

Investigating How and When International First-Year Second Language Undergraduate Students Deal with Academic Literacies Challenges in the Early 21st Century: A Longitudinal Case Study

Alena Shannaq

PhD

2020

Investigating How and When International First-Year Second Language Undergraduate Students Deal with Academic Literacies Challenges in the Early 21st Century: A Longitudinal Case Study

Alena Shannaq

A thesis submitted to

Auckland University of Technology

[Te Wānanga Aronui o Tāmaki Makau Rau]

in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy (PhD)

2020

School of Language and Culture

Supervisors: Pat Strauss and Darryl Hocking

Copyright is owned by the Author of the thesis. Permission is given for a copy to be downloaded by an individual for the purpose of research and private study only. The thesis may not be reproduced elsewhere without the permission of the Author.

قال تعالى (لا يكلف الله نفسا الا وسعها

Allah does not charge a soul except [with that within] its capacity

(Quran, Surah Al-Bakara, Aya 286)

To my children

“Believe in yourself and believe in your dreams

And you’ll be what you dream you can be”

(“I love you, little Monster”

by Giles Andreae and Jess Mikhail)

Attestation of authorship

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person (except where explicitly defined in the acknowledgements), nor material which to a substantial extent has been submitted for the award of any other degree or diploma of a university or other institution of higher learning.

Signed: Alena Shannaq

Date 18/12/2020

Acknowledgement

When I embarked on this PhD journey, I had no clue how much I will evolve as a learner, teacher, and academic. This long learning experience would not have been completed without certain people, who supported and encouraged me along the way. Here I would like to express my deepest gratitude to those who directly or indirectly were part of my learning experience.

First and foremost, I would like to thank my primary supervisor, Pat Strauss. She is truly a woman of superpowers. Throughout my journey she was my teacher, my fixer, my counsellor, my coach, and my guide. I have been extremely lucky to have her by my side throughout this journey. She always reacted promptly to my endless drafts, going over pages and pages of literature review, data collection, data analysis, and results with unfathomable patience. With her (hand-written!) feedback, she encouraged me to dig out information from the literature and meaning from the data which would quench anybody's thirst for knowledge.

Secondly, I would like to express my gratitude to my secondary supervisor, Darryl Hocking. Darryl is a unique individual, who was the counter-balancer for the female part of the team. His work attitude always reminded me of having a study-life balance and approach tasks sequentially and orderly. His feedback was always constructive, precise and to the point. I am sure that without Darryl's help this thesis would not be so complete.

I would also like to thank my examiners, who took time from their busy schedule to read my work, provide constructive feedback, and make my thesis a better academic work.

I would like to thank AUT's School of Languages and Culture for awarding me with a full scholarship in the first year of my PhD venture. This scholarship gave me certainty that the research contribution I would make mattered and the academic journey was worth starting.

I would like to further extend my gratitude to AUT staff, who provided excellent academic and administrative support, gave advice where required, and outsourced to the right departments and organisations whenever necessary.

I would also like to thank ‘gatekeeping’ staff at participating universities in directing me to the right people who were able to advertise my study to their students using their databases. I would further like to thank the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC) and Ethics Committees of the participating universities for approving my ethics application (16/440).

This study would not have happened without all the participants who took their time off studies and agreed to meet me for lengthy interviews several times in a year. I appreciate their agreement to let me dig through their written works and bring the memories of their study experiences back to them after they have completed their assignments.

My study mostly happened at my house for family reasons. However, I would like to thank AUT technical team for their support and, especially, for provisioning me with access to the NVivo software for my data analysis process and a laptop at the end of my studies.

I would also like to acknowledge the team of Faza Rosta in the person of Yaroslav Samoylov for providing me counselling support and guiding me to achieve peace and equilibrium in my family life while going through this wild educational ride.

My friends have a special place in my journey. Firstly, I would like to thank my soul-sister Maria Usacheva. Thank you for keeping me sane during this journey. Thank you for teaching and guiding me in my writing process. Secondly, I would like to thank Nigina Razzakova for providing me support with quite frequent baby-sitting so that I could focus on my studies, attend conferences or catch up on my sleep. I also thank all my friends, who were frequent or infrequent enquirers into my journey.

Last, but not least, I would like to specially thank my significant others, who were by my side all this time. To start with, I would like to thank my wonderful mother, Olga Katkova, who gave me numerous advice, guidance, support and encouragement to start and finish this journey. I would like to also thank my father, Yury Katkova, who, to the saddest acknowledgement, did not live to know that I have achieved these heights. I know he would have been very proud of his daughter. Secondly, I would love to thank my beloved husband, Adel Shannaq, who agreed to travel half the world for me to start my PhD journey even when this caused him not seeing his first son’s early days. I thank him for being by my side during my ups and downs, making me find my internal strength to arrive to the submission day in one piece. I further thank my lovely, wonderful son, Rayan, who made me grow as a person. Thank you, my sunshine, for being so patient and understanding all the time. I also thank my beautiful, amazing daughter, Haya, who made me see the beauty of the life

outside PhD. Thank you, my fairy princess, for making me reconnect with my inner little girl. Finally, I thank my unborn child for patiently waiting for me to complete my writing before I could focus on the bump.

Ethics Approval

Conduct of the research reported in this thesis was approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC), Reference Number 16/440, on 17/11/2016 for the interviews (Appendix A).

Abstract

Previous research has investigated challenges facing international second language (L2) first year undergraduate students in their attempts to adapt to the norms of academic writing at higher education (HE) institutions with English as the medium of instruction (EMI). However, there does not seem to be a great deal of longitudinal research that investigates academic discipline-specific writing experiences of such students in New Zealand (NZ) in the early 21st century. Therefore, the main aim of the present research is to explore the challenges that international L2 speakers encounter throughout the first year of their university studies and the strategies they employ to deal with these challenges. The study details the changes in students' perceptions of these challenges and the accompanying changes in strategies over the period of an academic year. Furthermore, the research investigated students' earlier learning experiences on preparatory academic English courses, such as IELTS, and discusses the usefulness of such courses for students' subsequent academic writing.

This study uses the academic literacies approach as a theoretical framework as this approach recognises the influence of the sociocultural context in which students undertake university study on the development of their academic writing skills in HE. The design of the research is informed by a social constructionist worldview and adopts an embedded multiple case study approach. The data collection method involved interviews with the study participants at set times during the academic year and the scrutiny of assignment instructions, marking criteria, students completed assignments and lecturer feedback. The data was analysed using the NVivo software which allowed for the rise to the emergent themes.

This research identified key challenges that international second language (L2) first year undergraduate students encounter with regards to their writing practices in HE institutions in NZ. They involve challenges following academic writing conventions, challenges

understanding and following assignment requirements, challenges interpreting feedback, and challenges involved in completing assignments on time. Students identified that although some of the skills and knowledge acquired in their English for Academic Purposes courses and the Foundation Programme, such as the knowledge of the APA norms, were somewhat relevant to their current undergraduate writing practices, the knowledge and skills acquired in IELTS courses was not seen as relevant. Furthermore, the findings show the importance of socio-psychological phenomena, i.e. students' self-efficacy, agency, and motivation, when dealing with their writing challenges. The research findings also indicate the relationship between these socio-psychological phenomena and the time constraints under which most students operate.

The research contributes to empirical knowledge by identifying the challenges that international L2 first year undergraduate students encounter in HE institutions in NZ and suggests practical steps that may assist students in better preparing themselves for the academic writing demands of English academy. The research offers insights to university lecturers, as well as for pre-degree educators as to how and when, during their first year of study, these students could best be helped.

Contents

Attestation of authorship	i
Acknowledgement.....	ii
Ethics Approval.....	v
Abstract	vi
Contents	viii
List of Figures	xvii
List of Tables.....	xxiii
List of Abbreviations.....	xxiv
Chapter 1. Introduction	1
1.1. Background and Introduction	1
1.2. Massification of Higher Education (HE).....	3
1.2.1. Primary reasons for massification.....	5
1.2.2. Benefits of massification.....	9
1.2.3. Barriers of massification	9
1.2.4. Massification of HE in the NZ context	10
1.3. Factors involved in the choice of host country and HE provider	11
1.3.1. Criteria influencing international students' choice of host country	11
1.3.2. Factors influencing international students' choice of HE provider.	12
1.4. Challenges for international students	14
1.4.1. Challenges with the language	14
1.4.2. Challenges in the academic environment.....	15
1.4.3. Challenges in the socio-cultural domain.....	17
1.5. English language proficiency and admission to HE.....	20
1.5.1. IELTS as an English enrolment language requirement.....	20
1.5.2. Other pathways to HE admission.....	21
1.5.3. Problems with university preparatory language courses.....	23

1.5.4.	Students' expectations of IELTS and other preparatory courses	28
1.5.5.	Correlation between preparatory courses and HE demands	28
1.6.	Academic writing	29
1.6.1.	Challenges with academic writing	29
1.6.2.	Writing and identity	31
1.7.	This study	32
1.7.1.	Related literature and the specific aims of this study.....	32
1.7.2.	Study design.....	35
1.7.3.	Research questions	36
1.7.4.	Thesis structure	37
Chapter 2.	Theoretical framework.....	39
2.1.	Introduction	39
2.2.	Evolution of the definition of literacy	39
2.3.	The 'literacy thesis' and the 'Great Divide' theory.....	40
2.4.	The rise of written language	40
2.4.1.	Benefits of literacy	41
2.5.	Breaking point in view on literacy	41
2.6.	Plurality of literacy	42
2.7.	New Literacy Studies (NLS)	43
2.8.	Literacies and literacy models	44
2.8.1.	The 'Autonomous' model	45
2.8.2.	The 'Ideological' model.....	45
2.9.	From academic literacy to academic literacies.....	46
2.10.	English for Specific Purposes (ESP)	47
2.10.1.	English for Academic Purposes (EAP)	49
2.10.2.	Criticism of EAP and its branches.....	52
2.10.3.	Critical English for Academic Purposes (CEAP).....	54
2.11.	EAP versus academic literacies	55

2.12.	Academic literacies approach	56
2.12.1.	Study skills model	58
2.12.2.	Academic socialisation model.....	58
2.12.3.	Academic literacies model	59
2.13.	Academic skills for students' success at tertiary level	60
2.14.	Chapter summary	62
Chapter 3.	Student help-seeking strategies with writing support at HE	64
3.1.	Introduction	64
3.2.	Academic help-seeking behaviour	64
3.2.1.	Constructivism nature of academic help-seeking behaviour	65
3.3.	Types of academic help-seeking strategies	68
3.3.1.	Adaptive help-seeking strategies.....	68
3.3.2.	Maladaptive help-seeking strategies and self-efficacy.	69
3.4.	Self-efficacy	71
3.4.1.	Factors of self-efficacy.....	72
3.4.2.	Effects of self-efficacy	73
3.4.3.	Self-efficacy and learners' calibration	73
3.5.	Agency.....	74
3.5.1.	Framework of students' agency	76
3.5.1.	Educators' role in fostering students' agency	77
3.5.2.	Agency and identity	78
3.5.1.	Agency and mature learners.....	78
3.6.	Motivation	79
3.6.1.	Motivational theories	80
3.6.2.	Types of motivation	80
3.6.3.	Motivation and language learning.....	81
3.7.	Academic support services in relation to academic writing in HE	82
3.7.1.	Origins and development of Student Learning Centre (SLC).....	83

3.7.2.	SLCs in NZ	88
3.7.3.	Proof-reading.....	90
3.7.4.	Assignment exemplars	92
3.8.	Chapter summary	93
Chapter 4.	Research Methodology and Methods.....	94
4.1.	Introduction	94
4.2.	Worldview	95
4.2.1.	Researcher identity.....	97
4.3.	Methodology	98
4.4.	Approach	98
4.4.1.	The case study	99
4.4.2.	Benefits of the case study approach.....	100
4.4.3.	Disadvantages of the case study approach.....	101
4.4.4.	Types of case study	102
4.4.5.	Types of case study designs	102
4.5.	Time Horizon	104
4.5.1.	Longitudinal case studies	104
4.6.	Data	105
4.6.1.	Semi-structured interviews.....	107
4.6.2.	Documentation	109
4.7.	Participants	112
4.7.1.	Participant selection method and criteria	112
4.7.2.	Recruitment process	114
4.7.3.	Participants.....	115
4.8.	Data collection procedures	117
4.8.1.	Procedures for collecting semi-structured interview data	117
4.8.2.	Procedures for collecting the documentation data	119
4.8.3.	Procedure for collecting fieldnotes	120

4.9.	Data analysis.....	121
4.9.1.	Organising the data	121
4.9.2.	Analysing the data.....	123
4.9.3.	Generating overall themes.....	125
4.9.4.	Triangulation of data	125
4.10.	Quality assurance	127
4.10.1.	Reliability and validity	127
4.10.2.	Transferability and dependability	128
4.11.	Ethical and legal considerations	129
4.12.	Chapter summary	130
Chapter 5.	Case study 1: Sarah	131
5.1.	Introduction	131
5.2.	Sarah's profile and educational background	131
5.3.	Pathway to the current study	132
5.3.1.	IELTS classes and self-study towards an IELTS test	133
5.3.2.	Foundation Programme (FP).....	136
5.4.	Current academic studies.....	137
5.4.1.	Semester 1	137
5.4.2.	Semester 2	147
5.5.	Within-Case Analysis.....	163
5.5.1.	RQ 1. What challenges do international L2 students in the early 21 st century encounter throughout the first year of their university studies as they attempt to meet the academic writing standards demanded by their institutions?	163
5.5.2.	RQ 2. In what way do international students' prior learning and experiences, including preparatory academic English courses such as IELTS, successfully prepare these students for the challenges they encounter throughout the first year of their academic study?	167

5.5.3. RQ 3. How do the students' perception of, and approach to their academic writing practices, including their prior learning, consciously change as their first year of study progresses?	169
5.6. Chapter summary	171
Chapter 6. Case study 2: Reema	172
6.1. Introduction	172
6.2. Reema's profile and educational background	172
6.3. Pathway to current study	173
6.3.1. General English classes, IELTS classes, and self-study for IELTS.....	175
6.3.2. EAP experience.....	177
6.4. Current Academic Studies.....	177
6.4.1. Semester 1	178
6.4.2. Semester 2	192
6.5. Within-case analysis.....	202
6.5.1. RQ 1. What challenges do international L2 students in the early 21 st century encounter throughout the first year of their university studies as they attempt to meet the academic writing standards demanded by their institutions? 202	
6.5.2. RQ 2. In what way do international students' prior learning and experiences, including preparatory academic English courses such as IELTS, successfully prepare these students for the challenges they encounter throughout the first year of their academic study?	210
6.5.3. RQ 3. How do the students' perception of, and approach to their academic writing practices, including their prior learning, consciously change as their first year of study progresses ?	211
6.6. Chapter summary	212
Chapter 7. Case study 3: Marina.....	214
7.1. Introduction	214
7.2. Marina's profile and educational background.....	214
7.3. Pathway to current study	215
7.3.1. Self-study for IELTS.....	216

7.4.	Current academic studies.....	218
7.4.1.	Semester 1	218
7.4.2.	Semester 2	235
7.5.	Within-case analysis.....	244
7.5.1.	RQ 1. What challenges do international L2 students in the early 21 st century encounter throughout the first year of their university studies as they attempt to meet the academic writing standards demanded by their institutions?	244
7.5.2.	RQ 2. In what way do international students' prior learning and experiences, including preparatory academic English courses such as IELTS, successfully prepare these students for the challenges they encounter throughout the first year of their academic study?	251
7.5.3.	RQ 3. How do the students' perception of, and approach to their academic writing practices, including their prior learning, consciously change as their first year of study progresses?	252
7.6.	Chapter summary	255
Chapter 8.	Case study 4: Harry	257
8.1.	Introduction	257
8.2.	Harry's profile and educational background	257
8.3.	Pathway to current study	259
8.3.1.	IELTS class experiences	260
8.4.	Current academic studies.....	261
8.4.1.	Semester 1	261
8.4.2.	Semester 2	283
8.5.	Within-Case Analysis.....	288
8.5.1.	RQ 1. What challenges do international L2 students in the early 21 st century encounter throughout the first year of their university studies as they attempt to meet the academic writing standards demanded by their institutions?	288
8.5.2.	RQ 2. In what way do international students' prior learning and experiences, including preparatory academic English courses such as IELTS,	

successfully prepare these students for the challenges they encounter throughout the first year of their academic study?	294
8.5.3. RQ 3. How do the students' perception of, and approach to their academic writing practices, including their prior learning, consciously change as their first year of study progresses?	295
8.6. Chapter summary	296
Chapter 9. Discussion	297
9.1. Introduction	297
9.2. Cross-case analysis.....	297
9.2.1. International L2 students' challenges with academic writing.....	298
9.2.2. The role of socio-cognitive phenomena in the student's changing perceptions of academic writing practices	311
9.2.3. The interconnection between self-efficacy, agency, and motivation	324
9.3. Chapter summary	328
Chapter 10. Conclusion.....	329
10.1. Introduction.....	329
10.1.1. Aims and methodology of the study.....	329
10.2. Implications for practice	330
10.2.1. Implications for discipline-specific lecturers	331
10.2.2. The insights for IELTS/EAP/FP educators	335
10.3. Limitations of the study	336
10.3.1. Methodological limitations.....	336
10.3.2. Scope limitations	337
10.4. Implications for future research.....	337
10.5. Concluding remarks	338
References	339
Appendices.....	441
Appendix A: Ethical Approval.....	441
Appendix B: Written advertisement	442

Appendix C: E-poster.....	443
Appendix D: Indicative Interview Questions.....	444
Appendix E: Participant Information Sheet	445
Appendix F: Consent Form.....	448

List of Figures

Figure 2.1 English Language Skills and Purpose of English Language Courses	48
Figure 2.2 Models of Student Writing in HE	57
Figure 4.1 The Embedded Multiple Case Study Design Employed for this Study.....	103
Figure 4.2 Organisation of Documentation in NVivo.....	122
Figure 4.3 Fieldnote Related to Contradictions in Assignment Requirements	123
Figure 4.4 Initial Coding of the Data	123
Figure 4.5 Categorisation of Analysed Data	124
Figure 5.1 Example of a Lab Report	138
Figure 5.2 Spread-Out Format of the Assignment Questions and Lack of Information Preceding the Assignment Question: Lab Report 1	139
Figure 5.3 Lab Report 1: The Assignment Question Related to a Specific Icon (circled in red)	140
Figure 5.4 Lab Summary for Lab Report 1	141
Figure 5.5 Lab Summary for Assignment 2 (Lab Report 2)	141
Figure 5.6 Use of English Words for Unfamiliar Vocabulary in Writing Assignment Requirements: Laboratory Assignment 1	143
Figure 5.7 Colour-Coded Writing Assignment Requirements: Laboratory Assignment.....	1143
Figure 5.8 Student's Use of a Highlighter and a Pen in the Preparation to Laboratory Assignment 2.....	144
Figure 5.9 Marking Criteria for Assignment 1 (Laboratory Assignment 1)	144
Figure 5.10 Answers for a Laboratory Assignment Question in Assignment 1	146
Figure 5.11 Marking of an Incorrect Answer in Laboratory Assignment 1.....	146
Figure 5.12 Translation of Unfamiliar Vocabulary into Arabic: Assignment 1	148
Figure 5.13 Numbering the Order in which Lab Actions had to be Followed in Experiment 2	150

Figure 5.14 Sarah's Written Answer to a Question in Experiment 2	150
Figure 5.15 Marking Criteria for Experiment 1	151
Figure 5.16 Hypothetical Example of Resources.....	152
Figure 5.17 Guide to APA Referencing	153
Figure 5.18 The Lecturer's Feedback on Assignment 1 (Research Summary)	155
Figure 5.19 Reference List for Assignment 1 (Research Summary): Missing Volume Number.....	156
Figure 5.20 Lecturer's written Comment on Research Summary.....	157
Figure 5.21 Visual Impact & Design Marking Criteria Assignment 2 (Poster).....	159
Figure 5.22 Academic Discussion Marking Criteria Assignment 2 (Poster).....	160
Figure 5.23 Conclusion	162
Figure 5.24 Lecturer's Feedback	162
Figure 6.1 Communications in MARS Assignment 1 (Communication Content Marketing Plan).....	178
Figure 6.2 Communications in MARS Assignment 1 (Communication Content Marketing Plan): Assignment Requirements for the First Part of Assignment	179
Figure 6.3 Communications in MARS Assignment 1 (Communication Content Marketing Plan): Marking Criteria.....	180
Figure 6.4 Communications in MARS Assignment 1 (Communication Content Marketing Plan): 'Short Phrase' to Introduce the "Owned Content" Section.....	182
Figure 6.5 Grammatical Errors: Incorrect Parts of Speech, Incorrect Use of Passive Voice, Subject-Verb Agreement.....	184
Figure 6.6 Communications in MARS Assignment 1 (Communication Content Marketing Plan): Lecturer's Comment	185
Figure 6.7 Understanding the Environment Assignment 1 (In-Class Activity 1): Assignment Requirements	187
Figure 6.8 Understanding the Environment Assignment 1 (In-Class Activity 1): Marking Criteria (A range)	188

Figure 6.9 Understanding the Environment Assignment 1 (In-Class Activity 1): Key Words Emphasised in a Different Font Style.....	190
Figure 6.10 Understanding the Environment Assignment 1 (In-Class Activity 1): Comment 1	191
Figure 6.11 Understanding the Environment Assignment 1 (In-Class Activity 1): Lecturer's Feedback on Q2	191
Figure 6.12 Attitudes, Cognitions & Behaviour I Assignment 1 (Consumer Behaviour Audit Report): Marking Criteria.....	195
Figure 6.13 Attitudes, Cognitions & Behaviour I Assignment 1: Use of Secondary Sources	196
Figure 6.14 Attitudes, Cognitions & Behaviour I Assignment 1 (Consumer Behaviour Audit Report): Linguistic Errors	197
Figure 6.15 Segments and Markets Assignment 1 (C2B (Consumer-to-business) Project): Writing Assignment Requirements (Structural Organisation of the Report) .	199
Figure 6.16 Segments and Markets Assignment 1 (C2B (Consumer-to-business) Project): Marking Criteria.....	200
Figure 6.17 Segments and Markets Assignment 1 (C2B (Consumer-to-business) Project): Lecturer's Overall Comment.....	201
Figure 7.1 Assignment 1 Marking Criteria for Part 1 - Justifying Your Source Selection	220
Figure 7.2 Assignment 1 Part 1 Template.....	221
Figure 7.3 Assignment 1 Marking Criteria for Part 2 - Reflecting on the Research Process	222
Figure 7.4 Source Justification 2 - Key Point 1	225
Figure 7.5 Comments on Assignment 1	226
Figure 7.6 Assignment Requirements: Position Paper.....	228
Figure 7.7 Position Paper Assignment Marking Criteria	229
Figure 7.8 Position Paper Assignment Requirements Related to Writing Position Papers	230

Figure 7.9 Assignment 2 Title	231
Figure 7.10 Headings in Assignments 2: Position Paper	232
Figure 7.11 Lecturer's Comment on the 'Introduction' as a Heading.....	232
Figure 7.12 Thesis Statement in the Introduction Section	233
Figure 7.13 Advise Using Impersonal Language.....	234
Figure 7.14 Reference List for Assignment 2 (Position Paper)	235
Figure 7.15 Use of Sequencers and Paragraphing in Assignment 1.....	238
Figure 7.16 Marina's Research Question for Assignment 2 and 3	239
Figure 7.17 Feedback on Assignment 1 Semester 2	239
Figure 7.18 Assignment Requirements for Assignment 2 and 3.....	240
Figure 7.19 Detailed Assignment Requirements for Assignment 2 and 3.....	241
Figure 7.20 Figure in Assignment 3.....	243
Figure 8.1 Applied Communication paper Assignment 1 (Persuasive Essay): Example of potential topics.....	262
Figure 8.2 Applied Communication paper Assignment 1 (Persuasive Essay): Assignment requirements.....	263
Figure 8.3 Applied Communication paper Assignment 1 (Persuasive Essay): Marking criteria	264
Figure 8.4 Applied Communication paper Assignment 1 (Persuasive Essay): 'Topic sentence' and the lecturer's feedback on it	265
Figure 8.5 Applied Communication paper Assignment 1 (Persuasive Essay): Explanation of 'Awk.' comment	266
Figure 8.6 Applied Communication paper Assignment 1 (Persuasive Essay): Second paragraph – 'Introduction'	266
Figure 8.7 Applied Communication paper Assignment 1 (Persuasive Essay): The use of linking phrases (highlighted in yellow) and reference words (underlined in green)	267
Figure 8.8 Applied Communication paper Assignment 1 (Persuasive Essay): The lecturer' feedback on the fourth paragraph (Figure 8.7)	267

<u>Figure 8.9</u> Applied Communication Paper Assignment 1 (Persuasive Essay):	
Conclusion.....	268
Figure 8.10 Applied Communication paper Assignment 1 (Persuasive Essay):	
References	268
Figure 8.11 Applied Communication paper Assignment 1 (Persuasive Essay): The	
lecturer's feedback regarding lack of citations	269
Figure 8.12 Applied Communication paper Assignment 2 (Group Report): Potential	
topics	271
Figure 8.13 Applied Communication paper Assignment 2 (Group Report): Instructions	
.....	271
Figure 8.14 Applied Communication paper Assignment 2 (Group Report): Findings	
section	274
Figure 8.15 Applied Communication paper Assignment 2 (Group Report): The	
lecturer's feedback on the Findings section.....	275
<u>Figure 8.16</u> Applied Communication Paper Assignment 2 (Group Report): Terms of	
Reference.....	275
Figure 8.17 Applied Communication paper Assignment 2 (Group Report): The	
lecturer's feedback on the lack of supporting evidence	276
Figure 8.18 Applied Communication paper Assignment 2 (Group Report): Lecturer's	
feedback on the Group Report structure	277
Figure 8.19 Applied Communication paper Assignment 2 (Group Report): Lecturer's	
feedback on the 'Expression' marking criterion	277
<u>Figure 8.20</u> Programming 1 Paper Assignment 1 and Assignment 2 (Reporting	
Journals): Example of the Tabular Timesheet.....	279
Figure 8.21 Programming 1 paper Assignment 1 and Assignment 2 (Reporting	
Journals): Marking criteria for Stage 1	280
Figure 8.22 Programming 1 paper Assignment 1 (Reporting Journal 1): Entry 02 - Lab	
.....	281
Figure 8.23 Programming 1 paper Assignment 1 (Reporting Journal 1): Entry 01, 03,	
04 - Lectures.....	282

Figure 8.24 Programming 1 paper Assignment 2 (Reporting Journal 2): Entry 06 - Lab 06.....	282
Figure 8.25 Programming 1 paper Assignment 2 (Reporting Journal 2): Harry's explanation of why the Peer Feedback and Critique Forms had negative feedback.....	283
Figure 8.26 Programming 1 paper Assignment 1 (Reporting Journal 1): Entry 15 - Lab	285
Figure 8.27 Programming 1 paper Assignment 1 (Reporting Journal 1): Peer Feedback and Critique Form - Peer 1.....	286
Figure 8.28 Peer Feedback and Critique Forms for Reporting Journal 1 – Reviewer 2	287
Figure 9.1 Change in the level of international L2 students' self-efficacy in the course of their first year undergraduate writing practices in NZ HE institutions.....	316
Figure 9.2 Change in the level and direction of international L2 students' agency in the course of their first year undergraduate writing practices in NZ HE institutions	320
Figure 9.3 Change in the level and direction of international L2 students' motivation in the course of their first year undergraduate writing practices in NZ HE institutions ...	324
Figure 9.4 Trajectories of the participants' agency in cases when the participants were well and poorly calibrated with the demands of academic writing in the course of their first year undergraduate studies in NZ HE institutions.....	326
Figure 9.5 Trajectory of agency of highly and poorly motivated participants.....	327

List of Tables

<u>Table 4.1 Overview of the Data and the Rationale for its Use</u>	105
<u>Table 4.2 Summary of Data Collection Processes</u>	112
<u>Table 4.3 Two Levels of Selection Criteria</u>	113
<u>Table 4.4 Potential Participants and Involvement in the Study</u>	116
<u>Table 4.5 Students' Study Experiences</u>	117
<u>Table 4.6 The Number and Type of Documentation Received for Each Participant</u> ...	120
<u>Table 9.1 Challenges and issues that the participants experienced with academic writing</u>	310

List of Abbreviations

AI – Artificial Intelligence

ATLAANZ - Association of Tertiary Learning Advisors of Aotearoa New Zealand

CDA - Critical Discourse Analysis

CEAP - Critical English for Academic Purposes

C2B - Consumer-to-business

DA - Discourse Analysis

DELNA - Diagnostic English Language Needs Assessment

EAP - English for Academic Purposes

EFL - English as a Foreign Language

e.g. – for example

EGAP - English for General Academic Purposes

ELF - English as a lingua franca

EMI - English as the medium of instruction

EOP - English for Occupational Purposes

ESAP - English for Specific Academic Purposes

ESP - English for Specific Purposes

FAQs – Frequently Asked Questions

FCE - First Certificate in English

FP - Foundation Programmes

HE – Higher Education

i.e. – that is

IELTS - International English Language Testing System

ISM - International Student Mobility

IT – Information Technology

LMS – Learning Management System

L1 - first language

L2 – second language/ second language speakers of English

MARS – Marketing, Advertising, Retail, and Sales

NLS - New Literacy Studies

NZ - New Zealand

OECD - Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

SFL - Systemic Functional Linguistics

SLC - Student Learning Centre

STEM – Science, Technology, Engineering, Mathematics

TLA(s) - Tertiary Learning Advisor(s)

TOEFL - Test of English as a Foreign Language

WID - Writing in the Disciplines

Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1 Background and Introduction

The inspiration for this study arose from my ongoing personal experiences with academic writing. After completing an undergraduate degree in teaching English in 2008 at a Russian university, I decided to travel to New Zealand (NZ). Once there, I was able to secure work as a second language teacher of English and was able to apply the knowledge developed throughout my undergraduate qualification. Academic writing was one of the more fascinating areas that I had to teach during this period.

In 2010, I decided to enrol in a Master's programme at a NZ university. However, before moving on to post graduate study, I was required to complete a Graduate Diploma involving a selection of second- and third-year papers from an undergraduate degree. Given my existing qualification, I thought that I would be well prepared for this kind of study, however, I was quickly disappointed by my low grades. It became apparent that writing in a Western academic context was not simply a matter of using correct English grammar and sentence structure but involved the ability to deliver knowledge through text relevant to a particular disciplinary and institutional context.

This experience as an international L2 student ignited my interest in the field of academic writing and I became particularly interested in how L2 students' prior academic knowledge and practices, including their knowledge of academic English writing practices, were relevant to the context of NZ higher education (HE) institutions. I was also interested in how this prior knowledge created particular perceptions about academic writing that resulted in certain challenges and demands, and how overtime these challenges were negotiated and perceptions changed, so that L2 students could successfully complete their university studies.

Motivated by these interests, this study records the experience of four international students who are all second language speakers of English (L2) enrolled on undergraduate programs at three NZ universities. The research traces the challenges

they encounter throughout the first year of their study as they attempt to meet the academic writing standards demanded by these institutions. Furthermore, and in order to represent the cultural diversity of the student body now found in the NZ tertiary context as a result of the increasing massification of HE, the four students selected as participants for this study are drawn from a range of different backgrounds. As such, they bring with them a variety of “established identities, diverse sociocultural and socio-economic backgrounds, personal histories, past learning and schooling experiences, individual learning strategies and writing knowledge” (Altınmakas & Bayyurt, 2019, p. 89).

Underpinning this study is the acknowledgement that academic writing is no longer viewed as a technical skill that can be transferred unproblematically from one context to another. Instead, academic writing is conceptualised here as shaped by multi-layered and complex institutional practices. These practices include power relations within institutions, beliefs about what constitutes knowledge in writing, and the way in which students’ sense of identity and agency plays a role in their writing. (Clark & Ivanič, 2013; English, 1999; Ivanič, 1998; Lea & Street, 1998, 2000; Tran, 2013). As a result, the demands on international L2 students studying in an English medium university are high. They are required to critically reflect on the relevance and usefulness of their prior knowledge, they need to establish appropriate personal study strategies, and they need to establish specific kinds of knowledge necessary for their particular academic contexts - much of which takes place in the early stages of an international L2 student’s programme of study.

In order to learn more about this complex and multifaceted process of critique and development, the study of these four students takes the form of four in-depth case studies which trace the trajectory of the academic lives of these international L2 students as they negotiate their first years of academic study. The case studies include an examination of the students’ assessment requirements, their written assignments, and the feedback they receive from their lecturers, along with in-depth interviews with the students as their academic year progresses about their responses to these academic practices and the ways in which they are negotiated.

The following sections in this introduction provide a background context for the study. It first explains the concept and emergence of massification and its role in bringing the type of students who are the subjects of the case studies to study abroad in cultures

which are not their own. The chapter then discusses the factors involved in these students' choice of universities, and the socio-cultural challenges they encounter once they begin their studies. Following this, the chapter discusses various pathways which international L2 students may go through in order to enrol at HE institutions with English as a medium of instructions (EMI), as well as the main problems related to each. The chapter goes on to introduce the academic challenges the students face, in particular those of academic writing. It concludes by identifying the primary aims and research questions for this study and provides an overview of the subsequent chapters.

1.2 Massification of Higher Education (HE)

Over the past few decades the student population has transformed from being homogeneous, i.e. largely local students from higher social and economic communities, to being culturally, linguistically and socially diverse (e. g. Altbach et al., 2010, 2017; Lillis, 2003; Tran, 2013; Turner, 2011a). This is primarily the result of changes in the participation policy in higher education (HE), commonly understood as massification (Altbach et al., 2017; Lillis & Turner, 2001; Marginson, 2016). Trow (1973), who was one of the first researchers to speak about mass HE, classified it into three groups:

- 1) 'elite' HE, which provides places at HE institutions for 1-15% of the school leavers,
- 2) 'mass' HE, which provides places at HE institutions for 15-50% of the school leavers, and
- 3) 'universal' HE, which provides places at HE institutions for above 50% of the school leavers.

Following Trow's classification, Marginson (2016) argued that in the early 1970s, HE was considered elite because only 9.9% of the world's school leaver age students enrolled in post-secondary education and those students generally came from higher social and economic groups. However, by the beginning of the 21st century the numbers had increased considerably. In 2013, 32.9% of the world's school leavers entered post-secondary education, either vocational or tertiary (Marginson, 2016). This brought the status of HE to what Trow referred to as a 'mass' level. However, by 2019 this figure had soared to 70%, reaching what Trow described as a 'universal' category. Currently there are more than 250 million post-secondary students worldwide (OECD, 2019)

studying in more than 22,000 universities and other HE institutions (Altbach et al., 2017).

The growth in student numbers in HE has not occurred without the participation of international students. Since 2012, the number of international students worldwide has more than doubled, from over 2 million in 2012 (OECD, 2013b) to over 5 million in 2018 (Unesco, 2019). A major part of the foreign student population in universities, including those in Asia itself, are from Asian countries (UNESCO, 2019) and make up “55% of OECD international students” (OECD, 2018, p. 222). Furthermore, governments in countries such as Brazil, Egypt, Indonesia, India, Pakistan, Mexico, Saudi Arabia, Russia, and Vietnam establish scholarship programs to encourage their students to study abroad (Engberg et al., 2014). The OECD (2013a) predicts that the number of international students worldwide is expected to rise to 7.2 million by 2025.

The most recent major disadvantage to student numbers in HE has been the rapid worldwide outbreak of the contagious disease COVID-19, known as severe acute respiratory syndrome SARS-CoV-2 (Chinazzi et al., 2020; Gonzalez et al., 2020; Rumbley, 2020; Tian & Liu, 2020). The disease has spread from Wuhan, China in 2019 and has taken lives of millions of people worldwide. Chinazzi et al. (2020) concluded that travel quarantine delays the overall epidemic progression on the international scale, where case importations into China were reduced by almost 80% in just one month in early 2020. As the result, many countries worldwide stopped inward and outward travel, which greatly affected academic mobility worldwide (Rumbley, 2020). Such travel restrictions have already affected many country’s ability to attract international students (Rumbley, 2020; Tian & Liu, 2020). For example, the results of Rumbley’s study (2020) indicate that 48% of inbound student mobility had been affected in European countries. The researcher attributed such modest numbers to the timeline of the event, when incoming students had already arrived at European universities in early 2020. In NZ, international education has experienced a substantial drop in student numbers from around 60 thousand international students in 2019 to around 50 thousand in 2020 (Wilson & Fry, 2020).

Shifts in student funding is a driver of massification. Recently, governments and universities worldwide have questioned whether education should be a public or private concern (Altbach et al., 2010, 2017), with the outcome being that HE is increasingly seen by governments as of value primarily to individuals, rather than the wider

community. Consequently, in many parts of the world government funding for HE has significantly decreased with fee-paying being delegated to students (Altbach et al., 2017; Marginson, 2016; Tight, 2019). This has meant that international students have become one of the main fiscal resources for HE institutions, and so worldwide they have endeavoured to attract them. To achieve this, HE institutions need to prove their status and position in the ‘World-Class University’ (WCU) system (Altbach et al., 2017).

1.2.1 Primary reasons for massification

While massification brings financial rewards to HE institutions, the three most prominent reasons for massification in HE are globalisation, neoliberalism, and English as a Lingua Franca (ELF). These are discussed in the following sub-sections.

1.2.1.1 Globalisation

One of the primary forces shaping massification and the resulting shift in HE from an elite to a mass student population is globalisation (Altbach et al., 2010; Mok, 2016). Globalisation is “the process by which businesses or other organisations develop international influence or start operating on an international scale” (Lexico.com, 2020). Globalisation refers to “the reality shaped by an increasingly integrated world economy, new information and communication technology, the emergence of an international knowledge network, the role of the English language, and other forces beyond the control of academic institutions” (Altbach et al., 2010, p. 7). The three most prominent processes of globalisation that impact on the massification of HE are the knowledge-based economy, labour market needs, and International Student Mobility (ISM).

The knowledge-based economy

As the primary source of wealth creation and production is now increasingly recognised as ‘knowledge’ (Altbach et al., 2010; Hénard, 2010; Schwartz et al., 1999), other resources, such as capital, labour, land, and natural resources are often viewed as secondary. Accordingly, there is now a higher demand for employees with post-secondary education in those workplaces where HE qualifications were not previously required. (Altbach et al., 2017). Hence, the shift towards a knowledge-based global economy has raised the status quo of tertiary education making it more important than ever before (Hénard, 2010).

Labour market needs

Labour market needs also drive the increasingly globalising economy. In order to meet the growing demand for highly educated “professionals with high levels of innovation and creativity” (Mok & Wu, 2016, p. 78), the expansion of HE becomes necessary (Marginson, 2016). Furthermore, to ensure their graduates’ employability, institutions create courses that provide students with the types of transferable skills required to meet the work skills and customer-focused competencies demanded by today’s employers (McMurray et al., 2016). These demands involve the tailoring of curricula by changing the length, content and mode of delivery of their traditional courses (Kalfa & Taksa, 2015; Ruth, 2018). In turn, completed qualifications certify the kind of knowledge and skills acquired by potential employees (OECD, 2018).

International Student Mobility (ISM)

International Student Mobility (ISM), that is, “any form of international mobility which takes place within a student’s programme of study in higher education” (Higher Education Funding Council for England, 2011), is one of the main characteristics of globalisation (Mok, 2016; Tran, 2016) and can be discussed as resulting from an interplay of social, economic, and cultural variables. There are several motivating factors that encourage students to leave their home country and seek HE education overseas. Firstly, students may be influenced by their parents’ advice about their future. Since HE education is mainly supported by parental wealth, parents tend to make decisions regarding their child’s education. These decisions are often complied with, even if the HE institution does not appeal to the student (Brown, 1990).

Secondly, students are motivated to study overseas because they may be aspired by the future acquisition of intercultural competencies, such as autonomy, independence (Cordón, 1997), resilience, or initiative (Papatsiba, 2005).

Thirdly, ISM can be related to political and economic circumstances (King & Raghuram, 2013), in that the political and economic negative forces of a home country, such as low economic status, political instability or war, may result in the student’s choice to study abroad (Li & Bray, 2007).

Fourthly, students may also feel oppressed in their home country due to their particular religious views and, thus, wish to leave (Li & Bray, 2007).

Fifthly, the desire to learn English which is recognised as the most influential global language (Graddol, 2010), and study in an English medium institution is another contributing factor that powers students' mobility and movement to overseas universities (Crystal, 2003).

Finally, students may be motivated to leave their home countries because of the prospect for future improved social status, and financial success and wealth as the result of international education (Li & Bray, 2007). It is a trend in today's labour market to hire those with an overseas education (Wilkins et al., 2011).

1.2.1.2 Neoliberalism

The second most prominent reason for massification is a global change in ideology towards neoliberalism. Neoliberalism can be best described as an umbrella term addressing a range of cultural, social, and political changes that prioritise a market-based economy, encouraging individuals to become more competitive, flexible, productive, and efficient (Flubacher & del Percio 2017; Gray, 2016; Roper, 2018; Ruth, 2018). Neoliberal governments are responsible for a number of changes in post-secondary sector. The more significant of these are a decline in funding for public education, the privatisation of HE institutions, and a shift in teaching orientation.

Decline in funding for public education

Public education has experienced a massive reduction in funding. To gain subsidies, universities worldwide have to contribute to the development and stimulation of economic growth (Gray, 2016). Government funding of universities are now often based on the number of full-time students enrolled at a particular institution and the ratings given to their courses (Boston, 1999). With the decline in government support for the education sector, tuition fees for full-time studies have greatly increased and have become the responsibility of the students, rather than the government (Shaw, 2017).

Privatisation of HE institutions

In the context of the global economic crisis, neoliberals were able to successfully propagandise education as a personal responsibility, rather than a citizens' right (Gray, 2016; Roper, 2018). Many universities worldwide were privatised and corporatised. As a result, they have been reconceptualised as selling services to student-customers, who are purchasing goods on a competitive market (Heller, 2016).

Teaching orientation

Universities in most countries have oriented more towards vocational education in order to answer the needs of labour market, which includes the quick replenishing of the workforce. As a result, some researchers have suggested that teaching should now deliver a mix of skill-sets for the students and stimulate their employability in order to increase a country's national wealth (Goodnight et al., 2015; Gray, 2016). One consequence of this has been the redistribution of government funds to focus on the STEM subjects, i.e. Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics, with humanities schools suffering a significant loss of student enrolments (Gray, 2016; Roper, 2018). As number of humanities students decline, teaching staff in the humanities are encouraged to take early retirement or voluntary redundancy (Roper, 2018).

1.2.1.3 English as a Lingua Franca (ELF)

Another main driver of massification is the global rise of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF). ELF is “any use of English among speakers of different first languages” (Seidlhofer, 2011, p. 7, as cited in Cogo, 2015). Traditionally viewed as the language of the so-called ‘Inner Circle’, i.e., belonging to first language countries, e.g. the USA, UK, Ireland, Canada, Australia, and NZ, the English language has historically spread to the ‘Outer Circle’, i.e., colonised countries, such as Singapore, India, and over fifty other territories. Present-day English is becoming the language of power and prestige in many countries, and hence its importance is now recognised in countries from the ‘Expanding Circle’, such as China, Japan and Italy (Cagliero & Jenkins, 2010; Coupland, 2010). For several decades now English has been used by more non-native than native speakers in various contexts (Crystal, 2003; Silfakis, 2018). For international students coming to study in HE institutions with English as the medium of instruction (EMI), the knowledge of English, and specifically academic English, is of paramount importance.

As indicated above the importance of English is well recognised with Graddol viewing language as a “basic skill” necessary for full participation in 21st century society (2010, p. 10). Phillipson (2017) suggests that many regard ELF as a language divorced from societal power and native speaker norms. However, Toh (2019) points out that the state of affairs is not this straight forward. ELF has now entered a state of multilingualism where interlocutors adopt various semiotic resources in their interactions. Their focus is

more on their fellow interlocutors than on the linguistic code. This multilingual status that Toh describes has far-reaching implications for English academic writing.

1.2.2 Benefits of massification

The massification of HE has certain benefits. Firstly, it produces highly educated professionals, who are important for the growth of revenue in the knowledge-based economy. The knowledge component of capital that has become more sophisticated than in the past (Stromquist & Monkma, 2014) forces individuals to acquire HE qualifications.

Secondly, one of the most important paybacks of mass HE for graduates is better employment and payment opportunities (Tight, 2019). Completion of HE means better prospects in the labour market for graduates compared to those without a degree (Mok & Jiang, 2018). Indeed, the employment rate for graduates with a tertiary qualification is about 9 percentage points higher than for those who did not successfully complete HE (OECD, 2019). Furthermore, HE graduates attain on average 57% higher earnings at their jobs compared to their counterparts (Mok & Wu, 2016; OECD, 2019).

1.2.3 Barriers of massification

Despite the benefits of the massification of HE, it appears that there are nevertheless a greater number of drawbacks for all sectors. Firstly, with the vast numbers of students striving for HE qualifications, only a limited number of students are able to gain degrees from highly ranked universities, such as Harvard (Tight, 2019). Consequently, low socio-economic status students may only gain access to institutions that sit at the bottom of university ranking (Marginson, 2016; Tight, 2019).

Secondly, with many neoliberal governments encouraging the development of a greater number of HE institutions, and at the same time privatising existing universities, the quality of education has deteriorated (Yang, 2003). In their chase for government and public funding HE institutions have become more profit- than education-driven (Holdsworth, 2009). Furthermore, the increased demand by universities to employ academic staff to meet the needs of a growing student population has “resulted in a decline of the average qualification for academics in many countries” (Altbach et al.,

2010, p. 19). Consequently, the level of skill and knowledge now acquired at universities varies greatly.

Thirdly, a number of international students' choice of HE provider is based on their intention to migrate to the host country after graduation. As a result, some home countries may face the risk of being deprived of highly-educated individuals (Altbach et al., 2010). This 'brain drain' in certain states, mainly developing countries, contributes to the economic growth of mainly Western countries (Altbach et al., 2017; Yang, 2003).

Finally, because massification of HE has resulted in a highly-educated workforce, and a highly competitive labour market (Mok & Jiang, 2018), many graduates in developed East-Asian, as well as Western, countries experience difficulty in finding employment (Lauder, 2014; Chan & Lin, 2016; Mok, 2016; Mok & Jiang, 2018; Mok & Wu, 2016; Vedder et al., 2013; Wu, 2011). Vedder et al. (2013) found that 48 per cent of graduates with four-year degrees were underemployed, i.e. hired in the positions that do not require a degree. In other words, graduates 'crowd out' for decent jobs, even after gaining qualifications from highly rated university and colleges (Brown et al., 2011).

1.2.4 Massification of HE in the NZ context

Massification of HE is also taking place in NZ. Statistics provided by the NZ Ministry of Education indicate that international student numbers increased from 92,995 in 2012 (Ministry of Education, 2013) to 118,300 in 2017 (Ministry of Education, 2018). The majority of these students are from China and India (Ministry of Education, 2017) and enrol in Auckland institutions. Education New Zealand also continues to strategically invest in the growth of students from South East Asian countries (including Vietnam, Indonesia, and Thailand), European countries (including France, Germany, and the UK), and the USA (Ministry of Education, 2017, 2018). NZ education funds are invested in specific projects in Chile and Saudi Arabia (Ministry of Education, 2018). NZ also sees long-term potential for growth in students coming from Mexico (Ministry of Education, 2017).

As with NZ, HE providers and related government ministries throughout the world employ a range of often competing marketing campaigns to encourage the selection of their particular country as the destination for international students. Nonetheless, a

student's final choice of country and academic provider for their post-secondary studies is the result of a number of complex factors. These will be discussed in the next section.

1.3 Factors involved in the choice of host country and HE provider

Ultimately there are three phases that international students go through in choosing their overseas HE provider. Firstly they make a choice to study abroad, rather than locally, secondly they choose the country they want to study in, and thirdly they select their HE provider (Mazzarol, 1998; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002). The reasons why a student might decide to study abroad were described in Section 1.2.1.1. This section examines the factors that influence international students' choice of host country and HE provider.

1.3.1 Criteria influencing international students' choice of host country

According to Mazzarol et al. (1997), the choice of students' host country may be defined by six factors. They are:

- 1) Overall knowledge and awareness of the destination country. Knowledge about a country, such as its per capita income and whether it offers future employment can influence a student's decision as to whether a host country is suitable for a lengthy stay (Perkins & Neumayer, 2014). Other information, such as whether the qualifications from a particular country are recognised in their home country is also crucial (Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002). Such information is often obtained through social or other media sources (Beech, 2014), and the ease with which it can be found also plays a role in the selection of a particular host country (Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002).
- 2) Personal recommendations from parents, friends, relatives, or others. Students tend to choose countries that they or their relatives have visited before. They also choose countries about which they have received information from by someone who has studied there before, including their relatives or friends. Information from recruitment agents can also play a role in the choice of a host country (Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002).

- 3) Costs including study fees, living expenses, and travel costs. Students prefer choosing countries where the visa process is less complex in comparison to other countries, or where living costs are relatively low (Dimmock & Ong Soon Leong, 2010; Jon et al., 2014). Students also look for countries where there are opportunities to financially support themselves while studying via part-time work. Safety and racial prejudice is another dimension (Ahmad & Shah, 2018; Jon et al., 2014). Additionally, students also tend to choose countries where there is population from their home country, as this may potentially help them to form social groups with people from their own cultural backgrounds (Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002).
- 4) Type of environment. Students make choices about their host country according to the quality of its physical climate and standard of living, as well as the quality of its academic environment (Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002).
- 5) Geographical proximity to their homeland. Many students prefer to study in countries relatively close to their home countries so that they can visit their families during semester breaks, or at the end of the academic year (Jon et al., 2014; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002).
- 6) Social links to social networks, friends or relatives living in the destination country may also define students' choice of their destination (Mazzarol et al., 1997).

These six factors help to understand the reasons why a student wanting to study internationally might choose a particular country over another. However, the six factors described above should be considered in conjunction with the factors, mentioned earlier in Section 1.2.1.1. Since massification of HE is most pronounced in countries where English is a first language, the rest of the Introduction focuses on these countries in particular. The last phase in students' decision-making process for studying abroad involves the choice of overseas HE provider.

1.3.2 Factors influencing international students' choice of HE provider.

The selection of a particular university may be defined by a number of factors too. They are:

- 1) HE institution's reputation and world ranking. Students prefer to enrol in leading universities which offer a variety of courses and have renowned, highly-knowledgeable staff (Ahmad & Shah, 2018; Choi, 2013; Dimmock & Ong Soon Leong, 2010; Jon et al., 2014; Li & Bray, 2007; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002). Students also refer to the world ranking system as they see more potential for obtaining a job and a higher salary if they have graduated from an elite university (Perkins & Neumayer, 2014). International students who seek to migrate after graduating also tend to choose universities who support graduates to find employment in the host country (Li & Bray, 2007).
- 2) Availability of a scholarship from the host institution (Ahmad & Shah, 2018; Choi, 2013; Li & Bray, 2007; Mazzarol et al., 1997). Even in cases, when students were not able to secure scholarships from the host university, their existence attracts international students and enhances a university's profile and reputation (Mazzarol et al., 1997).
- 3) English language requirements and students' ability to meet those (Perkins & Neumayer, 2014). With English as the global language, universities in countries with English as a first language attract a larger number of international students than countries with other first languages (Perkins & Neumayer, 2014). In those cases when students' English language proficiency does not meet the English language requirements of a chosen HE institution, the ability of the host university to offer preparatory language courses prior to the major studies may influence a student's decision to study in that institution (Perkins & Neumayer, 2014).
- 4) The existence of a student population with a language familiar to the student may ease the anxiety of many international students (Perkins & Neumayer, 2014). Students are more likely to choose institutions when they are able to form groups and cliques with others from their own cultural and linguistic background (Dimmock & Ong Soon Leong, 2010; Perkins & Neumayer, 2014).

Even after careful selection of their host country and HE institution, when changing from a familiar socio-cultural environment to their new environment, the majority of international L2 students face a number of challenges, which require internal re-

adjustment (Choi, 2006; Ivins et al., 2017; Koval et al., 2016; Lau et al., 2019). These challenges will be discussed in the next section.

1.4 Challenges for international students

The major challenges that international L2 students face as they adapt to their new environment and attempt to successfully engage with their academic studies can be grouped into three areas: challenges with the language, challenges with the academic environment, and challenges in the social cultural domain (Tinto, 1993).

1.4.1 Challenges with the language

English plays a crucial role in international L2 students' successful adaptation to their new environment. They face challenges with the English language in both the academic environment and in the socio-cultural environment (Butcher & McGrath, 2004; Holmes, 2004; Ward, 2001; Ward & Masgoret, 2004).

1.4.1.1 Language challenges in the academic environment

Insufficient command of English is one of the main reasons why international L2 students struggle to adjust academically (Huang & Klinger, 2006) and can affect their ability to engage with written assignments, oral presentations, examinations, and class participation. A number of researchers (e.g. Guan & Jones, 2011; Holmes, 2004; Paltridge et al., 2009) confirm that even after meeting university language requirements, international L2 students are not fully prepared to meet the academic demands of universities and succeed in their studies. Read and Hayes (2003) note that "even students who gained the minimum band score for tertiary admission were likely to struggle to meet the demands of English-medium study in a New Zealand university or polytechnic" (p. 154).

Many university staff in Australian universities believe that international students require post-entry language support (O'Loughlin, 2013), and students themselves also view their proficiency in the language as quite low. Ashton-Haya et al. (2016) conducted a study with 140 international students from 79 countries studying in Australia. Their findings showed that 69% of the students at the time of enrolment viewed their language abilities as average or in need of improvement. Other studies

conducted in Australia and NZ found that, once enrolled into HE, international students expect more help and language support from their HE institutions. Nevertheless, in most cases this is viewed as unrealistic (Barrett-Lennard & Bulsara, 2008; Sherry et al., 2004).

1.4.1.2 Language challenges in the socio-cultural environment

In the sociocultural domain, a low level of English proficiency may impede students' attempts to socialise with their local peers or other international students, who use English as a foreign language, build relationships, expand their social networks, and develop social and intercultural communication skills. A large number of studies (e.g. Ho et al., 2007; Holmes, 2004; Poyrazli et al., 2002; Zhang & Goodson, 2011) confirm a correlation between English competency, socio-cultural adjustment and a high level of interaction with locals. At the same time, lower level of English proficiency is found to result in acculturation stress, homesickness and depression (Dao et al., 2007; Duru & Poyrazli, 2007; Poyrazli et al., 2004; Robertson et al., 2000; Sumer et al., 2008, Yeh & Inose, 2003).

1.4.2 Challenges in the academic environment

Language is not the only challenge faced by international L2 students in the academic environment. Dooey and Oliver (2002) interviewed international undergraduate students from diverse non-English-speaking backgrounds who were admitted to universities on the basis of their IELTS score. 50% of all students acknowledged that problems besides language impeded their academic studies. These problems are related to unmet academic expectations, the quality and efficiency of campus services, pedagogical conventions, and classroom norms.

1.4.2.1 Unmet academic expectations

International L2 students become disappointed when they discover that some courses are not as challenging as they expected them to be (Lin & Scherz, 2014). Additionally, they find that course structure and content delivery are sometimes different from what they read in the program description before enrolling in the course (Lin & Scherz, 2014). They see very little relevance in their prescribed readings to what is taught in lectures. They also discover their lack of ability for critical reading and writing (Beaver

& Tuck, 1998; Campbell & Li, 2008; Holmes, 2004; Johnson, 2008; Skyrme, 2007; Ward & Masgoret, 2004; Zhang & Brunton, 2007).

1.4.2.2 Quality and efficiency of campus services

Several studies confirm that quality and efficiency of university services are important for international L2 students' adjustment to their academic and social life on campus (Andrade, 2006; Bista, 2015; Korobova & Starobin, 2015). Campus services may be related to the following three areas:

- 1) academic (academic support, academic staff),
 - 2) non-academic (counsellors and advisers, administrators, student health centres, career centres),
 - 3) social (social support services, student organisations)
- (Bista, 2015; Korobova & Starobin, 2015).

Students who do not have suitable support services on campus struggle to develop analytical and critical thinking skills compared to students in institutions that provide such services. Furthermore, students on campuses without suitable support services are less committed to their education and develop fewer positive social links with their peers and academic staff (Korobova & Starobin, 2015; Severiens & Wolff, 2008).

1.4.2.3 Pedagogical conventions

International L2 students studying in a foreign country face a set of academic norms and conventions that are unfamiliar to them (Cartwright & Noone, 2001; Zhang & Brunton, 2007). The most challenging of these are western approaches to teaching and learning. Many international students find it difficult to transition from the type of rote learning that takes place at high schools in their home country, to the emphasis on critical thinking and interactive learning found in Western universities (Liberman, 1994; Torenbeek et al., 2011). In addition, students in Western universities are expected to work independently with minimal lecturer contact and reduced feedback (Tawash et al., 2019), and to explain, discuss, and provide their opinions on questions that may be asked by their teacher. Students' inability to adjust to new student-centred environments with an emphasis on learner autonomy and critical thinking may be detrimental for their academic success (Li, 2007; Skyrme, 2007; Zhang & Brunton, 2007).

1.4.2.4 Classroom norms

International L2 students, especially from China, note several differences between classroom norms and expected behaviours in their home countries and in western universities. Firstly, western education classes are more informal. Students are expected to be active participants in discussions and debates (Huang & Klinger, 2006). Secondly, students are expected to be prepared for lectures, i.e. read the prescribed texts, and be ready to explain the material that is being taught (Huang & Klinger, 2006). Believing that they have poor command of English, international students often refrain from being active participants in class (Zhang, 2016), which can result in low marks, a feeling of isolation from their classmates, and a sense of inconspicuousness (Zhang, 2016; Wu et al., 2015).

1.4.3 Challenges in the socio-cultural domain

A number of researchers have suggested that academic challenges faced by international students are interrelated with students' socialisation and socio-cultural challenges (e.g. Choi, 2013; Mori, 2000; Smith & Khawaja, 2011). The focus on the socio-cultural domain can be divided into two main areas: social challenges and cultural challenges.

1.4.3.1 Social challenges

Social challenges that hinder international students' successes include parental expectations, financial difficulties, a lack of time for events outside their work-study life, limited social support, difficulties fostering relationships and enhancing social networks, discrimination, and physical and mental health.

Parental expectations

Parents, being the main sponsors for international L2 students' education, put pressure on their children. These students feel obliged to maximally improve their knowledge of English and complete their education in the shortest time possible so that they can begin their career. This parental pressure raises the anxiety level in students and may have detrimental outcomes (Choi, 2013).

Financial difficulties

Although some students may have full financial support from their family, or alternatively receive a scholarship, a large number of international students struggle to make ends meet (Choi, 2013). Insufficient funds is one of the main factors that

negatively influences international students' academic success (Chen, 2006; Huang & Klinger, 2006; Mori, 2000; Pooock & Love, 2001). In order to support their studies, these students seek part-time employment, on or off campus, which may or may not be related to their major (Huang & Klinger, 2006). Having increased responsibilities that are not related to their studies can negatively effect students' academic success.

Lack of time for events outside their work-study life

Students who experience financial constraints find it difficult to find an opportunity for social activities, such as travelling around the country they study in, or attending social events with their peers. This creates a sense of alienation and distance from other students (Choi, 2013).

Limited social support

International L2 students often lack social support from their family and friends (Hechanova-Alampay et al., 2002; Smith & Khawaja, 2011) and as a result can experience loneliness and isolation (Huang & Klinger, 2006; Wu et al., 2015). Students from collectivist cultures, such as Arab countries, may additionally experience guilt issues, due to their inability to spend the expected time with family members (Tawash et al., 2019). International L2 students' sense of alienation may also be strongly felt during their national or family holidays, when they are required to be in their lectures instead of celebrating with their families (Huang & Klinger, 2006). Such feelings of loneliness and isolation may result in depression (Mori, 2000). As a result, international students cannot concentrate on their study materials (Huang & Klinger, 2006).

Difficulties fostering relationships and enhancing social networks

Building a new social network is a vital factor for international students' educational success. Most international L2 students believe that their cultural, religious, and linguistic differences impede their ability to make friends with their local peers (Huang & Klinger, 2006; Ho et al., 2007; Li, 2016; Li & Campbell, 2010; Thomas, 2012; Vaccarino & Dresler-Hawke, 2011). Li (2007), focusing on the NZ HE context, found that only three out of her four respondents had some kind of interaction with New Zealanders, while the fourth one never made NZ friends. Being restricted financially, international L2 students also have limited chances to socialise with local students outside campuses (Li, 2007; Sato & Hodge, 2009). These challenges slow down international L2 students' acculturation into their new academic culture (Huang & Klinger, 2006) and may result in depression, anxiety and alienation (Chen, 1999).

Discrimination

Students may feel discriminated against in their social and academic life because of limited information about their culture and prejudice from locals (Wu et al., 2015). Feeling marginalised, international students may become excluded and develop a diminished sense of belonging.

Physical and mental health

International students who experience stress while adjusting to their new environment may develop symptoms affecting their physical and mental wellbeing (Leong & Chou, 1996; Mori, 2000). Physical symptoms may include increased blood pressure, heart and pulse rates, high body temperature, headaches, loss of appetite, loss of sleep, and low energy levels (Ammigand et al., 2019; Mori, 2000). Students may also experience fatigue and mental burnout because of constant cognitive work (Mori, 2000; Stewart et al., 2019). This emotional and physical discomfort may impact students' education in a negative way (Huang & Klinger, 2006).

1.4.3.2 Cultural challenges

Cultural challenges may also negatively contribute to international L2 students' academic success (Holden, 2015). These may be related to unfamiliarity with cultural norms and religion.

Unfamiliarity with cultural norms

For many international L2 students, adaptation to an unfamiliar culture may be long and difficult due to different cultural rules and behaviours. A common example is gift-giving. It is commonplace to open a gift in front of the giver in Western culture, but this creates awkwardness for students from, for example, Asian cultures (Wu et al., 2015).

Religion

Religion and its impact on the cultural norms of a country can present a major challenge for international L2 students. International Arab students, for example, studying in a Western country, face challenges with cross-gender interaction in and out of class. They may also be shocked by the informality and openness of sexual relationships in their host country, including the blatant sexuality that is sometimes evident on campus (Alsahafi & Shin, 2017; Rabia & Hazza, 2017).

While the challenges and difficulties described in the sections above certainly affect international L2 students' adaptation to their new environment and ultimately academic success in their host institution, the greatest challenge that international L2 students face is in the specific area of academic writing, the primary assessment tool in most HE courses.

1.5 English language proficiency and admission to HE

In order to prove their English language proficiency international students are required to meet certain language requirements prior to being admitted to English medium HE institutions. This is often carried out through international English language proficiency tests, such as the International English Language Testing System (IELTS), Foundation Programmes (FP), or English for Academic Purposes (EAP) courses. The following sections examine these three areas in more detail focusing predominantly (although not exclusively), on the NZ university context.

1.5.1 IELTS as an English enrolment language requirement

The Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), the First Certificate in English (FCE), or the academic format of the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) are all used to determine whether the language proficiency of international L2 students is suitable for their admission to English medium universities. These high-stakes tests are purposively developed for measuring test takers' English proficiencies and play a crucial role in their acceptance or non-acceptance to HE institutions in the West (Uysal, 2010).

Of these tests, Academic IELTS is preferred as the entry requirement for those who intend to study or work in NZ (Uysal, 2010). The Academic IELTS test is separated into the evaluation of four macro skills: listening, writing, reading, and speaking. Each of these skills is evaluated according to a 0-9 band score system, where 0 stands for non-users and 9 for an expert user. A certain band score on the Academic IELTS test is required from non-English language speakers for university studies in English-speaking countries (IELTS, 2013). This admission score is determined by universities and varies from institution to institution. However, IELTS developers themselves warn institutions

to interpret the test scores with caution, as they state that an IELTS test result only indicates a candidate's level of language proficiency at a certain point in time, and this may decrease if not actively maintained (IELTS, 2013).

While the speaking component of IELTS is important for boosting students' confidence in communication with their peers and lecturers, the writing skills component of IELTS remains the main concern for international students during the courses. By preparing for the Academic IELTS Writing Task 2, which requires students to write an essay of about 250 words in order to "present the solution to a problem; present and justify an opinion; compare and contrast evidence, opinions and implications; evaluate and challenge ideas, evidence or an argument" (IELTS, 2005, p. 8), students hope to gain the skills for writing in, what is presented as a formal, academic register suitable for university assessment purposes at EMI universities.

1.5.2 Other pathways to HE admission

Although the Academic IELTS test score is the primary indicator of a student's preparedness for HE studies in English medium institutions, NZ universities have recently provided other options for the development and evaluation of international L2 students' English proficiency. These include the Foundation Programme (FP), Diagnostic English Language Needs Assessment (DELNA), and English for Academic Purposes (EAP) classes.

1.5.2.1 Foundation Programme (FP)

In order to increase their number of international fee-paying students, NZ universities have developed a number of other pathways to degree courses for students who do not meet English language proficiency requirements via high-stakes tests, such as IELTS. One of these pathways is the Foundation Programme (FP). An FP is a bridging programme that facilitates students' enrolment into their major at an HE institution in NZ (Bahr, 2010; Merisotis & Phipps, 2000; Nasser, 2012). The FP course offers different programme options depending on a student's existing IELTS scores or level of academic qualifications from their home country. For example, a fast-track course, which typically admits students with a minimum overall IELTS score of 6.0, might only require one semester of study, while students whose overall IELTS score is 4.5 might be required to study for three semesters. Depending on the duration of the course, students

are offered an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) class, and a choice of up to four elective subjects from the students' intended future major, such as accounting, biology, Information Technology (IT), mathematics, physics, or art (Taylors College, 2020; UP Education, 2020).

While the EAP class expands students' proficiency in all four language skills, i.e. reading, listening, speaking, and writing, some of the main foci are spelling, punctuation, grammar, and the use of correct lexis (Taylors College, 2020). The class typically also targets developing and strengthening a range of writing skills, including note-taking, composing paragraphs, and preparing research reports (Taylors College, 2020; UP Education, 2020). Unfortunately, the approach adopted by many Foundation Programs appears reminiscent of the banking style of education identified by Freire (2005). Education becomes "an act of depositing" (p.72) where students uncritically accept all that they are taught. The only action allowed to the students is limited to receiving, filing, and storing the deposits of knowledge communicated by the teacher. Teachers adopting this approach bestow their knowledge on those they consider to know nothing of any real significance. While this deficit approach has been strongly challenged, it still exists on many programs that seek to equip students for the kind of writing required at EMI institutions. Students are effectively robbed of their voice.

The pamphlets of Foundation Programmes guarantee university entrance once the course has been completed, however, in actuality, certain conditions apply (UP Education, 2020). For example, depending on the intended major, students are expected to gain a pass grade of at least 70% on their English course and they must also pass each of the subject-based foundation classes - whether compulsory or elective - with at least a 50% grade (Taylors College, 2020; UP Education, 2020). Nonetheless, success in their FP course does not necessarily guarantee their admission to every university in NZ because there may be some additional requirements set out by universities, such as a portfolio or an interview. FP providers additionally warn that universities reserve the right to deny places even to those students who achieved the English language requirements (Taylors College, 2020).

1.5.2.2 Diagnostic English Language Needs Assessment (DELNA)

To provide students with additional language support, the University of Auckland in NZ, for example, encourages all their students to take a Diagnostic English Language Needs Assessment (DELNA) at the start of their HE studies. The test intends to indicate

students' readiness for courses at the University of Auckland (The University of Auckland, 2020c). Although the test is voluntary and first year students are advised to take it after university admission, the test is a compulsory language requirement for those who completed their previous education at a different tertiary provider in NZ and achieved 60 points or more (The University of Auckland, 2020a). Achieving less than a 'satisfactory' result on the DELNA test may require the student to enrol in a compulsory language enrichment non-credit-bearing course during the students' first 12 months of study (The University of Auckland, 2020c).

1.5.2.3 English for Academic Purposes (EAP) classes

In cases where students do not demonstrate 'good' results on the DELNA test, they are encouraged or will be required to enrol in and pass an academic English language non-credit-bearing course during their first year of study at the University of Auckland (The University of Auckland, 2020a, 2020c). This course enhances students' academic language skills in oral and written forms, including finding and interpreting relevant sources in their field of study, communicating specialist knowledge in an effective, clear and coherent manner, and developing writing skills in various rhetorical styles (The University of Auckland, 2020b).

Although preparatory pathways (IELTS, FP, DELNA, and EAP classes) claim to develop students' level of language proficiency and, as an extension, their level of preparedness for academic study in an English medium university, each also comes with a number of issues.

1.5.3 Problems with university preparatory language courses

A range of studies (Cho & Bridgeman, 2012; Fakeye & Ogunsiji, 2009; Feast, 2002; Green, 2006; James, 2009; Keefe & Shi, 2017; Storch & Tapper, 2009; Yang & Badger, 2015) have found a positive improvement in English proficiency among pre-university students studying towards the international language tests, or enrolled in university preparation classes. Nevertheless, and as discussed in the following sections, these programmes also present a number of issues (Lea & Street, 1998; Lumsden et al., 2010; Moore & Morton, 2005).

1.5.3.1 Issues with international English language proficiency tests

Issues found with the international English language proficiency tests, and in particular the courses used to prepare students for these tests, include negative washback on teaching, negative washback on learning, and teacher anxiety.

Negative washback on teaching

One of the overriding issues with international language tests, such as Academic IELTS and TOEFL, and by extension, their associated preparatory courses, is that they can often result in negative washback on teaching (Green, 2007). Negative washback occurs when teaching practices develop an effective approach for generating high-scoring results within the test timeframe (Green, 2007), but are ultimately constrained by a narrow focus of language ability assessed by specific types of tasks (Chan, 2020). For example, if writing is assessed by multiple-choice questions, teachers prepare students for the test by practising this type of task (Taylor, 2005).

The test-focused nature of IELTS and TOEFL, for example, has an effect on the curriculum design, approaches to teaching, and the types of resources used (e.g. Alderson & Wall, 1993; Chan, 2020; Hawkey, 2006; Hayes & Read, 2004; Rashidi & Javanmardi, 2011; Sadighi et al., 2018). Indeed, many IELTS and TOEFL instructors do not view their courses as preparing their students for university studies, but rather for writing successful test essays (Alderson & Hamp-Lyons, 1996; Green, 2006). As a result, much of the time spent in such preparatory courses is devoted to familiarising students with the test format, and providing useful strategies for obtaining the highest test results, ultimately disregarding wider skills (Rashidi & Javanmardi, 2011; Read & Hayes, 2003). This negligence can be seen in a study by Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996) who found that TOEFL teachers limited their curriculum to the skills and knowledge required by students to pass the TOEFL test. As the result, the teachers were not particularly creative with the choice of study material and mostly followed textbooks. In another study (Sadighi et al., 2018), pre-university English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers in Iran also confirmed that they mostly focused on elements that were to be tested, which, in their context, was mainly grammar. As the result, teaching was limited to particular types of grammar-based exercises, while the development of other necessary skills was neglected. Saglam and Farhady (2018) also investigated washback from English language proficiency tests on teaching practices. They found that the majority of teachers' choice of teaching materials was geared

towards preparing students for the test, mostly involving the use of the types of multi-choice questions used in the proficiency test.

In NZ, Read and Hayes (2003) investigated the impact of IELTS preparation on learning among language schools nationwide. The results of the questionnaire revealed that IELTS teachers limit their teaching practice to familiarising students with the test format and content. The authors extended their research by conducting follow-up interviews. The IELTS teachers stated that their choice of curriculum was driven by their students' motivation to pass the test and be admitted to their university courses.

Negative washback on learning

Similarly, negative washback can also impact on student learning. Negative washback on learning leads to surface knowledge (Shepard, 2006), where students are not fully engaging or interacting with the content of the curriculum (Harlen & James, 1997). A plethora of studies confirm that students preparing for an IELTS test expect to gain the necessary strategies and knowledge required to gain the desired test score, rather than learning a wider range of language skills (e.g. Erfani, 2011; Hawkey, 2006; Lumley & Stoneman, 2000; Neil, 2018; Turner, 2004).

Erfani (2011), for example, conducted research involving 220 participants studying towards IELTS and TOEFL iBT tests at two language institutes in Tehran. Erfani found that the majority of students preparing for an IELTS test (98%) focused on improving their test scores, and only 79.8% of the student participants expected to “capture the integrated nature of the use of skills in academic settings” (p. 93).

Teacher anxiety

Roza (2019) found that mature instructors with at least two-years' experience teaching IELTS or TOEFL had developed a certain degree of anxiety when teaching students younger than themselves. The teachers believed that younger students were proficient in using to-date sources, such as the Internet and mobile applications containing a plethora of general knowledge, while teachers are still guided by IELTS and TOEFL textbooks. So, teachers have to keep updating themselves with the test forms, exam questions, as well as new technology to feel more advanced than their students. Roza (2019) argues that students who feel smarter than their teachers underestimate them, consequently, students do not feel motivated enough to continue learning.

1.5.3.2 Issues with EAP

While EAP courses also bear a certain amount of negative washback, the major issue with such courses is that they are usually taught by teachers, who overly focus on surface-level features, such as grammar and punctuation. Students, on the other hand, come from various disciplinary backgrounds, and are interested in developing disciplinary language knowledge to facilitate their successful participation in their subsequent studies. Another major problem is that EAP courses are usually short-spanned and are driven by time constraints. These issues are discussed in the following sections.

Lack of disciplinary knowledge

EAP courses deal with the domain of knowledge that not every native speaker is familiar with (Basturkmen, 2010). Nevertheless, most EAP teachers do not require any special disciplinary training. EAP teachers usually complete their degrees in the field of applied linguistics and transfer their general English teaching knowledge, skills, and experience to the EAP context. However, continuing to teach EAP classes based on general English topics and general academic writing, EAP teachers find themselves at odds with learners' needs (Alexander, 2010). Given the range of disciplines students wish to study after the EAP classes, EAP teachers may find themselves outside their primary disciplinary expertise, lacking specialised language and discipline practices (Woodward-Kron & Jamieson, 2007).

Lack of genre knowledge

Generally, each academic discipline has a particular way of dealing with texts, or genres (Lillis & Scott, 2007), that is, a “socially recognised way of using language” (Hyland, 2007, p. 114) in a particular context. Genres assist in organising knowledge, beliefs, values, and ideologies (Johns, 2008). Each genre has specific vocabulary and grammar practices that may overlap (Hyland, 2008). Since EAP courses are usually offered to L2 speakers outside specific disciplines, EAP instructors reduce their teaching to linguistic features, such as grammar, punctuation, and structure, rather than dealing with different disciplinary genres and epistemologies (Hocking & Toh, 2010; Wingate, 2018; Woodward-Kron & Jamieson, 2007).

Lack of academic vocabulary knowledge

Another issue for EAP courses is the specificity of disciplinary vocabulary. In academia, people have created shared ways of talking about their field of expertise

(Boggs, 2015), consequently developing unique languages, each related to a particular domain or subject field (Rogers, 2000). As Hyland (2013a) has stated, “physicists don’t write like philosophers nor lawyers like linguists” (p. 61). Nonetheless, for the most part, EAP has traditionally divorced the teaching of academic vocabulary from specific disciplinary context (Wingate, 2015). Normally, EAP students are advised to learn the most frequent 2,000-3,000 general English words (Durrant, 2016), based on the assumption that the general academic vocabulary list is mostly sufficient for facilitating students’ participation in their particular academic discipline. However, due to the specificity of disciplinary vocabulary, this assumption may ultimately underprepare students (Hyland & Tse, 2007). Ultimately, the investigation and acquisition of vocabulary from specific disciplines is delegated to the students themselves (Basturkmen, 2010).

Time pressure on teaching and learning

EAP courses are quite short and intense (Alexander, 2010). Usually EAP teachers start with a quick induction into management issues and overall course content. The rest of the course mainly follows textbook materials with limited opportunities for teachers’ contribution (Alexander, 2010; Roza, 2019). Students and teachers often wish that the time for preparatory courses are longer (Green, 2007).

