel it is easier to ask questions and express my opinions because all the students are non-

native and at least I can feel I'm a better speaker of English than some of my classmates". In this regard, it could be argued that such a subject arrangement contributed to students' movement from the periphery to becoming fuller participants in the target community (cf. Lave and Wenger 1991). This study found that the provision of a course targeting the linguistic minority was important. However, as is the case with Australia Culture and Australian Nature Experience, it seems necessary for a student exchange program to review the methods and materials policies and practices of subjects so that subject content can be more suitably developed for an NESB cohort.

4.5 Academic Support Systems

The other structure of the student exchange program, which this study investigated, was that of academic support systems for NESB exchange students at AU. The student exchange program at AU aimed to support incoming NESB exchange students' academic participation mainly by recommending them to utilise the language and study support centres. The faculty-based language and study support centres provided assistance in academic adjustment to NESB international students as well as to local Australian students. For example, in the Faculty of Arts, the centre organised a five-week academic writing course at the beginning of each semester and drop-in sessions throughout the semester, which enabled students to discuss how to cope with academic tasks with language instructors. One-hour private consultations were also available by appointment at the centres, providing students with editing support to their written assignments.

However, imbalance between the access policy and methods and materials policies resulted in various tensions in the arrangements of academic support. Exchange program staff at AU expected the language and study support centres to offer ongoing support and treatment of students' academic problems. Nevertheless, in practice, due to time constraint and limitations of the number of personnel, it was difficult for the centres to provide comprehensive assistance and rectify all the problems of students, and thus the centres emphasised helping students to develop autonomous task management skills (Tension A). Accordingly, the users of the centres were merely able to receive general guidance regarding academic writing, advice on how to tackle specific academic tasks, content-based assistance, and partial editing support such as corrections of grammar, spelling, expressions, in-text referencing, and structures.

Given that only partial assistance was available at the centres, Japanese exchange students needed to consult the instructors multiple times to complete one task. However, Tension C3 hindered the students from maximising the opportunities. The Japanese exchange students evaluated the services negatively in that the services were frequently inaccessible to the students. In fact, except for Chie, the students did not use private consultations or drop-in sessions at the language and study support centres. The students expected the instructors to proofread their whole drafts, and thus considered 15 minutes allocation per person in the drop-in sessions as insufficient to address all their problems with their written assignments. The availability of the centre instructors for private consultations was also limited since they had many students to assist, particularly during periods when the submission deadlines for assignments approached. It was difficult for the Japanese exchange students to identify what to ask of instructors at the earlier stage of undertaking their assignments, because they were likely to find out most major problems while writing their drafts. Consequently, the participants could not utilise the services when the instructors were more available for consultations and thus tended to rely on their peers to provide clarification of the academic requirements and proofread their written drafts.

Similarly, Tension C1 and C2 occurred in relation to the writing course. Although Yuka, Chie, and Kenji attended the writing course, all of them discontinued it because the course mainly treated the theoretical aspects of academic writing and did not meet their educational needs to receive specific assistance directly related to forthcoming academic tasks (Tension C1). The course raised their consciousness about the complexity of academic writing but the complexity also led them to become afraid that they could not cope with forthcoming written assignments. In this sense, the writing course did not enhance students' motivational investments in academic writing as much as the exchange program staff and students expected (Tension C2). Kenji commented:

(2)

> The instructor explains abstract issues of academic writing in English too often and emphasises difficulties in doing written tasks. So, the course isn't really practical but it's boring and sort of threatening. Probably, it is more useful for me to find out the styles of appropriate writing after I start preparing for written assignments. So, I'd better spend time reading weekly assigned articles rather than attending the course. (Kenji)

These findings have indicated that exchange program staff needed to gain a better understanding of how the language and study support centre provided services to students and to suggest how exchange students should use the services.

A questionnaire survey revealed that, similar to exchange program staff, teachers in regular courses also had a policy of recommending NESB students to seek help from the centres, rather than directly assisting them in their linguistic struggles. As Corson (1999) pointed out, although teachers might make an effort to promote fairness and recognise diverse identities, it is likely that the professional roles that the teachers play, as members of a social institution, put great limits on their actions to identify students' problems and provide assistance in overcoming these. Misconception of the language and study support centres as a panacea for students' language problems led exchange program staff and teachers to rely upon the centres excessively. It appears that such reliance hindered them from working out other expedient remedial measures to help their students.

The student exchange program at AU, furthermore, had an unofficial policy of academic support through preparatory English courses. However, the policy triggered Tension B since the policy per se contradicted the accessibility of the courses to Japanese exchange students. Several EAP (English for Academic Purposes) or IAP (Introductory Academic Program) courses were available on a fee-paying basis at an affiliated language centre as a preparatory course for NESB international students prior to their enrolments. In the interview, the exchange program staff at AU stressed such availability as a part of the policy of academic support. However, Japanese exchange students did not feel the need to participate in any preparatory English courses since their participation tended to be hindered by the difference in semester commencement between the Japanese and Australian universities. The exchange students' participation in the courses also gave rise to financial problems since the fees were not covered by their student exchanges. If students are regarded as having insufficient English skills and have a conditional offer of enrolment in AU, it is essential for them to participate in a pre-enrolment bridging course. Otherwise, these two factors prevent Japanese exchange students from studying at the preparatory courses. As some researchers have claimed, a serious problem in an education policy is that expectations set in the program can be unrealistic (cf. Genesee 1994; Kaplan and Baldauf 1997; Thomas 1981). This study indicated that the preparatory English courses did not sufficiently serve as an option of academic support to Japanese exchange students, contrary to the exchange program staff's expectation.

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CHAPTER FIVE

NEGOTIATION OF NORMS IN ACADEMIC CONTACT SITUATIONS

5.1 Introduction

Given that LPP is never a matter of peaceful transmission and assimilation but a conflictual process of negotiation and transformation (Lave and Wenger 1990), it is crucial to examine Japanese exchange students' participation in AU in terms of their negotiation of multiple norms in academic contact situations. This chapter covers the conflictual processes of students' negotiating norms, focussing on their application of native norms, negotiating acquisition of English academic norms, and negotiation of social participation. Given that "the newcomers are likely to come short of what is regarded as competent engagement", the students' behaviour in academic contact situations involves "inevitable stumblings and violations, which become opportunities for learning rather than cause of dismissal, neglect, or exclusion" (Wenger 1998: 101).

The students' application of native norms is the most basic form of the students' negotiation of norms and occurs particularly at the early stage of their participation at the host university. Some of the norms are positively applied whereas most of them give rise to conflicts with target norms. This chapter deals with the negative application of native norms while the positive cases are illustrated in Chapter Seven. The students' negotiation of the acquisition of English academic norms is also discussed from the perspectives of developing situated competence and accommodation to the communicative goals of academic requirements. This chapter, furthermore, illustrates the students' negotiation of social participation with host community members in relation to their struggles over access to resources.

5.2. Application of Native Norms

One of the major findings this chapter reports on was that processes of norm negotiation were triggered as a result of the exchange students' application of various native norms in the host academic context. Such application often emerged when the students failed to identify the differences in academic genres and in the participation styles appropriate in Japanese and Australian university contexts, and when they did not sufficiently plan how to complete the academic tasks assigned to them.

5.2.1 Differences in academic genres

Genre differences in academic discourse used in the Japanese exchange students' home universities and AU were not as noticeable to the students as linguistic differences were. This study found three factors which prevented the students from identifying genre differences, namely, utilisation of the same or similar labels for tasks between the home and host universities, students' excessive attention to linguistic difficulties, and their use of L1 resources. As Swales (1990) points out, each academic discourse community has its own nomenclature for genres. Different academic genres require students to undertake different social actions in response to recurrent rhetorical situations. However, some cross-cultural similarities exist in the labeling of activities in Japanese and Australian universities. Such similarities encouraged the participants to covertly apply their native norms in academic writing. For example, because of the use of the label "essay" at the home and host universities, Yuka assumed that the rhetorical style for an essay was common to both cultures. Consequently, she relied upon her native norms with regard to rhetorical style and unwittingly emphasised the description of the topic without substantial analysis.

Likewise, similar labels for a 'summary' at the home and host universities prevented the participants from recognising the differences in the requirements for this activity. For example, Chie was required to summarise and criticise an article for one of her written assignments. However, she was confused and unable to identify some genre differences in summarising an article at her Japanese university compared with the Australian host university. At her home university, a summary was called "*samarii*", "*yooyaku*", or "*matome*". For this type of summary, Chie was not required to cover and paraphrase all the main arguments of the assigned article or to use in-text referencing for citations in the summary. Instead, she was allowed to be flexible in selecting the sections that she

wanted to cover, while directly copying and putting together the sections in her text. She reported that since it was a basic premise for students to understand the content of the readings well enough to discuss them, a summary at her home university did not need to be comprehensive. As Swales (1990: 55) stresses, naming of communicative events tended to be institutional labels rather than descriptive ones. The findings in this study confirm that the substantial meanings of labels could differ according to cultures, communities, institutions, or teachers.

There were also various discrepancies in the nomenclature of written assignments between the participants' Japanese home universities and AU. The written assignments that the participants undertook at AU varied in type but included "essay", "report", "assignment", "research essay", "research paper", "critical discussion paper", and "position paper". These different types of assignments contrasted with the common 'report' for most types of written assignments at their Japanese home universities. Despite the obvious differences in nomenclature, it was still difficult for Japanese exchange students to identify how different the rhetorical styles of these written assignments were. This was partly because the excessive attention that students paid to their own linguistic difficulties resulted in them overlooking these differences. For example, in her research paper, Chie was worried about, and paid too much attention to, the grammatical correctness of sentences. Such attention distracted her from considering how she should present her findings and opinions in the text. As a consequence, as in Yuka's case above, her native norm of writing – a descriptive writing style – unconsciously dominated the way in which she drafted her text and prevented her from examining and discussing the topic. She did not realise this norm deviation until she received her teacher's comment on the marked paper. Some researchers have indicated the importance of students' paying attention to whole texts in their writing development (cf. Graves 1983; Calkins 1986; Freeman and Freeman 1989). Chie's case implies that, in learning to write in L2, it is more important to gradually differentiate the whole into parts, rather than build up parts into the whole (cf. Vygotsky 1978). This finding demonstrates that too much attention to the details of L2 writing can give rise to deviation from the norm with regard to a required rhetorical style.

Native norms with regard to text structure and organisation were also unconsciously applied by Japanese exchange students due to their excessive attention to the word length of assignments. Yuka experienced this type of norm deviation in a 2000-word essay, where she attempted to discuss the differences and similarities between Aborigines and Ainu. Since the assignment was her first long essay, her initial attention was

focussed on how to fulfil the required length. Therefore, she covertly applied her native norm related to organising and structuring the text by including background information on minorities in the introductory section, describing the characteristics of Aborigines and Ainu in the main body, and discussing the differences and similarities between these two minorities in the concluding section. However, this type of text structure and content was not highly rated by her teacher, because the teacher expected substantial analysis and discussion of the similarities and differences in the main section of the essay. The above cases revealed that since grammatical correctness and word length were noticeable difficulties which the students encountered in L2 academic writing, they tended to regard these difficulties as major obstacles to undertaking written assignments. However, more significant genre differences in writing existed tacitly and the students' insufficient recognition of such differences led them to produce written work that deviated from the norms with regard to rhetorical style as well as text structure and organisation of academic writing in Australian academic settings.

Native norms were, furthermore, covertly applied in relation to students' use of L1 resources. The students' use of L1 resources was effective in the planning stage of undertaking written assignments since Japanese sources from Japanese literature or websites facilitated their understanding of the topics and their subsequent elaboration of ideas. However, at the drafting stage, their use of L1 sources seemed to give rise to problems with the translation of Japanese texts into English following target written conventions. For instance, in Shingo's case, drafting a text in Japanese and directly translating this into English produced unusual English expressions and incoherent and inductive sentences. Shingo was afraid that his lack of experience in writing an English essay would cause him to deviate from what he intended to state. Therefore, in one of his written assignments, he first drafted the text in Japanese, referring to three Japanese books relevant to the assigned topic which he had found in the library. He then translated the Japanese draft into English. However, he had difficulties in identifying how to translate Japanese expressions into English properly and in reorganising the structures so that the text would suit academic writing in English. Although Woodall (2002) has claimed that using L1 as a tool in the process of L2 writing can be beneficial, it seems that the students' direct conversion from L1 to L2 text may have complicated their production of appropriate language and led them to deviate from the deductive writing style, which was required in this Australian academic context. This study found that excessive reliance on L1 sources can promote NESB students' problems with language use in

their English texts, unless these students have developed English writing skills to such an extent that they can allow for the differences in wording, rhetorical styles, and text organisation and structure.

5.2.2 Differences in participation styles

The Japanese exchange students struggled to recognise not only the genre differences but also differences in participation styles between their native situations and academic contact situations. Their struggles with participation styles led them to apply native attitudinal norms, particularly in preparing for examinations and in their regular participation in class. For example, Kenji, Mami, and Chie, who had experienced essay-style examinations many times at their home universities, expected that examinations would be more manageable for them than written assignments. These participants thus regarded it as unnecessary to allocate a large amount of time to prepare for this type of task at AU. As a consequence, they covertly applied a native norm of preparation for essay-style examinations and used their routine strategy of reviewing lecture notes just before examinations.

The three participants reported that in Japan they did not study for examinations until the day before, since the essay-style examinations did not require students to produce comprehensive knowledge of the subject contents but allowed them to write their opinions based on some of the main topics with which the subjects dealt. Kenji claimed, for example, "Even if I don't study hard for exams, I can write the answers, because it's OK for us to freely expand our own ideas which I gained through listening to the lectures and reading the textbooks and assigned articles". His comment showed that he insufficiently understood how well NESB participants should prepare for examinations in the cross-culturally new academic discourse community. In the latter context, the students needed to comprehensively review the subject matter and to understand the contents well in order to present arguments in their second language.

Similarly, Shingo expected that participation in classes did not significantly affect assessment tasks, because he regarded everyday participation and assessment tasks as two separate activities at his home university. Shingo thus covertly applied native attitudinal norms to his regular participation in class, which allowed him to be a passive participant in everyday classes and actively work only before assessment tasks. Shingo reported in his interview, "At my home university, I usually attended the lectures without any preparation or review. I don't even take notes when attending classes but just listening to the teachers' talk is

enough". These cases thus illustrate the fact that Japanese exchange students brought inappropriate expectations about their participation in the host community and placed less emphasis on their preparation for examinations and everyday participation in class. The findings suggest that the students should become more actively involved in the host academic context throughout the semester than they are in their home universities. This would help them to respond more appropriately to different academic genres.

5.2.3 Planning of task management

The participants' planning of task management was the other factor, which triggered their use of native norms with regard to written conventions and preparation for examinations. For example, in her first written assignment at the host university, Yuka drew upon her native strategy of integrating sources into the text. She commented on her written assignment in her diary, "I thought it might be wrong, but I felt pressed and so I cut and pasted the sentences from the readings". This comment indicated that she realised the potential deviation but could not afford to consider the seriousness of the deviation due to time constraints. According to Yuka and one of her teachers in the English Literature course at her home university, the ways in which the students integrated the sources from the references into the text that they composed were not strictly assessed in most of the written assignments they undertook. There, Yuka was not necessarily required to paraphrase the sources and to use in-text references. She also stressed that in her home course the students seldom failed the subjects if their assignments contained some relevant information and if they regularly attended classes.

Similarly, Aya's insufficient planning of managing one of the examinations allowed her to implement her native strategy of anticipating the range of questions. Aya routinely guessed which parts of the lecture notes would be covered in the examinations and was mostly successful in this assessment at her home university. She noted, "This strategy might be risky in English, but I didn't have time to review all the sections and so I had no choice". However, this native strategy was not particularly effective in the Australian academic contact situations due to different expectations from the teachers and different patterns in the range of questions employed in examinations in the home and host communities.

Furthermore, in preparation for multiple-choice and short-answer examination questions, Shingo's insufficient planning resulted in the implementation of his native strategy of rote memorisation of terminology.

By relying on this strategy, he failed to read the texts carefully and did not consider how particular terminology was used in them. Thus, this strategy did not allow him to improve his grasp of the content well enough and prevented him from identifying the context in which he needed to use the terminology in the examination. These cases showed that the students' application of their native norms and strategies tended not to be useful as an emergency measure to manage their participation. Different academic genres frequently require students to employ different approaches to cope with academic tasks. Thus, it seems that NESB students, including Japanese exchange students, need to plan how to manage each task carefully and consider the appropriateness of native norms and strategies in academic contact situations.

5.3 Negotiating Acquisition of English Academic Norms

Even though the participants became aware of the inapplicability of their native norms and avoided applying such norms, their academic struggles still continued in relation to their negotiation of the acquisition of English academic norms. In the processes of negotiating such acquisition, the participants experienced norm deviations in the academic contact situations due to their insufficient situated competence and misinterpretation of communicative goals.

5.3.1 Situated competence

The concept of situated competence relates to abilities that the members in a certain community of practice are supposed to develop through their participation in the community (Wenger 1998). Although we assume that the students had previously-developed academic competence as established members of Japanese universities, such competence tended to be reduced in academic contact situations due to their linguistic disadvantage and unfamiliarity with target academic genres. Japanese exchange students thus had difficulty in undertaking academic interaction, which they were normally capable of at their home universities. As a result, the students' developing situated competence gave rise to norm deviations particularly in relation to reading and understanding prescribed articles, examinations, and academic discussions. All the participants claimed that merely reading through prescribed articles did not enable them to obtain a sufficient understanding of the main arguments. Chie reported that she had a three-fold approach to reading and understanding articles. Firstly, she read articles while consulting a dictionary and wrote the Japanese

meanings of unfamiliar English words. These Japanese translations helped Chie to advance to the subsequent stage of reading to understand content while underlining the salient sections. Furthermore, Chie intensively re-read the articles several times to examine the main arguments and expand her understanding. Chie stated:

(3)

> It takes me a long time to understand the main points. I need to read more than four or five times. Also, I cannot guess the meanings of unfamiliar English words. Only one unfamiliar word in a sentence is ok, but I usually come across several unfamiliar ones in a sentence. (Chie)

Moreover, in one of his diary entries, Kenji commented that he struggled with understanding the contents of the articles after reading them through. Although he underlined salient sections while reading them, he failed to recall why the sections were crucial when he later reviewed the same articles. Kenji stated in the interview, "It's much harder to understand English than Japanese content. I keep forgetting. I would definitely remember why I underlined them if they were Japanese articles". These participants felt that they were able to read and understand sentence by sentence or paragraph by paragraph but they had difficulty understanding the overall meaning.

The participants had difficulties in producing the required amount of answers in English in the limited time allocated for essay-style examinations. For example, Shingo reported that he worked out the answers for essay-style questions while sitting for examinations but that he could not properly describe the answers in English. He noted, "I've got some ideas to answer the questions in Japanese, but I didn't really know how to translate them into English within the two-hour examination time". Kenji also reported that there was a limitation for him as an NESB exchange student in following the type of examination that required students to write approximately 250-word answers for each of eight questions in two hours. Since examinations required students to understand the subject content comprehensively and then produce written answers immediately within a limited time period, the participants had difficulty identifying effective ways to prepare for examinations.

Furthermore, reduced competence, which emerged in relation to academic discussions in English, gave rise to norm deviations. Despite possessing a good knowledge of her discipline, Aya had difficulty in engaging in academic discussions in English. She had trouble answering the questions asked by her fellow students or teachers, even though they

were the type of questions that she was normally able to answer in Japanese. She commented, "I can understand English but my brain doesn't work to get the answer". In particular, when one of her friends explained to Aya how to calculate mathematical formulae and asked her what the answer would be, she could not immediately respond to his question since she needed to contemplate the mechanism of calculation in Japanese before figuring out the answer. She stated, "I can't answer academic questions but when I hear the answers, I always think 'yes, that's the one, and I could have answered it'". She reported that written assignments were manageable for her in that she could spend sufficient time to produce the required answers but that she could not actively participate in academic discussions, which required immediate responses.

Yuka also showed frustration with her inability to engage in English interaction, commenting that since she could not interact in English well, she tended to be treated by her interlocutors as if she were a child. Neustupny (1982) defined this phenomenon as "reduction", where interactants' behaviour looks immature due to loss of control of interaction rules. As Neustupny pointed out, Yuka's case revealed that although she might be able to easily provide a variety of topics in communicating with others in native Japanese situations, in academic contact situations in AU she was unable to apply systematic interaction rules and ended up behaving in a simplistic way.

5.3.2 Communicative goals

Since particular genres have particular roles to play within the academic environment and include sets of communicative goals, recognition of the goals provides students with the rationale behind activities and a better understanding of how to undertake them (cf. Swales 1990). Hence, at AU, it was necessary for Japanese exchange students to understand communicative goals in order to undertake genre-specific activities and acquire English academic norms with regard to the activities. The students in this study sometimes misinterpreted the communicative goals of task requirements and such misinterpretation hindered their task performance.