Teacher anxiety

As with the international English proficiency test instructors, EAP teachers also suffer from anxiety. This is largely because most EAP teachers, in addition to being ‘unqualified’ for EAP teaching (Alexander, 2010; Maley, 1992; Woodward-Kron & Jamieson, 2007), receive little induction into their role. In Alexander’s (2010) study, most of the novice teachers learnt to teach EAP through pre-session courses lasting one or two days, by using EAP textbooks, or through self-search in their teaching context. Alexander found that EAP teachers with less than five years EAP experience stated that it took them less than a year to feel confident teaching EAP, while teachers who had over five years EAP teaching experience claimed that they needed two to five years of teaching EAP to feel confident.

1.5.4 Students' expectations of IELTS and other preparatory courses

The majority of international students view the Academic IELTS as a means to gain entrance to HE universities with English as the medium of instructions (Cheng & Fox, 2008; Keefe & Shi, 2017; Lewthwaite, 2007). However, students also view Academic IELTS as providing them with the requisite knowledge and skills for their future studies. As reported in a study by Green (2006), the majority of Chinese students in the UK had an expectation of not only learning during their IELTS preparation courses how to successfully complete their test essays, but, most importantly, how to write in a formal, academic style suitable for university assessment purposes. Similarly, Lobo and Gurney (2014) found that students enrolled in preparatory English language courses within various disciplines in Griffith University, Australia expected, in particular, to be well equipped with academic writing skills. Furthermore, over 80 percent of all students preparing for their IELTS tests in two universities in Iran, although wanting to successfully prepare for the test and gain the highest possible band scores, also expected to widen their knowledge of the language (Erfani, 2011).

1.5.5 Correlation between preparatory courses and HE demands

Barkhuizen and Cooper (2004) found that for some motivated and determined learners, IELTS preparatory courses prove beneficial for their future studies. However, most learners find that after completing an IELTS preparatory course and gaining the required IELTS score, they are not appropriately prepared for HE studies. In a study with 28 students in Melbourne, for example, researchers found “no apparent correlation between IELTS scores and student performance in course-related tasks” (Ingram & Bayliss, 2007, p. 137). Similarly, Read and Hayes (2003) have noted that “even students who gained the minimum band score for tertiary admission were likely to struggle to meet the demands of English-medium study in a NZ university or polytechnic” (p. 154). Cognisant of this lack of correlation between IELTS scores and HE demands, university staff believe that international students require considerable post-entry language support (e.g. O’Loughlin, 2013).

1.6 Academic writing

Traditionally, academic writing is a term used for any kind of writing practiced in academia (McNamara et al., 2018). The purpose of academic writing has been to assess students' mastery of content knowledge and their ability to express this knowledge in a formal register by following an expected structure for the written genre, such as a lab report or an academic essay (McNamara et al., 2018). English academic writing has become important for a number of reasons, including the rise of mass education, the growing use of English as a medium of instruction, and the publication in English of more than 90% of all academic scientific journals (Hyland, 2013a). For students at English medium instruction (EMI) tertiary institutions in Western countries, the ability to write academically is a key skill requirement. It is the expected means by which students demonstrate knowledge of their subject areas, and is most often the basis for assessing students' work (Uysal, 2010).

1.6.1 Challenges with academic writing

Of all the language skills, writing provides the greatest challenges for international L2 students in the university context (Elder, 2003; Elton, 2010; O'Loughlin, 2013; Storch & Hill, 2008; Thompson et al., 2013). This may be due to the various writing standards within and across universities and departments (Woodrow, 2006a), or to the different requirements between university writing and writing at pre-university level (Moore & Morton, 2005). These and other reasons are discussed in the sections below.

Difference in writing demands across different disciplines

The variety of teaching practices within and across disciplines, the difference in requirements set by individual subject lecturers, and lecturers' diverse personal interpretation of writing requirements (Canagarajah, 2013a; Haggis, 2006) contribute to the challenges international L2 students face with their university writing assignments. Students find it confusing when their written assignments in one discipline receive high grades, while assignments written in a comparable way are not well received in another discipline (Lea & Street, 1998; Lillis, 2003; Wingate, 2012a).

Difference in writing demands across different institutions and lecturers

Indeed, it is now well acknowledged that academic writing, rather than being a technical skill that can be transferred from one context to another, is shaped by the specific

practices of individual academic institutions and even discipline lecturers themselves, who serve as the authority of what knowledge, expressed in students' written works, is relevant to their particular essay topics (Lillis, 2003; Turner, 2011a).

Lack of guidance from university lecturers

Students' confusion is compounded when they seek lecturers' assistance with guidance for writing assignments and receive unclear advice. While lecturers have mastered the expectations of academic writing through years of writing practice and can recognise a good written assignment, they are not always able to describe what constitutes a well-written piece of work (Lea & Street, 1998). This inability to provide step-by-step instructions for effective writing often leaves students on their own.

Lack of discipline-specific proficiency in writing

The type of general academic writing that preparatory courses, such as IELTS, focus on is different from the discipline-specific writing required in students' courses at university (Hyland, 2013a; Hyland & Shaw, 2016). To become a competent writer in a particular discipline, students must learn the conventions and genres, which expert members of the discipline consider to be the effective means for presenting knowledge in that discipline. Hence, international L2 students who have successfully gained their university entrance requirements through IELTS and other preparatory courses find academic writing particularly challenging during their first year university studies at EMI universities (Elder, 2003; Keefe & Shi, 2017; O'Loughlin, 2013; Sawir et al., 2012; Storch & Hill, 2008; Thompson et al., 2013)

Word count for written tasks and time for completion

University assignments also present a challenge for first-year international L2 students who never experienced writing lengthy texts in their preparatory courses (Keefe & Shi, 2017). For example, students in IELTS classes are given 40 minutes to produce an impromptu piece of writing of 250 words. This is at odds with the nature of university assessment tasks, where students would normally have a much longer period to present a written work. They will also be expected to incorporate secondary sources into their writing, which averages approximately 2,000 words.

Referencing

Paraphrasing, incorporating sources and referencing are central to knowledge production in the university context and students' skills in these areas are crucial (Cooper, 2013; Horowitz, 1986). A students' uncertainty as to what information needs to be referenced can result in the direct copying from a published work without acknowledgment of the source (Elton, 2010). This inability to correctly paraphrase someone else's words can be seen as the student's failure to understand key ideas and is more problematically considered to be plagiarism (Thompson et al., 2013). Unlike academic assignments, the types of writing tasks in IELTS and other preparatory courses are not framed around the use of external sources, but instead rely on students' prior knowledge of a subject. As a result, in their university courses, international L2 students often struggle to incorporate reading materials into their written assignments having not had the previous relevant practice (Keefe & Shi, 2017; Weigle, 2002).

Lexical bundles

Another difference between the type of writing found in preparatory courses and the type of writing found in the university context involves lexical bundles. Cooper (2013) claims that lexical bundles in the IELTS test are in its majority typical of a spoken discourse, while those in academic assignments are typical of a written genre.

1.6.2 Writing and identity

Finally, a number of scholars also make the link between academic writing and identity (Anderson, 2019; Hyland, 2011b; Ivanič, 1998). In the context of Western university education, for example, international L2 students come from discourse communities that place them, and their writing practices, in a subordinated position of power (Canagarajah, 2002). To accommodate the required norms of writing in English-medium universities, students need to discard the models of academic discourse associated with their own cultures, which ultimately impacts on their identity (Canagarajah, 2002; Gee, 1986; Le Ha, 2008). This, along with other social, institutional, and personal changes, can place the international L2 students in what might be referred to as a transitional space (Turner, 1987). Turner argues that students in a transitional space possess neither their old identity, nor have developed their new identity. Viewed positively, it may allow students to reflect on what they want to become and allow them to let go of their existing identity (Merrill, 2012, 2015).

Nevertheless, despite being under pressure to conform with the norms of their host country's institution in order to be successful in their studies (e.g. Doherty & Singh, 2005; Marginson, 2014; Montgomery, 2010; Strauss, 2017), some research has shown that international students tend to resist the pressure to westernise (Paltridge & Starfield, 2007). This resistance may be attributed to L2 users' fear of losing 'face' in situations when they are not understood by others, while using the language they are still mastering (Kettle, 2011). Secondly, some international students view offshore education as an opportunity to form a new international identity, rather than maintaining the relationship with their own culture (Chapman & Pyvis, 2006). As a result, international L2 students compare and contrast their learning experience and practices, adapting only that linguistic, educational, and cultural knowledge, which makes them feel successful (Kiley, 2003). This process of identity adaption is related to students' choice of actions and agency.

1.7 This study

As indicated in the sections above, the academic writing demands on international L2 students entering an English medium university are high. Although these students often bring a certain level of expertise to their writing from their first languages (Preece, 2010), they are constantly required to critically reflect on the relevance and usefulness of this prior knowledge. They also need to establish relevant personal study strategies associated with their academic writing and develop the specific kinds of proficiency necessary for writing in their particular academic contexts. It is this longitudinal process that this study seeks to examine in more detail, particularly within the contexts of first year students, who have often only recently pathwayed from the types of preparatory courses and associated proficiency tests discussed above. The following section briefly refers to related existing research in this area, and within the context of this research introduces the specific aims of this thesis.

1.7.1 Related literature and the specific aims of this study

There is an emerging body of research focusing on the relationship between the writing skills acquired by international L2 students in their pre-university studies, and those that they require for their university context (e.g. Ceylan, 2019; Leki, 2007; Leki & Carson,

1994). There is also research on the challenges international L2 students face with their writing assignments (e.g. Caplan, 2019; Evans & Morrison, 2011a; Leki, 2017; Mu, 2012; Wette, 2017; Wette, 2019), and the learning strategies international L2 students apply in their writing practices (e.g. Ravari & Tan, 2019).

Ravari and Tan (2019), for example, carried out qualitative research on international L2 students' thesis writing. The study which interviewed and examined the writing of 50 students majoring in English across 11 universities was limited to Iranian masters' students who had only just completed their theses. In another example, Mu (2012) examined the academic writing strategies used by Chinese students majoring in public health and nursing in Australia. He used a qualitative hermeneutic multi-case study approach for his study, however it was limited to the specific student population of postgraduate students from China. Like many related studies, Ravari and Tan (2019), and Mu (2012) focused on specific cultural groups in specific settings, producing findings that may not necessarily be generalisable to the unique circumstances of other settings, for example, those studying in the NZ university context; a context that is closer to my own concerns. Both of these examples also focused on postgraduate students and thesis writing, rather than the wider writing demands of first year undergraduate students.

While academic writing research carried out on post-graduate students is important, it should be noted that language development and proficiency is a dynamic process and it improves with practice and application in a specific discipline of study (Spolsky & Hult, 2010; Turner, 2004). In fact, a number of studies confirmed that with appropriate teaching and learning methods, such as peer work and collaborative discipline-based writing, international L2 students are able to overcome difficulties and improve their English academic writing (e.g. Bacha, 2010; Connor, 1996; Grabe & Kaplan, 1996; Leki, 1995). The results of these studies may lead to a conclusion that the research done with postgraduate students in relation to students' academic journeys and adjustment experiences, tend to look at students' somewhat already developed writing skills, particularly if they have pathwayed to postgraduate study through an English medium University.

Another area that interests me involves the changing nature of international L2 students' knowledge and skills about academic writing throughout their first year of study. We have seen, throughout this chapter, that there is a disjuncture between international L2

students' prior experiences of academic writing, including the skills learnt in preparatory courses, and the types of academic writing required in the host university. When and how do students become cognisant of this disjuncture and what impact does it have on the strategies they use to negotiate their writing demands, and their identities as students?

For the most part, there is a lack of research related to changes in students' perceptions about academic writing in the course of their first year of undergraduate degrees. One such research, known to me, was conducted in Australia by McNamara et al. (2018) and involved a total of 22 participants. However, the findings were limited to mainly Chinese participants studying towards an Economics and Business degree.

There is also largely a lack of longitudinal case studies that follow international L2 students - in particular first year undergraduate students - throughout their initial year of study to answer the above-mentioned questions. Longitudinal case studies, in this context, would be useful, as they can track experiences of the same individuals long enough to detect causal changes in their behaviour and can show "the nature of growth, trace patterns of change, and possibly give a true picture of cause and effect over time" (Rajulton, 2001, p. 171).

One relevant longitudinal study in the area of academic writing was carried out by Leki (2007). Leki's five-year study examined the perceptions and experiences about academic writing of four international L2 students as they moved from a pre-university language course to undergraduate study. Leki's study, however, is limited to the North American context and was carried out at the end of the 20th century, over 20 years ago. In addition to Leki (2007), there are a small number of other studies related to international students' academic journeys of adjustment and experiences with writing at English medium universities (Brown & Holloway, 2008; Cheng et al., 2004; Cheng & Fox, 2008; Guilfoyle, 2006; Yeh & Inose, 2003). Again, the focus of these and other similar studies are largely on the postgraduate context. Notable exceptions are Cheng and Fox (2008) who included a cohort of undergraduate participants alongside EAP students preparing for university entrance, and Cheng et al. (2004) who investigated the experience of undergraduate students, albeit at the end of their degree programmes. Although, once again, both of these studies were limited to the North American context.

There has also been a number of studies carried out on academic writing in the NZ context (e. g. Beaver & Tuck, 1998; Campbell & Li, 2008; de Magalhães et al., 2019; Hocking & Toh, 2010; Lee et al., 2013; Li, 2016; Skyrme, 2013, 2018; Zhang & Brunton, 2007). The students being examined for these studies were from a range of Asian countries (e. g. Campbell & Li, 2008; Hocking & Toh, 2010; Lee et al., 2013; Li, 2016), although some focused exclusively on international students from China (Skyrme, 2013; Zhang & Brunton, 2007). One exception, de Magalhães et al. (2019) investigated the academic writing experiences of one Pakeha and two South American students, but these were all engaged in their doctoral studies.

Another exception, Skyrme (2018) tracked international L2 students' experiences related to their academic writing experiences after completing the English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) course in their first semester of undergraduate studies in a NZ university. The study's participants were L2 speakers of English studying towards various majors. Although this longitudinal research was extensive and rich in findings, it was limited to a single university in NZ and the range of the participants' linguistic background was not clearly stated.

Accordingly, there is an obvious lack of longitudinal qualitative research on the academic writing experiences of first-year undergraduate international L2 students. There is also a lack of such research carried out specifically in the NZ university context. As the result, and in order to examine the complex process surrounding international L2 students' attempts to meet the multifaceted demands of academic writing at undergraduate level, this study employs four case studies to trace the trajectory of the academic lives of these international L2 students as they negotiate their first years of academic study in the NZ university context, focusing in particular on their academic writing experiences.

1.7.2 Study design

This study will involve four case studies of four international students who are all second language speakers of English enrolled on undergraduate programs across three NZ universities. Following Kiely (2005), case studies can provide “in-depth contextual information on processes and outcomes for program improvement, illuminating unique or unusual aspects of a research phenomenon, generating theory, or enlightening a wider

scholarly or policy-making audience” (pp. 7-8). The participants are all enrolled in different discipline areas, Chemistry and Biological Sciences, Business, Marine Biology, and Computer and Information Science. The data was collected using a variety of qualitative methods, including interviews with students, as well as the analysis of documents such as assignment requirements, marking criteria, student written assignments, and lecturer’s feedback on students’ written assignments throughout the 2017 academic year. By triangulating and corroborating the multiple data sources the results provide significant insights into the changing academic writing experiences and strategies of international first-year undergraduate L2 students, how they critically reflect on the relevance and usefulness of their prior knowledge about writing, as well as how and when they develop the specific kinds of proficiency necessary for writing in their new academic context.

1.7.3 Research questions

This study attempts to answer the following research questions:

RQ 1. What challenges do international L2 speakers in the early 21st century encounter throughout the first year of their university studies as they attempt to meet the academic writing standards demanded by their institutions?

RQ 2. In what way do international students’ prior learning and experiences, including preparatory academic English courses, such as IELTS, successfully prepare these students for the challenges they encounter throughout the first year of their academic study?

RQ 3. How do the students’ perception of, and approach to their academic writing practices, including their prior learning, consciously change as their first year of study progresses?

In answering the research questions, this study aims to track the individual strategies that international L2 students develop to help them meet the various English academic writing demands in their programmes during their first year of undergraduate studies in NZ universities. It also investigates how these strategies influence students’ choice of further actions and their impact on students’ overall study performance. Furthermore, by looking at issues identified by the students themselves, this study hopes to broaden

educators' understanding of what is happening on the other side of the teaching arena. It may also assist teachers to better support students' adaptation to their undergraduate studies.

1.7.4 Thesis structure

This thesis consists of 10 chapters.

The first introductory chapter has set out the motivation for the current study. Then, it has provided the background situation with regards to HE worldwide and, particularly, in the NZ context. The chapter then provided the knowledge from the existing literature related to factors influencing students' decisions in their choice of country for further education and particularly an HE provider. It also spoke about language, academic, and socio-cultural challenges that international L2 students face when starting their studies in an overseas institution with English as the medium of instruction (EMI). Mainly, these challenges are related to the differences international L2 students observe between their previous academic writing experience and writing practices in their undergraduate studies.

Chapter 2 details the theoretical framework behind academic writing in higher education. It traces how literacy has historically evolved from being attributed only to civilised societies to being recognised as context-dependent with the necessity to scrutinise different cultural settings that it is used in. It also describes various literacy models and approaches, including the academic literacy approach and its relevance to the academic context of international L2 students studying in NZ universities.

Chapter 3 discusses various academic help-seeking strategies that students may use during their studies at tertiary level institutions with EMI. The chapter first discusses various adaptive, and then, maladaptive help-seeking strategies. Since academic help-seeking is closely related to students' self-efficacy, agency, and motivation, these notions are also discussed. After that, the chapter discusses various adaptive help-seeking strategies in relation to academic writing in HE institutions worldwide and specifically in NZ, which include Student Learning Centre (SLC) and off-campus proofreading service.

Chapter 4 describes the methodological approach. Based on the social constructionist worldview applied in this study, case study methodology was adopted. The chapter details data collection procedures providing information about the participants, site of the study, and data collection instruments that allowed tracking students' coping strategies with regard to challenges with academic writing in their first year of studies. Data analysis procedures are described in detail in order to achieve reliability and validity of the study results.

Chapters 5-8 present the research findings of each case study. Each of these chapters starts with a description of each participant's context and previous academic experience. Following this, the study results are presented, followed by discussion in relation to the three RQs. Each chapter is then summarised.

Chapter 9 triangulates the study findings from each case study and discusses them in relation to the three RQs. The chapter starts with the discussion of the key findings in relation to the participants' challenges that they faced in their first year undergraduate writing practices. The chapter then discusses the role of self-efficacy, agency, and motivation in the formation of the participants' perceptions regarding their academic writing practices at NZ HE institutions. The chapter is then summarised.

Following the Discussion chapter, limitations of the study, implications, and suggestions for future research are outlined in Chapter 10 and the thesis is concluded.

Chapter 2. Theoretical framework

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the theoretical framework behind academic writing in higher education. It starts by describing the changes in the way literacy has been perceived over time. It then highlights the shift from traditional view on literacy to the New Literacy Studies (NLS) approach. After that, the chapter presents historical development of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and its branches, i.e. English for Academic Purposes (EAP), English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP), English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP), and Critical English for Academic Purposes (CEAP). After discussing the differences between EAP and academic literacies, the chapter presents Lea and Street's (1998) academic literacies approach and describes its three interconnected models. The chapter ends with the discussion of challenges students face with regard to academic writing within and across the disciplines.

2.2 Evolution of the definition of literacy

The Merriam-Webster dictionary (2020a, 2020b) states that the concept of literacy was first used in 1880 meaning “the quality or state of being literate”, i.e. “able to read and write”. Currently, these criteria are the minimum in identifying someone as literate (Bailey, 2009) because the term literacy has greatly expanded from about the mid-20th century. Currently there are many definitions of literacy. For example, Lanham (1995) has identified it as “the ability to understand information however presented” (p.198). With technological advancement, literacy now also involves new powerful technologies, which require information literacy, i.e. the ability to search, find and evaluate information (Baig et al., 2019), media literacy, i.e. ability to comprehend and communicate via technology (Potter, 2018), or visual literacy, i.e. understanding visual information (Barton, 2017). Literacy nowadays addresses the importance of cultural and linguistic varieties of written text, taking into consideration “varying social contexts and cultural identities” (Zheng et al., 2018, p. 1). However, even with the expanded view on literacy, the term remains framed within certain ideologies and power relations (Stieger

& Jekel, 2019). The following sections portrait the historical background of literacy and draw its evolutionary path. It indicates how views of literacy have altered.

2.3 The ‘literacy thesis’ and the ‘Great Divide’ theory

One of the most influential trains of thought was the literacy thesis. The term ‘literacy thesis’ finds its origins in the works of Havelock (1963) and Goody and Watt (1968). It posits that literacy is a single and universal skill related to the reading and writing abilities of an individual. This traditional view held the belief that the development and spread of literacy were a result of spread of individualism (Gee, 1986). Similar to Goody’s (1977) ‘Great Divide’ theory, which viewed societies on a dichotomy of civilised/primitive (Goody & Watt, 1968), the ‘literacy thesis’ perceived societies on a binary scale literate/non-literate prioritising written language over orality (Goody, 1977). Societies with literacy were described as having diverse population, widespread literacy and technology, and a sense of science. Such societies were seen as having analytic, logical, and abstract thinking skills.

2.4 The rise of written language

Following the “Great Divide” theory (Goody, 1977, 1986) writing was viewed as the ability to make the relationship between a word and its meaning more abstract and less connected to the specifics of time and space, as in oral communication. With the development of writing, modes of thought and cultural organisation changed (Goody, 1977). Writing was described as a necessity for disclosing the full potential of human consciousness, without which there was little space for the development of science, philosophy, literature, art, and even speech (Ong, 1982). With writing there was no need to memorise events, they could be preserved in abstract language (Havelock, 1963). Additionally, written language could be constructed over time and was less subject to immediate feedback, making it less closely connected with the person, place and time of communication (Chafe, 1982; Street, 1984). Since writing is slower than speaking and the writer has access to the text over time, written text can be changed allowing the expression of ideas in a more complex, logical, and syntactic way (Chafe, 1982; Gee, 1986; Hildyard & Olson, 1978; Ong, 1982). This way, the final written product is more

integrated and independent, while speaking is more fragmented and contextualised (Chafe, 1982).

2.4.1 Benefits of literacy

In their work, Goody and Watt (1968) claim that literacy results in higher-order thinking. Those with writing skills, are viewed as having higher cognitive ability to criticise and analyse. In other words, literacy liberates consciousness.

Greenfield and Bruner (1966) proposed the thesis that writing enhances cognitive abilities. Their supposition was largely derived from Greenfield's (1966) research in Senegal comparing schooled and unschooled Wolof children's ability to complete a cognitive task, i.e. their ability to group items by form, function, and colour, and, subsequently, explain their decision. The author observed three prominent differences between the two groups of children. Firstly, schooled children were able to allocate items into various categories at different times, while unschooled children tended to stick to one way of sorting things. Secondly, schooled children could use full sentences, rather than simply providing a label to objects, as the unschooled children did. Thirdly, schooled children could provide an oral explanation for their decision-making, while unschooled children struggled to do so. The author concluded that schooled children had a greater ability for abstract thinking.

2.5 Breaking point in view on literacy

The traditional belief that literacy was an individual ability promoting personal advancement, economic and political development, and improvement of standards of living (Graff, 1987), lacked empirical evidence, and became known as the 'literacy myth' (Graff & Duffy, 2008). In the 1980s, the stereotypes of nonliterate societies being inferior in thinking skills were challenged by anthropological research which showed that these cultures had as complex a worldview and as elegant language structures as those associated with logical thought in modern societies (Gee, 1986). It was argued that higher order cognitive skills differed across cultures, but all societies and individuals possessed scientific and non-scientific thought (Street, 1984).

Some of the first researchers who initiated a post-structural view on literacy and its correlation with intellectual development were Scribner and Cole (1978). They questioned the direct link between writing and logical thinking by observing Vai literates and non-literates on the northwest coast of Liberia. This society had developed its own syllabic writing script that was passed on from generation to generation without the need for schooling, providing the researchers with a unique opportunity for investigation. After longitudinal field work and a number of tests, the authors were able to conclude that literate and nonliterate members of the Vai community were not significantly different in their cognitive abilities. The insight from the findings led to the conclusion that if schooling seeks to develop logical thinking, appropriate teaching techniques and instructional programmes should be implemented, rather than expecting these skills to emerge simply because students are able to read and write.

2.6 Plurality of literacy

Following insights from Scribner and Cole's study, literacy was re-defined. It was regarded not just as the individual ability but also took into consideration the socio-cultural context in which literacy practices occurred (Barton, 2017; Gee, 1986). It was recognised that writing cannot be context-free as a text is based on pre-existing cultural knowledge (Halverson, 1992). Literacy of one society was seen as different from another society or its subgroup and researchers questioned the assumption that literacy was a single universal and neutral skill, which could be transferred to other societies and individuals (Street, 1993). Understanding literacy practices requires an in-depth study of cultural settings (Burnett et al., 2014; Gee, 1989; Lea, 2004).

Labov (1973) researched the speech of Afro-American youth in the New York ghetto. He realised that the use of their supposedly incorrect grammar and vocabulary was linked to their social context and the way the language was constructed with its own concepts of tense, verb phrases, pronouns, and word order. The author concluded that their dialect was a highly structured and logical system. He further expanded his critique of literacy versus orality with positing that tested knowledge is mainly based on "the social conventions of a dominant class, rather than universal logic" (Street, 1984, p. 27).

Street (1984) believed that attention to a particular context is important for understanding certain social practices and cultural values. In his anthropological field

study in an Iranian community, Street looked at people's identity and their ability to read and write. In the village, the author identified a number of 'literacies' but mainly focused on the development of two 'literacies' that were prevalent in the society. Both of these 'literacies' were closely related to the context of the Iranian village. 'Maktab' was a literacy acquired in Quranic schools and the way learners' identity was associated with learning the Quran in the male dominant society. This 'maktab' literacy facilitated the development of another, 'commercial', literacy in the context of selling fruit to other inhabited places nearby.

In other words, up until the 1980s literacy was looked at as a stand-alone notion, with no relation to a particular context (Gee, 1990; Street, 1984). However, recognising the plurality of literacy, the term 'literacies' was developed. Various literacies were recognised, such as "legal literacy, gamer literacy, country music literacy, or academic literacy" (Gee, 2010, p. 4). Gee believes that specific ways of writing texts in specific contexts is determined by the values of different social groups, recognising literacy as multiple and contextually situated (Johns, 2008) and, thus, requiring an in-depth study of its cultural settings (Gee, 1989; Lea, 2004).

The traditional view on literacy as universal and ideologically neutral has been widely refuted. Literacy nowadays should not be seen as a stand-alone notion but rather be viewed as a product of historical, political, cultural, and economic changes. Literacy is a product of certain practices and uses, reflecting the power relations and ideologies guiding them. The view on literacy has taken a more socio-cultural turn, moving away from the concern with individual minds and behaviours. Proponents of the New Literacy Studies (NLS) were among those who supported the social aspect in the view of literacy.

2.7 New Literacy Studies (NLS)

New Literacy Studies (NLS) draw on studies of linguistics and social anthropology. NLS researchers recognise that reading and writing vary across cultures, time and space, and the meanings associated with literacy vary for participants and are rooted in social relationships, including crucial relationships of power (Kress & Street, 2005). From an ethnographic point of view, literacies are social practices and their understanding

requires “in-depth accounts of actual practice in different cultural settings” (Street, 1993, p.1).

In addition to socio-cultural (Scribner & Cole, 1981) and anthropological research (Street, 1984) on reading and writing, another discipline that should not be overlooked when discussing the ‘social turn’ on literacy is Applied Linguistics (Gee, 1990; Heath, 1983). Taking insights from the discipline, Heath (1983) coined the term ‘literacy events’. They are “occasion[s] in which a piece of writing is integral to the nature of the participants’ interactions and their interpretive processes” (Heath, 1983, p. 50). Street (1984) broadened this concept to ‘literacy practices’ referring to both behaviour and conceptualisations used in reading and writing as “empirical occasions to which literacy is integral” (p. 12). The concept of ‘literacy practices’ attempts to link the literacy events to cultural and social events, and activities around them (Street, 2006). This makes researchers look at ‘literacy practices’ as broader cultural concepts of particular ways of thinking about and ‘doing’ reading and writing in specific contexts. As context plays one of the central parts in NLS, Street (1993) proposes that researchers study not only the immediate ‘context of utterance’ but also include the broader social and conceptual framework, which will lead to the development of theories and methods foregrounding the social context. This will provide greater knowledge of social and cultural life, which is central in Street’s (1984) ‘ideological’ model of literacy, which is discussed in greater detail in Section 2.8.2. According to this approach, literacy can be defined only from people’s perspective and the social contexts in which it plays out.

2.8 Literacies and literacy models

Over time a number of literacy models have been proposed. The following sub-sections discuss the leading literacy and literacies models and theories. As an alternative approach to the “Great Divide” theory, several models of academic literacy have been developed in the past few decades. Street (1984, 2005), for example, differentiates between “autonomous” and “ideological” models of literacy.

2.8.1 The ‘Autonomous’ model

In the ‘autonomous’ model, literacy is not associated with social conditions, cultural interpretations, or educational programs. It is viewed in technical terms and is treated as independent of social context. Ong (1982) states that written language is isolated from the interlocutor and context, thus making the utterance pure, unambiguous, self-contained, and complete. Olson (1988) argues that writing alters the use and structure of oral language not only in terms of social development and progress, but also in terms of individual cognitive processes. This happens with the development of writing, which takes the memory function on itself, leaving the mind to more analytic activities, such as examining contradictions, and making logical conclusions.

The ‘autonomous’ model looks at literacies in different cultures through the prism of western conceptions of literacy (Street, 2006), i.e. mostly academic discourse among intellectual elite, mainly in the form of an essay (Besnier, 1988). Reading and writing skills are considered neutral and universal. Educationalists, linguists, and psychologists believed that the acquired literacy skills would lead to higher cognitive and critical skills which would improve self-conscious reflection (Street, 1993). Hence, this model disguises cultural and ideological assumptions and simply imposes western meaning of literacy onto other culture and the ways it should be acquired, disregarding the social and ideological character of literacy and the context it appears in (Robinson-Pant, 2004). This view makes it an inappropriate tool for understanding the diverse writing and reading practices around the world (Robinson-Pant, 2004).

2.8.2 The ‘Ideological’ model

The alternative, ‘ideological’, model of literacy is very much aligned with NLS in offering a more culturally sensitive view of literacy practices. It starts from the premise that literacy is a social practice (Street, 2005); the premise states that people’s ideas of reading and writing are “rooted in conceptions of knowledge, identity, being” (Street, 2006, p. 2). Engaging with literacy is a social act on its own, and particular social practices affect the nature of literacy and users’ understanding of its practice. So, literacy cannot in this sense be neutral, as it is ‘ideological’ and rooted in a particular worldview (Gee, 1990). People who may be viewed as ‘illiterate’ in the ‘autonomous’ model, will be seen as making extensive use of literacy practices in specific contexts (Street, 1993).

The ‘ideological’ model of literacy is rooted in identity and cultural knowledge (Gee, 1996). It “emphasises not only cultural meanings but also the power dimension of reading and writing processes” (Street, 2005, p. 418). It offers a more culturally sensitive view on literacy, looking at how local people acquire new communicative practices, making literacy part of a power relationship (Street, 2006).

Although there are a number of literacies, the present study focuses on academic literacies and specifically the academic writing of international L2 students at HE institutions. The following sections describe the development of the teaching of academic English, and the various approaches to which it gave rise.

2.9 From academic literacy to academic literacies

Recognising the plurality of literacy, Duff (2010) defines academic literacies as “oral and written communication-genres, registers, graphics, linguistic structures, interactional patterns that are privileges, expected, cultivated, conventionalized, or ritualised” (p.175). The notion of ‘academic literacies’ appeared in the 1990s in the UK and South African context of growing diversification in HE (Lillis & Tuck, 2016). The assumption that acquired academic skills were transferable from context to context (Lea & Street, 1998; Lillis, 2001, 2014) was contested. It was argued that ‘default’ teaching practices were no longer suitable in the context of political and social transformations in HE (Lillis & Tuck, 2016). Massification and, consequently, the internationalisation of HE (see Chapter 1) meant that HE student population could no longer be viewed as a homogenous group. As the result, lecturers could not rely on students having certain skills as far as academic language was concerned. Instead, academic literacies researchers realised the importance of students’ experiences and perspectives that could be reflected in their academic writing (Lea & Street, 1998; Lillis, 2001). Following the NLS movement, academic literacies were viewed from a sociocultural perspective (Street, 1984). The academic literacies approach drew on “a number of disciplinary fields and subfields such as applied linguistics and sociolinguistics, anthropology, sociocultural theories of learning, new literacy studies and discourse studies” (Lillis & Scott, 2007, p. 5). Accordingly, a number of authors (e.g. Elola et al., 2018; Palmer et al., 2018; Street, 2015; Wingate, 2018) no longer viewed literacy as singular but rather as a range of capabilities required to communicate in specific academic discourse

communities, which involved reading and evaluating information, and then presenting it either orally or in writing.

Although there are a number of literacies, the present study focuses on academic literacies and specifically the academic writing of international L2 students at HE institutions. The following sections describe the development of the teaching of academic English, and the various approaches to which it gave rise.

2.10 English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

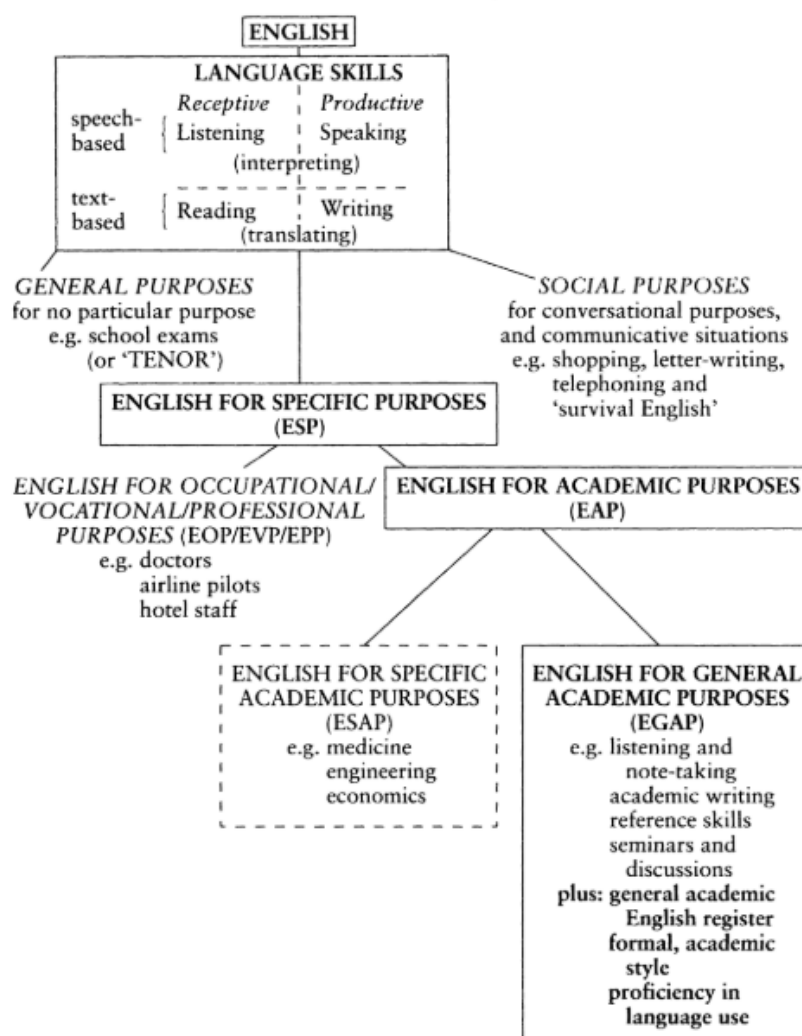
English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is a parent-term for English language courses that intend to prepare speakers of other language for studies or work in a specific context (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). Examples of ESP can be English for business, English for science and technology, and vocational ESL (Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1991). The focus of ESP teaching has shifted over the years. Originally, ESP focused on linguistic features of a discipline-specific language (Swales, 1985). Recent ESP proposes that in addition to teaching language, it should also teach students discipline-specific conceptual knowledge (Basturkmen, 2014).

Throughout its history ESP has been concerned with learner needs and purposes. In other words, it has focused on specific needs facing learners in their discipline studies, occupations, or activities (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001). This has been reflected in materials design (Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1991). As seen in Figure 2.1, the two main branches of ESP are English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP). Each of these branches is then divided into discipline- or occupation-specific areas (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001). So, EAP may be divided into English for Mathematics, or English for Medicine, while EOP may be divided into English for doctors, or English for hotel staff (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001; Jordan, 1997). The division between these two branches of ESP has been criticised as not being clear-cut. An EAP course, that students take in the academy, may essentially be classified as students' preparation for work in the area, and, therefore, may be identified as EOP (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001). In response to this critique, Flowerdew and Peacock (2001) suggest a division of EAP into academic and occupational sectors. While both of these sectors are to be based in the academic world, the focus of the former would be on assisting students with studies, while the latter would aim to prepare students for their professions. Nonetheless, a more traditional division of EAP

is presented in Figure 2.1, where EAP branches out into English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) and English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP). The following sub-sections provide in-depth discussions of EAP (Section 2.10.1) and its branches, i.e. EGAP (Section 2.10.1.1), and ESAP (Section 2.10.1.2). Firstly, each of these branches are discussed in terms of their background and teaching aims, followed by a general critique surrounding EAP teaching. Then, Critical English for Academic Purposes (CEAP) is discussed.

Figure 2.1

English Language Skills and Purpose of English Language Courses



Note. Reprinted from “*English for academic purposes: A guide and resource book for teachers*” (p. 3) by R.R.

Jordan, 1997, Cambridge University Press. Copyright 1997 by Cambridge University Press

2.10.1 English for Academic Purposes (EAP)

EAP, or ‘Academic literacy support’ (Skinner & Mort, 2009) is “the teaching of English with the specific aim of helping learners to study, conduct research or teach in that language” (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001, p. 8). The term ‘EAP’ is believed to have been coined by Johns in 1974 but appeared in 1977 in the publication edited by Cowie and Eaton (Jordan, 2002). Since then it has been accepted and now occupies an important part in language teaching and research (Hyland & Shaw, 2016).

Some of the most prominent reasons for EAP development are massification, internalisation and diversification of HE, which have been discussed in-depth in Chapter 1. As the result of these socio-economic changes, English has raised its status as the language of academia and research (Hyland, 2006). To advance their careers, understand their disciplines, and to be successful learners, students, whose speak a first language other than English, need to acquire the language, as well as master relatively standardised norms of academic writing in their discipline areas (Hyland, 2006). To support learners with such ambitions, EAP was developed. EAP is seen as a part of applied linguistics, which evaluates and explores teaching methods (Hyland, 2006).

On the one hand, EAP is a practice-driven activity (Bruce, 2011; Dudley-Evans, 2001) whose focus is on curriculum and instruction (Hyland, 2006). It tends to apply a number of theories and methods in classroom practices, among which are Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), Discourse Analysis (DA), communicative language teaching, and contrastive rhetoric. To present students with certain knowledge and skills, EAP curricula developers first investigate discipline-specific characteristics in particular settings, which then are applied in classroom teaching by EAP instructors (Dudley-Evans, 2001). This specificity of taught material serves researchers in the EAP field as an indication of the kind of data that need to be collected and the ways in which it should be collected. This specificity also allows for the easy identification of theories to adopt in interpreting these data (Hyland, 2016).

However, EAP is also learner-centered and needs-driven (Bruce, 2011), i.e. it focuses on what learners’ motivation for learning the language are. One of the largely used ways to identify learners’ needs is through needs analysis (Perez-Llantada & Swales, 2016). Needs analysis assists EAP teachers in identifying and supporting students in developing skills, which are necessary for their discipline-specific studies. Apart from fostering such skills, EAP teachers also reinforce the transfer of learners’ existing skills

to their studies at HE with English as the medium of instruction (EMI) (Hyland & Shaw, 2016). In other words, EAP deals with L2 learners' acquisition of academic language, claiming to offer students the knowledge of linguistic textual structures which would be effective in discipline studies (Hyland & Shaw, 2016).

The two branches of EAP, which are EGAP and ESAP are discussed in the sub-sections below.

2.10.1.1 English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP)

One of the branches of EAP is English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP). EGAP stems from the belief that there are general language and study skills that are common across various disciplines (Bruce, 2005; Hyland & Shaw, 2016; McCarter & Jakes, 2009). Hence, EGAP adopts a more neutral approach to teaching academic literacy, i.e. focusing on general, value-free rules and linguistic features, which can be used in any context (Hyland & Shaw, 2016). These skills are, but not restricted to, grammar, punctuation, skim and scan reading, paraphrasing, summarising, listening and note-taking, writing essays and reports, referencing, as well as participating in seminars and class discussions, with an emphasis on communicative academic and pedagogic practices predominant in the Western academia (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998; Hyland, 2006; Hyland & Shaw, 2016). It was argued that once such generic skills were learnt in isolation, students would also be able to apply them in different contexts and for a variety of purposes (Hyland & Shaw, 2016). Additionally, Hutchison & Water (1987), for instance, claimed that there were not enough variations in language forms and structures across disciplines to differentiate and teach them in separate discipline-specific courses. Hence, they suggested grouping students in EGAP classes and developing curricula based on a variety of disciplinary texts and topics, focusing teaching on what is known as "common core" language features (Bloor & Bloor, 1986), or features found in nearly all disciplines. An example of such features may be generic academic English register, formal academic style and language proficiency. Thus, EGAP does not recognise that students might have specific language needs (Hutchison & Water, 1987).

Furthermore, supporters of EGAP argue that EGAP teachers, who are discipline outsiders, lack sufficient knowledge to identify and teach specific varieties of the language. Spack (1988), for instance, argues that EAP teachers have insufficient discipline-specific knowledge of certain subjects, so they are better off leaving subject-

specific knowledge to discipline specialists and focusing on general linguistic features and general principles of inquiry and rhetoric. Conversely, Dudley-Evans & St John (1998), for instance, argue that some discipline-specific material may be taught as general content, where EGAP teachers or students would not require much specific knowledge in tackling a task.

Another reason for teaching general academic English stemmed from the belief that EAP is difficult for those students who lack language proficiency. Thus, Spack (1988) advised that EAP should equip students with ‘general English’ which may be found in and applied to a range of academic contexts before they focus on the language specifics in their disciplines. In this view, learning is seen as a gradual process of mastering core linguistic forms before learning more specific linguistic requirements. Additionally, discipline-specific vocabulary has been argued to be relatively unproblematic for students (Hutchinson & Water, 1987).

Relatively recent research, however, indicated a number of issues with EGAP. A number of corpus-based studies, for example, have identified that there may not be a large variety of language sets which are the same across the disciplines (Durrant, 2014; Hyland & Tse, 2007). Additionally, studies have shown that non-native students struggle with acquiring discipline-specific vocabulary when starting their studies in HE institutions (Berman & Cheng, 2010; Evans & Morrison, 2011b). Hence, there is a need for more discipline-specific language classes, such as English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP).

2.10.1.2 English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP)

ESAP bases its teaching on the assumption that specific disciplines have specific language features, which students need to acquire to be successful in their HE studies (Flowerdew, 2016). With a number of previous research studies supporting the fact that discourses across disciplines vary (Benson, 1991; Perez-Llantada & Swales, 2016), ‘common core’ teaching needs to be supplemented by identifying students’ more specific needs and language difficulties within their discipline studies (Perez-Llantada & Swales, 2016).

Although teaching ESAP may seem similar to EGAP courses, it has a different methodological approach to teaching. In the more specific EAP classes teachers may view themselves as being of an equal status with the students, who are viewed as

experts in their disciplines (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). This way, ESAP teachers are more of language consultants, who draw on the content knowledge from their students in order to generate classroom engagement (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). Because they are dealing with knowledge from their disciplines and being viewed as discipline experts, students are believed to be more motivated for classroom tasks and discussions (Hadjiconstantinou & Nikiforou, 2012).

However, there is a lot of criticism of EAP and its branches. Debate surrounding EAP is presented in the sub-section below.

2.10.2 Criticism of EAP and its branches

EAP has been criticised from a number of perspectives. Firstly, benefiting from the expansion of English across the globe, EAP has turned English teaching and learning into big business which has been of benefit to HE institutions using EMI (e.g. Altbach et al., 2017; Boston, 1999; Gray, 2016; Heller, 2016; Holdsworth, 2009; Marginson, 2016; Roper, 2018). As a result, EAP is often viewed as a money-generating entity (Gray, 2016; Heller, 2016; Roper, 2018), which possibly leads to lowered standards in teaching English (Holdsworth, 2009). Such lowered standards may be detrimental to students during their academic studies at HE.

Secondly, EAP fails to acknowledge variations between discipline genres (Hyland & Shaw, 2016; Krashen, 2011). While this is problematic, what is, perhaps, a greater problem for L2 students is that EAP appears to develop and support relatively stable Anglophone academic norms and conventions. As a result, EAP has been condemned for being ‘accommodationist’ (Benesch, 1993, p 714), seeking to perpetuate Western academic norms (Allison, 1996). Consequently, learners have been viewed as passive members in a teacher-centred classroom environment (Hyland, 2006). It is mainly this teacher-centred classroom approach that has led to the loss of voice of L2 students who come from non-Western backgrounds (Allison, 1996). In academic writing, student voice is the capacity of students to represent their own ideas in an attempt to contribute to the academic debate in a discipline-specific area (Hyland, 2002). Canagarajah (2002) argues that accepting new voices enables progress in the discourse of that community.

EAP teachers have also been criticised because they often lack discipline-specific knowledge. This may lead to shallow classroom discussions and essays (Pennycook,

1997a). In this, there may be certain harm for the students, as they are presented with limited opportunities and possibilities to question how language works within the classroom. EAP has been criticised for focusing on general academic norms and conventions disregarding the authenticity of discipline-specific variations of genres and discourse practices, which do not adhere to general templates (Alexander, 2019; Benson, 1991; Bruce, 2018; Durrant, 2016; Hyland & Shaw, 2016; Nesi et al., 2017; Robertson, 2017). EAP teachers traditionally introduce the writing practice of a five-paragraph essay as an example of a general essay structure (Macbeth, 2010; Wesley, 2000). They encourage beginning an essay with an Introduction, which starts with a broad topic sentence and lists arguments that will be raised in each of the subsequent “Body” paragraphs. Alexander (2019) further mentions that paragraphs have a certain structure, where the first sentence states the topic and subsequent sentences are a coherent development of it. When practicing writing paragraphs, students are taught to achieve coherence in a number of ways, such as cause and effect, contrast, comparison, and use of discourse markers, for example, ‘however’, ‘additionally’, ‘in conclusion’ (Alexander, 2019). The essay is traditionally concluded with recapturing of what it has covered (Alexander, 2019; Hjortshøj, 2001). However, it is widely acknowledged that learning discipline-specific written genres is probably more likely to be achieved through writing in the target community (Casanave, 2002; Hyland & Shaw, 2016; Macbeth, 2010), so teaching general norms and structures may lead students to believe that they will be well-prepared for their academic studies (Hyland & Shaw, 2016; Macbeth, 2010).

Another prominent feature that has been criticised in EAP teaching is presenting students with general academic vocabulary (Durrant, 2009, 2016; Hyland & Tse, 2007). It has been claimed that academic discipline-specific vocabulary is challenging for non-native speakers (Durrant, 2016). As a result of such claims, EAP has focused on vocabulary, which is distinctive to academic language across a range of disciplines, leaving discipline-specific vocabulary to discipline teachers (Durrant, 2016; Farhady et al., 2018; Flowerdew, 2016). However, research indicates that there are not a large number of language forms and vocabulary sets which are frequent across disciplines, stating that academic language is more discipline-specific (Durrant, 2014; Martínez et al., 2009). Hence, this more general approach to teaching academic literacy does not equip students with the ability to communicate adequately in their chosen discipline (Wingate, 2018).

What has been considered one of the main weakness of EAP, however, is that it is seen by the HE institutional body as “a low-status service activity” (Hyland & Shaw, 2016, p. 2), accepting the role of a servant to discipline studies instead of developing its own subject knowledge and skills (Hyland & Shaw, 2016; Pennycook, 1997a). Benesch (1993) states that proponents of EAP endorse existing power relations which aim to assimilate L2 students into current academic standards. This view of EAP leads to decontextualised pedagogy, deprofessionalising teachers and marginalising EAP teaching as a whole (Hyland & Shaw, 2016).

Partly in answer to this criticism, Critical English for Academic Purposes (CEAP) was developed.

2.10.3 Critical English for Academic Purposes (CEAP)

CEAP views learning as a part of a broader social and ideological context taking students’ and teachers’ social identities, including class, gender, race, and age, into account (Benesch, 2009). In the context of English classes in Western universities, teachers should recognise and acknowledge social diversity and various gender discourses in their classroom teaching in order to create awareness of the multiplicity of societal norms (Appleby, 2009; Benesch, 2009). CEAP encourages teachers, on the one hand, to assist L2 students in acculturating into the Western academic and social discourse, while, on the other hand, supports them in creating space for the questioning and exploration of various cultural and societal differences (Appleby, 2009; Benesch, 2009).

Because it is sensitive to social and political differences, CEAP considers power relations in the societies as well as in the classroom (Benesch, 2009). Benesch (1999) follows Foucault’s (1980) concept of power. Foucault sees power as the main issue in today’s life, explaining that it is omnipresent, not “localized in the State apparatus” (p. 60). He further explains that it seeks answers to such questions as “Who makes decisions for me? Who is preventing me from doing this and telling me to do that? How are these decisions on which my life is completely articulated taken?” (p. 103). In the educational context, Benesch recognises teachers’ struggle to cover the material prescribed by departments, while allowing students to implement teaching practices in a way that seems to be more beneficial for students’ learning. Benesch (1999) recognises

students as active participants and suggests using, what she calls, ‘rights analysis’ (p. 314) in addition to needs analysis. She identifies ‘rights analysis’ as the study of power relations and the way they are exhibited as well as resisted in the classroom. Rights analysis acknowledges that each educational situation offers its own opportunities and that students have the possibility to engage in negotiation and resistance. Rights are viewed as a conceptual framework in which students are entitled to question authority, control, and practice resistance.

Another renowned advocate for CEAP is Pennycook. He (1997b) promotes “critical” pragmatism of EAP as opposed to “vulgar” pragmatism (Cherryholmes, 1988). While vulgar pragmatism accepts standards, set norms, and conventions that are rooted in societal and academic practices, critical pragmatism calls for evaluating and assessing such grounded discourse practices, questioning their status quo. Pennycook views the English language as a social practice, which is contextually situated. Hence, the author argues that EAP should assist students to develop their own linguistic forms and allow them to question how the language works within and outside the academy. He calls for the development of EAP curricula that critically examine and challenge the discourses that construct teachers’ and students’ worldview. Similarly to Benesch (1999), Pennycook (1997b) advocates for teaching the set norms of academic discourse, while promoting culturally diverse practices.

Pennycook’s position has been influenced by another researcher (Clark, 1992), who also encourages students to critically question teaching practices and academic norms. In Clark’s view, EAP should support students’ challenging of set academic genres by encouraging them to critically analyse text, paying attention to its socio-historical context and the way certain forms of knowledge are constructed in discourse communities. Clark believes there are four norms that students must follow: validating arguments, relating arguments to stated aims, using a recognised referencing style, and avoiding plagiarism. Pennycook (1997b) supports the idea of scrutinising these conventions, advocating for pluralism of academic writing norms.

2.11 EAP versus academic literacies

Both academic literacies and EAP courses are focused on assisting students communicating their knowledge in the English language in the context of HE

institutions. They foreground and make explicit academic conventions emphasising “the importance of investigating academic literacy as a highly situated [social] practice” (Lillis & Tuck, 2016, p. 39). Both these teaching practices have academic language as their focal point (Turner, 2011b).

Despite some similarities between these two approaches, Lillis and Tuck (2016) identify certain differences. Firstly, while EAP focuses mainly on the text, academic literacies also investigates the producer of the text. Secondly, EAP uses ‘standard (academic) English’ (ibid, p. 39) in the way native speakers presumably do. In contrast, academic literacies challenges the assumption that there is a single variety of English. Academic literacies acknowledges that a large variety of students, currently present in academia, may bring with them the norms from their own English vernacular. Thirdly, EAP disregards the value of students’ own writing experiences that they bring with them into the Western academy, while academic literacies takes them into consideration. Lastly, EAP believes that once target genres and conventions are identified, they are not questioned. Instead, EAP presents students with discipline-specific conventions, expecting students to adapt them. Conversely, academic literacies believes that academic discourse changes in response to the needs of its users. Hence, gatekeepers and other stakeholders, including students themselves, are responsible for transforming it (Lillis & Tuck, 2016, pp. 39-40).

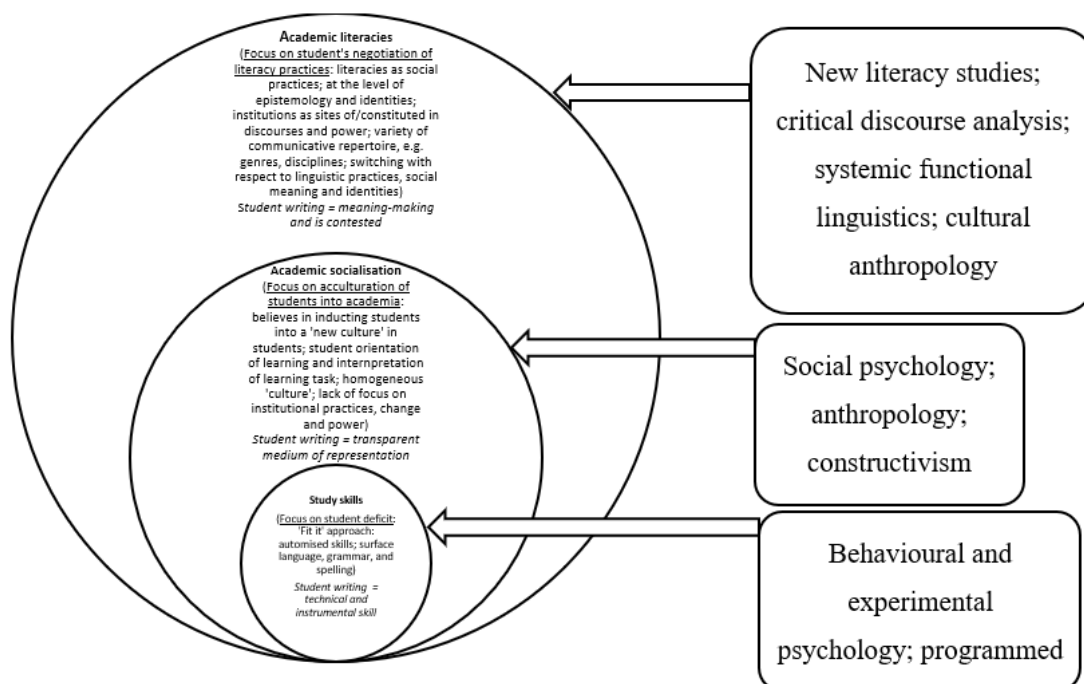
EAP views teaching and acquisition of academic literacy as a straightforward process, while Lea and Street (1998) suggest using the ‘academic literacies’ approach, which takes teaching literacy beyond surface-level features of the language by focusing on students’ negotiation of literacy practices.

2.12 Academic literacies approach

As can be seen from Figure 2.2, Academic literacies approach is based on three overlapping models of 1) study skills, 2) academic socialisation, and 3) academic literacies.

Figure 2.2

Models of Student Writing in HE



Note. Adapted from “Student writing and staff feedback in higher education: An academic literacies approach” by M.R. Lea and B. Street, 2000. The Society for Research into Higher Education (SRHE) & Open University Press. Copyright 2000 by The Editors and Contributors.

Lea and Street (2006) underline that the ‘academic literacies’ model does not deny either study skills or academic socialisation models as part of the teaching process. Instead, it encapsulates both models, as presented in Figure 2.2. This way, both ‘academic socialisation’ and the broader ‘academic literacies’ models recognise the importance of the ‘study skills’ model, i.e. the surface-level features, such as grammar. Additionally, they focus on the relation between knowledge and the way literacy is constructed. Furthermore, the broader ‘academic literacies’ model identifies literacies as social practices challenging discourses set in HE institutions. Each of these models is described in more detail in the sub-sections below.

2.12.1 Study skills model

The first model focuses on the surface features of the language, such as sentence structure, grammar, and punctuation, assuming that they can be transferred to another milieu (Lea & Street, 2000; van Rensburg & Lamberti, 2009). This model is informed by autonomous theory, behavioural and experimental psychology, and programmed learning. It pays little attention to context and meaning-making. Researchers claim that this model is commonly applied at universities in the UK (Gamache, 2002; Haggis & Pouget, 2002; Wingate, 2006). Bennett et al. (2000) refer to this approach as ‘bolt-on’, rather than embedded ‘built-in’, where study skills are divorced from the written norms in a certain discipline of study. Both the ‘bolt-on’ approach and the ‘study skills’ model outsource ‘at risk’ students to seek help outside the discipline departments. The ‘study skills’ model focuses on fixing problems related to students’ learning, which can be done with the help of language professionals and university student support services, which are available for students from any discipline of study (Lea & Street, 2000; Turner, 2011a).

However, even if they use help from students support services outside their departments, students may not find such help beneficial even for surface-level issues. There is research which identified that after seeking help with essay writing at the university writing centre, students’ written works still bore a number of surface-level errors (Sefalane-Nkohla, 2019). The analysis identified lexico-grammatical errors, and errors in the overall essay structure and paragraph structure, for which students had to seek help elsewhere, e.g. editing and proof-reading services. Although these findings are important, it needs to be acknowledged that the study was limited to only 20 participants and was confined to the South African context.

2.12.2 Academic socialisation model

The second model encompasses the ‘study skills’ model but also includes students’ abilities to use the literacy of a certain discipline, discourse, and genre. Unlike the first model, the ‘academic socialisation’ model, informed by social psychology, anthropology, and constructivism, recognises that disciplines use different discourses and written norms in constructing knowledge (Lea & Street, 2000). However, this model supposes that genres in different disciplines are similar and stable and, therefore, acquiring skills of reading and writing in one discipline will be easily transferred to

another. Thus, writing requirements may be left implicit and seen as obvious (Lea, 2008). Lea (2008) argues that the ‘academic socialisation’ model neglects the existence of various community practices in academia. Consequently, this model overlooks the issues of power relations and ideology which are constituent parts of discourse practices (Tran, 2013). As a result, this model has certain similarities with the ‘study skills’ model in viewing writing as a set of skills that, firstly, do not require explicit instructions, and, secondly, that can be easily transferred across various disciplines (Tran, 2013). Both these models serve as the point of reference in developing curricular at school and HE institutions, as well as direct teaching practices and research (Lea & Street, 2006).

2.12.3 Academic literacies model

The third, ‘academic literacies’, model is built on the values of NLS, critical discourse analysis (CDA), systemic functional linguistics (SFL), and cultural anthropology. It is more detailed and situated, foregrounding what institutions count as knowledge in each individual context, including power relations among people, institutions, and social identities (Lea & Street, 2006). Discipline professionals are seen as the authority who set up the norms for conventions in their discipline (Lea & Street, 2006). Therefore, unfamiliarity with academic writing norms and conventions might make students feel at risk (Street, 2006). However, the strength of the ‘academic literacies’ model is that it views students as active participants in the process of meaning-making in the academy, rather than seeing them as unproblematically acculturated into the academic culture (Lea, 2004). It also views literacy at the level of epistemology, making literacy practices socially and ideologically situated (Lea & Street, 2006).

In the ‘academic literacies’ model, reading and writing are situated within disciplines and serve as the centrepiece of students’ acquisition of knowledge in their study areas (Lea & Street, 1998). Here students are viewed as contributors to the writing conventions at institutions. Arkoudis and Tran (2010) state that students’ challenges with writing may go beyond study skills and surface-level features of the language. The authors see students’ cultural and personal experiences with the acquisition and delivery of knowledge in writing as of equal importance.

Nevertheless, the ‘academic literacies’ model has been criticised mainly for its lack of insights for pedagogical practices (Lillis, 2003). In response to this critique, Lea (2004) outlined some principles in teaching based on the results of a case study with postgraduate students in distant learning. The author suggests that instructors should take into consideration learners’ previous experience with writing and build on this. Furthermore, the ‘academic literacies’ model looks at general writing instructions, for example, those related to plagiarism (Lea & Street, 2006). However, due to limited qualitative research on the application of the ‘academic literacies’ model in teaching practices (Lillis & Scott, 2007), instructions for teaching writing may still need further development.

2.13 Academic skills for students’ success at tertiary level

As was mentioned in Chapter 1, academic writing has traditionally been related to any kind of writing practice in academic institutions (McNamara et al., 2018). Scholars acknowledge that writing is a complex skill to be learnt and is one of the key skills for students at universities, as they are usually assessed in writing (Tran, 2013; Uysal, 2010). Patel et al. (2011) believe that written assignments may constitute up to 90% of students’ total grade in a course.

Students are often expected to bring knowledge of academic writing with them from their pre-university schooling (Wingate, 2018). However, a number of studies indicate that academic writing may not be acquired outside specific disciplines (e.g. Drennan, 2017; Wingate, 2018). Clarence (2012) states that academic writing is a “social and knowledge practice that is informed by the values and academic conversations of particular disciplines and the ways in which knowledge is constructed and disseminated by these disciplines” (p. 127). Thus, it is necessary to introduce novice writers into discipline norms (Hedgcock & Lee, 2017). Interestingly, when students seek help in guidance with discipline-specific academic writing, not all subject lecturers are able to pinpoint and convey their understanding of genre conventions (Clarence 2012; Drennan, 2017; Lillis & Turner 2001). Lillis and Turner (2011) state that lecturers are mainly able to identify and set general requirements for writing assessments. For example, they may require writing an Introduction, but they fail to explain what goes in an introduction and how to arrange information to make it clear and logical (Drennan, 2017).

Naturally, in HE, students are asked to present their writing in accurate English which is void of errors related to surface-level features of the language, i.e. grammar, punctuation, spelling, sentence, and essay structure (Nallaya, 2018). Lillis and Turner (2001) state that lexico-grammatically correct text should additionally be coherent and cohesive. It is presumed that students possess the knowledge of discourse markers, such as ‘however’, ‘despite the fact that’, ‘insofar as’, to achieve flow in their writing.

To become successful academic writers, it is necessary for students to know a variety of writing genres that are currently present in academic community practices in their discipline area (Devitt, 2009; Hyland, 2011a). Genre “refers to abstract, socially recognised ways of using language” (Hyland, 2007, p. 149). The idea is that members of a certain discourse community have the ability to recognise features of texts which are frequently used in that community. Recognition of such features assists discourse participants in reading, understanding and writing a similar type of text (Hyland, 2007; Wingate, 2012a).

There is a number of other expectations of students’ abilities with regard to academic writing that lecturers traditionally hold. One of the expectations is that students are able to cite sources according to academic standards in order to avoid accusations of plagiarism (Hardy & Clughen, 2012; McWilliams & Allan, 2014). Paraphrasing is a skill which is closely linked to avoiding plagiarism. Paraphrasing is the ability to present source material in own words when incorporating it into formal academic writing (Cooper, 2013; Thompson et al., 2013). Paraphrasing indicates familiarity with the context and understanding of the material (Cooper, 2013; Hardy & Clughen, 2012; McWilliams & Allan, 2014; Thompson et al., 2013).

In their attempt to make an argument while incorporating paraphrased text from secondary sources, students are also required to “negotiate a place” (Canagarajah, 2001, p. 117) for the knowledges, skills, and experiences that they bring from their vernacular (Canagarajah, 2002). The spread of English to the “Outer” and “Expanding” Circles created a number of localised Englishes (Canagarajah, 2006; Kachru & Nelson, 1996). These multiple varieties of the language are influenced by local culture and languages. Users of these language varieties have to negotiate intelligibility of their Englishes when using it with other communities (Canagarajah, 2006).

A well-cited schema summarising basic requirements for university assignments is outlined by Horowitz (1991). He states that university students need to provide: “(i) summary/reaction to reading; (ii) annotated bibliography; (iii) report on a specific participatory experience; (iv) connection of theory and data; (v) case study; (vi) synthesis of multiple sources and (vii) research project” (Horowitz, 1991, p. 74).

In a more recent guide to student academic writing, Day (2018) claims that, when assessing students’ learning, academics focus on student writers’ ability to:

- demonstrate discipline-specific knowledge in a scholarly manner with the application of discipline-specific vocabulary;
- demonstrate research skills;
- follow discipline conventions regarding writing structure and style;
- paraphrase source information and present it in non-plagiarised form by using correct in-text citation and referencing skills;
- demonstrate higher-level skills, such as analytical and critical thinking skills, i.e. the ability to critique strengths and weaknesses of different research and opinions;
- analyse, evaluate and synthesise facts and ideas;
- draw conclusions.

To summarise, novice writers should acquire norms and conventions of discipline-specific practices, such as genres, form and structure of text, lexical choice, and rhetorical styles, established in Western academia (Hedgcock & Lee, 2017; Nallaya, 2018; Wingate, 2012b). This acquisition usually happens with little guidance from their subject lecturers (Drennan, 2017). A great number of students, especially those from non-Western education background, might not have been necessarily exposed to or practiced the skills required in Western academia in their prior learning (Drennan, 2017). Lack of such skills may hinder students’ academic success (Wingate, 2018).

2.14 Chapter summary

This chapter presented the theoretical framework behind academic writing in higher education. The chapter discussed the changes in the way literacy has been perceived over time, starting with a traditional view on literacy to the New Literacy Studies (NLS)

approach. Then, historical development of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and its branches has been discussed. Following the discussion of the differences between EAP and academic literacies, the chapter presented Lea and Street's (1998) academic literacies approach. The chapter ended with a discussion of challenges students face with regard to academic writing within and across the disciplines at HE institutions with EMI. The next chapter discusses students' help-seeking strategies with writing support at HE.

Chapter 3. Student help-seeking strategies with writing support at HE

3.1 Introduction

As was described in Chapter 2, L2 students struggle to meet the academic language demands of Western academia not only because of the on-going need to master surface level features, such as grammar and essay structure, but also because of the variety of multiple disciplinary norms and practices. Hence, international L2 students seek help via various on- and off-campus services. This chapter discusses various academic help-seeking strategies that students may use during their studies at tertiary level institutions with English as the medium of instruction. Since academic help-seeking is closely related to students' self-efficacy, agency, and motivation, these notions are also discussed.

The chapter starts with defining academic help-seeking behaviour. It then continues with definitions and explanations of two major types of help-seeking strategies, i.e. adaptive and maladaptive. The role of time constraints and time management skills on students' help-seeking strategies is also discussed. The chapter continues with an in-depth discussion of three major socio-cognitive phenomena, i.e. self-efficacy, agency, and motivation, which influence adaptive help-seeking strategies. After that, the chapter discusses various adaptive help-seeking strategies in relation to academic writing in HE institutions worldwide and specifically in NZ. The strategies discussed are related to the main on-campus language support service, i.e. Student Learning Centre (SLC), off-campus proofreading service, as well as assignment exemplars. The chapter is then summarised.

3.2 Academic help-seeking behaviour

There are a number of definitions for academic help-seeking. Nelson-Le Gall and Resnick (1998) view it as a mechanism vital for learners to cope with learning difficulties through active involvement with the task. Roll et al. (2011) see it as a

multiple construct that encompasses meta-cognitive strategies. Karabenick (2011) and Won et al. (2019) define it as a self-regulated proactive strategy that prevents failure in academic studies. Chowdhury and Halder (2019) define academic help-seeking as a mechanism that involves asking adults or more capable peers for clarification about academic material.

For the purposes of this thesis I combined definitions of Karabenick (2011) and Roll et al. (2011) cited above. Additionally, I consider that learners build their unique knowledge based on their social background, which adds a socio-cognitive constructivist nature to the definition. Hence, the definition of academic help-seeking used in this thesis is students' self-regulated proactive strategies that involve a set of socio-cognitive constructivist behaviours leading to academic success.

The next sub-sections provide further explanation of the definition discussing the five main notions it encapsulates:

- 1) constructivism nature of academic help-seeking behaviour (Section 3.2.1),
- 2) academic help-seeking as cognitive constructivist behaviour and proactive academic help-seeking strategies (Section 3.2.1.1),
- 3) academic help-seeking as a social constructivist behaviour (Section 3.2.1.2), and
- 4) self-regulated learning (Section 3.2.2).

3.2.1 Constructivism nature of academic help-seeking behaviour

Constructivism is a practice of learning which depends on scientific observations of how individuals learn (Chowdhury & Halder, 2019). It theorises that learners have their own perception of the world which is based on their prior experiences and observations. Through reflection on new experiences and events, humans construct meaning based on the facts and draw their own conclusions fitting them into their existing knowledge frame (Chowdhury & Halder, 2019). Constructivism views learning as an evolving process where learners are unique individuals who explore the facts and make their own conclusions about knowledge rather than accepting what is presented to them. When learners have difficulty understanding the study material, they actively seek help. In other words, the constructivist approach to help-seeking involves cognitive and social behaviours, which are discussed in sub-sections 3.2.1.1 and 3.2.1.2 respectively.

3.2.1.1 Academic help-seeking as a cognitive constructivist behaviour

Academic help-seeking behaviour occurs when students detect a problem in their studies, make a series of intentional decisions to seek help, select a suitable source of help, and then request support (Giblin et al., 2020; Karabenick, 2011). A process model that has been extensively referred to by researchers (e.g. Giblin, 2016; Giblin et al., 2020; Karabenick & Dembo, 2011) identifies eight steps of help-seeking behaviour:

- 1) detecting a problem;
- 2) determining that help is needed;
- 3) deciding whether to seek help;
- 4) deciding what type of help to seek;
- 5) selecting the source of help;
- 6) soliciting the help;
- 7) obtaining help;
- 8) processing help (Karabenick & Newman, 2009).

All these steps involve cognitive processing, starting from diagnosing the problem, finding ways to resolve it and bringing a solution to a problem.

Proactive academic help-seeking strategies

Proactive behaviour involves recognising that help is needed prior to attempting a task (Was & Warneken, 2017). As such, proactive behaviour relies on one's cognitive ability to analyse the task and identify certain similarities with previous tasks. In other words, students need to possess some knowledge of their own abilities and be able to decide whether their abilities are sufficient to solve a problem or whether they need help (Was & Warneken, 2017). Being unable to predict when to ask for help may have detrimental outcomes. On the one hand, seeking help with tasks that they are able to resolve themselves deprives the students of the opportunity to test and prove their own competence to themselves and others. On the other hand, not being proactive with help-seeking when they are not able to resolve a task may result in loss of time spent trying or failing the task altogether. Additionally, they may lose an opportunity to learn how to resolve a similar task in the future (Was & Warneken, 2017).

3.2.1.2 Academic help-seeking as a social constructivist behaviour

The theory of social constructivism, propagated by Vygotsky, posits that learning cannot happen outside the social context. Vygotsky (1978) highlighted the collaborative nature of learning arguing that any cognitive processes originate from social interaction.

He stressed that learners seek help within their “zone of proximal development (ZPD)” through social interactions with more capable peers or adults. Social interaction assists learners in constructing their knowledge of the world, based on which they are able to perceive a problem and seek help with it (Chowdhury & Halder, 2019).

3.2.1.3 Self-regulated learning

In an educational context, self-regulated learning involves setting and pursuing goal-oriented activities, for instance, focusing on assignment requirements, establishing productive study-work balance, assessing learning outcomes and making changes to the chosen course of actions when needed. One of the most comprehensive models of self-regulated learning was developed by Zimmerman (2000). He created a cyclical three-phase model, which includes:

- 1) forethought (before task),
- 2) performance control (during task), and
- 3) self-reflection (after task).

In the first phase students use their *motivational beliefs* and *task analysis* prior to attempting a task. While *motivational beliefs* include self-efficacy, result expectancy, and reasons why students want to learn, *task analysis* involves settings of goals, planning and a choice of methods.

Learning activities occur in the second phase of Zimmerman’s (2000) model. The key processes involved here are *self-control*, for example, self-instruction, time management, help-seeking and attention focusing, and *self-observation*, which is self-monitoring and recording of one’s own learning outcome and resisting distractions. Self-observation is informed by either students’ own perceptions or feedback from teachers, peers, or significant others.

Based on “their self-monitoring and feedback from others, students form self-judgments and experience self-reactions in the self-reflection phase” (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2015, p. 519). *Self-judgements* include self-evaluations and causal attributions. The former refers to students’ goals, previous performance standards, performances by others, the assessment criteria and the desired level of achievement. Causal attributions refer to effort, own ability, or luck. As a result of self-reflection, students may either continue working on a task, i.e. remain in the second phase, or return to the first phase,

i.e. forethought, in order to set up a new goal or devise a new learning plan, making self-regulation a cyclical process.

Learners reach self-regulated learning when they are able to methodically “adapt their performance to different environmental and personal conditions” (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2015, p. 519). They are able to apply certain strategies, adjust their behavior in response to a particular situation, and self-evaluate their own performance realising that they have an opportunity to implement changes if and when needed (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2015).

To sum up, the operational definition of academic help-seeking in this thesis stresses the importance of students’ self-evaluation of their own abilities to complete a task, recognition of when help is needed, as well as the use of various strategies to maximise their own performance. There are several types of academic help-seeking. The next section discusses the main types of academic help-seeking in detail.

3.3 Types of academic help-seeking strategies

Academic help-seeking strategies are generally categorised into adaptive and maladaptive (Chowdhury & Halder, 2019; Parker et al., 2019; Williams & Takaku, 2011). Adaptive strategies are proactive strategies that a learner uses with an intent to master study material (Parker et al., 2019). Maladaptive help-seeking strategies refer to situations when a learner does not ask for help with a perceived problem (Chowdhury & Halder, 2019). Adaptive and maladaptive help-seeking strategies are respectively discussed in sub-sections 3.3.1 and 3.3.2.

3.3.1 Adaptive help-seeking strategies

Adaptive help-seeking strategies are proactive behaviours which involve recognising that help is needed prior to attempting a task (Was & Warneken, 2017). A number of researchers maintain that students who use adaptive strategies in situations when tasks are challenging, are more likely to achieve mastery and success in their studies (e.g. Chowdhury & Halder, 2019; Karebenick & Newman, 2006; Parker et al., 2019; Ryan et

al., 2001; Williams & Takaku, 2011). Adaptive strategies involve a dynamic relationship between the teacher and students in a traditional classroom, where the teacher encourages students' active participation and enquiry (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1998; Williams & Takaku, 2011). Volet and Karabenick (2006) argue that active students "become less rather than more reliant on others when future difficulties arise" (p. 117).

There are a number of factors that have been investigated in relation to adaptive help-seeking strategies, among which are gender, age, and cultural background (Benenson & Koulmazarian, 2008; Brennen et al., 2018; Liddon et al., 2017; Mills et al., 2011; Was & Warneken, 2017). A number of researchers conclude that female learners are more likely to use an active approach to help-seeking (e.g. Benenson & Koulmazarian, 2008; Conway et al., 2018; Hunter et al., 2004). Pajares and Valiante (2001) identified that females are more frequent users of help-seeking strategies than males. Less frequent help-seeking behavior among men may be explained by gender stereotypes and social roles (Brennen et al., 2018; Liddon et al., 2017). When a man seeks help, he has to admit his inability to solve a problem or handle a situation, leading to his sense of a failure as a man (Hammer et al., 2013). In other words, men are more susceptible to stigmatise help-seeking behavior which consequently may lower their sense of self-worth (Cleary, 2017; Brennen et al., 2018; Heath et al., 2017; Vogel & Heath, 2016).

Another factor that stimulates help-seeking behavior is age (Conway et al., 2018). Was and Warneken (2017) concluded that younger students are more likely to seek help than older students, especially when an attempted task is complex. Mills et al. (2011) previously achieved a similar outcome in their study and, in addition, they found that older students are not necessarily better at completing a task than their younger counterparts even after receiving help.