Shingo, for instance, had trouble with clarifying the communicative goal of "describe and analyse" for one of his unit tests and thus merely presented his understanding of some concepts in the test. He commented in his diary entry, "The tutor told us that we needed to describe and analyse the topics, and then we had to explain the reasons. But I didn't know what 'describe and analyse' meant". As a result, he ended up

merely presenting his understanding of some concepts and theories relating to the topics in the test. The cases of Chie, Yuka, and Mami showed a similar phenomenon. In her critical discussion paper, Chie was at a loss to work out how to "outline and criticise" the main arguments in the assigned reading. In their first written exercise, Yuka and Mami also had trouble with clarifying the assessment criteria which required them to "justify the claims made in relation to the content". Consequently, their lack of understanding of these communicative goals resulted in the three students simplifying their responses to the tasks by omitting pertinent analysis and, instead, merely introducing some information on the topics.

The abstract term "critical analysis", furthermore, led Chie to misinterpret the goal of her critical discussion paper, which required students to compare and critically analyse two views of Aboriginal land ownership. Chie noted:

(4)

> The term, "critical analysis" was hard to understand but I thought the most important thing in critical analysis was to show the differences between these arguments. So I carefully picked up the characteristics of these arguments and described them. (Chie)

On the basis of this false hypothesis, Chie ended up spending most sections of her assignment in introducing one author's argument and then the other author's counterarguments from assigned readings and adding brief comments on them. When she read her teacher's comment on the returned paper, she realised that she had deviated from the appropriate rhetorical style for critical analysis. Also, Yuka literally interpreted "criticise" as pointing out faults in one of her written assignments, since she did not understand the academic usage of the term. Such misinterpretation prevented her from expressing a judgement on the author's claims and led her to overly criticise them by finding fault with the articles without much supportive evidence. She reflected on this task in the interview, saying, "I didn't really understand how to criticise the articles because I didn't have this type of task in Japan. So, my criticism might have been too strong". Nemoto's (2002) study claimed that criticism can be an unfair statement when students do not possess sufficient knowledge about a topic. In fact, her teacher indicated that on her returned assignment that Yuka's improper criticism led to an overgeneralisation of her arguments, since she could not provide logical reasons to verify the claims. It seems that differences in English and Japanese rhetorical styles of academic writing contributed to the students'

difficulties in learning how to introduce critical and analytical approaches into their written tasks as well as in understanding the extent to which they were supposed to express their own opinions.

The students' problems with understanding the communicative goals of various academic terminology and concepts also emerged when they read the outlines of the subjects in which they were enrolled at the beginning of their first semester. The student participants needed considerable time to work out the meaning of the concepts of "in-text referencing", "plagiarism", "bibliography", "footnotes", and "quotation", since none of those concepts had been relevant to their written assignments at their home universities. For example, due to her insufficient clarification of the role of in-text references in written texts, Chie experienced difficulties in integrating sources into text using in-text referencing in one of her written assignments. She commented in the interview:

(5)

> I don't know how much I should put in-text references in my draft, because sometimes I wonder if my opinions are the ones I come up with or the ones I borrow from others. My knowledge is based on what I have previously learned and so my opinions might be the same as what some researchers previously said. This is plagiarism, isn't it? (Chie)

At this stage, Chie realised that she was required to use in-text references for citations but did not understand how to use them systematically in academic writing in English. Consequently, she ended up utilising in-text references unsystematically. Similarly, in Yuka's case, the simplistic interpretation of goals occurred when making citations. At the beginning of her first semester, Yuka reported that she did not fully comprehend that copying sentences from readings would be considered as plagiarism. Hence, she produced a written text based on the hypothesis that making a list of the references would be sufficient to present citations.

Yuka's case showed that her failure to conceptualise "coherence" led to problems with her academic writing in English. Yuka interpreted a coherent structure simplistically and used too many sequential conjunctions in order to link ideas. In particular, she repeatedly employed "also", "in addition", and "furthermore" to present her arguments in order. Such excessive use of conjunctions, however, lowered the quality of her texts rather than making her arguments linear. Furthermore, Mami's attempt to organise her text deductively resulted in her producing a disorganised text. She learned the importance of a deductive style of

writing in the lecture of Practical English. However, due to her insufficient understanding of the nature of deductive writing, she just focused on describing her main arguments at the beginning of paragraphs. As a consequence, she failed to develop her arguments logically with supportive statements using references or examples, and had too many repetitions and unclear analysis. These cases showed the complexity of norms, particularly in text structure, organisation and citations for written assignments. The findings demonstrated how difficult the students found it to identify all the rules properly and to conceptualise the target norms.

Recognition of communicative goals of academic requirements is essential for Japanese exchange students to participate in the host community. However, the abstract nature of genre-specific terminology and concepts sometimes prevented the participants from clarifying the communicative goals properly. Although the goals involved in genre-specific terminology and concepts might be tacitly understood by others, these goals are not necessarily understandable to novice students, including the Japanese exchange students. Therefore, it seems that teachers should explain genre-specific terminology and concepts more clearly to NESB students by providing detailed information about how to undertake the required activities. As Morita (2004) claims, this type of attempt can increase "transparency" (Lave and Wenger 1991), which means a way of organising activities to make their meanings visible, and can scaffold the NESB cohort's comprehension of the tasks.

5.4 Negotiation of Social Participation

The participants' academic struggles resulted from not only cognitive aspects of participation but also the impact of other community members on their participation. In this regard, the students' negotiation of social participation constituted one of the crucial elements of the processes of their negotiation of norms in these academic contact situations. As previously mentioned, Lave and Wenger (1991) stress that learning is a situated process in which newcomers gradually move towards fuller participation while interacting with more experienced members. However, there were occasions when other members, such as teachers and local students, did not necessarily assist Japanese exchange students' participation in classroom communities as much as they could have and sometimes actually hindered the students' access to resources.

Teachers' and classmates' discourse behaviour could negatively influence the students' negotiation of participation in classes and lead the students to deviate from the norms with regard to note-taking and

understanding lectures. All of the participants commented that they needed some visual materials in addition to teachers' oral commentaries in order to understand the content of lectures. In fact, most of the teachers used Power Point or OHP slides as visual aid in their lectures. However, teachers commonly changed slides too quickly or presented too much information on each slide for the exchange students to copy and understand all of it. Moreover, teachers' speaking manner sometimes affected the participants' listening and understanding of lectures. Kenji claimed that it depended on the tone of the teachers' voices and their manner of speaking whether or not he was able to understand the lecture content. He stated, "I cannot listen to the teachers who speak in a low voice and mumble". These findings showed that teachers' use of some kinds of technology did not necessarily help the participants to overcome norm deviations in taking notes and that, furthermore, clear presentations were needed to help students to develop genre-specific listening and note-taking competence.

Similarly, the manner of peers' discourse in class put pressure on the participants and sometimes tended to prevent them from entering discussions and class interactions. Shingo commented that he had difficulty listening to classmates' English when they gave their opinions or asked questions. He noted in the interview, "I'm getting used to my teachers' English but my classmates' English is too fast and unclear for me to catch". As a result, Shingo could not fully understand what his classmates argued and such an insufficient understanding prevented him from putting forward his opinions in class discussions.

The students' perceptions of classroom communities and host community members, furthermore, influenced their negotiation of social participation in the communities on occasions. Shingo, for example, perceived other members in the classrooms as excluding his right to participate in class interactions. Such perception led him to feel some anxiety, and, in turn, led to his reticence and passive participation in classes (Hilleson 1996; Tsui 1996). Shingo noted, "I don't know what to say properly in class discussions. I don't want to speak, because my clumsy speech might destroy the atmosphere. Also, I'm afraid that my teacher says to me 'it's wrong'". Similarly, Mami's perception of peer pressure in the tutorial of a subject related to politics prevented her participation in the discussions. According to her, the local students in the subject were so argumentative that she was overwhelmed by the atmosphere. Consequently, we can say in this case that exclusion was as much a classroom practice as was scaffolded inclusion (Norton and

Toohey 2001). Thus, power relations between her classmates and herself constrained her participation. She commented:

(6)

> When I listen to my classmates' opinions, I think all the opinions they express are right. Then, I'm unable to come up with my own opinions. Also, the classmates sometimes say the same things as what I think. In that case, I always become unable to say anything because they say the same things more fluently and properly. (Mami)

As Corson (1999) claims, Japanese exchange students as minority-language speakers tended to stigmatise their own speech and they frequently condemned themselves to silence in public settings for fear of offending norms that they themselves sanctioned.

In addition to this exclusive atmosphere, Mami's nervousness in speaking to local students hindered her from developing rapport with classmates. She noted, "Because I have just come from Japan, I cannot find anything in common with local students, and so I don't know how I should speak to them". In this regard, Mami, as a temporary exchange student from Japan, perceived social distance between local students and herself. The perception led her to be isolated in class and thus increased her hesitation in expressing her opinions in discussions. As Morita (2002) indicates, these finding demonstrated that the students' silence in a classroom was a socially co-constructed phenomenon, since they constantly interpreted the social, cultural, and academic world surrounding them while engaging in activities.

Kenji's case, furthermore, showed that his resistance to classroom practices led to his non-participation and irregular attendance in Australian Culture. As mentioned in Chapter Four, he perceived the teacher's attitude towards linguistic majority students and minority exchange students as unfair. Thus, he resisted participating in classroom discussions in which exchange students from Europe and North America dominated, and then he stopped attending the lecture regularly. This case is consistent with Morita's (2002: 181) finding, which illustrated that a Japanese student withdrew from one of the courses because she perceived classroom practices as privileging white women. Such findings imply that teachers' unequal treatment of students can result in the latter feeling a sense of alienation. In the cases discussed in this section, while the students sometimes appeared passive and reluctant to participate in class, their non-participation certainly involved active processes of negotiation of norms (cf. Morita 2002, 2004). The findings also suggest that the

students' negative perceptions of communities and host community members constitute a different type of factor, which give rise to norm deviations, because the perceptions can lead the students to deliberately avoid following target norms. Given that the deliberate deviations tend not to trigger management processes, in future research it will be useful to consider them as one of the crucial factors which interfere with language management.

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CHAPTER SIX

NOTING AND EVALUATION OF CONTACT SITUATION PHENOMENA

6.1 Introduction

The importance of noting or noticing in the processes of second language acquisition has been recognised by various researchers (cf. Swain 1998; Ellis 1995; Sharwood 1993; Schmidt 1994; Robinson 1995; Swain and Lapkin 1995; Qi and Lapkin 2001). However, previous studies have not comprehensively addressed how noting occurs, how the noted language phenomena are evaluated, and how noting and evaluation can influence the processes by which learners manage L2 interaction. Also, little research on noting has dealt with similarities in language-using practices across cultures as the focus has been mainly placed on the negative aspects, such as noticing gaps between first language or interlanguage and second language, or between L1 and L2 writing, or between native and host norms (cf. Cumming 1990; Swain and Lapkin 1995; Qi 1998; Qi and Lapkin 2001; Kato 2002; Fairbrother 2002).

Allowing for Neustupny's (2004) claim that the degrees of contactness in academic contact situations varies depending on students' academic backgrounds, this chapter covers Japanese exchange students' noting and evaluation of various degrees of contactness, which involve similar features as well as contrasts between home and host academic practices. Focussing on three types of contact situation phenomena, involving negotiation of problems, commonalities of disciplinary knowledge, and cross-cultural situational similarities, this chapter discusses the students' awareness of these phenomena in terms of self- and other-noting and argues the ways they evaluate the noted phenomena.

6.2 Self-Noting

Japanese exchange students' negotiation of norms in academic contact situations involved the conscious or unconscious processes of making comparisons between their native norms and host academic norms. Such comparisons enabled the students to notice various contact situation phenomena by themselves, including not only norm deviations but also positive ones – commonalities of disciplinary knowledge and cross-cultural situational similarities.

6.2.1 Norm deviations

Several factors affecting Japanese exchange students' self-noting of norm deviations were found to exist. The students' experience of the inability and inefficiency in their own study behaviour sometimes triggered their self-noting of the deviations. For example, as shown in Extract (5) in the previous chapter, while Chie was drafting text for one of her written assignments, her inability to identify the extent to which she was required to make in-text references led her to note norm deviation in relation to systematic use of in-text referencing. Aya's inefficient approach to using citations in one of her written assignments also resulted in her noting that she deviated from the norm of text organisation in academic English. Aya translated Japanese sources into English to integrate them into her draft. However, despite the time-consuming procedure she struggled to improve the quality of the English text. Her difficulty in integrating two different types of writing enabled Aya to reconsider her study behaviour and to realise that the differences between Japanese and English text structures interfered with her organising the text coherently and deductively. Japanese exchange students, furthermore, became aware of norm deviations when they reflected upon their own unsuccessful academic performances, as found in the marks they received for individual assignment tasks as well as the overall academic results attained for each subject. For example, it was not until he received the final result for Linguistics in his first semester that Kenji noted that he deviated from the norm of producing argumentative texts in English in examinations. Since he managed to fill in all the sections in the examination, he believed that he would obtain more than 70 percent of the marks. However, the result of a Credit (60-69 percent) led Kenji to realise that the contents of his answers in the examination did not suffice and provided him with the opportunity to review his own performance. He carefully considered the causes of the unsatisfactory result of the examination and noticed that he

might deviate from norms in relation to constructing clear and concise arguments due to the time constraint.

The above-shown cases revealed that not until Japanese exchange students embarked on their assignments did they self-note norm deviations. However, self-noting could also be enhanced by means of input of explicit knowledge about host academic norms before the students actually undertook activities. In this study, this type of noting emerged when the students referred to academic instructions provided by teachers or the instructors at the language and study support centre in either spoken or written form. For example, the teacher's explanation of some of the written conventions in class enabled Mami to compare norms of written academic English with her intended writing style for her forthcoming written assignment. As a consequence, she noted her excessive use of the active voice rather than the passive one. The guidelines for written assignments, which some teachers provided, also helped the participants to familiarise themselves with written conventions, including text structure and organisation, in-text referencing procedures, and compilation of the bibliography. Yuka and Mami, for instance, realised that they were required to undertake different types of written work from those at their Japanese home universities when they referred to the instructions and models in the guidelines.

These kinds of academic instructions encouraged the students to pay close attention to English academic norms and provided them with the information about such norms so that they could make comparisons between their hypotheses of required English academic interaction and their actual interaction (cf. Qi and Lapkin 2001). The students' possession of some explicit knowledge of English academic norms through academic instructions could also facilitate self-noting of other new norm deviations while undertaking situated activities (cf. Ellis 1995). Although the concept of LPP emphasises the impact of students' actual utilisation of knowledge on learning, it also involves the role of academic instruction (Wenger 1998). Academic instructions thus need to be utilised as an important means of facilitating students' reflection upon their own academic participation rather than of merely transmitting knowledge (cf. Flowerdew 2000).

Although these findings exhibited various cases of self-noting, it should be considered that self-noting does not guarantee students' clear identification of host academic norms. Since norms are co-constructed by community members, their meanings are not visible enough for newcomers to identify on occasion. Thus, in order to promote familiarising themselves with the target norms, students need to develop their abilities of self-

noting while actually undertaking situated activities in recurrent rhetorical situations.

6.2.2 Commonalities of disciplinary knowledge

Some disciplinary knowledge seems to be common across academic cultures. Three of the participants – Aya, Kenji, and Mami – successfully identified a number of commonalities. Since Aya was a postgraduate student and Kenji and Mami were fourth-year undergraduate students at their home universities, they had previously undertaken a number of academic tasks and had developed expertise in their disciplines. In Aya's course – Physics, mathematical calculations were commonly used as a medium of academic interaction both in her home and host academic contexts. Thus, when Aya saw Australian teachers' manner of using mathematical formulae in class, she recognised the universal nature of basic calculations and found that the knowledge of calculations, which she had previously learned in Japan, was applicable to host academic communities.

Similarly, Kenji noticed that common theories in sociology were used in both his home and host universities. When he read prescribed articles, he came across many familiar theories. He commented, "I've got lots of knowledge about sociology. So, I can guess what the authors want to argue without reading the articles carefully". Furthermore, Mami realised that common topics were dealt with for the written assignments in her home course, American Studies, and in Sociology and Anthropology at AU. When she read the task requirements for written assignments, she noted that she could apply the same kind of theories and examples as she had previously used in the written tasks at her home universities to the assignments in the host academic settings.

In contrast, the other three participants could not identify common disciplinary knowledge between their home and host academic contexts. In Yuka's and Chie's cases, this was largely due to their insufficient development of expertise at their home universities. As is often the case with the education system in Japanese universities, Yuka's and Chie's home universities required students to finish studying general education subjects in their first two years and allowed them to undertake study in specific disciplinary areas in their third and fourth years. Thus, Yuka and Chie, who participated in the student exchange program after completing their second year of study, did not possess sufficient disciplinary knowledge to apply in the host academic context.

The other participant, Shingo, was a fourth year student at his home university but failed to note common features in relation to the discipline of economics. In the interview back in Japan, he commented:

(7)

> When I came back and started studying here (at my home university) again, I realised we shared lots of common knowledge of economics both here and in AU. If I had used my previous knowledge of economics, I could have coped with my academic life at AU better. But, maybe, I was too nervous to notice the similarities. The same thing looked like different to me in English. (Shingo)

His failure was attributable to the fact that he was overwhelmed by linguistic difficulties, which he encountered at AU. Shingo's case suggests that his insufficient academic competence in English resulted in him perceiving common features differently.

6.2.3 Cross-cultural situational similarities

Although previous studies of contact situations have predominantly dealt with cross-cultural differences between academic situations, this study found certain situational similarities between Japanese and Australian universities. For example, Mami and Kenji noted similarities in requirements for their thesis writing in Japanese at their home universities and written tasks at AU. When one of her teachers explained how to undertake written assignments, Mami noticed that her approach to writing a graduation thesis in Japanese shared many similar features with the kind of academic writing which was required at AU. At her home university, Mami learned and implemented several strategies in relation to thesis writing at the seminar (*zemi*) that was especially organised to help third-year students to prepare for their forthcoming graduation thesis. The written assignments in the seminar required students to establish their arguments at the initial stage and then to specify these arguments logically. Moreover, in this course, she learned some principal aspects of managing the processes of writing a thesis, including how to elaborate on ideas, how to find and read relevant articles, how to write a research proposal, and how to support arguments using citations. She was able to positively apply these techniques in the Australian academic setting.

Kenji also noticed situational similarities in written tasks when he attended the academic writing course offered by the language and study support centre. He stated:

(8)

> I didn't learn anything new at the session, because I didn't find any big differences in academic writing between Japanese and English, except for in-text referencing. Analysing references and building up logical arguments using the references are the same. (Kenji)

Kenji's noting was based on his previous experience of undertaking many written assignments in Japanese at his home university. In particular, his experience of completing three 50-page papers for third-year seminars helped him to develop academic writing competence. In the seminar papers, Kenji was mainly required to evaluate and analyse the sources and to provide his opinions, which seemed to be commonly used for written assignments at the host university. As a result, similar features of writing enabled him to apply his routine strategy of making schematic notes to specify ideas and organise text in written assignments at AU. (see Chapter Seven).

Despite a more unconscious level of noting than the cases discussed above, Yuka and Chie, furthermore, noted general situational similarities in L2 interaction and participation in L2 communities. Both of the participants, who had previously studied abroad, were more familiar with contact situations than were the other participants. Yuka and Chie perceived socialising with host community members in L2 as similar to the situations they had experienced in Germany, England, and the U.S.A. Yuka mentioned:

(9)

> It might be because I had intercultural experiences in Germany, but I really like to communicate with others in English. I don't get nervous even if I can't speak good English. Like when I was in Germany, it's more important for me to let others know about myself. (Yuka)

Such noting of the similarities in intercultural interaction in contact situations allowed Yuka and Chie to expand their social networks and draw upon others' assistance in managing their participation.

6.3 Noting by Others

Japanese exchange students' norm deviations were sometimes brought to their attention through feedback from other host community members, such as teachers, the instructors at the language and study support centre and peers. Previous research on feedback has been commonly dealt with

in relation to writing, focussing upon form or content, the usefulness of teachers' written comments, effectiveness of editing instruction and grammar correction, and accommodation of learners' needs (cf. Fathman and Whalley 1990; Leki 1990; Truscott 1996; Hyland 1998; Polio, Fleck, and Leder 1998; Paulus 1999). However, the relationships between feedback and the noting of students' norm deviations have not been comprehensively analysed in discipline-specific contexts. This study focuses on three types of feedback, involving teachers' written comments, consultations with academic personnel and peer feedback.

6.3.1 Teachers' comments on marked assignments

Teachers' comments on marked assignments provided the Japanese exchange students with various types of feedback on their written academic discourse. In Mami's case, teachers commented on her deviations from appropriate register and expressions for academic writing in English as evidenced in her assignments. Her tutor, for example, advised her not to use the spoken register, for example, expressions such as "How about…" and "Now look at …". Similarly, Yuka's problems with academic writing in English were commented on by her teacher, who cited the use of too many non-standard syntactic forms. These types of comments on the students' returned assignments led the participants to become aware of their norm deviations. However, the effectiveness of feedback occasionally depended upon the students' attentiveness to feedback, because their willingness to note was necessary to detect problems (cf. Schmidt 1999; Fazio 2001). This study found that Japanese exchange students' inattentiveness to written feedback sometimes hindered them from noting the problems. For example, in one of the major assignments, Mami merely looked at the mark and did not care about the comment or corrections, since she had already decided not to continue studying that subject the following semester. Kenji also read the comments but did not carefully study the corrections. He reported that he was not keen to correct his grammar mistakes but that he was more concerned with teachers' evaluations of his arguments. Shingo did not even collect one of his marked written assignments. He missed the opportunity to receive it in class since he was absent, and did not attempt to collect it later since he felt too guilty for being absent to ask his tutor to return his assignment.