3.3.2 Maladaptive help-seeking strategies and self-efficacy.

Maladaptive help-seeking strategies involve either seeking help when it is unnecessary or avoiding seeking help all together (Williams & Takaku, 2011). While such behaviour may be an indication of low self-efficacy, it may result from an overestimation of one's own self-efficacy (Williams & Takaku, 2011). Another factor that may result in

students' demonstration of their maladaptive help-seeking behaviour is time constraints and students' lack of time management skills.

3.3.2.1 Time constraints

A time constraint is the difference between the available time and the time required to complete a decision task (Benson & Beach, 1996). In educational settings, time constraints are usually created by the limited time of the courses that students take but may create certain challenges for students. Cheng and Fox (2008) conducted a research with 56 pre-degree and undergraduate students in three Canadian universities and concluded that the majority of student-participants (61%) in their study complained about the amount of time allowed for completing their academic assignments, stating that they had to complete their assignments under time constraints.

The notion of time constraints is linked to students' learning pace and time flexibility. Learning pace is defined as an individual student's speed in which he/she acquires the knowledge of a subject (Tullis & Benjamin, 2011). The second component of time constraints, time flexibility, involves learner's ability to allocate time to academic tasks, as well as the quantity and quality of time they can spend on these tasks (Romero & Barbera, 2011). Knowing time constraints in advance allows students to allocate their capabilities in accordance with their motivation and skills, and align them to the task's difficulty (Ee et al., 2018). Tullis and Benjamin (2011) state that students often allocate more time to study material which is perceived to be more difficult. Ahmetoglu et al. (2020) claim that identifying the complexity of a task, such as writing, may be challenging and individuals may end up estimating the required time for a task incorrectly.

Time management skills

One of the major strategies to manage academic workload is time management. Time management is a set of behavioural skills that assist in organising one's study and course load (Adams & Blair, 2019). Cheng and Fox (2008) state that students who possess good time management skills are able to plan the course of their actions, prioritise tasks, and allocate sufficient time depending on the difficulty of each task. Alias et al. (2019) argue that most first year university students do not have good time management skills as the mode of studying is novice to them. In comparison to high school, where education is fully guided and supported by teachers, university studies require self-learning. Moreover, Sainz et al. (2019) claim that university students tend to

focus on their short-term goals as they lack habits in long-term planning. Ocak and Boyraz (2016) state that lack of students' time management skills has a positive correlation with procrastination and negative academic outcomes. Therefore, Alias et al. (2019) and Sainz et al. (2019) suggest introducing an intervention programme for first year university students which would assist them in managing their time in a more effective way.

To sum up, when students employ one or the other help-seeking strategy, they demonstrate the level of their self-efficacy and exercise their agency, both of which are closely related to motivation. The next sections provide in-depth information about self-efficacy (Section 3.4), agency (Section 3.5), and motivation (Section 3.6).

3.4 Self-efficacy

In his socio-cognitive theory, Albert Bandura (1977; 1981; 1982) described self-efficacy as one's ability to succeed and accomplish a certain task in a specific situation even if the situation is novel, unpredictable, and puts one under stress. Research indicates that self-efficacy influences learning, achievement, motivation and self-regulation (Schunk & Pajares, 2009; Schunk & Usher, 2012; Williams & Williams, 2010). In a study milieu it may affect students' choice of actions, persistence, and interest (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2014; Schunk & Usher, 2012). Bandura divided students into:

- a) those with high self-efficacy, who are apt to set goals and use effective learning strategies to achieve them, as well as create an effective environment for learning, such as minimising distractions or finding study partners. Such students demonstrate eager participation, hard work, extended persistence, greater interest in learning and higher academic results (Pajares, 2008; Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2016);
- b) those with low self-efficacy, who doubt their success in achieving a goal and, thus, work half-heartedly on a task (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2016).

There are a number of factors contributing to learners' level of self-efficacy.

3.4.1 Factors of self-efficacy

Firstly, self-efficacy is influenced by learners' perception of their performance (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2016). So, previous successful performances may strengthen one's sense of self-efficacy in the first year of undergraduate study, while a sequence of previous failures may lower it (Burton & Dowling, 2005; Whannell, R. & Whannell, P., 2014). Although Schunk & DiBenedetto (2016) confirm that repeated failure may result in a decrease in one's sense of self-efficacy, they argue that an occasional failure or success may have not a big impact on self-efficacy.

Secondly, the success of peers play an important role. University students may feel encouraged to attempt tasks if they see the success of others. Observing others achieve positive results may stimulate observer's self-efficacy by assuring them, that if others could do it, they could do it as well (Brouwer et al., 2016a, 2016b, 2016c; Vaughan et al., 2015). Working in small groups may also lead to increased levels of self-efficacy if high grades and can-do attitude are a norm in the group (Brouwer et al., 2016a; Neri & Ville, 2008). In contrast, group norms that do not value studying may lead to lowering students' self-efficacy (Brouwer et al., 2016a).

Thirdly, social persuasions (e.g. "I know you can do it") may also positively influence self-efficacy if it comes from a credible source, such as parents or significant others, who are able to cultivate learners' beliefs that success is possible (Bergey et al., 2019; Kuh et al., 2008; Robbins et al., 2004; Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2016). However, Brouwer et al. (2016a) argue that when students leave their parental homes after transitioning from school to university, parents' motivational role subsides and first year students seek support from peers and instructors.

Fourthly, such psychological and emotional states as anxiety and stress also impact self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997; Mohammadi et al., 2019). Learners' perception that a task might yield negative results or the outcome will be negative may lead to undesirable thoughts and fears about their abilities, lowering self-efficacy and resulting in additional agitation, which, in turn, might result in an inadequate performance (Mohammadi et al., 2019; Richardson et al., 2012; Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2015).

3.4.2 Effects of self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is believed to influence students' individual choices of activities as well as determining the level of effort and persistence with which learners persevere with a task (Pajares, 1996, 2003; Sardegna et al., 2018; Schunk, 2008). Learners who have a high sense of self-efficacy demonstrate greater perseverance, resilience, and self-regulated learning in difficult situations, display more flexibility in their own learning strategies, as well as are less anxious and stressed (Joet et al., 2011; Moos & Azevedo, 2009; Sardegna et al., 2018). Highly efficacious learners tend to spend more time on an activity and remain committed to it. Students with high self-efficacy are more eager to engage with challenging tasks in order to master certain skills. Moreover, they persevere with the task and sustain their efforts even in the face of failure, and, in addition, they recover quickly after setbacks (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2016). In contrast, students with low self-efficacy may feel that a task is more difficult than it really is. Such potentially erroneous perception about the task may lead to elevated anxiety and stress, as well as make students feel there are few choices as to how they successfully complete the task (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2016). Woodrow (2006b) asserts that self-efficacy may be enhanced by teachers who provide realistic expectations, focused positive feedback on learners' progress and advice of students' development of learning strategies.

3.4.3 Self-efficacy and learners' calibration

In the recent years, researchers have been investigating the concept of learners' calibration. Calibration is defined by Schunk and Usher (2011) as the correspondence of self-efficacy to performance. People are well calibrated in situations when they believe they can perform a task and they do it, or when they perceive themselves as incapable of performing a task and then they cannot. In both these situations people's self-efficacy accurately predicts the outcome (Schunk & Usher, 2011). In contrast, people are poorly calibrated when self-efficacy does not accurately correspond with performance. For example, people predict their ability to perform a task, but they cannot or when they predict their inability to perform a task but then they achieve a positive outcome (Schunk & Usher, 2011).

Calibration is an important factor influencing students' intentions and motivation. Although Bandura (1997) argued that slightly higher self-efficacy is desirable as it elevates effort and persistence, repeated overestimation may lead to recurring failure

resulting in a decrease in students' motivation and learning. Overestimation may be an outcome of not fully understanding task requirements, instructional and social factors (Schunk & Pajares, 2009). Schunk and DiBenedetto (2015) argue that previous experience with a task and clear instructions inform students of the required skills to succeed. However, instructional practices may also reduce students' calibration in cases when teachers continuously encourage students without ensuring attainment of required skills. This results in poorly calibrated learners who are empowered by educators but, in fact, lack skills to succeed. Social pressure may also influence students' performance when learners intentionally perform lower than their best and perform lower than their self-efficacy would predict so as not to appear as overly intelligent in front of their peers and as a result become socially isolated (Schunk & Pajares, 2009).

In a nutshell, students' self-efficacy has a direct link with the achievement of set goals. In order to achieve their goals, students should also have an ability to make conscious choices to use suitable actions in pursuing those goals. In other words, students need to exercise their agency.

3.5 Agency

There is a number of definitions of student agency. Neumann & Pereira (2009) identify it as a form of meaning-making which "entails a reflexive purposefulness, a thoughtful directedness born of personal desire and valuing" (p. 139). Sharma (2007) defines it as a student's willingness to influence the patterns and outcome of classroom participation. She argues that students have no predetermined agency, and that it only emerges once an opportunity to change conventional patterns of classroom communication is presented. Campbell (2012) talks about two constructs of agency: perspective and action. Agentic perspective is related to the interaction between one's self and the context in one's environment, as well as the way this interaction facilitates one's goal achievement. Agentic action is simply viewed as one's strategic and intentional behavior towards one's goal. Campbell (2012) believes that both constructs of agency are intertwined with the agentic perspective influencing the agentic action. Goulart & Roth (2010), whose study was grounded in cultural historical activity theory, talk about student agency as constituting the core of the students' motivation for learning

engagement. They argue that students with agency not only react to, but also have the power to transform certain situations.

Overall, agency is associated with a list of phenomena, such as self-hood, motivation, will, purposiveness, intentionality, choice, initiative, freedom and creativity (Emirbayer & Mische, 1998). Vaughn (2018) groups the phenomena associated with students' agency into three categories:

- 1) disposition,
- 2) motivation,
- 3) position.

The first category focuses on students' personal dispositions, their self-identification as creative, goal-oriented, or resistant. Students' willingness to take action in response to opportunities or difficulties develops a sense of agency on this dimension. The second category is linked to students' self-efficacy which includes students' intention and motivation to make choices, as well as ability to control their own feelings and beliefs in order to complete a task effectively. The third category focuses on the social, cultural, and historical environment in which students complete a task and the way a specific context in the environment navigates learners to take actions (Vaughn, 2018).

Shaw (1999) argues that individual agency as the ability to make conscious choices, influences identity formation. Kasworm (2005) finds that agency is a dynamic, complex, multilayered and multisegmented concept which involves reflection on one's formed beliefs and actions, decision-making processes in achieving own goals, as well as the negotiation of one's privilege to act in a specific context. Since for Tai et al. (2018) agency is the ability to evaluate and improve others' work as well as their own, they suggest that evaluative judgement is essential for becoming a self-regulated and life-long learner.

The definition of agency in the present thesis is adopted from Vaughn et al. (2020) and is "student's ability to have ideas, to have intentions, and to exert influence and take actions in the learning context" (p. 428). In other words, Vaughn et al. mean that agency is students' ideas on what actions in their educational contexts are required in order to achieve their set goals, as well as students' decision to persist with these chosen actions.

3.5.1 Framework of students' agency

Vaughn et al. (2020) suggest a framework of student agency. The framework consists of five constructs:

- 1) self- perception as readers and writers,
- 2) intentionality,
- 3) choice-making,
- 4) persistence,
- 5) interactiveness.

The first construct, i.e. self-perception, indicates how students view their ability to read and write. Those students who enjoy reading and writing are motivated and eager to read and write often (Gambrell, 2015; Henanggil et al., 2019). Since motivation and engagement are both dynamic concepts that change every moment (Robertson & Padesky, 2019), students' experiences in reading and writing may flow from enthusiastic to subdued. However, more accomplished students possess self-regulation strategies to overcome difficulties with complex or uninteresting reading and writing (Springer et al., 2017).

The construct of intentionality involves students' willingness to present their ideas in class (Vaughn et al., 2020). In a situation where a student is unwilling to defend his/her own point of view which is different to the one that dominates in class, he/she is more likely to abandon it and stop pursuing his/her individual needs. Hence, Vaughn (2020) proposes that teachers provide voice and space for students' opinions.

Choice-making refers to students' readiness to make decisions to implement changes (Vaughn et al., 2020). Students' individual cultural and social experiences may encourage students to reconfigure traditional structures of thought and action in relation to their own learning (Emirbayer & Mische, 1998). Decisions may be opportunistic or a result of real engagement with problematic situations, they can be a matter of adaptation to events as well as the product of explicit reasoning.

Persistence is the inclination to continue in a course of action in spite of obstacles and difficulty (Vaughn et al., 2020). Research has shown that students who perceive control over their learning are more motivated to persist with difficult reading tasks (Guthrie & Klauda, 2014; McLaughlin & Rasinski, 2015; Mickelson, 2018). Mickelson (2018) suggests applying creative approaches to reading and writing tasks, which may foster

greater interest in the activities and promote agency and persistence. Vieira and Grantham (2011) argue that when students perceive they have a choice as far as activities are concerned, they become more involved with the task.

Finally, students' agency cannot be conceptualised outside their classroom environment, which may either support or detract from their ability to make and implement certain decisions and actions (Vaughn et al., 2020). Hence, the construct of interactiveness represents how students influence or alter their opportunities within the context that they are positioned in.

3.5.2 Educators' role in fostering students' agency

To promote students' agency, Vaughn (2018) urges educators to support students' efforts that may lead to independency of learners. To do that the author encourages inquiring what learners have learnt, whether the study material was hard for them, what went well and why. Since the classroom environment is a contributing factor for students' willingness to exhibit own agency, educators should set norms and rules which would facilitate students' choice-making about what they want to learn and how they want to participate in groups.

Even though teachers may be willing to take up students' ideas and interests, the opportunities for students to exhibit their agency are not plentiful (Vaughn, 2019, 2020). Educators are often pressured to adhere to set instructions and assessments, which stifles opportunities for students' agency. Nonetheless, Vaughn (2018) encourages teachers to adopt an adaptive stance towards instructions and take into account learners' cultural and linguistic strengths.

Vaughn (2020) further recognises agency as a means of identity-making. The question of identity-making is especially important for international students who commence their study in HE institutions with EMI. Thus, the next sub-section provides information on agency and identity with relation to international students.

3.5.3 Agency and identity

Students' identity is shaped by the social, institutional, and personal contexts in which students are involved during their university studies. These kinds of contexts place students in a transitional space that allows students to reflect on what they want to become, which may mean letting go of parts of their old identity, and possibly changing or assuming a new identity (Merrill, 2012, 2015). Some students consciously let this happen, some change only when they must, and others acquire attributes necessary for success, while still preserving their old identity (Merrill, 2015). In most cases, though, students graduate from university as changed people (Merrill, 2015).

The sense of agency plays a great role in shaping the identity of international students who leave their home country and start their journey in a foreign educational setting. Due to lack of familiarity with the host country norms, international students require a greater change in their sense of agency and identity compared to the students from the host country (Marginson, 2014). As newcomers to a foreign country, international students are confronted by a number of constraints which affect the way they engage with the new environment. However, over time, the experiences of international students influence their agency and they may start exploring new opportunities and change the way they engage with the environment (Matthews, 2017).

3.5.4 Agency and mature learners

Mature students are usually identified by several features. Firstly, they are students who are over 25 years of age (Boston, 2017). Secondly, they delay their HE studies or return to full-time HE after a period away from it (Hubble & Bolton, 2020; O'Carroll et al., 2017). Thirdly, they are often financially independent (Boston, 2017). Lastly, before re-entering education, these students have usually experienced various life changing events, such as change of career, previous higher education, family, a loan or a mortgage (Boston, 2017; Broadhead, 2018). Such life changing events alongside other knowledge acquired in life often equip mature students with wisdom and practical skills to overcome various life difficulties and transformations (Broadhead, 2018). When overcoming life difficulties, mature students exhibit their agency by drawing on their previous life experience and transferring the knowledge acquired in previous life situations to the events in their new educational environment (Broadhead, 2018).

One of the challenges that mature learners may face throughout their HE studies is development of a strong peer support system. When mature students seek opportunities to communicate with younger peers, they often find minimal reciprocation, which leads to isolation (Marginson, 2014; Marginson et al., 2010). Additionally, mature students may have other life commitments, such as family or work, leading them to spend minimal time on campus (Boston, 2017). Commitments outside their education may weaken their supportive social network within their university which may lead to a diminished sense of agency (Busher & James, 2019) and a greater sense of invisibility on campus (Boston, 2017; Haggis, 2013; Marginson, 2014).

In order to reach their goals students also need to be motivated (Hartnett, 2018; Tuncel et al., 2016). The notion of motivation is presented in-depth in the next section.

3.6 Motivation

Various definitions of motivation have been proposed. Ryan and Deci (2000), for example, suggest that a person who is inspired to act and achieve his/her goals can be characterised as motivated. Similarly, and bearing in mind that ‘motivation’ derives from the Latin verb ‘movere’, meaning ‘to move’, Beck (2004) considers motivation as a general term to determine people’s actions and movements at specific times. Schunk et al. (2008) define motivation as “the process whereby goal-directed activity is instigated and sustained” (p. 4) and Thorkildsen (2002) defines motivation as “an internal force that activates, guides, and maintains behavior over time” (p. ix). Deckers (2005) claims that motivation means “to be moved into action” or “to be moved into cognition, feeling, and action” (p. xiii). Wentzel and Brophy (2014) define motivation as “a theoretical construct used to explain the initiation, direction, intensity, persistence, and quality of behaviours, especially goal-directed behaviour” (p. 2).

Some of the leading researchers studying motivation in recent years take a socio-dynamic stance on the topic, highlighting the dynamic character and temporal variation of motivation (Dornyei & Ryan, 2015; Ushioda, 2009, 2015). From this perspective, motivation is seen as a dynamic factor that shows continuous changes in the learning context to which the learners are adapting (Dornyei & Ryan, 2015; Ryan & Dörnyei, 2013). Temporal variation of motivation indicates its changing nature which affects the learner’s future behaviour in a particular context (Dornyei & Ryan, 2015; Weiner,

2010). The socio-dynamic and temporal perspective of motivation is in line with the theoretical framework of this thesis, hence I have adapted Ushioda's (2015) view on motivation and define it as a learner's fluctuating behaviour, which defines direction, intensity, and persistence in achieving goals, and which correlates with the changing social context. According to this definition, learners are not separated from a particular context traditionally characterised in terms of its linguistic or cultural settings, or a type of learning environment. Instead, Ushioda proposes studying a two-directional relationship between learners and context, where learners act, contribute, and shape their contexts by responding to language input. In turn, learners' input affects the content, quantity and quality of further input in the development of context of the interaction.

3.6.1 Motivational theories

Despite the range of definitions of motivation, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2013) suggest that what seems to unite them is a focus on the direction and magnitude of human behaviour, i.e. the choice of an action (why something is done), the perseverance with it (the duration of the willingness to carry on an activity), and the effort expended on it (how hard it is pursued). Overall, however, the authors suggest that the notion of motivation is so vast that it is unrealistic that motivation scholars will succeed at ultimately creating a single theory of motivation.

Ushioda (2009) suggests focusing on real learners rather than on theoretical abstractions. She proposes focusing on learner's agency, identity, intentions, motives and goals, and interrelation of these aspects with the ever-changing social contexts in which learners operate. In her later work (2015), Ushioda advocates for the move away from theories that view learner's context as a static notion and suggests focusing on dynamically evolving relationship between learner and context as each adapts to the other.

3.6.2 Types of motivation

One of the main factors that plays an important role in shaping learner's actions is type of motivation, i.e. intrinsic, or extrinsic. Conventionally, students are said to be intrinsically motivated if they find the task at hand interesting and enjoyable.

Alternatively, they can be extrinsically motivated due to their understanding that gaining the result or knowledge from the task will lead to a separable outcome (Ryan & Deci, 2000), such as good grades, better jobs, money, or the approval of others.

Intrinsic motivation is universally seen as the predictor of academic achievement (Noels, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Wlodkowski, 2008). However, teachers cannot simply rely on students' intrinsic motivation, as most assignments are unlikely to be interesting and enjoyable for each student (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Ryan and Deci (2000) recommend that, in order for the students to achieve cognitive and real-life learning skills, teachers should encourage students to strengthen their own self-efficacy and develop a set of skills to succeed at study. In this way, learners are geared towards developing certain proficiencies rather than being oriented towards high grades.

3.6.3 Motivation and language learning

Motivation and positive attitudes assuredly influence individual levels of success in language learning activities (Al-Tamimi & Shuib, 2009). Brown (2000) states that proper motivation can result in successful language learning and, according to Shunk et al. (2008), students become intrinsically motivated once they find their interest in learning.

Another factor that plays a major role in learners' motivation for mastering English is globalisation and the spread of global English, which were discussed in Chapter 1. Under the influence of globalisation and the spread of English as the global language, students are highly motivated to learn English and are less motivated to learn other languages because English learning has become one of the major factors for success in today's world (Altbach et al., 2010, 2017; Cagliero & Jenkins, 2010). As a result, learners have a reason to learn English, giving learning of the language instrumental value (Kubota, 2016), i.e. a means to an end. Kubota (2016) argues that knowledge of English is a basic commodity which brings economic benefits to the society, thus nowadays language teaching emphasises the transferability of study skills to the workplace as the main selling point for English language teaching. The focus on the instrumental value of learning English might override students' intrinsic motivation for language learning (Scarino, 2014).

To sum up, students need to develop a range of non-linguistic skills in order to demonstrate their adaptive help-seeking strategies that may lead to successful academic studies. Since the current thesis focuses on international L2 students' challenges with academic writing in their first year of undergraduate studies at HE institutions in NZ, adaptive help-seeking strategies are further discussed in relation to academic writing. In HE, there is a range of services that aim to assist students with the writing demands in their discipline-specific subjects. The next part of this chapter discusses few major services offered to students in HE, such as Student Learning Centre (SLC), proof-reading, and Grammarly.

3.7 Academic support services in relation to academic writing in HE

Any novice writer, either native or non-native, can find academic writing problematic as students' language competence alone is not sufficient to guarantee success in HE (Wingate & Tribble, 2012). However, it is obvious that non-traditional students and learners from culturally- and linguistically-diverse backgrounds are more likely to have a greater need for such a service as they tend to struggle to meet academic and linguistic demands of Western HE institutions (Roberts & Reid, 2014; Skyrme, 2018; Williams, 2005). Some of the reasons for students' struggles were discussed in Chapter 1. The main ones are related to:

- 1) different norms and conventions required in Western and English medium HE institutions, and those which students have acquired in their home countries (Drennan, 2017);
- 2) a certain degree of variation in writing demands and practices within and across the disciplines in the same HE institutions (Canagarajah, 2013b; Haggis, 2006; Lea & Street, 1998; Lillis, 2003; Turner, 2011b; Wingate, 2012a);
- 3) the fact that international L2 students may be under-prepared for tertiary studies in Western or English medium universities (Aguar et al., 2019; Guan & Jones, 2011; Holmes, 2004; Paltridge et al., 2009; Read & Hayes, 2003; Thies, 2012).

As was mentioned in Chapter 2, discipline-specific writing may not be acquired outside specific disciplines (e.g. Drennan, 2017; Wingate, 2018). Since academic lecturers are often unwilling or unable to guide students into genre-specific conventions in their field of study (Clarence 2012; Drennan, 2017; Lillis & Turner, 2001), students may seek

support with academic writing through services outside their schools and departments, such as Student Learning Centres (SLCs), proof-reading services, or web-based grammar-checkers, such as Grammarly. The next sections present information on these services.

3.7.1 Origins and development of Student Learning Centre (SLC)

Student learner centres (SLCs) were set up in the 1970s by universities in the USA (Park, 2014). Their main aim was to assist mainly domestic first language speakers of English (L1) with the academic and linguistic demands of HE. Learning assistance was oriented to bridging “the gap between the skills students bring to tertiary education and the skills required for successful participation” (Morris, 2008, p. 87). To narrow the gap between students’ previously acquired skills and those required in HE, SLCs focused on generic study skills, such as exam and study preparation, referencing, summarising, and paraphrasing (Roberts & Reid, 2014).

In the early 1980s, international L2 students started joining the domestic cohorts at EMI universities worldwide. Many of these international students, as has already been discussed, experienced difficulty with the linguistic demands of higher education courses. With the growing demand to support students, whose English proficiency level was not on par with the L1 students, SLCs used two tutoring frameworks, i.e. tutor-centred and student-centred (Moussu, 2013). While the former framework focuses on ‘study skills’, such as grammar and punctuation (Bailey, 2018; Winder et al., 2016), the latter emphasises a collaborative approach to instruction, with a focus on the text as a whole rather than on grammar (Winder et al., 2016). In the USA and Canada, a student-centred framework is considered as non-interventionist, requiring ‘minimal tutoring’ because tutors point to writers’ issues through questions about the written text instead of explaining a certain way of approaching writing (Winder et al., 2016). Such enquiry-based approaches foster students’ ownership of their texts and their decisions to implement changes, however, it does not necessarily provide the assistance that students seek.

3.7.1.1 Purpose and services offered at SLCs

SLCs originally offered mainly one-on-one tutorial sessions with Tertiary Learning Advisors (TLAs) (Harris, 2000; Jackson & McKinney, 2012; Tan et al., 2017;

Tiruchittampalam et al., 2018). The role of a TLA has been to assist increasingly culturally and linguistically diverse student cohorts to transition smoothly into the university learning environment, address their writing concerns and improve their learning outcomes (Tran et al., 2019). The one-on-one tutorials with TLAs could last for as long as 90 minutes (Johnston et al., 2009). During a one-on-one session, students have been able to address their academic concerns with writing, which may be related to assignment requirements, structuring an argument, or usage of academic style and register (Roberts & Reid, 2014). TLAs have also been able to assist students with appropriate academic reference criteria (Laurs, 2010; Roberts & Reid, 2014) and resources (Wilson et al., 2011).

Research indicates that addressing students' individual concerns regarding discipline-specific writing yields the best outcomes especially at the initial stages of their university studies (Preece, 2010; Wingate, 2015). Individual support offers personalised attention and allows TLAs to address students' individual needs in a non-threatening environment where students are able to ask question (Fenton-Smith & Humphreys, 2015; Ma, 2018). However, such individualised learning and writing support is time-consuming and requires a large staff, which SLCs are not always able to provide. Lack of manpower within SLCs is mainly related to the neoliberal regime (Ma, 2018). As was discussed in Chapter 1, government funding for HE institutions has been cut. Such financial cuts hit SLCs that have been regarded as peripheral by their universities, i.e. outside faculties and departments (Paré, 2017). To find solutions to their fiscal problems, SLCs need to find alternative ways to assist students with their concerns.

One of the ways to cut the costs while offering support to a large number of students is to reduce the duration and number of one-on-one sessions. For example, one-on-one sessions with a TLA at the University of Waikato (The University of Waikato Te Whare Wananga o Waikato, n.d.) and Victoria University of Wellington (Victoria University of Wellington Te Herenga Waka, n.d.) are currently limited to 50 minutes. University of Canterbury offers 40-minute appointments once a fortnight with a limit of up to 8 appointments a year (University of Canterbury, n.d.). At Auckland University of Technology (AUT) in NZ students can book only 15-minute one-on-one sessions twice a semester (AUT library, n.d.).

To help offset the limited individual help available to students, centres offer generic workshops (Ma, 2018; Roberts & Reid, 2014; Wilson et al., 2011). However, students

do not always find such learning support relevant to their needs as generic workshops leave a number of unanswered questions that students have regarding own discipline-specific writing (Ma, 2018).

In addition to the unanswered questions that students may have regarding writing norms and conventions in their disciplines, generic workshops do not necessarily equip students with the skills that can be transferred to their discipline studies (Ma, 2018). Learning transfer is the transportation and application of learnt knowledge from one context to another (Wardle, 2007). There are two types of transfer identified:

- 1) near transfer, which is the application of skills in a similar situation; and
- 2) far transfer, which is the application of prior knowledge and skills across a variety of new situations and settings (Wardle, 2007).

Generic workshops offered by SLCs seem to rely on the transfer of learning to novel situations, i.e. far transfer. However, research indicates that far transfer of writing skills is problematic (e.g. James, 2010; Larsen-Freeman, 2013; Slomp, 2012) because of the dynamic nature of knowledge, the individual, and the social contexts in which the knowledge is developed (Beach, 1999; Slomp, 2012). Hence, the generic support that SLCs offer may not necessarily fit into students' various needs in their discipline-specific areas. Haghighi et al. (2019) argue that the most effective transfer happens when the cognitive processes that are active during learning are similar to those that are active during retrieval (Haghighi et al., 2019), i.e. when near transfer happens. In other words, to achieve a high level of learning transfer, academic writing is best taught through personalised approach addressing learners' individual needs (Wingate, 2015).

To offer students a more context-specific support, USA and Canadian learning centres substituted the 'bolt-on' approach that SLCs traditionally have, i.e. teaching writing norms outside specific disciplines, to the embedded 'built-in' approach (Bailey, 2018). Such an approach embeds the teaching of academic literacies in specific disciplinary contexts (Maldoni, 2017). The embedded approach involves direct communication between:

- 1) the subject lecturer, who possesses epistemological knowledge of the discipline,
- 2) students, who do the writing, and
- 3) writing specialists, who have theoretical and pedagogical knowledge about writing (Bailey, 2018).

One such embedded model is the US model of Writing in the Disciplines (WID), which embeds writing instructions into the discipline's curriculum, making the subject lecturers responsible for teaching writing to their students (Deane & O'Neill, 2011). The realisation of this model involves either collaborative work of discipline lecturers with writing instructors or peer mentoring and the use of formative assessment. Dansereau et al. (2020) integrated in-class writing-instruction workshops and discipline-specific writing tutor support into the first-year programme in the Biology department at Saint Mary's University in Halifax, Nova Scotia, Canada. Both in-class writing-instruction workshops and discipline-specific writing tutors were to offer explicit instructions related to writing lab reports. The authors' quantitative analysis based on surveys, attendance records, and students' grades indicated that 80% of participants taking part in the programme stated their preparedness for further studies. Although the research results sound significant, there are various linguistic and non-linguistic factors that have not been accounted for, such as students' motivation or self-efficacy.

One of the major challenges of embedded writing support that subject lecturers note is the amount of time they spend on the formative learning requirements of their courses. In a case study done by Wingate (2012b), lecturers voiced their concern regarding the amount of time needed for engagement with the formative learning requirements of their courses. From students' perspective, once learning materials were devised and made available, lecturers rarely referred to them with the result that students perceived them as a low priority.

Since embedded writing support empowers subject lecturers to teach writing directly to their students, TLAs lose their visibility. TLAs voice their concern about feeling marginalised and confused about their role (Chanock, 2007; Roberts & Reid, 2014). It seems that academic teaching staff misinterpret what TLAs' responsibilities are (Prebble et al., 2005) and send students to such centres for tasks that are not SLCs' responsibility, such as proofreading (Johnston et al., 2009). While trying to deliver the best service they can, TLAs are not able to draw a clear map of what their clients, both students and academic staff, expect from them (Nunan et al., 2000). As a result of this misunderstanding and ill-defined responsibilities, TLAs try to integrate on-the-spot requests from the students into whatever expectancies were briefly outlined for them by schools and faculties (Nunan et al., 2000). Such integration is often subject to TLAs' interpretation of the priorities set by the institutions themselves (Nunan et al., 2000).

Recently, SLCs are seemed to be pushed to create ‘one-stop shops’ by merging with other units at universities, usually a learning commons or academic support centre, which may have a different mission to SLCs (Essid & McTague, 2020; Herb & Sabatino, 2020). One of the biggest recent initiatives is the relocation of SLCs to libraries.

SLC/Library partnership

The development of the SLC/Library partnership has been a bone of contention whether it is in students’ or SLCs’ best interests. A number of researchers (e.g. Elmborg & Hook, 2005; Ferer, 2012) find SLC/Library amalgamation appropriate because the two units seem to have certain similarities in promoting student autonomy in research and writing. Brady et al. (2009) advocate for such collaboration in terms of expanding students’ information literacy practices, leading to students’ deeper understanding of the research, reading and writing processes. Cooke and Bledsoe (2008) additionally pinpoint that such an alliance facilitates SLC tutors and librarians dealing with the challenges that they otherwise face. As an example, the authors indicate that SLC tutors may direct students to librarians when help is required with the search for scholarly sources. In turn, librarians may refer students to the SLC when students struggle incorporating scholarly sources into their written assignments.

The authors identified five challenges that both librarians and SLC tutors face:

- 1) guiding students through the sequence of the writing process,
- 2) assisting students who may be uncertain about assignment guidelines,
- 3) operating under time constraints,
- 4) empowering students to take charge of their learning, and
- 5) evaluating sources for quality and preventing plagiarism

(Cooke & Bledsoe, 2008, p. 120).

Although some research indicates that there are certain advantages of SLCs/Library partnership, Herb and Sabatino (2020) acknowledge certain challenges related to co-location. The main issue is related to different working modes that the two learning units have. While libraries encourage quiet self-study, SLCs promote dialogue and communication between the writing tutor and the student (Herb & Sabatino, 2020). Often located in the open space in the library, SLC writing tutors disturb other students

during quiet studies. Additionally, absence of a separated space may additionally disallow students easily identify writing tutors from students (Herb & Sabatino, 2020).

Another difficulty is that students might not want to be seen approaching SLCs for help (Nunan et al., 2000; Salem, 2016). Students tend to perceive SLCs as having a “remedial” role (Salem, 2016; Strauss, 2013). When students think that visiting an SLC is evidence that they are not capable of meeting requirements, they may experience a sense of shame in addressing their writing concerns (Strauss, 2013) and not seek help there even though they genuinely need assistance (Salem, 2016). It appears logical, therefore, that they would be reluctant to seek help in such an open and public space. This is problematic for the centres themselves as the number of student attendees is a vital indication of the centres’ value and demand. Funding is often based on attendance (Nunan et al., 2000; Salem, 2016). Thus, SLCs try to supply students with the help they seek while keeping costs to the minimum.

In a nutshell, the role of SLCs is vital in terms of providing students’ support with their learning and writing needs, as well as providing support to subject lecturers with developing explicit writing requirements. Since the current study is related to international L2 students’ academic writing experiences at HE institutions in NZ, the next sub-section discusses SLCs and the role of TLAs in NZ.

3.7.2 SLCs in NZ

In NZ, SLCs appeared in the 1980s with an aim to assist students in acquiring the necessary academic and writing skills to succeed at their studies. At the end of 1999, TLAs in NZ SLCs formed the Association of Tertiary Learning Advisors of Aotearoa New Zealand (ATLAANZ) and wrote their own constitution, which was incorporated in 2003 (Fraser et al., 2009). The three main functions of ATLAANZ were identified as: facilitating communication and sharing of best practice amongst TLAs, supporting the professional development and promoting the professional status of members, and disseminating relevant research findings (ATLAANZ, n.d.).

According to recent data from OECD (2020), NZ is one of the top five countries welcoming international students for tertiary education (Beech, 2018). Just as in other

countries with EMI, these students require learning advice and support with acculturation into the academic culture at tertiary institutions (Casanave, 2008; Wingate & Tribble, 2012). Logically, TLAs, whose role is to assist students to smoothly transition into their new academic environment, should be valued on campuses (Strauss, 2013). However, due to the neoliberal framework in which HE institutions are positioned (Marginson & Considine, 2000), the role of TLAs has been downplayed. They have been seen as “servants of the discipline masters” (Strauss, 2019, p. 113) whose main role is to provide students with fairly superficial language support (Strauss, 2013, 2019). Such a technicist view (Strauss, 2019) of the TLAs’ role supports the belief that learning advisors mainly deal with language that can be “easily fixed” (Turner 2011a, p. 18), such as grammar or spelling. Another major issue that TLAs face is that often academics are unaware of the existence of SLCs. TLAs in Strauss’ (2013) study reported results of their own survey of academics at her university and stated that only 40% of academic staff knew about the existence of SLCs.

TLA’s “sense of belonging and purpose” (Parkinson, 2008, p. 52) is also influenced by their volatile position within the university framework. TLAs in NZ seem to experience similar employment instability as their colleagues worldwide (Cameron, 2018b, 2018c; Cameron & Catt, 2014; Carter, 2008). SLCs tend to hire staff on part-time or casual basis (Carter, 2008). Among those TLAs who remain in their position for several years, only a limited number believe that they have career opportunities. Cameron (2018a) conducted research with 265 TLAs in NZ and revealed that many TLAs in permanent employment do not see career opportunities in their role. Only 12 participants in Cameron’s (2018a) research had positive experience with promotion, while 12% of TLAs had negative experiences, and the rest saw a number of barriers to promotion, such as lack of support by the manager, or TLAs’ type of employment, i.e. part-time or casual.

Despite the fact that TLAs on the whole face an uncertain future, the majority are committed to researching their area of practice (Cameron & Catt, 2008, 2014). They do this despite the fact that such research activity does not usually form part of their job description (Cameron, 2018a). The research done by TLAs is important as it may bring insights into students’ transition experience, especially with learning and study approaches (Sotardi & Friesen, 2017). Without this research, academic staff risk to overlook significant information they need in order to design their discipline-specific courses and assignments.

Apart from SLCs, students may also seek support with academic writing through off-campus and web-based proof-reading services. The next section discusses the proof-reading options that students may use.

3.7.3 Proof-reading

International L2 students, who doubt their language accuracy even if they meet language requirements on admission, often seek proof-reading services (Harris, 2016; Tynan & Johns, 2015). Some proof-reading services include not only accuracy correction, for example, proof-reading grammar and correcting spelling, but also involve editing services, for instance, “revis[ing] texts into well-written English” (Turner, 2011b, p. 431). There are certain concerns raised by students, lecturers, and proof-readers alike in relation to proof-reading services (Harwood et al., 2009; Knight, 1999; Turner, 2011b; Scurr, 2006).

3.7.3.1 Issues with proof-reading services

Firstly, some students find that proof-reading services may not necessarily be helpful when it comes to disciplinary concepts as proof-readers tend to change the language of a specific context into the language of everyday use (Turner, 2011b). Such kind of ‘dis-service’ may erode the contextual meaning of the text. As was detailed in Chapter 2, discipline outsiders may lack sufficient knowledge about standardised norms of academic writing, which vary from discipline to discipline (Hyland, 2006).

Alternatively, proof-readers may choose to limit their service to focusing on general, value-free rules and linguistic features, such as grammar and spelling (Hyland & Shaw, 2016; Turner, 2011b). Secondly, proof-reading services are quite costly, and not every student can afford them (Turner, 2011b).

Although academic staff may feel reluctant to read unclear and un-proofread texts (Turner, 2011a), some lecturers doubt the usefulness of proof-reading services. They criticise it for disguising lack of literacy (Scurr, 2006), which can be harmful (Shin, 2007). Some authors (e.g. Harwood et al., 2012; Turner, 2011b) claim that proof-reading results in the loss of learning opportunity for learning.

Proof-readers see a number of challenges in their work too. Firstly, they find it challenging to correct students' work when they are not familiar with the context (Harwood et al., 2009). Secondly, proof-readers in Harwood et al.'s (2012) study raised their concerns as to what kind of services they are entitled to provide. The tendency these days is away from direct intervention when proof-readers simply 'fix' students' text, to indirect intervention, when proof-readers highlight errors, and students are encouraged to think of their own mistakes and correct them themselves (Harwood et al., 2012).

As was mentioned, commercial proof-reading services are costly. To avoid high costs, students may seek alternative ways to check their assignments for accuracy. One such way is to ask their peers for help. Another way to make their written assignment more accurate is through online spelling- and grammar-checkers, such as Grammarly.

3.7.3.2 Peers as an alternative way to commercial proof-reading services

Other than external proof-reading service, students may choose to ask their peers to check their written work for accuracy. While some students may feel the need to seek support from a single individual, others establish "a network of mutual proof-reading" (Turner, 2011b, p. 430). In the cases of high reliance on another person to proof-read one's written work, the remuneration could be in the form of an invitation to dinner or a concert (Turner, 2011b).

3.7.3.3 Grammarly as the way to 'mistake-free' writing

Grammarly claims to be the most accurate online grammar- and spelling-checker, providing essential writing support in the English language that goes beyond spelling and grammar (Grammarly, 2020). The software claims to make the writing clearer, more readable, and effective (Grammarly, 2020). Since the software was created only 11 years ago, the research around its effectiveness in an academic environment is scarce. Some of the strengths and weaknesses of the software are identified by three EFL postgraduate students in Indonesia in Nova's (2018) study. The three participants have been using the software for an extended period of time and have identified the following strengths of Grammarly:

- 1) the usefulness of the feedback for their future learning. Explanations, examples, and suggestions for change were identified as useful and resulting in writing improvement;

- 2) ease of access, i.e. a simple and straightforward sign up process;
- 3) availability to the public, i.e. free of charge, and
- 4) speedy error evaluation.

O'Neill & Russell (2019) conducted research with 96 degree and pre-degree students from CQUniversity in Australia related to the effectiveness of using Grammarly by TLAs prior to their meetings with students. Fifty-four students constituted an experimental group receiving feedback from TLAs, who selected which mistakes identified by Grammarly were relevant to students' works. The second, control group (n = 42) received traditional feedback without the use of the software. Students in the experimental group noticed that the TLAs did not comment on some errors identified by the software but TLAs could explain why those could be ignored, which most students considered a good learning point. Overall, students in the experimental group were satisfied with the amount of feedback on grammar provided by TLAs; however, they noticed a lack of focus on context and content. By the end of the research, none of the students from the experimental group felt the need for further writing support with their assignments. In contrast, the control group was in need of clearer explanations of their errors and further writing support.

While proof-reading services mainly help students with surface level corrections, and TLAs assist with structural organisation of a written text, a number of researchers suggest that providing students with assignment exemplars may be beneficial for students' advancement in writing (Bell et al., 2013; Hawe et al., 2019; Hendry & Anderson 2013; Hendry et al., 2016; Wingate, 2012b).

3.7.4 Assignment exemplars

Assignment exemplars are pieces of work done by previous students, which represent quality and competent writing (Sadler, 1987). Wingate's (2012b) study revealed that, in order to adapt to the new discourse community, students prefer exemplars of written work done by previous students or feedback provided by the tutors on their own piece of writing. Students in her study claimed that such a mode of writing support gives a realistic picture of the expected standards. This finding is supported by other research in the field (Bell et al., 2013; Hawe et al., 2019; Scoles et al., 2013).

Various studies give additional benefits of using exemplars in relation to written assignments. Exemplars give an idea of how the end-product should look in terms of structure and teacher expectations (Hawe et al., 2019; Scoles et al., 2013), and present specifics of new writing genres, such as a case study or a report (Hendry & Anderson, 2013). Students also report advancement in their disciplinary knowledge through reading and understanding the content of exemplars (Hawe et al., 2019). Additionally, exemplars facilitate student reflection on their own writing and can help to identify areas for improvement in students' own work (Hawe et al., 2019).

Research also shows that exemplars negatively correlate with psychological factors, such as anxiety (Yucel et al., 2014). Assignment exemplars may boost students' confidence, raise their self-esteem, and motivate students to try harder and do better in their future studies (Hawe et al., 2019; Hendry et al., 2012). Overall, students express their preference for assignment exemplars over outlined criteria (Bell et al., 2013).

3.8 Chapter summary

This chapter provided a definition of academic help-seeking behaviour. It then discussed various adaptive help-seeking strategies that students may employ in HE institutions with EMI. It also discussed non-linguistic attributes that contribute to utilisation of adaptive help-seeking strategies, i.e. self-efficacy, agency, and motivation. The chapter then presented several avenues students may employ as their adaptive help-seeking strategies. One of the major avenues is SLCs. The chapter discussed the origins and development of SLCs and, the changing nature of TLAs' role. Challenges that TLAs face in order to accommodate the demands of the stakeholders, i.e. students, academic staff, and university as a whole, were addressed. As an alternative to adaptive help-seeking strategy for using SLC services, commercial and free web-based proof-reading services were discussed. Additionally, students' use of peer support in relation to proof-reading was detailed. The chapter also discussed the usefulness of assignment exemplars.

Chapter 4. Research Methodology and Methods

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents an overview of the research methodology, approach and methods employed in order to answer the following research questions:

RQ 1. What challenges do international L2 students in the early 21st century encounter throughout the first year of their university studies as they attempt to meet the academic writing standards demanded by their institutions?

RQ 2. In what way do international students' prior learning and experiences, including preparatory academic English courses, such as IELTS, successfully prepare these students for the challenges they encounter throughout the first year of their academic study?

RQ 3. How do the students' perception of, and approach to their academic writing practices, including their prior learning, consciously change as their first year of study progresses?

In brief, the research sought to examine what challenges international L2 students encounter in relation to written genres demanded by their institutions in the early 21st century and how, why, and when, the students' prior perceptions of academic writing that they bring to their first year of academic study, change as their first year unfolds. As indicated in Chapter 1, these prior perceptions are often developed in the courses associated with international language proficiency tests (e.g. IELTS), other preparatory courses, or the education that students receive in their home country. Also as mentioned in Chapter 1, such preparatory courses are often, among other things, problematically exam-focused, taught by those without the expertise relevant to the students' academic pathway, and lack a focus on the type of genres and specialist vocabulary that the students encounter at university. Nevertheless, most international L2 students throughout the course of their first year of study learn to successfully cope with, and adapt to, the demands and challenges of their first year academic writing practices. It is

the experiences and emergent understandings that impact on this process of change and adaptation that the study was primarily interested in.

In order to answer the research questions, a qualitative multiple case study approach was employed. This involved tracking the academic writing experiences of four international L2 students throughout their first year of academic study as they engaged with the writing demands of their academic courses in NZ universities. This chapter explains and rationalises the nature of the case study approach employed. It begins with an explanation of the researcher's worldview and discusses how this, along with the researcher identity, informed the initial design of the study. Following this, the chapter describes why a qualitative methodology was chosen for the research, and then why the case study was selected as an appropriate qualitative approach. Next, I explain the use of the longitudinal, embedded multiple case study design employed. After that, I describe the data collected for the case study, as well as where and when it was collected. I then describe the selection method and criteria, as well as the participant recruitment process. Following that, I detail data collection procedures and the way the data was analysed. Research quality assurance is then discussed in terms of reliability, validity, transferability and dependability. Finally, I reflect on the ethical and legal considerations for this research. The chapter is then summarised.

4.2 Worldview

Worldview as a philosophical orientation that builds foundation for research (Creswell & Tashakkori, 2007; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2011). It informs ontological (theory of being, e.g. tangible versus intangible), epistemological (theory of knowledge, e.g., tacit versus explicit), and axiological (a theory of beliefs, e.g. researcher versus participant) aspects of inquiry (Poulter et al., 2016), as well as the methodological orientation of research (Poulter et al., 2016; Riitaoja et al., 2010; Creswell, J. W. & Creswell, J. D., 2018).

The design of this study is informed by a social constructionist worldview. A social constructionist worldview suggests that realities are socially constructed, and individuals confer diverse meanings on own experiences (Hua, 2015; Weinberg, 2014). At the centre of social constructionism are human activities and their impact on meaning construction and understanding (Hua, 2015; Lock & Strong, 2010).

Danziger (1997) identifies two strands of social constructionism: ‘dark’ and ‘light’. The first strand mainly draws on the works of Foucault and is concerned with issues of power, the articulation of subjectivity, and the relativity of knowledge. It is the latter strand, light social constructionism, that is employed in the current research. Light social constructionism recognises multiple possibilities for meaning even with regards to conventions, traditions, and norms (Lock & Strong, 2010). Social constructionism in this strand cautions individuals to be suspicious even of their own assumptions of how the world appears to be, and to question whether the categories with which one sees the world actually refer to real divisions (Burr, 2015). For example, social constructionism questions the traditional division of humans into males and females as distinct types of humans. Given the possibilities of gender re-assignment surgery, such traditional classifications of human beings into men and women, proves to be ambiguous (Burr, 2015).

Furthermore, in social constructionism, the meaning of human activities is culturally and historically relative (Burr, 2015). Social constructionists perceive that certain human activities change with the progression of time and differ across cultures. As such, they depend on the particular social and economic situation dominating a culture at a specific time (Burr, 2015). Consequently, the understanding and meaning of particular events may differ across different situations (Lock & Strong, 2010).

Social constructionists seek an understanding of how knowledge emerges and “gains significance for society” (Walker, 2015, p.37). They believe that of the best ways to gain knowledge of social phenomena and understand its meaning is through the examination of social interactions (Lock & Strong, 2010; Walker, 2015).

In light of the research questions, and the study’s intention to capture and analyse the influences, experiences, and practices of four international L2 students as they attempted to meet the academic writing demands of their first undergraduate year, it was determined that multiple longitudinal qualitative case studies would best suit the methodological requirements of this research. The selection of this approach allows the research to reveal the meaning of the participants’ changing perceptions of their academic writing practices at different times throughout the research. The case study approach is detailed in Section 4.4 below.

4.2.1 Researcher identity

As well as a social constructionist worldview, my own identity as an international student has contributed to the design of this study. The researcher's identity and assumptions are shaped by their socio-historical locations and influence the kind of data collected and the way it is interpreted (Chikkatur & Jones-Walker, 2013; Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995). Indeed, my own values and assumptions about international L2 students' writing experiences were shaped by my own experiences as an international L2 student in NZ, which, in turn, resulted in the emergence of the research questions, as well as type of data to be collected and the best way to analyse it. When embarking on my own undergraduate journey in NZ, I realised that my previous knowledge of academic writing could not be easily transferred to writing in a western academic context. In the course of my studies, I realised that what I had been taught about academic writing at highly regarded educational institutions in Russia had very little relevance for the writing practices demanded at the New Zealand university where I was studying. This change in my own perceptions of academic writing sparked my interest in the perceptions of other first year international L2 students as far as academic writing in their areas of study was concerned.

Studying in NZ as an international L2 student myself, I had to adapt to a new language as well as a new learning style, one that was very different from that of my home country. I also had to find ways to overcome the many obstacles that occurred throughout my first year undergraduate study in an English-speaking country. As a result, when I began designing this study, I had a personal awareness of how cultural differences might impact on the participants' understanding of their own learning processes, as well as their interaction with myself as a researcher. For example, I was aware that the participants, as international L2 students, might not feel comfortable sharing their lives, worries, and concerns (Patton, 1990; Seidman, 1991). However, I believed that a research design, such as a longitudinal case study, would overtime, allow me to present myself as a sensitive and open-minded investigator, who was interested and respectful of other's opinions. This would allow me to break any initial barriers between the participants and myself, and encourage them to share their stories (Seidman, 1991). The qualitative nature of the research would also allow me to pick up on the rich and complex nuances of their study experiences.

4.3 Methodology

In order to examine the influences, experiences, and practices of first year international L2 students that impact upon and lead to changes in their academic writing processes, it was crucial to develop rich descriptions of the events that took place as their academic year unfolded. It was also crucial to understand the participants' perceptions of these events, as ultimately, it is the participants themselves that have an awareness of their own experiences in a particular context. As a result, a qualitative methodology, that is, a systematic investigation into social phenomena and human behaviour in its natural settings (Litchman, 2012), was identified as the most suitable for carrying out these research objectives, which ultimately focus on finding out how people make sense of their daily experiences (Gubrium & Holte, 2003; Kvale, 1996; Litchman, 2012; Merriam, 2009). In other words, a qualitative methodology can allow the researcher to investigate the phenomenon under study from the participants' point of view (Sarantakos, 1998). Similarly, as Stake (2010) argues, the aim of qualitative research is to "generate description and situational interpretations" (p. 57), which leads to a detailed analysis of the problem under investigation based on an individuals' understanding of a phenomenon. Accordingly, a researcher who uses a qualitative methodology usually relies on in-depth discussions or observations of the study participants in order to reach their findings (Litchman, 2012). The selection of a qualitative methodology also guides the selection of data collection methods and tools, as well as the procedures for data analysis. The qualitative case study approach employed for this study is discussed in the following section.

4.4 Approach

A qualitative case study approach (Swanborn, 2018) was selected for the study as being able to best provide an extensive, in-depth account of the influences, experiences, and practices of first year international L2 students that impact upon and lead to changes in their perceptions of academic writing processes. This section first provides an introductory description of the case study approach. It then looks at the benefits and disadvantages of the case study, followed by a discussion of the different types of case studies and case study designs. Finally, it describes the case study approach used in this study.

4.4.1 The case study

The case study has been viewed in different ways. Yin (2002) views it as an empirical enquiry. Eisenhardt and Graebner (2007) see it as a “rich empirical description of a phenomenon” (p. 25). Christensen and Carlile (2009) state that it is a “multifaceted examination of a situation” (p. 243). Other researchers view it as a research strategy (Eisenhardt, 1989), a research paradigm (Gomm et al., 2011), or a research approach (Swanborn, 2018). Following Swanborn (2018), I consider the case study as an approach to interpreting real-life events by means of various data collection methods of different sources of data.

A case study research starts with the identification of what constitutes the ‘case’, or the object of study “within its real-life context” (Yin, 2014, p. 16). The case is a single unit under scrutiny. Stake (2006) explained that ‘a case is a noun, a thing, an entity’ (p. 1). For example, a case may be a single person or a group of people who are representative of a particular phenomenon (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). A case study can also be a representative programme, policy, organisation, or community (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Although knowledge of a wider social context is important in understanding the case holistically (Taylor, 2017), it is important to draw clear boundaries around the case (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). If a case cannot be bounded, or “fenced in” (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 38), the phenomenon under study cannot qualify as a case.

In its core, Swanborn (2018) states that case study research analyses and illustrates the social world as a detailed “analytic narrative” (p. 14). An ‘analytic narrative’ provides the researcher with a detailed description of the historical events that influence the research participants’ goals and preferences. ‘Narratives’ focus on “stories, accounts and context” (p.14), which allow the researcher to trace participants’ behaviour by providing the research with evidence of historical events (Bates et al., 2000). The notion of ‘analytic’ can refer to the process of discovering research participants’ preferences and perceptions and their line of reasoning based on the information they possess and their strategies to overcome any constraints that are presented by the context, and restrict their actions (Swanborn, 2018, p. 14). The analytic part of a narrative also embeds theoretical concepts and theories to the narratives of historical events described by the participants (Bates et al., 2000). As a result, the exploitation of narration and analysis is believed to yield a better explanation of the investigated phenomenon than each could do alone (Mongin, 2016, 2019).

When reporting the findings from a case study, the researcher narrates a story that provides an empirical understanding of the studied phenomenon in an informed and clear way (Hancock & Algozzine, 2017). In shaping the story, the researcher makes conscious decisions about which features are ethnographically and discursively relevant and crucial for the final report of the findings (Livholts & Tamboukou, 2015; Sarangi & Candlin, 2004). The narrative of the findings in the current research is often shaped around ‘critical moments’ (Candlin et al., 2017) identified in each case study, that is, moments where participants exhibited their beliefs, processes, and practices in a particularly challenging context (Candlin, 2000; Candlin et al., 2017). During such critical moments participants evaluate their behaviour, develop a sense of what is possible, adjust own behaviour to a particular situation, and later reflect, discuss, and develop own beliefs, processes, and practices (Laws, 2020). The observation and analysis of these critical moments allows the researcher to acquire empirical knowledge of the participants’ behaviour and thoughts, ultimately adding to the existing theories.

4.4.2 Benefits of the case study approach

There are certain benefits of using the case study approach. Firstly, the case study approach enables the researcher to use multiple sources of data collection, which allows the observation of a single real-life event from multiple perspectives (Simons, 2009; Yin, 2006). The data collected by means of various data collection sources can provide holistic in-depth information on single processes in particular contexts (Simons, 2009) and inform the researcher of unique aspects of the studied phenomenon (Kiely, 2005).

The collection of multiple sources of data can lead to another benefit of the case study approach, that is, richness, specificity, and depth (Berg, 2009). In attempting to find the answers to “what”, “how” and “why” questions, the researcher gains invaluable insights about the perceptions participants have of their feelings, actions, and life experiences (Simons, 2009). Such insights can reveal important case characteristics that may have been previously overlooked or may not have been given sufficient significance (Simons, 2009; Yin, 2012).

Another major benefit of the case study approach is that it can facilitate the generation of theory (Kiely, 2005). This usually happens through the use of an inductive process, i.e. moving from an observation and scrutiny of the individual case, to a comparative

analysis of different cases, to the building of theory (Christensen & Carlile, 2009). Following the inductive process, the researcher first discerns possible relationships between aspects of the collected data from each individual case. That is, comparative analysis of two or more cases allows the budding of themes, increases understanding of the phenomenon, and results in theory development (Taylor, 2017).

The case study approach also assists the reader of a case to better and more clearly understand the phenomenon (Cohen et al., 2011). This can be achieved by means of reporting case-based themes and theories through narrative description (Creswell, 2013). When writing narrative description of research results, the researcher describes events and participants' experiences while simultaneously interweaving theoretical knowledge from literature (Simons, 2009). The combination of theory and narrative description of research results provides the reader with a fuller picture in comparison to the presentation of abstract theories alone (Creswell, 2013).

4.4.3 Disadvantages of the case study approach

The case study approach also presents certain disadvantages. The first involves the collection of large amounts of data. As mentioned above, to gain an understanding of the different possible types of information offered by a particular case, it is often best to employ a variety of data collection methods. However, the use of different data collection methods and the resulting collection of multiple sets of data may become cumbersome and hard to process (Cohen et al., 2011).

Another problem involves the often-necessary development of personal relationships with case study participants. Simons (2009), for instance, suggests that knowledge in a case study is typically co-constructed through the building of relationships with the participants and through the objective viewing of their reality. However, such personal involvement in a case study may be problematic, as it may result in the researcher's bias and affect the participants' trust in the credibility of the process (Cohen et al., 2011; Yin, 2012).

Another major critique of the case study approach is that it often offers a poor basis for generalising (Yin, 2009). This problem arises due to the fact that the case study under investigation is closely linked to the specific time and space of the participants.

However, a case study's results do not usually generalise about a wider population, but rather rely on analytical generalising where a particular set of results is generalised against some broader theory (Yin, 2009).

4.4.4 Types of case study

Runeson & Host (2009) identify four types of case study: *descriptive*, *exploratory*, *explanatory* and *evaluatory*. A descriptive case study intends to portray a phenomenon. An exploratory case study seeks an understanding of what is happening in a particular situation, and results in insights, new ideas, or hypotheses. An explanatory case study tests existing theories, and an evaluatory case study evaluates processes, methods, and tools. Given that the aim of the current research is to uncover the experiences and practices that impact upon and lead to changes in the perceptions of the academic writing processes of first year English L2 students at NZ universities, an exploratory case study is employed. The exploratory case study in my research seeks to understand how writing practices of first year international L2 students impact students' behaviour and lead to changes in their academic writing practices.

4.4.5 Types of case study designs

Yin (2002, 2018) also identifies four case study designs: single holistic, single embedded, multiple holistic, and multiple embedded designs.

4.4.5.1 Single and multiple

Single designs involve single cases, while multiple designs involve more than one case. Multiple case studies are seen as stronger and more reliable than single case studies, as they allow for the collection of in-depth information from several individual cases. Multiple case studies are also more likely to allow the researcher to develop convincing theories about the phenomena being studied (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Gustafsson, 2017).

The present study involved recruiting a number of participants, each with a different background and different first year university context in order to identify similarities and differences within and between cases, and facilitate the development of new knowledge in the field of academic literacies. Thus, the design of the study was

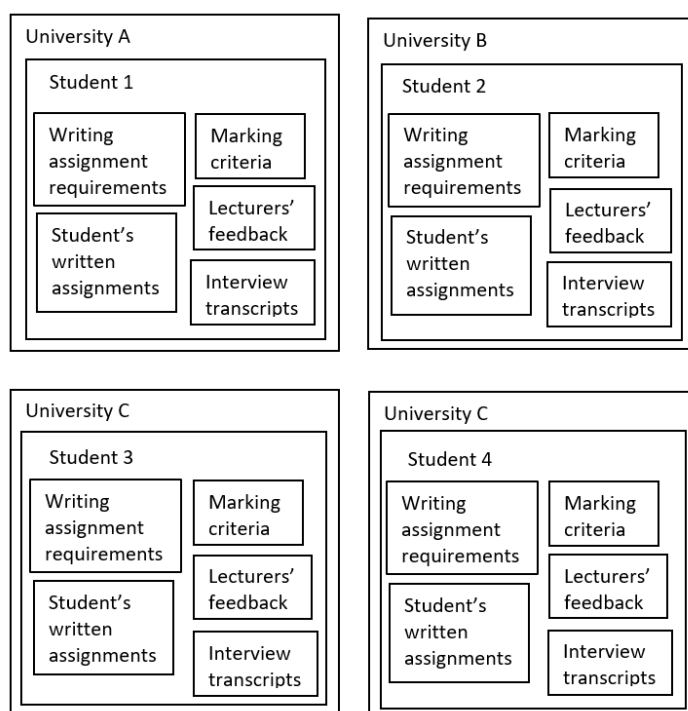
multiple. It first involved a within-case analysis, which identified reoccurring themes and patterns in each individual case (Yin, 2009). This was followed by a cross-case analysis employed to understand the similarities and differences between the cases (Yin, 2003). The findings were reinforced by existing literature in the field (Vannoni, 2014).

4.4.5.2 Holistic and embedded

Furthermore, and according to Yin (2003), holistic case studies focus on single units of analysis, while embedded designs focus on multiple units of analysis. In order to develop a comprehensive and complete understanding of the international L2 students' first year experiences, the study necessarily involved a range of units of analysis, including interview transcripts, students' written assignments, writing assignment requirements, marking criteria, and lecturers' feedback on students' assignments. As a result, an embedded design was chosen for the case study approach. In brief, the embedded nature of the case study integrated multiple units of analysis, providing various data for a wider and deeper understanding of the phenomenon (Yin, 2018). Figure 4.1 presents a visual representation of the case study design for the current study.

Figure 4.1

The Embedded Multiple Case Study Design Employed for this Study



As indicated in the figure, the embedded multiple case study design employed for this research involves four units of analysis, that is, four first year international L2 students studying in three different NZ universities. Embedded in each unit of analysis are five different data sources: writing assignment requirements, marking criteria, student's written assignments, lecturer feedback, and interview transcripts.

4.5 Time Horizon

Time horizon may be defined as a representation of events over a given period of time (Saunders et al., 2019). Since the current research seeks understanding of international L2 students' prior perceptions of academic writing and the way these perceptions change in the course of their first year of university studies, a longitudinal time horizon has been employed. Hence the case studies employed in this research are longitudinal.

4.5.1 Longitudinal case studies

Longitudinal case studies examine chronological timelines of events, activities, and changes in real-world situations over a period of time (Street & Ward, 2012). The main strength of longitudinal case studies is its capacity to track the changes and development of a specific event or activity (Saunders et al., 2019). Furthermore, the collection of data from many different time points provides the researcher with a more precise and detailed description of a studied phenomenon (Swanborn, 2018).

According to Kobayashi & Rinnert (2013), the longitudinal case study has increasingly been recognised as a beneficial research approach for examining L2 writing, as they help the researcher identify which knowledge and skills students apply to their writing at particular times, and how the use of this knowledge and skills may change overtime. Similarly, Leki (2000) argues that longitudinal case studies may inform researchers of the way students' writing develops and how social settings and activities influence students' learning process.

The data collection for this study began at the beginning of the 2017 academic year and concluded at the end of the 2017 academic year. Each of the four international first year L2 students were met with three times throughout the data collection period. The first

meeting took place at the beginning of the academic year where data about the baseline perceptions of the participants was gathered in order to identify their initial perceptions of their academic writing practices in their NZ universities. The second meeting took place at the end of Semester 1 or beginning of Semester 2, depending on participants' availability. This second meeting focused on gathering data about the challenges participants faced in relation to their ongoing academic writing practices. It also focused on collecting data about whether participants' perceptions of their academic writing processes had changed and how they had adapted to the demands and challenges of their academic writing practices by the middle of their first academic year. The final meeting with participants took place at the end of Semester 2. The final stage of the data collection process focused on capturing further information about changes in participants' perceptions of their writing practices, including information about their strategies for coping with their study experiences and approaching their written assignments.

4.6 Data

The data for the case studies was collected in the three meetings that took place with each participant. The data sources involved semi-structured interviews and documentation provided by the participants, including writing assignment requirements, marking criteria, student written assignments, and lecturer feedback on the written assignments. Fieldnotes were also taken by the researcher throughout the interviews. Table 4.1 provides an overview of the data collected for the study, as well as the rationale for collecting this data.

Table 4.1

Overview of the Data and the Rationale for its Use

Data	Rationale
Semi-structured interviews	✓ Establish a rapport with the participants (especially at the initial interview). ✓ Obtain information on the context and individual perceptions of writing practices during first year university studies.

	✓ Discuss with the students the relevance of their academic writing skills that they gained previously to the current writing assignments. ✓ Invite students to discuss the way their writing assignments meet the assignment requirements and marking criteria. ✓ Invite students to discuss the reasons for the given grade. ✓ Invite students to discuss what could have been improved to achieve a better grade. ✓ Invite students to reflect on the kind of knowledge they gained with regards to academic writing from their lecturers' feedback. ✓ Invite students to reflect on what could have improved their past writing assignments. ✓ Query students' confidence in seeking application of their gained knowledge about academic writing in their future writing assignments.
Writing assignment requirements	✓ Gain an understanding of time frames provided for the students in order to complete each writing assignment. ✓ Gain an understanding of the type of assignments (individual or group). ✓ Gain an understanding of lecturers' requirements for the written assignments. ✓ Conduct linguistic analysis of the assignment requirements for understanding the complexity of the language used by lecturers in written assignment requirements. ✓ Compare with the assignment requirements implied by the marking criteria. ✓ Identify areas for subsequent discussion with the participants.
Marking criteria	✓ Gain an understanding of lecturers' marking criteria for the written assignments. ✓ Conduct linguistic analysis of the assignment requirements for understanding the complexity of the language used by lecturers in marking criteria. ✓ Identify consistency or discrepancy between what was required in the writing assignment requirements and what is being assessed according to the marking criteria. ✓ Identify areas for subsequent discussion with the participants.
Student written assignments	✓ Analyse students' written skills for tracing changes in students' writing practices. ✓ Identify whether student written assignments match the writing assignment requirements and marking criteria.
Lecturer feedback on the student written assignments	✓ Compare lecturers' feedback grades with the students' written assignments. ✓ Compare students' responses to questions about the lecturers' feedback with the lecturer's feedback. ✓ Use as a prompt for discussing students' perceptions of lecturers' feedback.
Fieldnotes	✓ Observe non-verbal behaviours of the participants. ✓ Make notes of the information to be discuss with participants at a later stage, in order not to interrupt the participants' thoughts.

The following sections will justify the use of the chosen data collection sources and tools.

4.6.1 Semi-structured interviews

One of the best ways to acquire knowledge about a particular environment is through the insights of another human being immersed in that environment (Lofland, J. & Lofland, L., 1995). These can be easily gathered through face-to-face interaction (Kvale, 1996). Denzin and Lincoln (2011) argue that face-to-face interaction allows the researcher to capture the perceptions of participants that are inaccessible via other means of data collection, for example, through the use of quantitative methods. In cases when the rapport is established with the participants, interviews may empower the researcher to develop joint understanding and co-construct the reality of the participants' contexts (Simons, 2009). The purpose of interviewing is not to simply obtain answers to questions, but to obtain an in-depth understanding of the lived experience of other people and the meaning that they make of that experience (Seidman, 2006). Interviews can also provide access to the context of the participant's behaviour and offer ways to interpret their behaviour. As a result, interviews with participants were selected as a tool for collecting data for the case studies.

Interviews can be classified as structured, unstructured, and semi-structured, and the decision as to which of these to use is most useful and is often determined by the nature of the study itself. Structured interviews, for example, do not normally allow for the change of order or wording in the questions, and are best suited for demographic research (Merriam, 2009). In contrast, unstructured interviews are useful when not enough information is known about the phenomenon, as it is difficult to formulate precise questions prior to the research (Berg, 2009).

The current research utilised semi-structured interviews. Semi-structured interviews allow the formulation of an approximate set of questions related to the aims of the study and are often based on the existing literature in the field. However, at the same time, they also offer a degree of flexibility to explore unexpected issues raised by the participants (Merriam, 2009). Semi-structured interviews also provide flexibility for the order in which the questions can be asked and discussed. The questions became prompts that allow for the exploration of a participant's train of thoughts on a particular topic or

area of interest. In this study, such flexibility enabled me to converse with the participants in a natural manner. It also provided me with the opportunity to react and expand on the ideas discussed by the participants, rather than limiting myself to the devised questionnaire (Merriam, 2009).

More specifically, the flexibility of the semi-structured interview approach enabled the informal discussion of the participants' writing assignment requirements and marking criteria, the completed written assignments, and lecturer's feedback on the written assignments. For example, discussion about the documentation allowed the participants to reveal their perceptions about the similarities and differences of their previous and current academic writing practices. It also enabled participants to discuss the way their current writing assignments met the assignment requirements and marking criteria. Semi-structured interviews also gave participants the opportunity to reflect on their lecturers' feedback of their written assignments, and how this knowledge may have helped them perform better in their previous writing assignments. Similarly, semi-structured interviews also enabled the participants to consider whether the knowledge they had gained about academic writing would be useful for their future writing assignments. Berg (2009) argues that, at least in the initial stages, the semi-structured interview fosters informal communication with the participants, by establishing rapport, forming a connection, and building a relationship. Accordingly, the use of semi-structured interviews in this study also enabled me to cultivate trust and develop empathy with the participants. This was often achieved through an effort to relate to each student's circumstances and experiences. Ultimately the semi-structured interview approach facilitated in-depth personal descriptions of their first year academic writing experiences that provided unique and illuminative findings.

As mentioned above, the interviews were held three times over the 2017 academic year. The first interview was held at the beginning of the academic year, while depending on the participants' availability, the second interview was held either at the end of Semester 1 or beginning of Semester 2. The final interview took place the end of Semester 2. Each interview lasted between 45 and 90 minutes. The interviews were held on the campuses of the participants' universities in the metropolitan area of Auckland.

To summarise this section, the semi-structured interviews used in this study provided a useful framework for the participants to share their experiences by reflecting on their academic experiences in relation to their writing practices, and at the same time, to elaborate on these events within the broader context of their lives (Kvale, 1996; Seidman, 1991). The use of this data collection tool provided me with a clearer understanding of what influenced changes in students' academic writing processes in their first-year undergraduate study at NZ universities.

4.6.2 Documentation

Another type of data collected for the case study that contributed to answering the research questions was documentation. Documentation facilitates broad coverage of the phenomenon under investigation over a long span of time in different settings and can be reviewed repeatedly (Yin, 2002, 2005).

Creswell (2013), however, argues that documentation may be either difficult to source, may not be accommodating, or inappropriate altogether. Hence, Scott (2017) suggests that documentation should be evaluated for its fit for the research before constituting it as a data collection source. As indicated in Section 4.4.5, to answer the research questions, the documents collected for the case study involved writing assignment requirements, marking criteria, students' written assignments, and lecturer's feedback on the students' written assignments. Rationale for each individual type of document was mentioned in Section 4.6. The use of documents also assisted me in corroborating and augmenting evidence from semi-structured interviews (Yin, 2009). A description of documentation collected for the study is presented in the following sections.

4.6.2.1 The writing assignment requirements

The students' writing assignment requirements were collected in order to understand the nature of the requirements for the students' assignments. Information of interest included the due dates for the assignments, the type of assignments (individual or group), description of assignment tasks, as well as the kind of knowledge and skills which the students were expected to demonstrate in their assignments. Additionally, the linguistic clarity of the assignment requirements was examined to identify any discrepancies between the requirements and the marking criteria. As mentioned, the

writing assignment requirements were also used as prompts for questions in the interviews.

4.6.2.2 The marking criteria

The assignment marking criteria were collected in order to understand the nature of the marking criteria and the grades assigned for each assignment task. Additionally, the consistency between the writing assignment requirements for the students' assignments and the marking criteria were examined. The marking criteria were also used as prompts for questions in the interviews.

4.6.2.3 The students' written assignments

The students' written assignment work was one of the focal points for the current study. In particular, it served as the focus of discussion in the second and third interviews with the participants. The interviews included inviting students to point out where in their work they were attempting to meet the assignment requirements set by the lecturers, and in which way. Students were also invited to discuss which of their academic writing skills acquired prior to the current studies were applicable or irrelevant, to their current written works, and in which way.

4.6.2.4 Feedback on the students' written assignments

The lecturers' feedback, which included the lecturers' comments on their assessment of the participants' written assignments, as well as the final grades received for the assignment, were also of interest for this study. Once a participant's lecturer had returned the hard or soft copy of their assignment with their comments and grades, the participants were requested to forward them to me for analysis. The feedback also served as a trigger for the discussion of the participants' perceptions about their assignment, the fairness of the comments and the grade awarded, as well as how they believed it might impact on their approach to future written assignments.

4.6.2.5 Data collection timeline and procedure

This section presents a timeline of the case study data collection process from the time participants were recruited until the final interaction. Details of the data collection procedure are also included.

Prior to the first interview, I asked all participants to email digital copies of their writing assignments requirements and marking criteria. In total I received 28 writing assignment requirements, and 21 marking criteria.

As mentioned in Section 4.6, the first interview allowed me to establish a rapport with the participants and obtain information on the context and individual perceptions of writing practices at the beginning of their first year university studies. Each of the three interviews were audio-recorded. Audio records were later transcribed for analytical purposes. During each interview I also took fieldnotes, which were typed into memos in the NVivo software.

In the first interview, participants were also requested to email me their written assignments, after they were completed. Participants were encouraged to provide me with as many written assignments as they had throughout their first year of study. In total participants provided me with 31 written assignments. Additionally, participants were asked to provide me with a hard or soft copy of lecturers' feedback on their written assignments once received, even if it only consisted of the assignment grades. The total number of examples of feedback collected was 28.

As soon as documents were obtained, I digitalised those that were only provided in hard copy. Then, I analysed the linguistic clarity of the writing assignment requirements and the assignment marking criteria. Following that, I analysed the participants' written assignments paying attention to their relationship with the marking criteria. The lecturer's feedback on participants' written assignments was then examined to establish the consistency between the focus in the lecturers' comments, writing assignment requirements, and marking criteria. All the documentation analysed provided a basis for in-depth discussion with the participants and was the main focus of second and third interviews. Table 4.2 summarises the data collection processes.

Table 4.2

Summary of Data Collection Processes

Data collected	Data collection timeframe			Details
	Beginning (March-April)	Middle (May-August)	End (September-November)	
Semi-structured interviews	✓	✓	✓	✓ One hour on average three times throughout the case study research. ✓ Audio-recorded. ✓ Transcribed.
Writing assignment requirements	✓	✓		✓ 28 writing assignment requirements collected in total. ✓ Collected from participants in soft or hard copies. ✓ Hard copies were digitalised.
Marking criteria	✓	✓		✓ 21 marking criteria collected in total. ✓ Collected from participants in soft or hard copies. ✓ Hard copies were digitalised.
Students' written assignments	✓	✓		✓ 31 assignments collected in total. ✓ Hard copies were digitalised.
Feedback on students' written assignments		✓	✓	✓ 28 examples of feedback collected in total. ✓ Hard copies were digitalised.
Fieldnotes	✓	✓	✓	✓ Hand-written during the interviews. ✓ Typed into memos in NVivo.

4.7 Participants

4.7.1 Participant selection method and criteria

Purposive sampling, which involves hand-picking certain participants for a specific reason while excluding others (Somekh & Lewin, 2009), was chosen as the most suitable approach for the selection of participants. Oliver (2008) identifies this type of

sampling as non-probability sampling, which is common for interpretive-based research. Cohen et al. (2011) also argue that this type of sampling avoids deliberate representation from the wider population, seeking to represent a certain group of people. Since the research was directed only at international students whose first language was not English, and who were in their first year of undergraduate study at a NZ university, purposive sampling allowed the researcher to select participants that met this criteria from the wider student group.

Furthermore, given the longitudinal and qualitative nature of the study, as well as the intended scope and depth of each case study, only a small number of participants were perceived as necessary, i.e. between four and six students. Two levels of selection criteria were utilised (see Table 4.3). If more than six potential participants met the first level selection criteria, then the second level selection criteria would be utilised to cut down the number of participants to six. Details of the participants selected will be provided in Section 4.7.3.

Table 4.3

Two Levels of Selection Criteria

First level selection criteria (applied to all participants)	Second level selection criteria (applied in case more than six participants volunteered for the study)
<i>Students had to:</i>	<i>Students had to:</i>
1. Be international students	1. Be representative of a variety of nationalities and countries of origin
2. Have a first language other than English	2. Be a mix of genders
3. Have passed the IELTS exam	3. Be representative of a variety of study disciplines
4. Have met the language criteria for admission	4. Complete a varied range of written assessment genres throughout the first year of their studies
5. Be at the beginning of their undergraduate studies	

4.7.2 Recruitment process

The participant recruitment process targeted students from three large universities in the metropolitan area of Auckland. Together these universities host a large number of international L2 students, and therefore provide the opportunity to recruit the specific population required for the study. Furthermore, all three universities are listed in the top 500 universities internationally (The World University Ranking, n.d.).

The recruitment of the student participants was voluntary-based and had three components. One of the primary ways that participants were recruited was through written advertisements (see Appendix B) placed on student notice boards at the three Auckland Universities. Furthermore, as a practicing Muslim who often attends a mosque for prayers, I knew that many other people who attend prayers are international L2 students. As a result, I distributed and attached written advertisements on notice boards in both female and male parts of the mosque at the AUT city campus. One of the participants contacted me after viewing the advertisement on a student notice board and another replied to an advertisement placed in a mosque.

The second way to recruit participants was through institutional gatekeepers, such as undergraduate office administrative staff and Heads of Departments, who have access to student email databases. The gatekeepers were sent emails where I introduced myself as a researcher and outlined my study. The email also contained recruitment information including a written invitation to international L2 first-year undergraduate students, a file with an e-poster (Appendix C) stating the purpose of the research and participant criteria, as well as my contact details. The gatekeepers were politely requested to forward the electronic invitation and e-poster to potential participants using their student email databases. Two of the three universities also advertised the study through their electronic newsletters that were published bi-monthly and were distributed to students' university emails. Two potential participants contacted me after receiving one of these emails and were recruited.

The third way that participants were recruited involved asking potential participants in person at various university club events. I was able to recruit four participants in this way. I also asked the presidents of a number of clubs to distribute information about my research to their new club members, who would presumably be first-year students. For ease of distribution, the club presidents asked me to email them the e-poster and

information about my research, so that this could easily be forwarded to the club members via their database. The clubs that were approached included the world “international” in their title, or were country-specific, for example, “Chinese Club”. To support this manner of recruitment, I also joined the Facebook pages of those clubs that were approached and personally posted invitations to my study. Unfortunately, no responses were received via this manner of participant recruitment.

To sum up, the recruitment of participants for the study was achieved by purposive sampling. Three ways to recruit student participants were utilised: written advertisements at universities in Auckland, asking gatekeepers to invite students utilising their electronic databases, and approaching participants in person during club meetings at NZ universities.

4.7.3 Participants

A total of eight potential participants contacted me about the study at the beginning of the 2017 academic year. Four were Arab, two were Chinese, one was Mexican, and one was from Sri Lanka. Since more than six students volunteered for the research, level two selection criteria was required. To represent a variety of countries of origin, two Arab student-participants and one participant from the other three nationalities were selected (criteria 1). To present a more or less equal gender mix, three of the participants selected were females, and two were males (criteria 2). The incline towards a female group of participants was due to the fact that only two males volunteered for the study. There was naturally a good range of ages and discipline areas. Once the research progressed, one of the male participants dropped out after our first interview. When I approached him to organise our second interview, he asked to be excluded from the study. Table 4.4 below presents demographic information of all potential participants who volunteered for the study and which of those were involved or not.

Table 4.4*Potential Participants and Involvement in the Study*

Students	Demographic information				Place of current study	Involvement
	Age	Gender	Place of origin	First language		
Sarah	19	Female	Saudi Arabia	Arabic	University B	Selected for participation
Reema	30	Female	Saudi Arabia	Arabic	University C	Selected for participation
Elsa	24	Female	Saudi Arabia	Arabic	University C	Not selected for participation
Dora	24	Female	Saudi Arabia	Arabic	University C	Not selected for participation
Marina	21	Female	Mexico	Spanish	University A	Selected for participation
Harry	22	Male	Sri Lanka	English	University C	Selected for participation
Bob	35	Male	China	Chinese	University B	Selected for participation, but withdrew
Katherine	19	Female	China	Chinese	University C	Not selected for participation

The four participants who ultimately participated in the study were all second language students in their first year of undergraduate studies. Two had Arabic as their first language (females), one student had Spanish as her first language (female), and one participant, although coming from Sri Lanka, where Tamil and Sinhalese are the official languages, identified English as his first language (male). The participants were 19-30 years old: Sarah was the youngest (19), Marina and Harry were of similar age (21 and 22), and Reema was the oldest (30). The range of the participants' gender, age, disciplinary area studied, and languages spoken indicate the possibility that the findings of the study could be applied more widely to those studying elsewhere in NZ.

Reema was the only participant who did not have any educational experience with English as the medium of instruction prior to coming to NZ. Although all of the participants had attended an IELTS programme, Sarah, Reema, and Marina also actively self-studied for the exam. Only Marina and Harry, however, were admitted to university based on their IELTS test results. Marina, Harry, and Reema gained an undergraduate certificate or diploma prior to their current study, while Sarah did not have any post-secondary qualifications. Reema was admitted to her main studies after successfully

passing a Foundation Programme, and Sarah was required to take a compulsory non-credit-bearing EAP course in her first year of her study. Table 4.5 presents a summary of all four participants' previous study experiences involving English, as well as the pathways that they took to be enrolled in their current programmes of study.

Table 4.5

Students' Study Experiences

Students	Study experiences	
	Previous study in English	Pathways to the current study
Sarah	International School in Saudi Arabia, Jordan and Oman. IELTS courses. Self-study towards IELTS. Foundation Year at University A.	Compulsory EAP course during the first year of undergraduate study
Reema	English courses in NZ. Self-study towards IELTS.	Foundation Year
Marina	Kindergarden. Primary school. IELTS courses. Self-study towards IELTS. Business Diploma.	IELTS
Harry	British school in Sri Lanka. BCIS Certificate from an Australian college in Sri Lanka. IELTS course.	IELTS

4.8 Data collection procedures

The following sub-sections explain the procedures for collecting semi-structured interview data, the documentation data, and the fieldnotes.

4.8.1 Procedures for collecting semi-structured interview data

Prior to carrying out the interviews a list of potential interview questions was established (Appendix D) as prompts for the semi-structured interviews. The question prompts were designed to be asked in different ways and in any order to different participants (Lindlof & Taylor, 2002). The interview question prompts had four primary aims:

- 1) Establish information about the participants' background information, duration of previous language studies, pathways to their current studies, current area/course of study, and students' overall psychological state with regard to their academic studies in general.
- 2) Establish the participants' academic writing practices at various points of time in their first year of study.
- 3) Establish information about the participants' academic writing skills acquired prior to entering their current major.
- 4) Establish information about the participants' application of their previously gained academic writing knowledge and skills and their effectiveness of these during their first-year undergraduate writing practices. For example, a question prompt designed to be asked to the participants at the beginning of their undergraduate studies was *Which of the IELTS skills are relevant for your current studies?* In subsequent interviews throughout the year, the interview guide included reformulated and retrospective questions, such as *Do you think that previous learning helped you with your written academic tasks? In what way?*

To ensure that the questions were answered in full during each interview, I gave the participants time to collect their thoughts and used various probing techniques (Bernard, 2013). These techniques mainly involved echo-probing and clarification. Echo-probing involved the repetition of a word or phrase that had been mentioned by the participant and which I wanted them to expand on or clarify (Bernard, 2013). The clarification technique involved rephrasing the participants' words in order to establish a full understanding of the participants' meanings of their words (Bernard, 2013). I was also aware of non-verbal cues that showed that my questions were not clear or needed reformulating and clarification. Any questions from the set of interview prompts that were covered by the participants in their answers to previous questions, were omitted from the interview, in order to maintain the flow of the interaction, and avoid turning the interview into a question-answer session.

To ensure privacy, the interviews took place in pre-booked private rooms, secluded parts of student study areas, or cafes where the surrounding ambience would prevent the interview from being heard by the public. In order to arrange the interviews, the

participants were provided with a list of potential time periods for each interview and were asked to choose a suitable time slot.

4.8.2 Procedures for collecting the documentation data

The data collected for the document analysis component of the case study involved writing assignment requirements, marking criteria, students' written works, and lecturers' feedback.

Participants were asked to email me digital copies of their writing assignments requirements and marking criteria, so that they would arrive before the first interview. However, in most cases participants brought them as hard copies. In two cases, I had to assist the participants locate their assignment requirements and marking criteria, as they were not familiar with the online learning management systems (LMS) of their universities. In some cases, the writing assignment requirements were not provided by the participants. For example, in one case I was only provided with the assignment template, and in another, I was provided with only one of two assignment requirement documents. Once the assignments requirements and marking criteria were obtained, any hard copies of the documents were digitised, and the originals returned to the participants.

The participants' written assignments were collected next and they became the primary foci of the second and third interviews. At the first interview, students were asked to provide me with several of their written assignments that they had completed throughout the course of their 2017 academic year. Any student assignments submitted to me in hard copy were digitalised and the hard copies returned to students.

Once a hard or soft copy of the student's written assignments with the lecturer's feedback was returned to the students, the participants were requested to forward them to me for data analysis. For some assignments, the participants were not provided with a copy of their written feedback. In these instances, they were only able to offer their assignment grade, or I was able to, with their permission, help them navigate through their university's online LMS to retrieve their lecturer's comments. In 3 cases students did not provide me with any feedback on their assignments, so this data was considered missing. Again, any hard copies of the documents were digitalised. Table 4.6 indicates the number and type of documentation received for each participant.

Table 4.6*The Number and Type of Documentation Received for Each Participant*

Type of documentation	Writing assignment requirements	Marking criteria	Written assignments	Lecturers' feedback
Participant				
Sarah	7 ¹	6 ²	10	10
Reema	8	8	8	7
Marina	5 ³	2	5	3 ⁴
Harry	8	5	8	8 ⁵
Total	28	21	31	28

Note. ¹ involved only assignment requirements for resources; ² marking criteria for Communicating for a Knowledge Society Assignment 1 (Research Summary) involved only names of the criteria without explanation of what they involved; ³ assignment requirements for the Communication paper Assignment 1 (Source Justification) involved only assignment template; ⁴ lecturer's feedback consisted of the assignment grade and a comment on the research question identified by the student; ⁵ four examples of feedback for the Programming 1 paper in Semester 1 and 2 involved Peer Review and Critique Forms.

To ensure that the collected data is correctly interpreted and to avoid ambiguity, it was necessary to develop a well-structured process for analysing the data. The data analysis process is described in detail in section 4.9.

4.8.3 Procedure for collecting fieldnotes

During the interviews, I also took fieldnotes. These largely involved observations, personal thoughts, and ideas that emerged as a result of the ongoing interview process. The fieldnotes also included information that I wanted to either clarify or verify with the participants later in the interview (Hancock & Algozzine, 2017; Hua, 2015). I also noted comments on the informants' non-verbal behaviour. Some of the details of these non-verbal descriptions were incorporated into the case study reports to allow readers to feel as if they were present during the interviews. As the fieldnotes were considered a component of interviews, they were analysed along with the participant's answers.

4.9 Data analysis

Data analysis “is the process of making sense out of the data” (Merriam, 2009, p. 175), and involves interpreting, as well as reducing and consolidating the information. The data analysis procedures for this study involved the analysis of the recorded and transcribed interviews and researchers’ fieldnotes, as well as text analysis of documentation, i.e. writing assignment requirements, marking criteria, students’ assignments, and lecturers’ feedback on those. It involved a cyclic and iterative process (Hiver & Al-Hoorie, 2019; Lapan et al., 2011; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016; Tesch, 1990), which began once the first data sets were collected.

The procedure for the data analysis followed three steps:

- 1) Organising the data;
- 2) Analysing the data;
- 3) Generating overall themes.

Each of these steps are discussed in the following section.

4.9.1 Organising the data

The organisation of the data involved a number of processes. Audiotaped interviews were transcribed verbatim and transcripts checked for accuracy. All transcripts were also read and checked by the participants. Documentation that was not already in an electronic form was scanned and saved on my personal computer. All data was organised into four main folders, each designated for one of the participants. These main folders included a folder containing all interview transcripts with the participant, and two other folders named Semester 1 and Semester 2. The Semester 1 and Semester 2 folders included daughter-folders named after participants’ papers¹ in each semester. The number of these daughter-folders was determined by the number of written assignments the participant wished to share from their papers. Each of these folders contained the assignment requirements and marking criteria, student assignments, and assignment feedback.

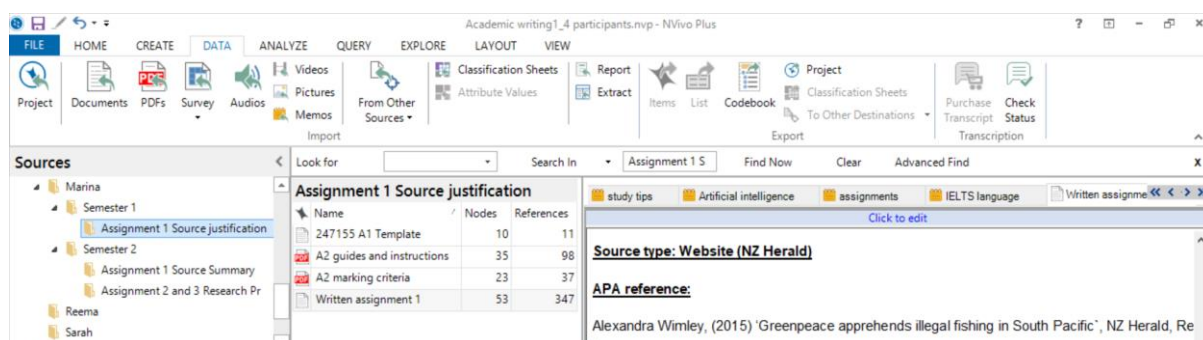
¹ In NZ, ‘paper’ is known as a ‘subject’ or ‘unit’ in other education systems.

All the raw data was then loaded into the computer software programme NVivo 11 in preparation for the analysis. Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) identify the NVivo programme as a useful tool for organising and structuring qualitative data. This is because NVivo facilitates in-depth analysis “using powerful search, query and visualisation tools that can uncover subtle connections” (Taylor & Søndergaard, 2017). NVivo also provides the researcher with insights and ideas for coding, labelling and categorisation in the course of the data analysis process (Taylor & Søndergaard, 2017).

The raw data was organised in the NVivo programme in the same way that it was organised in the computer to avoid confusion. This also allowed me to work on each participant individually. Figure 4.2 presents a visual representation of the way raw data was organised in NVivo for one of the participants, Marina. As can be seen in the figure, data was collected in separate folders, named after each participant. Within those folders, data related to each assignment, including assignment requirements, marking criteria, assignment templates, students’ written assignments, and lecturer’s feedback on them, was organised in daughter-folders for Semester 1 and Semester 2.

Figure 4.2

Organisation of Documentation in NVivo



The fieldnote data was also recorded in memos in the NVivo software and attached to each participant’s folder. This data helped to identify the context of the situation, as well as any information that might have appeared as significant during the data analysis process (Lapan et al., 2011; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). An example of the fieldnote data, as it appears in NVivo, can be seen in Figure 4.3 below.

Figure 4.3

Fieldnote Related to Contradictions in Assignment Requirements

Memos			
Name	Nodes	Referenc	
Artificial intelligence	0	0	
assignments	0	0	
blog site	0	0	

contradictions in the guide		Click to edit
Please carefully proof read before handing in. and at the same time The purpose of this style guide is ensure that all assignments are on a level playing field. The focus of the marking is on content.		

4.9.2 Analysing the data

The data analysis process began with a within-case analysis (Yin, 2009). This involved analysing each case study separately. It involved three steps: coding, labelling and categorisation. The first step, coding, involved examining each line in all the raw data, to identify and give descriptive codes to themes in the data related to the research questions, including evidence of the participant's skills, strategies and knowledge about academic writing, their application of these to their academic written assignments, and their perception of their effectiveness. Themes and patterns related to the student's interactions with texts and practices, such as the writing assignment requirements and marking criteria, tutorials, group work, and lecturer feedback were also identified, as were any noticeable changes in their perceptions of academic writing in light of these interactions. Figure 4.4 below presents an extract of the initial coding of the data with the descriptive names for each code.

Figure 4.4

Initial Coding of the Data

academic writing			
Name	Sources	Referen	
student wants to master the language faster	3	7	
English was hard at the beginning of Semester 1	4	14	
expectations of IELTS classes	2	10	
student understands the difference between different types	2	2	
student is disappointed in the level of teaching at IELTS cour	4	10	
student finds a sollution to suit her study expectations or to	4	10	
student feels proud and happy that she got higher results th	2	2	
the way mistakes were corrected in IELTS classes	3	7	
students in IELTS classes have different type of mistakes whi	2	2	
IELTS study is different from high school	2	2	

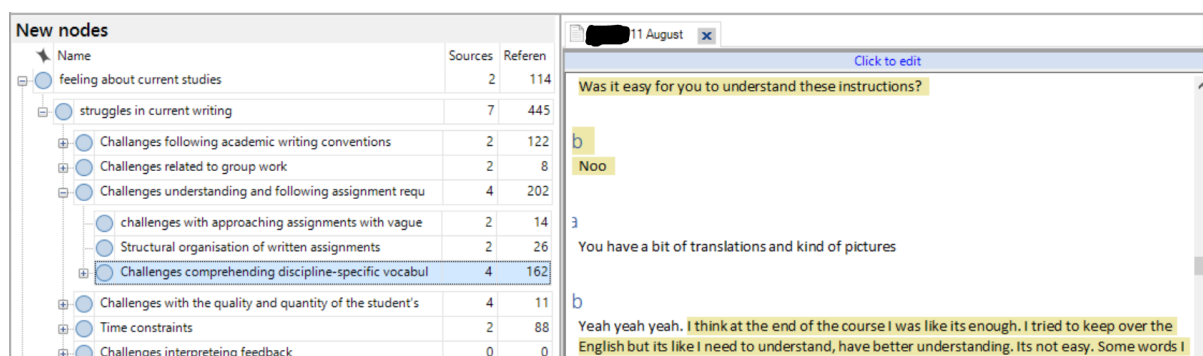
English was hard at the beginni		ce 1 - 0.20% Coverage
Was it easy for you to understand these instructions?		
Noo		
ce 2 - 1.36% Coverage		
I think at the end of the course I was like its enough. I tried to keep over the English but its like need to understand, have better understanding. Its not easy. Some words I would describe		

The second step of data analysis, data labelling, was carried out in several stages. Data labelling involved assigning labels or names to the identified themes and patterns during the coding step. Nominated labels were concise, clear, and diverse and provided minimal information about each code in relation to the research questions (Hiver & Al-Hoorie, 2019).

The final step of the data analysis, categorisation, involved placing all labels into higher level parent categories. At this stage, some initial codes were renamed using concepts from academic writing literature, the list of interview questions (Dornyei, 2007), as well as the metaphors and analogies used by the participants (Dornyei, 2007). The use of participants' direct speech in the categories' names made the preliminary codes more unique and authentic (Rosch, 2013). As shown in Figure 4.5, the original code name 'English was hard at the beginning of Semester 1' (Figure 4.4) was later labelled as 'Challenges comprehending discipline-specific vocabulary' and was placed under a broader category 'Challenges understanding and following assignment requirements'.

Figure 4.5

Categorisation of Analysed Data



Coloured visual tree-diagrams and cluster analysis were also used to assist the organisation of the preliminary codes into the higher level parent categories. In some cases, there also was a need to break down some codes into more than one category, merge them with other codes, or remove them altogether.

4.9.3 Generating overall themes

The third data analytical procedure included looking for patterns, making comparisons, producing explanations, and building models from the higher-level parent categories across the four case studies in order to develop more in-depth thematic responses to the research questions (Dornyei, 2007). This process is referred to as a cross-case analysis (Yin, 2009). The ‘constant comparative method’ (Merriam, 1998) was used to develop these overall themes. This method involves the constant “comparing of one segments of data with another to determine similarities and differences” (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 32). Eventually, four broad categories were identified classifying students’ challenges with academic writing in their first year undergraduate writing practices. They were:

- 1) challenges following academic writing conventions,
- 2) challenges understanding and following assignment requirements,
- 3) challenges interpreting feedback,
- 4) challenges involved in completing assignments on time.

The data analysis also showed that while students were dealing with the above mentioned challenges, they constantly drew on their: 1) self-efficacy, 2) agency, 3) motivation. These themes were also investigated in relation to the research questions.

To ensure the efficacy of the determined categories, the guidelines mentioned by Merriam (1998) were followed. Firstly, I ensured that categories reflected the purpose of the research and provided answers to the research questions. Secondly, the categories were exhaustive, which means that all data fitted into at least one category.

4.9.4 Triangulation of data

Triangulation refers to “an examination of how different sources of data on the same topic may complement each other to deepen understanding of the study topic” (Lapan et al., 2011, p. 99). It is a feature of a multiple case study approach that involves multiple data sets (Yin, 2002, 2018).

Triangulation has a number of benefits. Flick (2011) sees triangulation as the combination of data sources, theories, and observations when studying a particular

concept. One of the benefits of triangulation is that the combination of data sources helps the researcher identify, explore, and understand different dimensions of the areas of study (Rothbauer & Given, 2008). Another benefit of the triangulation process is its ability to provide rigor, complexity, richness, and depth to the data analysis (Foster, 1997). By looking at the data from various perspectives, the researcher is able to extract enough meaning to depict various patterns that may constitute theories (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016).

Denzin (1978) identifies four types of triangulation:

- 1) the use of various data sources, such as time, space and person (data triangulation);
- 2) investigator triangulation when more than one researcher is doing the research;
- 3) theory triangulation;
- 4) the use of multiple methods in an examination of a phenomenon (methodological triangulation).

This study, which included the collection and analysis of multiple sources of data (i.e. interviews, field notes, writing assignment requirements, marking criteria, student written assignments, and lecturer comments) involved ‘data triangulation’. This occurred through the constant comparison and cross-checking of the findings emerging from these different data sets (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Furthermore, to ensure that emergent interpretations of the data were correct, preliminary findings were taken and voiced to the participants during the second and third interviews, who drawing upon their experiences, often suggested improvements to my initial perspectives on their experiences. This allowed me to improve the rigour of the analysis ‘by assessing the integrity of the inferences that one draws from more than one vantage point’ (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007, p. 579).

4.10 In brief, the data analysis processes and attention to triangulation, described above, were intended to produce rigorous findings that would result in an in-depth understanding the phenomenon under study, as well as the development of a theory based on the emergent themes and categories. It was also hoped that the analytical process would impact on the reliability, validity, dependability, and transferability of the results (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2004; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). These concepts are described in the next section. Quality assurance

To add credibility for the research, Merriam (1998) calls for quality assurance. She considers credibility as a consistency between the findings and participants' shared experiences. Creswell (2013), however, argues that the findings of any research is a subjective representation of the author's understanding of the events. Since this research is qualitative in nature and adopts a case study approach, it is necessarily my interpretation of the participants' experiences. However, several measures of quality assurance are considered. They include reliability and validity, as well as transferability and dependability. These measures are discussed in the sub-sections below.

4.10.1 Reliability and validity

Merriam (1998) states that *reliability* refers to the ability that a study's findings can be replicated. Yet, she also acknowledged that it is problematic to reproduce results related to people's perceptions or thoughts. Lincoln and Guba (1985) refer to reliability in qualitative studies as involving dependability and consistency. I have attempted to seek dependability and consistency in my study by offering an explicit description of my processes of data collection and data analysis, as well as specifying my position and worldview as a researcher (see Section 4.2)

Furthermore, to ensure the reliability of my data collection procedures, I was consistent with the questions asked and the information offered to each participant, only allowing slight deviations due to the nature of each participant's experiences. My participants also read through the interview transcripts to check for accuracy, and they were also consulted after the overall themes were established in order to confirm if those clearly depicted their statements. This is often referred to as descriptive validity, or 'descriptive

triangulation' (Maxwell, 1992). This process of member checking improves the rigor, trustworthiness and consistency of findings.

Validity is the soundness of the study (Loewen & Plonsky, 2016), or the extent to which the research findings answer the research question (Gravetter & Forzano, 2018). Any doubt about the accuracy and meaning of the results can threaten the validity of a study (McKinley & Rose, 2019).

There are two main types of validity: internal and external. Internal validity deals with how research findings match reality (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). From the social constructionist worldview, reality is multifaceted and is based on individual, socio-cultural and historical perceptions of the research participants. Hence, to ensure internal validity of this study, I was considerate to the participants' background and their rights (Berg, 2009). Additionally, I paid close attention to the context and time in which participants approached their writing assignments in order to provide a holistic representation of their reality (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016).

The second type of validity, external, is the extent to which the results of the study can be generalised (McKindley & Rose, 2019). Generalisation may be viewed from several perspectives: generalisation of the research participants to the wider population, generalisation from one study to another, and generalisation from the study to the real-world scenario (McKindley & Rose, 2019). To ensure generalisation of the research results from the first perspective, participants were selected to represent a variety of universities, schools, and discipline areas. To enable generalisation with other studies, I have provided a detailed description of the methodology, approach and research data employed in the study. I have also explained the data collection and processes of analysis in detail. Since the research involved the participants' perceptions of their real-life writing practices, it is also hoped that this research may be considered generalisable to the real-world scenario.

4.10.2 Transferability and dependability

The *transferability* of a study is the ability for its results to be applied to similar settings with different participants (Shenton, 2004). This concept of transferability is also closely related to *dependability*, which is the ability to replicate a study (Shenton,

2004). In order to achieve transferability and dependability, I provided thick descriptions of the participants' background and current experiences with regard to academic writing. I also detailed the data collection methods (Section 4.6) and analytical processes (Section 4.9). These detailed descriptions of the study design are able to provide other researchers with the potential to replicate the methods to establish whether similar findings may be evidenced. It needs to be kept in mind, however, that because this research deals with individuals' unique experiences and perceptions in a particular context, transferability may not be possible in certain settings.

4.11 Ethical and legal considerations

Ethical approval ensures that research on human subjects ethically protects the participants' rights and eliminates the risk and potential harm of the research to the individuals (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). Ethical approval for this study was gained from the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC). Additionally, approval from the Ethics Committee at the universities where the participants were studying was also obtained before the data collection was carried out.

As the research was voluntary-based, the participants were informed what the research consisted of prior to their commitment. They were provided with enough time to make a decision to take part in the research. Before the commencement of their participation, all participants were provided with a soft copy of the information sheet containing details about the study (Appendix E). Upon agreement to participate in the qualitative interviews, students were requested to contact me in order to set up a date and time for the first interview. During the first interview, all participants were asked to sign the Consent Form (Appendix F), which included general information about the research, explained the participants' rights, as well as the contact details of the researcher for further information if required. The following points were stated in the Consent Form:

- Participants were to be given pseudonyms to maintain confidentiality (Creswell, 2013);
- Participation was voluntary and withdrawing from participation would not influence their grades (Cohen et al., 2011);

- The information provided by the participants was confidential and was not to be shared with anyone else, except the research and her supervisors (Creswell, 2013);
- All data collected from the participants was to be securely stored, would be used only to fulfil the aims of the research, and after that would be destroyed (Creswell, 2013).

To ensure that the participants felt comfortable and relaxed during face-to-face interviews, I provided snacks and (non-alcoholic) beverages to the informants after each interview. In case the participants were interested in the study results, they were informed that a written report would be provided at the end of the research period.

4.12 Chapter summary

This chapter presented the research design of the current study. It explained the researchers' worldview through which the data was analysed and interpreted, as well as the impact of the researcher's identity on the research. The chapter then explained the research methodology and research approach, including details of the study's time horizon. Following that, the different data sets were discussed, and the selection of participants, process of recruitment and participant details were described. The chapter then identified the procedures for data collection, and the process of data analysis. Next, it was discussed why the analytical process, along with the attention paid to triangulating the results, offered rigor, breadth, complexity, richness, and depth to the findings. The chapter also provided details about the quality assurance of the results and conclusions drawn from the analysis. Ethical issues were also considered. The next four chapters present the findings of the research.

Chapter 5. Case study 1: Sarah

5.1 Introduction

The first case study focuses on Sarah, a 19-year-old student from Saudi Arabia, studying towards a Bachelor of Science (BSc) majoring in Chemistry and Biological Sciences at University B. This chapter begins by providing Sarah's educational background and pathways to university in NZ. Then, the student's IELTS classes and self-study experience are described focusing on the skills, strategies and knowledge acquired in relation to academic writing. This is followed by a discussion of Sarah's experience at the Foundation Programme (FP) and skills, strategies and knowledge acquired in relation to academic writing at the FP. Following that, Sarah's university undergraduate degree studies are presented, and details of papers, which the student chose to share from Semester 1 and Semester 2 in the 2017 academic year, are discussed.

5.2 Sarah's profile and educational background

From kindergarten until Grade 4 for a total of 5 years, Sarah studied English at a school in Saudi Arabia that followed the British curriculum. After Grade 4, she studied at an Arabic school in Saudi Arabia for a year, where English was taught a couple of times a week and, according to her, was at the beginners' level. The next two years, from Grade 6 to Grade 7, Sarah studied at an international school in Jordan where students followed both local and British curricula, which meant that some of the material in subjects, such as maths or science, was studied in both English and Arabic:

Terminology has different names in Arabic and English. So, we had to know both.

During Grade 6 and 7, Sarah had daily English as a Second Language and English literature classes, during which students never spoke Arabic. From Grade 7 until the end of high school, Sarah studied at an Arabic school in Bahrain, where she had English classes a couple of times a week. These classes were easy for her in comparison to her

previous school in Jordan. The classes were following a project approach in teaching. Sarah did not acknowledge the final five years of English learning at school as a ‘serious’ study because students mainly did group projects, created PowerPoint slides, and delivered oral presentations:

It was kinda a free hour. We would do anything we want. It wasn't like a real proper class.

5.3 Pathway to the current study

When Sarah turned 17, her father found a job in NZ, and the family had to immigrate. Sarah wanted to enter University A in NZ and study towards a Bachelor of Science (BSc) majoring in Chemistry and Biological Sciences. However, since Sarah's high school certificate was from an Arabic school where English was not the medium of instruction, Sarah had to prove her English proficiency by providing IELTS test results with an overall score of 6.0. Another option offered by University A was to gain an IELTS overall result of 5.5 and enrol for a Foundation Programme (FP) for two semesters. Upon the completion of the FP with an average grade B, the student would be enrolled in the Bachelor's degree in the School of Science at University A.

To learn about the exam structure and acquire IELTS skills, Sarah spent six months in an IELTS preparation course taught at University A. After obtaining the overall IELTS test score of 5.5, Sarah chose to complete the FP at University A, starting from summer semester in 2015 and finishing at the end of Semester 1 in 2016. After successfully finishing her FP, Sarah was admitted to her Bachelor's Degree at the same university. However, the student changed her mind and decided to do her degree at University B, which she believed was more prestigious and provided a better quality of education. However, University B's policy did not accept Sarah's English grades from the FP at University A as an alternative to IELTS. The previously acquired IELTS results were also lower than required by University B (6.0 overall). Thus, Sarah had to sit for another IELTS test. Sarah was confident that after completing her FP, she would easily gain the desired IELTS test result. Unfortunately, the test results remained at the same level, and Sarah had to sit the test yet again.

Believing that taking IELTS classes again would not improve her test results, Sarah decided to opt in for self-study. After three months of self-study, Sarah achieved an

overall score of 6.0 with Band 6.0 for both writing and reading, Band 5.5 for listening, and Band 8.0 for speaking. The result was sufficient to enter University B. However, at University B, every student, regardless of their linguistic or educational background, had to take the university's internal language test. Sarah explained that the test was online and comprised only of 20 questions which could indicate students' level of language competency. Upon the results of the test, Sarah was required to complete a two-hour pen-and-paper diagnostic test because the online test indicated a low level of English proficiency. The results of the diagnostic test further supported poor results of the preceding test, so Sarah had to take a Communicating for a Knowledge Society paper in Year 1, which was an EAP course built into the mainstream curriculum. Although the grade for this paper was not to appear on Sarah's official academic record, she was advised that to develop strong academic skills she had to aim for an average B+ in the paper.

The next sub-sections detail Sarah's pre-degree studies in chronological order.

5.3.1 IELTS classes and self-study towards an IELTS test

Overall, Sarah was disappointed with the IELTS classes at University A in NZ. She expected a great deal of writing practice, as, in her understanding, writing was the main skill when learning a language:

When you learn a new language, you need to spend time on writing.

Sarah felt that written tasks in class were not done to a satisfactory level and were given to students to fill up spare class time. She was happy to receive a written practice task as her occasional homework. However, the way she received feedback on her written work was below the level of her expectations. Written tasks were the only type of homework students would get. IELTS instructors would then provide written feedback on students' work by underlining and circling their mistakes, mostly indicating grammar or spelling mistakes with occasional correction of sentence structure or providing advice on how to write topic sentences. Nonetheless, the instructors would not explain the way the mistakes could be corrected, neither did they engage in further one-on-one discussions with students on how to improve their writing further.

The only teacher-student type of error correction done in class was when the instructor wrote mistakes made by the majority in the class on the whiteboard to discuss them with the whole class. However, Sarah did not benefit much from such feedback, as not all of her mistakes were explained to her, while some mistakes discussed were not relevant to her:

Everyone would have basically different type of mistakes. Some of them [mistakes] will be like the style of writing, the grammar. Some of them will be like full stops and dashes.

The communicative teaching method in NZ was different to Sarah's way of learning that she got used to in high school, where she had one-on-one tutorials with her teachers to discuss her concerns. Sarah realised that her writing was not up to the standard in order to achieve a required IELTS test score and feedback that answered only some of her needs was dissatisfactory.

As was mentioned in Section 5.3, after her IELTS course Sarah self-studied towards her subsequent IELTS test. Her previous IELTS test indicated that her reading, listening, and speaking skills were at the required level for admission to her current studies. Thus, during her self-study, Sarah mainly focused on IELTS writing skills and techniques. To do that, she found an online book from IELTS textbook publishers that had high review ratings and promised high results to its users. The textbook was so helpful that the student improved her writing score from Band 5.0 to Band 6.0 in 3 months.

So, I learnt how to answer the different questions. Some questions will be advantages and disadvantages. Some questions will be like describe.

Both IELTS instructors and the textbook, that Sarah used for her self-study, paid a significant amount of attention to correct grammar. For example, Sarah learnt to be consistent with her use of tenses:

Use past throughout all your writing. I tend to use past and present together the whole time.

To boost students' test scores in writing, IELTS instructors provided students with academic vocabulary to memorise:

Like, instead of 'say', I would use 'point out'.

Sarah said that IELTS knowledge did not improve her discipline-specific vocabulary that would be of much use for her current study.

Although written genres were not clearly explained to students by the IELTS instructor, during self-study Sarah learnt to distinguish between the different types of essays, such as an Opinion Essay or an Argumentative Essay. Sarah also learnt that an essay type could determine what ideas to include in the IELTS Writing Task 2. So, an Opinion Essay had to mention why the student agreed and disagreed with the opinion, while an Argumentative Essay required the student to present at least three arguments supporting own opinion on a topic:

Before I would just put my ideas and maybe be biased and write only advantages.

Regardless of the essay type, Sarah remembered that the essay structure had to involve:

- a paragraph with a broad introduction and the paraphrased Writing Task question,
- two or three ideas organised into coherently-written paragraphs,
- conclusion.

The paragraph structure for each essay type involved:

- a topic sentence,
- an explanation and examples for own idea,
- a summary.

IELTS writing skills also involved understanding and analysing graphs and tables for IELTS Writing Task 1. Sarah perceived the vocabulary used to describe any visual information in IELTS Task 1 was business-specific and of little use to her degree studies:

It was all business vocabulary: increasing, decreasing. We do have graphs in chemistry but there are other words, like 'rose'.

Apart from the language skills, Sarah found the time management technique central to gain high IELTS test scores. To optimise her time during the test, the student had to

learn how to provide concise answers. She learnt how to shorten her sentences by using one academic word instead of a colloquial phrase, which saved her time in the writing tasks.

This is really important to know how to consume your time. You can't lose your time in the long writing.

To sum up, during preparation for IELTS, Sarah boosted her academic vocabulary, learnt essay and paragraph structure of various written genres. She improved her academic vocabulary and extended her knowledge of grammar. Additionally, she developed some time-management skills.

The following sub-section presents types of skills and knowledges that Sarah acquired during her Foundation Programme at University A.

5.3.2 Foundation Programme (FP)

Sarah's FP lasted for two semesters and included eight courses totalling 120 credits. Her compulsory core papers were related to academic language, academic writing, as well as study skills and strategies. Her elective papers focused on communication styles in various contexts, such as individual and group settings, basic mathematical and statistical concepts, as well as physical and biological concepts.

During her FP, Sarah had to read a lot of scientific literature related to her area of study, which helped her with vocabulary for lab equipment, actions performed during labs, and spelling of discipline-specific vocabulary:

We learnt phrases, like 'greater to the name of molecule'.

During the core papers, Sarah continued mastering her skills of writing essays, as well as familiarising herself with the genre of scientific Reports. She identified that the difference between an Essay and a Report was in length and presentation: the latter was shorter and could use bullet points.

During the FP, students were required to produce a number of written and oral assignments in the area of interest, and great attention was paid to research skills, such

as using different databases. Sarah also had the whole week devoted to studying how to reference sources. Students worked individually, and it was quite intense for Sarah, but, as a result, she was confident in applying the referencing skill in her academic studies.

Overall, Sarah was satisfied with the level of teaching and the knowledge she gained during her FP. She felt well-prepared for her undergraduate degree studies. She was equipped with such skills, as writing an academic essay fit for a university assignment, making presentations, and referencing. She also believed she improved her grammar and boosted her academic discipline-specific vocabulary. Sarah stated:

It was really helpful.

Details of Sarah's academic written assessments and her perceptions of assignment requirements and lecturers' feedback are described below.

5.4 Current academic studies

In order to gain a comprehensive understanding of Sarah's current studies and the influences, experiences, and practices that impact upon and lead to changes in Sarah's academic writing processes, the following sections look at certain critical moments within the narrative around Sarah's engagement with her written assignments throughout the first two semesters of her academic study at University B. They include a detailed description and examination of the following:

- 1) Sarah's assignment instructions and related marking criteria. These are also compared for consistency;
- 2) Sarah's perceptions about her ongoing assignments and marking criteria;
- 3) Sarah's writing processes as she attempts to complete each of her assignments;
- 4) Sarah's application of previously acquired writing and study skills;
- 5) The lecturer's grades and feedback, as well as Sarah's perception of these.

5.4.1 Semester 1

In Semester 1 Sarah took four papers: Computer Science, Biological Sciences, Chemistry, and Mathematics. She provided me with a total of four writing assignment requirements, six of her written assignments, and six examples of lecturer's feedback.

The provided Biological Sciences assignments were in-class tests, which lasted for 10 minutes and required the student to answer multiple-choice questions or provide short answers to discipline-specific questions. The questions were not provided to the student prior to the class. The grades for these assignments did not contribute to the student's final grade on this paper, thus, are not discussed below.

Assignments for the Computer Science and Chemistry papers are described in sections 5.4.1.1 and 5.4.1.2 respectively.

5.4.1.1 Computer Science Assignment 1 and Assignment 2 (Lab Reports): Requirements, marking criteria, and student's reflection on them

Sarah shared two out of nine Computer Science assignments, which were referred to as Lab Reports. Assignments were provided in a paper manual that students could either purchase from the school or download from the university LMS. All nine assignments contributed a total 20 percent towards the final grade in the paper. Each assignment in the Computer Science paper had to start with a Lab Summary where students self-evaluated and self-analysed their own learning processes and knowledge gained through completing each assignment. Figure 5.1 provides an example of the structural organisation of a Lab Summary provided in the manual.

Figure 5.1

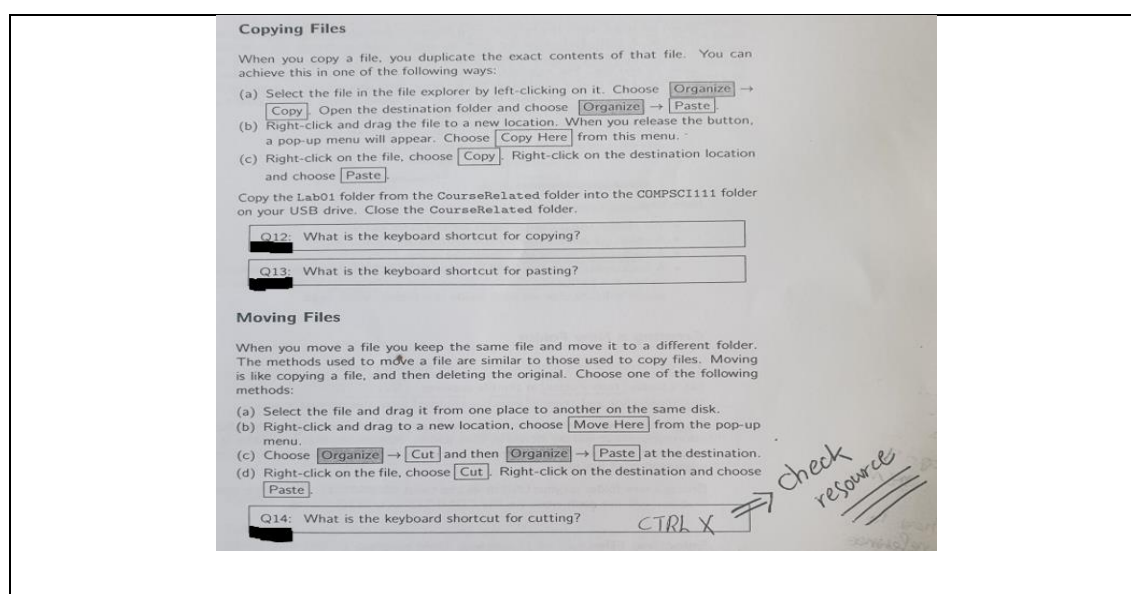
Example of a Lab Report

For example: COMPSCI 111/111G Lab Report Name: Fred Fish Lab Time: Wednesday 10 – 1pm Lab Number: 01 <i>I experimented with the operating system and learned to use some options that I hadn't seen before. Initially, I couldn't find the folder options, but they were obvious once I was shown where they were. Overall a useful lab.</i> Q1: ...

Following Lab Summaries, students had to provide answers to the questions that related to the study material. The assignment questions were written throughout the manual, as underlined in Figure 5.2. Assignment questions were preceded by brief information which could assist in answering assignment questions. However, the information in the instruction manual was not always sufficient to answer assignment questions. Sarah explained that students were expected to read other study materials prior to attempting them.

Figure 5.2

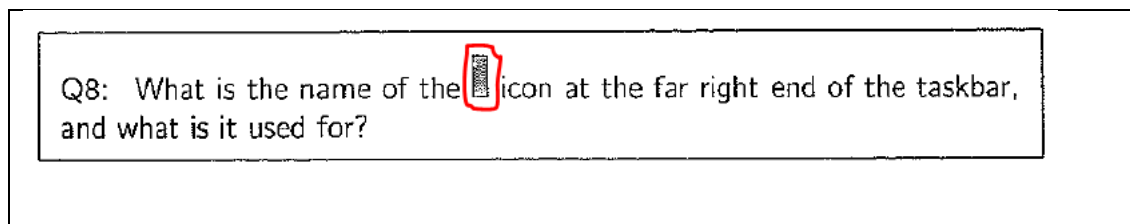
Spread-Out Format of the Assignment Questions and Lack of Information Preceding the Assignment Question: Lab Report 1



The majority of the assignment questions required naming icons, providing keyboard shortcuts, or screenshots. For example, as shown in Figure 5.3, students were required to name and identify the purpose of an icon. However, as circled in Figure 5.3, the image of the icon in the assignment question was blurred. Sarah knew that the icon could be located in a different place on her private computer. Hence, she consciously chose to use a lab computer when completing her assignment because she was certain that she would easily find it by following its described location in the question.

Figure 5.3

Lab Report 1: The Assignment Question Related to a Specific Icon (circled in red)



There were no marking criteria for any of the Computer Science assignments and Sarah did not feel the need for them as the answers to the assignment questions could either be correct or incorrect.

The two Lab Reports provided to me were similar in nature, hence they are presented conjointly in the next sub-section reflecting on any differences in the way Sarah approached them.

Student's work on the assignment

The two assignments for the Computer Science paper, which Sarah provided me with, were considered easy by the student, as she believed they mainly assessed students' basic knowledge of using a computer.

As required, Sarah started each assignment with a Lab Summary. Unlike in the example of the Lab Summary provided in the manual (Figure 5.1), Sarah added the heading "Lab Summary", which she perceived 'missing' in the manual:

Just to show that it's not a test question.

Figure 5.4 presents Sarah's Lab Summary for Lab Report 1. When writing the Lab Summary 1, Sarah used various discourse markers, such as "at the beginning", "furthermore", "but", "generally", which described the logical sequence of events from the moment a problem occurred during the work on the Lab Report until its resolution. Sarah did not use any contractions because she learnt in her FP that every word in academic assignments had to be written in full.

Figure 5.4

Lab Summary for Lab Report 1

Lab Summary:

At the beginning I thought the assignment was complicated, but when I did the reading before each question I had a better understanding of the questions. Furthermore, I faced a concept that was not straightforward to me which is file extensions. I did some reading about file extensions and now I have a better understanding of what they are used for and what they mean. I have learned some new techniques to use on my computer such as the keyboard shortcut. Generally, the assignment was helpful and added to my knowledge. ✓

By Assignment 2, Sarah developed a strong belief that assignments were assessed by the number of correct answers to the assignment questions and were more important than the self-reflective Lab Summaries. As a result, Sarah wrote a much shorter Lab Summary for Assignment 2 and, as highlighted in Figure 5.5, made some grammatical mistakes.

Figure 5.5

Lab Summary for Assignment 2 (Lab Report 2)

Lab Summary:

The Assignment had a question that was new for me. I had to read the lecture notes to have a better understanding of URL. Also, the last part of assignment which was about the wiki, I had a problem with providing a link from my user page to the main page. I tried different titles till I got the right one. In summary, the lab was helpful. ✓

Lecturer's feedback and the student's reflection on it

Sarah got 92.5 out of 100 for Assignment 1 and 94 out of 100 for Assignment 2, however, she did not check any lecturer's feedback on her mistakes. Sarah networked with senior students and was advised that none of the assignment questions would be

asked in the final exam. So, she felt that it was unnecessary to pay attention to the lecturer's feedback on her mistakes in these assignments:

The finals they won't give you the same question from what you did in the lab. So, it doesn't matter.

The following section presents Sarah's assignments for her Chemistry paper in Semester 1.

5.4.1.2 Chemistry Assignment 1 and Assignment 2 (Laboratory Assignment 1 and 2): Requirements, marking criteria, and the student's reflection on them

Sarah provided me with two out of six Laboratory Assignments for the Chemistry paper. During the Laboratory Assignments students had to perform lab tests, make mathematical calculations and then report the lab test results by writing answers in answer sheets or drawing graphs after making calculations. All six Laboratory Assignments contributed 20% towards the overall final grade.

Assignment requirements for the two Laboratory Assignments provided to me were written in four-page documents, which included safety information about the tested ingredients, formulae to calculate ingredients, and step-by-step guidelines on how to conduct lab tests. Students were allowed to bring their writing assignment requirements, textbook or other resources to labs, but Sarah stated that there was no time to read in class:

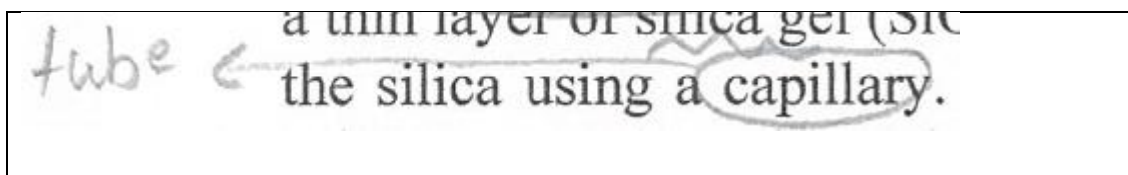
There is just no time to read in class. It's too much and you have to work quick. Otherwise you won't complete it [Laboratory Assignment].

One of the main concerns voiced by the student at the beginning of Semester 1 was her lack of discipline-specific vocabulary needed for understanding the writing assignment requirements. The student mentioned that unfamiliar vocabulary was overwhelming and included lab equipment, such as 'capillary', product viscosity, such as 'powder' or 'fluid', and action verbs, such as 'stir', 'replace', or 'develop'. Nonetheless, Sarah was determined to learn new vocabulary and to understand its meaning. Hence, Sarah decided to use English to English interpretation, as can be seen in Figure 5.6. Sarah

believed that systematic use of English would improve her overall language skills, as well as her writing skills in particular.

Figure 5.6

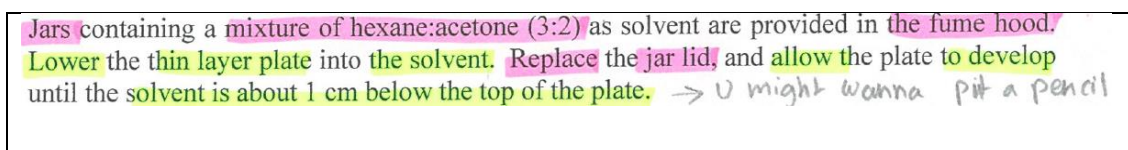
Use of English Words for Unfamiliar Vocabulary in Writing Assignment Requirements: Laboratory Assignment 1



When preparing for Assignment 1, Sarah also used a self-devised colour code. As seen in Figure 5.7, Sarah used purple colour to highlight information related to work with a jar and yellow colour for the information about a thin layer plate. Sarah perceived that different colour highlighters would help her to easily see information related to different components of the experiment in the assignment requirements and assist in her work process during the lab.

Figure 5.7

Colour-Coded Writing Assignment Requirements: Laboratory Assignment 1



By Assignment 2 Sarah was overwhelmed with the amount of academic work and in preparing for Assignment 2, she used only one highlighter, as seen in Figure 5.8. Instead, she started circling information with a pen to speed up her preparation process.

Figure 5.8

Student's Use of a Highlighter and a Pen in the Preparation to Laboratory Assignment 2

$\Delta[I_2]$ is the change in iodine concentration during time t . The rate may vary with reaction conditions such as the concentration of reactants and the temperature.

If a solution containing persulfate ion is mixed with a solution containing iodide ion and a small quantity of starch, a blue colour due to the starch-iodine complex appears immediately. The appearance of the blue colour can be delayed, and the time required for formation of a known amount of iodine by

rate = $\frac{\Delta[I_2]}{t}$ (2) ← calculate

If thiosulfate is present:

$2I^- + S_2O_8^{2-} \rightarrow I_2 + 2SO_4^{2-}$ (1) → catalyst

$2S_2O_3^{2-} + I_2 \rightarrow S_4O_6^{2-} + 2I^-$ (3)

Writing assignment requirements did not include any marking criteria but those were provided at the bottom of Laboratory Assignment answer sheets handed out at the beginning of each lab. As seen in Figure 5.9, where the circled areas indicate the supervisor's feedback on Sarah's Assignment 1, marking criteria assessed students' practical and mathematical skills but there were no language criteria.

Figure 5.9

Marking Criteria for Assignment 1 (Laboratory Assignment 1)

Mark:	Section	3	2	1
Preparation			Completed BestChoice prelab.	
Results	6.1		TLC plate is labelled, correct spots are circled and the calculations are derived correctly.	TLC plate has both spots in the correct area and calculations are attempted.
	6.2	Chlorophyll calibration curve is accurate to derive the unknown concentration to within 0.1mg/ml. Graph is well prepared without any errors.	Chlorophyll calibration curve is accurate to derive the unknown concentration to within 0.2mg/ml. Graph is prepared with no more than two errors.	Chlorophyll calibration curve is accurate to derive the unknown concentration to within 0.3mg/ml. Graph is prepared with no more than three errors.
	6.3	Carotene determined to within 0.03 abs. Column features straight lines and has visible band separation.	Carotene determined to within 0.1 abs. Column has clear band separation.	Carotene determined to within 1 abs.
Analysis	6.3	Calculations are completed correctly using appropriate units.	Calculations are completed allowing for one or two errors.	Calculations are attempted.
	6.3		Questions regarding separation and absorbance answered correctly.	Questions regarding separation and absorbance attempted.

Note. Circled Areas Indicate the Supervisor's Feedback on Sarah's Assignment

The student was not worried that marking criteria were provided at the beginning of the lab tests as she believed students' grades depended on their ability to demonstrate practical skills by achieving correct solutions as the result of lab actions:

*As long as you complete the task and get the right solution, you will
get the highest mark.*

Since Sarah could not practice doing lab tests, she had to accept whatever outcome she could achieve in class.

Student's work on the assignment, supervisor's feedback, and the student's reflection on it

Sarah could prepare for practical assignments only by reading and understanding the writing assignment requirements. However, when conducting her first lab test, she realised that such theoretical preparation was insufficient for practical assignments. For instance, her first lab presented her with difficulties when using lab equipment. Without prior practical experience with lab equipment, she felt anxious and scared:

*I don't want to break it or something. Because it's small and I've
never used it, so I was scared.*

Assignment 2 presented Sarah with issues related to her mathematical abilities and using the results from calculations when drawing graphs:

I'm not good at Math.

In contrast, language skills were not a concern for the student. As can be seen in Figure 5.10, in Assignment 1, students were requested to provide an explanation for two open-ended questions. Answer sheets provided very limited space for the student's answers. In fact, when answering the first question, Sarah had to use the margin, some space provided for the second question and then outline the border for the answer. Despite the limited space for the answers, when answering both assignment questions, Sarah utilised discourse markers indicating purpose, cause and effect.

Sarah explained that because the question required to "describe briefly", conciseness was the key. Moreover, she believed that the supervisor was only looking for, what

Sarah called, 'key words' and did not read past the first two sentences. Therefore, Sarah aimed to compress her answer into one or two sentences.

Figure 5.10

Answers for a Laboratory Assignment Question in Assignment 1

Explain why it is

i) possible to determine the chlorophyll concentration, without separating the chlorophyll from the other components of the leaf extract.

Because chlorophyll is the only plant pigment that absorbs wavelength at 660nm, so the exhibited ~~by~~ ^{we don't need} ~~the original~~ is due to only chlorophyll, therefore

ii) necessary to separate the carotene from the other components of the leaf extract, before determining its concentration spectrophotometrically.

Because carotene is ~~not the only~~ ^{TS state it} ~~doesn't have exact absorbance~~ "436 nm" is absorbed by other pigment too. after we separate it then we can get exact absorbance for the carotene only. ^{because we know the absorbance and then we can find the concentration}

In addition to the supervisor's feedback in the marking sheet, Sarah's mistakes were indicated within the answer sheet, as shown in Figure 5.11.

Figure 5.11

Marking of an Incorrect Answer in Laboratory Assignment 1

The leaf extract was prepared by extracting 80 g leaves with 0.550 L of solvent. The unknown 1% v/v sample was prepared by diluting this original extract 100 times. ~~100~~ $\times 100 = 1.4\%$

Calculate the % chlorophyll by weight (% w/w) in the leaves.
(Hint: Use the equation on page 2 to calculate the weight of chlorophyll in the 0.550 L leaf extract.)

~~mass present = concentration~~

mass = $0.014 \times 100 \times 550 = \frac{770}{100} \text{ mg}$

% w/w = $\frac{770}{100} = 7.7\%$

Sarah did not understand the meaning of such non-verbal feedback, but the supervisor was usually unavailable after lab tests to answer any of the students' questions. Hence, Sarah searched for the required formula online but was unsuccessful. She decided that the formula was simplified, so could not be found online. Sarah's search for correct answers for her lab assignments stopped when she realised that formula studied in the lab would not appear in exams.

In summary, assignments in Semester 1 did not require students to write extensively. Writing was limited to short sentences or paragraphs. There was no assessment of student's language proficiency, instead, the focus was on students' practical and mathematical skills.

The next section discusses Sarah's experiences related to academic writing in Semester 2.

5.4.2 Semester 2

In Semester 2 Sarah took four papers: Chemistry, two Biological Sciences papers and Communicating for a Knowledge Society. The latter was a compulsory EAP course that aimed to strengthen Sarah's academic skills. In total, Sarah provided me with four assignment requirements, and four written assignments with the lecturers' feedback. The writing assignment requirements provided to me for Assignment 1 in the Communicating for a Knowledge Society paper consisted only of requirements for resources.

Writing assignment requirements, student's work on the written assignment, the lecturers' feedback, and the student's reflection on them for Chemistry and Communicating for a Knowledge Society papers are presented in the section below.

5.4.2.1 Chemistry Assignment 1 and Assignment 2 (Experiments): Requirements, marking criteria, and student's reflection on them

Two Chemistry assignments provided to me by Sarah were referred to as Experiments but were similar in nature to Laboratory Assignments in Semester 1. The assignment

requirements for Experiments were up to seven pages long, however, the format and type of information was similar to assignment requirements in Semester 1, i.e. they included safety information about the tested ingredients, formulae to calculate ingredients, and step-by-step guidelines on how to conduct experiments.

In Semester 2, Sarah felt more confident reading and understanding the assignment requirements. She also felt much more confident when conducting lab experiments because she was already familiar with different lab equipment and lab actions:

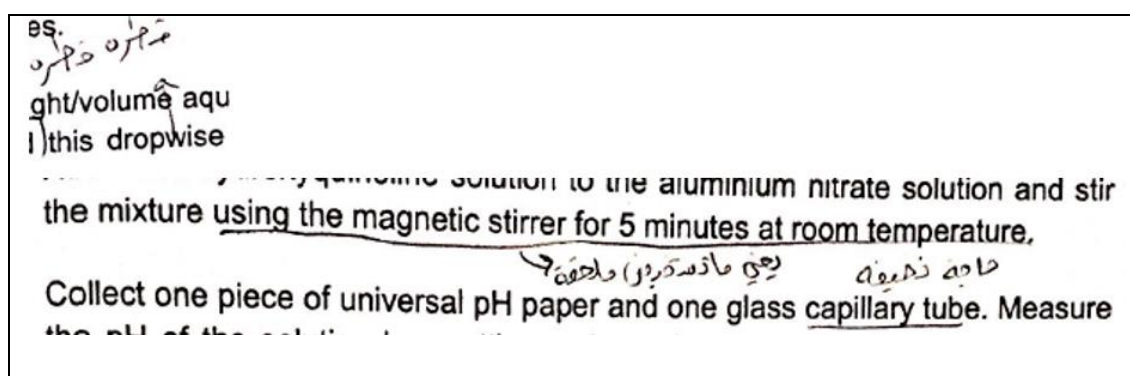
I was so clueless and scared [in Semester 1]. I don't want to use it [lab equipment] and, like, break it and get to pay for it. But now I'm fine.

Nonetheless, assignment requirements still contained vocabulary that was unfamiliar to Sarah. However, unlike Semester 1, when she used only English to interpret assignment requirements, in Semester 2, in order to speed up her preparation process for the Experiments, Sarah started translating discipline-specific terminology into her first language, Arabic:

Hard to just translate from English to English. That would take me more time to understand.

Figure 5.12

Translation of Unfamiliar Vocabulary into Arabic: Assignment 1



Sarah's translation of unfamiliar vocabulary in the assignment requirements into Arabic is shown in Figure 5.12 above.

In addition to translating discipline-specific terminology into Arabic, Sarah also continued using an English-English dictionary for unfamiliar vocabulary that in her opinion was not necessarily related to her discipline area:

'Containing', or, like, 'deduction'. So, these are kind of words I try to translate into English.

Sarah believed that she could use 'general' English vocabulary in her written assignments or answers to exam questions. An understanding of such vocabulary, in Sarah's opinion, could be only achieved through the use of an English-English dictionary.

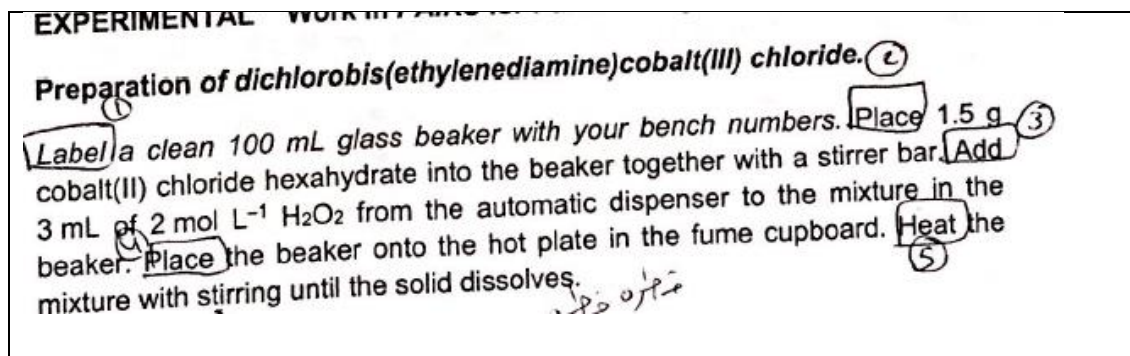
In Semester 2 Sarah also simplified her preparation for Chemistry assignments. Unlike Semester 1, in Semester 2, Sarah stopped using highlighters when reading the writing assignment requirements. Instead she simply underlined or squared information and instructions that she perceived important for conducting Experiments. When Experiment instructions provided a sequence of lab actions, Sarah also numbered active verbs, as shown in Figure 5.13. She explained that such marking provided her visual assistance for the order of lab actions during the Experiment. Even though Sarah felt more confident with lab procedures, there still was lack of time for any detailed reading during the Experiments, so she had to have the knowledge of how to perform Experiments, in order to act quickly in class:

*In the labs you take all your brief notes and then make experiments.
There's no time to read.*

The next sub-section discussed the student's work on the assignment, lecturer's feedback, and the student's reflection on it.

Figure 5.13

Numbering the Order in which Lab Actions had to be Followed in Experiment 2



Student's work on the assignment, lecturer's feedback, and the student's reflection on it

In comparison to Laboratory Assignments in Semester 1, there were more open-ended questions in Semester 2. When answering assignment questions, Sarah used discourse markers, such as 'at the beginning', 'then', 'so', as seen in Figure 5.14. Sarah explained that she wanted to communicate the sequence of her actions during Experiments, but she worried little about any language errors, such as punctuation, capitalising, grammar, and spelling. She believed such errors would not affect her grade because the focus of Experiments was on illustrating discipline-specific knowledge and practical skills.

Figure 5.14

Sarah's Written Answer to a Question in Experiment 2

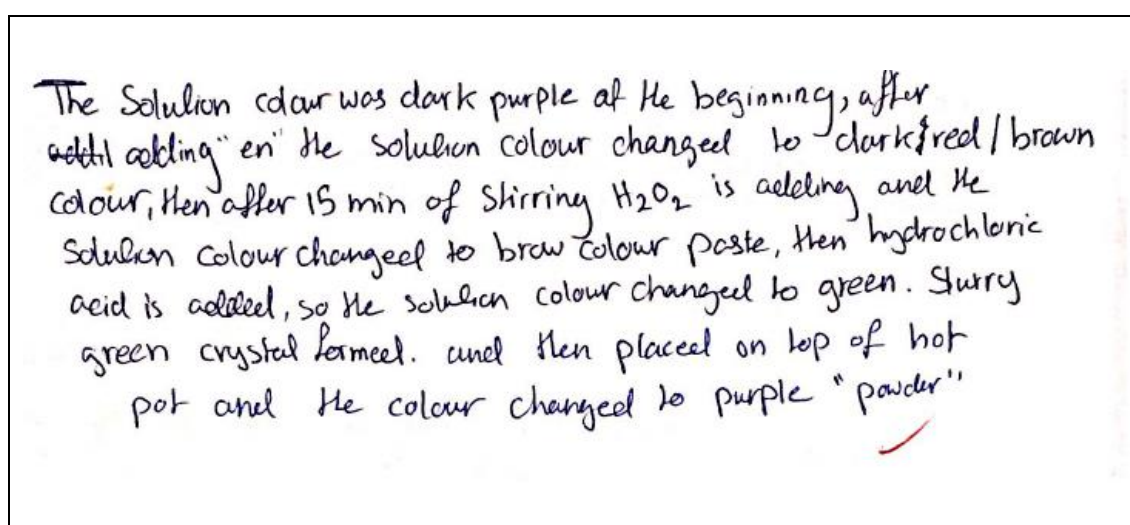


Figure 5.15 presents marking criteria for Experiment 1, where circled areas indicate the supervisor's feedback on Sarah's written assignment. The marking criteria suggested that there was no assessment of students' language skills.

Figure 5.15

Marking Criteria for Experiment 1

Mark:	4	3	2	1
Preparation:			Best choice pre-lab module completed.	
Results:	Large crystals of potassium alum isolated in high yield.	Large crystals of potassium alum isolated in small yield.	Potassium alum isolated as a powder in high yield.	Potassium alum isolated as a powder in small yield.
		Correct unit cells depicted.	Unit cells depicted with one error.	Unit cells depicted with two or more errors.
Analysis:			All chemical equations for steps in alum reaction written correctly.	Chemical equations for steps in alum reaction written with one error.
	All written questions answered correctly.	One error in answering written questions.	Two errors in answering written questions.	Three or four errors in answering written questions.
TOTAL:				

Note. Circled Areas Indicate the Supervisor's Feedback on Sarah's Written Assignment

The next section describes Sarah's assignment requirements for the EAP course, or as it was titled, the Communicating for a Knowledge Society paper. Sarah's written assignments and the lecturer's feedback on them are also discussed in detail.

5.4.2.2 Communicating for a Knowledge Society: An overview

For the Communicating for a Knowledge Society paper, Sarah provided me with two out of three assignments, Research Summary and Poster. Since the paper was directed to improve Sarah's academic skills through written assignments, the student knew she had to focus on demonstrating her writing proficiency and language skills, not discipline-specific knowledge:

It's an English paper. I have to take it because I didn't have enough score [at the internal language test]. So, it's for my language.

All three assignments in the paper had to focus on the same research question. Areas of interest were defined by the lecturer and limited to beauty, cancer, and psychology, but students had to specify their research question in the chosen area themselves. For her assignments, Sarah chose to focus on the effects of chlorinated water on human health.

Details for the Research Summary and Poster assignments are described in sub-sections below.

Assignment 1 (Research Summary): Requirements, marking criteria, and student's reflection on them

Assignments 1 for the Communicating for a Knowledge Society paper was referred to as Research Summary and involved writing a research summary on the topic of student's interest. The assignment requirements were separated into two documents: assignment requirements and resource requirements. Sarah was able to provide me only with the latter, as she could not retrieve the former from her university LMS.

Figure 5.16

Hypothetical Example of Resources

Hypothetical example of resources, which meet the course requirements.

My research question: Does beauty therapy improve self-esteem for breast cancer patients?

- I use three journal articles from the SCOPUS database via the library website (I have now met the course requirement to have at least three journal articles)
- PLUS - I obtain one report published by the New Zealand Cancer Society (found in the library in hard copy – this is a quality source).
- PLUS - I obtain one report via the web from the World Health Organisation (this is a quality source)
- PLUS - I use one article from Google Scholar via the library website (this is a quality source)
- PLUS - I use one psychology textbook to define self-esteem (this is a quality source)

ALL THE ABOVE SEVEN RESOURCES MEET THE COURSE CRITERIA AS QUALITY RESOURCES

THEN...I then access "filler" information from the following two general websites:

- USABeauty-Today.com
- NZBeauty.co.nz

The resource requirements explained what was meant by resources. All assignments had to involve four ‘quality’ resources, three of which were to be peer-reviewed journal articles. The fourth ‘quality’ resource could be a book, a report, a governmental website, or an article from a leading newspaper. Students were warned that information from general websites was dubious and students were discouraged from using it. Figure 5.16 above illustrates a range of ‘quality’ resources that students could use for their assignments. Students were encouraged to mainly use scientific databases, such as SCOPUS or Google Scholar, when searching for resources.

All resources were to be referenced. To assist students with the referencing norms, students were provided with the APA referencing conventions, as seen in Figure 5.17. Additionally, a reference list for the Hypothetical Example of Resources (Figure 5.16) was provided.

Figure 5.17

Guide to APA Referencing

My reference list will be presented as follows: • in alphabetical order (quality and non-quality resources included) according to the <u>last name</u> of the first author. • Indented (hanging first line) and titled ‘References’. • As one list. • Containing correct and complete details following APA rules, for each type of reference.

In the FP at University A, Sarah was introduced to various academic research channels and the APA reference format. Hence, Sarah was confident approaching the assignment:

*I practiced it [APA referencing] a lot in the Foundation Programme.
So, I didn't really need this [written explanation about APA
referencing].*

The marking criteria assessed students on the following: Research objectives (1 mark), Discussion/Structure (3 marks), Conclusion (1 mark), Written Expression (2 marks), Required sources (1 mark), In-text citations (1 mark), and Reference list (1 mark). Sarah did not provide me with documentation which explained what each marking criterion involved.

The next sub-sections describe Sarah's work on the assignment, lecturer's feedback, and the student's reflection on it.

Student's work on the assignment

When Sarah read the assignment requirements for the Research Summary, she felt excited because it seemed to resemble assignments in her FP. However, when she started writing it, she was confused by the required three-paragraph structure for a short Research Summary. In the FP, Sarah learnt that each paragraph had to develop a separate argument. In Assignment 1, Sarah perceived that all the information she used was related to the same argument:

But this is, like, summary of all the research I did. Same topic.

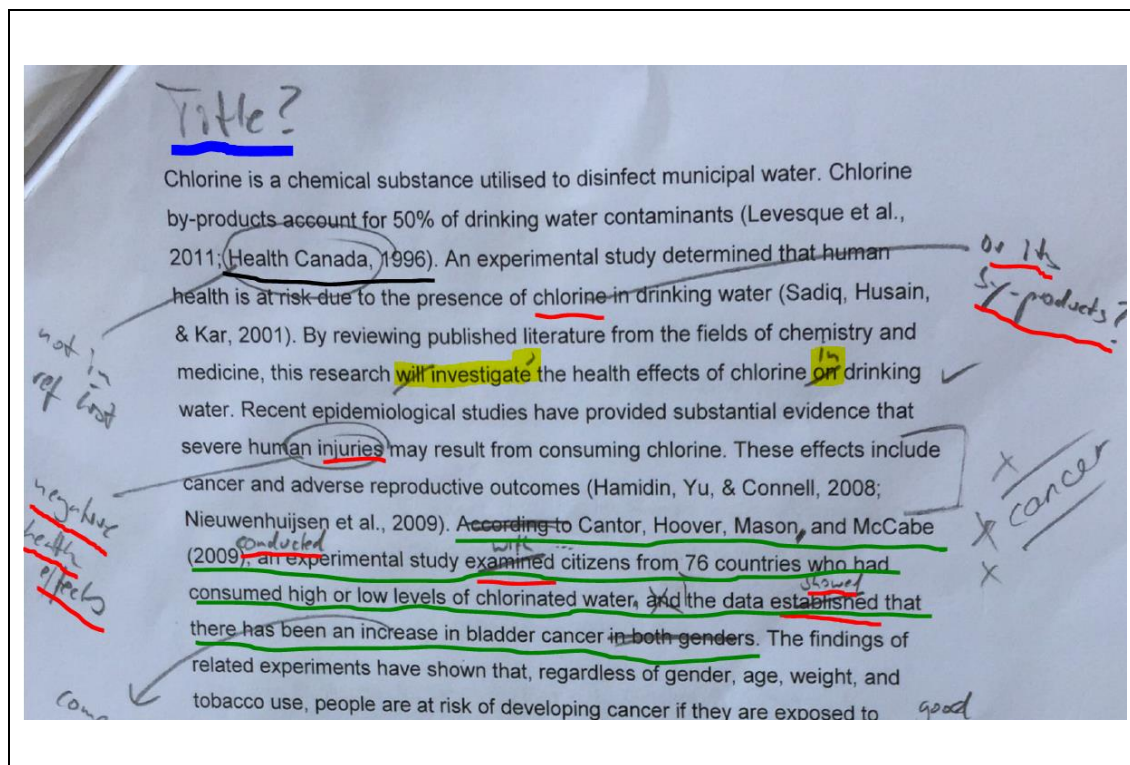
Although she did not see the need for separate paragraphs, Sarah knew she had to introduce the topic and state the purpose of the assignment, as seen in Figure 5.18 in the next sub-section. Then, she presented two evidence-based arguments related to two effects of chlorinated water on health, i.e. bladder cancer and birth defects, which she found in the literature. Following her knowledge from the FP, in the concluding sentence, Sarah summarised all the information discussed in the written assignment, i.e. two effects of chlorinated water on human health.

Lecturer's feedback and the student's reflection on it

The lecturer's feedback was provided in two formats: within Sarah's assignment and in a form on an overall comment on the university LMS.

Figure 5.18

The Lecturer's Feedback on Assignment 1 (Research Summary)



Note. Lecturer's Feedback Involved: Absence of the Title (underlined in blue), Vocabulary (underlined in red),

Grammar (highlighted in yellow), Sentence Length (underlined in green), and In-Text Citations (underlined in black)

As seen in Figure 5.18 above, the lecturer's feedback on the assignment was detailed and related to the following areas of the student's academic writing:

Absence of the title (underlined in blue): Sarah advised that she was so excited to share her research, which she did over several weeks, that she forgot to write the title.

Vocabulary (underlined in red): The lecturer corrected Sarah's use of the words 'injuries', 'examined', and 'established' to 'health effects', 'conducted', and 'showed' respectively. Sarah was confused by such feedback. While the correction of the first two words seemed to make her Research Summary sound more academic, the last one, 'showed', seemed to be aligned with the assignment requirement to utilise simple language understandable to lay audience.

Another vocabulary correction was related to "chlorine and its by-products" instead of "chlorine". The student perceived that since chlorine by-products cannot exist without

the product itself, chlorine, she could use “chlorine” when referring to both. Sarah perceived that the constant mentioning of “by-products” led to unnecessary repetition, which would make the assignment wordy and contradict its main aim, summary.

Grammar (highlighted in yellow): While Sarah agreed that her use of the preposition was wrong, she was surprised that she had to use the Present Simple tense instead of the Future Simple. Despite the knowledge related to using the same grammatical tense in academic writing, acquired in her previous academic studies, Sarah perceived that Assignment 1 was only a summary of secondary sources and not the research itself. Hence, when referring to research, she meant the next assignment, Poster. Therefore, she used the Future Simple:

Well, I was like summarising in this assignment and I thought that the Poster [Assignment 2] would be the research itself. So, yeah, future [tense].

Sentence length (underlined in green): The lecturer separated Sarah’s extended sentence into two shorter sentences, which the student perceived as more appropriate for lay audience.

In-text citations and references (underlined in black): Sarah over-looked the in-text reference and did not include it in the reference list. Sarah’s reference list was a page long and had a single error related to a missing volume number, as seen in Figure 5.19.

Figure 5.19

Reference List for Assignment 1 (Research Summary): Missing Volume Number

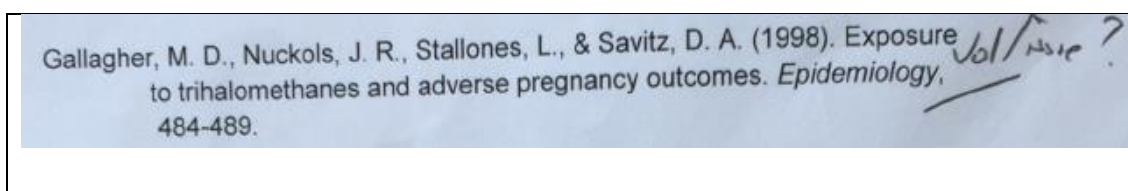


Figure 5.20 below presents the lecturer’s overall comment on Sarah’s assignment provided via the university LMS.

Figure 5.20

Lecturer's written Comment on Research Summary

Research Objective: 0.75
Discussion / structure: 2
Conclusion: 0.5
Written expression: 1.75
Required sources: 1
Intext citations: 0.75
Ref list: 1
 TOTAL MARK (max 10) = 7.75
 COMMENT:
Interesting topic and good quality sources used for the summary. However, your research question is a little too broad. Focus either effects of chlorine on cancer risk or pre-mature birth. Too many health impacts covered here.
Bring studies a bit more in conversation with each other. Avoid just listing them one after another.
The conclusion does not really reflect the overall findings you discussed in your summary (selective). This should be easier once you've decided on one particular effect of chlorine in drinking water (e.g. cancer).