In some cases, the teachers' comments, furthermore, resulted in confusing the students, since the comments were not consistent with the marks awarded to their written assignments. In particular, some of the

comments did not sufficiently indicate the problematic aspects of the writing and explain the low marks. For example, Yuka was confused with a teacher's comment that mainly constituted praise for her work, but which was awarded 73 marks. She noted, while reading her teacher's comment:

(10)

> My teacher didn't pick up my weaknesses in the writing but commented, "This is a thorough description and you illustrated your point very effectively. Well done!". I cannot understand why the mark isn't higher, then. I wanted to have some more feedback on my writing style and the content of my essay. (Yuka)

As Cohen and Cavalcanti (1990) stress, teacher feedback can be occasionally unclear, inaccurate, and lacking balance in form, content, and style. Hyland (1998) claims that students may distrust praise and become cynical about other positive feedback on their writing if they find their marks are low, despite positive feedback. Thus, as Ferris (1995) stresses, teachers need to provide constructive criticism and to place it side-by-side with positive comments or encouraging remarks. In fact, Yuka's marks were reasonably high and the teacher's comment was more appropriate than she thought. However, because she had become accustomed to obtaining more than 80 marks for her academic tasks in Japan, she expected her teacher to point out weaknesses of the text or provide some clues to improve her academic writing.

The findings of this study also indicate the limitations of teachers' indirect written feedback on written assignments. In one of her returned written assignments, Yuka received a number of question marks besides the text. She realised that some sections were not clearly presented but without the teacher's elaboration on those points, she wondered how she could improve her academic writing for forthcoming written assignments. Mami also had difficulty understanding her teacher's comment which stressed the need for more specific and clearer analysis. She remarked, "The comment was too abstract, and so I don't know how to make my analysis better". In this type of case, the teachers' comments did not particularly assist students to overcome their difficulties, even though the comments did help students to recognise the existence of some of their norm deviations. These cases demonstrated that teachers needed more sensitivity to students' individual and differing abilities to interpret their comments (Qi and Lapkin 2001). However, it was more likely that teachers did not have enough time to provide detailed suggestions about

how each student should improve their written work, because they needed to mark a large number of assignments within a short period of time. Thus, it is necessary for students to make the most of teachers' written feedback by subsequently consulting teachers and clarifying what they expect students to improve.

This study, furthermore, found that teachers' leniency with, and understanding of the students' adjustment struggles did not always facilitate the students' academic adjustment to the host community. Rather, their leniency, which seemed to disregard some of the participants' norm deviations, could hinder the students from acquiring host academic norms and from becoming a fuller participant at the host university. For example, in Yuka's case, she realised that she still deviated from the norms in relation to wording, text structure and organisation, when she received the teacher's comments on her returned assignment late in the first semester, which recommended that she use the language and study support centre. Yuka reported that since she had received a satisfactory result on the 2000-word essay for the other subject before undertaking this written assignment, she expected that she had overcome most of her writing problems. As shown in this case, teachers' inconsistent treatment of Japanese exchange students' academic tasks sometimes delayed the students' recognition of their inadequacies (cf. Nemoto 2002). This study reveals that it was difficult for teachers to provide students with sufficiently clear and appropriate written comments to help the students to explicitly specify which norms they deviated from and identify how to rectify the deviations.

6.3.2 Consultation with academic personnel

In contrast to the teachers' comments on returned assignments, face-to-face consultation with academic personnel was advantageous in that the students received immediate feedback (Keh 1990) and were able to detect various problems whilst still being engaged in academic tasks. Such consultations could also enable teachers and students to avoid miscommunication and misunderstandings, which sometimes occurred in written feedback (Hyland 1998). In this study, consultation with academic personnel, involving lecturers, tutors, and the instructors at the language and study support centre, enhanced other-noting of norm deviations with regard to students' written assignments. For instance, Kenji's problems with argumentation were pointed out by his tutor's feedback on the written draft of his essay during consultation. When he sought the tutor's advice before submitting his essay, the tutor suggested that he should re-organise

the introduction and briefly outline the main arguments in that section. Furthermore, in his oral feedback on Chie's written drafts, the instructor at the language and study support centre indicated her problems with text organisation and structure as well as the use of in-text referencing. He advised her to re-arrange the text by referring to the essay example, which he had provided. The instructor further provided editing support at Chie's reviewing stage of her written assignments and pointed out weaknesses in her critical analysis. Consequently, the instructor's advice enabled Chie to note the importance of introducing the author's view in the introductory section so that she could develop her arguments based on that view.

As Qi and Lapkin (2001) claim, these findings exhibited that the feedback, which academic personnel provided students with during consultation, helped the students to maintain a good balance between focus on form and focus on meaning. Thus, the consultation not only helped the students to note their deviations but also helped teachers to provide them with more appropriate feedback and suggestions than written comments, which were commonly received after a task was completed. Such face-to-face discussions enabled the students and the academic personnel to identify how to rectify students' problems collaboratively. However, the limited availability of academic personnel and the social distance between the personnel and the students frequently hindered the students from consulting such personnel. The details of these limitations will be discussed in the following chapter.

6.3.3 Peer feedback

Peers at times were more adept at responding to another student's work as being in progress than were teachers, who tended to judge the work as a finished product (Devenney 1989; Caulk 1994). Kenji's peer editor, for example, detected unusual English expressions and incoherent sentences in his written assignments. The peer noting helped Kenji to not only realise some problems in his academic writing in English but also to incorporate the knowledge of written conventions, which he acquired through his peer's corrections, into his current and following written assignments. In Aya's case, one of her fellow students provided her with feedback on her academic interaction in English when the student explained to her how to undertake some calculation exercises. On one occasion, because Aya had difficulty keeping up with the pace of her friend's speech, she unconsciously pretended to understand his explanation of the calculation. After tentatively responding to her friend's request for confirmation of her understanding, she reconsidered what he

explained to her. Her friend recognised her deviation from the norms of interaction in English and provided her with feedback by saying, "You don't really understand what I said but you always say 'yes'. When you don't understand, stop me speaking and ask me".

Pair or group work, furthermore, provided Japanese exchange students with the opportunities to obtain feedback from group members. For example, when Yuka undertook a rehearsal of a pair oral presentation with her partner, the partner noted her deviation from the smooth oral presentation that was required. Her partner then advised Yuka to change unfamiliar written expressions into casual ones in the speech draft in order to facilitate her memorisation and articulation of the English words. This study showed that peers were the most available resources to bring the existence of norm deviations to the attention of the Japanese exchange students. However, the closeness between students and peers occasionally prevented peers from noting deviations and evaluating them objectively. The limitations of peer feedback will be illustrated later in this chapter (cf. Section 6.4.4).

Given that noting plays an important role in learning (cf. Schmidt and Frota 1986; Ellis 1995) and that it frequently occurred in relation to students' actually undertaking socially-constructed activities, noting can be seen as a part of situated learning. It is crucial for the students to understand that there exist various negative and positive phenomena, which they can note in academic contact situations, and to analyse the noted contact situation phenomena in order to increase their academic participation.

6.4 Evaluations of Contact Situation Phenomena

Noting cannot contribute to the students' learning of English academic norms without appropriate evaluation and subsequent adjustment of noted contact situation phenomena (cf. Neustupny 1985, 1994, 1997, 2004). In this study, multiple evaluations emerged in the evaluation process. Although the noted phenomena were often evaluated by Japanese exchange students themselves and others, the students themselves made a final judgment, no matter how others may have evaluated the deviations previously. On occasion evaluations were also changed in relation to their requirements of grades, attribution of problems, justification of native norms, and closeness between the students and peers. This study substantiated the hypothesis that not only a negative evaluation of norm deviations but also a positive evaluation of commonalities of disciplinary

knowledge and cross-cultural situational similarities led to the next stage of planning an adjustment.

6.4.1 Students' requirements of grades

Japanese exchange students' requirements of grades frequently influenced their evaluation of contact situation phenomena. For example, Kenji needed to obtain reasonable grades in subjects related to linguistics since he aimed to advance to the Diploma in Education at an Australian university in the following year in order to become a teacher of Japanese in Australia. He thus perceived all activities and tasks in these subjects as crucial. This perception encouraged him to take seriously his norm deviations in relation to listening and understanding the lecture content in Linguistics. In contrast, Kenji did not feel the need to obtain a high result in the end-of-semester examination for Anthropology. He commented, "I only needed 23 out of 40 marks to pass. I thought I could get 23 even if I didn't study hard". Accordingly, although Kenji recognised his insufficient understanding of the lecture content for the examination, the unimportance of obtaining a high result prevented him from perceiving the task as worthwhile to properly prepare for. As Nelson and Kim (2001) indicate, his case suggests that students' participation is increased or decreased, depending upon how high the academic results they need are.

On occasion, the students' requirements of grades were affected by their subject preferences. For instance, Mami minimally allocated her time and effort to studying a linguistically-oriented subject and did not expect high achievement in this subject, since her interest did not lie in linguistics. Such an attitude toward the subject seemed to interfere with her diagnosis of norm deviations with regard to understanding the task requirements and properly undertaking assigned tasks. Furthermore, when Yuka prepared for the examination in one of her subjects, she also realised that she lacked understanding of the relevant subject content because of her irregular attendance at lectures. However, her lack of interest in the subject prevented her from judging her own participation as important and led her to ignore the deviation. Yuka commented in the interview, "All I wanted for the subject was a pass (mark). So, I wanted to finish it as soon as possible rather than prepare for it properly". She did not make any plans to implement a potential management strategy, such as obtaining the handouts and a copy of lecture notes, which she missed because of her irregular attendance, but considered reading the textbook as being sufficient preparation to pass the subject. These findings revealed that not all the contact situation phenomena carried the same weight nor were they

evaluated in the same manner (cf. Neustupny 1994). Although most of the participants selected their own subjects based on their preferences, discrepancies between their expectations of the study and the actual contents of subjects resulted in them investing themselves in each academic context in different ways.

6.4.2 Attribution of problems

The students' evaluations also differed depending upon whether they perceived their norm deviations as attributable to themselves or other community members. When the students attributed their norm deviations to their insufficient academic competence, they might have evaluated the deviations negatively. However, if the students attributed their deviations to other host community members, they tended not to regard the deviations as necessary to overcome. In this study, this type of case emerged when the participants encountered norm deviations with regard to their regular participation in class. Kenji, Mami and Shingo tended not to be concerned with some of these deviations because they attributed their lack of understanding to the unclear discourse presentations of teachers and peers, and explained their hesitation to participate in discussions in terms of other students' exclusive attitudes in class (cf. Section 5.4). Kenji, for example, decided not to worry about his norm deviations regarding listening and understanding the teacher's commentaries in class, because he interpreted the problems as resulting from the teachers' lack of delivery skills rather than from his own limited listening ability. In addition, Mami initially deemed her passive participation in discussions in the Politics tutorial as a serious problem. However, her re-evaluation of the problem occurred since she gradually regarded her difficulty in participating in the discussions as attributable to classmates' argumentative and exclusive attitudes. Likewise, Kenji positively evaluated his non-participation in one of the subjects since he viewed the in-class discussions as dogmatic and not worth participating in. These cases indicate that the students did not assume responsibility for their own norm deviations but attributed them to others when they regarded the deviations as only occurring in activities, which are not applicable to other situations. Such a lack of evaluation prevented the students from proceeding to the adjustment planning stage.

6.4.3 Justification of native norms

Noting commonalities of disciplinary knowledge and situational similarities frequently required Japanese exchange students to justify their native disciplinary knowledge and strategies so that they could confirm the applicability of such knowledge and strategies in academic contact situations. For example, after noticing that cross-culturally common topics were assigned in her written assignments, Mami consulted her tutors and justified the appropriateness of her perception of the commonalities. Similarly, in her first assignment, Aya's noting of similarities in basic calculations was consolidated by peer discussions prior to her engagement in the assignment. In this case, she discussed the logical development of calculations with her peers and confirmed that her approaches were not different from those of local students. These findings suggest that the students' evaluations of contact situation phenomena were reinforced by the assistance from other community members.

There were also a number of cases where the students justified the applicability of disciplinary knowledge and their native strategies through actually undertaking socially-constructed activities. Their successful performances in academic tasks frequently helped Aya and Kenji to confirm the applicability of native writing strategies. Similarly, Yuka and Chie justified their previously-developed strategies of L2 interaction and participation in L2 communities by actually interacting with host community members and developing their social networks in AU. In this regard, it is obvious that the nature of situated learning is applicable to the evaluation of contact situation phenomena as well as to the noting. The students' recurrent undertaking of socially-constructed activities could contribute to them improving competence in evaluating contact situation phenomena.

In contrast to these findings, the students' justification of native norms sometimes constrained their participation and performances. Shingo, for example, justified his reticence in class because it was the same participation style as he had experienced in Japan. He realised that being silent in class was contrary to the required participation style in AU but he disregarded his deviation because he was comfortable being reticent in class. Furthermore, he was reticent partly because he wondered if he could perform well in class even though he attempted to adjust to the active participation style. He noted:

(11)

I am used to listening to teachers and thinking about the content by myself rather than discussing it with classmates in class, because that's

> what I usually did at my home university. I'm not confident of joining in discussions. So, at least until I have developed enough English speaking skills, I want others to leave me alone in class. (Shingo)

In this way, Shingo justified his native role in class participation and chose being silent in class rather than embarrassed himself by showing others his limited English competence. Kenji also re-evaluated his teacher's prior evaluation of his written assignment where the teacher had pointed out Kenji's misunderstanding of definitions and the inadequate logical development of his arguments. In this case, Kenji's previous disciplinary experiences allowed him to justify his native writing style and to disagree with the teacher's comments on the returned assignment. When he engaged in the written task, Kenji regarded his native argumentation style and his interpretation of definitions as more appropriate than the teacher thought and such confidence led him to deliberately apply his native approaches in the assignment. Although Kenji's adherence to his native norms did not work well in this assignment, the critical view to see target norms, which he developed in academic contact situations, led him to actively manage subsequent adjustments at AU.

6.4.4 Closeness to peers

As shown above, peers played a crucial role in pointing out the exchange students' norm deviations, but the closeness to peers did not necessarily help the students to receive useful evaluations of the deviations from peers. For example, sometimes peers deliberately refrained from providing negative evaluations for Japanese exchange students because they preferred not to criticise the students' work. In Shingo's group essay, one of the group members simply praised Shingo's role in drafting one of the sections without pointing out any deviations. However, the member subsequently changed most of Shingo's section when he was in charge of integrating all the sections into the essay prior to the submission. It is likely that this case happened because the group member was afraid of destroying the rapport he enjoyed with Shingo by directly providing Shingo with negative evaluations of his norm deviations in academic writing.

On occasion, the closeness between Japanese exchange students and peers also prevented the students from receiving peer feedback on their spoken discourse because peers understood the students' discourse, despite many ungrammatical expressions. In this type of case, the absence of

evaluation, which interrupted the language management process, appeared as peers neutrally evaluated the students' deviations. Yuka stated:

(12)

> It's good to have a close friend because I have lots of opportunities to speak English. But my best friend doesn't usually correct my English. So, when I speak to others like I speak to him, sometimes I have trouble making myself understood. (Yuka)

Yuka and her close friend established a special relationship in their interaction where her friend developed a high ability of understanding Yuka's utterances even though Yuka did not articulate her opinions. It seems that such a relationship allowed Yuka to depend upon her friend's understanding excessively during their interaction and thus it hindered Yuka from making an effort to improve her speaking skills. The findings suggested that interaction with peers promoted the students' involvement in the host community but peers did not necessarily help Japanese exchange students to note and evaluate some of their norm deviations. Japanese exchange students thus needed to actively seek peer cooperation on indicating and correcting norm deviations rather than simply expecting peers to provide them with feedback.

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CHAPTER SEVEN

ADJUSTMENT PLANNING AND THE IMPLEMENTATION OF MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

7.1 Introduction

Japanese exchange students' appropriate evaluation of noted contact situation phenomena enabled them to negotiate their adjustments in various ways. The processes from adjustment planning to implementation of management strategies involve various cognitive and sociocultural factors, which facilitate or constrain the students' implementation of planned strategies. From this perspective, this chapter is designed to discuss students' individual approaches to academic management, including the ways they implemented self- and other-management strategies as well as the processes in which they discontinued their adjustments.

The students' self-management of their participation is illustrated in relation to activating their disciplinary knowledge, applying their native strategies, or creating situated strategies. The students' negotiation of participation with others is also examined in an exploration of other-management. This chapter, furthermore, reveals that the processes from planning to implementation can be discontinued due to various factors. Here, the discontinuation of adjustments will be illustrated in relation to students' avoidance of management strategies or their abandoning of the implementation of strategies.

7.2 Approaches to Academic Management

The exchange students had access to various resources for self- and other-management in the process of their negotiation of adjustment. Whereas self-management involved internal and external resources, "social-interactional resources", which refer to other members in a community, were utilised for other-management (Nelson 1990: 388). The students'

internal resources emerged from their academic competence and disciplinary expertise, which they had gained through their previous experiences of subject matter and tasks at their home universities as well as from their previously-used strategies for completing certain kinds of tasks (cf. Nelson 1990). On the other hand, external resources, which the student mainly utilised in this study, included written guidelines, internet resources, Japanese references, samples of written assignments, and past examination papers. This study also identified three important types of social-interactional resources for the exchange students, including peers, teachers, and instructors at the language and study support centre.

Table 7.1 below illustrates the frequency of use of the various management strategies that the students were found to draw upon. This study examined all the instances of management strategies which the students implemented throughout their participation in AU. The instances were divided into self- and other-management and they were further categorised into two sub-groups of self-management and three sub-groups of other-management. The students more frequently implemented self-management strategies than other-management strategies – 103 instances (55.1 percent) for self-management and 84 instances (44.9 percent) for other-management. Among all the sub-categories, self-management by internal resources, which constituted 38.5 percent of the total, was the most frequently-used management style, and it was followed by peer-management, which occupied 29.9 percent of the total. These results indicate that students' internalised management skills and academic peer networks played a crucial role in their management of intercultural academic interaction at AU. Nevertheless, this study found that the six participants' approaches to academic management differed greatly. This section introduces four types of individual approaches.

Table 7.1: Types of academic management

Self-Management Strategies			Other-Management Strategies				Total
Internal	External	Sub-Total	Peers	Teachers	Language Centre	Sub-Total	
72 (38.5%)	31 (16.6%)	103 (55.1%)	56 (29.9%)	16 (8.6%)	12 (6.4%)	84 (44.9%)	187 (100%)

7.2.1 Independent approaches to academic management

In the cases of Kenji, Mami and Aya, their noting of commonalities of disciplinary knowledge and situational similarities between their home and host academic contexts (cf. Chapter Six) frequently led them to

independently manage their participation while effectively utilising peer management. Table 7.2 shows the proportion of management strategies these three participants used. Kenji's self-management using internal resources constituted 58.5 percent of his total management strategies. He activated his disciplinary knowledge of sociology to develop main arguments in his written assignments. Kenji's academic competence, which he had developed in his home university in Japan, was also likely to help him to manage his participation in regular classes and to plan his academic tasks. Similarly, Table 7.2 shows that 52.6 percent of Mami's total management belongs to the category of self-management using internal resources. This was partly because her limited social networks and hesitation to contact teachers constrained her use of other-management strategies, particularly in her first semester. However, her case also constituted an example of her innovative application of previously-developed academic competence to use her native strategies as well as create various new strategies. The details of these strategies will be illustrated in Section 7.3 below.

Table 7.2: Independent approaches to academic management

	Self-Management Strategies			Other-Management Strategies				Total
	Internal	External	Sub-Total	Peers	Teachers	Language Centre	Sub-Total	
Kenji	24 (58.5%)	3 (7.3%)	27 (65.8%)	10 (24.4%)	3 (7.3%)	1 (2.4%)	14 (34.1%)	41 (100%)
Mami	20 (52.6%)	4 (10.5%)	24 (63.2%)	11 (28.9%)	3 (7.9%)	0 (0.0%)	14 (36.8%)	38 (100%)
Aya	18 (60.0%)	4 (13.3%)	22 (73.3%)	8 (26.7%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	8 (26.7%)	30 (100%)

Furthermore, these two participants' self-management was supplemented by occasional use of peer-management, which is a kind of other-management strategy. Kenji used peers to confirm the appropriateness of his written texts. In her second semester, Mami found a language exchange partner and sought help from him in reading and understanding the assigned articles in language exchange sessions.