The lecturer commented on the broad scope of Sarah's Research Summary and, consequently, the weak Conclusion. However, Sarah linked the comment about the weak Conclusion to her inability to demonstrate the skills of drawing a conclusion due to time constraints:

*I know it needed more work, but I was in a rush, so I just put it. I think
its vague.*

Sarah did not understand how she could have improved her Research Summary in response to the lecturer's comment about bringing studies "a bit more in conversation with each other". Sarah believed she presented studies in a logical sequence. To improve her presentation of the research in the subsequent assignments, she decided to focus only on one effect of chlorine water on health effects. She considered that by narrowing the scope of her research she would illuminate the problem of linking different research aspects together.

Overall, Sarah was satisfied with the assignment grade, 7.75 out of 10 marks. Although the lecturer provided the student with the breakdown of the grade, there were no detailed marking criteria for in-depth understanding of what each mark represented.

The next sub-sections discuss the assignment requirements for Assignment 2, Poster, and Sarah's work on it. Sarah's reflection on her writing process and the lecturer's feedback are also discussed in detail.

Assignment 2 (Poster): Requirements, marking criteria, and student's reflection on them

Assignment 2 for the Communicating for a Knowledge Society paper was referred to as Poster and involved students creating an A1 size poster on the same topic as Assignment 1. Sarah did not provide me with writing assignment requirements because she followed the marking criteria provided in two comprehensive documents.

The first document for the marking criteria, presented in Figure 5.21, was referred to as Visual Impact & Design and assessed students' ability to create a visually attractive poster. The Poster had to involve a catchy title, easy-to-read fonts (examples of acceptable fonts were provided), and a balance between written text and graphic elements. Graphs had to be 'seamlessly integrated' into the poster discussion, which Sarah understood as an in-text explanation of the information in the graphs. The marking criteria also evaluated students' language abilities through assessment of clear, sound, concise, and coherent writing. Sarah understood that, similarly to Assignment 1, the language had to be simple, directed to laymen.

Figure 5.21

Visual Impact & Design Marking Criteria Assignment 2 (Poster)

VISUAL IMPACT & DESIGN			
	EXCELLENT (0.75-1)	SATISFACTORY (0.5)	UNSATISFACTORY (0-0.25)
Visual Impact	Draws audience immediately to the poster – <u>visually attractive</u> , with a <u>catchy title</u> (and likely explanatory subtitle). <u>Colour</u> is appropriate, maybe relevant to the topic and colour contrast is effective so all text is readable. Uses sans serif <u>font type</u> (e.g Arial, Verdana, Geneva, Helvetica, Tahoma). Initial first impressions are welcoming and indicate a carefully designed poster. <u>Topic</u> is immediately apparent.	Underestimates the visual nature of the medium. Likely favours the textual elements. Visual elements are probably too small or preferences lots of small images rather than one/two large images. Background may interfere with the visual impact. Images used may not be particularly relevant to the topic. Font type may not be the recommended sans serif typeface. Topic may not be initially apparent.	Visually bland. Does not attract the audience. Title is too long or difficult to follow, so topic/focus is not immediately apparent. May contain written English issues. Font type may not be the recommended sans serif type font. Draws audience away.
Visual/Writing Balance	Understands the poster medium so there is a good <u>balance</u> between written and graphical elements. Appropriate use of bullet points, which are true bullet points and not dots in front of a paragraph. The poster does not overwhelm the reader with text. Word count likely to be <u>500-750</u> words. Clever use of <u>white space</u> , to create clear divisions between sections and appropriate use of space between headings and body text and within body text.	Favours either too much text or too many small visuals. Word count probably 750-1000 words. Infrequent use of bullets with resulting overuse of the narrative form and excessive use of long sentences and /or long paragraphs. Requires too much interpretation by the reader. Message is not easy to access – requiring too much reading. Message could be said more simply.	Usually too much text evident so that it reads more like an essay than a poster. Under values or under estimates the visual nature of the medium. Takes too long to tell the message. Poor editing - does not apply the 6 'Cs' for effective writing. No coherent use of white space. Word count likely to be 750-1000 or more.
Readability	Poster is correctly formatted as an <u>A1</u> size. <u>Font size</u> is appropriate throughout and follows the guidelines. <u>Language</u> is coherent, clear, sound and concise. All pictures and graphs / tables are <u>clear</u> and are quality reproductions. References / citations may be smaller font, but are still readable.	Poster is correctly formatted as an A1 size. Font size is generally ok but does not always follow the guidelines. Graphs / tables may require a lot of reading to access message.	Poster may not be presented as an A1 size. Font size does not always follow the guidelines. Graphs/tables - too small making them difficult to read. Background may interfere with readability of body text.
Direction	<u>Clear and coherent</u> direction from introduction, through discussion to the conclusion. <u>Headings</u> clearly guide reader. Clear sections. <u>Graphs</u> seamlessly integrated into overall poster discussion.	Confusion in discussion section that makes it hard to follow. Headings do not clearly aid reader. Graphs not well integrated into poster discussion.	Very difficult to follow poster structure. Lacks coherency and flow which confuses reader. Graphs/tables are not integrated into the discussion.

The second marking criteria, presented in Figure 5.22, was referred to as Academic Discussion and assessed students' ability to carry out evidence-based writing. According to the Academic Discussion marking criteria, students had to integrate 'quality' resources into a 'solid, sound and accessible argument'. The Conclusion section had to provide an answer to the stated research question, which had to emerge from the Discussion section. The Conclusion had to be sound, coherent, and contain a clear take-home message. Sarah did not understand why the language requirements were mentioned in both marking criteria in several places but decided that coherent writing understandable to lay audience would meet all of them.

Figure 5.22

Academic Discussion Marking Criteria Assignment 2 (Poster)

ACADEMIC DISCUSSION			
	EXCELLENT (0.75-1)	SATISFACTORY (0.5)	UNSATISFACTORY (0-0.25)
Discussion	<u>Details at least 2 studies</u> (one in particular detail with graph/table) into a coherent discussion that is <u>well linked</u> between each study/theme providing a cohesive argument. <u>Integrates data</u> into the discussion so that data is well explained meeting the statistics requirements but still recognising that this must be accessible to the audience. Statistical explanations and the story elements are well balanced. Introduces the topic well and communicates a solid, sound and <u>accessible argument</u> . <u>Coherently written</u> . Discussion is <u>grounded in the evidence</u> .	Discussion lacks coherency and is not well linked between each study/theme. Discussion may focus only on one study. Discussion lacks cohesion and introduction may be weak. Includes statistical components but undervalues the "story" element of the poster and as such is less accessible to a general audience. Does not adequately address markers' concerns in the previous two assignments. Some written English issues evident but is still understandable.	Inadequate sources used resulting in a poorly supported discussion that sounds more like the author's own opinion rather than evidence-based research. Little evidence that the author has engaged/ understands the course's research requirements. Displays little evidence of author's development over the three assignments. Poorly edited. Written English issues disrupt message.
Evidence	Presents <u>minimum of FOUR</u> quality references (as outlined in course requirements posted on CANVAS/Learning Resources) with adequate detail and relevant data that provides a sound base to answer the question posed.	Presents minimum of <u>FOUR</u> quality references, however not enough detail of at least two studies is presented – likely focuses only on one study. Data is not well integrated into the argument or does not adequately relate to the question. Findings do not soundly emerge from the academic sources' evidence.	Less than the required <u>FOUR</u> sources and/or reliance on weak references such as those from the world wide web. Data not presented or simply does not relate to the question. Discussion sounds like personal opinion rather than emerging from academic sources.
Conclusion	Provides the <u>answer to the research question</u> by letting this emerge from the discussion. (does not need to be a YES or NO answer). <u>No new information</u> presented. Sound & coherent. Take home message is apparent. Likely <u>includes the 'outcome'</u> section of the statistics marksheet.	Conclusion simply summarises the discussion but does allow critical conclusions/learnings to emerge from the poster's discussion. Likely to be simply repetitive of what has been stated in the discussion. May introduce new material. The take home message is not always apparent.	Too brief or no conclusion at all. Author does not provide the answer to the research question or draws conclusions that have not emerged from the discussion section.
Citations	All sources are referenced. <u>100% correct use of APA in-text citations and reference list</u> . Correctly presented and readable reference list. Appropriate inclusion of in-text citations in all sections of the work. Graph/table referenced. <u>Student's name is on poster</u> near the title and visible.	All sources are referenced but there maybe some minor presentation issues in reference list or in the in-text citations. Student's name is present on the poster but may not be easily seen.	No in-text citations or inadequate use or presentation of in-text citations and/or poorly presented references. Continually fails to address citation concerns raised by the markers in the previous assignments. Student's name may not be on poster. <i>PLEASE NOTE: poor referencing/citations/paraphrasing may breach integrity requirements and lead to disciplinary action.</i>

The next sub-sections present Sarah's work on the Poster, the lecturer's feedback and the student's reflection on them.

Student's work on the assignment

Although Sarah never created a poster in her previous studies, she felt empowered by her deeper understanding of the research question gained through the completion of the previous assignment, Research Summary:

I liked that it was step-by-step, so in the end I knew what to write about. I was ready. It was just about organising it and making it look nice.

For her Poster, Sarah chose a bluish background colour, which seemed to her related to the research question, i.e. the health effect of chlorine in drinking water on bladder cancer. To add to the visual attractiveness of the poster, Sarah included two pictures at the top and bottom of the poster. The top picture depicted a glass of water which Sarah believed activated the readers' schemata about the research question. The second picture indicated chlorine and its by-products in a glass of water, which in Sarah's opinion gave the Poster a scientific look. Since Sarah used these pictures for visual attractiveness, she did not reference them:

It's just to fill up the space 'coz we needed to make it interesting and attractive.

Sarah's Poster had four sections: Introduction and Objective, Background – Water disinfection, Discussion, Conclusion and Outcomes. In the Introduction and Objective section, Sarah used the same text from Assignment 1 (Figure 5.18) to introduce the research topic. In the Poster, she corrected the grammatical errors marked by the lecturer in Assignment 1 (highlighted in yellow in Figure 5.18). The Introduction and Objective section also included abbreviations, THM and HAAS, which were left unexplained. Sarah believed the abbreviations were well-known and did not require an explanation:

I think there are some abbreviations that everybody will understand, like, chlorine is CL.

Figure 5.23 presents Sarah's Conclusion and Outcomes section, where bullet points were used to summarise the information from the Poster. Sarah explained that she was working under time constraints, so did not have sufficient time to write coherent text, which required a lot of thinking. Sarah believed that the use of bullet points would result in a quick completion of the assignment and additionally assist her in error-free writing. As a result, she did not proof-read the final section, which lacked linguistic clarity:

Shorter to write in bullet points and, also, I make fewer mistakes this way.

Figure 5.23

Conclusion

- ❖ Data analyses showed concentration of THM in different countries, and long-term effect on human health was observed
- ❖ Drinking, inhaling, showering and swimming are different ways of exposure to chlorinated water, hence swimming showed a higher risk
- ❖ All toxicological data are recent and further research confirms the issue further studies should be conducted

Lecturer's feedback, and the student's reflection on it

The lecturer's feedback, presented in Figure 5.24, was provided via university LMS and focused solely on the language aspect. Although the lecturer negatively commented on the complex language that impeded the uptake of the message communicated in the Poster, the use of tentative language received positive comments. The feedback also pointed out the student's linguistic inaccuracies and the fact that some parts of the Poster were hard to understand, however, it was not explicitly stated whether this issue related to linguistic inaccuracies or the 'unnecessary complex language'.

Figure 5.24

Lecturer's Feedback

Total out of 8: 5.75

Overall good work Sahab. The uptake of the message is affected by written english issues - and unnecessary complex language - so this may make it hard for your stage 1 audience to understand. However you present sound evidence and have appropriately softened the language to be less black and white. Watch the introduction - very hard to understand.

The next section provides answers to the three research questions based on the information from the case study described in this chapter.

5.5 Within-Case Analysis

The current section attempts to answer the three research questions drawing on the information revealed in the process of data analysis of Sarah's case study.

5.5.1 RQ 1. What challenges do international L2 students in the early 21st century encounter throughout the first year of their university studies as they attempt to meet the academic writing standards demanded by their institutions?

Throughout her first year of undergraduate study, Sarah encountered a number of challenges that can be organised into four larger categories:

- 1) challenges following academic writing conventions;
- 2) challenges understanding and following assignment requirements;
- 3) challenges completing assignments under time constraints;
- 4) challenges interpreting feedback.

The following sub-sections provide detailed analysis of challenges in each category.

5.5.1.1 Challenges following academic writing conventions

Sarah encountered challenges following academic writing conventions which involved i) challenges comprehending discipline-specific vocabulary, and ii) confusion about how to write on a scientific topic to lay audience.

Challenges comprehending discipline-specific vocabulary

One of the biggest challenges for Sarah at the beginning of Semester 1 related to understanding discipline-specific vocabulary in the assignment requirements for her major subject, Chemistry. Although she had acquired a certain amount of discipline-specific vocabulary in her FP, the amount of unfamiliar vocabulary in her degree studies was so high, that Sarah felt overwhelmed. As discussed in Chapter 1 and 2, Hyland and Shaw (2016) state that students tend to struggle with discipline-specific vocabulary.

Scholars (e.g. Casanave, 2002; Macbeth, 2010; Hyland & Shaw, 2016) further claim that discipline-specific norms and conventions are best acquired through practice in the discipline area. To gain understanding of the Chemistry assignment requirements at the beginning of Semester 1, Sarah seemed to make use of certain ineffective study habits. Jairam (2020) identifies four ineffective study habits, among which are re-reading information several times, studying linearly and not drawing connections between facts, making disorganised notes with insufficient details, and highlighting. Sarah's ineffective study habit was related to highlighting. At the beginning of Semester 1, the majority of Sarah's assignment requirements for Laboratory Assignment 1 in Semester 1 was highlighted (Figure 5.8 in Section 5.4.1.2). Jairam (2020) states that students falsely assume that 'studying' happens through highlighting. Furthermore, he argues that students tend to believe that the higher amount of text is highlighted, the more learning is happening. It appears that already by the second lab test Sarah realised that the use of several highlighters was time consuming, did not empower her much during the practical tests, but impacted her preparation process for the Chemistry and other papers. Sarah's observation led her to a decision to re-strategise her learning behaviour. Hence, when approaching Assignment 2 in Semester 1, Sarah started using only one highlighter (Figure 5.9 in Section 5.4.1.2). Yet, the amount of the highlighted text was still considerably high indicating that Sarah's level of comprehension of the assignment requirements was still quite low. It seems that only by Semester 2 Sarah's understanding of discipline-specific vocabulary used in the assignment requirements increased and she appeared to have attained active discipline-specific vocabulary which she was confident using in both perceptive and productive skills. Consequently, her study habit concerning highlighting improved and in Semester 2, highlighted and emphasised areas in Chemistry assignment requirements were mainly reduced to such information as the order of lab actions (Figure 5.13 in Section 5.4.2.1).

Confusion about how to write on a scientific topic to lay audience

When approaching her Semester 2 assignments in the Communicating for a Knowledge Society paper, which was a compulsory EAP paper, Sarah was confused about how to write on a scientific topic to lay audience. Sarah's confusion when approaching EAP assignments may be rooted in her academic writing experiences. Although a number of researchers (e.g. Basturkmen, 2017; Hyland, 2013a; Hyland & Tse, 2007) investigated the impact of EAP writing norms on students' challenges with discipline-specific writing, Sarah's developed capability of academic discipline-specific writing seemed to

obstruct her from writing more simply. Sarah did not seem to possess sufficient vocabulary to make discipline-specific knowledge accessible to lay people. Furthermore, it appears that Sarah's perception about her main audience, the lecturer, further supported her choice of discipline-specific academic lexicogrammar.

Sarah's linguistic choices appeared to be additionally driven by her motivational goals. She saw the EAP course as an opportunity to have some discipline-specific writing practice and to prepare for future writing demands in her discipline area. Therefore, she failed to see the importance of having simple vocabulary to discuss complex terms. Sarah's expectation that the EAP course would prepare her for future discipline-specific writing appears to be shared by other international students. As discussed in Chapter 1, Section 1.5.4, Lobo and Gurney (2014) conclude that after preparatory English language courses within various disciplines in an Australian university, international L2 students expected to be well-prepared for academic writing demands in their discipline areas. In Sarah's case, the findings indicate that the student's intention to prepare for future studies detracted her from the actual assignment aim, communicating scientific knowledge to laymen. It seems that Sarah's lecturer failed to explain the fact that writing to lay audience is a steppingstone to a more complex discipline-specific writing.

5.5.1.2 Challenges understanding and following assignment requirements

Sarah's challenges with understanding and following assignment requirements involved challenges with the structural organisation of assignments.

Structural organisation of written assignments

Another challenge encountered by Sarah related to structural organisation of her written assignments, particularly in the EAP paper in Semester 2. For example, the required structural organisation of Assignment 1, Research Summary, confused Sarah. She could not comprehend why a short summary of sources on the same topic had to be presented in, what seemed to her, an essay structure, i.e. Introduction-Body-Conclusion. Sarah's bewilderment about the required structure may be explained by her confusion of what constituted a 'topic' and 'arguments'. Lillis and Turner (2001) argue that lecturers often see specific terminology as 'common sense', and therefore in no need of clarification. They further theorise that wordings which are central to academic writing, such as 'argument', are commonly viewed as "transparently meaningful" (p. 58) by the

lecturers, yet present challenges to the students. Furthermore, Lea and Street (1998) claim that lecturers themselves are often unable to specify what the notion of ‘argument’ means.

5.5.1.3 Challenges completing assignments under time constraints

Challenges with time required for completing assignments related to time constraints.

Time constraints

In the course of Semester 1, Sarah’s lack of discipline-specific knowledge needed for comprehension of Chemistry assignment requirements affected the time she could devote to prepare for assignments in other papers. Onwuegbuzie and Seaman (1995), and Caviola et al. (2017) argue that time constraints result in students’ increased anxiety level and lead to lower test grades. It might be that hasty work in some assignments resulted in Sarah’s second-best results.

5.5.1.4 Challenges interpreting feedback

The challenges Sarah faced interpreting the feedback she received on her written assignments were primarily related to her confusion with marking criteria and the supervisor’s non-verbal feedback.

Confusion with marking criteria and supervisor’s non-verbal feedback

Some of Sarah’s challenges interpreting feedback for her EAP assignments were related to her confusion about marking criteria, which may be explained by two primary factors. Firstly, several assessed elements were combined under the same marking criterion, as in the ‘Discussion/Structure’ marking criterion for the Research Summary assignment (Figure 5.20 in Section 5.4.2.2). Secondly, the language requirement was included under different marking criteria for the Poster assignment (Figures 5.21 and 5.22 in Section 5.4.2.2). Saddler and Andrade (2004) argue that unclear marking criteria, or rubrics, in their terminology, may lead to students’ confusion regarding certain assignment’s requirements and potentially result in students’ disinterest and demotivation towards academic achievements. In contrast, Jones et al. (2017) argue that explicit and detailed marking criteria may assist students in gaining a clear understanding of the assignment requirements and, as a result, enhance their academic

performance. Sarah was steered towards ensuring all marking criteria were reflected in her assignments regardless of what criterion they were described under.

Another issue influencing Sarah's ability to interpret feedback related to her confusion about not particularly informative supervisor's feedback on her Chemistry assignments, which was largely in a form of ticks and crosses. Hyland (2013a) states that compared to feedback on humanities and social sciences assignments, science assignments contain more non-verbal feedback, often in the form of ticks and symbols, which often frustrates students. Since Sarah could not get any comprehensive feedback from her supervisor regarding her mistakes in the assignment, she felt discouraged to search for correct answers. By the beginning of Semester 2, Sarah changed her focus from gaining correct answers to all lab test questions to gaining practical skills that she might be able to employ in her future academic career, and, later, at work:

*I just want to know how to do experiments because I will need it in
Year 2 and maybe at work too.*

5.5.2 RQ 2. In what way do international students' prior learning and experiences, including preparatory academic English courses such as IELTS, successfully prepare these students for the challenges they encounter throughout the first year of their academic study?

Sarah's pre-degree studies allowed her to acquire a range of skills, strategies and knowledges that she brought to her first year studies. For example, during her IELTS studies, Sarah improved her knowledge of grammar, acquired task analysis skills, learnt how to analyse graphs or tables, and present visual information in writing. When writing answers to her lab test questions in Semester 1, Sarah utilised her IELTS skills related to task analysis. For example, the use of the word "brief" in the task description for the Chemistry Assignment 1 signaled to Sarah that an extended answer would not be accepted by the lecturer. Consequently, Sarah provided concise answers to the questions, i.e. in one-two sentences.

The time management skill, acquired during IELTS preparation, was identified by the student as one of the most useful skills in relation to academic writing. Adams and Blair (2019) identify time management as a set of behavioural skills assisting in balancing study and life workload. Kearns and Gardiner (2007), and Misra and McKean (2000) argue that good time management skills positively correlate with academic

achievements and result in a decreased stress level. Although during her IELTS studies, time management skills were related to succinct language, during her university studies, Sarah expanded this skill to her preparation for Chemistry assignments. That is, in order to ensure she had sufficient time for her written assignments, Sarah carefully managed her time for preparation for each assignment.

During the FP, Sarah also acquired research and referencing skills, which she effectively and successfully applied in her current studies. Although Neville (2008, 2012) suggest that referencing is often taught as a defence against plagiarism, Sarah seemed to have also brought the referencing skills that allowed her to develop her authorial voice. For example, in the Research Summary in Semester 2, Sarah incorporated the scholarly findings into her arguments by referring to researchers by their names within her argument (Figure 5.18 in Section 5.4.2.2).

Although Sarah could see relevance of a number of skills, strategies, and knowledge acquired in her pre-degree courses, she also realised little relevance of some other previously acquired skills to her current writing practices. For example, vocabulary learnt during IELTS preparation seemed to Sarah more relevant to the field of business. Stigger (2019) states that the IELTS vocabulary is generalised and decontextualised, which means that it is not necessarily relevant for HE discipline-specific studies. Moreover, Durrant (2014), and Hyland and Tse (2007) point that there is a small amount of vocabulary that is the same across the disciplines and that discipline-specific vocabulary is best acquired while learning the discipline itself. Although it seemed to Sarah that the knowledge of discipline-specific vocabulary acquired at the FP somewhat prepared her for understanding the assignment requirements in the Chemistry paper in Semester 1, this knowledge was quite limited and slowed Sarah down in her preparation for lab tests because she found herself translating most of the assignment requirements. However, it appeared that for Sarah some knowledge was better than no knowledge at all and she appreciated the vocabulary that she gained in this area.

Another discrepancy between Sarah's knowledge acquired in pre-degree studies and her current writing practices related to genre writing, Sarah realised that various types of essays that she learnt during IELTS preparation seemed to be irrelevant to her Semester 1 papers as she found herself mainly writing Laboratory Assignments or Laboratory Reports. Allison (1996), Krashen (2011), and Hyland and Shaw (2016) argue that EAP

fails to acknowledge variations between discipline genres and mainly supports relatively stable Anglophone academic norms and conventions.

Furthermore, as discussed in Section 5.3.1, Sarah commented that the majority of IELTS instructors' feedback related to grammar and punctuation. Although Nallaya (2018) states that one of the expectations for HE students' writing is accurate English void of errors related to surface-level features of the language, Sarah's grammatical, punctuation, and spelling errors, did not seem to impact her grades. Moreover, in Sarah's Chemistry assignments linguistic accuracy was not even present in assignment marking criteria. Hyland (2013a) points to the lecturers' major focus on content knowledge in students' assignment and fewer comments are provided regarding linguistic accuracy.

5.5.3 RQ 3. How do the students' perception of, and approach to their academic writing practices, including their prior learning, consciously change as their first year of study progresses?

When approaching her assignment requirements for the Chemistry paper in Semester 1, Sarah saw an opportunity to improve her command of English by achieving in-depth comprehension of her assignment requirements. Lasagabaster (2008), Lasagabaster and Sierra (2009), and Arnó-Macià and Mancho-Barés (2015) postulate that international L2 students are motivated to learn English in authentic situations where they are provided with meaningful opportunities to practice discipline-specific language. Nevertheless, Arnó-Macià and Mancho-Barés (2015) found that in discipline-specific subjects taught through EMI, little attention is given to language learning. Cots (2013) links lack of focus on the language learning in discipline-specific subjects to lecturers' lack of language awareness, which stems from lecturers' lack of training in language teaching. Sarah seemed to realise that as an international L2 student studying in an HE institution with EMI, there would be limited formal English teaching in her discipline-specific papers. Being self-motivated, she chose to improve her language herself. To achieve this goal, Sarah used an English-English dictionary to interpret unfamiliar vocabulary in the Chemistry assignment requirements. Such an adaptive learning strategy, coupled with weekly practical lab tests, where Sarah had to refer to and re-read her assignment requirements as well as provide written answers on the lab test sheet, seemed to boost Sarah's knowledge of discipline-specific vocabulary and academic scientific register. As a result, she increased her self-confidence when reading assignment requirements

and answering lab test questions in Semester 2. Lasagabaster (2008) points that learning a language through discipline-specific subjects improves learners' self-confidence in own ability to communicate discipline-specific knowledge in the language.

Furthermore, he argues that it promotes and motivates learners to continue learning the language. The latter, however, was not the case with Sarah. Perhaps the absence of lecturers' and supervisors' guidance with learning English lead to Sarah's reduced motivation for learning English through reading Chemistry assignment requirements. Consequently, in Semester 2 Sarah started translating unfamiliar vocabulary mostly into her first language, Arabic.

From as early as the middle of Semester 1, Sarah seemed to lose motivation to utilise her writing skills acquired in her pre-degree studies. For example, when approaching her Lab Report 1 in the Computer Science paper, Sarah made every effort to apply her knowledge of academic writing from IELTS and the FP, which largely related to error-free and cohesive writing through the use of discourse markers. However, already by Assignment 2, Sarah's Lab Summary was less detailed and featured linguistic mistakes (Figure 5.5 in Section 5.4.1.1.) demonstrating her lack of motivation to achieve linguistically flawless writing. This happened because, firstly, Sarah was restricted by time constraints when approaching her written assignments, and, secondly, linguistic mistakes did not seem to impact her grades as grades were determined by the amount of correct answers to the Lab Report questions and not by the linguistic accuracy. Therefore, Sarah's strategy approaching her Computer Science assignments appeared to be quite effective.

Although Sarah did not find that lecturers' feedback in Semester 1 was of significant value, she quite valued the lecturer's feedback on her EAP assignments. Glover (2004) construes that although learners are often motivated by their assignment grades, they also value written feedback. Since the grade for Sarah's EAP paper would not be officially registered, Sarah sought educational value in the EAP lecturer's feedback. Baik and Greig (2009) claim that students often lack motivation to attend EAP courses built into the mainstream curriculum as they take time away from mainstream classes. However, Sarah was rather motivated to achieve good results in the paper as she expected it to enhance her language skills needed for her future studies in her major. Therefore, she tried to meet all writing assignment requirements and built on her lecturer's feedback when approaching each assignment. Gibbs and Simpson (2004) identify seven conditions under which feedback is believed to impact students' learning.

These involve the quality, quantity, and timing of the feedback, as well as the students' response to it. The written feedback on Sarah's EAP assignments seemed to be high in quantity and quality, so the student saw real benefit in it. Consequently, when approaching Assignment 2, Poster, Sarah took into consideration the lecturer's feedback on her linguistic errors from Assignment 1, Research Summary.

Despite her motivation to receive a recommended grade for the EAP paper, Sarah's perception that the paper would prepare her for academic demands in her discipline seemed to be detrimental for her EAP assignments. Sarah's belief that the EAP course was a way to enhance her writing skills in the discipline strengthened the student's choice of academic vocabulary in her assignments. Hyland and Tse (2007) suggest EAP instructors to align their vocabulary teaching to the students' needs. In Sarah's case, due to the choice given to the students regarding research areas for the assignments, vocabulary needed to relate to humanities or science areas. Durrant (2014) states that vocabulary and grammatical constructions vary across the disciplines. Therefore, it may be that Sarah's unsuccessful employment of complex language was related to the lack of the lecturer's explicit instructions regarding lexicogrammar suitable for the assignments.

5.6 Chapter summary

This chapter presented a detailed encounter of Sarah's case study. The chapter started with the presentation of Sarah's profile and educational background. Then, the student's pathway to the current studies were reported focusing on the skills, strategies and knowledge acquired through her preparation for the IELTS test, both IELTS preparatory courses and self-study, as well as through the FP. Following that, Sarah's current academic experiences were detailed focusing on the critical moments in the student's approach to her Semester 1 and Semester 2 assignments. After that, the within-case analysis was presented focusing on the three research questions.

The next chapter presents details of the second case study, Reema.

Chapter 6. Case study 2: Reema

6.1 Introduction

The second case study focuses on Reema, a 30-year-old student from Saudi Arabia, studying towards a Graduate Diploma in Business at University C. The chapter begins by providing Reema's educational background and pathways to universities in NZ. Then, the student's English-learning experience in General English and IELTS class at University C, as well as her self-study for the IELTS exam are described focusing on the skills, strategies and knowledge acquired in relation to academic writing. Following that, Reema's experience of EAP classes is provided. Then, the student's university undergraduate degree studies are presented, and details of papers, which the student chose to share from Semester 1 and Semester 2 in the 2017 academic year, are discussed.

6.2 Reema's profile and educational background

Reema is a 30 year-old student from Saudi Arabia, studying towards her Graduate Diploma in Business on a full government support. Before arriving in NZ, Reema acquired a Bachelor's qualification in teaching Arabic from her country but decided to requalify and obtain education in Business. With her previous Bachelor's degree, she was not required to complete a whole three-year Bachelor's degree in NZ but only take Year 2 and Year 3 papers in the new major in order to obtain Graduate Diploma, which could be achieved in one academic year.

When Reema arrived in NZ, she could not have a simple conversation in English. Originally, Reema learnt English in a public school as a compulsory subject. Her classes occurred once or twice a week and were based on a translation method, which involved almost no communication in the target language. Reema said that in her English classes, English was mainly used to give short instructions to the students, such as "open your books", or "read and translate". The main focus was on accurate English grammar and

vocabulary which was tested in written grammar exercises in a multiple-choice format. There was never a speaking test:

They don't do speaking. Never. Only grammar and vocab.

Reema's language practice was rather limited to her classroom participation. Even though she had some English TV channels available, Reema's family did not stimulate her language learning, and Reema did not see any benefits in learning a second language herself:

Why we learn English when we don't travel outside [the country]?

Overall, Reema did not feel that she acquired much knowledge of the language during her school years.

During her Bachelor's Degree in teaching Arabic, Reema had a compulsory English class that lasted a semester. Similarly to her school, teaching at university was also translation-based, so Reema did not benefit in learning conversational or written language either.

After gaining her Bachelor's Degree, Reema worked for a year as an Arabic teacher but she found it tedious, so she decided to change her job. She found an administrator job in a marketing company, which she liked. So, she decided to get a qualification in Marketing to continue her career.

Since Reema did not know English that would allow her to complete a qualification in a university with EMI, her government awarded her a 2-year scholarship to learn English prior to her main studies in NZ.

The following section presents details of Reema's pathway to her current studies at University C in NZ.

6.3 Pathway to current study

When Reema arrived in NZ, she did not speak much English, so her new friends in NZ were Arabs. In fact, Arabic remained the main language of communication for Reema throughout her studies in NZ. The majority of her English speaking was reserved to the classroom environment and when speaking to her non-Arabic speaking classmates.

Reema's academic studies in NZ started with general English classes that lasted for a year. Then, she was transferred to an IELTS class, where she remained for around nine months. Throughout the entire English learning journey, she took six IELTS tests before she achieved the required results for admission, with roughly a month between each test. Four tests were taken in NZ and after little success she took the test twice in Saudi Arabia.

The first time Reema took the exam before she even started the IELTS course. Reema wanted to see her level of English and have realistic expectations of the test results. The second time she took the test was shortly after she started IELTS to check if there was any improvement. Reema explained that she had to take tests frequently because the 2-year time frame for her scholarship was coming to an end. But with little improvement indicated by the test scores, Reema started feeling disappointed and discouraged:

I really suggest to my friend to take it [IELTS test] in a long period because doesn't work if you try many time in a short term. You get disappointed.

Reema achieved an overall score 4.0 for each of four IELTS tests that she took in NZ, attributing such low scores to strict examiners and the tense atmosphere during the exam. This score was not sufficient to be admitted to an undergraduate degree of her choice, as she required a minimum overall score of 6.0. Reema decided to leave NZ and try taking the IELTS test in her country, hoping that it would be an easier pass. In contrast to NZ, the exam atmosphere in Saudi Arabia was more relaxed and more agreeable to Reema. She achieved an overall score of 5.0 in her fifth test, which was a better outcome but still not sufficient to enter a NZ university.

Then, Reema's friend recommended her using www.ieltsadvantage.com website, which had assisted the friend in self-preparation for the test. Reema used the website for three weeks focusing mainly on her writing skills. In her last, sixth, IELTS test taken in Saudi Arabia, Reema achieved an overall score of 5.5 with 6.0 for writing, and 5.5 for listening, reading, and speaking.

Although the overall score of 5.5. was not sufficient to start her undergraduate degree courses in NZ, Reema enrolled into a three-months EAP pre-degree course at University C on the understanding that if she completed the EAP course with an overall B+, she

could enrol for her Diploma. She considered that the course would make her major studies easier after she learnt more about the academic culture:

Now I get this: to get to EAP and EAP will pass me to uni, that is OK.

Actually, it's best to learn a lot of things about uni before you go there. Because there's not a lot of time to face new things.

Eventually, she was happy to have chosen this pathway believing she would be better prepared for university life and have a deeper understanding of what university study was going to be like, what university assignments would entail, as well as gain core academic skills, such as referencing, writing long assignments, doing projects, and conducting case studies:

EAP is perfect actually! Because if I go with language only, I will face a lot of challenges, like how to do assignments.

Reema achieved an overall B+ at the EAP course and was admitted into her Graduate Diploma in Business studies at University C.

6.3.1 General English classes, IELTS classes, and self-study for IELTS

This section focuses on Reema's experiences in her General English and IELTS classes at University C, as well as self-study for her IELTS experience.

Overall, Reema perceived the skills acquired during her General English classes and the preparation for IELTS were only marginally relevant to her undergraduate degree.

While she understood that the former was designed to prepare her for daily communication, she could not say the formal IELTS classes prepared her well for the IELTS test nor that they provided her with sufficient learning support throughout the course. In fact, she felt the IELTS classes were a continuation of her General English classes with more intense focus on vocabulary and grammar. In contrast, she believed that by undertaking self-study she was presented with a plethora of information and tools to help score high on the exam. The information offered on the website Reema used during self-study included vocabulary which would be more advantageous in a writing test, explanation of grammar, essay structures and samples. Since the site was so detailed, Reema felt as if a teacher was guiding her every step of the preparation:

Vocabs, grammar, EVERYTHING actually! It's really helpful! Like someone who's actually beside you explaining all those things.

Reema acquired a number of skills and knowledge throughout her overall preparation for the IELTS test. First of all, she focused on improving her knowledge of grammatical tenses and structures, such as conditionals; passive voice; relative, subordinate, and conditional clauses. Another main focus was on academic vocabulary. During her classes, Reema liked the daily lists with thirteen words given to students to memorise and that were tested in writing the next day. She believed the taught vocabulary was academic and useful for her degree course:

Like 'key' and 'focus'. For example, 'enhance', 'improve'. That is more academic and that is, like, level 9 or level 8 in IELTS.

During self-study Reema started boosting her vocabulary by using online Thesaurus dictionaries, as she believed vocabulary was vital for IELTS.

Structuring essays and paragraphs was another skill acquired by Reema during her preparation for the test. Although different written genres in IELTS Writing Tasks had not been explained to her in her face-to-face classes, during self-study she realised that each writing task in IELTS belongs to different types of essays, such as Opinion Essay or Advantages/ Disadvantages Essay. During IELTS classes students were provided with a rather broad description of an essay structure, which consisted of an Introduction, Body, and Conclusion, but during self-study Reema learnt the function of each sentence in each paragraph. While her IELTS instructor emphasised the importance of cohesive paragraphs through the use of linking words in almost every sentence, Reema perceived it a better practice to use them mainly to introduce new paragraphs.

While Reema considered that paraphrasing through the use of synonyms, changing grammatical structures of sentences, or swapping parts of the sentences was one of the main skills learnt during her self-study, this skill was only relevant to paraphrasing IELTS Writing Tasks to introduce essays.

To sum up, during her IELTS learning, Reema believed she extended her academic vocabulary, widened her knowledge of genre and improved her ability to write accurately.

As was mentioned in Section 6.3, after gaining an overall score of 5.5 in her last IELTS test, Reema was admitted to an EAP course, which preceded her main study.

6.3.2 EAP experience

During the course, Reema further extended her knowledge of academic vocabulary and successfully continued using the learnt functions of sentences in paragraph writing. She also developed skills of writing good topic sentences and improved her skills of summarising and drawing conclusions. Students were assured that lecturers at university preferred linking words and phrases in university assignments to sub-headings in an attempt to organise the content of written assignments:

They [lecturers] usually L-I-I-IKE the linking. They don't like sub-headings. I learnt it in EAP.

Reema also learnt something entirely new to her – creating a reference list according to the APA 6th style and the way to provide in-text citations. This was discussed in detail over a week in her EAP course and entailed a number of exercises for practice.

After meeting the requirements of passing the EAP class, Reema was admitted to her mainstream studies. She believed that the knowledge gained in EAP empowered her and equipped with the skills necessary for achieving positive outcomes during her Graduate Degree studies. The next section discusses the student's mainstream academic experiences at University C.

6.4 Current Academic Studies

The following sections detail critical moments in the trajectory of Reema's engagement with her written assignments throughout the first two semesters of her academic study at University C. They include a detailed description and examination of the following:

- 1) Reema's assignment instructions and related marking criteria. These are also compared for consistency.
- 2) Reema's perceptions about her ongoing assignments and marking criteria.
- 3) Reema's writing processes as she attempts to complete each of her assignments.
- 4) Reema's application of previously acquired writing and study skills.

- 5) The lecturer's grades and feedback, as well as Reema's perception of these.

6.4.1 Semester 1

In Semester 1 Reema took four papers: Communications in MARS (Marketing, Advertising, Retailing, Sales); Understanding the Environment; Data, Information and Knowledge; and Trends and Innovations. The student provided me with a total of four writing assignment requirements, and four written assignments with lecturers' feedback. Although all the assignments provided insights into Reema's perceptions regarding academic writing, a decision was made not to include all of them but to provide description of critical moments only of assignments belonging to different written genres and formats.

6.4.1.1 Communications in MARS (Marketing, Advertising, Retailing, Sales) Assignment 1 (Communication Content Marketing Plan)

Assignment 1 was referred to as Communication Content Marketing Plan, which involved students contextualising working for a MARS Communications Agency's client who needed help with a communication's campaign for their brand aimed at teen boys. Students could choose a brand from provided examples, as highlighted in yellow in Figure 6.1, or choose a brand of their liking. Reema misunderstood the requirement related to choosing a brand and considered that she could recommend a generalised communications campaign. She stated:

We didn't have to use a specific brand. We could imagine one.

Figure 6.1

Communications in MARS Assignment 1 (Communication Content Marketing Plan)

You need to imagine that you are working for a client who has approached you for help with their communications campaign for their new retail fashion brand, aimed at teen boys. You can research an established "teen boy" clothing brand if that helps you clarify your thinking; e.g. Diesel, Hollister, American Eagle Outfitters, or some other cool brand with teen guy appeal.

Note. Examples of Brands are Highlighted in Yellow

The assignment had two distinct parts. Although the assignment was contextualised in the field of marketing, the first part of the assignment reminded an academic essay in which students were required to demonstrate their discipline-specific knowledge in an organised way. To assist students with structural organisation of the assignment, the lecturer offered a detailed step-by-step guide, which included information that was expected to be written in each paragraph. Figure 6.2 presents the information in relation to the first part of the assignment.

Figure 6.2

Communications in MARS Assignment 1 (Communication Content Marketing Plan): Assignment Requirements for the First Part of Assignment

1. Briefly explain to your client the three types of content. One paragraph for each content category should be sufficient.
2. Help your client understand what “consumer engagement with a brand” means. A brief paragraph or two here should be sufficient.
3. Help your client understand how the three content categories can help people to engage with a brand. You might want to explain the benefits and problems that brands face when creating communications for the three content categories.
4. Explain to your client what “organic traffic” is and how it is achieved. This means that you will need to briefly talk about keyword searching and how such consumer behaviour relates to the generation of organic traffic. You might write one or two pages for this part.

The second part of the assignment seemed to be a field-specific Pitch Document, which had to contain a Content Marketing Plan for the chosen branded company. In the 1200-1500-word Pitch Document students had to utilise relevant theories from academic sources. All used sources had to be acknowledged but there were no specific

instructions on what conventions to follow and how to acquire knowledge of those. Reema presumed that since it was a Year 2 paper, the lecturer must have thought that students were already familiar with referencing information. Reema said that she knew referencing conventions from her pre-degree EAP classes, so she had no issue with composing a reference list.

The final writing assignment requirement was to “Have fun!”. Reema did not find this requirement relevant to her first experience with writing academic assignments at University C. Compared to her previous studies in her country, where students mainly wrote traditional academic essays, she found this assignment very different in nature. As a result, Reema struggled with Assignment 1 and was in need of strong academic support.

Figure 6.3

Communications in MARS Assignment 1 (Communication Content Marketing Plan): Marking Criteria

Criteria	A range	B range
Concepts, theory selection and application 12.5 marks	Student clearly & consistently selected, explained & applied a range of relevant theory & concepts to support and justify the decisions made in the Content Marketing Plan.	Student identified, explained & applied a range of appropriate theory & concepts to support the decision points in the Content Marketing Plan. May have been minor gaps and/or inappropriate theory & concepts selected.
Informative writing and quality 12.5 marks	The Plan is well-written and characterized by elements of a strong writing style. Content used demonstrates that the student is well-read, using learned content to inform.	The Plan shows above average writing style. Content used demonstrates that the student reads moderately & attempts to use learned content to inform.
Presentation 5 marks	Student presented a persuasive Pitch document with grammatically correct work and correct APA referencing in all cases.	Student presented a sound Pitch document with grammar & presentation generally of a high standard and correct APA referencing in most cases.

Note. Highlighted Text Indicates the Lecturer’s Marking for the Assignment

The marking criteria for the assignment are presented in Figure 6.3 above where highlighted areas indicate the lecturer's marking of Reema's assignment. As can be seen, the language requirement was embedded into two rubrics: 1) the Informative writing and quality, and 2) Presentation. The former rubric required students to demonstrate a strong writing style which Reema was not able to elaborate on for me in the interviews. The latter rubric seemed to mainly focus on grammatical accuracy of the Pitch Document, i.e. second part of the assignment. Reema did not attribute this requirement only to the Pitch Document, as she believed the whole assignment had to be error-free in order to achieve a grade in the A range. Reema did not think that her assignment could contain any linguistic mistakes if she wanted to achieve the top grade. Furthermore, she believed that linguistic mistakes would impede clarity of the content knowledge.

The next section discusses Reema's work on the assignment and the student's reflection on it.

Student's work on the assignment

The provided assignment was the first written work for Reema in her first-year undergraduate study at University C. Reema was goal-oriented in striving to achieve a B+ in the course and continue her education at the Masters' level. Realising that she would have several assignments with similar deadlines, Reema demonstrated her time management skills and approached her first assignment as soon as she got the assignment requirements. To figure out the way to complete her first assignment and to achieve a good outcome, Reema spent nearly a month working on it.

To achieve a high grade, Reema decided to closely follow assignment requirements so that the structural organisation of her work would meet the lecturer's requirements (Figure 6.2). Since the assignment requirements were clear and detailed, the students felt confident writing the assignment:

She [lecturer] is very specific and gives the detail for everything she wants. That makes it easier and really helpful for us. Just follow structure.

Even though Reema followed very detailed guidelines in organising her assignment, she encountered an issue with presenting content knowledge in a concise form. Each discipline-specific concept for the assignment was explained to students in one-hour lectures but had to be compressed into 1-2 paragraphs. She could not compare concise writing of IELTS Task 2, where she had to write about a single general topic, to her current assignment, where she had to discuss several discipline-specific concepts:

[IELTS] is totally different. They give you one topic and don't go anywhere. Plastic bags, Ok, talking about plastic bags. But here if you go to the content categories, it's not from the same lecture. We took this in maybe 4-5 lectures for just this assignment. It's hard.

To avoid going over the word limit Reema decided to avoid topic sentences in each paragraph, which was the norm in IELTS and EAP classes. Instead she wrote 'short phrases', as seen in Figure 6.4, considering that they would serve as a suitable brief indication of what the paragraph was going to be about:

Like a shortcut of what you want to say.

Figure 6.4

Communications in MARS Assignment 1 (Communication Content Marketing Plan): 'Short Phrase' to Introduce the "Owned Content" Section

Owned Content

A conversion and support for the brand by owned content. As per Baetzgen & Tropp, (2013) owned content refers towards those channels that are controlled by the Brand like Blogs, Websites, email or mobile base application, for which user do not need to pay any charges. Bucher pointed out that these modes of channels have the

Although Reema previously learnt that linking words and phrases were vital for university assignments, she perceived little need of them as she used descriptive sub-headings. There were no comments on ‘short phrases’ by the lecturer, leading Reema to believe that they were acceptable in academic writing instead of topic sentences.

One more issue that Reema encountered when writing the assignment was related to her paraphrasing skills since paraphrasing required understanding the content meaning of the information from secondary sources. Because the discipline-specific knowledge was new to her, Reema was not always certain if she understood it correctly. She further generalised the issue with paraphrasing to all L2 students:

It's hard for us [L2 students] because we're scared to change the meaning.

Reema's Recommendations section was addressed to an imaginary brand, making it rather broad and directed at any teen boys' clothing brand. To make the recommendations sound more persuasive, Reema consciously chose forceful language, such as “managers will do this”, “teenagers will have to reply”. Reema attributed her choice of forceful language to two major reasons. Firstly, she linked her direct language to her life experience:

Because if you don't push someone, they won't do anything.

Secondly, since the assignment was contextualised in the MARS industry, Reema believed that tentative language, which she had learnt to use in her pre-degree courses, would not be suitable when addressing business audience:

Sometimes 'could' and 'may', the suggestion words, advice, it doesn't work. They are teaching something and I'm using something different.

Striving to achieve the best grade, Reema believed that apart from the structural organisation of her assignment, it had to be error-free. Hence, the student approached a proof-reading service. Reema was happy with this decision as the proof-reader, who previously majored in the same discipline area, identified many grammatical issues. Additionally, the proof-reader made changes to some vocabulary, which seemed to Reema a better expression of her non-academic writing. In fact, there were so many considerable changes in the final version that the student felt there was little of her own writing left.

Although the assignment was thoroughly checked by the proof-reader and there were no spelling mistakes, there were some grammatical errors related to verb forms, articles, incorrect parts of speech, and subject-verb agreement. Examples of some grammatical errors from different parts of the assignment are highlighted in Figure 6.5.

Figure 6.5

Grammatical Errors: Incorrect Parts of Speech, Incorrect Use of Passive Voice, Subject-Verb Agreement.

as, the report delivers a detail pitch plan, which will elaborate an effective action plan to implement all factors.
This can be measure in terms of number of ads impressions
This content support the marketers

The next sub-section presents lecturer's feedback on Reema's assignment and the student's reflection on it.

Lecturer's feedback and student's reflection on it

There were two types of lecturer's feedback. Firstly, feedback was provided on the marking sheet with highlighted areas indicating the grade range for each marking criterion (Figure 6.3). The second type of feedback was in a form of an overall comment on the whole assignment. The lecturer praised Reema's work and her sophisticated and well-developed understanding of discipline-specific concepts and the clear Pitch Document.

Figure 6.6

Communications in MARS Assignment 1 (Communication Content Marketing Plan): Lecturer's Comment

Mark: A; 26.4/30 marks

Comment: Great work [REDACTED]! Your assignment shows a sophisticated and very well-developed understanding of all the relevant concepts that make up a content marketing communications plan for a “new” retail fashion clothing brand. Take care with editing some of the language, every now and then there are simple spelling errors that detract from your work.

As seen in Figure 6.6, the lecturer did not comment on grammatical issues but found spelling mistakes detracting from the work. Reema misinterpreted the lecturer's feedback perceiving it as an issue with semantical meaning of lexical units or register modified by the proof-reader:

[The proof-reader] kept asking: “What does this mean?” Then I tell him in easy way, and he says: “OK, this is not written like that”. Maybe it changed meaning. I trusted him.

Reema was excited to receive a high grade for her first written academic assignment, i.e. 24.5 out of 30. She attributed her success in this assignment to very detailed writing assignment requirements, lecturer's availability to orally discuss and clarify them, and the lecturer's written feedback on her drafts. Reema perceived that the lecturer for the Communications in MARS paper was an exception to the general rule as, with time, the student found that lecturers for other papers were not as eager to discuss students' concerns and were rarely available to provide written feedback on drafts.

The next section discusses Reema's other assignment in Semester 1.

6.4.1.2 Understanding the Environment Assignment 1 (In-Class Activity 1)

In the writing assignment requirements, Assignment 1 was referred to as a Case Study, a Case Analysis, an In-Class Activity, an Essay, and a Report. Reema was confused by this:

I think they just give it a name. They don't know the difference.

Reema herself perceived In-Class Activity 1 as an in-class open-book exam, referring to it as such during our interview:

It's kind of exam. Because you have to study and then come back to class.

Below, I refer to the Assignment 1 for the Understanding the Environment paper as an In-Class Activity.

One of the reasons why Assignment 1 was referred to as several genres could be its hybrid nature. Before the In-Class Activity, students were provided with the descriptions of the case of “Green Ox”, a business producing sport beverages with antioxidants. Students had to study and analyse the case prior to the class. To start their case analysis, students were provided with a list of points, as indicated in Figure 6.7. The abbreviations in the assignment requirements were frequently dealt with in class and Reema had a clear understanding of what they stood for. While analysing the case prior to the in-class test, students could make notes which were allowed during the In-Class Activity. Students were advised not to do any further research but to rely on the information provided in the case.

Reema clarified that the provided list of points (Figure 6.7) was a general guideline to potential areas that students had to address in their reports during the In-Class Activity. At the beginning of the In-Class Activity, students were presented with “a couple of essay questions” related to the case which incorporated some of the points from the list and students were expected to write answers to these questions in a coherent Report.

Figure 6.7

Understanding the Environment Assignment 1 (In-Class Activity 1): Assignment Requirements

- When you study the case, focus on the followings:

 - Micro-environmental factors: 5Cs (Company, Competitor, Collaborator, Customer, and Climate)
 - Macro-environmental factors (for the section of Climate): PESTLE
 - Green Ox's market segmentation criteria
 - Potential target audiences of Green Ox
 - Current positioning of competitors and the potential way to position Green Ox
 - Green Ox's 4P marketing mix
 - Green Ox's SWOT

Students were allocated only 60 minutes for the In-Class Activity, in which they had to produce a maximum of five-page typed document using own laptops. In case students could not bring a laptop, the lecturer provided answer sheets and student could write by hand. Reema feared that her ability to type quickly in English was not sufficient to answer the questions fully in the given time frame. Neither could she imagine hand-writing a lengthy Report. Reema wondered whether the In-Class Activity was an assessment of her typing skills.

According to the marking criteria, assignment evaluations were done based on students' thorough scrutiny and analysis of the information in the case as well as structural organisation of the Report. Figure 6.8 presents marking criteria for an A range grade for Assignment 1.

Figure 6.8

Understanding the Environment Assignment 1 (In-Class Activity 1): Marking Criteria (A range)

CRITERIA	A range
<i>Clear explanation of key strategic issues</i>	Shows superior knowledge of the issues, key problems, and the company's present situation and strategic issues.
<i>Valid arguments and logical flow of analysis.</i>	Critical issues and key problems that supported the case were clearly identified and thoroughly analysed.
<i>Appropriate analysis and evaluation</i>	Key change drivers and the underlying issues were clearly identified and thoroughly analysed. Specific concepts and analytical frameworks were adequately applied in the analyses (e.g., 5Cs, SWOT, 4P marketing mix, STP) Quantitative data and stats were presented for all parts that could be described in numbers.
<i>Conclusions and recommendations are congruent with strategic analysis</i>	Effective recommendations, solutions, and/or plans of action were provided. Specific data or facts were referred when necessary to support the analysis and conclusions.
<i>Professional writing</i>	Excellent grammar, spelling, punctuation, professional writing, and syntax.

To achieve a grade in the A grade range for the first marking criterion, i.e. 'Clear explanation of key strategic issues', students had to show their "superior" knowledge of the investigated company's issues, problems and situation. Since Reema could rely only on the information in the provided case, she understood that the 'superior' knowledge referred to detailed answers to the 'essay questions'. Reema also believed that students' superiority could be demonstrated by linguistically accurate writing. The next two marking criteria seemed to assess students' analytical and critical thinking abilities. The final marking criterion, Professional writing, referred mainly to surface-level features, such as grammar, spelling, and punctuation.

In what follows, Reema's written assignment and her comments on it are discussed.

Student's work on the assignment

In Semester 1, the Understanding the Environment paper seemed one of the most information-dense papers for Reema. Additionally, she struggled with the way the assignments were set out.

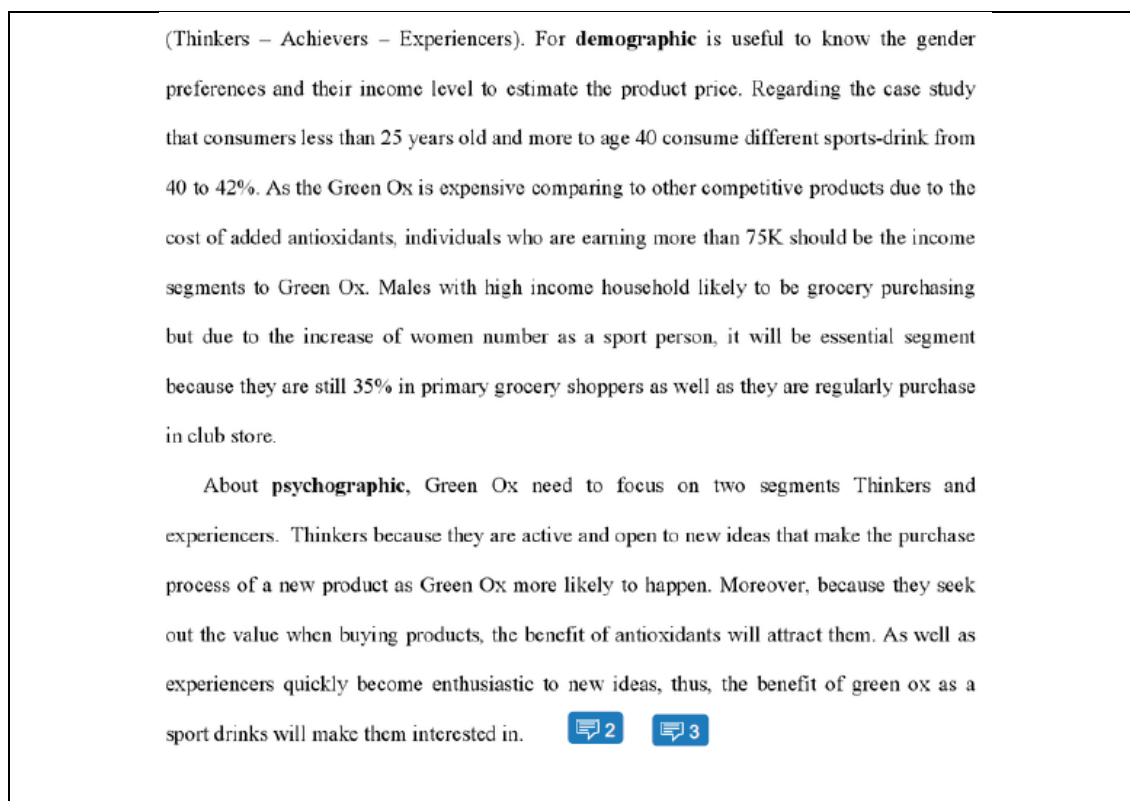
Reema perceived several major barriers to her successful completion of Assignment 1. Firstly, she worried that without proof-reading her level of English was not sufficient to express her ideas in a comprehensible way. Secondly, vague requirements and absence of questions for the Report did not allow her to structure her notes of the case while preparing for In-Class Activity. Anticipating these barriers, Reema decided to guess potential questions, write answers to them prior to the class and modify them in class to fit the actual questions and presentation requirements. Following her plan, Reema wrote down as much about the case as she could, considering that the quantity of her writing would allow her to respond to any potential question. When the 'essay questions' were announced, the student perceived that she had answers already written. However, the 'essay questions' did not offer detailed instructions on how to structure content information and this freedom regarding structural organisation only confused Reema and elevated her level of anxiety.

To create a cohesive report during the In-Class Activity, Reema wrote her answers to the 'essay questions' in separate paragraphs. She also signposted which question she was answering by using a different font style for 'key words', such as 'demographic' and 'physiographic' in Figure 6.9. Reema believed that a different font style eliminated the necessity for topic sentences or sub-headings as there was an indication of what the paragraph would refer to.

Since Reema could not use proof-reading services, her In-Class Activity was less comprehensible compared to her other assignments in Semester 1 provided to me. Although the range of grammatical mistakes was quite similar compared to the mistakes in the assignment for Communication Content Marketing Plan (Section 6.4.1.1), the quantity of mistakes was much higher. Errors were related to incorrect parts of speech, subject-verb agreement, missing predicates, and incorrect articles.

Figure 6.9

Understanding the Environment Assignment 1 (In-Class Activity 1): Key Words Emphasised in a Different Font Style



The next sub-section presents lecturer's feedback on Reema's assignment and the student's reflection on it.

Lecturer's feedback and student's reflection on it

Although students were provided with specific marking criteria (Figure 6.8), the lecturer's feedback consisted of detailed comments, as presented in Figure 6.10.

Comments indicated what the student could have potentially referred to in the Report. Comment 1, for example, was related to the 5Cs mentioned in the writing assignment requirements (Figure 6.7). When completing her In-Class Activity, Reema did not think of referring back to the assignment requirements and simply tried to answer the 'essay questions'. She neither expected that the provided general assignment requirements would be used for assessing her work nor that the lecturer's feedback would be so detailed with focus on every possible point she could have addressed in writing the Report. Hence, she was confused with the function of the marking criteria and the

reason for providing such general written assignment requirements instead of precise guidelines.

Figure 6.10

Understanding the Environment Assignment 1 (In-Class Activity 1): Comment 1

Comment 1
A. 5Cs
• Company:
o Green Ox is one of the strategic business unit of Palmer Jackson Inc.
o Recently it developed a technique for dissolving common antioxidants into high-glucose beverages.
o
• Competitor:
o Direct competitors: Sports drinks including Croc-Ade, Sport-Ade, and Powerboost
☒ Main distribution channels
☒ Market shares
☒ Each brand's current positioning
☒ How retailers perceive or evaluate each brand
☒ Retail and manufacturer prices
☒ Unit cost to manufacturer

When reading through a three-page lecturer's feedback, Reema realised that the feedback was mainly related to discipline-specific knowledge with only one comment regarding structuring an answer, such as shown in Figure 6.11.

Figure 6.11

Understanding the Environment Assignment 1 (In-Class Activity 1): Lecturer's Feedback on Q2

Q2 (Market segmentation and targeting):
• You should start this section with discussions on how the current market has been segmented. Then introduce at least two different approaches to segmentation and discuss their pros and cons

Reema received 2 out of 5 marks for Assignment 1. As she believed that she had addressed each 'essay question', she found such low grade unfair, so she asked for a reconsideration. The lecturer explained that some answers were not acceptable due to insufficient explanation, lack of details, or surface analysis. However, the lecturer

agreed to add 0.7 mark to the assignment grade. The lecturer's feedback on Reema's In-Class Activity assignment made Reema reconsider her attitude towards writing assignments and shift her focus from structural organisation and absence of linguistic errors to delivering in-depth content knowledge in Semester 2 assignments.

6.4.2 Semester 2

In Semester 2 Reema took four papers: Attitudes, Cognition & Behaviour I; Segments and Markets; Strategies and Tactics; and Attitudes, Cognition & Behaviour II. In total Reema provided me with four writing assignment requirements and four of her written assignments, only three of which had lecturers' feedback. Similar to the discussion of Semester 1, I made a decision not to include all four provided assignment works in the description of the case. Although three of the four provided assignments belonged to the written genre of a Report, the decision was made to provide detailed analysis of the Attitudes, Cognition & Behaviour I assignment because it was based on a primary research, i.e. observation of consumers' behavior. Assignment for the Segments and Markets paper was an individual C2B (Consumer-to-business) Project and is discussed in section 6.4.2.2.

6.4.2.1 Attitudes, Cognitions & Behaviour I Assignment 1 (Consumer Behaviour Audit Report)

The assignment for the Attitudes, Cognitions & Behaviour I paper, Consumer Behaviour Audit Report, contributed 40% towards the final grade. Students had to rely on their knowledge and understanding of key consumer behaviour which they had to observe at a public place of consumption. Observation of a chosen consumer behaviour had to last for a minimum of two hours. Students had to ensure they were observing behaviour that was of managerial importance to the company of student's choice but there were no instructions on how to decide which consumer behaviour was of managerial importance. Reema stated that since lecture materials emphasised emotional reaction of consumers, she decided to observe consumers' emotions when purchasing products. To have a clearer display of emotions, Reema decided to focus on emotions of children and their parents' purchasing behaviour as a response to that.

To assist students with conducting an observation, the lecturer provided links to online articles related to rules, steps and methods used in qualitative observational research. Additionally, students were directed to FAQs about observational research on the university LMS. Reema checked the provided resources but did not find theoretical knowledge on conducting the observation relevant to the practical field work, where the student had to follow families and note their behaviour. Reema felt very invasive conducting observations because she found it rather obvious.

While conducting their observations, students were also encouraged to make detailed field notes which might have influenced consumers' behaviour. When Reema started making notes during her observation, she felt glances of her participants. Fearing that she could get into trouble with her 'weird' behavior, she decided not to continue making notes shortly after starting the observation:

I didn't find it's easy. Maybe someone will ask what you are doing.

In fact, Reema stopped observations after she felt she raised suspicion with the first observed family. Even though originally Reema targeted to observe three families, she did not want to experience the same awkwardness again. She hoped that few field notes that she took, and her memory of consumers' behaviour would be sufficient to complete her written assignment.

The collected observational data had to be organised in a Consumer Behaviour Audit Report with recommendations on how the company could use the observed consumers' behaviour to their advantage. The assignment had to be organised according to the specified structure, which involved:

- 1) Cover page
- 2) Contents page
- 3) Executive summary
- 4) Introduction
- 5) Discussion
- 6) Recommendations
- 7) Conclusion
- 8) References
- 9) Appendices (if any).

By Semester 2 Reema had a clear understanding that none of the essay structures taught in IELTS or EAP were useful for her current assignments. Additionally, she noticed that the structural organisation of academic assignments in the same genre varied from lecturer to lecturer. As a result, when completing the assignment for the Consumer Behaviour Audit Report, Reema did not feel empowered by her previous practical knowledge of writing Reports. Hence, she consciously chose to organise her assignment in a way that she perceived fit for an academic Report with the main aim of demonstrating her knowledge of theories and concepts from the discipline:

I don't follow anything. Follow my requirements.

To prepare a good Consumer Behaviour Audit Report, students were directed to the Marking Guide, as shown in Figure 6.12.

The Marking Guide was rather confusing for Reema. For example, she did not understand what was meant by ““selling” the report” in the Executive Summary rubric or “constructive” in relation to the Recommendations rubric:

I didn't get the meaning. For me it's hard. Like, the English, it's not easy.

Reema also noticed that the Presentation & Formatting marking rubric gave little value to the language criteria:

That is worth only 2! It's not that huge thing.

Figure 6.12

Attitudes, Cognitions & Behaviour I Assignment 1 (Consumer Behaviour Audit Report): Marking Criteria

Assignment 2: Consumer Behaviour Audit Report – Marking Criteria				
	<i>Performance Criteria (columns show maximum marks for each criteria)</i>			
Objective/Criteria	Needs Improvement	Met Expectations	Good	Exceptional
Executive Summary – summarises content meaningfully and “sells” the report	1	2	3	4
Theory/Concept(s) – articulates and demonstrates thorough understanding; clearly explains appropriate points	2.5	5	7.5	10
Application of Theory (s) – communicates good application of theory / concept in practice	2.5	5	7.5	10
Recommendations – succinct, accurate, constructive	1.5	3	4.5	6
Conclusion – sound conclusion demonstrated	1	2	3	4
Research and Reading – shows good research ability and wide reading; use of academic source; applicable and balanced	1	2	3	4
Presentation & Formatting – presentation regarding spelling, grammar & punctuation; referencing format/style; meet page length requirement; report format followed correctly	0.5	1	1.5	2
Total Possible Marks for Each Criteria	10	20	30	40

Lack of importance attributed to language criteria in the marking criteria and the lecturers’ feedback on Semester 1 assignments influenced Reema’s perception of the importance of linguistic clarity in her assignments, something she had tried to achieve in Semester 1 assignments. Reema started to believe that an incorrect preposition or absence of an article could not impede understanding of her written assignment. Instead, she attributed significance to reporting data, discussion of theories or concepts, and recommendations for interventions because honouring every marking criterion related to the discipline-specific content could allow her to achieve a positive outcome. Finding it hard to report findings from her observations, the student addressed her concern to the SLC, which she found quite helpful. Firstly, the SLC staff member briefly explained how to approach the assignment. Secondly, Reema provided the SLC staff member with her assignment draft for written feedback on how to improve it:

Actually, I get benefit with them. Because I give my idea and they say if they think that is my requirement.

The next sub-section discusses Reema's work on the assignment and her reflection on it.

Student's work on the assignment and reflection on it

Reema perceived that the Consumer Behaviour Audit Report was an exercise in observation with the focus on students' explanation of the observed phenomenon and not on the paraphrased theoretical knowledge from secondary sources:

It's just observation. For that reason, I think we don't need in this assignment lots of reference. So, you write what you want.

Even though Reema's Report was a detailed presentation of her findings from observation, she systematically referred to secondary sources where it was appropriate, such as in Figure 6.13.

Figure 6.13

Attitudes, Cognitions & Behaviour I Assignment 1: Use of Secondary Sources

It was evident that the consumer behaviour of the parents was influenced by emotions. According to Williams (2014), the consumer purchase behaviour is often influenced by the emotions of the influencers. In most cases, purchases are made not out of necessity but rather on the way the emotions trigger responses from the consumers when they see the product. It has been established by Sharma & Sonwane (2014) that the children are often able to influence the decision of the families for the products that they like.

In reporting her findings, Reema avoided using the personal pronoun 'I', perceiving it was not prescribed to academic writing because she did not find any examples of it in academic texts. Instead, she addressed herself as 'the author':

I want to get a bit academic. I'm not gonna say 'I'.

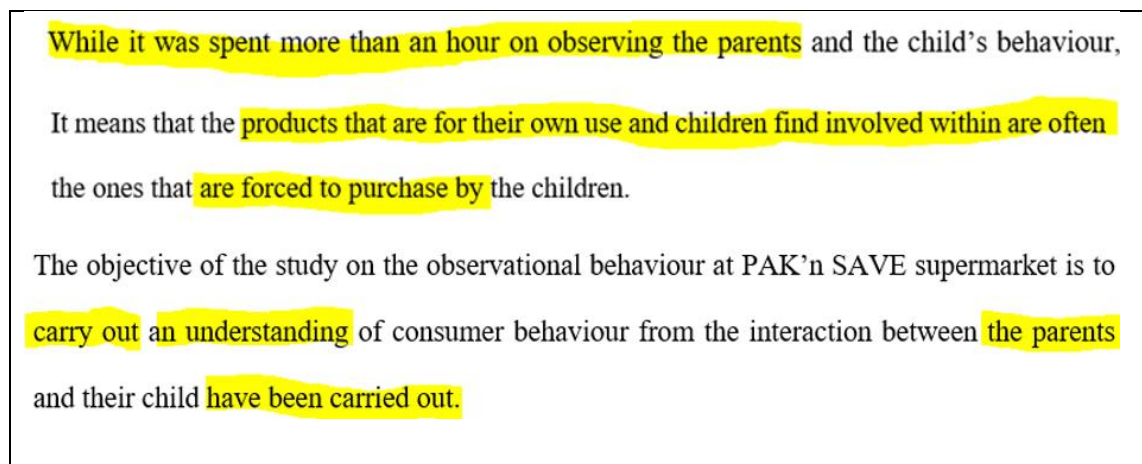
Similar to Semester 1, Reema believed it was important that a proof-reader checked her assignment. However, in Semester 2 Reema required the proof-reader to focus on the accuracy of the content knowledge. Since the same proof-reader, who helped Reema in Semester 1 was unavailable, the student had little choice but seek help from a proof-reader who had previously majored in another discipline area. As a result, Reema found that the proof-reader had distorted meaning of her text:

I get low mark because the content. It's nothing else.

In an attempt to avoid grammatical mistakes while correcting her work after the proof-reader, she used Grammarly. However, as seen in Figure 6.14, Reema still had a number of linguistic errors, among which were clumsy expressions, the incorrect use of passive voice, usage of vocabulary with wrong semantical meaning, the incorrect use of articles, and repetitions.

Figure 6.14

Attitudes, Cognitions & Behaviour I Assignment 1 (Consumer Behaviour Audit Report): Linguistic Errors



For Reema, one of the challenging parts of the Report was the Executive Summary. Apart from different ways to approach Executive Summary put forward by different lecturers, Reema did not see the relevance of exercising this skill in the academic setting. The student believed that in the real-life scenario, the chance of the whole report being read by a busy manager heavily depended on a persuasive Executive Summary. In

contrast, in the university context, where the lecturer sets up the task to assess students' discipline-specific knowledge, Reema was certain that the focal point was on the main part of the Report, i.e. Discussion and Recommendation, and not the Executive Summary:

Who cares about the [Executive] summary?

As a result, Reema devoted much less time and attention to the Executive Summary when writing the Consumer Behaviour Audit Report.

Lecturer's feedback and student's reflection on it

Unfortunately, the only feedback the student received was in a form of the final assignment grade, hence it is unknown which of the marking criteria (Figure 6.12) in the assignment were assessed as excellent or poor. Overall, Reema was satisfied with the grade, i.e. 30 out of 40 but she was eager to know what could have been improved. After speaking with the lecturer, Reema was disappointed to find out that some marks were deducted for the absence of field notes, which, according to the writing assignment requirements, were optional:

She said if you want to give a whole description of observation [in the Report], you don't have to provide [fieldnotes].

Reema's grade was not re-considered by the lecturer but the student was glad to receive a reasonably high grade.

The next section provides details of the assignment for the Segments and Markets paper.

6.4.2.2 Segments and Markets: Assignment 1 (C2B (Consumer-to-business) Project)

Assignment 1 for the Segments and Markets paper referred to as C2B (Consumer-to-business) Project and was worth 40% of the paper's total grade. It involved students presenting a new business model in the form of a Report. Overall, the assignment requirements used business specific, professional language, which seemed to encourage students to come to the task as professionals in their field. However, the assignment

requirements did not seem to require students to contextualise the Report, leading Reema to perceive it as an academic assignment which required more tentative language.

The assignment requirements were clearly divided into two parts. The first required students to come up with a product service system, a redistribution market, or a collaborative lifestyle brand, basing their ideas on Botsman and Rogers' (2010) theory. Then, adapting Ma's (2014) philosophy, students had to create a new business model that would be suitable for consumers as both providers and end-users of services. The second part of the assignment required students to deliver their idea of a new C2B venture in an organised Report. The structural organisation of the Report was provided. However, as indicated in Figure 6.15, there were no headings for each section. Instead, students were provided with a set of questions to answer in the Report. This part of the assignment seemed to test students' ability to incorporate a range of skills required in academia and industry, among which were research skills, analytical thinking skills, creativity, persuasion, and structural presentation of own ideas.

Figure 6.15

*Segments and Markets Assignment 1 (C2B (Consumer-to-business) Project): Writing Assignment Requirements
(Structural Organisation of the Report)*

- (2) Describe the new model in a report with the following sections:

 1. A title page listing your project title, name, student ID
 2. What is the idea?
 3. Who is the target segment for service or product providers?
Describe the segment you have identified with marketing research, as well as via a consumer profile. What specific benefit or marketing messaging will attract this segment of service providers to your service?
 4. Who is the target segment for ultimate end-consumer purchase or end-user of the service? Describe the segment you have identified

Figure 6.16 below presents the Marking Guide where the highlighted numbers are the marks for each marking criterion given by the lecturer. The language requirements were provided in the Presentation marking criterion and assessed students' ability for clear writing. Similar to the language requirements in the Segments and Markets paper, the Presentation marking criterion could contribute only two marks towards the total

assignment's grade. The uneven distribution of marks intensified Reema's belief that content knowledge was superior and even if her assignment was poorly written, she could still get a desired grade. Although Reema had a number of linguistic mistakes in her C2B Project, among which were the incorrect use of articles, incorrect use of preposition, and subject-verb agreement, she received the highest mark for the Presentation rubric.

Figure 6.16

Segments and Markets Assignment 1 (C2B (Consumer-to-business) Project): Marking Criteria

Assignment 2: Collaborative Consumption Project – Marking Criteria				
Objective/Criteria	Performance Criteria (columns show maximum marks for each criteria)			
	Needs Improvement	Met Expectations	Good	Exceptional
Collaborative Consumption venture idea/description –Describes the idea with specifics, grounding it both in how the market would use the innovation, how to recruit and cultivate “peer users” and “peer providers”	2	5	7	10
Application of Theory/Concept(s) – Articulates and demonstrates how the innovation proposed fits with concepts advanced by Jack Ma and Botsman and Rogers. What additional research might need to be done to reveal why, how and when the innovation may work? Shows good research ability and wide reading on the topic.	3	7	11	14
Exploration of market segments – Explores 2-3 target market segments. Comfortably employs statistical research from secondary sources to demonstrate market need. Based on research, develops market insights via a coherent consumer profile for the top market segment of consumer end-users exploring consumer behaviours, preferences, demographics, lifestyle, unmet needs, and etc.	3	7	11	14
Presentation – use of academic and key professional resources. Clean and clear writing; Spelling, grammar, punctuation, and written presentation.	0.5	1	1.5	2
Total Possible Marks for Each Criteria	8.5	20	30.5	40

Student's work on the assignment

Reema believed that her knowledge of describing visuals acquired from the IELTS Task 1 was particularly useful in this assignment:

*That [skill of describing graphs from IELTS Task 1] is helpful yes,
because I have to describe the graphs.*

However, she saw several differences between how she was required to describe visuals in an IELTS task and how she could approach the task in her current assignment. The student explained that in the former she had to write an introduction and explain as much data from a visual as possible. In comparison, she believed that she could describe only the information that was relevant to her Report which could be done in one-two sentences.

The next sub-section presents lecturer's feedback on Reema's assignment and the student's reflection on it.

Lecturer's feedback and student's reflection on it

The lecturer's feedback for C2B Project was provided in the marking sheet and in the form of an overall comment. As could be seen in Figure 6.16, Reema got a total of 25 marks from a maximum of 40, which resulted in a C+ grade. The overall lecturer's comment provided Reema with feedback on the content. The feedback indicated missing consumer profiles, a lack of statistical data and pointed out that the visuals did not support the student's C2B idea. However, at the end of the overall comment, the lecturer acknowledged good discussion throughout the Report, as indicated in Figure 6.17. Reema tried to request a reconsideration of her grade based on this comment but after reconsideration the mark was not changed.

Figure 6.17

Segments and Markets Assignment 1 (C2B (Consumer-to-business) Project): Lecturer's Overall Comment

social media is suitable for your target – find some stats to support this. Some good discussion throughout this report!