Aya's academic management predominantly included 60 percent utilisation of internal resources for self-management and 26.7 percent peer-management. Although these results were similar to Kenji and Mami, Aya's case demonstrated more comprehensive management approaches. As mentioned in the previous chapter, Aya's field of study required students to use mathematical calculations rather than verbal descriptions in order to logically describe the processes of solving mathematical questions

in assignments and examinations. The universal nature of mathematical calculation reduced Aya's linguistic disadvantage and allowed her to apply her own approaches to solve mathematical questions in the assignments. Moreover, the cooperative environment where Aya was located allowed her to implement peer-management. Boyer and Sedlacek (1988) found that the strongest noncognitive predictor of international students' academic achievement was the support given by friends. The small number of students enrolled in Honours in Astrophysics – five students including Aya – encouraged them to work cooperatively on academic tasks. Since they shared the same workplace, they naturally established situations for "social coparticipation" (Lave and Wenger 1991: 14) to discuss how to undertake various tasks. Aya made the most of these opportunities and benefited greatly from the assistance of other students.

These three participants changed their social positionings depending on the situations. Some situations allowed them to be full participants of the community, who were capable of coping with academic requirements independently. Other situations forced them to be legitimate peripheral participants who needed assistance from others. In particular, compared to Kenji and Mami, Aya's case showed that the intercultural similarities in academic genres accelerated her fuller participation in the host academic community. This illustrates that language is not by any means the sole measure by which to estimate students' peripheral or full participation.

7.2.2 Dependent approaches to academic management

Shingo and Yuka, who were principally dependent upon social-interactional resources and external materials, employed a combination of self-management using external resources and other-management. As seen in Table 7.3 below, these two participants extensively utilised external resources for self-management – 42.9 percent (Shingo) and 31 percent (Yuka) – as well as relying heavily on other-management – 42.9 percent for Shingo and 54.8 percent for Yuka. Although these proportions indicate similarities in the type of management, there found discrepancies in the types of resources that these two participants used and in the ways they employed the resources.

Table 7.3: Dependent approaches to academic management

	Self-Management Strategies			Other-Management Strategies				Total
	Internal	External	Sub-Total	Peers	Teachers	Language Centre	Sub-Total	
Shingo	2 (14.2%)	6 (42.9%)	8 (57.1%)	6 (42.9%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	6 (42.9%)	14 (100%)
Yuka	6 (14.2%)	13 (31.0%)	19 (45.2%)	19 (45.2%)	4 (9.5%)	0 (0.0%)	23 (54.8%)	42 (100%)

Shingo's management strategies were often based on L1 communication. Shingo principally drew on his peers who were able to communicate in Japanese, such as a classmate of Japanese origin, a fellow Japanese exchange student, and an Australian friend residing in Japan. Even when he managed his participation by himself, he employed L1 resources by reading Japanese books and obtaining handouts and lecture notes from the other Japanese exchange student. In contrast to Shingo, Yuka utilised her extensive peer networks to rely upon multiple social-interactional resources, including local Australian students, international students, and Japanese international and exchange students. In her first semester, as she favourably positioned herself within English-speaking peer networks to develop her English interactional competence, her utilisation of peers was limited to local Australian students, exchange students from other countries, and international students with whom she became acquainted in class and at the dormitory.

However, in her second semester, Yuka extended her peer networks to Japanese international and exchange students, who enrolled in the same subjects as her. Yuka reported that she made attempts to consult her peers about her problems with academic tasks before considering the problems by herself. In this way, she collected relevant information and identified how to undertake the tasks. Furthermore, in order to improve her self-management when preparing for examinations, Yuka actively participated in study groups, which some students held in a common room at the dormitory. Abel (2002) stresses the crucial impact of joining a study group on students' study management, citing that Zimmerman and Pon (1986) found higher academic achievement among students who regularly used peers to help them learn. Yuka's study group did not have a direct influence upon her study since the group members did not undertake the same tasks. However, studying in the groups enhanced her concentration and the efficiency of her preparation for the examinations.

The cases of the above two participants suggest that their different approaches to managing their participation result from their different attitudes towards their marginal positionings in the host community.

Shingo regarded his peripheral social positioning in the host community as unacceptable and thus he was embarrassed to show his struggles to others. This conservative attitude led Shingo to adhere to L1 communication with a limited number of peers where he could participate in discussions and express himself adequately. On the other hand, the prevailing stereotype, which positions Asian students as quiet, passive, timid or indirect was not applicable in Yuka's case (cf. Cheng 2000). Yuka's noting of situational similarities between her study experiences in Germany and AU, which was previously discussed, allowed her to take it for granted that she needed to rely upon others as a legitimate peripheral participant when she had trouble with academic tasks.

7.2.3 Academic management by social coparticipation

Chie's case illustrates the greatest extent of social coparticipation between herself and academic personnel. Similar to Yuka's case, Chie had learned how to manage her participation in a new community of practice from her previous intercultural experiences in England and the U.S.A. (cf. Chapter Six). These experiences allowed her to be willing to draw upon experts for academic tasks. In Table 7.4 below, her 86.4 percent other-management was the highest among the participants, consisting of 50 percent support by the instructor at the language and study support centre and 27.3 percent by teachers.

Table 7.4: Academic management by social coparticipation

	Self-Management Strategies			Other-Management Strategies				Total
	Internal	External	Sub-Total	Peers	Teachers	Language Centre	Sub-Total	
Chie	2 (9.1%)	1 (4.5%)	3 (13.6%)	2 (9.1%)	6 (27.3%)	11 (50.0%)	19 (86.4%)	22 (100%)

Chie took advantage of her social positioning as a temporary member of the host community to seek ongoing academic support from teachers as well as the instructor at the language and support centre. She explained to these personnel about her problems with academic adjustment as an NESB exchange student and they consequently helped her to adjust to host academic settings. She commented in the interview:

(13)

I try to talk to teachers as many times as I can, and let them know that I just came to Australia and have lots of problems with study. I like talking to teachers because it's a good practice of English, too. (Chie)

Chie implemented a strategy of seeking editing support from an instructor at the language and study support centre. For example, in one 2500-word essay, she made appointments well in advance of the submission date, and thus she was able to ask the instructor to edit her draft twice. At the first consultation, the instructor showed her some model sentences for the introductory and concluding sections and corrected ungrammatical sentences. He also suggested some arguments for her to include and explained how to expand the draft, which was still short by 1000 words. Following the teacher's advice, Chie revised her draft and added the suggested arguments while paying attention to how to organise the findings and how to link sections. In the second consultation, the instructor proofread her draft by correcting unclear and casual expressions so that she could present her arguments more academically.

The ongoing support of one of her teachers, furthermore, helped Chie to revise her drafts not only at a surface level but also in relation to its content. In her critical discussion paper, Chie consulted the teacher on three occasions: to compensate for her insufficient understanding of three prescribed articles, to seek assistance in developing her arguments for the assignment, and to ask for proofreading of the final draft. Her case revealed that even though exchange students cannot independently manage their participation, they can seek assistance from academic personnel and draw upon other-management. Chie's English communication skills and attitude towards communicating with others in English helped her to manage her academic interaction even though she was located in a peripheral position within the community. The relationship between her social coparticipation and development of autonomous management skills will be argued in the following chapter.

7.2.4 Collaborative management

Table 7.5 below shows the degree to which three of the participants used collaborative management of academic tasks as a part of other-management. Although the instances were limited, this type of management greatly contributed to increasing their participation. Yuka took the initiative in organising sessions where she collaboratively worked with Kenji, Chie, and other classmates. For example, Yuka and Kenji worked

together on their linguistic exercises. Since she had also enrolled in a Linguistics subject in the previous semester, Yuka shared some previously-learned knowledge of Linguistics with Kenji, whereas Kenji, who regularly read weekly assigned sections of the textbook, helped her to identify the sections relevant to the questions.

Table 7.5: Collaborative management

Participants	Yuka	Kenji	Chie	Aya	Shingo	Mami
Collaborative management	5 (9.6%)	2 (4.4%)	1 (5.5%)	0	0	0

A case of more effective collaborative management emerged in Yuka's group work with her Australian classmates in the subject of Japanese Interpreting and Translation. For the debate and oral presentations, where students had to make a speech in their second language (English for Japanese students and Japanese for ESB students), Yuka and her Australian partners collaboratively developed ideas and made drafts while assisting each other with their L2 writing. In this collaborative management, Yuka and her partners alternated their roles as experts and legitimate peripheral participants depending on the target language so that they could draw upon their respective linguistic strengths to cover the weaknesses in their L2 writing and speaking. As Haneda's (1997) study also found, such cases revealed a dynamism in peer collaboration, which positively affect students increasing their participation.

7.3 Three Types of Self-Management

Among three types of self-management found in this study, two of them – activation of disciplinary knowledge and transfer of native strategies – originated in the students' previously-developed academic competence. On the other hand, academic contact situations also required the students to develop socially-constructed self-management competence whereby they created situated strategies in the new academic contexts.

7.3.1 Activation of disciplinary knowledge

Aya's noting of commonalities of mathematical formulae led her to extensively apply her existing knowledge of physics in logically developing her procedures of calculating and solving the questions in her academic tasks at the AU. She noted in the interview, "There is only one

answer for a question in physics. It's not different between Japan and Australia at all, the requirements of tasks are quite similar and how to prepare for examinations is the same". Activation of such knowledge increased her participation and helped her to establish equal relationships with other Honours' students.

In the subjects of Sociology and Anthropology, Kenji also activated his knowledge of such topics as colonisation, nationalisation, feminism and maternity, and ethnicity, which he had previously learned at his home university in Japan. Such knowledge not only assisted his understanding of assigned readings and lecture content, but also contributed to generating and elaborating ideas for his written assignments. He reported that his existing knowledge of the discipline, gained in Japan, helped him to overcome some of the linguistic disadvantages he experienced in Australia. He stated, "I cannot be equal to other local students in English ability but I can cover the disadvantage by my expertise".

Similar to Kenji' case, Mami, who majored in American Studies in Japan, for example, took advantage of her disciplinary knowledge of African-American people in the United States when completing a written assignment about Aborigines for Sociology. Also, one of the topics for a position paper for Politics – negative consequences of stereotyping – was the same as an essay which she had written in Japan. She thus activated her prior knowledge about one of the *sarin* incidents in Japan (involving the spread of poisonous gas in a residential area) to consolidate her claims on the topic. These instances illustrate that disciplinary knowledge may not be significantly affected by cultural contact although there might be discrepancies in the manner of presenting the knowledge.

7.3.2 Transfer of native strategies

Transfer of native strategies mainly emerged in the cases of Aya, Kenji, and Mami. For example, as introduced in Chapter Six, Aya's recognition of situational similarities led her to introduce her native approaches to re-calculate mathematical formula. Since Aya was limited to copying down her teachers' explanations of calculations from a whiteboard during classes, Aya felt the need to reconsider and re-calculate mathematical formulae and to change her teachers' methods of calculation into her own style in order to logically understand the formulae. This rewriting strategy allowed Aya to carefully examine the formulae, thereby enhancing her own understanding of them.

In order to evaluate and analyse the sources for his written assignments, Kenji also implemented his native strategy of making schematic notes,

which consisted of conceptual maps and flow charts. This strategy contributed to visualising and linking the sources, because visual models provide "accurate and useful representations of knowledge" (Gage and Berliner 1992). The linked concepts also enabled him to elaborate his ideas while applying his previously-learned theories of sociology.

Similarly, as found in the studies of Riazi (1997) and Nelson and Kim (2001), Mami utilised her native strategy of making summary notes of readings to support and expand her arguments. In undertaking written assignments, she picked out important sections from the readings and paraphrased them in order to facilitate the incorporation of the sources into written drafts. Mami's implementation of this strategy not only effectively improved her understanding of the readings but also enabled her to expand some useful ideas for planning her assignments. Mami, furthermore, applied this strategy to her preparation for examinations. While reviewing the readings and lecture notes for examinations, Mami made summary notes by writing down the glossaries and the definitions of key terms as well as by outlining important arguments in the readings. She also implemented a strategy of reading the summary notes aloud. After finishing drafting the summary notes, she repeatedly practised reciting them. In addition, based on the notes, she orally practised producing written answers of essay-style examinations. This strategy shares similar features with the Vygotskian theory of 'private speech', which represents an externalisation of inner order as the individual attempts to regain control of his or her cognitive functioning to carry out the task (Lantolf and Appel 1994). Mami promoted her cognitive functioning by externalising her summary notes while emphasising logical structures and coherence.

This type of strategy was expanded by Mami to her practice of English interaction in her daily life. In order to improve her communication skills in English, Mami expressed her thoughts and made speeches, which were oriented towards real or imaginary interlocutors (Kozulin 1990: 268). She stated:

(14)

> I often talk aloud to myself in English when I'm alone in my room, washing plates, and doing laundry. I speak to myself and speak back to myself. In this way, I'm practising English. (Mami)

Mami's case demonstrated that students' negotiation between previous academic experiences and English academic interaction sometimes enabled

them to modify their native strategies so that the strategies could be suitably used in academic contact situations.

As Riazi (1997) claims, given that the students were using and expanding their previous knowledge, skills, and strategies, it is obvious that their past knowledge and experiences interacted with the peculiarities of the new context. Thus, the relationship between L1 and L2 in learning to undertake academic tasks in their specific disciplines needs to be seen as a dynamic process of negotiation rather than as a linear transition from L1 to L2 (cf. Riazi 1997). As shown in the above cases, even though the type of academic interaction which was required at the participants' home and host communities differed in relation to certain sociocultural and communicative aspects of behaviour, their recognition of identical elements or similar features in native and host rhetorical situations enabled them to appropriately apply some of their study skills to the tasks across both situations and to manage their intercultural academic participation (cf. Schunk 2000). In this regard, noting of cross-cultural similarities in academic genres contributed to the students' negotiating their satisfactory participation.

7.3.3 Implementation of situated strategies

(a) Strategies using situational resources

In addition to the application of their disciplinary knowledge or native strategies in the host academic settings, this study showed that various situational resources embedded in the host academic community enabled the students to develop situated strategies in the academic contact situations. Yuka and Aya, predominantly utilised electronic databases in the library to find the latest articles, which dealt with topics or theories relevant to their written assignments. Yuka mentioned, "The database is very convenient to obtain relevant information for written assignments, because I don't have to walk around in the library to search for the relevant articles". Both the participants reported that they felt the need to use as effective references as possible in their assignments to catch up with the academic performances by local students.

In preparing for an essay-style examination, Mami photocopied and utilised two past official examination papers, which were located in the reserve section of the library. She stated, "I have never used past exam papers at my home university because they weren't available. So, I was surprised to hear the teacher telling us that the samples of past-years exam papers were in the library". Based on the papers, she planned how to prepare for the examination, which required students to answer two out of

eight questions. In these examination papers, Mami selected three questions which she believed she could answer, and attempted to write answers for the three questions by referring to relevant information in the textbook. This management strategy subsequently enabled her to successfully perform in the examination.

All the participants except Aya and Shingo, furthermore, self-managed their deviations from written conventions by referring to written guidelines and written samples from friends. Management of some of the surface-level written conventions did not represent an ongoing problem for the participants, since they often practiced using such conventions in the various written tasks that they undertook and were gradually able to learn how to utilise them. This study thus substantiates Nelson's (1990) claim that it is crucial for teachers to provide students with written guidelines on the grounds that the provision of guidelines by teachers increased systematicity of management of written assignments. As stated in Chapter Six, written guidelines as well as written samples from friends were found to be the most useful and accessible resource to enable Japanese exchange students to self-manage written conventions. Since their knowledge of written conventions, which the students gained in a certain written task, can be applicable to other tasks (cf. Schunk 2000), such knowledge frequently helped the students to develop autonomous management skills in discipline-specific academic writing.

(b) Note-taking, listening, and reviewing strategies

The participants created situated strategies in relation to note-taking, listening to lectures, and reviewing lecture contents. This study found that the participants commonly employed a 'not-listening strategy', when they took notes at the initial stage of their participation in classes. At this stage, they were often too busy copying OHP or PowerPoint slides in class to be able to listen carefully to lectures (Mulligan and Kirkpatrick 2000). However, as some of the participants became accustomed to lectures in English, they implemented more advanced strategies. For example, Kenji implemented a strategy of concentrating on listening to the teacher's commentaries, since the teacher changed PowerPoint slides so quickly that he could not adequately take notes. In reviewing the lecture contents, Kenji downloaded the lecture notes after class, as these were usually available on the course website. He then read the notes to consolidate his understanding of the content, which he listened to and learned in class. He noted, "I've realised the limitation of note-taking and so I just listen to the teacher's speech. Concentrating on listening to the lecture for an hour is also good training to improve my listening skills".

In contrast to Kenji's emphasis on reviewing lecture notes, Chie implemented a strategy of printing out the lecture notes from the websites, of briefly reading through the notes prior to the lectures, and of bringing the notes into the classes. In so doing, Chie was able to better understand lectures and also to improve her listening and note-taking skills (cf. Hadwin, Kirby and Woodhouse 1999). Furthermore, in the lectures of Sociology, which only contained two written tasks as assessment requirements, Kenji focussed on collecting information to support the arguments of his written assignments while participating in class. Thus, Kenji did not take any notes except the ones which were relevant and useful to his proposed assignment topics. This seemingly constituted a form of non-participation, but actually served as a management strategy whereby he placed his own academic interests at the centre of his learning efforts and paid attention selectively (cf. Wenger 1998; Norton 2001; Morita 2004).

Furthermore, in this study, it was only Aya and Kenji who prepared for the end-of-semester examinations by regularly reviewing lecture contents. They each self-managed this activity by employing "re-working strategies" to rewrite their lecture notes (Mulligan and Kirkpatrick 2000). In Linguistics, Kenji, for instance, created a strategy of regularly making a copy of scribbled lecture notes after class to facilitate his subsequent review of the whole content for the end-of-semester examination. The fact that the subject was a new academic area for him required Kenji to study hard in order to respond to academic tasks satisfactorily. Aya's application of her native strategy of calculation, which was previously introduced, also constituted a kind of re-working strategy. She commented, "I need to re-calculate the formulae, which teachers explained, and need to make revised notes. Otherwise, I'm afraid that I cannot do well in the final examinations". Their re-working strategies enabled them to improve their understanding of subject matter and prepare for the examinations. These findings indicate that self-monitoring their own positionings in classroom communities at AU encouraged the students to create situated strategies whereby they can manage intercultural interaction in the academic contact situations.

(c) Strategies for in-class discussions

Various new strategies emerged as the students managed their participation in class discussions. Yuka, for instance, utilised a strategy of seating herself close to her teachers and trying to express her opinion at least once a day. She commented, "Teachers have a better understanding of my English than my classmates, and so it's easier for me to directly talk to

teachers and express my opinions". Moreover, Chie and Yuka implemented a strategy of positioning themselves favourably in classroom communities by identifying and establishing roles they can play in the classes. In the subject entitled "Contemporary Japan", Chie realised that she was more familiar with current Japanese issues than her classmates and the Australian tutor since she was the only student who had just come from Japan. Such recognition enabled her to be confident of participating in class discussions. She stated, "I am the most useful resource of information about Japan in class, so I always feel I should talk about something". Chie took advantage of her native knowledge about Japan and introduced several examples of Japanese culture to her classmates in order to actively participate in the discussions and express her opinions in English.

Yuka also introduced her knowledge of Japanese language in the subjects entitled "Japanese Linguistics" and "Japanese Interpreting and Translation". Since these subjects mainly dealt with Japanese language use, her use of academic Japanese at her home institution allowed her to feel confident of participating in the discussions. Such confidence enabled Yuka to actively present examples of language use and language phenomena during discussions in these two subjects. As shown in Chie's and Yuka's cases, students' participation in discussions depended upon whether they could establish relationships with others where they felt self-confident. Their identification of potential roles they can play in classroom communities as well as their selection of the subjects related to Japan allowed these two students to serve as useful informants in discussions. These rhetorical situations enabled Chie and Yuka to thus use resources that they had developed in their lives to position themselves favourably (Leki 1995). In these situations, the students were acknowledged as full participants in these communities of practice.

7.4 Implementation of Other-Management Strategies

Even though Japanese exchange students cannot independently manage their participation, they can utilise social-interactional resources such as peers, teachers, and instructors at the language and study support centre and successfully draw upon other-management. Among the various activities which they undertook in host academic settings, students most frequently relied upon other-management, particularly in conceptualising task requirements, reading and understanding prescribed articles, and editing their written texts. It is likely that these activities were more strongly related to host academic genres than other activities and that they

constituted genre-specific activities where students were expected to strictly follow the norms of the community. Since such genre-specific activities required the students to strictly follow the norms of the community, it was necessary for them to seek help from others who were conversant with the target genres in order to manage these activities. This study identified a variety of ways whereby students negotiated their access to social-interactional resources in relation to mutual benefits, shared interests, structural arrangements, and their perceptions of social positionings.

Mutual benefits of interaction between Japanese exchange students and their peers contributed to the establishment of relationships where students helped each other reciprocally. In these situations, the peers helped the Japanese students to overcome their problems with negotiating norms in return for the students' help to their peers to learn Japanese. For example, in her second semester, Mami extensively relied upon her language exchange partner in order to facilitate her reading and understanding of English articles. While Mami assisted the partner to complete homework and review his Japanese lessons, the partner helped her to understand the content of the prescribed weekly readings for Anthropology. These meetings between the language exchange partners continued from Week Four to the end of the semester, with her partner reading the articles beforehand and answering Mami's questions by illustrating the logical structures of arguments.

Japanese exchange students' shared interests with peers also increased their accessibility to peers and enabled them to obtain help with academic management. For instance, Yuka's interest in using an on-line chat resulted in her developing on-line peer networks, which allowed her to employ other-management in order to clarify task requirements for written assignments. Since most of her close friends at her dormitory used the on-line chat, it was the most convenient method to exchange information with them. She reported that on-line communication provided her with more opportunities to ask questions than did face-to-face conversation, as the on-line mode tended to last longer. In addition, the written text used in on-line chats enabled more accurate information exchanges than did spoken communication and allowed Yuka to form a clearer understanding of subject matter. When on-line dialogues involved crucial information, Yuka saved the dialogues in her computer and re-examined them later.

The other factor which encouraged the participants to implement peer-management strategies was the structural arrangements of courses. As shown in Section 7.2.1 above, the structural arrangement of Aya's course helped her to rely upon peer-management. For example, for one of the

end-of-semester examinations, Aya's membership in the shared workplace in her course enabled her to seek a senior student's help with clarifying the types of questions that were more likely to appear. Since the teacher informed students that the questions were basically the same as for the previous year, the senior student, who had experienced the same examination the previous year, effectively identified the questions. Aya reported that approximately 80 percent of the student's identification was correct. Such identification thus significantly facilitated her preparation for and performance in the examination. Yuka's collaborative management with local students in interpreting and translation, which was illustrated in Section 7.2.4, also resulted partly because of structural arrangements, because the students were actually required to undertake pair work. Furthermore, students' perceptions of their own peripheral positionings sometimes determined their accessibility to social-interactional resources. As previously described, Yuka and Chie's positive perceptions enabled them to take advantage of others' assistance, whereas Shingo's negative perception of his positioning in a classroom limited his employment of other-management.

These findings suggest that other-management strategies, which the students planned to implement, were frequently co-constructed and negotiated with those around the individual and with the society at large (cf. Lantolf and Pavlenko 2001). The above-shown four factors contributed to positively changing power relations between the Japanese exchange students and their social-interactional resources. In particular, mutual benefits promoted the students building up equal relationships with peers. Shared interests and structural arrangements helped the students and peers to regard themselves as members who belonged to the same groups. The students' positive perceptions of social positionings, furthermore, enabled them to justify their right to seek academic assistance from teachers, peers, or from the instructor at the language and study support centre.

7.5 Discontinuation of Adjustment

Although this chapter has so far illustrated various cases where Japanese exchange students seemed to successfully manage their participation, there also appeared to be instances of discontinuation of adjustment, whereby Japanese exchange students abandoned implementing management strategies or where they intentionally resorted to avoidance behaviour in relation to management strategies. This study identified multiple factors

and reasons behind such lack of management of intercultural academic interaction.

7.5.1 Abandoning implementation of management strategies

In addition to Japanese exchange students' avoidance behaviour, this study found that on occasions they discontinued their adjustment, because they abandoned the implementation of management strategies. This type of discontinuation emerged due to unavailability and inaccessibility of potential resources. Unavailability of resources, including references, lecture notes, handouts, and social-interactional resources, prevented them from making adjustments, using their desired strategies and required them to replan their adjustments.

The participants also abandoned implementing certain management strategies when resources were available but inaccessible to the students due to several factors. One of the factors which reduced students' access to social-interactional resources was inefficient time management. For example, since, in her first semester, Yuka barely completed her written assignments by the submission dates, she was not able to gain access to teachers or proofreaders beforehand. She commented:

(15)

> Problems usually come up when I am drafting assignments. I want to ask questions to teachers, but I cannot, because I'm afraid of teachers telling me, "You are still struggling with such a basic issue just before the due date". (Yuka)

The students were also too reserved to seek access to teachers on some occasions. For instance, Mami's timidity prevented her from gaining access to teachers at the initial stage of her participation in AU. She commented, "I don't like to talk to teachers because sometimes I can't understand what they say. I'm always saying, 'Sorry?', and so I feel guilty of asking them to repeat". Similarly, this study found several cases where the students gave up consulting teachers because of their insufficient identification of relevant problems and questions. For example, Yuka did not understand how the subject matter was related to the requirements of a written assignment. However, since she could not identify what types of problems she encountered and what she should ask the teachers, she was not able to consult them. Yuka stated in one of her diary entries, "I don't know what I should do for the assignment, but I

don't know what I should ask the teacher, either. So, I can't ask him questions".

The students' inability to use available resources also led them to abandon certain strategies. For instance, Chie's inability to explain her approach to a written assignment in email consultations interfered with her receiving assignment-planning support from her teacher. She noted in the interview:

(16)

> I wanted to make sure if my ideas were on the right track or not, and so I emailed my teacher to make an appointment for the consultation. She replied to me and let me know that she was not available before the due date, and thus she requested me to explain in the email what I was doing for the assignment. But I didn't know how to write and explain it properly. I got nervous of emailing her and so I couldn't. Talking to the teacher face to face is easier for me, because she could understand my broken oral English. (Chie)

The exclusive atmosphere in some classroom communities, which was illustrated in Chapter Five, furthermore, negatively influenced the students' academic management at the adjustment planning stage, too. In this study, teachers' attitudes towards NESB students and the distance between Japanese exchange students and classmates occasionally resulted in the students feeling that they were excluded (cf. Chapter Five). Shingo noted, "One of my teachers is too authoritative, not approachable, doesn't understand my academic struggles, and so I cannot ask questions of her". Also, in the Politics tutorial, Mami reported that her classmates treated her as a stranger since she was the only NESB international student in class. This overwhelming atmosphere increased Mami's peripheral standing in the classroom and prevented her from seeking assistance from peers when she had trouble with understanding the lecture content. This study revealed that even though the resources were actually available to the Japanese exchange students, various factors blocked their access to them.

7.5.2 Avoidance behaviour in relation to management strategies

Regardless of the availability or accessibility of potential resources, Japanese exchange students occasionally avoided implementing management strategies due to overconfidence, pride and responsibility, failure to identify the usefulness of the strategies, and peer influence. For example, Yuka's underestimation of the difficulties in writing up a 1500-word essay

for Japanese Linguistics resulted from her overconfidence in managing the task. Since the topic was related to Japanese grammar, she expected that she could come up with some examples without much effort and then avoided collecting relevant resources and planning her arguments thoroughly. Consequently, she had difficulty reaching the required word length and ended up submitting the task without substantial information and arguments. This instance suggests that the difference between confidence and overconfidence was too fine for the student to identify. It seems that as the participants became accustomed to the host community, their confidence in task management sometimes positively affected their participation. However, a feeling of confidence occasionally led to overconfidence, which made the participants neglect the necessity of implementing management strategies to complete each academic task.

Students' avoidance behaviour was also affected by their pride in, and feelings of responsibility for their own study. For instance, Aya avoided seeking teachers' help immediately after having trouble with clarifying the task requirements, because she was proud of herself as a Masters student from Japan and felt responsible for considering how to cope with academic tasks by herself in the first place. She stated:

(17)

> I don't like teachers seeing me as a hopeless student. So, I don't want to ask them silly questions. It might be because of my attitude towards study in Japan. In my Japanese university, it's embarrassing to ask pointless questions to teachers. So, whenever I see my classmates asking unsophisticated questions to teachers, I feel they should think about it by themselves first. We, as beginner researchers, always have to think about logical structures. That's vital to success. (Aya)

Aya seemed to find that a discrepancy existed between her home and host universities with regard to the extent to which students were allowed to seek teachers' assistance to clarify task requirements. However, Aya fostered her adherence to her native norm with regard to student responsibility and avoided seeking an immediate remedy from teachers. Given that Aya strategically avoided relying upon others, this behaviour constituted positive avoidance to improve her disciplinary competence rather than the one which interrupted her academic management.

Furthermore, the participants' failure to identify the usefulness of certain resources led to their avoidance behaviour. When preparing for one of the unit tests, Shingo failed to identify the usefulness of reviewing tutorial exercises, which illustrated how to put the concepts in practice. Consequently, Shingo had difficulty in solving the questions, which required students to demonstrate how to apply the concepts to the assigned topics. In the interview after the examination, Shingo mentioned:

(18)

> I should have reviewed the exercises. But I didn't notice how important the exercises were because I concentrated on memorising difficult concepts in the lecture notes. So, I forgot to pay attention to reviewing the exercises. I was so careless. If I had reviewed the exercises and learned how to solve them, I could have covered the main concepts, too. (Shingo)

In addition to the above-mentioned cognitive factors which concern students' internalised skills and perceptions, this study found a sociocultural factor – peer influence –, which is more related to the co-constructive nature of participation. Peer influence sometimes gave rise to the students' avoidance behaviour when implementing management strategies. Yuka, for example, planned to go to the study support centre to seek editing support to confirm the appropriateness of her draft for her 2000-word essay for Australian Culture. However, it appears that the advice from one of the exchange students who took the same subject in the previous semester interfered with her active use of the facility. Emphasising that the subject was mainly organised for exchange and other international students, the friend informed her that it did not require the friend to ask for proofreading in the previous semester as the teacher was relatively flexible in relation to marking. Following her friend's experience, she therefore avoided asking for assistance at the language and study support centre. However, such avoidance behaviour made the assigned task remain unsatisfactory and did not contribute to Yuka gaining a high mark for the task. As Lave and Wenger (1991) stress newcomers' increasing movement towards fuller participation while interacting with more experienced members, seeking assistance from peers and coparticipating in various academic contexts with them tend to be regarded as the factors which enhance students' academic management. Yet, as shown in this case, the host community members did not always help the students to participate in the host community. Rather, peer influence sometimes reduced the need, which Japanese exchange students

felt, to put their planned strategies into action, and negatively affected their decision-making for adjustment planning.

CHAPTER EIGHT

DEVELOPMENTAL PROCESSES OF ACADEMIC PARTICIPATION

8.1 Introduction

Although LPP emphasises students' growing acquisition of knowledge and increasing involvement in the host discourse community, some researchers claim that NESB students cannot necessarily become fuller participants (Toohey 1998; Kanno 1999; Toohey 1999). Investigation thus needs to be made about the processes in which such students manage their participation and the obstacles which prevent them from increasing their participation. However, despite a number of empirical studies of NESB students' academic adjustment, few research studies have dealt with these students' incomplete participation in a new academic discourse community. The principal limitation of this type of research is that students who discontinue their participation become unavailable to take part in research. The in-depth ethnographic approach, which this research utilised, covers such a shortcoming and discusses not only the completed cases but also incomplete participation by Japanese exchange students at AU.

In particular, this chapter illustrates individual different developmental processes of academic participation, while exploring the differences between completed and incomplete participation. The ways that the students participated in AU were dynamic processes and were frequently changed as a result of their development of goals, motivational investments, social networks, and academic management competence. These interplaying components of Japanese exchange students' academic participation are discussed in relation to various cognitive and sociocultural phenomena affecting the developmental processes of participation.

8.2 Incomplete Participation

8.2.1 Overview of Shingo's and Chie's participation

Although the notion of LPP assumes that newcomers aim to gain fuller participation, the cases of Shingo and Chie indicated that they could not, or did not necessarily seek fuller participation. These students' participation was not completed since both of them discontinued their studies at AU after finishing their first semester. Shingo's case showed that the inside of the host community was not a place that guaranteed fuller participation to him (cf. Kanno 1999; Toohey 1998). Shingo vaguely envisaged that he would gradually improve his learning and socialisation with host community members by merely belonging to the host community. However, Shingo was not able to become a fuller participant, since various socio-cognitive factors hindered him from increasing his participation and contributed to his remaining at the margin.

Shingo's marginal positioning in the host community increased his stresses and strains which, in turn, affected his health and resulted in the occurrence of swollen lymph glands on his neck. This illness led him to withdraw from two of the four subjects after the fourth week of the first semester and to abandon continuing his studies in the second semester (cf. Table 3). While he was participating at AU, he denied the suggestion that the illness resulted from these stresses and strains because he was reluctant to accept the fact that he was worried about adjustment problems and that he was homesick. However, in the follow-up interview in Japan, he admitted it, noting, "It's embarrassing for me to say, but I didn't know how to be myself in AU. So I was very stressed and I missed Japan so much".

On the other hand, the more Chie was involved in the host community, the fuller a participant she became. However, she gradually came to regard the host community as not the place where she should stay long for a number of reasons. After a temporary return to Japan in the mid-semester break, she decided not to continue her studies in her second semester. As shown in Table 3, these two students' incomplete participation was accompanied by contrasting academic results. Shingo obtained a pass grade for one of the two subjects he studied and failed the other one, whereas Chie's decreased participation still allowed her to obtain reasonable results – three credit grades and a pass grade. These two participants' incomplete cases did not simply result from their insufficient English academic competence but from multiple factors.

Table 8.1: Overall results of Shingo and Chie

Participants	Subjects and overall results			
Shingo	International Management **(Pass)**	Principles of Macroeconomics **(Fail)**	International Economy **(Discontinued)**	Practical English **(Discontinued)**
Chie	Australian Indigenous Societies **(Pass)**	Contemporary Japan **(Credit)**	Australian Culture **(Credit)**	Practical English **(Credit)**

High Distinction: 80-100%, Distinction: 70%-79%, Credit: 60%-69%, Pass: 50%-59%, Fail: 0-49%

8.2.2 Goals of participation

Students own arrangements of goals of participation were one of the factors that facilitated or constrained their studies. The Japanese exchange students tended to have different goals for participating in student exchanges. As briefly shown in Chapter Three, Shingo's academic goals involved completing at least three subjects out of seven, which he was supposed to enrol in during his one-academic-year course, and gaining academic English skills, which would be advantageous for him to study the Masters course back in Japan. Contrary to his intention to develop such skills, he did not mind failing or withdrawing from some subjects if he found that they were too demanding for him. This attitude was significantly influenced by his native norms of enrolment in subjects in Japan, whereby he emphasised how economically he could obtain credit points. Shingo noted, "In my Japanese home university, I usually enrol in more subjects than I need. Then, I drop the hard subjects among them and I keep the ones which I would be able to pass". This approach thus did not enable Shingo to fully participate in all of the subjects which he enrolled in, and allowed him to withdraw from International Economy and Practical English in the Australian situation.

Chie participated in the student exchange program because she desired to overcome her inferiority complex about her limited English communication skills, which she came to perceive as a returnee student in Japan. At AU, Chie thus set her primary goal as improving her English interaction competence, and also aimed to fulfil the academic requirements to achieve a pass. Chie commented in the interview:

(19)

In my course at my home university, there are lots of returnee students who have much better English skills than me. One-third of the subjects

were delivered in English, but I avoided English classes and the opportunities to use English as much as I could, because as a returnee student I'm not good at English. My listening and pronunciation are ok, but I cannot speak English properly. (Chie)

Although the above-mentioned goals enhanced Chie's participation in the first half of the semester at AU, the attention she paid to developing English competence mainly for communicative purposes rather than academic achievements did not enable her to maintain her concentration on managing her academic participation. After the mid-semester break, she perceived herself as having sufficiently increased her English interaction competence because she found herself not having difficulties in social participation at AU. Chie noted:

(20)

I'm happy with my improvement of English communication skills. I want to pass but my academic results were not so important to me, because I won't transfer the credits. So, once I realised that I can somehow manage the requirements and I can pass the subjects, I don't feel like studying hard. (Chie)

Her satisfaction with such developments contributed to her decreasing her participation in the host academic context. In these two participants' cases, their arrangements of goals did not contribute to an increase in their academic participation. The participants did not show dynamism in their goal arrangements, whereby a new goal is designed after a certain goal is achieved. Lack of changing or expanding goals seems to have thus led the students to insufficiently allocate effort in relation to their academic management.

8.2.3 Limited motivational investment

The participants' insufficient goal arrangements pertained to their inconsistent study behaviour. Even though they intended to achieve certain goals, sociocultural constraints (such as pressure from host community members, especially peers or teachers, or from peers at their home universities, and self-perceptions of these pressures) sometimes hindered them from acting based on such intentions. In this regard, their motivations to learn were not a static stimulus of learning but changed according to various factors (cf. Norton Peirce 1995). Thus, as mentioned in Chapter Three, considering the dynamism of motivation, this study

utilises the term of "motivational investment" to analyse how the students invest themselves in participating in the host academic contexts while they negotiate various sociocultural factors and multiple memberships in their home and host universities.

Shingo insufficiently developed his motivational investment in increasing his own participation during his studies at AU. Such insufficiency was significantly related to his own sense of self and his reluctance to accept his peripheral position in the host community. Pavlenko and Lantolf (2000) claim that linguistic transition itself involves an intentional re-negotiation of one's multiple identities, which are reconstructed in communication with members of another discourse community. However, while he was participating at AU, Shingo's limited contact with English-speaking community members interfered with his developing a "situated identity" as a student at AU (cf. Norton 2001). Thus, Shingo more frequently perceived himself as a visiting student from his Japanese home university rather than as a novice student, who needed to adjust to the new academic genres at AU. In fact, Shingo often conducted email and telephone interactions with his peers in Japan to relax himself, rather than interacting with host community members. Shingo commented in the interview, "Every day, I have too much English in classes, and so I want to speak Japanese when I'm free". As shown in Chapter Seven, his reluctance to accept himself as a peripheral participant also interfered with his investment to move from peripheral to fuller participation in AU. He did not allow himself to show his academic struggles to others, and tended to be reticent in the presence of English-speaking host community members. Shingo noted, "I don't feel like communicating with my English-speaking friends often because my English isn't good enough". Such insufficient motivational investment prevented him from identifying how to behave as a legitimate peripheral participant. Consequently, this resulted in him utilising "avoidance of communication" as a strategy of keeping away from potential deviations that could occur in his interactions with peers (cf. Neustupny 1985).

The exclusive atmosphere in some classroom communities, furthermore, influenced Shingo's motivational investment in participating in class. As shown in Chapter Five and Seven, teachers' attitudes towards NESB students and the distance between Shingo and his classmates occasionally resulted in his feeling that he was excluded. Shingo also claimed that his classmates sometimes excluded his right to participate in class interactions, because they were not patient enough to listen to his utterances. Such an atmosphere led Shingo to lack the confidence to participate in class and, in turn, resulted in his being reticent in class.

In contrast to Shingo, Chie effectively invested herself in managing her participation to fulfil her goals. Her motivational investment was principally triggered by her anxiety about, and excitement in participation. She was afraid she could not achieve the goal of passing the subjects in which she was enrolled but at the same time she regarded the academic tasks as worthwhile. Chie commented in the interview:

(21)

> I'm worried about my study. I believe that the teachers at AU are stricter with marking than those at my home university, so I need to study much harder. Otherwise, I might fail. The tasks are challenging but I'm excited to tackle them. Actually, I've never studied hard like this in Japan. (Chie)

Such motivational investment allowed Chie to be very active in overcoming her adjustment problems until the mid-semester break. However, her investment seemed to decrease after the break as a result of not only self-perception of achieving her goals, which was discussed above, but also due to influence from other Asian exchange students. The fact that most of the exchange students from other Asian countries studied for only one semester resulted in Chie reconsidering the length of her study at AU. She commented, "My exchange friends from other Asian countries told me that they came here to study for only one semester because they didn't want to delay their regular study cycles at their home universities. So, I thought that study for one semester would be better for me, too".

A shift of perceptions of herself also contributed to Chie decreasing her motivational investment. Chie's temporary return to Japan during the mid-semester break led her to change her interpretation of who she was. In particular, peer pressure in Japan contributed to her placing emphasis not on her social identity as an exchange student but as a third-year student at her home university, who needed to start searching for employment. Chie found that her peers at her home university had already started submitting job applications, so she felt as if she was being left behind. Although she previously planned to search for employment in her fourth and fifth years at her home university, she reported that she gradually came to believe it would be better to graduate within four years rather than to continue studying. Similarly, the presence of her boyfriend at her home university encouraged her to change attitudes towards participation in AU. Since she regarded her boyfriend as the one who understood her most, her participation at AU without his support increased her stress in managing

her academic life and also enhanced her interest in returning to her home university sooner rather than later.

Chie's sensitivity to how people in Japan might perceive her status as a former returnee student from the U.S.A and England also contributed to distracting her attention from her participation at AU. When she consulted senior students in Japan about her future employment, Chie found that long-term study abroad experiences were not necessarily highly valued in job applications, on the grounds that returnee students from overseas were sometimes considered as selfish, argumentative and less cooperative in the workplace. Since she had already had six years of overseas experience prior to participating in the student exchange program, she was afraid that one more year of study abroad might worsen the impression of her. Chie's decreased motivational investment, furthermore, partly resulted from her decreased excitement in participating at AU. Towards the end of her first semester, Chie confided to other Japanese exchange students that her academic life at AU did not excite her much since she had previously had similar overseas experiences in the U.S.A and England.