The next section presents within-case analysis in relation to the three research questions for this study.

6.5 Within-case analysis

The current section attempts to answer the three research questions drawing on the information revealed in the process of data analysis of Reema's case study.

6.5.1 RQ 1. What challenges do international L2 students in the early 21st century encounter throughout the first year of their university studies as they attempt to meet the academic writing standards demanded by their institutions?

The research analysis showed that throughout her first year undergraduate study, Reema encountered several challenges that could be grouped into three major categories:

- 1) challenges following academic writing conventions,
- 2) challenges understanding and following assignment requirements,
- 3) challenges completing assignments under time constraints.

The following sub-sections provide detailed analysis of challenges from each category.

6.5.1.1 Challenges following academic writing conventions

Challenges with academic writing conventions involved i) the variety of written genres in the course of her diploma studies, ii) the assortment of different genres in a single assignment, iii) challenges paraphrasing and writing concisely, iv) linguistic accuracy and content meaning, and v) academic register.

Variety of written genres

One of the major challenges for Reema in Semester 1 related to a variety of written genres, such as a Communication Content Marketing Plan or Consumer Behaviour Audit Report. Graves (2017) states that assignment genres vary greatly across and within disciplines and in some disciplines, students may encounter over fifty various genre names in the course of their degree studies. As was discussed in Chapter 1, genres may be characterised by specific ways of using the language (Hyland, 2008), hence

knowledge of what genre an assignment belongs to may assist student-writers in their linguistic choices of grammar and vocabulary. During her previous writing practices in her IELTS and EAP classes, Reema was mainly introduced to the genre of an essay, hence she had a narrow scope of knowledge about other academic written genres and what rhetorical, linguistic and structural choices would be acceptable in them.

Reema's confusion with the variety of genres may also be explained by the level of her studies. Graves (2017) states that the complexity of written assignments increases with the course progression and upper-level students are expected to expand their first-year knowledge regarding academic writing and demonstrate higher level skills in writing, such as analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. Reema, whose university journey started with Year 2 and Year 3 papers, had no previous undergraduate writing experience to scaffold on. In fact, her approach to her assignments was largely limited to linguistic clarity and structural organisation of assignments, which were the focus in her IELTS and EAP classes.

Mix of written genres in the same assignment

Several assignments in Reema's study confused Reema with genres that assignments claimed to belong to. This happened mainly because firstly assignments required elements of several written genres (e.g. Communication Content Marketing Plan) and secondly were referred to as different genres Reema was unfamiliar with (e.g. In-Class Activity). Leedham (2009) argues that conflation of genres has become common in first-year writing due to the massification of higher education, neoliberalism, and market-driven economy, which were discussed in Chapter 1. Leedham claims that institutions that try to attract international fee-paying students for funding purposes, publicise innovation in teaching and assessment, such as incorporation of knowledge from a different field of study to the discipline-area, as a selling point in advertising course materials. Furthermore, Zhu (2004) emphasises that in a business major a single assignment often purposefully combines rhetorical modes and undergraduate students are expected to smoothly navigate from one mode to another.

Reema's concern when addressing assignments with the mix of genres related to the lack of her genre awareness, that is "a sensitivity to intertwined influences of context and form" (Tardy et al., 2018, p. 2). Tardy et al. (2018) claim that genre awareness may be achieved through genre acquisition, which is the investigation of linguistic and rhetorical genre patterns that students then attempt to replicate in their own writing. In

Reema's case, the student's limited encounter with a variety of written genres during the previous studies appeared to be compensated by genre acquisition during her work experience in the field of marketing. However, such genre acquisition seemed to be skewed towards written genres circulating in the industry, hence resulted in certain rhetorical choices (e.g. use of directive language).

Paraphrasing and succinct writing

When writing her assignments, Reema was challenged with paraphrasing secondary sources. Paraphrasing, which is at the crux of evidence-based writing, requires students to change lexical and syntactic items from the resource yet still retain the meaning of the original text (Na & Nhat Chi Mai, 2017; McCarthy et al., 2009). Na and Nhat Chi Mai (2017) state that when paraphrasing texts, L2 students are presented mainly with linguistic challenges related to, firstly, reading competence, and, secondly, confidence in own grammar and lexical skills. When paraphrasing, Reema's linguistic challenges were intensified by her lack of skills with regard to succinct writing. For example, she struggled to compress the information she learnt in an hour lecture into a single paragraph as was required by the assignment requirements. In an attempt to make her writing more succinct, Reema used short phrases instead of topic sentences and such stylistic elements as different font styles. Reema believed that by emphasising a point in a different font style, she, firstly, was using fewer words, and, secondly, would not have to describe what the emphasised point entailed.

Linguistic accuracy and content meaning

One of the major challenges for Reema in Semester 1 was to deliver linguistically accurate assignments. In Semester 1, she believed that top grades could not be achieved when assignments contained grammar, spelling and punctuation errors. Such belief appears to stem from her IELTS and EAP courses. As was discussed in Chapter 1, both IELTS and EAP tend to narrow teaching to non-disciplinary skills, such as grammar and general academic vocabulary (e.g. Alexander, 2010; Green, 2005; Wingate, 2015). Furthermore, Wingate (2015) and Alexander (2010) argue that EAP teachers are not adequately prepared to deal with the discipline-specific demands. Therefore, EAP divorces the teaching of academic vocabulary from specific disciplinary context privileging discrete elements of language (e.g. vocabulary and grammar) (Grapin et al., 2019). Haneda (2014) states that academic language in the general sense has become an end in itself rather than "a means to the achievement of a variety of ends that are not purely linguistic" (p. 128). Hyland (2013b) also argues that EAP writing differs from

discipline-specific writing. He suggests that the former focuses on students learning how to express themselves in the language, while the latter encourages students to demonstrate their critical and analytical skills and develop their ability to construct discipline-specific arguments following the conventions of the discipline area.

By Semester 2 Reema's perception regarding linguistic accuracy had changed and she realised that low English proficiency would not greatly affect her grades as language was limited to a certain number of grade points in the marking criterion for assignments. Hyland (2013b) discusses the lecturers' prioritisation of content knowledge over language accuracy in students' assignments indicating that lecturers often take into consideration the fact that L2 students may be challenged by the language accuracy, hence assigning a small percentage of the assignment grade to the language marking criterion indicates an intention to assess students' knowledge of the subject rather than the language. However, Hyland indicates the difficulty lecturers face when attempting to distinguish whether students' errors are related to 'content' and 'form'. 'Content' involves "concepts, procedures, theories and understandings of a discipline" (ibid., p. 11) and 'form' is students' rhetorical choices when presenting discipline-specific 'content'. Hyland argues that lecturers acknowledge that language is not a mechanical device by which content knowledge is delivered but rather is a tool by which the writer attempts to persuade his readers of his line of reasoning as well as indicate his membership in a certain discourse community. He claims that language used to express ideas and arguments is inseparable from those ideas and arguments.

Another reason for Reema's changed perception of the importance of linguistic accuracy in her assignments was related to the amount of lecturers' feedback on it. Although lecturers in Hyland's study realised the importance of linguistic accuracy in the delivery of the scientific argument, Hyland (2013b) accentuated that STEM and humanity lecturers seem to pay a different amount of attention to it. While STEM lecturers provided nearly a third of their comments in linguistic accuracy of students' written assignment, the amount of comments on the language by the lecturers from the humanity disciplines reached nearly 43 per cent (Hyland, 2013b). Reema's major, business, may be classified under humanities, since, as discussed in Chapter 1, sustainability and customer-focused competencies are vital for business organisations in today's globalised knowledge-based economy (Altbach et al., 2017; McMurray et al., 2016). Therefore, the results of the current case study align with Hyland's (2013b) finding in relation to the type of errors humanity lecturers comment on. Although

Reema's assignments contained a certain number of linguistic errors (e.g. C2B Project), they were not commented on by the lecturers.

The finding that lecturers give priority to the content meaning over linguistic accuracy may point to another related area, the importance that lecturers place on students' critical and analytical skills, their ability to critique and synthesise information, as well as implement different theories and philosophies into own arguments and business ideas, required at this level of education. Such skills allow students to develop understanding of own abilities for learning, their level of mastery of the study material, as well as foster lifelong learning skills in a student-centred way. Tempelaar (2006) claims that there is a positive correlation between the level of critical thinking skills of first-year undergraduate business students and course performance. However, although Tempelaar's study involved international L2 students, language was not one of the nine subcomponents of metacognition by which students' level of critical thinking was measured. Snyder, L. G. and Snyder, M. J. (2008) conclude that undergraduate students struggle demonstrating their critical thinking skills due to lack of previous training and practice. However, when lecturers use effective questioning techniques, model the thinking processes, and guide students' metacognition processes, students develop better critical thinking skills.

Academic register

Another challenge with the assignments that Reema encountered related to the academic register. In particular, Reema struggled with the use of tentative language. Perhaps in an attempt to prepare student for the industry lecturers seemed to set up assignments (e.g. Communication Content Marketing Plan) that appeared to be a fusion of what seemed to be an academic essay and a field-specific document. Although two written genres are usually characterised by different types of language: an academic essay requires a more tentative use of language (Bailey, 2017), while professional writing in the industry usually involves a more forceful use of language (Hamida et al., 2019), students were not told which approach was appropriate. Strauss and Goodsir (2011) investigated challenges of postgraduate hospitality students with regards to written assignments. They argue that students commonly complain about lecturer's expectations for a particular way of writing without explicitly stating what writing would be acceptable. Although lecturers realise the need for explicit language instructions, Strauss and Goodsir (2011), and Zhu (2004) indicate that lecturers often find it hard to teach the kind of language they appear to want in their assignments.

The fact that the research by Strauss and Goodsir (2011) involved postgraduate students strengthens Reema's case. Firstly, compared to postgraduate students, who completed their undergraduate qualifications and were to an extent familiar with writing norms in their discipline, Reema was an undergraduate student who came into the academy after EAP courses and was only at the beginning of her contact with academic written standards. Altınmakas and Bayyurt (2019) argues that newcomers into the Western academia have to acquire "different skills than that of general literacy" (p. 89), such as discipline-specific academic register.

6.5.1.2 Challenges with understanding and following assignment requirements

Challenges with understanding and following assignment requirements involved i) challenges with approaching assignments with vague assignment requirements, and ii) challenges with the structural organisation of assignments.

Approaching assignments with vague assignment requirements

Unlike the Communication Content Marketing Plan, where Reema was provided with detailed assignment requirements, most of her other assignments in her first year of studies did not appear to be particularly well-structured and did not have sufficient detail to enable a clear understanding of what was required (e.g. In-Class Activity 1 in Section 6.4.1.2.). Lack of clarity in the assignment requirements seemed to contribute to Reema's struggle with writing assignments as she was unsure of how to approach them. Copeland et al. (2018) claim that students may miss the intended aim of their assignments due to vague and poorly-formulated assignment requirements. In the NZ HE context, Johnson (2008) concluded that L2 first- to third-year undergraduate students find understanding assignment requirements challenging due to "complex wording, too wide a topic choice or topics that were too general, and use of such terms as evaluate or discuss" (p. 236). What is of interest in Reema's case is that, on the one hand, unclear assignment requirements resulted in her struggle to complete assignments on her own and she had to deploy her adaptive help-seeking behaviour (e.g. addressing proof-reading services). On the other hand, unclear assignment requirements seemed to empower her with certain flexibility for structural organisation of her written works.

Structural organisation of assignments

Although in her pre-degree courses Reema was taught how to structure and organise her written works, she found this task challenging at the beginning of her first year studies.

Bailey and Garner (2010) state that undergraduate students tend to struggle to meet the requirements for the structural organisation of their assignment, which is mainly due to the lack of clearly-worded requirements in this regard. Indeed, as was discussed earlier, most of Reema's assignment requirements, regarding assignments' structural organisation in particular, could be considered vague. Nonetheless, although at the beginning of Semester 1 vague assignment requirements for structure somewhat contributed to Reema's struggle with structurally organising her assignments, she seemed to quickly change her perception and view it as an opportunity for own decisions on how to organise her written works.

The reason for Reema's struggle with structural organisation of her assignments may additionally relate to the traditional EAP pedagogy that fosters students' knowledge of a traditional five-paragraph essay structure with certain rhetorical moves within each paragraph (Alexander, 2019; Macbeth, 2010; Wesley, 2000). In ESP genre studies, Paltridge (2014) identified rhetorical moves as "the discourse structures of texts" (p. 303). Devitt (2015) states that EAP students are often taught simplified structural patterns of certain genres, leaving students to self-explore the complexity of structural organisation of various discipline-specific academic genres. Devitt also emphasises the importance of writing practice in the discipline that empowers students to make own conscious decisions of using more complex rhetorical structures in their university assignments. Crosthwaite (2016) and Fenton-Smith et al. (2018) claim that, through analysis of discipline-specific texts, EAP teachers empower learner with academic writing skills, including grammar, vocabulary, and rhetorical structure, that lead to academic success throughout learners' academic studies. Such pedagogical implications are argued to be problematic. Fox and Artemeva (2017) state that skills related to structural organisation of writing taught in EAP classes are not necessarily applicable to discipline-specific studies, since EAP emphasises broad rhetorical structures presumably suitable across disciplines. Dias and Pare (2000), and Hyland (2007) further claim that academic writing cannot be learnt outside specific disciplines. Bearing in mind the cultural and linguistic diversity of student population in HE, discussed in Chapter 1, and the fact that EAP students usually proceed with their education in different areas of study, teaching generic structure of written text might not be appropriate to learners' future academic careers.

6.5.1.3 Challenges completing assignments under time constraints

Challenges with time required for completing assignments related to time constraints.

Time Constraints

One of Reema's biggest concerns throughout her first year studies, was time constraints with writing assignments. Many a time Reema had only a week to complete assignments which in her view resulted in shallow and poorly written work. Altınmakas and Bayyurt (2019) argue that time constraints on written assignments cause first-year students' anxiety and result in poor writing outcomes. As was discussed in Chapter 1, Lea and Street (1998) point that lecturers acquire academic discipline-specific writing knowledge through years of practice. However, students' acquisition of discipline-specific knowledge usually happens through a range of papers, each lasting a semester. These papers are often taught by different lecturers. Canagarajah (2013b) identifies the difference in requirements set by individual subject lecturers, which is often based on lecturers' diverse personal interpretation of writing requirements. Time constraints on each course did not allow Reema time to orient herself quickly in the academic environment of changing genres and lecturers' various writing requirements.

Furthermore, the fact that Reema wrote her assignments in L2 intensified her struggle. Reema's lack of confidence with her language skills contributed to the time she required to complete her assignments because she first wrote them in Arabic and then translated into English:

Yeah, the hard drive [mental processing] is still in Arabic.

Altınmakas and Bayyurt (2019) points to the double burden L2 students carry when adapting to Western academic ways of using the language. Firstly, students struggle using appropriate discipline-specific academic register and rhetorical structure, which may differ from that in either their country or their pre-degree courses. Secondly, writing discipline-specific content in their second language is challenging for L2 students whose language is still in the developmental phase.

Reema believed that academic writing was much easier for L1 students, and L2 students should have been given longer time frames for completing assignments:

They treat us like the native speakers. But we need the time.

6.5.2 RQ 2. In what way do international students' prior learning and experiences, including preparatory academic English courses such as IELTS, successfully prepare these students for the challenges they encounter throughout the first year of their academic study?

At the beginning of her first year studies, Reema was happy with the set of skills, strategies and knowledge about academic writing that she acquired in her pre-university studies, and believed that she was well-prepared for her degree studies. However, when approaching her assignments, she realised that only few of the acquired skills, strategies and knowledge were relevant to her current academic writing practices. As mentioned above, the main reason for Reema's struggle was the disparity of written genres as well as the mix of genres in a single assignment. Rogers and Rymer (2001), and Zhu (2004) argue that undergraduate assignments in a business major are highly contextualised and often require students to write effectively to a wide range of audiences. With language knowledge that was still developing and without the knowledge of the required genres, Reema struggled to utilise the necessary lexicogrammatical resources in an effective way (e.g. tentative language). Hyland (2015) points out that academic language and knowledge of genres required by the discipline-specific studies are linked to discipline-specific epistemologies. However, in the current case studies, a lack of lecturers' comments on language accuracy, as well as the lecturers' frequent confusion about genre names, often lead to the assessment of students' analytical and critical thinking skills reflected in students' critical stance on a particular topic in their assignments. Wilson (2016) states that many EAP students do not have critical thinking skills at the level expected in HE. She argues that the lack of L2 students' critical thinking skills may be related to their educational, political, and cultural backgrounds where such skills are not necessarily fostered. Moreover, Wilson argues that EAP courses often adopt a skills perspective on critical thinking that emphasises the development of logical argument through identifying cause-effect relations and making inferences. As discussed in Chapter 2, Benesch (2009) emphasises the importance of the CEAP, which recognises the need for reasoning and analysis, confronts social ideologies, as well as creating safe opportunities for students to explore various cultural and societal differences.

6.5.3 RQ 3. How do the students' perception of, and approach to their academic writing practices, including their prior learning, consciously change as their first year of study progresses ?

It seems that Reema's orientation towards her educational goal, i.e. an average B+ for her degree study and proceeding to the next level of education, i.e. Master's Degree, motivated her to deploy adaptive help-seeking behaviours in her search for the ways to approach each genre in her assignments. Reema's maturity was one of the reasons for her conscious implementation of various adaptive academic help-seeking strategies, such as seeking support at the SLC, asking her lecturers clarifying questions about assignment requirements, or paying for proof-reading services. She seemed to be emotionally and academically equipped to deal with challenges during her academic journey at University C.

When Reema was writing each assignment, she seemed to come back to the forethought stage in Zimmerman's (2000) model, discussed in Chapter 3, several times. Reema considered that vague writing assignment requirements contributed to her struggle. Her confusion with the way to approach assignments with vague assignment requirements seemed to result in more cycles in the model before she completed assignments. In contrast, detailed step-by-step written assignment requirements and ready-to-help lecturers, such as in the Communications in MARS paper in Semester 1, made her confident writing her assignments, meaning that she did not have to come back to the forethought stage as often before completing them.

Reema's whole first year academic writing experience may also be considered cyclical. Based on her knowledge about academic writing acquired in the pre-degree courses, in Semester 1 Reema focused on structural organisation and linguistic clarity of her university assignments. However, Reema's knowledge of paragraph structure did not appear suitable for lengthy writing in her current studies. Firstly, even though she attempted to focus on paragraph structure, her lack of knowledge in this area, which was acquired writing short texts, was not suitable for the extended writing required at university. Secondly, assignment requirements did not have explicit instructions for paragraph structure. Reema's perception of the inappropriateness of her knowledge of paragraph writing for her university assignments is also supported by Alexander (2019). He states that a traditional paragraph structure taught in EAP classes, i.e. topic sentence that introduces the main idea, a series of sentences developing the idea, and a summarising sentence, is useful only as a starting point in learning to write genre-

specific texts. In the current case study, lack of lecturers' feedback on the structural organisation of the assignments led Reema to a conclusion that paragraph structure was of little significance to academic writing in her discipline area. Furthermore, a limited number of marks for language clarity that Reema could receive for each assignment as well as lack of lecturer's comments on the language, signalled to the student that content meaning was of superior importance and linguistic errors probably would not impede understanding of the discipline-specific knowledge. As was mentioned in the discussion of RQ1, Hyland (2013b) points out that although lecturers comment on the language errors in students' assignments, much more weight is given to the content knowledge. Zhu (2004) emphasises the importance of delivering content meaning in written assignments specifically in the context of undergraduate business programmes. Indeed, the abundance of feedback on each aspect of Reema's assignment requirements in-depth, points to the superiority of the discipline-specific knowledge and the student's analytical and critical thinking skills. Hence, in Semester 2, Reema re-strategised her approach to academic assignments and focused primarily on delivering accurate content knowledge.

Reema's diligent study throughout her first year at an HE institution with EMI appeared to have contributed and developed her skills of an academic writer. The variety of help-seeking strategies utilised by the student throughout her first year studies made it hard for Reema to distinguish which of the skills she was using in her current study were developed in her Bachelor's Degree, IELTS, or EAP courses. She said that by the end of Semester 2 her writing style has changed to an amalgamation of her own writing style, writing styles used in discipline-specific secondary sources, and those of proof-readers who helped her throughout the year.

6.6 Chapter summary

This chapter described the findings from the second case study, Reema. As in the previous chapter, the current chapter started with the description of the student's educational background and pathways to universities in NZ, including her general English and IELTS classes, self-study towards the IELTS test, and an EAP course. Reema's pre-university educational experience was described focusing on the skills, strategies, and knowledge acquired in relation to academic writing. Following that, the chapter presented an in-depth account of Reema's approach to assignments that the

student chose to share from Semester 1 and Semester 2 in the 2017 academic year with the focus on critical moments that paved Reema's perception about academic writing. The chapter then presented within-case analysis in relation to the three research questions.

The next chapter presents the findings from the third case study, Marina.

Chapter 7. Case study 3: Marina

7.1 Introduction

The third case study focuses on Marina, a 21-year-old student from Mexico, studying towards a Bachelor's Degree in Marine Biology at University A. The chapter begins by providing Marina's educational background and pathways to universities in NZ. Then, the student's self-study towards an IELTS exam are described focusing on the skills, strategies and knowledge acquired in relation to academic writing. Following that, Marina's university undergraduate degree studies are presented, and details of assignments, which the student chose to share from Semester 1 and Semester 2 in the 2017 academic year, are discussed. The chapter then presents within-case analysis in relation to the three research questions. Finally, the chapter is summarised.

7.2 Marina's profile and educational background

Marina started learning English when she moved from Mexico to the United States at the age of two. While there, her family encouraged her to learn English and Spanish simultaneously. During this period, she attended an American day-care, where she was taught English, however at home, with her family, she spoke Spanish. When Marina turned three, her family returned to Mexico. In Mexico, she went to an American kindergarten and later studied at an American primary school, both of which used English as the only language of instruction. As before, she continued to speak Spanish to her family and friends outside the classroom. Halfway through primary school, Marina asked her parents if she could be transferred to a local school that had Spanish as the medium of instruction. This is because she experienced significant social stress and peer pressure in her English school and was repeatedly being judged by other students. Moreover, the local school had a focus on sports and the arts, both areas that Marina specifically enjoyed:

The other [Mexican] school was like free and open and like they had lots of arts. Like, arts classes and PE every day. So, it was really cool.

The English class at Marina's new school occurred only twice each week. However, because students were placed according to their level of English, Marina found herself in the highest class. In this class, they were expected to only speak English during communication with both the teacher during whole-class activities, and with co-students during pair, group, and project work.

To support her English, she had a first language speaker of English tutoring her at home once a week for a year. Her classes with the tutor mostly focused on watching movies in English, reading age-appropriate books, such as those by Roald Dahl, and learning through games.

For her last two years of high school Marina studied at another local school which had a stronger academic focus. As with her previous school, English classes only occurred twice a week. However, the primary focus was on other subjects, and as a result Marina believed that her English language skills declined during this time. After graduating from high school, she took a gap year where she trained to do wakeboarding and travelled the world.

When Marina arrived in NZ, Spanish was her main language of communication. However, she pointed out that since starting her studies here, she has been mainly communicating in English with her classmates who are of different nationalities. She also has a boyfriend who is a native-speaker of English. As a result, she only uses Spanish with her family via Skype two or three times a week as they are in Mexico. At the beginning of her academic year, Marina felt quite home sick, so her mother visited her for around two weeks in Marina's first mid-semester break, and they travelled around NZ. Her mother left just before our second interview. During the semester break, Marina also met her family in Fiji, where they all travelled and spent time together relaxing.

7.3 Pathway to current study

Marina arrived in NZ on a visitor visa when she was 19 as part of her world travel, and after seeing the country, she decided to stay and study. She worked towards a one-year business diploma at a NZ college. To enrol, Marina was required to complete the college's English language test, which Marina passed without any difficulty. She

believed that this was because the test focused on general English, in particular, tenses, grammar and essay writing, rather than business English.

Although Marina studied business, her passion was to become a scientist and help improve the condition of the oceans. Thus, after completing the first semester of her business diploma, she decided to enrol in a NZ bachelor's degree in the field of marine biology. After browsing and enquiring about her options at various NZ universities, she realised that an IELTS or TOEFL score was required for enrolment. Unfortunately, none of the universities would accept her enrolment in a NZ business diploma programme as proof of her English language proficiency.

While completing her diploma, Marina decided to prepare herself for enrolment in University A. As she was more familiar with TOEFL, than with IELTS, she borrowed a number of TOEFL books from her college library in order to study for the TOEFL test. However, after receiving TOEFL test scores that were just below the satisfactory grade, she decided instead to study for the IELTS test. Again, she borrowed books from her college library. Alongside the borrowed books, Marina also used various free online sources to study for the IELTS test. These included official Cambridge websites, as well as YouTube videos posted by IELTS instructors. The total time that Marina spent self-studying towards both TOEFL and IELTS was three months, with the majority of her exam preparation taking place whenever she had time after her business classes and at the weekend, as well as throughout mid-semester and semester breaks for the business diploma.

Before completing her diploma education, Marina had managed to pass the IELTS test and achieve the required overall university entrance score of 6.5 in her first attempt (7.5 for Listening, 6.0 for Reading, 6.0 for Writing, 7.0 for Speaking). As a result, she was able to successfully enrol in the Bachelor's program in Marine Biology at University A.

7.3.1 Self-study for IELTS

Marina pointed out that she learnt a great deal self-studying towards IELTS and that she became equipped with the strategies necessary for her future academic career:

IELTS gives you the keys that will stay for all your life: the structure of an essay, attracting attention with the first sentence, developing ideas, using connectors.

Marina strongly recommends that other students study for the IELTS test, as she believes that the skills learnt provided her with the basics for both reading and writing. At our first meeting Marina sounded assured that IELTS helped her to communicate information more efficiently in her current writing assignments due to a clear understanding of a paragraph and essay structure:

Everything you want to communicate in writing, [IELTS] gives you a good structure.

Marina considered that acquiring vocabulary was paramount for the IELTS exam. She stated that she completed many vocabulary exercises during her IELTS self-study. However, she paid little attention to learning a range of vocabulary or synonyms, even though she was cognisant that academic words, such as ‘assist’ rather than ‘help’, or using a single word for a phrase, such as ‘empower’ rather than ‘give the authority’, were of paramount importance for receiving a good IELTS writing grade. Even after gaining a required IELTS score, Marina believed she had to further improve her vocabulary:

Really trying to learn all the different, like, connecting words. Like, saying ‘for example’ or ‘for instance’ or, like, different ways to say words. Because sometimes I really say the same. And that’s the problem with me.

Another skill that Marina acquire during her IELTS self-study related to structuring an essay and organising ideas in paragraphs. She learnt that the structure of an essay involves an introduction, body, and conclusion. According to Marina, the introduction encompasses a brief description of each paragraph in the body of the essay, and each of these paragraphs starts with a topic sentence to attract the reader’s attention and is linked to the information in the introduction. Each paragraph in the body also provides an example of the information discussed in the paragraph and concludes with a summary. This concluding paragraph sums up the information from the whole essay and might include the writer’s opinion on the matter.

7.4 Current academic studies

In order to gain a comprehensive understanding of Marina's current studies and the influences, experiences, and practices that impact upon and lead to changes in Marina's academic writing processes, the following sections look at certain critical moments within the narrative of Marina's engagement with her written assignments throughout the first two semesters of her academic study at University A. They include a detailed description and examination of the following:

- 1) Marina's assignment instructions and related marking criteria. These are also compared for consistency.
- 2) Marina's perceptions about her ongoing assignments and marking criteria.
- 3) Marina's writing processes as she attempts to complete each of her assignments.
- 4) Marina's application of previously acquired writing and study skills.
- 5) The lecturer's grades and feedback, as well as Marina's perception of these.

7.4.1 Semester 1

Marina took four papers in Semester 1: Biology of cells, Biology of animals, Communication, and Kinesiology. However, according to Marina, the Communication paper was the only paper that required her to do written assignments. She provided me with two of her assignments that she completed for the course. Assignment 1 was referred to as a Source Justification and consisted of two parts. Although Marina did not provide detailed assignment requirements for Assignment 1, the analysis of the provided documentation revealed that the first part required students to find three secondary sources related to a topic that students chose from the list provided in the writing assignment requirements for Assignment 2. The three secondary sources had to belong to three different source types, i.e. a media source, a peer-reviewed article, and an official government website. Then, students had to identify three key points in each source and provide reasons for the sources' relevance to the proposed topic. In the second part of the assignment, students had to reflect on their search strategies for the secondary sources. Assignment 2 was a Position Paper. For this assignment, which took

the form of a filter blog², the student was required to express their opinion about a topic related to the environment.

It should be noted that Marina was highly motivated and aimed for high grades at the beginning of her studies. She spent hours in the library finding and reading sources that could complement and expand her knowledge on the material taught in class. She believed that quantity of her knowledge would win over quality. However, her systematic reading and note-taking did not relate to material which could contribute to her assignments. Moreover, by the end of Semester 1, she realised note-taking was more of a mechanical exercise from which she did not learn much. Consequently, she did not have sufficient time for her assignments.

7.4.1.1 Communication paper Assignment 1 (Source Justification): Requirements, marking criteria, and student's reflection on them

This section details the assignment requirements and marking criteria for Assignment 1, the Source Justification, from Marina's Communication paper. This section also documents the student's reflection on the assessment requirements and marking criteria for the assignment.

Figure 7.1 presents four pre-written marking criteria according to which the students' work for the Source Justification was graded. The highlighted sections in Figure 7.1 indicate how Marina's lecturer rated her assignment work around the third source that she discussed.

² Filter blog is the type of a blog that reflects the blogger's viewpoint (Li et al., 2012) with redirecting readers to "specific content elsewhere on the Web, comment on it, and solicit feedback" (Koulikov, 2007, p. 2). Filter blogs usually contain web links to sources that have informed the argument.

Figure 7.1

Assignment 1 Marking Criteria for Part 1 - Justifying Your Source Selection

Source 3	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent
APA format	Incorrectly formatted reference.	Format has several errors.	Referenced correctly minor errors (1 - 2).	Referenced correctly.
Search strategy	Evidence of poor search strategy.	Search strategy appears effective but little detail provided.	Effective search strategy with some detail provided.	Demonstrates very effective and/or creative search strategy. High level of detail provided.
Three key points	No key points given.	Minimal identification of key points	Key points identified but mainly factual with attempts to make connections to topic.	Key points clearly identified in terms of relevance to the task.
Reason for source selection / rejection	No justification provided.	Attempts to justify the source selection, but contains a mix of detailed support and surface analysis of the usefulness of the source and its relevance to the NZ context. May not connect to other sources. Limited understanding of source quality.	Clearly identifies the relevance of the source, but may lack either clear supporting details OR links to other sources OR the NZ context. May give a good reason for selecting a source that may not be appropriate. Identifies elements of source quality.	In-depth outline of how this source contributes to the topic, and to the NZ context. Links to other sources identified. Explains, in detail, the quality of the source and indications of source quality.

As can be seen from Figure 7.1, the students were assessed on their ability to abide by the APA referencing conventions. Secondly, students were graded on the nature of their search strategy. Thirdly, students were assessed on their ability to identify the key points of the three sources and explain how these points were relevant to the chosen topic. The final marking criterion referred to students' ability to justify each source' selection based on its contribution to the topic and the NZ context. The fourth criterion also required the students to identify the reliability of the information found in the selected source. To gain an 'excellent' mark for this criterion, students needed to develop an 'in-depth' discussion, most likely involving the use of a range of analytical and critical skills.

Andrade (2005) states that a rubric, or marking criteria, as it was referred to in the documentation provided by Marina, should go hand in hand with a detailed written explanation of the requirements, or an oral elaboration in class. Marina stated that students were provided with detailed writing assignment requirements and the requirements were additionally briefly explained in class. Furthermore, students were supplied with the assignment template for organising answers to the first part of Assignment 1, which is presented in Figure 7.2 below. However, when approaching the

assignment, Marina was still confused which question had to contain her justification for choosing sources. As a result, she provided source justification when answering questions two and four.

Figure 7.2

Assignment 1 Part 1 Template

Justifying Your Source Selection	
	SOURCE 1 TYPE:
	1. APA reference
	2. How did you find this source?
	3. Identify three key points that are relevant to the position paper
	4. Reason you chose to use this source

For the second part of Assignment 1, students were required to reflect on and self-evaluate the search process of the first part of the assignment. To do this, students were prompted to answer three questions about their search strategies and the challenges they encountered:

- 1) What have you learned about the information searching process?
- 2) Describe your information process for the position paper.
- 3) What was the greatest challenge for you in finding and evaluating information sources to use in this position paper?

The answer to the first question clearly focused on the students' learning from the search process in the first part of Assignment 1. However, the other two questions,

although they made mention of finding and evaluating sources, were actually related to the subsequent Assignment 2, i.e. the Position Paper. As a result, they caused a degree of confusion for the student when completing the second part of Assignment 1. When answering the second question, Marina decided to describe her work process on Assignment 1 because she did not make much progress on Assignment 2 by then. Marina answered the third question in a single sentence, stating her biggest challenge was in finding a credible media source on the topic. Marina explained that she did not believe that media sources could be credible in the first place because in her home country it was mainly biased towards an opinion supported by country leaders.

The second part of Assignment 1 was graded from 1 to 5 (1 being the lowest grade and 5 being the highest grade). Details of the marking criteria are provided in Figure 7.3, where the highlighted section indicates Marina's grade for the second part of the assignment.

Figure 7.3

Assignment 1 Marking Criteria for Part 2 - Reflecting on the Research Process

PART 2 - REFLECTING ON THE RESEARCH PROCESS				
1	2	3	4	5
Minimal reflection. No evidence that learning has taken place or that challenges in information searching have been identified.	Attempt to reflect on research and learning process, but lacking detail that shows learning has taken place. Information search process lacks detail and challenges are not clearly identified.	Good reflection on your research process but lacking in detail about how you have developed your search process or how you dealt with the challenges. Reflection suggests you may over-estimate your ability to search effectively, or are still struggling to identify appropriate sources.	Very good reflection on your research and learning process. More detailed evidence would show that deeper learning has taken place, and would strengthen your overall reflection. May not identify areas that you can improve on to show you have really thought about your learning in this process.	Excellent, thoughtful reflection on your research and learning process, with clear evidence that learning and change has taken place and identification of areas that you can still improve on.

In what follows, Marina's written work is discussed and her comments on my analysis of her work are presented.

Student's work on the assignment

When Marina quickly read the assignment requirements and marking criteria, the former was not provided to me, she believed that finding sources related to a topic of

interest and identifying key points in the sources was a straightforward task. Marina was confident that presenting the key points in short paragraphs would suffice and would be easy for her because she had learnt the relevant skills for structuring paragraphs from IELTS. Neither was Marina worried about demonstrating effective and creative search strategies, as she was confident that Google would provide her with a plethora of appropriate sources.

The perception of easy work ahead made Marina postpone work on the assignment and use the time to work on her other subjects. However, when she eventually did begin work on the task, she thoroughly read the marking criteria and realised that it was a more complex task than had seemed at first. Firstly, her chosen topic “Further action must be taken to control the fishing industry in the interests of a sustainable marine environment” was too general for Assignment 1 and, in order to be aligned with the marking criteria (Figure 7.1), had to be narrowed down to the NZ context. Secondly, Marina realised that Assignment 1 was a preliminary step to Assignment 2, which involved students presenting their position on the same chosen topic. Hence, the same information and sources could be used in both assignments. Consequently, Marina wanted to select sources for Assignment 1 that could support her position, i.e. NZ was the most careful country when it came to overfishing. However, all the sources she found on the topic pointed that, like many other countries, NZ had big problems with overfishing too. As the result, Marina found linking the sources to her selected topic of overfishing and the NZ context challenging. The task felt even more challenging when Marina realised that she had to find specific source types, i.e. a media source, a peer-reviewed article, and an official government website, and not any sources that could support her personal opinion.

Overall, Marina found it difficult to simultaneously think of her Position Paper assignment, while still working on her Source Justification assignment:

*I did struggle with that. Because I thought it was gonna be very easy.
Because we just have to find sources and write some paragraphs. But
because it was, like, thinking about the next assignment.*

As a result, and in an attempt to speed up her work process, Marina decided to search for the shortest sources that she could find. This is because she feared that she would

spend a considerable amount of time reading lengthy sources, which might also not be so relevant:

If I see a big thing of thread, I would rather look for something else. It takes a lot of time, and maybe it's not relevant.

Another big challenge for Marina in completing the first part of Assignment 1 was determining whether a source was credible or not. One of the reasons for struggling with the task was the novelty of it, i.e. she had not engaged in this type of task before. Additionally, the difficulty with the task may have come from Marina's inability to identify that sources were reliable:

The only thing that was new for me was researching reliable sources. I was never, like...I didn't know that. To be honest, I remember not being very sure of why the sources were credible. And having to justify myself somehow. But not being really sure.

Marina justified selecting the first two sources by density of the information in the sources, presence of factual and statistical data, as well as source types. The Reason for Source Selection/Rejection marking criterion was marked 'Excellent' for the first two sources.

Marina's reason for selecting the third source was based on the source type alone, i.e. peer-reviewed journal article. Marina believed that peer-reviewed journal articles could be considered reliable because they were written by academics in the field. According to the lecturer's feedback for the Reason for source selection/rejection marking criterion for the third source, which was marked 'Fair' (Figure 7.1), Marina provided a surface level analysis about the usefulness of the source. In her discussion about such low mark, Marina stated that she had insufficient time to provide in-depth justification.

Another challenge that Marina faced related to the assignment template. When Marina started writing Assignment 1 by following the template (see Figure 7.2), she realised the template did not allow space for an introduction. Marina did not feel that she could go straight to the main part of the task without first introducing the task in some way. Hence, Marina exhibited a degree of agency by making changes to the assignment template in her desire to follow the 'introduction-body-conclusion' structure to academic writing that had encountered in her pre-university studies:

I need to state what kind of information I was searching. So, even I came up with these topics, like, after I found the sources, it is kind of, like, an introduction to [the task].

The rest of Marina's written work followed the provided template (Figure 7.2). However, Marina was confused about the way she had to organise the discussion of the key points she had identified because she realised she could not apply her IELTS paragraph writing skills to this component of the assignment. This difficulty was compounded because Marina also found supporting evidence for the same key point in various sections of the sources and was unsure if these should be combined in a single paragraph. As a solution, Marina placed each item of supporting evidence that she found in different parts of the sources in separate stand-alone paragraphs. Two paragraphs that present supporting evidence on the same key point of overfishing can be seen in Figure 7.4.

Figure 7.4

Source Justification 2 - Key Point 1

Key point 1: Overfishing is an increasingly detrimental problem. Alexandra Wimley (2015) describes how overfishing is a problem in the Pacific Ocean: Bluefin tuna stocks have declined over 96% compared to unfished levels and 90% of Bluefin catch are juveniles who have yet to reproduce. Long line fishing also results in unintended harm to marine life that gets caught on the 170-kilometer long lines. On average 300,000 sea turtles and 160,000 sea birds die on long lines each year. (...) Over 100 million sharks are killed each year, largely as a result of the fin trade.

"It's time for fisheries to clean up, set up and be responsible. If they don't, there will be no tuna left." (Karli Thomas, 2015)

Marina stated:

I was confused. Because, like, the author expanded and spoke about other things. But, then, kind of come back to the same point. So, I wasn't sure if I could put it together.

Another area of concern for Marina related to referencing conventions. Although the Communication paper students were directed to the library website to find out about referencing conventions, Marina found it difficult to come to terms with the often-

complicated nuances of APA referencing. As a result, the references for some of her selected sources had formatting issues, for example, the titles were not italicised. Marina's final selected source was incorrectly referenced altogether, because she wrongly identified the source type. Marina labelled it as a journal article when it was a conference paper. According to Marina, she did not have sufficient time to find a peer-reviewed article, and decided to present a conference paper as one:

I think I knew that it was not a peer-reviewed article. But I couldn't find one.

The lecturer gave feedback on the difference between the two types of sources but stated that no marks would be deducted for the incorrect identification of the source type.

Lecturer's feedback and the student's reflection on it

Apart from the grade for each criterion highlighted in the marking sheet (Figure 7.1 and Figure 7.3), the lecturer provided feedback within the assignment in a different-coloured font, as shown in Figure 7.5.

Figure 7.5

Comments on Assignment 1

Reason you chose this source: The reason I chose this source is because it is a peer reviewed journal article. It means that even though it is a secondary source, all the information is 100% true. **Be careful with claims like this!**

After her struggle to locate reliable sources, Marina was especially confused to receive feedback advising her not to use strong claims regarding the credibility of her source. She believed that as a peer-reviewed journal article it was eminently reliable (Figure 7.5 above). Marina stated:

It seems, like, they want us to choose reliable sources, but here she comments that these sources, like, may not be reliable. So, I don't know.

However, reliability of the journal article may not have been the focus of the lecturer's comment, but instead she may have been making reference to Marina's use of the phrase "100% true", which is semantically quite different from the term 'reliable' or 'credible'.

Overall, Marina was satisfied with a B+ grade for this assignment. She suggested that her inability to identify reliable sources contributed to her failure to get a higher grade.

7.4.1.2 Communication paper Assignment 2 (Position Paper): Requirements, marking criteria, and student's reflection on them

Assignment 2 of Marina's Communication paper involved a Position Paper. As was mentioned in Section 7.4.1.1, Assignment 2 needed to focus on the same topic and employ the same sources that the students chose for their first assignment, the Source Justification. However, in Assignment 2, students were required to use the selected sources to support their own position on the chosen topic.

Assignment 2 was to be written on paper in the format of a filter blog and then handed into the lecturer. The Position Paper instructions required the blog to be engaging for various audiences, from high school students to research scientists. The underlined parts of the Assignment 2 requirements in Figure 7.6 indicate the informal register in which the assignment instructions were written in, potentially inviting students to produce a similar register in their assignment.

Figure 7.6

Assignment Requirements: Position Paper

The editor of a blog on the Science and Society section of Sciblogs (<http://sciblogs.co.nz/category/science-and-society/>) likes to invite guest writers with expertise on controversial topics to contribute to her blog. The environment seems to be a hot topic right now, so she emails you, asking you to write a position paper (also known as an opinion piece) on this topic. In her email she says “I really want you to provoke my readers to think about this topic. It would be helpful if you took a stand and really argued a point of view. You need to ensure that what you say is backed up by scholarly research to please the scientists who read my blog, so you need to include references, but make sure it’s really engaging for anyone who might read it. My readers range from research scientists to retired farmers and high school students, so you need to write to a general audience”.

You decide to accept this challenge. Your task, therefore, is to write a position paper for the blog of no more than 1200 words, excluding references and title page. It should be written in an engaging way that will interest the readership of the blog. But it must also be scholarly, i.e. based on scholarly sources and referenced correctly (using APA referencing) and you are expected to employ the key stylistic elements of scientific writing; for example, clear paragraphing and a clear, concise writing style.

The assignment requirements were a page long. The task resembled something of a role-play, in that it explained how the editor of a Sciblog had emailed the students inviting them to write on a ‘hot topic’, i.e. the environment. Perhaps in order to make the role-play more credible, the students were provided with a link to the blog website, that contained other blog entries, which could potentially be used as exemplars for their assignments.

By setting up the Position Paper assignment as a blog, the lecturer might have intended to encourage students to develop their ideas without the constraints imposed by the demands of academic writing conventions. Nonetheless, the assignment requirements and the marking criteria, presented in Figure 7.7, seemed to send mixed messages about what written genre was expected from the students. For example, the requirements’ suggestion that Assignment 2 had to be ‘backed-up by scholarly research’ or employ ‘key stylistic elements of scientific writing’, seemed to relate to a conventional academic essay genre, while some, such as the ‘need to write for a general audience’ and the requirement to make it ‘really engaging’ related to the type of writing found in the blog genre (Figure 7.6). Similarly, the requirement in the criteria that it would use APA referencing related to the conventions of the academic essay genre, while the

requirement for a ‘creative, attention, grabbing hook’ related more to non-academic writing genres.

Figure 7.7

Position Paper Assignment Marking Criteria

247.155 Marking Criteria					Name & ID: Marina	
Assignment 2: Position Paper					Marker: Lecturer	

U=Unsatisfactory G=Good	F=Fair E=Excellent	U	F	G	E	Comments
Introduction Creative, attention grabbing hook. Thesis statement clear, unequivocal, justified.				X		Good use of stats to draw the reader in. Clear thesis statement.
Body or Content Well researched; good understanding of topic. Logical and coherent argument. Referenced appropriately using APA style. Informative headings.			X			Your paper refers to a number of sources but none of them are scholarly or academic. However, there is a clear argument that develops well. Some errors in referencing. Headings could be better!
Conclusion Strong, memorable summation and closing statement.					X	Very strong conclusion.
Writing Style Audience focus; style appropriate to audience. Punctuation, spelling, grammar. Deductive paragraphing. Clear and concise.			X	X		Good writing style, appropriate for the audience. Some errors. Good paragraphs.

Comments:
This is a good paper. You have a clear argument that develops towards a strong conclusion. However, it would have been much stronger with some scholarly/ academic research included and this was a requirement of the assignment.

Date:	Grade: E D C- C  B- B  A- A 
--------------	--

The marking criteria for Assignment 2, presented in Figure 7.7, sent Marina mixed messages about the nature of the assignment itself. Unsure about which way she had to

approach the assignment, as a filter blog or an academic essay, Marina chose the latter, believing it would be more appropriate for a university assignment. By the middle of Semester 1, Marina had realised that this paper was directed at teaching students to communicate discipline-specific knowledge to the general audience, rather than testing students' knowledge from their discipline. Although the student was eager to conduct discipline-specific research, she saw Assignment 2 as an exercise to express ideas and information in a coherent way, following a certain structure:

It's just a communication paper. So, they teach how to communicate something. It's not checking my knowledge about fishing.

As can be seen from Figure 7.8, the assignment requirements indicated that students could find resources explaining how to write a position paper on the university online LMS. Marina decided not to spend time searching for the links due to the overwhelming amount of work she had to do in her academic studies. Instead, she chose to write her assignment guided by the assignment requirements and marking criteria provided.

Figure 7.8

Position Paper Assignment Requirements Related to Writing Position Papers

2) Make sure you understand what a position paper is. We have provided links to resources on writing position papers on the Stream site.

Marina's work and reflections on Assignment 2 are detailed in the next section.

Student's work on the assignment, lecturer's feedback, and the student's reflection on it

By the time Marina started her work on Assignment 2, she was overwhelmed with her university work, and consequently did not pay careful attention to all the requirements and explanations for the assignment. Nevertheless, the student felt empowered to do the task because she already had the three sources analysed for Assignment 1. Additionally, while working on the previous task, she had also saved some articles that she thought would be relevant for the Position Paper's blog format. Marina did not have previous experience with blog writing, so she decided to write her assignment in a form of a

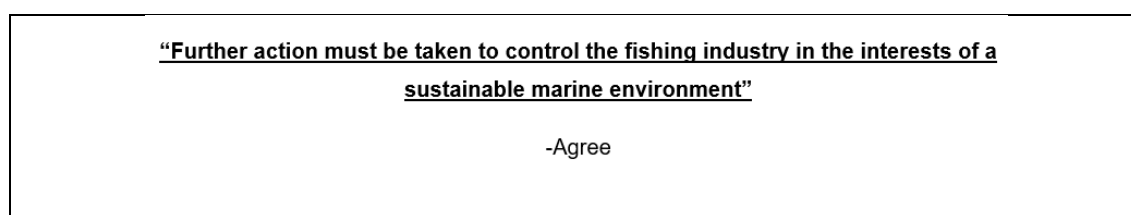
university essay. She stated that she did not pay detailed attention to the marking criteria because she was aware she lacked the skills for achieving excellent outcomes. Marina did not go into detail of what skills she referred to.

Before submitting their final version for Assignment 2, students were required to provide a draft of their work, which would not be graded. After checking the draft, the lecturer scheduled individual one-on-one sessions with each student. During the one-on-one session, feedback on the draft was provided in writing in a Tutor Clinic Sheet, and the lecturer also discussed the ways that the student could improve their Assignment 2 written work.

When working on the final version of the Position Paper, Marina utilised the feedback from the one-on-one session. For example, the first piece of feedback in the Tutor Clinic Sheet was: “Title?”. Marina’s draft did not include a title, however, in light of her lecturer’s comments, a title was added to the final version. She decided that a simple topic-focused title would not be sufficiently appropriate, so she included her particular position within the title perceiving that it was important to present the reader with her position up front (Figure 7.9).

Figure 7.9

Assignment 2 Title



Furthermore, as per her lecturer’s comments in the Tutor Clinic Sheet, Marina’s draft neglected to include section headings. Marina had never included section headings in her previous experiences of academic writing, as IELTS did not require them. Instead, Marina learnt from IELTS that the overall academic essay structure would contain an Introduction, Body, or ‘Paragraphs’ in Marina’s lexicon, and Conclusion. As a result, she provided section headings related to the conventional essay structure, as well as developed headings that accurately summarised the content in the Body part of the assignment, as can be seen in Figure 7.10.

Figure 7.10

Headings in Assignment 2: Position Paper

Thesis statement

New Zealand is a great example of sustainable fishing; it is easy to think that there is not much more to do but to “keep up the good work”. Even though New Zealand has done a great job and it is on the right path to a healthy ocean, international fisheries still have an effect on New Zealand's waters.

The whole world shares the same problem, and as long as there is overfishing, further action must be taken by every one of us to promote a healthy, happy ocean.

Paragraphs:

Understanding the size of the problem:

Before getting into detail, it is important to know what overfishing is and what the main causes of overfishing are. Overfishing means, “fishing too much that the fish cannot sustain

As can be seen from Figure 7.11, the lecturer negatively commented on the headings related to the conventional essay structure and advised to provide headings that reflected the content of each section. Subsequently, Marina got a ‘Fair’ mark for the Informative Headings sub-criterion from the Body or Content marking criterion (Figure 7.7).

Figure 7.11

Lecturer's Comment on the 'Introduction' as a Heading

Introduction

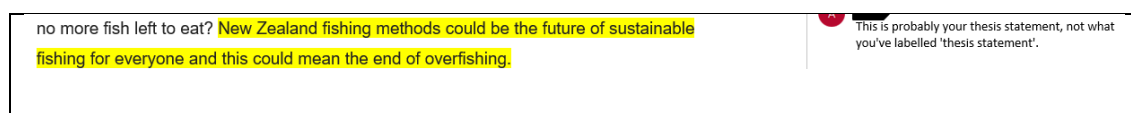
It is estimated that three-quarters of the world's fisheries are completely exploited or overfished meaning we need to act fast to stop this crisis. Some countries like New

A Your headings should be about your topic, eg: 'The Problem of Over-fishing'.

In the Tutor Clinic Sheet Marina's lecturer marked the absence of the thesis statement. The student had previously learnt that the thesis statement was the part of an introduction that explained a position on the topic, and she believed she had included this in the draft. Marina could not recall the lecturer's explanation as to why her thesis statement was unclear, so in her final version of Assignment 2, she singled it out by adding a separate heading, stating 'Thesis statement'. However, the lecturer had meant that Marina had included several ideas in her introduction, and it was unclear which of them was related to the thesis statement. As can be seen from Figure 7.12, the lecturer, although somewhat unsure himself, commented on what may have been the thesis statement in Marina's assignment.

Figure 7.12

Thesis Statement in the Introduction Section



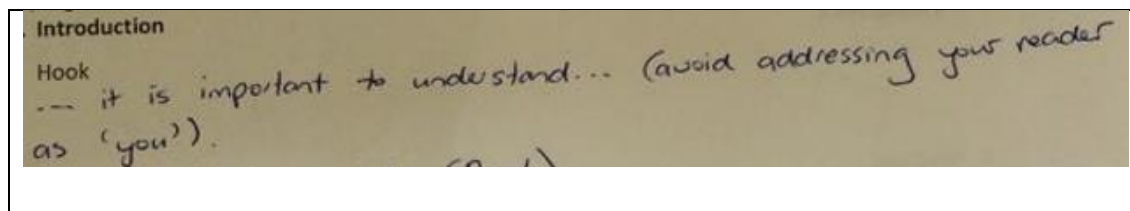
The lecturer's comment for the Thesis Statement sub-criterion from the Introduction marking criteria stated 'Clear thesis statement' but 'Good' mark was assigned (Figure 7.7). Marina was confused what the comment referred to, as the lecturer had perceived her thesis statement unclearly identified. Marina concluded for herself that for an 'Excellent' mark she had to specify ways to solve the overfishing problem, which was stated in the thesis statement:

I think if I was clearer with my thesis [statement] and said not only that it is a problem but maybe ways to solve [the problem]. Could be a better mark for [Thesis Statement sub-criterion].

Marina responded more successfully to the lecturer's advice about creating a better 'hook', which as can be seen in Figure 7.13, involved providing Marina with strong advice to use impersonal constructions, such as "...it is important to understand..." and avoid using the pronoun 'you' in the Introduction section.

Figure 7.13

Advice Using Impersonal Language



It seems that the lecturer was guiding the students to master the perceived conventions of academic writing, rather than the genre of a blog which characteristically address their reader as using the personal pronoun ‘you’. Marina, however, wished to gain a good grade for her work, so she did not question the authoritative opinion of the lecturer. In fact, given her own intention to organise the work as a university essay, rather than a filter blog, the student agreed that ‘we’ was a more acceptable pronoun to employ than ‘you’:

‘We’, or, for example, instead of saying ‘you need to know’, I would say, like, ‘it is important to know’.

Marina’s Introduction in her final version of Assignment 2 indicated that the student implemented the lecturer’s advice to write a stronger hook by using impersonal statements, such as ‘It is estimated...’ and rhetorical questions, such as “Is that all it will take to solve this problem?”, to avoid addressing the reader, as ‘you’. Although, lecturer’s comments in the Tutor Clinic Sheet indicated that Marina’s choice of linguistic and stylistic elements in her Introduction were seen as effective in attracting readers’ attention, Marina only received a ‘Good’ grade for her Introduction. Marina believed that her Introduction deserved an ‘Excellent’ grade, but her lecturer wanted to encourage her to do better next time by only giving her ‘Good’.

Furthermore, and as can be seen in Figure 7.14, in her final submission for Assignment 1, Marina’s reference list did not strictly follow the APA reference conventions. Although the lecturer, during the feedback one-on-one session, had referred Marina to the university library’s website for the interactive guide to the APA style, she was not able to develop her references to the required APA standards, especially in relation to web resources:

*I just retrieved [APA conventions] from the library website but I
couldn't find about [referencing] websites.*

Figure 7.14

Reference List for Assignment 2 (Position Paper)

Pepijn Koster (2007-2012) Overfishing- A Global Disaster Retrieved from www.overfishing.org WWF global (N/A) By-catch victims Retrieved from wwf.panda.org/about_our_earth/blue_planet/problems/problems_fishing/fisheries_management/bycatch222/bycatch_victims/ Alexandra Wimley (2015) Greenpeace apprehends illegal fishing in South Pacific Retrieved from http://www.nzherald.co.nz/element-magazine/news/article.cfm?c_id=1503340&objectid=11512792

Marina received a C+ grade for Assignment 2 (Figure 7.7). Below the marking criteria, the lecturer stated that the assignment was actually a good Position Paper. Consequently, there were no mistakes specified except the lack of reference to academic sources. As a result, although the majority of criteria were graded as ‘Good’ or ‘Excellent’, the student believed that the relatively poor grade was due to the absence of any reference to peer-reviewed articles, as well as her excessive use of personal opinion in her assignment. From the assignment grade, Marina understood that the online sources she used, such as official governmental websites and leading newspapers, could not be considered reliable and used as supporting evidence to her own opinion.

The next section describes Marina’s work on assignments for her Science and Sustainability paper in Semester 2.

7.4.2 Semester 2

As with Semester 1, Marina took four papers in Semester 2: Science and Sustainability, Statistics, Chemistry, and Physics. Overall, the student was much happier with the subjects in Semester 2, as most of them did not require much writing and were mainly

based on practical lab tests and calculations. Marina chose to provide me with her three written assignments from the Science and Sustainability paper. All three assignments needed to be related to the same topic chosen by the students. The first assignment was referred to as a Source Summary and required students to summarise three recent media reports related to sustainability concepts. Assignment 2 was referred to as a Rough Draft. It aimed to help students understand a critical issue related to sustainability, as well as assist students in improving their written communication skills. Assignment 3, a Research Project, required students to write a paper following the format specified in the assignment requirements. As the writing assignment requirements for Assignment 2 and 3 were the same, discussion of Assignment 2, as an intermediate step, is omitted below.

7.4.2.1 Science and Sustainability Assignment 1 (Source Summary): Requirements, marking criteria, and student's reflection on them

The first assignment contributed only 2% towards the total final grade of the paper and required a summary of 3 recent media reports related to sustainability concepts. URL links from leading NZ and the UK newspapers were provided for the student to choose the media reports from. Each chosen media report was to be summarised in a hundred words.

According to the writing assignment requirements, the summaries had to be “clear and original”. In her interpretation of this requirement, Marina must have focused on the word ‘original’, as her belief was that a ‘clear and original summary’ would be one that was not plagiarised. To acknowledge the sources, students were not required to provide APA references and URL links were sufficient.

After summarising information from the chosen sources, the students were required to propose a topic for their subsequent assignments. The topic was supposed to be in the form of a question and be related to at least one of the summarised media reports.

None of the three assignments for Science and Sustainability paper had marking criteria, which Marina justified as the lecturer's intention to test students for their knowledge in the discipline, rather than the students' skills at presenting their ideas in a clear way:

... [Position Paper] was for Communication [paper], which is like they teach me how to write. Whereas this one [Source Summary] is

more like, environmental issues. Like, they care more about what I'm saying than how I'm saying it. Just assuming that I know how.

Marina did not worry about the absence of the marking criteria, as she found the written assignment requirements detailed enough to complete her assignments. Moreover, she had an excessive amount of work to complete for her other papers, and so chose not to be as dedicated to each paper as she was in Semester 1. Overall, in Semester 2, Marina developed a more balanced study-life equilibrium, and decided not to neglect her friendship, relationship, and hobbies, even though it might have led to detrimental academic outcomes. Her mother's visit that happened during the semester break seemed to have a huge influence on Marina's attitudes towards her academic studies. After this visit, Marina was no longer concerned with getting good grades as she was before.

Student's work on the assignment

Marina struggled to summarise sources succinctly as she had little previous practice with it. She exceeded the 100-word limit for each of her written summaries by between 18 and 39 words.

Marina initially attempted to write each summary in a single paragraph. In her IELTS preparation, she learnt that a paragraph should be devoted to a single idea, which she believed was relevant to summaries. As a result of her Communication Paper in Semester 1, the student had learnt specific rules for writing a paragraph. For example, a relatively short, eight-sentence paragraph would help to keep the reader interested. Short eight sentence paragraphs would also express information concisely and in a way that was easy to understand and follow. Students were also informed in the Communications Paper that the frequent use of paragraphs shorter than eight sentences often gave the impression that the paragraph contained many unrelated ideas. Apart from paragraph length, Marina also learnt from the Communications paper to follow a particular paragraph structure, i.e. thesis statement, explanation, summary:

In each paragraph, you should have an introduction, body, and conclusion. Which is, like, say what you want to say, say it, and say what you said.

When working on Assignment 1 in Semester 2, Marina struggled to apply this approach to paragraph structure. She did not feel that her summaries required an introduction or a thesis statement, or a summary:

I think it'll be too much putting, like, an intro in each one of the [summaries]. I would have gone over the word limit if I follow this [structure].

Additionally, the skill of writing a creative hook was not identified by Marina as applicable to the current assignment:

It's not really useful because it wasn't like an essay.

Although Marina initially tried writing single eight-sentence paragraphs for Assignment 1, she felt that the information found in each of the chosen sources was rich and dense, and that summarising this information into a one-paragraph summary would have made the paragraph difficult to comprehend. Hence, she chose to write her summaries as more than one paragraph which she believed would make them easy to follow and understand. However, this was not always effectively done. As can be seen in an extract of her writing in Figure 7.15, Marina exercised her agency in an attempt to summarise information about five innovations shaping current sustainability practice. In this extract, it can be seen how she separated information about three innovations in one paragraph and the other two in another paragraph.

Figure 7.15

Use of Sequencers and Paragraphing in Assignment 1

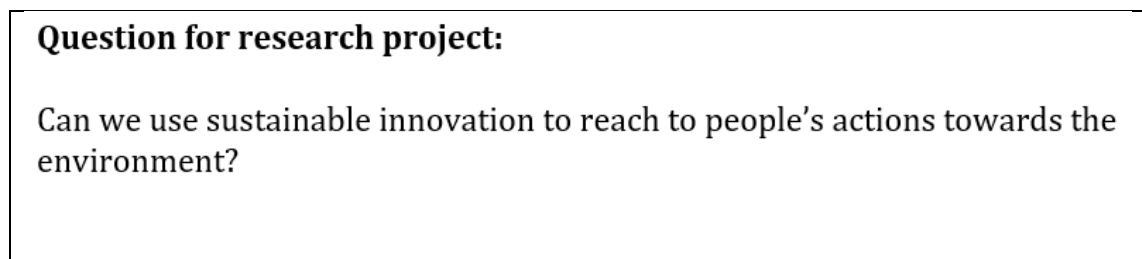
bringing solutions. According to Laura Parker, the 5 innovations that shaped 2016's sustainability are "The seabin" which pulls in water and floating trash. The second, Q-poc (cancer detector) that analyzes DNA and can detect cancer and infectious diseases in minutes. The third, "cutlery you can eat" which can replace plastic cutlery. "A drone that helps endangered species" is used to shoot vaccines to preserve endangered species". The last one is "Use of 3D printers to eliminate plastic waste" which turn plastic from bottles into 3D printing filament.

The lecturer's feedback and the student's reflection on it

Marina received 1.6 percent out of 2 percent but there was no feedback or indication of how the grade was assigned. Although there was no marking sheet, the feedback was provided electronically via a message on the LMS. There was no feedback on the summaries, and it was only related to Marina's proposed question for the subsequent assignments (Figure 7.16).

Figure 7.16

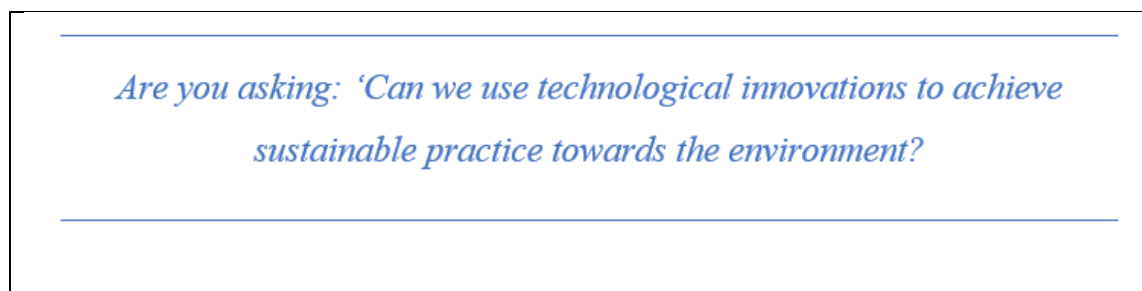
Marina's Research Question for Assignment 2 and 3



As can be seen in Figure 7.17 the lecturer rephrased Marina's proposed question in an attempt to clarify its meaning.

Figure 7.17

Feedback on Assignment 1 Semester 2



Marina thought that her stated research question was not clearly worded and took the lecturer's feedback on board when writing the next assignment.

7.4.2.2 Science and Sustainability Assignment 3 (Research Project): Requirements and Marina's reflection of them

The assignment requirements for the Assignment 3, Research Project, were provided in writing and were also explained to the students in class. As can be seen in Figure 7.18, it was highlighted that the students had to draw upon at least three 'primary papers' for their assignment. Marina understood 'primary papers' as referring to academic journal articles.

Figure 7.18

Assignment Requirements for Assignment 2 and 3

Do a literature search on your topic and **read at least three primary papers** related to your question. **Be sure to choose papers that are actually relevant to your topic.** Weave the information from the papers into a cohesive outline that aims to answer your question.

As seen in Figure 7.19 below, the assignment requirements indicated a proposed specific structure for the assignment: Title, Word Count, Abstract, Introduction, Body, Discussion, and Bibliography. Marina could not see how a 'Word Count' fitted into the structural organisation of her essay, and perceived it as simply a reminder of the word limit:

I thought it was, like, a side note. To remind us not to go over the word limit.

An analysis of the assignment requirements identified several unclear instructions. For example, students were required to 'weave the information' from the selected sources into a cohesive outline (Figure 7.18), 'summarise the ... take home message' (Figure 7.19), or 'synthesize a clean narrative' (Figure 7.19). What the lecturer may have intended to say is that students were expected to compose a logical, coherent, and cohesive answer ("narrative") to their stated research question. In doing so, the students were required to incorporate information from the literature sources, which would provide supporting evidence to their opinion ("weave the information", "synthesize"). Students were also expected to draw conclusions to their research, which would summarise the main points of the research findings ("summarise the take home

message”). Additionally, students’ writing was expected to be void of lexico-grammatical errors (“clean narrative”).

Figure 7.19

Detailed Assignment Requirements for Assignment 2 and 3

1. Title (likely to be in the form of a question, but not necessarily).
2. Word Count.
3. Abstract (100 words). Summarize the content and take home message of your paper.
4. Introduction (Provide background information necessary to place your question into an appropriate context)
5. Main Body (**synthesize** a clear narrative that summarizes the findings of your literature search).
6. Discussion (provide a brief discussion of the implications/conclusions of your synthesis – you can include personal opinions, areas where new research would be worthwhile etc).
7. Literature Cited. You are expected to have thoroughly read at least three papers from the primary literature on the topic you are interested in. You are also free to cite internet links to press releases, blogs etc but these do not count as “primary papers”. **Be sure to actually cite the papers in your assignment.** Model your literature cited section after the format used in one of your primary papers.
8. Figures (**you are expected to have one or two figures in your paper** – they must be original, but they can replicate information from your primary papers – make sure the figure has a legend and that you refer to the figure in the text of your paper).

Marina decided that the requirements written in bold or in a different font style (Figure 7.18 and 7.19) were of more significance. In cases when Marina could not comprehend the bold part of the text, such as “synthesize a clean narrative”, the student chose to focus on the clearer part of the sentence, i.e. “...that summarizes the findings of your literature search” (Figure 7.19). As a result, Marina only had a partial understanding of the assignment requirements and its purpose:

*I think it's, like, summarise. About what you researched. And not only,
but what you think too.*

It could be argued that the Assignment 3 requirements’ use of unclear and vague language contributed to Marina’s difficulty to comprehend the nature of the assignment.

Student's work on the assignment

As it was mentioned in Section 7.4.2.1, in comparison to the beginning of her studies, Marina had a much more relaxed approach to her assignments in Semester 2, which was reflected in the way she approached the task:

To be honest, I didn't pay much attention to the [requirements].

As a result of Marina's lack of attention to the outlined assignment structure in the assignment requirements (Figure 7.19), she was unsure where to position an Abstract in her work. In her understanding, an abstract had to outline what the written work discussed. However, when starting to write her assignment, Marina realised that the Introduction served that purpose. Hence, in contrast to the Assignment 3 requirements, Marina decided that it was more logical to position the Abstract after the Introduction.

Furthermore, Marina was confused by the presence of a Discussion section and the absence of a Conclusion in the assignment requirements (Figure 7.19). The student construed that by Discussion, her lecturer meant Conclusion:

I think discussion, I guess, is the conclusion.

One of the academic writing norms that caused a strong degree of confusion for Marina was related to evidence-based writing. By the end of her first year of study, she became confused about which opinions could be seen as her own and which had to be referenced as being sourced by someone else. She concluded that the introduction and conclusion did not require references, while each paragraph in the body of her assignment had to refer to secondary sources:

*It is my personal opinion. Not my personal opinion but it's me saying
that from what I learnt in the course.*

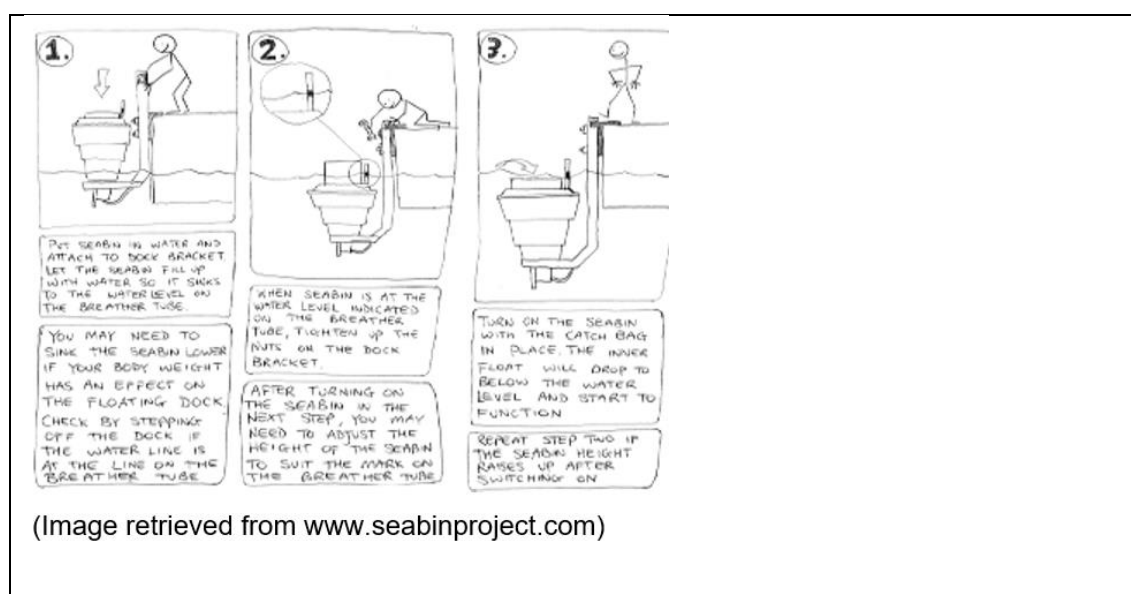
Marina decided to provide in-text citation at the end of each paragraph, which in her opinion, indicated that her own idea described in the paragraph was supported by secondary sources.

Another area of concern involved figures. Since figures were a compulsory part of Assignment 3 (Figure 7.19), Marina incorporated several figures from referenced sources. However, there were several issues with the way the student presented and referred to these in the text. For example, one of the figures, presented in Figure 7.20,

depicted a technological innovation. The quality of the image did not make its text particularly discernible. It may be that while writing her assignment, the use of digital technology assisted the student to enlarge figures and read the text in a larger format, making the images self-explanatory.

Figure 7.20

Figure in Assignment 3



Even though the assignment requirements stated that each figure had to be labelled, the lecturer did not advise students on certain norms for doing so. Marina was not even aware that there were certain conventions for labelling figures:

I don't know how you would normally label them [figures].

As can be seen from Figure 7.20, Marina did not number the figure and labelled it with a link to the source from which it was borrowed.

Marina stated that in Semester 2 she continued struggling with in-text citations and referencing. The overall study workload did not provide Marina with sufficient time to fully comprehend the referencing rules on her own. Since the lecturer did not devote much class time to referencing, Marina did not think of gaining in-depth understanding of the in-text citations believing that incorrect citation would not lead to a lower grade:

I just really never thought of it [rules of in-text citation]. I don't think it's important.

Marina did not receive any feedback on Assignment 3 by the time of our third interview, as it had only recently been submitted. Unfortunately, Marina was not available for further discussion about her Assignment 3 feedback after the third interview.

The next section provides answers to three research questions based on the information from the case study described in this chapter.

7.5 Within-case analysis

The current section attempts to answer the three research questions drawing on the information revealed in the process of data analysis of Marina's case study.

7.5.1 RQ 1. What challenges do international L2 students in the early 21st century encounter throughout the first year of their university studies as they attempt to meet the academic writing standards demanded by their institutions?

Throughout her first year of undergraduate study, Marina encountered a number of challenges that can be organised into four larger categories:

- 1) challenges with academic writing conventions,
- 2) challenges with the quality and quantity of the student's effort when dealing with academic workload,
- 3) challenges understanding and following assignment requirements,
- 4) challenges interpreting feedback.

The following sub-sections provide detailed analysis of challenges in each category.

7.5.1.1 Challenges following academic writing conventions

The challenges Marina encountered regarding her engagement with academic writing conventions involved i) the negotiation of different written genres in a single assignment, and ii) the presence of student's voice.

A mix of written genres incorporated into one assignment

In Semester 1 Marina struggled with written assignments that involved a mix of different genres, some of which sat outside the conventions of essayist genre, such as the filter blog. It was implied in the Position Paper assignment documents that the requirement to write the filter blog genre was based on a perception that 21st century scientists have to write media reports. Halliday and Frisard (2020) support the use of blogs as a suitable social media strategy fit for HE milieu. They acknowledge that blogging invites the creation of new content which is an effective way to enhance learning. Blogging also allows more flexibility with formatting compared to traditional guidelines for standard academic assignments (Halliday & Frisard, 2020). Nevertheless, the Position Paper assignment conflated the genre of the filter bog with the conventions of an academic essay genre, resulting in inconsistent assignment requirements which ultimately proved difficulty for Marina. Such demands are identified by Bhatia (1997) who states that while genre-mixing may create possibilities for experts in the discourse community to respond to novel situations under the influence of which genres mix and evolve, it may present first year undergraduate students with difficulties due to their lack of prior writing practice in the target community. Moreover, Hyland (2007) reports that L2 students are generally confronted with difficulties when attempting to produce various academic genres and they often require academic assistance. Kress and Street (2005), and Hyland (2007) claim that international students are challenged by genre subtleties due to potential cultural differences in approaching the same genres. Furthermore, Altınmakas and Bayyurt (2019) states that L2 students may be presented with difficulties making rhetorical choices suitable for various genres as their language proficiency is in the ongoing developmental stage.

Since each genre has its own writing conventions, Hyland (2007) suggests teaching beyond vocabulary and syntactic structures, and assist students to develop understanding of the way language is used in certain contexts. Following Lim and Polio's (2020) finding that instructors tend not to explicitly identify required writing conventions and rely on students' analytical skills to interpret writing expectations, the only guidance on how to approach the Position Paper assignment was a number of assignment exemplars in the form of blog entries on a website (Figure 7.6 in Section 7.4.1.2). However, as an international L2 student, Marina was unable to identify the complex linguistic hybridity of the assignment exemplars.

Student's voice

One of the major issues in writing her assignments in Semester 2 was Marina's confusion about where her 'opinion' could be placed in her written work without the use of in-text citations, and where references were required. In other words, she was confused about the presence of her voice when paraphrasing secondary sources. As was stated in Chapter 2, Hyland (2002) defines students' voice as the capacity of students to represent their own ideas in an attempt to contribute to the academic debate in a discipline-specific area. During her school years, it was acceptable for Marina to express an opinion that may have been based on other sources and not be required to acknowledge these sources. In contrast, the sources that informed the ideas discussed in Marina's university assignments were expected to be acknowledged through references. Therefore, Marina was experiencing the confusion regarding the presence of her voice at university. Wette (2010) argues that students find it challenging to clearly establish their voice when integrating references to their own work.

While in Semester 1 Marina appropriately referenced the sources of her ideas, in Semester 2 she became increasingly confused as to where the voice of authors from secondary sources stopped and where the expression of her own personal voice began. As discussed in Chapter 2, scholars (Allison, 1996; Canagarajah, 2002; Hyland, 2002) identify the importance of the students' voices for their contribution to the academic debate. However, it seems that Western academic writing norms resulted in Marina's perception of losing her own voice in an academic argument. By Semester 2, Marina believed that in-text citations within paragraphs stifled her own voice. In order to somewhat maintain her voice, in Semester 2 Marina demonstrated a certain degree of agency by providing a reference to secondary sources only at the end of each paragraph. According to Vaughn's (2018) categorisation of agency, detailed in Chapter 3, at the first category, disposition, Marina demonstrated her willingness to take an action in response to own confusion regarding expressing her voice. Following the second and third categories, motivation and position, she demonstrated her ability to utilise certain writing strategies in response to the demands of the Western educational context.