The findings here suggest that the complexity of multiple community memberships negatively affected Shingo and Chie's participation at AU. They physically belonged to the host community but mentally moved back and forth from their home to the host community. Consequently, they ended up perceiving their temporary memberships of the host community negatively and their belonging to their home communities positively. This perception seemed to interfere with their social formation of self at AU.

8.2.4 Social networks

Shingo and Chie revealed contrasting results with regard to their development of social networks at AU. Shingo's limitations in developing academic networks had the effect of decreasing the development of his academic participation. As mentioned earlier, Shingo failed to develop networks in the situations where others defined him as a linguistic minority participant. Therefore, although Shingo was participating in some study networks with some Australian or international classmates through group work towards the end of the semester, the networks remained temporary because of his inactive involvement in them. He was not even able to maintain access to the group member who was of Japanese origin and with whom Shingo interacted in Japanese. Shingo commented:

(22)

> He (the group member of Japanese origin) was approachable, but it was a bit embarrassing for me to speak to him in Japanese and rely on him too often. So, I tried to communicate with him in English. But once I started communicating with him in English, I became unable to speak to him as often as before. (Shingo)

In addition to academic networks, Shingo was not able to develop his private peer networks. His private networks were basically limited to an international undergraduate student from Hong Kong and Japanese students who were studying English at the English language school affiliated with AU. Membership in these networks frequently provided Shingo with situations where he communicated in Japanese and positioned himself favourably, since his Hong Kong friend looked up to him for his knowledge of Japanese popular culture, and his Japanese friends respected him as a university student. However, his belonging to the group tended to place Shingo outside of the host academic discourse community and to block access to certain resources useful for academic management.

Shingo's lack of "social affiliation" in the host community also partly resulted in his unsuccessful development of social networks there (cf. Norton and Toohey 2001). In his Japanese university, he had strong social networks in a rowing club. Belonging to the club automatically provided Shingo with the situations where he could socialise with peers while exploring his personal interest. The networks were also academically useful because senior or other members in the club were very willing to share relevant information, lecture notes, and past examination papers. Therefore, his successful academic achievements at his home university were at least partly a result of his utilisation of such networks.

On the other hand, he was not able to obtain membership in a social group within the Australian university. Although he participated in the Kendo club once, the large amount of weekly assigned readings for his subjects prevented him from continuing to attend the practice sessions. This lack of social affiliation promoted his sense of isolation in the host community and hindered him from using his native strategy of relying upon peers to manage academic participation. These findings indicate that in the host disciplinary community, Shingo was not able to set up situations where his status as a Japanese exchange student could be respected and his personal resources could be valued (cf. Norton and Toohey 2001). His limited peer networks thus hindered him from moving out of his peripheral position in the host academic context and interfered with the development of his academic participation.

In contrast, Chie's decreased participation did not directly result from her social networks. In fact, Chie extensively developed her social networks as she established many situations where she positioned herself favourably. As illustrated in Chapter Seven, she effectively took advantage of her peripheral positionings to ask others to accommodate her needs of assistance with task management. In this regard, she had various L1 and English-speaking peer networks to draw upon for academic management and to share information relevant to the tasks. Chie noted:

(23)

> It's easy to ask for help to teachers and Australian or international students in English, because I don't have to use honorifics to them and don't have to be very polite like in Japanese. All I have to do is to be friendly to them. (Chie)

Placing themselves in a lower position than the linguistic majority has been considered as hindering students from learning the target language (cf. Norton and Toohey 2002). However, Chie's case revealed that her access to academic networks was enhanced by her acceptance of some degree of inferiority to host community members and her deliberate placement of herself in a lower position to them. As shown in the previous chapter, Chie's previous intercultural experiences in the U.S.A and England enabled her to regard such inferior positions to host community members as a natural phenomenon for newcomers. The findings demonstrated that Shingo and Chie perceived their inferior positions to others differently and this difference significantly influenced their formation of academic networks.

8.2.5 Academic management competence

In Shingo's case, his inappropriate selection of subjects and insufficient evaluation of management strategies negatively affected his development of academic management competence. As mentioned in Chapter Four, because the policy of the credit transfer system at Japanese universities required exchange students to select subjects which were similar to those offered at home universities but not equivalent to the ones they had previously studied, Shingo failed to select the subjects at AU which involved appropriate academic content at suitable academic levels for himself. In fact, the two subjects (International Economy and Practical English), which he discontinued, were too challenging for him. The academic level of International Economy was too high. Practical English

did not allow him to maintain his concentration because it dealt with unfamiliar disciplinary content and the credit points were not transferable to his home university. His unsuccessful completion of Principles of Macroeconomics was also related to the fact that the subject content was equivalent to the one which he had previously failed at his home university. Shingo noted, "I thought I would be able to pass this subject (Principles of Macroeconomics) when I selected it. But, once I started studying it, I remembered that this was the area which I wasn't good at". These findings revealed that Shingo's inappropriate subject selection complicated his academic management.

Shingo was also not able to identify effective academic management approaches since his evaluation of his passive participation at AU was insufficient. Until he obtained unsatisfactory results for unit tests towards the end of the semester, Shingo perceived his passive participation as adequate. This evaluation hindered him from attempting to be more active in his academic management but he thought it was sufficient to study hard just before examinations (cf. Chapter Five). Even though Shingo evaluated his ineffective academic management, such an evaluation did not lead to the adjustment of his management strategies. For example, as introduced in Chapter Six, he noted and negatively evaluated his passive study behaviour and rote memorisation of terminology after an unsatisfactory performance in one of the unit tests. However, Shingo was not able to put his negative evaluation into action, because a time lapse between the unit test and other forthcoming tasks had the effect of decreasing the seriousness of the difficulties. Shingo stated, "Whenever I have a bad result, I think I need to work more efficiently. But I always forget the feeling soon". Shingo's lack of such adjustment hindered his active participation at AU. Shingo's case, furthermore, showed how difficult it is for students to cross-culturally transfer knowledge and skills learned in one context to a different one (cf. Flower et al. 1990). His failure in transfer was partly attributable to his unsuccessful subject selection but, as shown in Extract (7) in Chapter Six, mostly because he was overwhelmed by linguistic difficulties, which he encountered at AU. Shingo's case suggests that his insufficient English competence resulted in his perception of common features between home and host academic genres as different. His lack of noting of commonalities in disciplinary knowledge and situational similarities prevented him from utilising his previously-developed academic skills.

Chie noted her limited academic writing skills in English and the noting was followed by a negative evaluation of her limitations. To compensate for these, Chie utilised a management strategy of co-

engagement in tasks with academic personnel (cf. Chapter Seven). However, her inconsistency in using this management approach decreased her development of academic management competence. As soon as the semester started, Chie established effective management approaches by drawing upon teachers and the instructor at the language and study support centre. These strategies enabled her to obtain a High Distinction (the top mark) in her first written assignment – a 500-word exercise for Practical English. In subsequent larger written assignments (a 1000-word critical paper and two 2500-word essays), she allocated much more effort in seeking assistance from academic personnel. However, because of the complexity of completing larger assignments, she could not obtain the high results she expected. When she was given a Pass grade for the critical paper for Australian Indigenous Studies, Chie commented, "My effort didn't pay off. I was disappointed at the result, because I really studied hard for it. I shouldn't have studied that hard if I had known I couldn't get a high result". Chie, therefore, gradually assessed the strenuous procedures of co-engagement for the completion of assignments as unreasonable. Accordingly, she became unable to maintain her incentives to undertake this type of management approach. She noted, "I'm tired of coming and seeing teachers or the instructor at the centre, because I usually have three or four consultations to complete one written assignment. It's getting too much for me". After finishing most of the written assignments, Chie simplified her management approach and began to rely upon peers rather than academic personnel. However, the simplified approach did not assist her in performing well in the written tasks and the examinations that followed. Throughout her study at AU, Chie relied upon others' academic assistance and emphasised seeking temporary assistance from others in each assignment rather than developing autonomous management skills.

8.3 Fuller Participation by the Other Four Students

In contrast to incomplete participation by Shingo and Chie, the other four participants' cases showed that Japanese exchange students were able to resist being positioned marginally in dominant discourses and to fashion alternative subject positions that enabled them to increase their participation (cf. Canagarajah 1999).

8.3.1 Overview of participation by the four students

The other four participants – Yuka, Mami, Kenji, and Aya – successfully completed their one-academic-year participation at AU. As shown in Table 8.2 below, the three participants, Yuka, Mami, and Kenji, who enrolled in undergraduate courses, obtained better results in their second semesters. As mentioned in Chapter Four, they were required to enrol in four subjects in their first semester but AU allowed them to enrol in three subjects in their second semester. Yuka was the only participant who completed eight subjects in total. While all the four subjects which she enrolled in during her first semester were awarded Credit grades, she obtained higher results for Japanese-related subjects in her second semester: High Distinction grades for two Japanese-related subjects as well as two Credit grades for another two subjects.

Table 8.2: Overall results of Yuka, Mami, Kenji, and Aya

Participants		Subjects and overall results			
Yuka	S1	Practical English **(Credit)**	Linguistics **(Credit)**	Australian Culture **(Credit)**	Effective Writing **(Credit)**
	S2	Practical English (**Credit)**	Linguistics **(Credit)**	Japanese Linguistics **(High Distinction)**	Interpreting & Translation **(High Distinction)**
Mami	S1	Practical English **(Credit)**	Sociology **(Distinction)**	French **(Distinction)**	Politics **(Credit)**
	S2	Anthropology **(Distinction)**	Sociology **(Credit)**	French **(Distinction)**	
Kenji	S1	Linguistics **(Credit)**	Sociology **(Distinction)**	Anthropology **(Credit)**	Australian Culture **(Credit)**
	S2	Linguistics **(Distinction)**	Sociology **(Credit)**	Australian Nature Experience **(High Distinction)**	
Aya	S1	Computational Astrophysics **(High Distinction)**	Planetary System **(High Distinction)**	Star and Galaxies **(Pass)**	Observation Trip **(Credit)**

High Distinction: 80-100%, Distinction: 70%-79%, Credit: 60%-69%, Pass: 50%-59%, Fail: 0-49%
S1: first semester, S2: second semester

In Mami's case, it seems that her enrolment in language subjects as well as academic subjects aided her participation in AU. She noted, "I thought that it would be hard for me to cope with four academic subjects in a semester. That's why I chose French. I had lots of homework in French but the tasks were easier to manage". Her overall results – four Distinction grades and three Credit grades – suggest that she consistently performed well throughout her one-academic-year study. While Yuka and Mami preferred to select first-year subjects, as the exchange program staff at AU had advised, Kenji deliberately selected third- or fourth-year subjects for his discipline, Sociology, since he preferred learning some specific aspects of sociology rather than repeating general sociological theories, which he had learned in Japan. Although his struggles with examinations in his first semester hindered him from obtaining the high results he had expected, his results were reasonable – three Credit grades and one Distinction grade. In his second semester, while he failed to achieve well in Sociology, he gained a High Distinction and a Distinction grade for another two subjects. In Sociology, he failed to complete the major essay adequately, since he had trouble with his housemates and needed to move out from his flat.

Aya's Honours course in Astrophysics consisted of coursework in the first semester and research in the second semester. Thus, she planned to allocate her second semester to undertaking her Masters thesis, which would be submitted to her home university. Aya obtained two High Distinctions, a Credit, and a Pass grade in her first semester. Whereas she successfully managed two fourth-year subjects – Computational Astrophysics and Planetary System – she had difficulties in managing the other two subjects. One of the subjects, Stars and Galaxies, was a third-year subject, which was more oriented to astronomy than physics. Her insufficient background knowledge of astronomy thus resulted in her struggles with task management. Aya also had difficulty in undertaking the written report for her Observation Trip, which required verbal descriptions rather than mathematical calculations. These difficulties contributed to her gaining lower grades in these two subjects than those in her other subjects. Furthermore, her original schedule to complete her Master thesis during her study at AU was delayed due to her preparation for searching for employment and her return to Japan for job interviews three times during the semester. Therefore, Aya ended up spending her second semester developing her knowledge and skills of computer programming, expanding background knowledge of her research, and determining the conceptual framework of her research. Her thesis was successfully completed after her return to her Japanese home university.

8.3.2 Effective arrangements of goals

Compared to Shingo and Chie, the other four participants effectively designed and expanded their goals. Yuka, for example, expanded her original goal while participating in AU. Similar to Chie's case, Yuka's goal of participation originally focussed on increasing her social rather than academic participation. Based on this goal, she mainly aimed to improve her English interaction competence while socialising with other community members. However, after the first few weeks, she realised that she needed to properly participate in the host academic discourse community to improve her English interaction competence. She remarked:

(24)

> I noticed that I cannot interact with my classmates well if I don't study hard, because I can't confidently talk to my classmates about subject matters. I don't want to make my classmates think of me as stupid. So, to make friends in class, I decided to study harder. (Yuka)

Accordingly, Yuka's negotiation of her relationships with peers resulted in her expanding her goal and encouraged her to make an effort to improve her disciplinary skills in English.

At the initial stage of participation in AU, the other three participants also sufficiently specified appropriate goals to maintain their concentration on participation. Mami aimed to develop her English academic competence and expertise in politics in order to become a public servant in the future. Kenji's goals also involved developing his English academic competence as a means of advancing to the Diploma in Education in Australia after graduating from his home university. These students' goals of learning were further expanded after they noticed that some of the topics, theories, and references used in Sociology and Anthropology were useful to their graduation theses at their Japanese home universities. For example, Kenji noted:

(25)

> I didn't have many opportunities to read empirical studies of sociology. But, since I came here, I've read lots of empirical articles for written assignments. I found that how to present findings and how to use theories in the articles are very useful to my graduation thesis. I want to expand my knowledge of sociology through undertaking written tasks here. Hopefully, I will use some of my written assignments for my thesis, in particular, the ones for which I had good results. (Kenji)

It seems that the similarities of academic cultures contributed to students increasing their progressive participation in AU and their Japanese home universities. That is to say, the similarities not only promoted their participation in AU through application of their previously-developed disciplinary knowledge or native strategies (cf. Chapter Seven) but also sometimes allowed the students to aim to develop their expertise at AU as a means of facilitating their subsequent re-participation in their Japanese home universities.

Aya, furthermore, aimed to develop English academic competence in order to gain computer programming skills, and to expand her expertise of astrophysics at AU. She reported that computer programming skills would give her an advantage in her search for employment and that her expertise in astrophysics was essential for her to demonstrate excellence in her Master thesis. Although students were not expected to write a thesis in English in her home course, as a future researcher, she felt the need to write her Master thesis in English and to develop English competence to publish articles and present a paper at an international conference. Aya also highly valued the learning opportunities at AU, because the opportunities to learn computer programming and subjects related to astrophysics were scarcely offered at her home university. These findings suggest that the goals which the four participants set were different from those of Shingo and Chie in the degree of identification of rationale behind their participation in the student exchange program. The identification of rationale made by the four students ended in producing the dynamism of these students' goal arrangements and constituted one of the crucial factors which led them to be fuller participants in the host academic community.

8.3.3 Management of motivational investment

As was the case with Chie, the four participants' motivational investment in achieving their goals mainly resulted from anxiety and excitement with participation in AU at the beginning stage. They felt the need to carefully identify how to respond to the rhetorical situations in AU since they perceived themselves as nonnative novice members of the host community. However, later in their first or second semesters, as they became familiar with task management and developed their social networks, their motivational investment tended to decrease. This was partly because of their growing difficulties in keeping a balance between studying and socialising with their peers. Kenji, for example, reported that he was able to concentrate on his studies at the beginning of his participation in AU

because he had nothing special to do except studying. Nevertheless, once he made some friends to socialise with, he gradually had difficulties in allocating his time to study.

Despite such decreases, the four participants managed their motivational investment well enough to accomplish their specific goals of participation, which were discussed above. Their management of motivational investment significantly pertained to their formation of situated identities. In Yuka's case, peer pressure helped her to increasingly develop her identity as the same community member as her peers at AU. For example, in Japanese Linguistics, peer pressure triggered her comprehensive preparation for the classes by reading prescribed articles carefully and solving questions in the exercises regularly. Yuka noted:

(26)

> I would not prepare for classes so much if it were the other subject. I prepare a lot for the classes because many friends of mine attend this subject (Japanese Linguistics), and it's embarrassing that I cannot answer the questions in presence of them. Because they know I'm a student from a Japanese university, they expect me to give some good answers and examples in class. (Yuka)

Yuka's recognition of peer expectations and her own position in a classroom community led her to take an initiative in class discussions as an information provider in this subject (cf. 7.3.3 above).

Her participation in Practical English and Australian Culture also helped Yuka to perceive positive pressure from other NESB students. Since, as shown in Chapter Four, the courses were organised for exchange and NESB students, she became competitive with other NESB exchange or international students in academic English skills. She stated, "I don't want to come off second to other international students. So, I have to study hard and improve my English". These findings showed that Yuka positioned herself in situations where she effectively used peer pressure to help develop her situated identities and manage her motivational investment.

Similarly, Aya developed a situated identity as a member of an Honour's course in Astrophysics with her four fellow students. In particular, her rivalry with an exchange student from Germany in disciplinary skills enhanced her development of such an identity and promoted her motivational investment in her study. For example, although handwriting of mathematical calculations in assignments was commonly allowed in her home university and AU, the German student's

utilisation of LaTeX, which is used to compose a document involving mathematics, made her feel she also needed to use that software in her assignments. She mentioned, "He is the top student among us, very hardworking and has lots of knowledge of computer programming and our discipline. So, he always stimulates me and makes me feel that I have to study hard, too". Such rivalry played a central role in managing Aya's motivational investment and contributed to her increasing her academic participation.

Mami's perception of herself as a representative of students at her home university also enhanced her motivational investment. Since she was the only scholarship awardee from the Japanese government among the six Japanese exchange students, she was likely to feel more responsible for her participation in the exchange program than the other students. She stated in her interview:

(27)

> Because I was selected as an exchange student among many candidates at my university and I was given a scholarship, I have to complete my study successfully. If I should fail, I couldn't go back to my university. (Mami)

It also seems that her aspiration towards learning helped Mami to manage her motivational investment since she regarded learning as helping her to be confident of herself. She noted, "I feel insecure unless I keep studying. I don't mind if others call me square, but studying is important for me to be myself". Such aspiration further led her to avoid holding negative situated identities, which occurred in relation to her marginal position in classes. She realised the limitations of her participation in class discussions but determined not to worry about her insufficient performances in class for fear that her anxiety about such performances should negatively affect her entire participation. Instead, she paid principal attention to investing herself in undertaking academic tasks properly. In so doing, she maintained her motivational investment in completing her participation in AU.

In Kenji's case, his goal of advancing to the Diploma in Education in an Australian university after graduating from his home university promoted his motivational investment in participating in AU. He noted, "I want to use my academic record at AU as evidence of my English academic skills when I enrol in the Diploma in Education. So, I can't fail and I have to do as well as possible in all the subjects". However, Kenji invested himself differently in two recommended subjects for exchange

students – Australian Culture and Australian Nature Experience – and other subjects. He did not actively participate in the recommended subjects since he regarded these subjects as not worthwhile to participate in properly (cf. Chapter Four). On the other hand, his identity as an expert in sociology encouraged him to invest himself more in Sociology and Anthropology. Such an identity enabled him to confidently activate his previously-developed disciplinary knowledge in these subjects (cf. Chapter Seven). He also demonstrated his identity as a novice student in Linguistics, which led him to carefully learn the new discipline. Kenji's multiple identities in the host community enabled him to invest himself selectively in various academic contact situations.

The findings suggest that participation and identity are closely interconnected and mutually constitutive (Lave and Wenger 1991; Wenger 1998). However, considering differences in academic genres among academic contexts and different social positionings the students had in each context, it seemed difficult for the participants to invest themselves in all the rhetorical situations equally. Thus, the four students sometimes deliberately managed their identities and motivational investments in varied ways in order to increase their participation.

8.3.4 Development of social networks

The four participants negotiated their development of social networks in various ways. As described in Chapter Seven, similar to Chie's case, Yuka's previous intercultural experiences helped her to actively interact with others as a means to adjust to the host community. She started to establish NESB peer networks in Australian Culture and Practical English. She stated at the beginning of her first semester, "I really enjoy meeting other exchange or NESB international classmates and talking to them. We share lots of common topics as newcomers and so I feel more comfortable to talk to them than with Australian students". By the middle of her first semester, her peer networks were expanded to Australian students in her dormitory, who enrolled in the same subjects as her or who were learning Japanese.

In developing her social networks, Yuka resisted her peripheral position in the host community in a different way from Shingo's unsuccessful case, which was discussed above. To position herself favourably, she focussed on developing Japanese learner networks and successfully established situations where her identity as a Japanese exchange student was valued and respected. For example, her first Japanese learner network originated in her establishment of a close

relationship with an exchange student from AU at her Japanese home university. In fact, such a relationship was one of the reasons why Yuka was determined to study at AU as an exchange student in the first place. At the host university, the Australian friend helped with her participation while sometimes serving to mediate the cultural contact, which Yuka experienced between Japanese and Australian academic cultures. Yuka also built up a mutual relationship with one of her peers in the dormitory, who was studying Japanese at AU, whereby Yuka sought assistance in managing tasks from the friend in exchange for tutoring her in Japanese.

In her second semester, Yuka also selected the same subjects as her Japanese-learning peers so that she could ask for their help in her class participation as well as in undertaking academic tasks. In particular, as mentioned above, Yuka's participation in the subjects related to Japanese – Japanese Linguistics and Japanese Interpreting and Translation – allowed her to be in a favourable position in the classroom communities. Yuka's confident attitude towards participation in these subjects not only furthered her English-speaking peer networks but also developed her L1 peer networks with Japanese international students.

Compared to Yuka, the social networks of Mami and Kenji were not extensive but they developed strong connections with a limited number of peers. In Mami's case, it was not until the second semester that she developed her social networks with an Australian language exchange partner and an AU exchange student going to Mami's Japanese home university. Her case revealed that, similar to Shingo's case, her shyness hindered her from making friends at AU in her first semester. However, her reluctance to interact with peers was gradually overcome after she participated in the university's bus tour to central Australia during a mid-year break. The tour provided her with the opportunities to socialise with a number of students and enabled her to develop self-confidence in interacting in English. In her second semester, such confidence made her sociable enough to seek a language exchange partner in response to a public notice on a departmental notice board. As a result, she found a local Australian student, who was enrolled in a beginner-level Japanese course at AU, as a partner. The exchange lessons, which Mami and her partner held twice a week, not only provided the situations where they mutually supported each other as second language learners but also made Mami more willing to interact in English. Mami commented in the interview:

(28)

> I feel a bit scared to hear Australian students speaking English, and actually so did I when I met him (the language exchange partner) first. But, when he started speaking Japanese, it sounded very friendly to me. He can't speak Japanese fluently because he is a beginner, and so I have realised that everybody has difficulties in learning a second language. Since I started noticing it, I became a bit more confident to speak English to him. (Mami)

In the second semester, Mami also developed rapport with an AU exchange student, who was selected to study at her Japanese home university. Their equal relationship as exchange students moving between Japan and Australia enabled them to respect their positions as second language learners and to interact both in English and Japanese. The relationship between the two of them continued at Mami's home university after she returned to Japan.

Similar to Yuka's case, Kenji had an Australian friend who had previously studied as an exchange student at his Japanese home university. The friend had already graduated from university and thus could not help Kenji to be involved into the university community. However, the friend introduced Kenji to a group of opera lovers outside AU, since he knew that Kenji belonged to an opera club at his home university. At his home university Kenji had many experiences in socialising with international students in English using his knowledge of music, so he utilised the same strategy to establish close relationships with the friends in this group. The strategy allowed him to make two close Australian friends in the group, who frequently assisted him in editing his written assignments. In his second semester, Kenji started sharing a flat with these friends. His daily life with them helped him to expose himself to English interactions and allowed him to gain editing support from them more frequently. In this regard, his private peer networks had an effect of stabilising his social and academic lives. These three participants' cases demonstrated that Japanese learners as well as the AU exchange students, who had studied or would study at the participants' Japanese home universities, were the most approachable peers in their developing social networks. These peers allowed the participants to establish situations where their identities as Japanese exchange students were respected and valued.

Aya, furthermore, had the most comprehensive structural arrangement in her course whereby she and her fellow students worked collaboratively in the same office (cf. Chapter Seven). Therefore, in contrast to the other Japanese exchange students, she did not need to search for a group where

she could position herself or to find peers, who were available for academic discussions. Aya commented in the interview:

(29)

> I am in a good environment because I need to speak English to make myself understood to my colleagues. I can cover my broken English by showing them mathematical formulae. They always listen to me attentively even though my English isn't good. So, I don't have to get so nervous when I talk to them in English. (Aya)

Her academic experiences as a Masters student at her home university provided Aya with some advantages in disciplinary knowledge. It appears that such advantages exceeded her linguistic disadvantage and facilitated her gaining equal relationships with her fellow students in sharing some information about task management. The impacts of these four students' social networks on their academic participation suggest that their adjustment to academic genres was a locally-situated interactional process rather than an autonomous assimilation to broader disciplinary cultures (cf. Casanave 1995; Prior 1998).

8.3.5 Development of academic management competence

The participants' development of academic management competence significantly depended on their noting and evaluating the limitations of their own participation. The cases of Mami and Kenji revealed their frequent evaluation and re-adjustment of their own management approaches. For example, after experiencing one of the end-of-semester examinations, Mami realised that her strategies of making and memorising summary notes did not allow her to achieve well in essay-style examinations, because she found that the questions in the examinations frequently required students to discuss the relevant topics. Thus, in preparing for the following examination, she placed more focus upon how to apply theories and findings of the readings in real social situations and added brief discussions based on her analysis of the notes.

Kenji also noticed his approach to reading articles for Sociology and Anthropology was inapplicable to Linguistics. As shown in Chapter Six, while reading articles, he was able to activate his previously-developed disciplinary knowledge and to apply his sociological interpretations of the arguments effectively. Thus, he frequently utilised a strategy of skimming the important sections in the articles. However, since he did not have any background knowledge about linguistics, this strategy was not successfully

applied in reading linguistic articles and led him to insufficiently understand the contents. His recognition of his limited reading and comprehension skills in Linguistics led Kenji to re-adjust his management approach in this subject and to use an additional strategy whereby he reviewed lecture notes thoroughly, while making a better copy of his scribbled notes (cf. Chapter Seven).

The adjustment of academic management by Kenji and Mami was also shown in relation to their subject selection for their second semester. Except for Linguistics, Kenji avoided selecting the subjects which involved examinations for assessment, because he noticed the limitations of managing examinations after receiving an unsatisfactory performance in the three examinations in his first semester. Kenji remarked:

(30)

> In the previous semester, I was required to write about 2000 words in a two-hour examination time, because the teacher expected us to write about 250 words for each of eight questions. But I'm not a native speaker of English, and so I can't write that amount of English within two hours. Also it's hard for me to review all of the 13-week contents. (Kenji)

In fact, even though Kenji received Distinctions for the two written assignments in Anthropology in the first semester, Kenji's insufficient performance in the examination, which consisted of 50 percent of the overall assessment, reduced his grade to a Credit. Therefore, these unsuccessful experiences led Kenji to adjust his subject selection and to enrol in the second semester subjects where written assignments constituted the main assessment. Following her noting and evaluation of her insufficient competence in discussions, Mami also selected subjects which did not assign any group work as an assessment task, for her second semester. She commented:

(31)

> In Semester 1, I had several discussions for pair and group work, but we didn't get any constructive ideas. I hated participating in discussions because my group members liked talking and arguing, but weren't very cooperative to negotiate ideas. So, I was always quiet in the discussions. (Mami)

These two participants' cases showed that their noting and evaluations of limitations of academic management enabled them to selectively avoid the situations where they had difficulties managing their participation.

Yuka and Aya, furthermore, developed their academic management competence in relation to their peers. Since Yuka realised her limitations of independent management of her participation, as shown earlier, she selected the same subjects as her peers in her second semester. As a result, she successfully expanded her private peer networks to academic networks in those subjects and established situations where her peers and she could cooperate with each other on the same academic tasks. Thus, she was able to utilise different peers in different subjects to manage her academic participation. Aya also developed her academic management by learning how to undertake computer programming from her fellow Honours students. While Aya, as an expert in physics, was able to independently manage most of her participation, she needed to seek peer support for programming mathematical calculations as a legitimate peripheral participant. Peer support in a common workplace sometimes constituted scaffolding, which, in particular, helped Aya to develop her academic management competence in relation to computer programming. She noted in the interview, "In our office, my friends often teach me how to do computer programming, even if I don't ask them". In such an environment, her fellow students occasionally played a role in modelling by showing Aya how to undertake computer programming and coaching by supporting Aya's attempts to perform programming (cf. Brown *et al.* 1989; Collins, Brown, and Newman 1989).

This type of relationship with her fellow students depended upon Aya's community membership in her Honours course, her active participation in the community, and her fellow students' abilities to model and coach (cf. Lave and Wenger 1990; Belcher 1994). On this occasion, Aya was confident of managing all the tasks except computer programming and the peers respected her abilities. Because of her peers' respect, she did not feel embarrassed to temporarily have a kind of apprenticeship as a mode of learning. The relationship facilitated Aya overcoming her weaknesses in academic management and developing her independent management competence in computer programming.

Acknowledgements

Section 8.2 in this chapter is revised version of "Incomplete Participation in Academic Contact Situations: Japanese Exchange Students in an Australian University", which appears in *Learning Discourses and*

Discourses of Learning, edited by H. Marriott, T. Moore and R. Spence-Brown, 09.1-16, 2007.

CHAPTER NINE

CONCLUSION

9.1 Introduction

This study provided an ethnographic examination of six Japanese exchange students and included an investigation of the structural arrangements of student exchanges between several Japanese and one Australian university. The findings demonstrated that these exchange students managed intercultural academic interactions in various ways in relation to academic management processes through their participation at AU. The present study also discussed how policies and practices of student exchanges affected both structuring support systems for incoming exchange students at AU and assisting Japanese exchange students' transition from home to host academic communities.

This chapter provides theoretical and pedagogical implications for intercultural academic interaction. In particular, the contributions that this study makes to language-in-education planning, LMT and the concept of LPP are detailed in this chapter. The chapter, furthermore, suggests how Japanese exchange students should manage their participation in host academic contexts, and how student exchanges should be organised to support these students' academic management. It also outlines the limitations of the study and makes recommendations for future studies.

9.2 Language-in-education planning of student exchanges

The focus on the aspect of language education in a student exchange program enabled this study to explore the structures of student exchanges in relation to management of cultural contact of academic systems between AU and JUs. The findings shown in Chapter Four demonstrated various tensions in relation to policy planning and cultivation planning goals of the student exchanges. It seems that these tensions were significantly affected by two main interplaying shortcomings of student exchanges between AU and JUs – insufficient establishment of evaluation

policies and negative influence of top-down planning. Although AU and JUs reviewed and evaluated student exchanges to some degree, the feedback was not thoroughly implemented in the actual systems. For example, exchange program staff at AU suggested the importance of consolidating supporting programs for incoming exchange students, including establishing one-to-one relationships between the exchange program staff and exchange students, incorporation of EAP or IAP courses into curriculum for these students, and providing some financial support to the students. However, the suggestions have not been turned into actual plans to reform the exchange program.

The exchange program staff at JUs also stressed the need to collect data about the host academic systems at overseas partner universities and promote Japanese exchange students' preparation for the host academic requirements. JUs collected written reports from returned exchange students, and also they sometimes organised visits to their partner universities overseas. However, the reports tended to focus on university social lives rather than academic participation, and the visits, which mainly focussed on inspecting facilities only in a few days, were not adequately planned to investigate the structural arrangements at AU. Therefore, it is obvious that the evaluation mechanisms of the academic support systems for Japanese exchange students are still developing on both sides. The home and host universities need to collaboratively "recognise and evaluate the variation of academic systems and then consider strategies of adjustment" (cf. Neustupny 2004).

Furthermore, it is likely that community and governmental attitudes towards student exchanges as well as the government's allocation of resources to student exchanges have influenced policy planning of a student exchange program at AU in a top-down fashion. The top-down planning negatively affected systematising the support program for incoming exchange students at AU. The AVCC has stressed that Australian universities need to send more Australian undergraduates overseas on exchange, following the successful case of the ERASMUS, the European University Student Exchange Program (The Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee 2001). The positive attitude of the community towards sending exchange students overseas led to the funding from the government to design a study abroad program under UMAP (University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific Region). In contrast, the incoming exchange programs are less willingly funded by the Australian community whether it be at the governmental, local or institutional level. Since it seems that exchange programs for incoming students are not regarded as

important or beneficial to Australia as the outgoing ones, macro policies to support the incoming cohort have not been fully designed.

To reduce these types of shortcomings, it is necessary for AU to introduce meso- and micro-level modification of top-down policies to meet the needs and goals of the incoming cohort. The modification would require the exchange program at AU to examine the suitability of macro policies for organising a well-balanced exchange program and to mediate the tensions between macro policies and required structural arrangements. It is also crucial for AU and JUs to return to the early stage of bottom-up planning – the surveying stage – and to develop horizontal consistency between both sides. The student exchange program staff at AU need to examine policies and practices with regard to subjects tailored for exchange students, subject arrangements at each faculty, language and study support centres at AU, and student exchange systems at JUs. The analysed data should be shared with JUs so that they can device appropriate pre-departure programs and re-adjustment systems after students' returning home. Subsequently, the exchange program staff at AU and JUs will be able to identify the extent to which the programs should provide academic support to Japanese exchange students and to elaborate upon the access, curriculum, methods and materials policies of student exchanges.

Horizontal consistency would be further consolidated if AU and JUs collaboratively collected naturalistic data relating to the obstacles faced by students' participation in the exchange program at AU (cf. Chapter Five, Seven, and Eight). The combined investigation of institutional systems and students' participation can also lead to the development of the evaluation mechanisms. The micro-level modification of top-down planning and development of horizontal consistency would enable a revision of the student exchange program policies and an establishment of policies that are more oriented from cultivation planning. The micro policies and practices established through these approaches would also allow Universities Australia and governments to reconsider how student exchanges should be organised and to reform the macro structures of student exchanges. Such an approach will, furthermore, lead universities to identify the ways to manage cultural contract at an institutional level and establish a multicultural academic community where international students with diverse backgrounds can participate actively.

9.3 Theoretical implications for LMT

Although LMT has been recognised for decades, the usefulness of the theory in investigating various language behaviour has not been sufficiently exemplified in academic contact situations (cf. Neustupny 2004). The present study contributed to this research area by demonstrating detailed mechanisms of the processes of academic management. The most important contribution this study made to LMT is the expansion of the framework. In this study, the problem-oriented approach of the theory, which norm deviations trigger, is expanded to the conceptual model which deals with various contact situation phenomena. Various phases of academic management were also added to the original model, including re-evaluations, availability and accessibility of resources, discontinuation of management, effectiveness of management strategies, and re-commencement of the correction cycle.

Whereas previous studies of language management have paid a great deal of attention to noting and evaluation, they have often paid scant attention to the management processes as a whole (cf. Neustupny 2004). The findings shown in Chapter five, Six, and Seven demonstrated some of the processes relevant to each stage of the model and contributed to illustrating the whole picture of individual management processes.

9.3.1 Negotiation of norms

The study reported in Chapter Five about the processes of norm deviations contributes to increasing our awareness of how students and universities should manage multiple norms in academic contact situations. Students' struggles in academic contact situations are an inevitable component of academic management processes in that the struggles provide students with opportunities to plan their adjustments, increase their participation, and further develop their English academic competence. Whereas the classic LMT starts with norm deviations, it seems appropriate to employ a broader concept – norm negotiations – than norm deviations and examine the deviation process, in order to elaborate on the ways Japanese exchange students experience new norms in situations of intensive academic contact.

In particular, Chapter Five has demonstrated why Japanese exchange students applied their native norms by illustrating how their previous knowledge and past academic experiences were negotiated with the new norms and practices that they encountered in the host academic context. I have also attempted to make an important contribution by employing LMT in relation to sociocultural aspects of academic interaction, specifically

situated competence, communicative goals, and host community members. Consequently, this study has found that language management in academic contact situations involves various cognitive and sociocultural processes of norm deviations and that the deviations occur not only as a result of conflicts between native and target norms but also in relation to participants' insufficient adjustment to target norms, and other host community members' influence. At the same time, as shown in Chapter Seven, there can be deliberate avoidance of target norms on the part of the foreign participant in academic contact situations. It is also necessary for us to consider that NESB students' application of native norms involves many unconscious processes and to examine what factors contribute to their covert application of native norms.

The process of norm deviations with which this study dealt is one of the crucial aspects of academic management. However, academic management is not only a problem-oriented process but it can also be triggered by positive contact situation features. Apart from norm deviations, students can encounter commonalities of disciplinary knowledge and cross-cultural situational similarities by applying their own native norms successfully. Students' academic struggles also tend to even exist at subsequent stages, including adjustment planning, the implementation of management strategies, and the evaluation of strategies. Thus, in addition to norm deviations, detailed analyses of positive contact situation features and other stages of academic management processes are needed in order to examine the whole picture of academic management processes.

9.3.2 Noting and Evaluations

Chapter Six demonstrated that detailed mechanisms of the language management processes in which students note and evaluate various contact situation phenomena, including commonalities of disciplinary knowledge and cross-cultural situational similarities as well as norm deviations. As Schmidt (1990, 1992) indicates, no learning is possible without some degree of consciousness. The degree of noting and evaluation determined how well Japanese exchange students can attend to host academic norms and examine the necessity of taking subsequent action. The findings thus indicate that noting and evaluation play an important role in systematising academic management by providing students with opportunities to appraise contactness between home and host academic genres and consider the degrees of differences and similarities between them. The stage of noting contact situation phenomena illustrated various types of self- and other-noting as well as several degrees of noting, involving lack

of noting, and noting but insufficient identification of norm deviations the students encountered. This study also discussed the multiplicity of evaluations of contact situation phenomena by delineating the processes in which self-, other-, and re-evaluations as well as absence of evaluation occurred in relation to various factors. The current study, furthermore, made a valuable contribution to LMT by revealing that the developmental processes of Japanese exchange students' academic participation at AU were significantly affected by the ways these students noted and evaluated the rationale of participation in conjunction with their goal arrangements and motivational investments (cf. Chapter Eight).

It is also notable that this study provided an insight into the role that positive evaluation plays in language management. Although Neustupny (1994) indicated the possibility of adjustment based on positive evaluations in LMT, the process of such evaluations has not been exemplified comprehensively in previous research. The students' positive evaluations of commonalities of disciplinary knowledge and cross-cultural situational similarities found in this study will help sociolinguistic research to reconsider the concept of contact situations, which mainly deals with intercultural conflicts, and to re-examine the variation of language-using behaviour, which triggers a language management process in academic contact situations.

Noting and evaluation significantly pertain to students' critical monitoring of their own activities as well as their analyses of situated practices, of rhetorical situations where they are located, and of their own social positionings. The actual degree of contactness is difficult to measure, but this study suggests that the measurement can be facilitated by students' examination of host academic requirements as experienced members of their own disciplines. Such a perspective would encourage students to actively use their expertise as criteria for making comparisons between native and contact situations and allow them to appraise the applicability of native norms in academic contact situations and the validity of target norms. Based on the theoretical implications for studies of academic interaction and LMT, future research needs to comprehensively investigate the mechanism of such appraisal and then explore the impact of the appraisal on students' noting and evaluation of various phenomena in academic contact situations.

9.3.3 Adjustment Planning

The findings of Chapter Seven indicate that different abilities were needed for Japanese exchange students to undertake the two different types of

academic management, since self-management frequently emerged in relation to the students' own academic competence, whereas their utilisation of other-management required them to develop coparticipation skills, such as competence in building up favourable positions in a community, equal relationships with peers, and rapport with academic personnel. However, it is worthwhile to note the interrelatedness of self- and other-management in order to facilitate students' management of intercultural academic participation. Students need to use assistance from others as a means of consolidating autonomous self-management skills rather than by merely relying upon others to provide immediate feedback. Similarly, academic skills, which they gain from self-management, can be applied to other-management on the grounds that such skills occasionally help them to improve their positionings in a community and control power relationships with others.

This study also demonstrated that Japanese exchange students' adjustment planning and implementation of strategies were significantly affected by the co-constructive nature of academic management. Since the students' coparticipation with other community members in various academic settings did not necessarily enhance their adjustments to the host community, it is necessary for the students to negotiate access to various external and social-interactional resources, while identifying the necessities and usefulness of such resources.

The other theoretical contribution which this study made to the planning and implementation stages of LMT is the identification of obstacles to adjustment planning. The students avoided implementing management strategies as a result of negative internal representations of the importance and because of their passive attitudes towards the implementation. Moreover, even though they were willing to allocate effort to implementing management strategies, unavailability and inaccessibility of external and social-interactional resources to students sometimes led them to abandon management strategies. The present study also illustrated how evaluation of management strategies served the students' developmental processes of academic participation (cf. Chapter Eight). For example, Shingo's incomplete participation at AU partly resulted from his insufficient evaluation of the limitations of his strategies, whereas Mami and Kenji increased their participation by effectively evaluating their academic management and avoiding rhetorical situations that were unfavourable for them. It is, furthermore, worthwhile for this study to suggest that the development of academic management is constrained due to avoidance behaviour, abandoning implementing strategies, lack of evaluation of strategies as well as lack of noting and evaluation of contact

situation phenomena. These findings provide an insight into why and how language management is constrained as well as into the stages of the process where the interruption can occur.

These detailed mechanisms of language management help us to identify complex and dynamic processes of management and factors facilitating or constraining novice students' adjustment to a new discourse community. Such identification can lead universities to design and implement organised management of students' intercultural academic participation and to establish ongoing support systems, which scaffold students' academic management and enable them to develop autonomous management skills.