7.5.1.2 Challenges with the quality and quantity of the student's effort when dealing with academic workload

Challenges with the quality and quantity of the student's effort when dealing with academic workload included Marina's i) misconceptions about the required focus of the academic workload, ii) perception of her inability as an international student to achieve high grades, and iii) ability to achieve a healthy study-life balance.

Misconceptions about the required focus of the academic workload

The case study suggests that a major challenge faced by Marina as a first year international student was a misconception as to where the focus of her academic workload should be directed. Marina's misconception about the required focus of the academic workload was evident, firstly, in her belief that she was required to develop an in-depth knowledge of all material covered in her lectures, rather than focus more specifically on the topics of her written assignments, and, secondly, in her belief that she had to focus on each assignment in a linear progression (i.e. complete one assignment before moving on to the next). These initial misconceptions resulted in an overwhelming workload, which caused Marina unnecessary anxiety and stress. Bowyer (2012) has found that an excessive workload results in high student stress and anxiety levels, as well as attrition. Research identifies several factors that can impact on student workload, such as planned programmes, pedagogical resources, teaching methods, and student abilities (González & Wagenaar, 2003), students' study skills (Lawless, 2000), difficulty and type of assessment (Kember, 2004). However, Bowyer (2012) makes reference to 'subjective' workload, that is, students' perception of the pressure placed on them by the demands of academic assessments. Kember (2004), and Kember and Leung (2006) found that students do not perceive extended time of their work as excessive workload when the course is well designed. Furthermore, Kember (2004) argues that when motivated to work long hours, students achieve quality work. Therefore, when investigating workload, Bowyer (2012) suggests taking into account the students' effort, interest, and motivation in a particular subject, without which work may not be done. Indeed, it appears that Marina's motivation towards academic success assisted the student with managing her workload by re-negotiating her learning strategies whenever required.

Perception that international L2 students are unable to receive high grades

By the end of Semester 1, Marina developed a perception that as an international student it was difficult to receive high grades. She realised that her IELTS skills and

knowledge were barely relevant to her current written assignments. As discussed in Chapter 1, first year international L2 students often become aware of their under-preparedness for academic studies when confronted with their first university written assignments (Read & Hayes, 2003). Marina's increasing perception of her poor level of preparedness for her current studies resulted in a decreasing level of self-efficacy. Similar findings were found by Whannell, R. and Whannell, P. (2014), Burton and Dowling (2005), and Schunk and DiBenedetto (2016) and are discussed in Chapter 3 in detail. Nevertheless, Marina's completion of her assignments, regardless of her lack of academic skills could characterise Marina as exhibiting strong agentic behaviour. These somewhat conflicting characteristics of Marina may relate to her interest in the subject and motivation towards broadening her knowledge of the discipline area, as well as attaining qualification in the field. Janke et al. (2019) state that completion of written assignments is related to students' effort and perseverance. They further suggest that successful writers foster self-awareness, create strong writing habits and surround themselves with the relevant support system.

Study-life balance

An excessive workload prevented Marina from establishing a healthy study-life balance. Marina's uncompromising dedication to her studies at the beginning of Semester 1 reduced her ability to foster relationships and enhance her social networks in NZ. As was discussed in Chapter 1, limited social support negatively influences students' psychological state and may result in attrition (e.g. Huang & Klinger, 2006; Mori, 2000; Smith & Khawaja, 2011). By Semester 2, Marina had established a better study-life balance. This was partly due to the advice of her mother who was concerned about Marina's excessive concentration on her studies and who therefore redirected Marina towards more extra-curricular activities. It was also the result of an increasing awareness that as an international student, the extreme commitment to her studies would not necessarily result in high grades. The result of Marina's healthier study-life balance was her enlarged social network, increased time the student spent on her hobbies (sport and music), improved psychological state, and overall satisfaction with academic life. Similar findings are reported by Jenkins et al. (2019) who conclude that healthier study-life balance and opportunities to spend some time on hobbies and external activities reduce students' stress levels related to their studies and improve students' overall well-being. Furthermore, Ayers et al. (2008) argue that sport and music are two activities that facilitate better strategies for coping with stress.

7.5.1.3 Challenges understanding and following assignment requirements

Marina encountered a number of challenges understanding and following assignment requirements. This was the result of i) her confusion with the overwhelming amount of information provided to support the writing of assignments, ii) her misinterpretation of assignment requirements, and iii) the structural organisation of assignments.

Confusion with the overwhelming amount of information in support for assignment requirements

Another area that Marina found challenging was the overwhelming number of documents provided to support the successful writing of assignments. These documents included writing assignment requirements, marking criteria, assignment templates, as well as the lecturer's oral explanation of the assignment requirements. While Hysaj et al. (2019) argue that the level of support offered to students is often connected to their academic success, in Marina's case, the myriad supporting documents provided for the assignments caused confusion and framed her approach to study (i.e. attempting to guess which of the assignment requirements were viewed as principal by the lecturer). Interestingly, Gibbs (2006) has found that students tend to develop a pick-and-choose approach when negotiating their way through large curricula, but he also states that successful learners exhibit an ability to identify those documents which are also regarded as important for lecturers, and neglect those that are not necessarily so vital for a successful outcome. However, Gibbs' study focuses on L1 students and may not be necessarily applicable in Marina's L2 case. Marina's self-perception of own poor preparedness to academic demands, lecturers' motivational feedback for previous assignments, and the strength of her motivation towards academic achievements effected her perception of what to focus on when writing assignments.

Misinterpretation of assignment requirements

Another challenge was that Marina often misinterpreted the assignment requirements. This occurred because, firstly, certain complex concepts, (e.g. source quality) were viewed as transparent by her lecturers, and, secondly, the students' disciplinary knowledge was assumed by the lecturers to be more advanced than first year students were capable of (e.g. their ability to critically evaluate the quality of information within a discipline). As discussed in Chapter 1, pre-degree studies, such as those done by Marina, do not develop discipline-specific knowledge (Basturkmen, 2010) and hence first year assignments that require students to critique the quality of academic journal articles (whose target readers are disciplinary experts) can be particularly daunting for

international L2 students. Although Marina met the university admission language requirements, her systematic misinterpretation of assignment requirements was also related to her insufficient language proficiency. As was discussed in Chapter 1, after an IELTS test, L2 students tend to be insufficiently prepared for academic studies with EMI and require additional support with their academic assignments (e.g. Jimenez-Munoz, 2015; Read & Hayes, 2003). However, of interest in the case study was that Marina was not necessarily aware of the difficulties she was having with the assignment requirements. This misconception was related to the absence of the lecturer's feedback on the assignment requirements which seemed to be misinterpreted by Marina (i.e. creating own figures).

Structural organisation of assignments

Marina experienced some challenges with the structural organisation of her written assignments in both semesters. This is largely because her previously-acquired knowledge of an IELTS essay structure seemed to contradict the assignment structure indicated in the assignment templates and assignment requirements. The standard five-paragraph structure taught at pre-degree courses (Alexander, 2019; Macbeth, 2010) seems to conflict with discipline-specific writing norms, which are best achieved through exposure to writing practices in the target community (Macbeth, 2010; Hyland & Shaw, 2016). Hyland (2003) states that with little writing practice in the target community, students tend to utilise familiar writing conventions when confronted with the unknown writing requirements. Marina's case confirms these findings. What is of interest, however, is that lack of the lecturer's feedback on Marina's structure in her assignments sent the student the message that structural organisation of assignments was not of primary importance.

7.5.1.4 Challenges interpreting feedback

The challenges Marina faced interpreting the feedback she received on her written assignments were primarily related to the disjuncture between the feedback provided and her actual grades.

The disjuncture between feedback and assignment grades

Another challenge that Marina faced when writing the Assignment 2, Position Paper, was the disjuncture between her largely positive feedback and her low assignment grades. Although the lecturer's feedback involved some educational value that could

contribute to the improvement of Marina's writing abilities, it was largely motivational. Bailey and Garner (2010) claim that HE lecturers have limited time for providing written feedback on student's formative assessment tasks. They argue that such limited time largely results in the provision of generic feedback, which is designed to motivate and retain students, rather than provide students with educational value. Marina, in contrast, perceived the Position Paper feedback as providing information that would enable her to improve her writing abilities. However, the lecturer's feedback appeared to be quite narrow and focused only on one element of her writing (i.e. lack of academic sources in support for her arguments). Although the requirement that students follow academic conventions for acknowledging sources was explicitly identified in the assignment requirements (Figure 7.6 in Section 7.4.1.2), Marina's overall lack of familiarity and experience with evidence-based writing meant that she did not fully recognise the significance of this requirement.

7.5.2 RQ 2. In what way do international students' prior learning and experiences, including preparatory academic English courses such as IELTS, successfully prepare these students for the challenges they encounter throughout the first year of their academic study?

At the beginning of her first year academic experience at University A, Marina had a strong belief that the IELTS knowledge and skills she had acquired through books and free online courses successfully equipped her for her first year university studies. The prior knowledge and skills that she identified as being the most relevant for her current academic practices were essay and paragraph structure. However, Marina discovered that she could not successfully apply this previously-acquired knowledge to the written genres of her university assignments. One of the main reasons Marina struggled was due to the evidence-based focus of her university assignments. Evidence-based writing involves students' ability to "integrate source material effectively and appropriately into written compositions" (Cumming et al. 2016, p. 47). It has been identified as a "gatekeeper skill" in tertiary education (Yaron, 2016, para. 2) and is a critical element of academic writing (Hillocks, 2010). Marina, who did not encounter evidence-based writing in her previous writing practices, struggled to incorporate relevant literature into the arguments in her written assignments.

Furthermore, Marina originally believed that the transfer of knowledge and skills acquired in IELTS to the discipline of her study, i.e. Marine Biology, would occur

unproblematically. Hyland and Shaw (2016) state that students are often misled to believe that knowledge of generic academic writing norms and structures taught in IELTS classes would prepare them for writing in their discipline-specific academic studies. Furthermore, Lea and Street (1998), and Lillis (2001, 2014) challenge the assumption that academic skills can be unproblematically transferred from one context to another. For instance, Wardle (2009) indicates that first-year midwestern university students struggled to report the relevance of their writing skills acquired in the General Writing Skills Instruction course to the writing skills required in other courses. The results from Marina's case seem to echo the findings in Wardle's study. Furthermore, from Marina's case it is evident that the major struggle with learning transfer related to the student's unfamiliarity with the discipline-specific writing norms and conventions, which Hyland and Shaw (2016) claim can only be acquired through exposure to writing in the target community.

7.5.3 RQ 3. How do the students' perception of, and approach to their academic writing practices, including their prior learning, consciously change as their first year of study progresses?

Marina's perceptions of academic writing changed throughout her first-year experience at University A. After Marina started receiving assignments at the beginning of Semester 1, she identified several reasons why the application of IELTS writing skills were problematic for her current academic writing practices. Firstly, she became aware that the focus of IELTS instruction on the Opinion Essay or the Advantages/Disadvantages Essay genres was not necessarily able to assist her to produce her actual first year academic assignments which involved a wider range of more complex written genres.

Secondly, while some written assignments required students to write a similar number of words as in IELTS Task 1 (150 words) or Task 2 (250 words), Marina struggled with assignments that had a smaller word limit, such as the Source Justification in Semester 1 and Source Summary in Semester 2. Her inability to successfully summarise the source information in a one hundred-word paragraph is possibly because of the evidence-based nature of the assignments. Writing summaries based on secondary sources is especially demanding (Cumming et al., 2016). Grose-Fifer and Davis-Ferreira (2018) claim that undergraduate students struggle reading and summarising complex ideas from discipline-specific texts mainly because, firstly, students are challenged to comprehend

specialised literature, and, secondly, they lack explicit instructions and practice with summarising scholarly texts. Furthermore, evidence-based writing has been argued to be a difficult skill to master for L2 students (Pytash, 2017) as it is linked to cultural differences in patterns when expressing thought (Lee, 2018).

The requirement that Marina write evidence-based summaries with such a short word count was particularly demanding. To start with, in Semester 1, Marina's struggle with summarising the key points of the sources as support for her arguments in the Source Justification assignment, ultimately resulted in plagiarism. Grose-Fifer and Davis-Ferreira (2018) confirm that plagiarism may be evoked by students' endeavour to understand the content of secondary sources, as well as the difficulty with summarising sources. In Semester 2, Marina was able to scaffold on her increased awareness of academic integrity, which resulted in her conscious choice of directing her attention to expressing information in a non-plagiarised way. Although when approaching the Source Summary assignment in Semester 2 Marina was still presented with a challenge to summarise information from sources in a required number of words, she perceived that quality of information in her written assignment outweighed the assignment requirement for the word limitation.

Furthermore, in Semester 1, the issue of plagiarism seems to be linked to Marina's uncertainty as to the academic conventions for summarising an argument that was located in different parts of the source text. Although Park (2003) identifies nine major reasons for students' plagiarising source text, some of which are time management, personal values and attitudes towards plagiarism, or temptation and opportunity, the reason that lead Marina to plagiarise in Semester 1 is not one of them. Hence, this finding expands previous research in the area of reasons for international L2 students' plagiarism and source summary. By Semester 2, Marina's evolved understanding of academic writing norms made her summaries less plagiarised and focusing on content and rhetoric in a coherent way.

What is of interest in Marina's case is that challenges regarding plagiarism seem to stem from Marina's lack of practice and, thus, inability to write succinctly rather than the issue of summarising alone. Although Cumming et al. (2016) argue that L2 students' ability to effectively summarise text partially depends on their linguistic abilities, Baba (2009) hypothesises that L2 students' knowledge of semantic systems and the ability to metalinguistically manipulate words is not empirically distinguishable from their overall

language proficiency. Although Marina's ability to summarise source text succinctly did not seem to improve greatly from Semester 1 to Semester 2, she certainly became more concerned with the issue of plagiarism. As a result, her summaries in the Source Summary assignment in Semester 2 resulted in, although lengthier than required, but non-plagiarised written work.

Furthermore, the case study suggests that the written assignment requirements had an important role in shaping Marina's perceptions of academic writing practices. However, the assignment requirements tended to be vague, which caused certain challenges for Marina. Implicit and unclear assignment requirements, such as those for the Source Justification in Semester 1, mislead Marina to believe it was a relatively straightforward and simple assignment. Marina's approach to the assignment fits Zimmerman's (2000) three-phased model for self-regulated learning. In the first phase, forethought, Marina incorrectly analysed the task, which led to poor time management in the second phase. Once Marina started her work on the assignment, her self-judgement of the actual assignment criteria and her desired level of achievement made her return to the first phase in order to renegotiate her strategies towards approaching the assignment. As a result of her time mismanagement, Marina had to i) limit her research for the assignment to short articles, ii) was unable to demonstrate her analytical skills for her discussion of the last chosen source, and iii) was forced to knowingly present the last source incorrectly as a peer-reviewed article hoping that the lecturer would not notice it.

For subsequent assignments, Marina's writing process seemed much more linear. When approaching her assignments, she did not refer back to the forethought stage in Zimmerman's (2000) model as often as when writing Assignment 1. This change in her assignment writing strategy appeared to be linked to, firstly, Marina's struggle to comprehend the marking criteria and, secondly, her perception that international L2 students could not achieve high grades. When approaching her first assignment in Semester 1, Marina attempted to respond to each marking criteria in the Source Justification assignment. However, the struggle to comprehend the marking criteria resulted in Marina's lowered self-efficacy already by the time of her second assignment in Semester 1, Position Paper. Lowered self-efficacy resulted in lack of motivation to pay detailed attention to the marking criteria when writing the Position Paper. Additionally, her belief that as an international L2 student she could not achieve high grades further demotivated from staying focused on the marking criteria. In other words, according to Zimmerman's (2000) model, Marina's motivational beliefs, i.e. low result

expectancy, and the process of task analysis in the first phase, as well as poor attention focus in the second phase led to her choice to carry on with completing assignments in the way she originally intended instead of re-thinking her approaches. However, such more linear approach to her assignments, although resulted in poorer academic outcomes, may still be considered quite positive in Marina's case due to the fact that Marina's psychological state and a study-life balance have improved. In addition, by the end of Semester 2, Marina appeared to have reached self-regulated learning (Zimmerman, 2000). As discussed in Chapter 3, Schunk and DiBenedetto (2015) find that self-regulated learning may be reached when students are able to methodically "adapt their performance to different environmental and personal conditions" (p. 519). Marina seems to have adapted to the educational environment and balanced it with extra-curricula activities.

Another change in Marina's perception when approaching her first-year undergraduate assignments related to academic referencing conventions. Although students had to abide by the APA referencing norms, Marina did not personally recognise the significance of the APA referencing conventions, even though her lecturers directed the student to the library website several times throughout the year. Although, the marks deducted from her Research Project assignment grade in Semester 2 for incomplete or wrong referencing were quite significant, it somehow did not bring changes to Marina's view because of her strong belief that the lecturer was assessing discipline-specific knowledge and not focusing much on organisation of her assignments.

7.6 Chapter summary

This chapter described the findings from the third case study, Marina. As in the previous two chapters, the current chapter started with the description of the student's educational background and pathways to universities in NZ. Then, Marina's self-study towards an IELTS exam were described focusing on the skills, strategies, and knowledge acquired in relation to academic writing. Following that, the chapter presented an in-depth account of Marina's approach to assignments that the student chose to share from Semester 1 and Semester 2 in the 2017 academic year with the focus on critical moments that paved Marina's perception about academic writing. The chapter then presented within-case analysis in relation to the three research questions.

The next chapter presents the fourth case study, Harry.

Chapter 8. Case study 4: Harry

8.1 Introduction

The fourth case study focuses on Harry, a 25-year-old student from Sri Lanka, studying towards a Bachelor's degree in Computer and Information Science at University C. The chapter begins by providing Harry's educational background and pathways to universities in NZ. Then, the student's English learning experience in a short 20-hour IELTS class in his home country is described focusing on the skills, strategies and knowledge acquired in relation to academic writing. Following that, Harry's university undergraduate degree studies are presented, and details of papers, which the student chose to share from Semester 1 and Semester 2 in the 2017 academic year, are discussed.

8.2 Harry's profile and educational background

Although there are two official languages in Sri Lanka, i.e. Singhalese and Tamil, Harry considers English his first language. He grew up speaking English with his parents and grandparents, as the previous generations grew up when Sri Lanka was a British colony with English as the country's official language. Harry regrets that the days of the British Empire are over, and that Sri Lanka gained independence:

The worst thing that happened to Sri Lanka was independence, to be honest. I mean Sri Lankas brought nothing to the country. The British brought railway and so many things to the country. I wish the British still ruled Sri Lanka.

Harry completed his schooling from Year 1 to Year 10 in an international school with English as the medium of instruction. He claimed that his school followed the British curriculum with the same subjects and textbooks as in the UK. However, since Singhalese is an official language in Sri Lanka, the language was adapted into the curriculum and made compulsory until Year 7, which is not part of the British curriculum.

Although most of Harry's teachers were Sri Lankans, they spoke only English to students at all times. Harry could recall that the only difference between his Sri Lankan and native teachers was the accent and register of the language; native teachers could use slang. Students were from different backgrounds and some spoke Sinhalese and Tamil as well as English. Harry said that he picked up Sinhalese and Tamil while communicating with his classmates during their break times and outside the class. Nonetheless, he believed that he learnt only conversational Sinhalese and Tamil, while English was the language that he mastered fully.

With regards to Harry's English writing skills, the student remembered being taught essay structure, which involved writing an Introduction, Body and Conclusion. However, he felt he was never good at expressing his ideas logically in writing. He believed that even his teachers lost hope in developing good writing skills in him:

Teachers just gave up trying to help me because I was not really making that much of an improvement.

In other words, Harry could communicate easily and fluently in English in fairly informal situations, but he struggled with the production of academic written English.

After completing 10 years of his school education, Harry had a choice to continue studying at high school or start a career. He chose to work as a cashier selling jewelry, which continued for four years. In 2016, Harry realised that he wanted to pursue his studies and get a Bachelor's degree in Information Technology (IT), which was his passion. To be enrolled into a Bachelor's degree, he had to complete another year of schooling, so he started studying towards a diploma in IT at an Australian education provider in Sri Lanka. Harry said that his diploma could be equated to a university Foundation Programme and was sufficient to apply for tertiary education later on.

Harry said that assignments during the diploma studies did not entail much writing. He explained that the majority of the assignments were a sequel of questions that could be answered in a short paragraph, a sentence, or bullet points. Harry perceived that teachers did not pay a lot of attention to paragraph structure and were mostly interested in the content. He stated that even though teachers could occasionally correct grammar and spelling errors in students' writing, he did not perceive that such mistakes influenced assignment grades. Harry stated that the main language skill that was required during the diploma studies was reading comprehension to understand assignments and course

material. Furthermore, written assignments did not entail evidence-based writing, which usually requires the knowledge of the APA norms. Since referencing secondary sources was not required in the assignments for his diploma studies, Harry was not introduced to APA referencing.

After completing the diploma studies, Harry decided to acquire his Bachelor's qualification in NZ. Even though Harry had relatives living in the UK, who could help him with accommodation costs, the student chose NZ over the UK as it seemed to him easier to gain a residency status and stay in the country later on. Harry currently has a job related to his major and hopes to gain work experience to later apply for his residency.

8.3 Pathway to current study

Although Harry considered English as his first language and his previous education was completed with English as the medium of instruction, his chosen education provider in NZ did not accept it as the proof of his language abilities and Harry was requested to gain a band score in an IELTS test:

We spoke English, we wrote English, everything. And we had to take this stupid IELTS to get our student visa.

Harry felt indignant and discriminated against, perceiving that different regulations were applied to students from developing countries compared to the rest of the world. He volunteered to be part of my research as he wanted to voice these concerns and let wider population know about, what he perceived, injustice. He really hoped that voicing his concerns would make a start to introducing new immigration rules and regulations for students from the developing countries:

I'm from so called 3rd world country. But I studied in English and I consider it my first language. But I had to take IELTS. I think they should come up with some sort of regulations. [And] implement it for all countries, not just selected countries. Like if you studied in English you don't need the IELTS.

Prior to the IELTS test, Harry had taken a short 20-hour IELTS preparation course (4 days), in order to understand what the IELTS test was and what the requirements were. Although Harry had confidence in his language skills, his IELTS test results were not as high as he would like them to be. He achieved an overall score of 6.0 with band 5.5 for reading and writing, 6.0 for speaking and 7.0 for listening. He was disappointed with the scores as he thought he could have achieved an overall score of 7.0 or even 7.5. Nonetheless, the achieved IELTS score was sufficient for Harry to start his education towards a Bachelor's degree in Computer and Information Science (BCIS) at University C in NZ.

8.3.1 IELTS class experiences

Overall, Harry saw the IELTS class and test as a waste of time and money. He felt confident that after completing all his education in English he had strong reading comprehension, listening, and speaking skills that would allow him to do well at the IELTS test and get the needed IELTS score 6.0. As a result, he was not taking his short IELTS course seriously, nor was he focused much on what was taught in the IELTS class. Harry primarily took the course to learn the test structure, requirements, and the way to complete the answer sheet.

Harry knew that his writing was the weakest among the tested skills. He advised that students in the IELTS class were explained a similar introduction-body-conclusion structure for IELTS Writing Task 2 that was taught at his secondary school. Since he rarely had positive outcomes with essay writing at school, he chose not to put much effort into improving it during the short IELTS class.

The student stated that in his short IELTS course the IELTS instructor gave only one essay topic for practice. After students submitted their essays, the IELTS instructor checked them, provided written comments and advice for improvement. Harry remembered receiving advice to separate his ideas into paragraphs and link paragraphs in a logical way. He did not understand the reason for writing more than one paragraph for a short 250-word IELTS essay but suspected that several paragraphs would make it visually more 'appealing'. Harry stated that the IELTS instructor never mentioned how to structure a paragraph nor when to move on to the next paragraph.

Harry's lack of skills in essay writing was reflected in his IELTS writing score, which was one of the student's lowest, along with the reading score, among the tested skills.

To sum up, Harry's four-day IELTS course did not seem to allow him to learn much regarding academic writing. Additionally, Harry's self-confidence in easily getting a required band score gave him a relaxed approach to studying towards the test. Although Harry was disappointed by the test results, he got the required score and was admitted to University C in NZ.

The following section will describe the nature of Harry's assignments in Semester 1 and Semester 2 in the 2017 academic year.

8.4 Current academic studies

In order to gain a comprehensive understanding of Harry's current studies as well as the influences, experiences, and practices that impact upon and led to changes in his academic writing processes, the following sections look at certain critical moments within the narrative around Harry's engagement with his written assignments throughout the first two semesters of his academic study at University C. Similar to the previous three case studies described in Chapters 5-7, Harry's case describes and examines:

- 1) his assignment instructions and related marking criteria,
- 2) his perceptions about assignment instructions and marking criteria,
- 3) his application of previously acquired writing and study skills,
- 4) the lecturers' grades and feedback, as well as Harry's perception of these.

8.4.1 Semester 1

In Semester 1 Harry took 4 papers: Programming 1, Computing Technology in Society, Enterprise Systems, Applied Communication. None of the papers in Semester 1 were of much interest to Harry as he wanted to major in computer networking. The papers that were aligned with Harry's motivation for study are usually introduced in Year 2.

However, the chosen Year 1 papers were prerequisites to those of Year 2, so he had to

pass them in order to proceed with his studies. He felt that Semester 1 papers were filled with unnecessary written assignments, which he found a waste of time because he perceived his potential work requiring more practical skills than were taught in Semester 1 papers. Harry provided me with documentation for the Applied Communication and the Programming 1 papers. In total, Harry provided me with four written assignment requirements, four written assignments, and two pieces of feedback on the assignments for the Applied Communication paper. For Programming 1, Harry did not receive any formative feedback from the lecturer but only the overall paper grade at the end of Semester 1.

The next section provides detailed information about assignment requirements for Assignment 1 for the Applied Communication paper, Persuasive Essay. It also presents the student's reflection on the assignment requirements, marking criteria, and lecturer's feedback.

8.4.1.1 Applied Communication paper Assignment 1 (Persuasive Essay): Requirements, marking criteria, and student's reflection on them

Assignment 1 was a 600-word Persuasive Essay where students were expected to present their own point of view on a computing or technological topic and support it with at least three secondary sources. As can be seen in Figure 8.1, students had to write on a topic of their choice. Harry decided to write about Artificial Intelligence (AI) as he strongly supported its development and was appalled at those who were not.

Figure 8.1

Applied Communication paper Assignment 1 (Persuasive Essay): Example of potential topics

- For your Individual Argument you must take a point of view on a *computing or technological topic* (for example drones, censorship, biometrics).

Figure 8.2 presents detailed assignment requirements where much attention was paid to the organisational side of students' written works, such as font, writing style, and general essay structure, i.e. introduction, body, and conclusion. Harry, who was poorly equipped with writing skills, had a vague understanding of how to structure his essay and separate the text into the different sections.

Figure 8.2

Applied Communication paper Assignment 1 (Persuasive Essay): Assignment requirements

Write a 600 WORD PERSUASIVE ESSAY (on the same topic) (marked out of 50) a. write in a clear and concise style b. clearly explain AT LEAST THREE points c. SUPPORT EACH POINT with a reference from a different resource d. use APA (6th) style for your referencing e. use a clear structure in your essay with an introduction, body and conclusion f. write double spaced 12pt Times New Roman or Calibri g. Submit an electronic copy of your essay to Turnitin via Blackboard. h. Save a copy of the submission receipt as it may be required as evidence of submission. DO NOT resubmit a previous assessment.
--

Harry advised that when reading the assignment requirements, he focused on those that he could clearly understand and implement, such as font style. The requirements which Harry could not comprehend, such as ‘write in a clear and concise style’, he decided not to dwell on. He worried little about the linguistic side of the assignment as he perceived his language abilities were close to a native speaker. His main aim was to achieve the word count while expressing his opinion on the topic. From his previous writing experience at school, he knew that he either went a great deal over the word limit or did not have enough to say, which was always one of the contributing factors to his poor grades.

Sections b. and c. in the assignment requirements (Figure 8.2) instructed students to present at least three ‘points’ supported by secondary sources. Harry understood that by ‘points’ the lecturer meant ‘arguments’ which had to be supported by three different sources. The assignment requirements also emphasised that each used source had to be cited and referenced following the APA style. However, there was no indication of how to acquire the knowledge or information about the APA norms. Even though this requirement was written in bold, Harry chose not seek clarification or support from his lecturer or the Student Learning Centre. Since the student mainly used electronic materials while writing the assignment, he believed that providing a URL link would suffice.

Harry found the final writing assignment requirement (Figure 8.2), “**DO NOT** resubmit a previous assessment”, funny because he did not have any previous assignment assessed in the first place.

Figure 8.3

Applied Communication paper Assignment 1 (Persuasive Essay): Marking criteria

Essay marking criteria (20%)	
A	Excellent Introduction – topic, points and purpose effectively stated Three points clearly presented with excellent examples or explanations Relevance of points effectively acknowledged Topic sentences are well structured and relevant Paragraph structure is logical and effective Excellent use of transitions Excellent Conclusion – Point of view clearly reinforced Excellent use of language throughout essay All in-text citation accurate APA formatting Reference list accurate APA formatting

Figure 8.3 above presents marking criteria for an A grade. Although Harry realised that he would be marked based on the marking criteria, he perceived them as repetition of the writing assignment requirements. Harry found some marking criteria unclear because they involved terminology related to academic writing, such as ‘topic sentences’. Harry thought that ‘topic sentences’ referred to the first sentence in an essay which would introduce the topic. He could not understand why there was a separate requirement for the structural organisation of topic sentences and how it differed from the structure of any other sentence in an essay. Another term, ‘transitions’, Harry understood as ‘linking words’. Although Harry understood what the marking criterion meant, he acknowledged that he was not successful in having ‘linking words’ in his assignment.

The following sub-section describes Harry’s process of writing the Persuasive Essay. It also provides lecturer’s feedback on the written work and Harry’s perception of it.

Student’s work on the assignment, lecturer’s feedback, and the student’s reflection on them

Before approaching the assignment, Harry could not recall the lecturer explaining what a Persuasive Essay was, nor did he know how to write it. In approaching the assignment, Harry merely aimed to pass:

I still manage to pass the assignments. That’s all that matters.

When writing the assignment, Harry chose to follow the IELTS type of essay which he did in his short IELTS class, i.e. an Advantages/Disadvantages Essay. Even after submitting the assignment, Harry did not know whether there was any difference in writing persuasive and other kinds of essays.

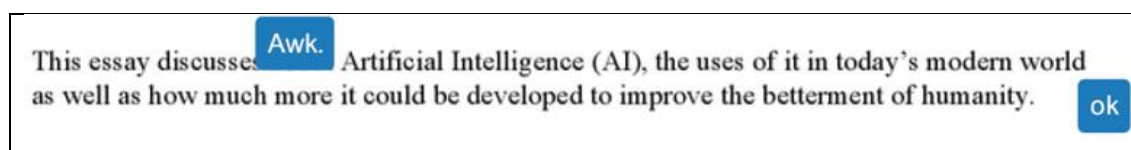
When starting his work on the assignment, Harry wanted to honour and employ the emphasised writing assignment requirements and marking criteria that he believed he understood, such as ‘a topic sentence’, and those which he perceived he knew how to present, such as the APA style.

When writing the assignment, Harry’s main struggle was reaching the word count of 600 words. He managed to write only 423 words justifying it by his inability to find much relevant supporting information on the chosen topic, AI. He was also confused as to what would be considered as three ‘points’ in his essay. Since he approached the Persuasive Essay as an IELTS Advantages/ Disadvantages Essay, he considered that one ‘point’ was an advantage, and the other one was a disadvantage. Consequently, he could not think of what could constitute the third ‘point’.

Harry started his assignment with what he perceived as a topic sentence, which in his understanding was a sentence introducing and outlining the essay. As shown in Figure 8.4, the topic sentence was singled out in a separate paragraph.

Figure 8.4

Applied Communication paper Assignment 1 (Persuasive Essay): ‘Topic sentence’ and the lecturer’s feedback on it



The lecturer’s feedback on the ‘topic sentence’ was quite contradictory (Figure 8.4). The abbreviation ‘Awk.’ was explained below the student’s assignment, and, as seen in Figure 8.5, stood for ‘Awkward’. The lecturer considered that the ‘topic sentence’ needed paraphrasing. On the other hand, it was considered ‘OK’. Harry understood that there was a better way to express his thought but decided that, overall, the lecturer was satisfied with the ‘topic sentence’, since the ‘OK’ comment was given at the end of the paragraph.

Figure 8.5

Applied Communication paper Assignment 1 (Persuasive Essay): Explanation of 'Awk.' comment

Awk.

Awkward:

The expression or construction is cumbersome or difficult to read. Consider rewriting.

Harry considered the second paragraph, shown in Figure 8.6, to be an Introduction, in which he provided a definition of AI and the reason for its limited use. Furthermore, Harry said that an influential opinion of Stephen Hawking was one of the 'points' in his essay, i.e. disadvantage of AI. Harry's strong disagreement with the quote was executed through the capitalisation of the part of the quote that he particularly disagreed with.

Figure 8.6

Applied Communication paper Assignment 1 (Persuasive Essay): Second paragraph – 'Introduction'

Artificial intelligence (AI) is intelligence that is demonstrated by man-made electronic devices. In today's world AI has certain limitations and is not being used to its full potential mainly because people fear that it would be the end of the human race. "the development of full artificial intelligence could spell THE END OF THE HUMAN RACE" (Stephen Hawking) There are several examples of AI in today's technologically advanced world such as, Siri, Cortana, and Google Now.

In the third paragraph, when addressing his next 'point', i.e. advantages of AI, Harry further contested Hawking's opinion by providing own subjective opinion on the usefulness of AI. Since Harry expressed his own opinion, he did not perceive that there was need for in-text citations. In the fourth paragraph, which required in-text citations for actual examples of three technological innovations in support of Harry's opinion about the advantages of AI, Harry did not include any in-text citations either. Harry believed that a Reference List at the end of the assignment would be a clear indication of all the secondary sources he used.

In an attempt to honour the 'Excellent use of transitions' marking criterion (Figure 8.3), Harry employed linking phrases, as highlighted in yellow in Figure 8.7. Although Harry agreed that the linking phrases made his writing more cohesive, he perceived them as ineffective.

Figure 8.7

Applied Communication paper Assignment 1 (Persuasive Essay): The use of linking phrases (highlighted in yellow) and reference words (underlined in green)

One example of how AI could help humanity is that if it has been given all the knowledge of medical research it could even come up with a cure for cancer. The possibilities of what they could do would be endless. Robotic hands have already been developed by Moley Robotics, which is a robotics company based in London, UK. They have recently developed robotic hands that can cook 5-star meals for its master and they have named it, Chef Robot. Chef Robot is not only capable of cooking gourmet meals, but also cleans up the kitchen afterwards. It can also measure the exact amount of ingredients that need to be used in order to cook a specific dish. Another latest development in the world of artificial intelligence, is that it beat the champion of Chinese chess, Lee Sedol. This version of AI was developed by Google and was dubbed AlphaGo. Google is doing all they can to put it into the real world.

Another feature in Harry's writing that did not contribute to cohesive writing related to the frequent use of reference words, such as *it*, *they*, and *this* (Figure 8.7). The frequent repetition of the reference words and the lack of clarity as to what they were referring to, disrupted the flow of the text.

Although the marking criteria required the use of excellent 'transitions', Harry understood that the lecturer did not focus on their effectiveness. Based on the lecturer's comments, as shown in Figure 8.8, Harry perceived that the focus was on the quality of ideas in the Persuasive Essay. Since the lecturer's comments on his ideas were positive (Figure 8.8), he understood that he was on the right track with his writing. Although the lecturer commented on the lack of citations to support the presented information, Harry did not understand why such comments were given in-text and the lecturer did not refer to the Reference List.

Figure 8.8

Applied Communication paper Assignment 1 (Persuasive Essay): The lecturer's feedback on the fourth paragraph (Figure 8.7)

could do would be endless. Robotic hands have already been developed by Moley Robotics, which is a robotics company based in London, UK. They have recently developed robotic hands that can cook 5-star meals for its master and they have named it, Chef Robot. Chef Robot is not only capable of cooking gourmet meals, but also cleans up the kitchen

Interesting Good Citation Needed

Harry concluded his Persuasive Essay in a single sentence, as shown in Figure 8.9. Judging by the marking criteria (Figure 8.3), an excellent conclusion had to clearly reinforce the student's point of view, which Harry believed he achieved in a concise statement.

Figure 8.9

Applied Communication Paper Assignment 1 (Persuasive Essay): Conclusion

Therefore, it is safe to say that artificial intelligence could do more good than harm to the existence of humankind.

Harry did not know how to meet the writing assignment requirement for the APA referencing. As seen from Figure 8.10, Harry provided links to the used secondary sources, which were preceded by relevant headings.

Figure 8.10

Applied Communication paper Assignment 1 (Persuasive Essay): References

References

Examples of AI:

<https://www.forbes.com/sites/robertadams/2017/01/10/10-powerful-examples-of-artificial-intelligence-in-use-today/#137a0262420d>

Chinese Chess Victory:

<https://www.wired.com/2016/03/googles-ai-wins-fifth-final-game-go-genius-lee-sedol/>

Chef Robot:

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=mKCVol2iWcc>

Although Harry was aware of the SLC, he did not think that he could get there any relevant help with his assignment. He considered the SLC dealt with students' language issues, which he believed he did not have:

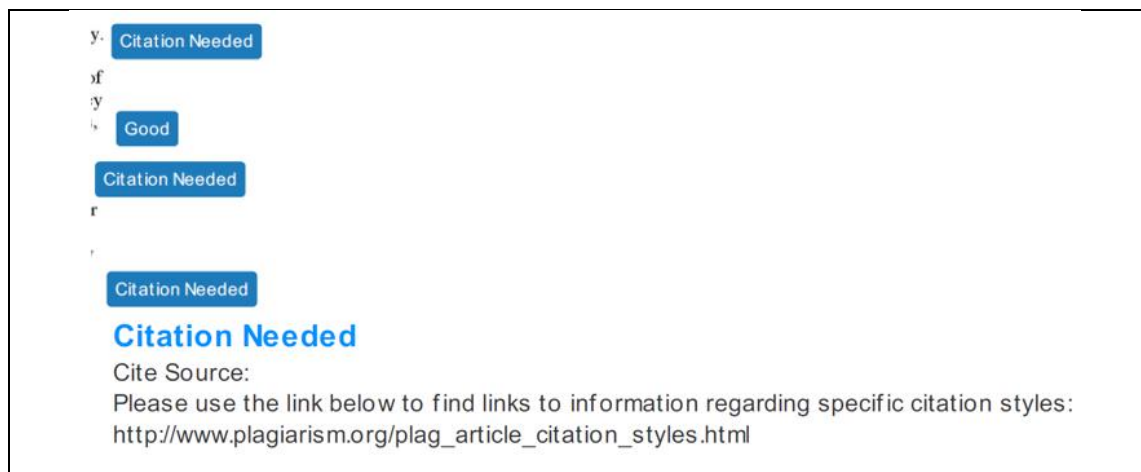
It would be a shame to go there after I finished school Diploma in English. And my school teachers couldn't make a good writer of me, so what these guys can now?

Lecturer's feedback and the student's reflection on it

Although students were provided with marking criteria, the lecturer did not utilise them, and Harry was only provided with comments within his written work. Based on the positive in-text comments, Harry believed that he did a good job considering his own poor essay writing abilities. However, the majority of feedback was related to the absence of citations, as shown in Figure 8.11. To acquaint the student with citation styles, the lecturer provided Harry with a URL link. However, accessing the link Harry found a plethora of lengthy videos and articles on how to understand and teach plagiarism, which he did not see as relevant.

Figure 8.11

Applied Communication paper Assignment 1 (Persuasive Essay): The lecturer's feedback regarding lack of citations



Harry was confused by his grade – 24 out of 50 – because he could not identify any major issues in his work. He perceived that the described ‘points’ were of real value since the lecturer systematically commented ‘good’ or ‘interesting’ (Figures 8.8 and 8.11). Furthermore, he provided the Reference List at the end of his work with all the secondary sources he used in support of his arguments. Harry explained his low mark by the low word count and poor essay structure:

The ideas are good, but the thing is, like, putting it in words are not really great.

The next sub-section describes details of Assignments 2 for the Applied Communication paper, Group Report, and Harry's work on it.

8.4.1.2 Assignment 2 (Group Report): Requirements, marking criteria, and student's reflection on them

The second assignment in the Applied Communication paper required students to write a short analytical and academically researched Group Report. Groups were randomly formed by the lecturer, and students had no influence over who would be in their group. Even though the assignment was not an individual student's work, for the sake of clarity, I will refer to it as Harry's, where appropriate.

When starting their work on the assignment, Harry's group felt the need to identify the group leader. Harry did not want to take the responsibility of the group leader, but he had to exhibit his leadership skills as the other group members refused this role:

I just was forced into it.

The reason for Harry's lack of motivation to be the group leader related to his leadership role in a group assignment for another paper. He perceived that leading two groups would put a lot of pressure and responsibility on him and potentially result in much stress.

Figure 8.12 presents potential topics for Assignment 2. Unlike Assignment 1, potential topics for Assignment 2 were explicitly stated in a numbered list and students were also given an option of coming up with own topic. Harry's group decided to select the second topic from the provided list, Civilian Surveillance, in order to save time and effort on thinking, agreeing, and then confirming a different topic with the lecturer.

According to the assignment requirements (see Figure 8.12), Assignment 2 had to be contextualised for an appropriate organisation. Students were to present the organisation with a "problem" and recommendations on its resolution. Harry did not understand what organisation the assignment requirements referred to, but as a group leader he did not feel in the position to direct this query to his group members.

Figure 8.12

Applied Communication paper Assignment 2 (Group Report): Potential topics

POTENTIAL TOPICS

For this report there must be a “problem” or an issue to be resolved, with a specific focus on the reader/s who will act on the Recommendations made. The report must be **contextualised** for an appropriate **organisation** that would action the recommendations. You may choose a topic from the following list or negotiate an alternative topic with your lecturer.

1. Access control
2. Civilian surveillance
3. Distance learning
4. Cyber security
5. Drone regulation
6. Group option (please confirm the topic with your lecturer)

Figure 8.13 below outlines the structural organisation for the Group Report. Harry did not know some of the elements in the provided structure such as Terms of Reference. However, students were provided with assignment exemplars, so Harry did not need to search the way to approach Terms of Reference. He intended to modify the information in the provided assignment exemplars to fit the purposes of his Group Report.

Figure 8.13

Applied Communication paper Assignment 2 (Group Report): Instructions

INSTRUCTIONS

1. Write an academically researched and professionally formatted report that includes the following content:
 - Title page
 - Terms of Reference
 - Table of Contents
 - Synopsis
 - Introduction
 - Findings
 - Conclusions
 - Recommendations
 - Graphics
 - Citations and reference list APA (6th) formatting
 - 2000-2500 words (4 person group)

Similar to Assignment 1, students were not allowed to resubmit a previous assignment. When approaching Assignment 2, Harry appeared to develop an understanding that the lecturer meant not to plagiarise anyone else’s work:

That's, basically, don't plagiarise.

It should be noted that students were not provided with the marking criteria that were used for grading the paper. Harry did not worry about the absence of the marking criteria because he had assignment exemplars to follow. Additionally, he believed that group work would make writing the Group Report easier due to the contribution of several students. Hence, he was confident he would not fail the assignment.

The following section describes Harry's process on writing the report, lecturer's feedback, and the student's reflection on it.

Student's work on the assignment, lecturer's feedback, and the student's reflection on both of these

This section has two parts. Firstly, I discuss Harry's reflection on the group work process. Secondly, I describe Harry's writing process on the assignment, the lecturer's feedback, and the student's reflection on them.

Harry's reflection on the group work process

Work on the Group Report started at the first group meeting, where Harry was chosen as the group leader. The group brainstormed what had to be researched and divided the workload among themselves. Harry exercised his superior position and delegated all research work to his group members. He worried that he might not come up with sufficient information from secondary sources, as had happened in Assignment 1. His group members agreed on the work distribution, trusting Harry with the later compilation of all the written sections into a logical and coherent report. They also assigned him the writing of the Terms of Reference, Table of Contents, Synopsis, Conclusion, Recommendations, and the Reference List.

Even though Harry took a considerable amount of work on himself, he did not think it would require much of his time. Based on the assignment exemplars provided by the lecturer, Harry perceived that most of the sections he chose to write were one- or two-paragraphs long. With regard to the Reference List, he believed that his group members, who were doing the research, would provide him with references to the resources they used, in the APA style, and he would simply compile them in an alphabetical order.

Harry trusted that his group members would approach their work with responsibly and deliver well-written pieces.

To further ease his work, Harry tried delegating some editing work to his group members by creating a Google Doc hoping that his group members could possibly edit each other's writing. However, to Harry's disappointment, nobody worked on the Google Doc:

I created a Google Doc, so that everyone can work on the same document. But they just gave me separate Word doc. files. It was very difficult for me.

Furthermore, the group members did not seem to be in a rush to complete their written pieces. During the six meetings the group held, Harry had to urge his group members to work faster in order for him to have sufficient time for the final edit. Eventually, Harry lost hope of receiving a high grade for Assignment 2 and redirected his focus on assignments for other papers:

I just gave more priority to other assignments because, like, they [my group members] are not working anyway.

Harry's reflection on the assignment writing process, the lecturer's feedback, and the student's reflection on them

Harry received all the parts written by his group members in Word documents on the due date. When compiling the documents, Harry encountered three major issues. Firstly, he realised that every student wrote an Introduction to their sections of the Group Report with a definition of civilian surveillance. Repetition in each document confused Harry about which of the repeated information to include in the final Group Report and which to get rid of. Secondly, Harry found that the set word limit of 2000-2500 words (Figure 8.13) was insufficient for the work of four people. Since Harry found most of the information in his group members' sections relevant and significant, he decided to sacrifice his written sections and write much shorter Conclusion and Recommendation sections than he originally planned:

I thought of writing a longer Conclusion, but I had to make it short because of word limit.

Thirdly, after compiling all the parts written by his group members, Harry realised that there was no section entitled Findings, which was required by the assignment requirements (Figure 8.13) and present in all assignment exemplars. Hence, Harry had to conduct some research and write the section himself. Fearing to go over the word limit, he used bullet points when writing the Findings sections, as shown in Figure 8.14. While conducting secondary research, Harry was mainly looking for information about the disadvantages of civilian surveillance to communicate the group's attitude towards it:

All my group was also against it. So, I thought there was no point of developing this section [Advantage of Civilian Surveillance] further.

Figure 8.14

Applied Communication paper Assignment 2 (Group Report): Findings section

2.2 Advantages of Civilian Surveillance

- The information about visit sites and operations will be monitored and saved in the system(Eham, 2011)

2.3 Disadvantages of Civilian Surveillance

- Social interaction is an event which changes the behaviour and attitude of the interacting persons. It is a social relationship among at least two persons. It changes the societal conditions of life of the people (Farooq, 2014).
- Non-verbal communication is also termed as physical communication. It is a form of communication where symbols, signs and gestures are used. Unlike verbal communication which involves the use of sound and the ear for hearing, physical communication involves the use of the eyes for seeing and other parts of the body for gesturing (Physical Communication, n.d.).
- E-mails were first created in 1965 and instant messaging in 1974 (Vleck, 2001).
- The first earliest digital communication has ever been recorded was at March 10th 1876 by Alexander Graham Bell (Oxford University Press, (2012).
- Social interaction apparently plays a far more important role in how infants learn language than previously believed according to three related studies conducted by researchers at the University of Washington's Centre for Mind, Brain & Learning (Schwarz, 2003).
- The first recognizable social media site, Six Degrees, was created in 1997 (Hendricks, 2013).
- There are four main overlapping phases in the development of attachment during the first year of a child's life (World Health Organisation, 2004).
- Civilians are compromising their privacy by allowing the government to use closedcircuit television cameras and warrantless wiretapping public spaces (Gonzales, 2016).
- Drones can be used for surveillance (Tony Wu, n.d.).

Note. Irrelevant Information to the Heading is Highlighted in Yellow

Since Harry worked under time constraints, the Findings section was underdeveloped and included bullet points, which did not seem relevant to the section's title, such as the part that is highlighted in Figure 8.14 above. As seen in Figure 8.15 below, the lecturer's feedback questioned the relevance of the information to the section heading.

Figure 8.15

Applied Communication paper Assignment 2 (Group Report): The lecturer's feedback on the Findings section

Comment 11

How does any of this research sit under "Disadvantages of Surveillance"?

Another section that Harry struggled with during his writing process of the Group Report was the Terms of Reference. The student did not comprehend the meaning of the writing assignment requirement to contextualise the Group Report (Figure 8.12) nor the reason for different organisations stated in the Terms of Reference section in assignment exemplars, as was explained in the section above. Harry concluded that since his readership would consist only of his lecturer, he addressed the Group Report to the university where he studied, as illustrated in Figure 8.16, where names have been modified for privacy reasons. In contrast, when writing the Recommendations section, Harry addressed organisations that store civilian surveillance data, as well as governments, with advice for utilisation of civilian surveillance.

Figure 8.16

Applied Communication Paper Assignment 2 (Group Report): Terms of Reference

Terms of Reference

This report was written for the Tutorials Teacher / Teaching Assistant of Applied Communication, Mr. X, at University C. It investigates and discusses *Civilian Surveillance*. This report was requested on **03 April 2017** (Week 6) and is due on **19 May 2017** (Week 10).

Note. Names Changed for Privacy Purposes

The choice of vocabulary and register was one of the prominent features in the Group Report's sections written by Harry. Firstly, the language was rather colloquial, such as "a good or a bad things", "the administrator will report to the boss", or "do away". Secondly, it was quite assertive, for example, "certainly", "can solve this problem", or "there is absolutely no doubt". Harry did not think that the lecturer would pay attention to colloquial vocabulary or register. The student believed the focus when assessing Group Report was on the content rather than such 'not important' elements in his writing.

Indeed, there was no lecturer's feedback on assertive and colloquial language. Most of the lecturer's feedback was on the absence of supporting evidence for subjective opinions, as indicated in Figure 8.17 below. Since this feedback was mainly for the sections written by Harry's group members, the student did not consider taking it on board for his own future writing.

Figure 8.17

Applied Communication paper Assignment 2 (Group Report): The lecturer's feedback on the lack of supporting evidence

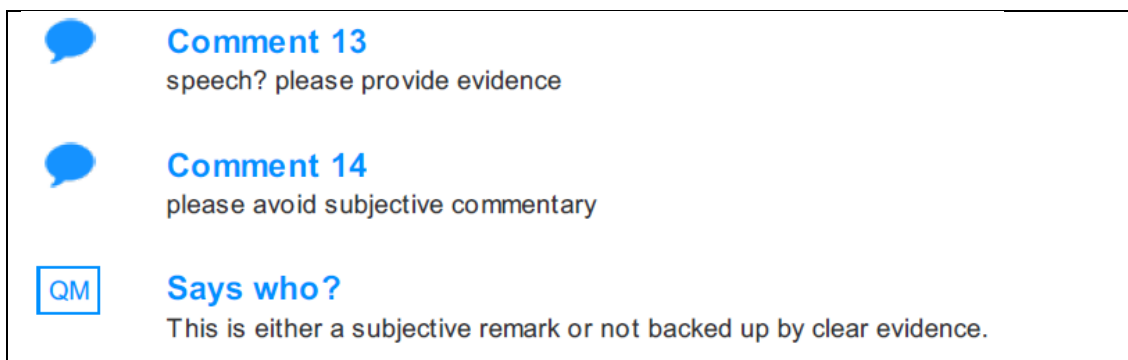


Figure 8.18 below presents the lecturer's feedback on the structural organisation of the Group Report. Harry could not understand why his Group Report lacked the specified structure (Figure 8.13) when he personally included the Findings section and wrote Conclusion and Recommendations sections, each of which were mentioned in the feedback. Furthermore, Harry found the lecturer's advice about gaining clear understanding of the report structure for the exam irrelevant because he was sure the exam would not be in the form of a written Group Report.

Figure 8.18

Applied Communication paper Assignment 2 (Group Report): Lecturer's feedback on the Group Report structure

Much of this seemed like broad or general subjective commentary. You also didn't follow the reporting format that we went through in detail in tutorials, you were also provided with sample reports. Findings/Conclusions/Recommendations. Please make sure you are clear on this for the exam.

Although the marking criteria were not provided to the students before they commenced work on the Group Report, the assignment was assessed based on nine marking criteria. The marking criteria and the percentage each contributed to the assignment grade were as follows: Synopsis (10%), Introduction (5%), Research (20%), Analysis (15%), Action (15%), Referencing (10%), Expression (15%), Graphics (5%), and Format (5%). Although Harry was graded 'Adequate' for all other marking criteria, the 'Expression' marking criterion, which assessed coherent and cohesive writing, was marked 'Good'. Figure 8.19 below shows the lecturer's feedback on the 'Expression' marking criterion.

Figure 8.19

Applied Communication paper Assignment 2 (Group Report): Lecturer's feedback on the 'Expression' marking criterion

EXPRESSION (15%)		3 /
EXCELLENT (4)	Excellent expression, coherent and cohesive document	
GOOD (3)	Expression is clear and mostly accurate	
ADEQUATE (2)	Adequate expression, contains errors throughout, may appear to have different authors	
POOR (1)	Poor expression, incoherent writing style, lack of cohesion throughout document	

Overall, the Group Report was graded 46 out of 100 percent, making it a 'D' grade, for which Harry blamed his group members:

My group just screwed me over. I was expecting at least a C, honestly.

Regardless of low grades for both assignments in the Applied Communication paper, Harry passed the paper due to a high grade on the final exam.

The other two assignments in Semester 1 that Harry chose to share with me were for his Programming 1 paper. The assignment requirements and Harry's written work with the lecturer's feedback are presented in the section below.

8.4.1.3 Programming 1 paper Assignment 1 and Assignment 2 (Reporting Journals): Requirements, marking criteria, and student's reflection on them

Harry shared two out of three assignments for the Programming 1 paper. Since the two assignments had the same writing assignment requirements and the student approached them in a similar way, a decision was made to combine the discussion of both assignments. However, any differences in the student's approach to them are indicated.

The assignments were referred to as Reporting Journals and involved students formally documenting personal course-related learning activities and valuable knowledge encountered throughout the course in lectures, labs or self-directed studies. Harry did not consider Reporting Journals as the assessment tool because he perceived students were assessed by a number of practical tasks during labs and the final exam:

No, we don't have assignments. We have three practical tests and then one final [exam]. This journaling is a waste of time.

Since Harry considered that practical tasks were the means to assess students in the paper, he only skimmed a detailed six-page document with the writing assignment requirements, mainly focusing on the text written in a different font style:

I didn't really read all the requirements. It's too much to read. But those bits [highlighted] were really important for him [lecturer].

The highlighted assignment requirements related to the way to submit the assignments and the link to the APA referencing norms. To acquaint students with the APA norms, students were provided with links to a PDF file and an APA style guide on the university library website. Harry did not understand the relevance of the APA referencing in Reporting Journals where students reported on own learning processes and experiences.

Although Harry could not provide extensive explanation of the assignment requirements, document analysis indicated that the assignment requirements focused on the structural organisation of Reporting Journals and their entries. It stated that, to start with, students had to write their name and student ID number in the header and have page numbers in the footer. Students also had to create a Tabular Timesheet with information about learning activity type, times and locations of work done, and a total number of hours spent studying indicated at the bottom of the Tabular Timesheet. Figure 8.20 below presents an example of the Tabular Timesheet provided in the written assignment requirements.

Figure 8.20

Programming 1 Paper Assignment 1 and Assignment 2 (Reporting Journals): Example of the Tabular Timesheet

The tabular timesheet must also contain the total hours spent learning for the stage.					
For example:					
Entry ID:	Date:	Start Time:	Duration:	Session Type:	Location:
1	18/7/2016	10:00am	2 hours	Lecture	ME103
2	19/7/2016	6:00pm	1 hour	Self-Directed	Home
3	20/7/2016	8:00am	2 hours	Lab Tutorial	MC212
...	...	...	...	...	...
Total:			45 hours		

Each learning activity mentioned in the Tabular Timesheet had to be recorded in a form of detailed, yet simple and concise Reporting Journal entries. Each Reporting Journal entry had to be written on a new page under its number as per the Tabular Timesheet. The language was required to be formal, yet descriptive but not “overly descriptive”. Additionally, Reporting Journal entries had to be professionally formatted and the preferred font type and size were emphasised. Assignment requirements contained explanations of what to include when reporting on lecture sessions, code examples, lab tutorial exercises, and self-directed studying. Students were required to submit Reporting Journals in three Stages in weeks 3, 7, and 11, but all three Reporting Journals were considered as one assignment, which the lecturer assessed at the end of Semester 1. All three Reporting Journals could contribute a maximum of 15% towards the final grade. To track their progress on each Reporting Journal, students received

formative feedback from their classmates in a form of peer reviews. The Peer Feedback and Critique Forms, which consisted of a list of yes/no questions related to the assignment requirements, were provided to the students at the beginning of the labs when peer reviews were done. Harry was not interested in peer feedback and lack of ongoing lecturer's feedback reinforced his disinterest in producing proper work for the assignments.

Figure 8.21

Programming 1 paper Assignment 1 and Assignment 2 (Reporting Journals): Marking criteria for Stage 1

Criteria:	A	B	C	D
Stage 1: -Evidence of learning activities from Weeks 1 to 4	All of the following: • The Stage 1 "B" criteria; • Document has been proofread and is free of spelling and grammatical errors; • Document is well-structured and clear; • Document follows formatting style requirements; • Document includes unique personal code samples; • Document has an APA 6th bibliography.	All of the following: • The Stage 1 "C" criteria; • Evidence of at least 40 hours of learning; • Personal lecture notes; • Descriptions of programming exercises undertaken; • Each entry contains informative and reflective content; • Clear headings including: - Design details; - Implementation details; - Testing details; and when relevant: - Debugging details; - Errors encountered; - Lessons learnt.	All of the following: • Submission before Stage 1 deadline; • Submission is a PDF document; • Cover sheet included; • Student ID in header; • Each page has the page-number out of total-page-numbers in footer; • Evidence of learning activities from each week from 1 to 4; • Completed Stage 1 timesheet; • Completed Week 3 Peer Feedback and Critique Forms attached.	Any of the following: • No submission before Stage 1 deadline; • Submission is not a PDF; • No front page cover sheet included; • No Student ID in header; • Little, or no, evidence of learning activities.

Figure 8.21 above presents the marking criteria for the assignments, indicating that each Reporting Journal was assessed separately. To understand the marking criteria for the 'A' grade, students had to read the marking criteria for all the other grades as they were scaffolded starting from the lowest grade. To receive a 'C' grade, Reporting Journals had to merely be well-formatted, submitted on time and to have two Peer Feedback and Critique Forms attached. To receive an 'A' grade, students had to additionally focus on linguistic clarity, cohesion of the content, presence of unique personal code samples, and a bibliography written according to the APA style.

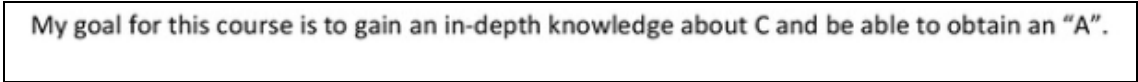
The next sub-section presents Harry's work on the assignments, the lecturer's feedback and the student's reflection on them.

Student's work on the assignment, lecturer's feedback, and the student's reflection on it

Harry found the paper quite challenging as students had to create personal codes and programmes. Harry did not see the 'exercise in paraphrasing' strengthening his practical skills that he wanted to master in the paper. With the primary focus on illustrating his practical abilities, Harry's Reporting Journals mainly consisted of flowcharts and screenshots of 'exciting' practical tasks. As can be seen from Figure 8.22, in his Reporting Journal Entry for the first lab, Harry stated his goal of gaining in-depth knowledge about operating programmes taught in the paper, which he believed would result in a high grade.

Figure 8.22

Programming 1 paper Assignment 1 (Reporting Journal 1): Entry 02 - Lab



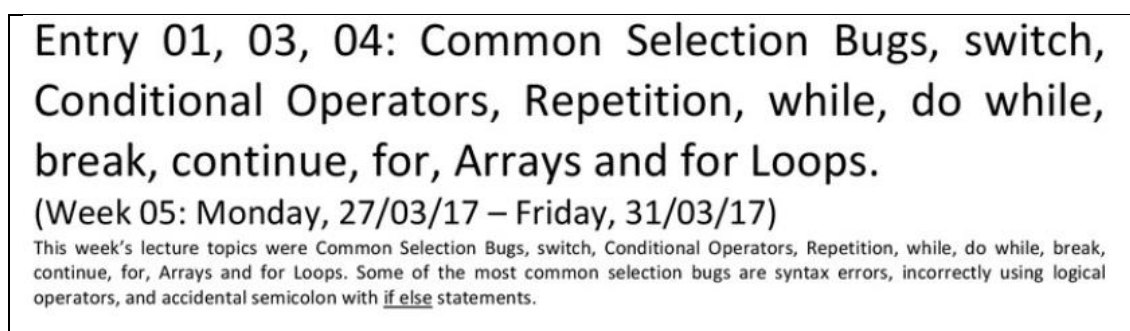
My goal for this course is to gain an in-depth knowledge about C and be able to obtain an "A".

Without thorough reading of the writing assignment requirements Harry was unaware of the importance of formatting. Hence, his Reporting Journals did not have headers or footers, and Reporting Journal entries followed one another without a page break. Moreover, many Reporting Journal entries described two-three learning activities together, as seen in Figure 8.23. Harry explained that since some lectures were sequels of the same topic, he did not see the need of discussing them in separate Reporting Journal entries:

Oh, it's because the topic for all the lectures in one week was the same. We were continuing with the same topic. So, I didn't want to explain the same thing three times. What's the point?

Figure 8.23

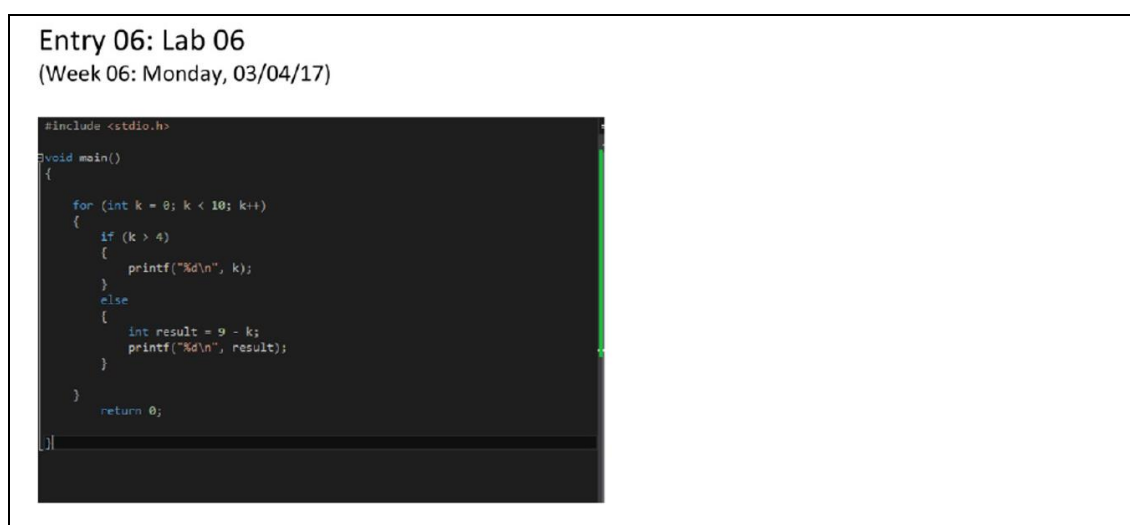
Programming 1 paper Assignment 1 (Reporting Journal 1): Entry 01, 03, 04 - Lectures



While Harry's description of the information taught in lectures lacked detail (Figure 8.23), Reporting Journal entries for labs, where students did practical tasks, presented screenshots and flowcharts for task solutions, as shown in Figure 8.24.

Figure 8.24

Programming 1 paper Assignment 2 (Reporting Journal 2): Entry 06 - Lab 06



Harry explained that students were given one practical task in each lab, so by indicating the date of the learning activity, he believed it was redundant to explain what the screenshots referred to. Furthermore, the student believed that the lecturer had sufficient discipline-specific knowledge to recognise the computer codes in the screenshots and link them to the tasks students practiced in labs.

Reporting Journal 1 was submitted without Peer Feedback and Critique Forms because Harry did not realise that formative assessment was done in class in specific weeks. By

Stage 2, Harry realised that he might lose marks for not attaching Peer Feedback and Critique Forms, so he did so for his Reporting Journal 2. However, Harry forgot to bring the Reporting Journal 2 to class in Week 7 when assignments were peer reviewed, so both peers provided negative feedback on Harry's assignment in the Peer Feedback and Critique Forms. Harry thought that such negative peer reviews could instantaneously make the lecturer fail him. To avoid such outcome, Harry explained the reason for negative feedback below the Peer Feedback and Critique Forms, as seen in Figure 8.25.

Figure 8.25

Programming 1 paper Assignment 2 (Reporting Journal 2): Harry's explanation of why the Peer Feedback and Critique Forms had negative feedback

The reason my peer reviews are all negative is because on the day we reviewed each other's reporting journals is because I did not take my journal to class.

Harry failed his Programming 1 paper in Semester 1. He attributed his failure to the task type, which he believed did not focus on equipping him with any useful skills for his future job. Since Programming 1 was a compulsory paper, he had to re-take it in Semester 2.

The next section discusses Harry's academic work in Semester 2.

8.4.2 Semester 2

In Semester 2 Harry took four papers: Mathematical Concepts, Computer Network Principles, Foundations of IT Infrastructure, and Programming 1. The latter he had to re-take after failing in Semester 1. Most of the assignments for the new papers were practical and did not require lengthy writing. As an example of the type of work students did for the papers, Harry provided me with two assignments for Foundations of IT Infrastructure. The first assignment was referred to as Data Representation in Computers and involved students converting numbers using arithmetic and logical operations, i.e. with no writing using words. The second assignment was referred to as UNIX Operating System, Working with Basic UNIX Commands, and UNIX Shell

Scripting. This assignment involved installing multi-operating systems, performing computer commands, and reporting on the results in screenshots. There were no marking criteria for these two assignments, and Harry explained that answers could be either correct or wrong. Therefore, no marking criteria were necessary.

In addition to the two assignments for the Foundation of IT Infrastructure, Harry agreed to supply me with his Programming 1 assignments done in Semester 2, which provided interesting documentation for comparison with the assignments done for this paper in Semester 1.

Assignment requirements for Programming 1 in Semester 2 were the same as in Semester 1 and are provided in Section 8.4.1.3. Hence, only Harry's writing process on both Reporting Journals in Semester 2 are discussed in the sub-section below.

8.4.2.1 Programming1 paper: Student's work on the assignment, lecturer's feedback, and the student's reflection on it

Similar to Semester 1, in Semester 2 Harry did not thoroughly read the assignment requirements for the Reporting Journals. He perceived that his experience writing his own and peer reviewing other students' Reporting Journals in Semester 1 contributed to his deeper understanding of the assignment requirements. Furthermore, one of Harry's previous classmates provided him with his Reporting Journals as assignment exemplars, which Harry knew he could not use as his own.

Harry believed that in Semester 2 his Reporting Journals were much better compared to those in Semester 1. The improvement was attributed to formatting, which was echoed in the following comment:

There's huge difference in, like, the layout and the way it's formatted.

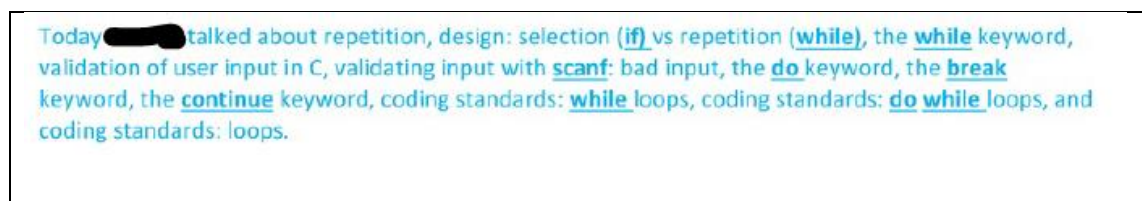
[Reporting Journals in Semester 2] are pretty good.

Indeed, Harry formatted his Reporting Journals in Semester 2 according to the writing assignment requirements. Therefore, he had headers and footers with the requested information. Each Reporting Journal entry was dedicated to a separate learning activity and started on a new page. Reporting Journal entries were also much more informative, included self-reflective notes, and contained a greater number of screenshots, which were labelled and verbally explained. Some information was also boxed or tabulated,

which made it distinct from the rest of the content, making Reporting Journal entries easier to read. Throughout his assignments, Harry chose to mainly use bullet points considering such format a clear visual indication of the next point he was addressing, as well as a quick and concise way of delivering his message. Furthermore, Harry added bibliography lists to both assignments, which mainly referenced lecture slides and the paper textbook. The bibliography lists followed the APA norms.

Figure 8.26

Programming 1 paper Assignment 1 (Reporting Journal 1): Entry 15 - Lab



Today [redacted] talked about repetition, design: selection (if) vs repetition (while), the while keyword, validation of user input in C, validating input with scanf: bad input, the do keyword, the break keyword, the continue keyword, coding standards: while loops, coding standards: do while loops, and coding standards: loops.

When writing the Reporting Journals in Semester 2 Harry chose a light blue font colour, as can be seen in Figure 8.26 above. Harry explained that he was so annoyed and angry with the lecturer for failing him in Semester 1, that he decided to use a hard-to-read font colour to take revenge on the lecturer:

*I just hated the lecturer so much I wanted to make his eyes hurt when
he read it.*

In Semester 2, Harry's Reporting Journals were loaded with discipline-specific terminology (Figure 8.26). Harry believed that the use of discipline-specific terminology was inevitable in describing lecture material or his work process on personal codes, all of which he considered comprehensible to his lecturer. He believed that a lay audience would not be interested in his learning process in the Programming 1 paper, hence, he assumed there was no need for every-day language. Commas and colons (Figure 8.26) were employed to separate computer functions and sub-function because this was the format employed by the lecturer in his lectures and labs when he introduced new study material.

In Semester 2, Harry made sure to bring his Reporting Journals for peer reviewing on specified dates. Figure 8.27 presents the first Peer Feedback and Critique Form for

Reporting Journal 1. There were a few issues with Harry's work as identified by Peer 1 such as errors in the Reporting Journal entries and an absence of personal code samples. Even though each of the Reporting Journal contained a bibliography list, Peer 1 identified that the bibliography and the APA style were not present in Harry's work. Peer 1 considered that Harry's Assignment 1 deserved a 'B' grade.

Figure 8.27

Programming 1 paper Assignment 1 (Reporting Journal 1): Peer Feedback and Critique Form - Peer 1

FORMATIVE REVIEW CHECKLIST:		Tick one:	Yes	No
Is Hilal's Student ID in the header, aligned top-left?			☒	☐
Does each page have page-number out of total-page-numbers in footer, aligned bottom right?			☒	☐
Is the first page of the Reporting Journal the Stage 1 tabular timesheet?			☒	☐
Does the timesheet contain Entry ID, Date, Start Time, Duration, Session Type, and Location?			☒	☐
Is there evidence of at least 20 hours of learning (weeks 1 and 2)?			☒	☐
Does the Reporting Journal contain entries that report on lecture sessions?			☒	☐
Does the Reporting Journal contain entries that report on code examples?			☒	☐
Does the Reporting Journal contain entries that report on lab tutorial exercises?			☒	☐
Does the Reporting Journal contain entries that report on self-directed learning?			☒	☐
Do Reporting Journal entries describe exercises undertaken?			☒	☐
Do Reporting Journal entries contain design details, such as flowcharts?			☒	☐
Do Reporting Journal entries contain implementation details?			☒	☐
Do Reporting Journal entries contain testing details?			☒	☐
Do Reporting Journal entries contain errors encountered?			☐	☒
Do Reporting Journal entries contain debugging details?			☒	☐
Do Reporting Journal entries contain lessons learnt?			☒	☐
Does each entry start on a new page, with the Entry ID at the top-left?			☒	☐
Does the Reporting Journal contain evidence of learning activities from Week 1?			☒	☐
Does the Reporting Journal contain evidence of learning activities from Week 2?			☒	☐
Is the Reporting Journal well structured?			☒	☐
Is the Reporting Journal clear and easy to read?			☒	☐
Is the Reporting Journal free of spelling errors?			☒	☐
Is the Reporting Journal free of grammatical errors?			☒	☐
Does the Reporting Journal include personal code samples?			☐	☒
Does the Reporting Journal have a bibliography?			☐	☒
Is the bibliography in the APA 6 th Edition style?			☐	☒
Review the Reporting Journal marking criteria on page 7 of the assignment brief...				
Based upon the criteria of "Stage 1 – Evidence of learning activities from Weeks 1 to 4", what letter grade would you issue Hilal's Reporting Journal?			Peer Grade	
			B	

Figure 8.28 presents the second Peer Feedback and Critique Form for Assignment 1. Unlike Peer 1, Peer 2 identified the presence of a bibliography in Harry's Reporting Journal 1 but marked the absence of a number of other criteria such as implementation details, debugging details, testing details, which were not identified as absent by Peer 1. Although Peer 2 identified many more issues with Harry's Reporting Journal 1 than Peer 1, he awarded Harry with a higher Peer Grade, i.e. B+.

Figure 8.28

Peer Feedback and Critique Forms for Reporting Journal 1 – Reviewer 2

FORMATIVE REVIEW CHECKLIST:		Tick one:	
	Yes	No	
Is Hilal's Student ID in the header, aligned top-left?	☒	☐	
Does each page have page-number out of total-page-numbers in footer, aligned bottom right?	☒	☐	
Is the first page of the Reporting Journal the Stage 1 tabular timesheet?	☒	☐	
Does the timesheet contain Entry ID, Date, Start Time, Duration, Session Type, and Location?	☒	☐	
Is there evidence of at least 20 hours of learning (weeks 1 and 2)?	☒	☒	
Does the Reporting Journal contain entries that report on lecture sessions?	☒	☐	
Does the Reporting Journal contain entries that report on code examples?	☒	☐	
Does the Reporting Journal contain entries that report on lab tutorial exercises?	☒	☐	
Does the Reporting Journal contain entries that report on self-directed learning?	☒	☒	
Do Reporting Journal entries describe exercises undertaken?	☒	☐	
Do Reporting Journal entries contain design details, such as flowcharts?	☒	☐	
Do Reporting Journal entries contain implementation details?	☐	☒	
Do Reporting Journal entries contain testing details?	☐	☒	
Do Reporting Journal entries contain errors encountered?	☐	☒	
Do Reporting Journal entries contain debugging details?	☐	☒	
Do Reporting Journal entries contain lessons learnt?	☐	☒	
Does each entry start on a new page, with the Entry ID at the top-left?	☒	☐	
Does the Reporting Journal contain evidence of learning activities from Week 1?	☐	☒	
Does the Reporting Journal contain evidence of learning activities from Week 2?	☐	☒	
Is the Reporting Journal well structured?	☒	☐	
Is the Reporting Journal clear and easy to read?	☒	☐	
Is the Reporting Journal free of spelling errors?	☒	☐	
Is the Reporting Journal free of grammatical errors?	☒	☐	
Does the Reporting Journal include personal code samples?	☐	☒	
Does the Reporting Journal have a bibliography?	☒	☐	
Is the bibliography in the APA 6 th Edition style?	☒	☐	

Review the Reporting Journal marking criteria on page 7 of the assignment brief...

Peer Grade
Based upon the criteria of "Stage 1 – Evidence of learning activities from Weeks 1 to 4", what letter grade would you issue Hilal's Reporting Journal? B+

Harry did not pay much attention to peer feedback for two main reasons. Firstly, he believed that if he followed the assignment exemplars supplied to him by his ex-classmate who previously passed the paper, he would pass too. Secondly, Harry mistrusted his peers' judgement on his work and believed that the lecturer had higher competence and would not take into consideration the peers' feedback.

Although Harry believed that his Reporting Journals in Semester 2 were bound for a relatively high grade, the student failed the paper again even though he had used the assignment exemplars and had to re-take it the next year.

The next section presents within-case analysis of Harry's case with relation to the three research questions.