9.4 Theoretical implications for LPP

This study exemplified the concept of LPP by illustrating the multiple ways in which newcomers participate in a community while actually undertaking activities embedded in social situations. The findings concurred with the concept in that Japanese exchange students' participation at AU was not "a linear notion of skill acquisition" (Lave and Wenger 1991: 36). However, at the same time, my study confirmed the limitations of LPP, which several researchers have already indicated (cf. Anderson *et al*. 1996; St. Julien 1997; Kirshner and Whitson 1998; Toohey 1998; Kanno 1999; Toohey 1999; Wilson and Myers 2000).

LPP is the concept which integrates sociocultural and cognitive aspects of participation as "a descriptor of engagement in social practice that entails learning as an integral constituent" (Lave and Wenger 1991: 35). Nevertheless, as noted by others, the present study also suggests that the role of internal representations played in learning is not fully covered in the concept. It is important to prioritise understanding social conditions and learners' interaction with the lived-in world in order to understand individual behaviour. However, academic interaction studies still need to carefully examine how students undertake sociocultural practices because, as previously discussed, cognitive aspects of learning sometimes hindered students from engaging in such practices. Thus, as demonstrated in this study, it is necessary for the concept of LPP to be integrated with some other theories. The theoretical integration, which this study achieved, allowed the study to effectively examine the sociocultural and cognitive processes of their engagement in situated activities while specifying what students need to learn and the situations where such learning occurred.

The other limitation of LPP was shown in relation to students' increasing participation. The findings illustrated that the students could

not necessarily gain access to desirable resources and increase their involvement in the host academic settings simply because they physically belonged to the host community. In particular, the incomplete cases of Shingo and Chie exemplified such limitation by showing their struggles with managing their peripheral positionings in the host community, developing situated identities, and managing their motivational investment. This study, furthermore, identified limitations of learning with other host community members. As described in Chapter Five, although Lave and Wenger (1991) stress newcomers' increasing movement towards fuller participation while interacting with more experienced members, the host community members did not always help the students to participate in the host community. In this study, the undergraduate courses did not normally enable students to learn through apprenticeship, although Aya's participation in an Honours course sometimes revealed this type of learning. More casual assistance from other host community members was also unavailable and inaccessible on occasions (cf. Chapter Seven). In fact, several cases were found where the actions of other host community members themselves resulted in hindering the exchange students' participation. Some participants' cases, furthermore, illustrated that working with others was not a suitable participation style for them personally. Thus, these findings suggest that the concept of LPP needs to allow for the negative – as well as positive –impacts of other community members on newcomers' negotiation of participation in a discourse community.

Illustrating the situated nature of academic management, this study provided a significant contribution to sociocultural perspectives of intercultural academic participation. Although several researchers stress the situatedness of genres (Berkenkotter and Huckin 1995, etc), this study, carefully examining such a broad perspective of situatedness, found that situated learning in academic contexts is not always regarded as entirely situated on the grounds that situated practices sometimes triggered students' activation of their prior knowledge and experiences. As mentioned earlier, Japanese exchange students can use previously-developed expertise to analyse the differences and similarities between native and host norms at the noting and evaluation stages of academic management. This type of noting and evaluation provides implications for LPP as it can lead the students to negotiate intercultural and intercontextual aspects of situated phenomena as experienced members of their own disciplines in the process of learning genre-specific knowledge as novice students in their host community. This negotiation enables those students to have a better understanding and command of genre knowledge embedded in host academic contexts and to gradually transform themselves from legitimate

peripheral participants to fuller ones in a host academic discourse community.

Hence, it can be argued that NESB students' integration of genre-specific knowledge with previously-developed knowledge and strategies plays a crucial role in undertaking situated activities to respond to the academic requirements at an overseas host university. Such integration also helps students to develop intercultural competence whereby they can act as a mediator between their native and host academic cultures as well as between themselves and others (cf. Byram 2008). In order to further explore how intercultural and intercontextual aspects of situated academic practices affect LPP, future research needs to make a more comprehensive investigation about multilayered processes of academic management and academic coparticipation. Such an approach will help us to elucidate the complexity of situated responses to academic requirements and provide NESB students, including Japanese exchange students, with better methods to cope with cultural contact in academic contexts.

9.5 Implications for Japanese Exchange Students

The ethnographic examination of six participants revealed that, despite the complexity of their participation in an Australian university, Japanese exchange students were able to implement various approaches to increase their participation. As previously discussed, Japanese exchange students' transition from home to host universities involves a shift of their positionings in a community from experienced community members to non-native background novice students. This study provides implications and suggestions for students' cross-cultural adjustment to a new academic discourse community. First of all, this study suggests that at their home universities and prior to a study-abroad period, future Japanese exchange students should establish personal connections with their incoming exchange counterparts from Australian universities by assisting with their participation. Such connections will enable the Japanese students to obtain pre-departure information about host academic systems from the Australian students. At Australian universities, the rapport can also lead the former Australian exchange students to provide further assistance to the Japanese students by mediating cultural contact or by contributing to their development of social networks.

Second, it is helpful for Japanese exchange students to contact future Australian exchange students going to the Japanese students' home universities. These Australian students are likely to be willing to provide some academic assistance to Japanese exchange students in exchange for

receiving some information about their home universities. The further implication for Japanese exchange students' cross-cultural adjustment relates to their specification of appropriate goals. It may be necessary for the students to view their inferior positions at host universities as an inevitable stage of learning as legitimate peripheral participants. Clear goals will help the students to overcome a sense of inferiority and to develop their situated identities and motivational investment in host academic contexts. In particular, it is effective for them to aim to develop their expertise for their subsequent re-participation in their home universities, such as developing theoretical perspectives and collecting resources for a graduation thesis. It is also advisable that students specify goals for developing academic English skills in relation to further study or future employment.

This study, furthermore, suggests the ways Japanese exchange students improve their task management. Their task management can start at the stage of subject selection. Thus, Japanese exchange students need to carefully select subjects where they can activate their disciplinary knowledge and implement native strategies to manage participation. In their second semester, the students' subject selection should be based on their experiences of task management in the previous semester. It is crucial for them to avoid selecting subjects, which involve the types of tasks that they could not previously cope with, or the subjects, which allocate a high proportion of the overall assessment to such unmanageable tasks. Selecting the same subjects as their peers, involving local Australian, international, and other Japanese friends, is also helpful for these students to enhance their collaborative task management with peers and their involvement in classroom communities.

Japanese exchange students as NESB novice students, furthermore, need to recognise the importance of everyday participation in class in their task management. It is advisable for the students to preview lecture notes, if the notes are available on the website, and re-organise their own handwritten notes after class to regularly prepare for end-of-semester examinations. It is also necessary for them to frequently review their study behaviour and evaluate the efficiency of strategies in order to develop situated strategies, which are suitable in academic contact situations. Similarly, the students need to carefully examine the degrees of commonalities of disciplinary knowledge and situational similarities to apply their native knowledge and strategies. Such an examination will require the students to observe others' study behaviour, ask others about the applicability, or provisionally utilise their previous knowledge and strategies to evaluate the applicability. The students' time management is

also crucial in that it sometimes determines the efficiency of their task management. Making timetables and reviewing the schedules on a weekly, monthly, and semester basis will enable the students to make the most of the possible resources.

The present study, furthermore, suggests that Japanese exchange students use social-interactional resources effectively. These students could inform teachers of their own academic struggles at the beginning of a semester in order to draw the teachers' attention to themselves and to seek ongoing assistance from them. It is also recommended that the students develop networks of learners of Japanese to facilitate obtaining peer assistance in task management. These learners are more approachable to Japanese exchange students than other students, because the learners tend to be willing to interact with Japanese students who have just come from Japan. The networks can thus provide the students with opportunities where they can help each other to manage their academic tasks. The reciprocal relationship can further promote Japanese students' involving themselves in the host community and contribute to stabilising their academic and social lives.

9.6 Implications for Student Exchanges

9.6.1 Structuring a student exchange program at an Australian host university

NESB exchange students' participation in an Australian university needs to be considered as a reciprocal negotiation by students and the host community rather than a one-way enculturation process, since not only students negotiate their participation but also the communities can adjust to their expectations and needs (cf. Casanave 1995; Zamel 1997; Prior 1998; Morita 2004). It is thus necessary for student exchange programs to consider how they can assist incoming exchange students' involvement in the host communities and provide them with "organised management", which systematically supports the students' academic adjustments (Neustupny 1994, 2004). From this perspective, this study provides practical implications and suggestions for student exchange systems at Australian universities. This study suggests that Australian universities need to remove obstacles to implementing cultivation planning. As previously stated, establishment of evaluation policies will contribute to the removal because these policies can reduce tensions between policies and practices as well as avoid the negative influence of macro policies. In order to establish evaluation policies, it is important for the student

exchange program to conduct a survey of NESB exchange students' study behaviour and improve evaluative mechanisms of policy implementation to meet their various educational needs. In this survey, this study particularly suggests (1) evaluation of exchange students' academic results, (2) collection of students' reports on their academic struggles, (3) collection of students' evaluation of subjects and academic support systems, and (4) provision of feedback on policy planning.

It is also necessary to provide exchange students with a greater variety of subjects tailored for them. In particular, it would be ideal if host universities can organise subjects targeting NESB exchange students on the basis of appropriate policies of methods and materials. Although host universities sometimes tend to place unreasonable pressures to conform on the NESB cohort, this curriculum arrangement will help these students to increase their participation without worrying about such pressures (cf. Corson 1999). Furthermore, assistance from teachers of regular subjects is needed to facilitate exchange students' participation. More specifically, it is crucial for them to teach academic terminology which might be tacitly understood by other community members. However, there exist potential problems with teaching such terminology because it is often difficult for teachers to clarify what terminology is difficult for NESB students to understand. Hence, careful observation of these students' study behaviour is needed in this regard, too. This study, furthermore, suggests collaboration between a student exchange program and a Japanese studies program to introduce learners of Japanese to Japanese exchange students and encourage them to have exchange lessons. This arrangement can systematically promote Japanese exchange students' involvement in the host community and also provide learners of Japanese with the opportunities to participate in authentic Japanese interactions.

9.6.2 Reciprocal collaboration between Japanese and Australian universities

As stated above, my findings showed that the student exchanges between Japanese and Australian universities, which this study surveyed, did not sufficiently provide Japanese exchange students with adequate motivational structures to increase their participation. Given that the system of credit transfer constitutes one of the most significant components of student exchanges, it is imperative for both sides to collaboratively improve the structure of the system. As shown in Chapter Four, dilemmas exist between subject selection and credit transfer. Considering that credit transfer depends upon the decisions by the schools where the Japanese

students belong at their home universities, it is beneficial to provide the students with pre-departure support on subject selection at the school level. It might be effective for exchange program staff at Japanese universities to collect and analyse a list of subjects from host universities and show the analysed data to the students' schools. Collaboration among exchange program staff on both sides and teachers at the home universities will contribute to structuring a credit transfer system without depending upon the formal agreement of UCTS.

This study, furthermore, suggests that Japanese and Australian universities build up one-to-one relationships between Japanese and Australian exchange students. It might be effective for Australian host universities to arrange the meetings of incoming Japanese exchange students and former or future Australian exchange counterparts and to allocate these Australian students to Japanese students as mentors. Similarly, this type of mentor system will be applicable to Japanese universities by introducing exchange students, who are going to, or who have returned from Australian partner universities, to incoming Australian exchange students from the partner universities. These arrangements will enable students' reciprocal support and individual-level information exchanges about academic systems and practices of each side. Since such a one-to-one relationship allows exchange students from both sides to be mentors at their home and mentees at their host universities, the mentor system can serve to consolidate constant linkages between Japanese and Australian universities at the individual level.

This study, furthermore, suggests that Japanese home universities develop the system of collecting student reports on their participation in Australian host universities and of providing feedback to the host universities to facilitate their improvement of support programs for incoming exchange students. It will be also helpful for Japanese universities to organise sessions where former Japanese exchange students provide pre-departure consultations to future students rather than leave it students' responsibility to contact each other.

9.7 Limitations of the Study and Directions for Future Research

This study has provided an important contribution to intercultural academic interaction studies and research on student exchanges by systematically examining Japanese exchange students' study behaviour and by analysing the structural arrangements of a student exchange program. However, there exist some limitations in the present study, which need to be covered

in future research. The interviews with teachers and fellow students in the participants' home courses at their Japanese universities helped this study to consolidate the participants' self-reports about their academic backgrounds. Nevertheless, a more in-depth investigation of students' experiences in home academic systems is needed to explore differences and similarities in academic genres between home and host academic systems and students' transfer of knowledge and skills. In particular, this study recommends that future research conducts a case study of Japanese exchange students not only at host universities but also at their home universities before and after they participate in student exchanges. In addition, the data related to the structural arrangements of a student exchange program was limited to one Australian host university in this study. It is thus effective for future empirical studies to involve more universities to examine tertiary student exchanges between Japan and Australia. Based on the findings of this study, future research can conduct a cross-analysis of support systems for incoming Japanese exchange students by investigating some other Australian universities.

The other limitation is related to the data from teachers of the subjects in which Japanese exchange students enrolled at AU. This study examined teachers' identification of Japanese exchange students and their academic support to these students through brief questionnaires and some interviews. Given that such support from teachers constitutes a part of the host community's organised management of exchange students' participation, it is recommended that future studies analyse teachers' perspectives and the role of teachers played in students' academic management more comprehensively. Local students' perceptions of Japanese exchange students also need to be thoroughly investigated in future research. This investigation is important because, as stated above, this study found that the presence of local students did not necessarily facilitate, but rather sometimes constrained the exchange students' participation. The integration of teachers' and local students' perspectives with that of Japanese exchange students will thus enable us to present a richer analysis of Japanese exchange students' academic participation.

It is, furthermore, crucial that future research expand the case study of Japanese exchange students to other NESB exchange groups to consolidate the importance of systematising academic support programs for linguistic minority exchange students at Australian universities. As Neustupny (1994) claims, since different participants with different academic backgrounds in academic contact situations perceive language problems in different ways, language planning for multi-ethnic student exchange programs must take account of all categories of participants.

This type of future empirical study will encourage higher education in Australia to empower linguistic minority exchange cohorts in a multicultural academic community and to provide more equal learning opportunities to all students.

The above-mentioned directions will enable future research to more comprehensively elucidate various contact situation phenomena in student exchanges and to propose more detailed guidelines for exchange students about how to deal with these phenomena. The further analysis of exchange students' coparticipation with other host community members in various academic contexts will also contribute to establishing community-based organised management and exploring how student exchange programs should scaffold exchange students' legitimate peripheral participation.

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APPENDIX A

EMAIL QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear

I am undertaking research on Japanese exchange students participation at an Australian university. Apart from the main data collection with the students, I will also investigate policies and practices of student exchanges between AU and its partner exchange universities in Japan. As a supplement to this, I would like to gather a little data on teachers' experiences with Japanese exchange students. I would thus appreciate it if you could answer the following questions. I have obtained ethics approval for this research.

Questions

1. Have you had any Japanese exchange students in your subjects in the last 2 years?

   Yes No Don't know

2. If yes, have Japanese exchange students had any problems in your subjects?

   Yes No Don't know

3. If yes, have you assisted them in any way? Please describe.

4. If you have not assisted them, please describe why you did not or could not provide assistance to them.

5. Do you have any other comments?

6. Are you available for a short interview to describe in more detail your contact with Japanese exchange students?

Yes No

Thank you for your cooperation.

APPENDIX B

DIARY ENTRY

Date: / /
Subject: ( )
Type of task: ( )
Topic of task: ( )
Size: (words)

Activities	*Time*	*Evaluations*

Thank you for your cooperation.

APPENDIX C

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR EXCHANGE PROGRAM STAFF AT JAPANESE UNIVERSITIES

1. How long the universities have a partnership with AU?
2. How long have the relationships been active or non-active?
3. How the exchange programs are advertised?
4. How the credits are calculated for transfer?
5. How the exchange students are selected?
6. After selection, what are the exchange candidates required to do?
7. What types of support do you offer to the exchange students before their departure, during their studying abroad, or after coming back to Japan?
8. How do you arrange accommodation in Australia for exchange students?
9. How are the credits transferred from overseas host universities to your universities?
10. What do you expect the Australian university to do?
11. What types of supporting programs you offer to incoming exchange students?
10. Do you have any suggestions for improving student exchanges with AU?

12. Collection of written samples

- brochures of exchange programs or the international student centres' literature
- course guidelines of the support programs
- reports of previous exchange students
- application forms for the exchange programs, etc

APPENDIX D

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR EXCHANGE PROGRAM COORDINATORS AT JAPANESE STUDIES PROGRAM AT AU

1. Do Japanese partner universities and AU exchange students every year?

   - How many students do you exchange every year?
   - Do both sides send the same number of students?

2. How long has AU had exchange agreements with Japanese universities?

3. Are all of these currently active?

4. How the exchange programs are advertised at AU?

5. How AU exchange students are selected?

6. After selection, what do the exchange students have to do?

7. How the credits are transferred from Japanese universities to AU?

8. Is there any support for the exchange students before their departure, during their studying abroad, or after coming back to Australia?

9. Do you arrange accommodation in Japan?

10 Do you help the Japanese partner universities to arrange academic programs for the AU students?

13. Do you have any suggestions for improving student exchanges with Japanese universities?

14. Do you have any requests for Japanese partner universities in relation to their receiving and supporting AU students?

15. What is the responsibility of the Japanese Studies program in relation to student exchanges?

16. The international office receives incoming exchange students and the Japanese Studies sends AU students to Japanese partner universities. Is there effective liaison within AU between these two units for sending and receiving students?

17. How do AU students choose their subjects or program of study in Japan?

18. How do Japanese exchange students to choose their subjects at AU?

19. Collection of written samples

    - reports of previous exchange students
    - application forms for student exchanges, etc

APPENDIX E

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR EXCHANGE PROGRAM STAFF AT THE INTERNATIONAL OFFICE AT AU

1. What is the total number of incoming exchange students in 2002 and 2003?

2. What is the total number of Japanese exchange students in 2002 and 2003?

3. How many exchange students came to AU from each country in 2002 and 2003?

4. Which faculties did the exchange students belong to in 2002 and 2003?

5. What is the proportion of post-/ undergraduate students?

6. How many subjects are incoming exchange students supposed to enrol in per semester?

7. Do you have any types of supporting programs for incoming exchange students?

   a. Before/ after enrolment
   b. Orientation
   c. Consultation
   d. Arrangement of accommodation

8. The home page of the international office says that the minimum requirements of the language proficiency scores are TOEFL 550 with a TWE score of 5.0, TOEFL CBT 213 with an ER score of 5.0, or the IELTS 6.0 with Writing 6.0. However, most of Japanese exchange

students were accepted in spite of their insufficient writing scores, such as TWE 3.5 or 4.0. How do you actually select them?

9. Are exchange students given help to choose their subjects?

10. Do you have any suggestions for improving the exchange programs, for example, with Japanese partner universities?

11. Do you have any requests for Japanese partner universities in relation to their sending of Japanese exchange students to AU?

12. Do you have any requests for Japanese partner universities in relation to their receiving AU students?

13. The international office receives incoming exchange students and the Japanese Studies selects AU students to Japanese partner universities. Is there effective liaison within AU between these two units for sending and receiving students?

14. I would like to ask about the government's and university's support for the exchange programs.

    a. How much funding do the government and AU allocate to exchange programs?
    b. How is government's and university's funding used at exchange programs?

15. How are exchange partner universities selected?

    a. What types of overseas universities can be selected as partner universities?
    b. What are the criteria?

16. Collection of written samples

    - brochures of the student exchange program or the international office
    - statistic data of outgoing and incoming exchange students, etc

APPENDIX F

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR TEACHERS AND STUDENTS AT JAPANESE HOME UNIVERSITIES

Questions for Teachers

1. What subjects do you teach?
2. What levels are these subjects?
3. How many contact hours per week do you have in each subject?
4. What types of assessment tasks do you assign students to undertake?
5. How many assessment tasks do you assign in each subject?
6. What percentage do these tasks occupy in the overall assessment?
7. Is students' attendance involved in the overall assessment?
8. What do you expect students to demonstrate in the tasks?
9. How well do students respond to your expectations in the tasks?
10. What do you expect students to perform in class?
11. How do students actual perform in class?
12. What kinds of visual materials do you use in class?
    (handouts, a copy of lecture notes, Power Point, OHP, black board, etc)

13. Collection of written samples

- curriculum guidelines of the courses
- subject outlines
- guidelines for assessment tasks
- handouts, etc

Questions for students

Regular subjects

1. How many classes do you have per week?

2. What types of tasks are you required to undertake?

3. Please tell me about the details of the requirements for each task.

4. How do you prepare for, or complete tasks?

5. Do you usually prepare for, and review class?

6. What kinds of teaching styles do your teachers employ?

7. How do you participate in classes?

Seminars (zemi)

1. How many and what types of seminars (zemi) have you experienced so far?

2. Repeat the same types of questions as Question 2-7 above.

EFL courses

1. How many EFL courses have you experienced at university?

2. Repeat the same types of questions as Question 2-7 above.

3. How effective do you think the EFL courses were to improve your speaking, listening, reading and writing skills in English?

INDEX