8.5 Within-Case Analysis

The current section attempts to answer the three research questions drawing on the information revealed in the process of data analysis of Harry's case study.

8.5.1 RQ 1. What challenges do international L2 students in the early 21st century encounter throughout the first year of their university studies as they attempt to meet the academic writing standards demanded by their institutions?

Throughout his first year of undergraduate study, Harry encountered a number of challenges that can be organised into four larger categories:

- 1) challenges following academic writing conventions,
- 2) challenges understanding and following assignment requirements,
- 3) challenges related to group work,
- 4) challenges completing assignments under time constraints.

The following sub-sections provide detailed analysis of challenges in each category.

8.5.1.1 Challenges following academic writing conventions

Harry encountered challenges following academic writing conventions which involved i) lack of knowledge about different written genres, ii) academic register, iii) lack of research skills, iv) lack of skills structuring a logical argument, and v) lack of familiarity with the APA referencing conventions.

Lack of knowledge about different written genres

One of the challenges for Harry in Semester 1 related to his lack of knowledge about different written genres, such as Persuasive Essay. Harry's attempt to transfer his knowledge of writing Agreement/Disagreement Essays, acquired in his IELTS class, resulted in a poor outcome, mainly, due to the difference in the two genres. As discussed in Chapter 1, Hyland and Shaw (2016) state that students are often led to

believe that knowledge of generic academic writing norms and structures taught in IELTS classes would correlate with writing in their discipline-specific academic studies. However, Moore and Morton (2005) argue that IELTS writing sub-component presents students with different requirements compared to those demanded at university.

Apart from the Persuasive Essay, Harry had issues writing the Terms of Reference section in the Group Report because he had never been required to do so in his previous studies. Collins Dictionary (2020) defines Terms of Reference as “the instructions given to someone when they are asked to consider or investigate a particular subject, telling them what they must deal with and what they can ignore.” According to McConnell (2020), academic Terms of Reference has its own structural organisation and may include the research background information and objectives, identify issues, as well as include an activity schedule for the implementation of solutions. In an attempt to compose a successful Terms of Reference section, Harry chose to follow the provided assignment exemplars. While following exemplars is often a successful strategy (Bell et al., 2013; Hendry et al., 2012; Li & Hu, 2018), the information provided in the Terms of Reference section in the assignment exemplars confused Harry. Jonsson (2013) and Lillis (2003) argue that students often need explicit instructions about discourse practices. Perhaps the lecturer’s failure to explicitly explain what to pay attention to in the assignment exemplars when approaching each section of the Group Report resulted in Harry’s confusion.

Academic register

Challenges related to coping with written genres was also reflected in Harry’s use of inappropriate register in his academic assignments, such as in the Group Report in Semester 1. The use of inappropriate register appears to be closely linked to Harry’s lack of awareness about the difference between spoken and written genres. Biber et al. (1999), Leedham (2015), and Bychkovska and Lee (2017) came to the similar conclusions in their research with L2 students stating that L2 students had difficulty differentiating between what was appropriate in spoken language and what should be used in the written form. Nonetheless, the fact that the marking criteria for the Group Report did not involve assessment of students’ use of appropriate register signals to its little significance in Harry’s disciplinary writing.

Lack of research skills

When approaching the Persuasive Essay in Semester 1 Harry was presented with a challenge related to his lack of research skills. Cavagnetto (2010), Fischer et al. (2014), and Sadler (2004) argue that first year students generally lack research skills and tend to make claims without relevant support from the literature. A basic university library and Google Scholar search on Harry's research topic for the Persuasive Essay, AI, provided me with a plethora of references. The fact that Harry used only non-academic websites when writing the Persuasive Essay may be related to his inability to understand how to approach the required written genre.

Lack of skills structuring a logical argument

Another challenge that Harry faced related his lack of skills structuring a logical argument. For example, when writing the Persuasive Essay in Semester 1, he was unable to organise ideas in a cohesive way. Ahmad et al. (2019) state that creation of a cohesive text requires semantic and syntactic bonds, which may be achieved by cohesive devices, such as conjunctions, references, substitutions, and ellipses. In Harry's case, the frequent use of reference words (Figure 8.7 in Section 8.4.1.1) disrupted the flow of the Persuasive Essay. Liu and Braine (2005), and Abdul Rahman (2013) argue that L2 students often overuse certain types of cohesive devices, among which are reference words, which results in non-cohesive writing. Asher (2004) states that reference words usually require clear 'discourse topics' to play the role in elaboration between two lexical units, i.e. an antecedent and a substantive, which was not always obvious in Harry's Persuasive Essay.

Lack of familiarity with the APA referencing conventions

Another challenge encountered by Harry in Semester 1 related to his unfamiliarity with the APA referencing conventions. When writing his Persuasive Essay in Semester 1, Harry was unaware that he had to provide in-text citations. Strangfeld (2019) claims that first-year students may not cite their written work due to unfamiliarity with the citation techniques as well as lack of realisation concerning what information needs to be cited. Harry did not seem to be making an effort to find out about the referencing conventions in Semester 1 as it did not seem to him of much significance.

8.5.1.2 Challenges understanding and following assignment requirements

Harry's challenges with understanding and following assignment requirements involved i) misconceptions about the required focus and ii) lack of familiarity with terminology used in assignment requirements.

Misconceptions about the required focus

The case study suggests that one of the challenges faced by Harry was a misconception as to where his focus should be directed. In Semester 1, when starting Programming 1, Harry believed that the paper focused on developing students' practical skills, as those are the type of skills that he believed would be relevant to his future job in the field. Harry may not have realised that IT personnel need good writing skills. (Pomykalski, 2006; Simkin, 1992) In fact, Pomykalski (2006) supports writing components integrated into the Information System curriculum. Harry's misconception about what would assist him in getting pass grades for his assignments resulted in his superficial attention to the assignment requirements for Reporting Journals, which in turn led to a failure in the paper.

Another reason for Harry's misconception about the required focus related to the fact that assignment requirements were quite lengthy, such as those for Reporting Journals in the Programming 1 paper in Semester 1. Levin (2000) and Quinn (2013) argue the importance of detailed assignment requirements, which provide students with an opportunity to understand what is required from them, particularly when it comes to L2 students in EMI institutions who are not necessarily equipped with academic writing norms in the L2 context. However, in Harry's case, it appears that lengthy and detailed assignment requirements led to his lack of motivation to thoroughly familiarise himself with them. Since Harry had a mistaken idea of how the paper was assessed, he did not perceive the need to spend a considerable amount of time on understanding lengthy assignment requirements in detail. Instead, Harry mainly skimmed the document.

When presented with the same assignment requirements in Semester 2, Harry did not seem to consider the need to familiarise himself with the assignment requirements in depth, believing that by that time he had a clear understanding of what was required from him. Such perception related, firstly, to Harry's strong belief that he had developed a clear understanding of the assignment requirements through peer reviews, and, secondly, to his intention to follow the assignment exemplars he had been given by his classmate. In other words, Harry believed that he had sufficient knowledge of what

was required to achieve a successful outcome. Fletcher (2004) believes that the effectiveness of literacy practices student employ when writing their assignments depends to a large extent on students' perception and familiarity with the assignment requirements.

Even though Harry believed he knew what was required of him to successfully complete the assignment, his attitude to the paper in Semester 2 was quite negative. In fact, Harry felt anger when re-taking the Programming 1 paper. Rowe and Fitness (2018) indicate that negative emotions have a detrimental influence on students' learning performance. Pekrun et al. (2004) link negative emotions to task-irrelevant thinking. However, although Rowe and Fitness view anger as a factor that increases aggression, they also argue that it may also serve as a motivator to remove the perceived goal obstruction. In Harry's case however, his anger was not constructive. For example, his choice of font colour did not meet the requirement for professional formatting and instead seemed to create a potential obstacle for his assignment's successful outcome.

Lack of familiarity with terminology used in assignment requirements

Another challenge that Harry was presented with at his first year studies related to his unfamiliarity with terminology used in assignment requirements. For example, in Semester 1, the Persuasive Essay requirements contained terminology that was unfamiliar to Harry, such as 'topic sentences'. Another assignment that presented Harry with unfamiliar terminology was the Group Report in Semester 1, i.e. he did not understand the meaning of contextualising the report to a specific audience. As was mentioned in Sarah's case, Saddler and Andrade (2004) argue that confusion regarding certain assignment requirements can potentially result in students' disinterest and demotivation towards academic achievements.

Even though Harry was presented with assignment exemplars for the Group Report, he was unable to adapt the information to suit his assignment. Campbell and Smala (2016), Carless and Ho Chan (2016), Bell et al. (2013), and Handley et al. (2013) state that assignment exemplars require additional explanation from the teachers in order to help students understand marking criteria and achieve positive academic outcomes. Harry's unwillingness to query unclear assignment requirements within his group seemed to be linked to his fear of being humiliated or 'lose face'. Young (2017) states that international students may avoid asking questions as doing so exposes their weaknesses and results in a 'loss of face'. The fear of losing face influences the individual's

decision-making processes and help-seeking behaviours in a particular context. Heath et al. (2017), and Mak and Cheung (2012) claim that people with greater face concerns tend to be reluctant to adapt help-seeking behaviour. It appears that as the group leader Harry felt reluctant to seek support from the other group members due to the assigned status.

8.5.1.3 Challenges related to group work

One of the biggest challenges for Harry in the Applied Communication paper in Semester 1 was working in a group. Morton et al. (2015) point out that at the beginning of their first year studies students find group work challenging. There appeared to be two major reasons that contributed to Harry's struggle with teamwork. Firstly, Harry seemed to wish to freeload when working in a group, i.e. unevenly spreading workload on the assignment (Morris & Hayes, 1997). Khosa and Volet (2013), Thom (2020), and Scager et al. (2016) note that group assignments do not necessarily result in a cooperative activity. Khosa and Volet (2013) argue that collaborative learning happens when students see value in such work mode, particularly when they exchange, scaffold and expand on each others' knowledge. Secondly, when working in a group, Harry found himself being a constant motivator, which was challenging. He struggled to keep encouraging his group members to complete their parts of the assignment in order to allow him sufficient time to compile and edit the Group Report. Eventually, when Harry's group members completed their written parts, Harry was left with limited time for the assignment compilation and editing, particularly because he found himself conducting secondary research for the Findings section.

8.5.1.4 Challenges completing assignments under time constraints

Time constraints were one of Harry's biggest challenges, firstly, due to the overall workload he had with his papers, and, secondly, the work mode on the Group Report appeared to limit his control over its completion:

I had four assignments at that same period due. Like, 1-2 day after each other.

As indicated in the literature review, in HE, students are commonly assessed through writing (Tran, 2013; Uysal, 2010). Writing is a time-consuming activity and it comes as no surprise that Harry, who was required to complete approximately 10 assignments in the four-months semester, worked under time constraints.

As far as the Group Report was concerned Harry was frustrated by what he saw as a lack of cooperation on the part of his fellow group members. He felt that he had little control over what happened. Webb et al. (1998) and Stefani (1998) argue that if students feel they do not have control over parts of their group assignments this may impact productivity and learning. Initially, Harry believed that the contribution of each group member would result in immediate outcomes and fast completion of the Group Report. Harry could not have taken into consideration the fact that his group members may have had deadlines similar to his own, leaving them little choice but to work close to the group project deadline.

8.5.2 RQ 2. In what way do international students' prior learning and experiences, including preparatory academic English courses such as IELTS, successfully prepare these students for the challenges they encounter throughout the first year of their academic study?

When Harry enrolled at university C, his knowledge about written genres was limited and the genres which he was familiar with were not particularly helpful. Moreover, Harry did not consider himself a successful writer. Bruning and Horn (2000), and Pajares (2003) argue that students' perception of their own competence in writing is positively correlated with their writing processes and academic outcomes. Furthermore, Harry believed that his Bachelor's studies at University C in the field of BCIS would not entail much writing. As was mentioned earlier, Brookes (2017) states that most teaching in the STEM subjects comes down to equipping students with the technical aptitudes, such as laboratory tests and practical research. Indeed, the majority of Harry's papers involved practical assignments with writing limited to one-two paragraphs, if at all. Therefore, when presented with writing assignments for the Applied Communication paper in Semester 1, Harry was presented with a number of challenges which were discussed in relation to RQ1 above.

8.5.3 RQ 3. How do the students' perception of, and approach to their academic writing practices, including their prior learning, consciously change as their first year of study progresses?

The way Harry approached his writing assignments at the beginning of his first year studies at University C was determined by several factors. Firstly, Harry's belief that writing would not be the predominant type of assessment in his area of studies, Computer and Information Science, resulted in his lack of motivation to read the assignment requirements properly and acquire the necessary academic writing skills from the start of Semester 1. As discussed in Chapter 3, Ushioda (2015) states that motivation determines students' direction, intensity, and persistence in achieving goals in a particular social context.

Secondly, the lecturers' failure to communicate the importance of writing skills career-wise in Harry's discipline area resulted in the student's misconception as to where the focus of his academic workload should be directed, particularly in the case of the Reporting Journals for the Programming 1 paper in Semester 1. As was mentioned earlier, Simkin (1992) and Pomykalski (2006) identify writing as an important skill for IT specialists. However, Harry perceived that acquisition of practical skills was of core value for his potential future job, hence he focused on developing and demonstrating those. However, when he was required to complete the same paper in Semester 2, Harry's learning approach changed. First of all, he realised the importance of the written component of the assignments, consequently he modified his learning behaviour. To be exact, he demonstrated some adaptive behaviour in seeking assignment exemplars from his ex-classmates. Second of all, his Reporting Journals in Semester 2 were much better formatted, which seemed to be the focus of the assignment requirements.

Harry's change of learning behaviour in the Programming 1 paper throughout Semester 1 and Semester 2 may be described through Zimmerman's (2000) model of self-regulated learning, discussed in Chapter 3. When approaching the Reporting Journals in Semester 1, Harry's task analysis in the first phase of Zimmerman's model, forethought, resulted in misdirection of his learning, i.e. focusing on practical tasks and not on writing Reporting Journals. The fact that there was no formative feedback from the lecturer throughout the semester resulted in Harry's lack of understanding of the direction of his learning and lack of realisation that he might need to return to the forethought phase of self-regulated learning to negotiate his learning behaviour. In fact, it was only at the end of the Semester 1, when Harry found out he failed the paper, that

he reached the third phase of the model, self-reflection, which allowed him to self-evaluate his unachieved academic goal, a pass in the paper. This failure activated Harry's causal attributions, such as effort and resulted in Harry's realisation that he might require external assistance with the assignments in Semester 2. Harry re-negotiated his learning strategies and chose to demonstrate adaptive help-seeking behaviour from the beginning of Semester 2. Although Harry was provided with peer feedback in Semester 2, the absence of the lecturer's written feedback on the Reporting Journals meant that Harry did not really understand what he needed to improve, and, consequentially, he failed the paper again in Semester 2. The importance of lecturer feedback is underlined by research (Çakir et al., 2016; Johnson & Cooke, 2016; Paterson et al., 2020) which indicates that such feedback enables students to improve their learning outcomes. The importance of such feedback is stressed by Glazzard and Stones (2019) who claim that students value the lecturer's feedback above that of their peers. Harry was not alone in dismissing the feedback from his peers. Nicol et al. (2014) point out that peer feedback is often viewed negatively as students feel that their fellow students have limited expertise in the discipline area.

8.6 Chapter summary

This chapter described the findings from the fourth case study, Harry. As in the previous three chapters, the current chapter started with the description of the student's educational background and pathways to universities in NZ. Then, Harry's experience with the IELTS preparatory course was described focusing on the skills, strategies, and knowledge acquired in relation to academic writing. Following that, the chapter presented an in-depth account of Harry's approach to assignments that the student chose to share from Semester 1 and Semester 2 in the 2017 academic year with the focus on critical moments that paved Harry's perception about academic writing. The chapter then presented within-case analysis in relation to the three research questions.

The next chapter collaborates and discusses the results from all four case studies conducted in this research.

Chapter 9. Discussion

9.1 Introduction

The chapter presents a cross-case analysis of the research findings presented in the previous four chapters in response to the three RQs and the relevant existing empirical research. To start with, the chapter revisits the concept of cross-case analysis and the way it was employed in the current research. Next, the challenges that the four international L2 students encountered in their first year undergraduate writing practices are discussed. The chapter then discusses the role of agency, self-efficacy and motivation in the formation of students' perceptions of academic writing practices in the early 21st century. The chapter is then summarised.

9.2 Cross-case analysis

This section presents a cross-case analysis of the key research findings. A cross-case analysis usually follows a within-case analysis in the data analysis process and involves detection of patterns, production of explanations, and the development of in-depth thematic responses. Hence, a cross-case analysis leads to the identification of broad categories based on the findings from all the case studies (Dornyei, 2007). These identified broad categories further allow the researcher to construct models in response to the research questions (Dornyei, 2007).

As discussed in Chapter 4, a cross-case analysis in this research was done through the deployment of the 'constant comparative method' (Merriam, 1998), which involved constant comparison of "one segments of data with another" (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 32) in order to reveal any similarities and differences between the cases (Yin, 2003). As a result of the cross-case analysis, firstly, four broad categories were identified classifying the participants' challenges with academic writing in their first year undergraduate writing practices. Secondly, the qualitative analysis of the individual case studies indicated that self-efficacy, agency, and motivation are central in the participants' attempts to deal with the challenges they face. As discussed in Chapter 3,

self-efficacy is students' ability to accomplish a task even in a novel situation. The level of students' self-efficacy often depends on their abilities to set certain goals and employ effective learning strategies in order to achieve the desired results. Students' self-efficacy may affect their confidence level to proceed with the chosen actions. In other words, students' self-efficacy is linked to students' ability to exhibit their agency. Furthermore, motivation is integral to students' sense of self-efficacy, and in addition, it impacts on students' agency. Therefore, students need to be motivated in order to use suitable actions in their pursuit of own set goals.

The next section presents the discussion of the categories related to the challenges the participants faced with academic writing. Following that, the role of self-efficacy, agency and motivation in the formation of the participants' perceptions regarding their academic writing practices at NZ HE institutions are discussed.

9.2.1 International L2 students' challenges with academic writing

What challenges do international L2 speakers in the early 21st century encounter throughout the first year of their university studies as they attempt to meet the academic writing standards demanded by their institutions?

The cross-case analysis resulted in the identification of the following four primary challenges that international L2 students encounter throughout the first year of their university studies when attempting to meet the academic writing standards demanded by their institutions:

- 1) challenges following academic writing conventions,
- 2) challenges understanding and following assignment requirements,
- 3) challenges interpreting feedback,
- 4) challenges involved in completing assignments on time.

Each of these challenges are discussed in the sections below.

9.2.1.1 Challenges following academic writing conventions

One of the major challenges across all cases involved the difficulty participants encounter when they attempt to follow academic writing conventions. This challenge appears, to a large extent, to arise because students have little insight into the different genres they encounter in the first year of undergraduate study. As discussed in Chapter 1, the research indicates (Guan & Jones, 2011; Holmes, 2004; Hyland & Tse, 2007; Johns, 2008; Moore & Morton, 2005; Paltridge et al., 2009) that IELTS and EAP mainly teach students how to write essays, hence they do not prepare them for most of the written genres that may be encountered in the academy. Therefore, lack of training in different genres at pre-degree level seems to contribute to the challenges with academic discipline-specific writing at HE institutions in NZ.

Students' difficulties when dealing with a variety of written genres in their studies intensifies when they have to deal with a mix of written genres incorporated into one assignment. Leedham (2009) argues that the tendency of the academy to conflate written genres in written assignments in the early 21st century is linked to the concept of massification, neoliberalism, and market-driven economy, as discussed in Chapter 1. Firstly, Leedham claims that course designers tend to incorporate genres from different fields of study in order to advertise innovation in teaching and assessment, and attract a heterogenous student population. Secondly, course designers attempt to utilise professional genres in order to prepare students for their potential future industrial practices, something which is regarded as vital in the era of knowledge-based economy. Thirdly, DeWitt and Alias (2017), and Tuck (2017) argue that in response to the increased emphasis on the soft skills required in the 21st century, such as communication, critical thinking, and problem-solving skills, students are also required to master the skills of communicating their ideas via a wide spectrum of often multi-modal modes of communication, such as posters, or blogs. However, students' inability to juggle between various genres seemed to relate to their lack of genre awareness (Tardy et al., 2018) because students rarely encounter a variety of genres in their pre-degree courses. The research findings indicate that instead of lecturers providing students with an explanation of the features of various written genres in their disciplines, students are often expected to acquire mastery of these genres on their own.

The concept of traditional academic writing appears to exercise a strong hold on the participants in this study. Although it was apparent that in some cases lecturers were not looking for essay-type answers, as in the case of Marina, participants tended to respond

to their assignments by relying heavily on what they had learnt, i.e. what was appropriate for essays. This stance appears to have been influenced by the individual educational environment in which the participants operated.

In addition to the issues with genre writing, students' lack of practice with evidence-based writing and lack of knowledge about the APA referencing conventions further hampered them. Challenges related to evidence-based writing and the APA norms involved issues related to paraphrasing scholarly texts, avoiding plagiarism, writing concisely and finding their own voice. Furthermore, the case study findings indicate that one of the challenges students encountered related to their ability to comprehend specialised literature. Each of these points are discussed in sub-sections below.

Issues related to paraphrasing and avoiding plagiarism

Because students have few opportunities to practice paraphrasing in the pre-degree courses, they find it difficult to paraphrase relevant literature. For the participants in the current case studies this issue primarily stemmed from their lack of confidence in their own linguistic abilities. In other words, the participants had low self-efficacy with paraphrasing literature sources. The research findings indicate that motivation played its role in the development of some participants' self-efficacy with regards to academic writing. As Schunk (1984), Bandura (1986), Multon et al. (1991), Pajares (1996), Andrew (1998), and Komarraju and Nadler (2013) point out, self-efficacy is correlated with motivation. In other words, a high level of motivation increases students' self-efficacy. Thus, highly motivated participants in the current case studies, such as Reema and Sarah, sought help to improve their ability to paraphrase, which, ultimately, increased their self-efficacy in the area. In Semester 1, these highly motivated participants, rephrased the sources and, in Reema's case, approached proof-reading services in order to correct inaccuracies in the language (Section 6.4.1.1.). It should be noted that Sarah's motivation fluctuated somewhat in the course of her first-year study, which was determined by the type of assessment required. For example, in Semester 1, when the students were simply required to supply the correct answers to the assignment questions (Sections 5.4.1.1. and 5.4.1.2.), Sarah was not greatly motivated to develop her paraphrasing skills. As a result, her self-efficacy with regards to paraphrasing was low. However, in Semester 2, Sarah's motivation for developing this writing skill substantially increased as she realised its importance for her Communicating for a Knowledge Society assignments (Section 5.4.2.2.). Therefore, she paid particular

attention to referencing sources that she was referring to in her writing and making sure that she paraphrased the source texts (Section 5.4.2.2.).

In contrast, those participants, who were poorly motivated towards development of academic writing skills, i.e. Marina and Harry, directly copied the source texts and hoped that it would go unnoticed by the lecturer (Sections 7.4.1.1. and 8.4.1.1.). In the case of Marina, the participant's lack of familiarity with academic integrity and her inability to summarise information located in various parts of secondary sources resulted in plagiarism (Section 7.4.1.1). However, while in Semester 1 Marina indicated her inability to metalinguistically manipulate words when paraphrasing secondary sources, the case study indicated that she managed to develop this skill by Semester 2 (Section 7.4.2.1.). This development was mainly the result of Marina's increased perception that the ability to write in an academically acceptable fashion was essential (Section 7.4.2.1.).

Issues related to succinct writing

The case studies indicate that concise writing was one of the problems for the participants. Grose-Fifer & Davis-Ferreira (2018) confirm that undergraduate students struggle to read and summarise complex ideas from discipline-specific texts in a concise way, which in the current case studies was primarily due to two major reasons. Firstly, the challenge with evidence-based writing stemmed from the participants' unfamiliarity with it as IELTS writing is based on students' own ideas. Secondly, participants, who had some practice with evidence-based writing in their FP/EAP courses, i.e., Sarah and Reema, found that the amount of information related to each section of their assignment at university was much larger than offered in the pre-degree courses. The vast spread of the information on a particular topic in the literature created troubles for its compression.

The participants exhibited their own agency in setting up their priorities when attempting to write succinctly. In one particular case, Reema saw the importance of not going over the word limit in her assignments because she considered that doing otherwise may negatively impact on her grades. As a result, she employed a range of effective strategies, such as reducing topic sentences to short phrases. In contrast, the participants whose strategy was to meet the main aim of the assignments, particularly summarising, disregarded the word count in their writing assignments. For example, in Marina's case, the participant went over the word limit in both assignments that

required summarising sources, in Semester 1 and 2. However, due to the absence of lecturers' comments on the word count in students' assignments, Marina considered that disregarding the word limit requirement was an effective study strategy.

The loss of students' voice

Lack of familiarity with the way literature resources should be cited when constructing own arguments appeared to reduce students' self-efficacy with regards to the presence of own voice. A vivid example of this was Marina's confusion regarding her attempts to express own 'opinion' on the topics of her written assignments in Semester 2, as detailed in Section 7.5.1.1. Wette (2010) argues that students find it challenging to clearly establish their voice and position when integrating references to their own work. The case studies showed that a lack of practice with evidence-based writing in their pre-degree courses left the participants unable to establish their own voice in their writing. However, the participants' unwillingness to lose their voice in their writing was the result of an increased agency. In one particular case, the participant Marina, made a conscious decision to present her own opinion by citing paraphrased sources only at the end of paragraphs, as was discussed in Section 7.5.1.1. This way the participant perceived that she clearly indicated her own opinion but that it simultaneously could be found in secondary sources. In contrast, those participants who were instructed in their pre-degree FP or EAP courses on the conventions of citing, as in the cases of Sarah and Reema, seemed to be empowered to utilise those skills to develop authorial voices when composing their undergraduate writing assignments. The development of an authorial voice was particularly evident in Sarah's assignments in Semester 2. In both her summary of resources for Assignment 1 and her poster for Assignment 2, her own ideas were appropriately supported by sources throughout, as was discussed in Section 5.5.2.

Issue of comprehending discipline-specific literature

One of the issues with reading specialised literature related to the participants' struggle to comprehend discipline-specific vocabulary. Stigger (2019) maintains that pre-degree courses often equip students with generic vocabulary. This teaching strategy might be because EAP teachers lack familiarity with discipline-specific vocabulary related to their students' future areas of studies. Additionally, as discussed in Chapters 1 and 2, this also happens because EAP mainly caters for students from a wide range of disciplines, thus EAP teachers attempt to teach the general academic vocabulary list which may be most sufficient for the students' participation in their particular discipline area (Durrant, 2016; Wingate, 2015). However, in Sarah's case, even when she acquired

knowledge of some discipline-specific vocabulary during the FP, she still struggled with new vocabulary in her discipline areas, mainly due to the vast number of discipline-specific words. The participant's low self-efficacy with regards to learning discipline-specific vocabulary seemed to increase her agency through finding strategies that would lead to positive outcomes. Bandura (1997) states that self-efficacy is the foundation of students' agency. He indicates that while highly efficacious students assert their actions in completing a task, students with low efficacy attempt to avoid tasks that they believe they cannot handle. Although in the current case studies Sarah had low self-efficacy with discipline-specific vocabulary, she drew on the skills she had developed with learning English vocabulary to master discipline specific words during her previous educational practices. In other words, she was equipped with the tools and techniques for learning new vocabulary. Therefore, when approaching unfamiliar vocabulary, she demonstrated her own agency through the employment of a range of learning strategies, such as using an English into English dictionary or translating vocabulary into her first language. With the heavy workload of her academic studies, it appears that the use of L1 was ultimately a more effective study strategy for the participant to comprehend discipline-specific vocabulary in her assignment requirements. The utilisation of L1 when reading assignment requirements required less time for comprehension, which was valuable considering that students often worked under time constraints.

9.2.1.2 Challenges understanding and following assignment requirements

The assessment requirements were another challenge for the participants. Winkelmes et al. (2016) suggest that clear assignment instructions influence students' abilities to accomplish a specific assignment and improve their academic performance. The case studies show that the lack of clarity of assignment requirements led to participants' confusion primarily regarding the structural organisation of their written work, which added to the participants' concern that they would not be able to produce acceptable academic English.

The case studies indicate that at the beginning of Semester 1, most participants seemed to pay attention to features that were the focus in their previous language courses, such as linguistic accuracy and essay structure. However, by the end of Semester 1, the participants' ongoing language development coupled with their realisation that the structural organisation of written tasks in their previous studies, such as IELTS or EAP,

did not fit university assignments seemed to reduce their self-efficacy. The case studies then indicate that by the beginning of Semester 2 all participants identified the lack of attention lecturers pay to linguistic accuracy and structural organisation of their undergraduate written assignments. In particular, the marking criteria for some of Sarah's and Harry's assignments did not include language criteria, as was shown in Figure 5.9 in Sections 5.4.2.1. in relation to Sarah's Chemistry assignments. Furthermore, low marks for these features in the marking criteria further supported the participants' beliefs that those were of little importance. The fact that surface-level language features seemed to be considered as unimportant may relate to the importance of international student population as the supporting funding body of HE institutions in the era of neoliberalism. To elaborate, the realisation that large numbers of international students in Western universities around the world do not have English as their first language, appears to influence lecturers' shift in focus away from language issues that do not interfere with the meaning. Gourlay and Deane (2012), Tuck (2017), and Holdsworth (2009) report on the decline of written standards and skills of HE students, which is often linked to the massification, internalisation, and diversification of HE, discussed in Chapter 1.

In order to deal with the challenges related to following assignment requirements, the participants had to draw on their own agency and develop certain strategies. Berridge (2017) claims that in face of adversities, individuals draw on their agency and motivation with respect to the available resources. Harry, for example, relied on the support of his senior peers, mainly in the form of assignment exemplars. Such senior peer support seemed to provide Harry with confidence when he was approaching his written assignments, as assignments exemplars served him as examples of discipline-specific writing. As discussed in Section 3.7.4., previous research indicates that students view assignment exemplars as a tool for scaffolding learning as they provide an example of an acceptable response to a written assignment (Bruno & Santos, 2010; Carter et al., 2018; Handley & Williams, 2011). Interestingly, when such support came directly from lecturers in the form of assignment exemplars, the participants (particularly Marina) felt confused, especially at the beginning of Semester 1 when they were not entirely familiar with academic work. Harry, for example, could make little sense of the content meaning of some sections in the exemplars for his Group Assignment, as he was unfamiliar with the genres of certain sections and the way they had to be addressed in writing. It appears that the timing when assignment exemplars

were offered to the students was crucial. The participants seemed to appreciate the assignment exemplars when they perceived they needed them rather than having them given as part of assignment instructions, when students did not fully comprehend the task. Consequently, a great quantity of assisting documentation was not perceived by the participants as important help.

9.2.1.3 Challenges interpreting feedback

Participants' challenges interpreting lecturers' and supervisors' feedback related to two main themes:

- 1) students' confusion with marking criteria,
- 2) unclear written feedback.

Students' confusion with marking criteria

The case studies showed that the participants were confused by a lack of clarity in marking criteria, which did not provide any real guidance with regards to the lecturers' expectations of students' writing. It should be noted that in most of the cases, the participants' assignments were assessed based on generic marking criteria which were used to assign a grade, such as in Marina's (see Figure 7.7) and Reema's cases (see Figure 6.12, 6.16) or were in a form of choice that lecturers highlighted, such as in Reema's case (see Figure 6.3). Such generic marking criteria could have been used to potentially save lecturers' time when marking assignments. Wingate (2012a) confirms that lecturers are time-tight when it comes to engagement with formative learning requirements of their courses. However, such generic marking criteria do not account for students' individual writing abilities. Instead, this type of marking was disheartening for students because it seemed to be far more general in its approach and did not focus on individual student's writing ability. The research findings show that at the beginning of Semester 1 the highly motivated participants, Sarah and Reema, appeared to choose adaptive help-seeking behaviour when approaching their assignments, such as seeking advice from the lecturer or the SLC, or making use of proof-reading services. In contrast, the participants with a low level of motivation, Marina and Harry, relied on their interpretations of the unclear marking criteria to seek cues as to the lecturers' requirements.

Unclear written feedback

The participants' challenges with the unclear marking criteria exacerbated their difficulty interpreting their lecturers' feedback; a finding which resonates with Nicol's (2008) study on the student comprehension of feedback. In his study Nicol found that students' inability to comprehend what lecturers demand in students' written assignments leads to confusion with written feedback. For instance, Reema could not link the importance and relevance of her lecturer's feedback on her In-Class Activity 1 to the originally-provided marking criteria (Sections 6.4.1.2.), while Harry was confused about the reason for a low grade for the Persuasive Essay when the lecturer's comments throughout his written assignment were mainly positive (Section 8.4.1.1.). While Reema's misunderstanding seemed to be justifiable, Harry's confusion could be partially explained by his lack of understanding of the importance of evidence-based writing for his particular course of study (Section 8.4.1.1., 8.4.1.2., and 8.4.1.3.).

Nicol (2008) claims that students' confusion is exacerbated when the feedback is non-verbal (e.g. just ticks or crosses). Such feedback does not usually promote familiarity with academic writing norms or better student understanding of discipline-specific knowledge. This was evident in Sarah's case, when the student could not understand the supervisor's non-verbal feedback, in the form of underlining and crosses, on Sarah's calculations in Laboratory Assignment 1 (Section 5.4.1.2.). Razali and Jupri (2014) confirm that unclear or overly general feedback confuses students. It seems that, by the end of Semester 1, due to the confusing marking criteria and unclear written feedback received by the participants, that all participants except Reema, focused mainly on their grades, rather than on their written feedback (Sections 5.5.1.4., 7.4.1.2., 8.4.1.1., and 8.4.1.2.). Reema, however, who was determined to achieve high grades in her papers, paid attention to feedback for each of her assignments in order to dispute and request reconsideration for any unsatisfactory grades (Sections 6.4.1.2., 6.4.2.1., and 6.4.2.2.).

9.2.1.4 Challenges involved in completing assignments on time

As discussed in Chapter 3, a time constraint is the difference between the available time and the time required to complete a decision task (Benson & Beach, 1996). All participants in the current study seemed to experience challenges when working under time constraints. Students' struggles related to time constraints has also been reported by Cheng and Fox (2008) who state that students complain when they have to complete

their assignments under time constraints. The findings from the current case studies indicate that one of the factors that contributed to the challenge completing assignments on time is students' ability to identify the complexity of their assignments. The findings from the current case studies echo Ahmetoglu et al.'s (2020) claim that time estimation may create challenges in writing. At the beginning of Semester 1, the participants erroneously perceived that they were able to complete their written assignments in a short period of time, which resulted in poor time management. In the case of Marina, for example, such time estimation error resulted in limitation of her search for support literature to only short secondary sources. In another case, Harry did not manage to allocate sufficient amount of time to his first assignment, which resulted in a shorter than required Persuasive Essay.

Time management and learner calibration

The participants' demonstration of good time management skills appeared to be linked to their calibration. As discussed in Chapter 3, Schunk and Usher (2011) define learners' calibration as the correlation between self-efficacy and actual performance. At the beginning of Semester 1, all participants in the current case studies were poorly calibrated, i.e., the participants' perceived self-efficacy was high while their actual ability to complete written assignments was low. Such miscalibration resulted in increased difficulty completing assignments on time. However, the research findings indicate that participants' motivation played a vital role in the participants' employment of better time management techniques. For example, Reema, who was highly motivated, demonstrated a variety of time management skills, which resulted in a better academic outcome in Semester 1 compared to the other participants. In other words, through the demonstration of various time management skills, Reema, as a mature student, appeared to demonstrate a high level of agency. Donnelly et al. (2019) note that a high level of student agency may indicate better time management skills. Therefore, it may be concluded that the relationship between time management skills and students' agency is bi-directional. It appeared that if the participants in the current case studies initially perceived they would have difficulty with the task, they were more motivated to demonstrate their own agency when approaching their first assignments.

In comparison to highly motivated participants, the case studies indicate that the participants who exhibited low levels of motivation in Semester 1 ended up working under tight time constraints, which negatively affected their psychological states (Section 7.4.1.1.). However, high workloads could also influence participants'

motivational levels. For example, Marina's struggle to meet the demanding workload of her studies, led to her reduced level of motivation by the end of Semester 1, which resulted in a poor focus on assignment requirements, and, consequently, low assignment grades (Section 7.4.1.2.).

The case study findings indicate that in Semester 2 all the participants appeared to have a better understanding of their academic writing abilities and realised that finalising assignments were more time-consuming than they had first envisaged. This realisation led to better time management skills.

The approach of assignment deadlines may decrease students' self-efficacy but increase their agency

The challenges of working to the deadlines seemed to impact on the participants' academic writing practices. As was discussed in Chapter 3, the majority of students in Cheng and Fox's (2008) research complained about the amount of time allowed for completing their assignment in their pre-degree and undergraduate studies. The current case studies indicate that the participants' lack of ability to work to the deadlines reduced their self-efficacy. However, the participants' realisation that they lacked the ability to complete their written assignments on time appears to increase their agency, particularly through the improvement of their own time management skills. This includes prioritising certain parts of the academic workload, reducing their own expectations of high academic outcomes, approaching assignments as soon as they are available, or establishing learning strategies that may reduce time for preparation to some assignments and leave more time for the others. The case studies indicate that Harry, for example, prioritised his work on other assignments when he realised that late submission of his group members' parts of the Group Report might not have provided him with sufficient time for its compilation (Section 8.4.1.2). In another case, (Section 7.4.1.2.), Marina decided that she lacked the skills for achieving excellent outcomes for her Position Paper, therefore she chose not to follow the assignment requirements thoroughly. The increased level of agency also seems to be linked to the increased level of the participants' motivation to complete assignments on time in order to avoid failure and attrition. Lunenburg (2011) and Pratt (2010) point to the power of deadlines in increasing students' motivation. The current case studies seem to indicate that the participants' slightly increased motivation at the end of the Semester 1, which was linked to the challenge of meeting deadlines, resulted in the increase of their agency.

For example, Harry prioritised certain assignments in order to create enough time for compiling the Group Report.

Strategies to manage time constraints

The current research shows the importance of students' time management skills when dealing with time constraints, such as the approach of assignment deadlines. Although McKenzie & Gow (2004), and Adams and Blair (2019) argue that effective time management skills are positively correlated with students' academic performance, the current study indicates that it may not always be the case, as academic outcomes also depend on a number of other factors, such as students' level of motivation and self-efficacy. Students, whose self-efficacy or motivation to acquire certain academic writing skills are low, appear to expect lower results for their written assignments. The case studies indicate that better time management skills seem to assist the participants in the establishment of certain study strategies that work best for them either academically, psychologically, or socially. In other words, participants who had low self-efficacy or motivation for academic outcomes, but who redirected their focus from academic achievements to a healthier study-life balance, such as Marina, did not feel themselves a failure in their academic studies despite their relatively low grades.

The case studies indicate that maturity seemed to play an important role in the students' ability to manage time. In the case of the mature learner Reema, the participant appeared to possess time management skills, including the abilities to plan, prepare for lectures by reading recommended materials, complete assignments before the due dates, allow time for proof-reading by a professional, and ask peers or lecturers for assistance. These findings align with that of Cheng and Fox's (2008) study who found that students with good time management skills are able to better manage their assignments through planning, prioritising, and allocating sufficient time for tasks. Furthermore, the link between Reema's maturity and her time management abilities may also explain her quicker response to the miscalibration of own perceived self-efficacy and actual capabilities with regards to academic writing. Zimmerman and Bandura (1994) state that time management skills are one of the central elements of self-regulatory processes (see Chapter 3). The case study shows that better calibration seemed to assist Reema in reaching self-regulated learning in the first part of Semester 1, which was demonstrated in her adaptation of initial study strategies to adaptive help-seeking behaviour as a response to self-evaluation of own capabilities when pursuing own set goals.

It should be noted that, while Reema's choice not to socialise with other students allowed her more time to focus on her academic achievements, it is unlikely to be a particularly healthy study approach. As discussed in Chapter 1, Choi (2013) states that lack of socialisation among peers creates a sense of alienation and distance from other students. As a result of isolation and alienation, students may feel depressed (Mori, 2000) and lose concentration on their study materials (Huang & Klinger, 2006). This was particularly evident in the case of Marina, when, in Semester 1, she felt overwhelmed with the academic workload and lack of peer support, leading to frustration, anxiety, and stress.

A visual representation of the identified challenges and the related issues that students experienced with academic writing in the course of their first year undergraduate writing experiences is presented in Table 9.1 below.

Table 9.1

Challenges and issues that the participants experienced with academic writing

Challenge with academic writing	Issues involved in the challenge
Challenges following academic writing conventions	✓ Issues related to paraphrasing and avoiding plagiarism. ✓ Issues related to succinct writing. ✓ The loss of students' voice. ✓ Issue of comprehending discipline-specific literature.
Challenges understanding and following assignment requirements	✓ Lack of clarity with assignment instructions.
Challenges interpreting feedback	✓ Students' confusion with marking criteria. ✓ Unclear written feedback.
Challenges involved in completing assignments on time	✓ Time management and learner calibration. ✓ Strategies to manage time constraints.

From the discussion of the challenges that international L2 students experienced in the course of their first year undergraduate academic writing practices, it is obvious that self-efficacy, agency, and motivation played a vital role in the formation of students' perceptions regarding their academic writing practices at NZ HE institutions. The following section discusses these concepts in more detail.

9.2.2 The role of socio-cognitive phenomena in the student's changing perceptions of academic writing practices

This section discusses key findings that respond primarily to the second and third research questions:

In what way do international students' prior learning and experiences, including preparatory academic English courses such as IELTS, successfully prepare these students for the challenges they encounter throughout the first year of their academic study?

How do the students' perception of, and approach to their academic writing practices, including their prior learning, consciously change as their first year of study progresses?

What is evident from the case studies is that in attempting to meet the challenges outlined in Section 9.2.1, the participants draw upon their i) agency, ii) self-efficacy, and iii) motivation and that these socio-cognitive phenomena both impact on, and are impacted by, the students' ongoing and, ultimately, shifting perceptions of academic writing practices. This section examines each of these phenomena in turn, focusing in particular on their shifting levels as the case-study participants' negotiate their first year academic demands.

9.2.2.1 The role of self-efficacy in students' attempts to complete academic assignments

Self-efficacy refers to one's ability to succeed and accomplish a certain task even in a novel and unpredictable situation (Bandura, 1977; 1981; 1982). Knowledge about student self-efficacy and its impact on the progress of international L2 students is often overlooked by educators in the university environment, however it is crucial because

students' self-efficacy may impact on their motivation, choice of behaviour, and, ultimately, academic success.

An interesting contribution of this research is in the way students' self-efficacy could be viewed. In contrast to Bandura's (1982) division of students into two categories (Section 3.4), that is those with high or low self-efficacy, this research indicates that such a representation of students' self-efficacy might not be sufficiently nuanced. Rather than seeing students as having a stable level of self-efficacy, students' self-efficacy should be viewed as shifting along a continuum. This changing level of students' self-efficacy throughout their first year of undergraduate study is influenced by a number of external factors and, in turn will influence the choices they make in their approach to written assignments. In addition, this study raises questions about the desirability of students always having high levels of self-efficacy. This is in contrast to the literature (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2016; Joet et al., 2011; Moos & Azevedo, 2009; Sardegna et al., 2018) that indicates that such students are more flexible and resilient. In other words, previous research appears to emphasise the importance of learners' belief in own abilities. The results of this study appear to indicate that students' self-doubt about their own abilities may lead to positive outcomes. Students are forced to re-examine their perceptions of their own ability, potentially leading to an increase in own agency. What appears to be important is that students have access to staff who are aware that students sense of self-efficacy is not fixed, and that even the most confident of students can suffer self doubt. In addition, lecturers need to be aware that this self-doubt can affect students' sense of agency. Staff should also utilise this knowledge of the shifting nature of students' socio-cognitive phenomena to create potential spaces for learning and help students turn these moments of self-doubt and uncertainty into a positive reconsideration of what is needed for academic success.

The case studies indicate that at the beginning of Semester 1 the participants felt empowered by the knowledge they had acquired in their IELTS, FP, and EAP courses. They came to the university environment with a high degree of self-efficacy. The participants perceived that their pre-degree courses equipped them with the knowledge related to academic writing, which mainly involved expressing their own opinion in coherent and cohesive writing. They also believed that the amount of academic vocabulary that they acquired in the course of their pre-degree education was sufficient for dealing with their current academic work. In other words, the participants' perceived self-efficacy regarding discipline-specific writing assignments was based on their

perception that their previously acquired skills and knowledge about academic writing could be generalised to the new settings. As a result of their high level of perceived self-efficacy, the participants set themselves high expectations for their own academic outcomes believing that their first written assignments would not be challenging. Schunk (1996), Pajares (1996), Pintrich and Garcia (1991), and Bandura (1994) conclude that students' judgement of their own self-efficacy is informed by self-regulatory strategies, i.e. highly efficacious students use more cognitive and metacognitive strategies and persist longer when approaching academic tasks. This study suggests that the theory regarding self-efficacy needs to take into account that self-doubt can aid student growth if the proper support is available.

The current case studies indicated that the participants' high self-efficacy equipped them with a high level of confidence that their academic written assignments were easier than they actually were. Consequently, they approached their first assignments close to the due dates, thinking that their academic writing assignments would not take much of their time. This strategy created certain time constraints for the participants when they were completing their first assignments. In other words, the participants' high illusorily perception of own self-efficacy led them to put less effort into their written assignments at the beginning of Semester 1. These findings are aligned with those of Vancouver and Kendall (2006), Boekaerts and Rozendaal (2010), Zvacek et al. (2015), and Hacker et al. (2000) who state that over-efficaciousness may lead to a reduced effort when working on a task, or decrease students' motivation to seek assistance. Schunk and Pajares (2004) further argue that the miscalibration of self-efficacy, i.e. the mismatch between students' perceived self-efficacy and their actual capabilities, leads to lower resultant grades.

Once the participants began working on their first assignments, the participants began to question the validity of their previous language courses and its relevance to their university writing (see also Barkhuizen and Cooper, 2004; Read and Hayes, 2003; and O'Loughlin, 2013). As indicated in the within case analyses, pre-degree courses had not prepared them for the types of genre knowledge required, the demands of summarising, paraphrasing and citing multiple discipline-specific sources, or the length of assignments, among other areas. The participants were also confronted with unclear assignment requirements and marking criteria, and the lecturers' explanations were not particularly clear. The participants comments indicated that this lack of clarity around assignments requirements made them feel uncertain and appeared to have affected their

sense of self-efficacy (Sections 7.4.1.1. and 8.4.1.1.). As a result, the participants' self-efficacy had substantially decreased by the completion of Semester 1. For example, as discussed in Section 7.4.1.1, Marina struggled to complete the Source Justification assignment as it was not particularly clear to her from the start that the assignment had to be simultaneously linked to the following assignment, i.e. the Position Paper. The Position Paper assignment was also confusing to the students as its requirements sent Marina mixed messages of how to approach it, as a university essay or as a filter blog, as discussed in Section 7.4.1.2. Another example of unclear assignment requirements provided by the lecturer was presented in Reema's case (Section 6.4.1.2.), where In-Class Activity 1 confused students with the range of genres that it claimed to belong to. In order to complete her assignments in the best way she could, Reema demonstrated own agency by guessing the In-Class Activity 1 questions and anticipating its answers.

This decline in participants' self-efficacy appears to be linked to the inappropriately high expectations generated by the preparatory courses, which resulted in participants' inaccurate assessment of their own capabilities. As a result of a decline in the participants' self-efficacy, their motivation for high academic outcomes and agentic behaviour seemed to also decrease by the end of Semester 1. Bandura (1994) indicates that low self-efficacy decreases intellectual performance and the perception of one's own capabilities. He claims that people with low self-efficacy perceive tasks as being harder than they really are which results in stress, anxiety, and, ultimately, the outcomes that people fear.

By the beginning of Semester 2 the participants' self-efficacy appears to rise. Three reasons were observed in the case studies as motivating this shift. Firstly, as a result of the lecturers' feedback and assignment grades, the participants' began to develop a more reasonable and realistic understanding of their academic writing abilities and the challenges they faced. Byrne et al. (2013) show that even quite critical formative feedback related to mid-term exams may lead to students' increased confidence in their ability to succeed. For example, they suggest that poor exam results can encourage students to employ help-seeking strategies or result in a higher participation rate in the class. In one particular case, the participant, Harry, failed a paper, which led to him employing a help-seeking strategy of requesting assignment exemplars from his ex-classmates (Section 8.4.2.1.). Secondly, another area that contributed to the re-emergence of self-efficacy at the beginning of Semester 2 was the participants' developing understanding of discipline-specific writing and the recognition of the

features in their assignment requirements that specifically resulted in higher grades. For example, Reema approached the marking criteria more critically identifying those that would provide her with higher scores, i.e. criteria that focused on content knowledge (Figure 6.16). In Sarah's case, the participant started writing much shorter Lab Summaries after realising that the main focus of assessment was on the correct answers for the assignment questions (Section 5.4.1.1.). Thirdly, the participants' fear of failure also appeared to impact on the increase of their self-efficacy in Semester 2. The participant Marina, for example, attempted to reduce her fear of failure and boost her self-efficacy by seeking motivational and psychological support from her family.

The participants' self-efficacy then appeared to plateau throughout Semester 2, largely due to the participants' continuing realistic assessment of their own academic writing abilities based on the lecturers' feedback and summative paper grades. Van Blankenstein et al. (2019) state that self-efficacy often plateaus from the middle until the end of the academic year. The current research findings echo those of van Blankenstein et al. in linking the plateau effect to the fact that students' learning mainly takes place at the beginning of the course. However, while van Blankenstein et al.'s findings indicate that the plateau of students' self-efficacy in the second half of an academic year is at the higher point compared to students' initial level of self-efficacy, the current research findings show the opposite. The case studies indicate that participants' realistic expectations in Semester 2 produce a lower, albeit stable, level of self-efficacy than at the beginning of their studies. As evidenced in the case studies, one of the reasons for this plateau was the participants' realisation that their written assignments would vary, and that the knowledge they had gained from these assignments might not be applicable to their subsequent assessments. As a result of this level of stability of self-efficacy, one of the participants, i.e., Marina, appeared to review her study-life balance, perceiving it as an important component of academic experiences. As mentioned in Section 7.4.1.2, the participant reconsidered her, often detrimental, commitment to her studies. Brouwer et al. (2016b) and Lin (1999) state that life outside learning, or students' enhancement and mobilisation of their social capital in terms of family, faculty and peers, has a great impact on their study success. Although the current case study did not indicate any enhancement of Marina's academic success after the development of a stronger social network, it certainly resulted in the increase of the participant's self-efficacy and confidence when approaching academic assignments.

Figure 9.1

Change in the level of international L2 students' self-efficacy in the course of their first year undergraduate writing practices in NZ HE institutions

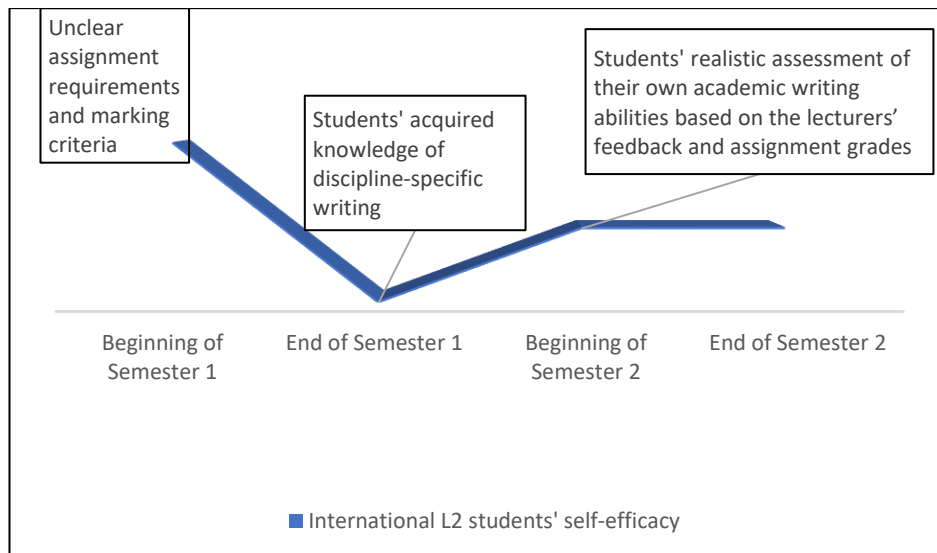


Figure 9.1 above shows the trajectory of the participants' self-efficacy, which was at a high point at the beginning of Semester 1, but substantially decreased by the end of the semester due to unclear assignment requirements and marking criteria. However, the participants' increasing knowledge of discipline-specific writing resulted in a slight rise in their self-efficacy by the beginning of Semester 2 and remained stable until the end of their first academic year.

9.2.2.2 The role of agency in students' attempts to complete academic assignments

This section shows how first year international L2 students tend to consciously draw upon their agency when approaching their assignments, often starting at the beginning of Semester 1. As discussed in Chapter 3, agency is a "student's ability to have ideas, to have intentions, and to exert influence and take actions in the learning context" (Vaughn et al., 2020, p. 428). Although the trajectory of the participants' agency in the current case studies varied, the participants usually started deploying agency when approaching their first assignments. This happened mainly because the

participants came to realise that their preparatory courses had not provided them with sufficient knowledge required for successful achievement of academic discipline-specific assignments, as discussed in Sections 5.4.1.1., 5.4.1.2, 6.4.2.1, 7.4.1.1, 8.3.1, and 8.4.1.1.

The nature and direction of students' agency is determined by their individual educational context

The case studies indicate that at the beginning of Semester 1 the participants did not feel the need to exhibit their own agency largely due to their high level of self-efficacy. Van Dinther et al. (2011) state that a high level of students' self-efficacy creates a certain tranquillity in the face of challenging tasks. Indeed, believing that they were well-prepared for academic demands after their pre-degree courses, the participants perceived that there was no need to take any action, such as acquiring a deeper understanding of academic discipline-specific writing norms, or seeking writing support more generally.

Once the participants realised that their assignment requirements, or the lecturer's formative feedback was not necessarily helpful or clear, the participants' agency substantially increased as they came to realise they might require external assistance. Therefore, all the participants, with the exception of Harry, who did not perceive the importance in developing his own academic writing skills in Semester 1, developed various help-seeking strategies, which involved clarification of assignment requirements or lecturer's formative feedback, or seeking help with proof-readers, as indicated in Sections 6.4.1.1., 5.4.1.2., and 6.4.2.1 respectively. Previous research (Chowdhury & Halder, 2019; Karabenick & Newman, 2006; Parker et al, 2019; Ryan et al., 2001; Williams & Takaku, 2011) indicates that students who utilise adaptive help-seeking behaviour when demonstrating their own agency are usually more efficient at achieving high academic outcomes. The current research findings indicate that due to the specificity of academic writing in various disciplines, not all adaptive help-seeking behaviour proved to be effective. For example, the help received from outside the participants' institution, such as proof-reading services, was often ineffective and at times even detrimental for the participants' academic success. In the case of Reema, the participant felt the need to double check her assignments after the proof-reader had checked them because she realised the proof-reader lacked experience in her subject area. The findings that proof-reading services are not always effective for students are echoed in the research by Harwood et al. (2009), Knight, (1999), Turner (2011b), and

Scurr (2006) and are detailed in Chapter 3. Furthermore, even when the participants sought help within their schools, the offered help was not always productive as it depended on students' analytical and critical thinking abilities to implement the relevant information into their own writing practices. For example, although Harry employed assignment examples from his classmates in Semester 2, he still failed the paper due to his lack of understanding of which features in the assignment exemplars would assist him to achieve a pass grade. This supports Wingate's (2015) claim that teaching writing should happen through a personalised approach addressing individual students' skill. Without formal writing teaching, it seems that the participant was viewing assignment exemplars as an easy way to get a good grade by partially plagiarising work of prior students.

The case studies then indicate that the participants' level of agency decreased. It is likely that there were a number of contributing factors including the growing pressure of work. One of these factors appears to be that students found assignment briefs unclear and feedback at times was not helpful. In particular, Sarah was unsuccessful in eliciting clarification of the supervisor's feedback (Section 5.4.1.2.). Likewise, the general lack of the lecturers' focus on the participants' linguistic accuracy in their written assignments, meant that the students paid little attention themselves to linguistic accuracy, cohesion or coherence in their writing. In Reema's Communication Content Marketing Plan, for instance, the Presentation skills, which involved assessment of grammatical correctness, could be awarded only 5 out of 30 marks, that is 17% of the total assignment grade, in comparison to the Concepts, Theory Selection and Application marking sub-criterion, which assessed students' content knowledge of the subject and could earn students 12.5 out of 30 marks, i.e. 42% of the total assignment grade (Section 6.4.1.1.).

At the beginning of Semester 2, all of the participants' agency was at its high point. Such a spike in the participants' agency may be partially explained by their low Semester 1 assignment grades, and also by the level of students' motivation for academic success. Spruill et al. (2014) and Wood et al. (2015) claim that motivation is one of the key factors that positively impacts on student agency. As indicated above, Reema's motivation for high academic achievement from the onset of her studies resulted in her decision to use proof-reading services after writing her assignment drafts. However, realising in Semester 2 that the service may not necessarily be effective, the participant attempted to seek specific help with an expert in her discipline area.

An exception to the main trend in the participants' agency in Semester 2 was Marina. In the Science and Sustainability paper (Section 7.4.2.), the lecturer obviously attempted to assist students with the development of their writing skills for the final assignment, the Research Project. This was done, firstly, through the development of the research question in the first assignment and, secondly, the discussion of the second assignment, Rough Draft. However, Marina did not perceive this step-by-step approach as work on developing her writing skills. Instead, she perceived each assignment individually as each was graded and deserved equal attention. Hence, the participant perceived that lecturers' support throughout the semester was not sufficient for her to develop better writing skills for each assignment. Without the knowledge of other available means of writing support, such as SLC, Marina shifted her focus from high academic achievements to cultivating a better study-life balance. Although the missing research data does not allow concluding whether such lack of the participants' agency negatively influenced her academic results, Marina was clearly satisfied with her overall academic experiences as it involved less anxiety and stress.

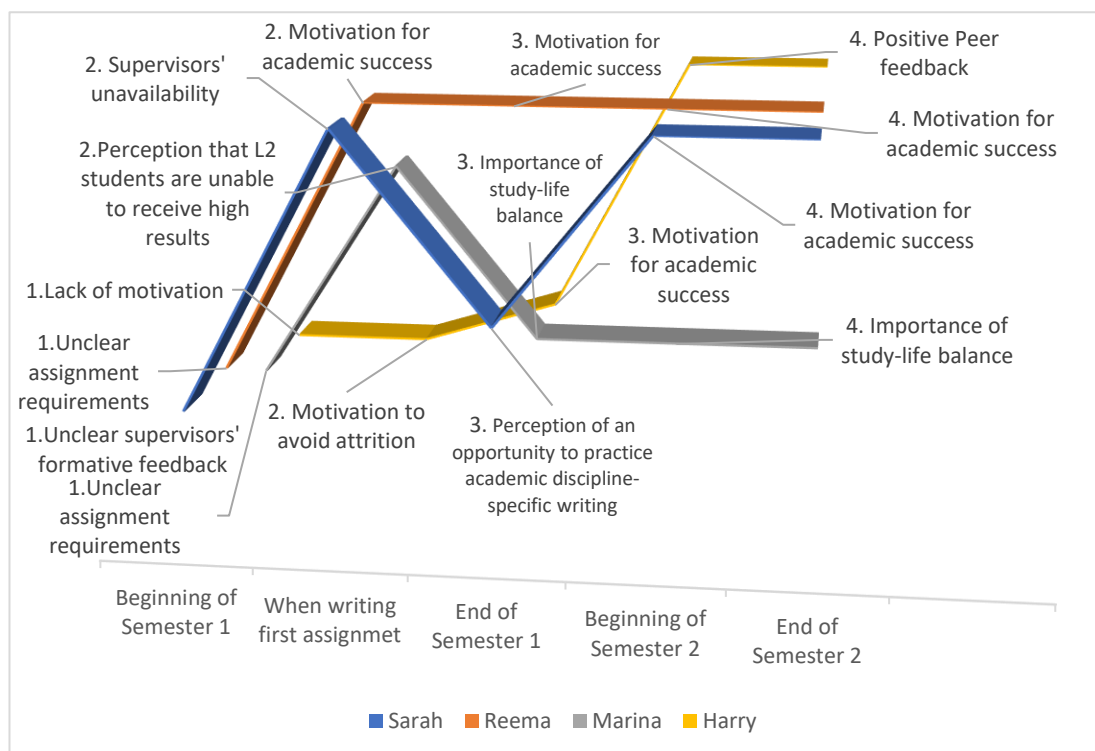
The case studies then indicate that by the end of Semester 2, the participants' agency levelled out despite the fact that it appears that there was no change in lecturer feedback or support with academic writing. Participants appear to have come to terms with the various ways in which assignments were set up and the way lecturers' feedback was provided. It appears that the participants hoped their chosen study strategies and approach to academic writing would eventually yield positive outcomes. For example, Harry was not offered feedback in Semester 2, as the three Reporting Journal were considered as a single assignment assessed by the lecturer at the end of the Semester (Section 8.4.1.3.). However, the compulsory formative feedback offered by his peers at the beginning and middle of Semester 2 indicated to the participant that he was on the track to academic success. Therefore, by the end of Semester 2, Harry chose to persevere in the same way he did at the beginning of the semester, i.e. he followed the acquired assignment exemplars provided by his peers.

Figure 9.2 shows the trajectory of the participants' agency, which was at a low point at the beginning of Semester 1, but substantially increased when the participants started working on their first written assignments due to a number of challenges they faced with regards to academic writing. Throughout their first year of undergraduate writing practices, the participants' individual educational contexts and their belief in own

abilities to deal with certain challenges in academic writing resulted in both rises and falls in their agency.

Figure 9.2

Change in the level and direction of international L2 students' agency in the course of their first year undergraduate writing practices in NZ HE institutions



9.2.2.3 The role of motivation

This section discusses how the motivational beliefs of first year international L2 students impact on the decisions they make regarding their academic writing strategies. It should be noted that although the notion of motivation is closely linked to that of self-efficacy, the latter serves as a motivation-generating, -enhancing, and -sustaining factor (Bandura & Locke, 2003; Ramos Salazar & Hayward, 2018; Schunk, 1991). In other words, when students believe in own abilities to achieve their desired results, they are more motivated to persevere in the pursuit of their set goals.

The level of students' motivation is determined by their individual educational context

The case studies findings indicate that the trajectory of the participants' motivation somewhat resembled that of their self-efficacy. For all participants, with the exception

of the mature student, Reema, their motivation decreased by the end of Semester 1, but then increased and plateaued in Semester 2. At the beginning of Semester 1, all participants were highly motivated for their academic success. The participants' belief that they were well prepared for their academic writing demands and that their first assignments would be easy to complete, resulted in their expectations of high academic achievement. Moore (2001) states that students' self-evaluation, expectation, prediction, and intention are important factors that impact on their motivation.

Once the participants started working on, and receiving feedback on their first assignments, their motivation levels began to decrease substantially. One of the major reasons for this decrease was their high academic workload. Marina, for example could not maintain a high level of motivation in Semester 1 as she struggled to catch up on the demanding workload of her studies. Rosing et al. (2010) and Darby et al. (2013) confirm that students' motivation decreases with the increasing demands on their time, as does the mismatch between the course demands and students' expectation of the course. In the case of Harry, for example, the participant did not expect to keep written journals of own practical activities, as he initially believed that his course would only require the development and demonstration of practical skills.

The case studies indicate that by the end of Semester 1, the participants were increasingly coming to realise the extent of the challenges that they faced, and this, coupled with a growing fear of low academic results or even failure in some papers led the participants to develop an increase in motivation towards their undergraduate studies. For example, Harry, who had initially lost all motivation to complete a Group Report, began to exhibit a higher level of motivation, particularly once he had received his group co-students' contributions to the assignment (Section 8.4.1.2.). While being hugely constrained by time, he increased his effort to complete and compile the assignment, and then submit it on time, in hope to get at least a Pass grade.

The case studies then indicate that at the beginning of Semester 2, the learning and help-seeking strategies, employed by the participants to help them resolve their Semester 1 concerns began to have a further positive influence on their motivation levels. As discussed in Chapter 3, Schunk and DiBenedetto (2015) claim that once students are able to employ certain strategies with respect to a particular situation in their individual educational contexts, they reach a motivating level of self-regulated learning. By Semester 2, all students employed a range of strategies in their approach to assignments,

which they believed were the most effective in their opinion. In other words, the participants in the case studies appeared to reach self-regulated learning in Semester 2, which allowed them to develop realistic motivational beliefs, including self-efficacy and result expectancy. For example, as discussed in Section 5.4.2.1., Sarah reduced her preparation time by translating any unfamiliar vocabulary to her first language, Arabic. She also stopped using highlighting when preparing for her chemistry assignments, which also hastened her preparation process. Reema tried to seek help from proof-readers who were experts in her discipline so that they could assist her with expressing the content knowledge correctly, rather than mainly focusing on the linguistic clarity (Section 6.4.2.1.). Marina decided that her study-life balance was more important for her psychological state than excellent assignment grades, hence her focus in her studies shifted, making her study a more rounded experience (Section 7.4.2.1). Harry utilised help from senior students in order to gain clearer understanding of how assignments should be done (Section 8.4.2.1.).

The reasons for this increase in motivation are both extrinsic and intrinsic (Boström & Bostedt, 2020), i.e. participants were motivated by their low academic outcomes at the end of Semester 1 and their unwillingness to be expelled in the long-run (as in the case of Harry), as well as their interest in gaining knowledge in their subject areas and, subsequently, better job opportunities after the graduation, as in the cases of Sarah and Marina. Another reason for the increase in the participants' motivation was psychological support of significant others. Choi (2013) and Brouwer et al. (2016a) claim that international students are often under immense social pressure from their parents, and that once they leave their parental homes they tend to rely on their peers for motivational and psychological support. Sarah and Harry, for example, liaised with their peers in order to get more information about study processes (Section 5.4.1.1.), as well as seeking some academic support in the form of assignment exemplars (Section 8.4.2.1). However, in one particular case, the participant Marina, sought motivational and psychological support from her parents, and not her peers. This finding may be explained by the participant's frustration with her high academic workload in Semester 1, which prevented her from finding a confidant in her peers by Semester 2. However, once Marina changed the focus of her education towards a healthier study-life balance, she started seeking motivational support from her peers.

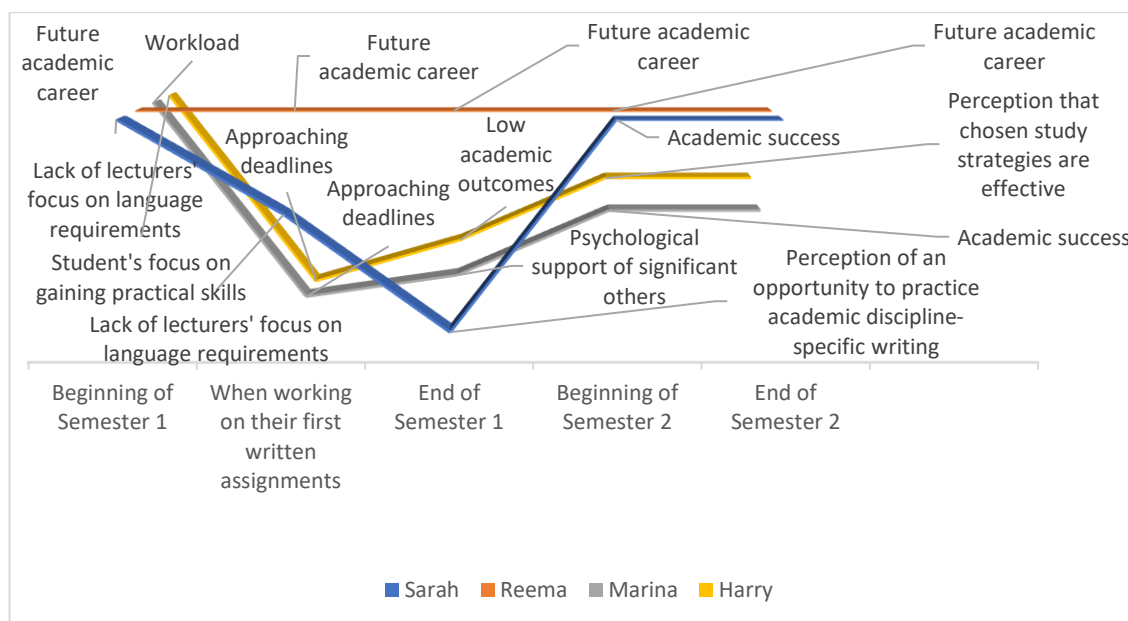
Figure 9.3 provides a visual summary of the shifting trajectories of the participants' motivation in the course of their first-year undergraduate writing practices in NZ HE

institutions. All participants started their academic year with a reasonably high motivation level. Under the influence of various factors, which were unique to each participant's educational context, their motivation level substantially decreased by the time they approached their first written assignments in Semester 1. However, by the end of the semester, the approaching deadlines, fear of failure, and the realisation that with additional help-seeking strategies they could obtain relatively positive results with their written assignments, the motivation level of the participants slightly increased. Sarah is the exception here as her motivation to improve her academic writing skills remained low in Semester 1. The most likely explanation is that she was only exposed to extended academic writing in Semester 2.

As seen in the figure, by Semester 2, the participants' motivation appeared to plateau. In contrast to van Blankenstein et al. (2019), who argue that the plateau effect occurs due to a reduction in the level of learning in Semester 2 from Semester 1, the results from the case studies indicate that the plateau in the participants' motivation was largely a result of their own more realistic awareness of their academic writing abilities (Sections 5.4.2.2. and 8.4.2.1). The figure also shows that one participant, Reema, had a more stable and high level of motivation throughout her first year of studies. This consistency in Reema's motivation may be explained by her mature age, strong determination to complete the current studies, and her understanding that her course was a pathway to her desired Masters' degree.

Figure 9.3

Change in the level and direction of international L2 students' motivation in the course of their first year undergraduate writing practices in NZ HE institutions



9.2.3 The interconnection between self-efficacy, agency, and motivation

The case study findings also demonstrate that socio-cognitive phenomena, i.e. self-efficacy, agency, and motivation, seemed to intertwine throughout the participants' first year of undergraduate writing practices. The next sub-sections discuss the interconnection between self-efficacy, agency, and motivation in detail.

9.2.3.1 The level of students' calibration predicts the level and direction of students' agency

The case study findings indicate that one particular aspect of self-efficacy, calibration, defined in Section 9.2.1.1, predicts the level and direction of participants' agency. In support of this point, van Laer and Elen (2019) state that well calibrated learners often demonstrate agentic behaviour through their use of study strategies. This was evidenced in the case studies, where the participants, Reema and Sarah, who became better calibrated throughout the early part of Semester 1 also exhibited an increase in the level of agency, primarily through the use of adaptive help-seeking strategies, such as clarifying assignment requirements with the lecturer. However, due to the variety of

written genres, that these well calibrated participants encountered in the course of their Semester 1, these participants' sense of self-efficacy appeared to decline by the end of the semester (see Figure 9.1), also resulting in a decline in their agentic behaviour.

In contrast, the participants, Harry and Marina, who remained poorly calibrated until the end of Semester 1, demonstrated a lack of agency at the beginning of the semester. However, by the end the semester, these participants' lowered, but realistic perception of their own self-efficacy, seemed to result in increased agency closer to the end of Semester 1. It appears that self-doubt also has a positive aspect for students' self-efficacy and agency. In this instance, the participants' doubt of their own academic writing abilities led them to re-evaluate their own study strategies, which eventually appeared to yield beneficial outcomes.

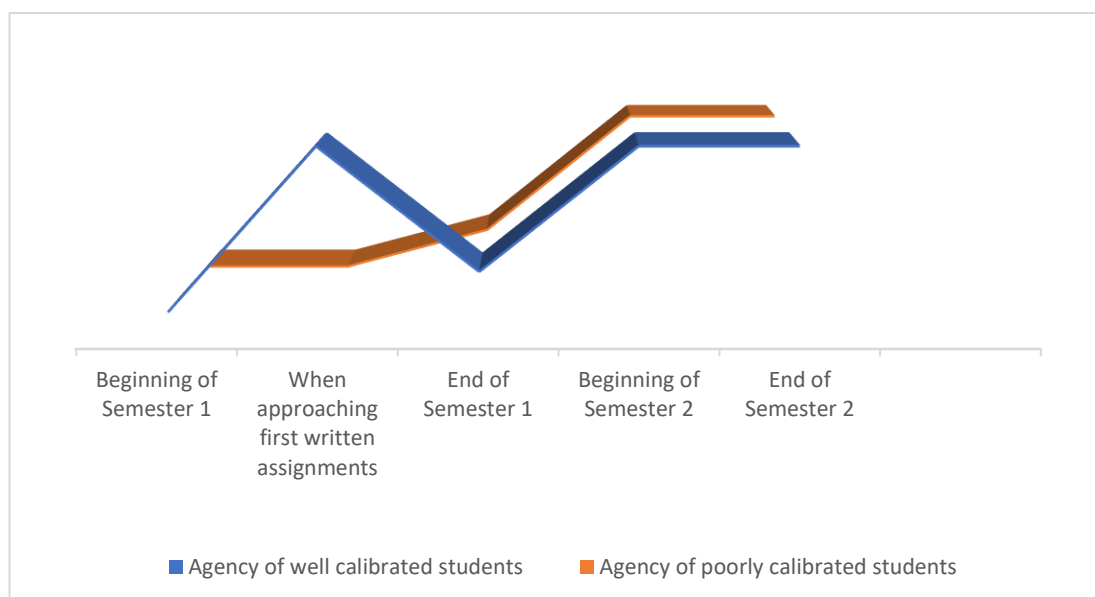
The case studies then indicate that due to a more realistic perception of their own self-efficacy, all the participants' agency increased at the beginning of Semester 2. Reema's continuous use of proof-reading services throughout her studies (Sections 6.4.1.1. and 6.4.2.1.) provides a good example of the increase in her agentic behaviour. When Reema realised that her proof-readers who are not from her discipline area may lack the discipline-specificity to provide effective support for her written assignments, she sought a suitable expert in her discipline area in Semester 2. The case studies show that by Semester 2 agency of poorly calibrated participants almost reached the level of agency of well calibrated participants. For example, in Semester 2 Harry exhibited his agency through the employment of his adaptive help-seeking behaviour when approaching his classmates for assignment exemplars (Section 8.4.2.1.). The case studies then indicate that the level of all the participants' agency remained at the same level throughout Semester 2, which was mainly due to the plateaued level of their self-efficacy.

Figure 9.4 shows the trajectories of agency of well calibrated and poorly calibrated participants. The figure illustrates that agency of well calibrated participants, Reema and Sarah, increased early on in Semester 1, decreased by the end of the semester and spiked again at the beginning of Semester 2 remaining at its high level. In contrast, Harry and Marina who realised the mismatch in their perception of own abilities and their actual capabilities with academic writing by the end of Semester 1, demonstrated an increase in own agency only at the end of Semester 1, but utilised more study

strategies at the beginning of Semester 2, almost reaching the level of earlier calibrated participants.

Figure 9.4

Trajectories of the participants' agency in cases when the participants were well and poorly calibrated with the demands of academic writing in the course of their first year undergraduate studies in NZ HE institutions



9.2.3.2 Students' low self-efficacy, but strong motivation for successful academic outcomes, results in increased agentic behaviour

The participants' motivation for successful academic outcomes appears to increase their agency closer to assignment deadlines, even if they are experiencing low levels of self-efficacy and feel incapable of completing their written assignments. Reeve and Tseng (2011) argue that students' high level of motivation positively impacts on their agentic behaviour. In the case studies, the participants' increased level of motivation at the end of Semester 1 increased their understanding that they had to change their study behaviours. Harry, for example, re-strategised his behaviour and this change resulted in the demonstration of improved time management skills.

Even though the participants' self-efficacy slightly increased at the beginning of Semester 2, their comparably higher level of motivation resulted in a further upsurge of their agency. The participants demonstrated this increase in agency through their

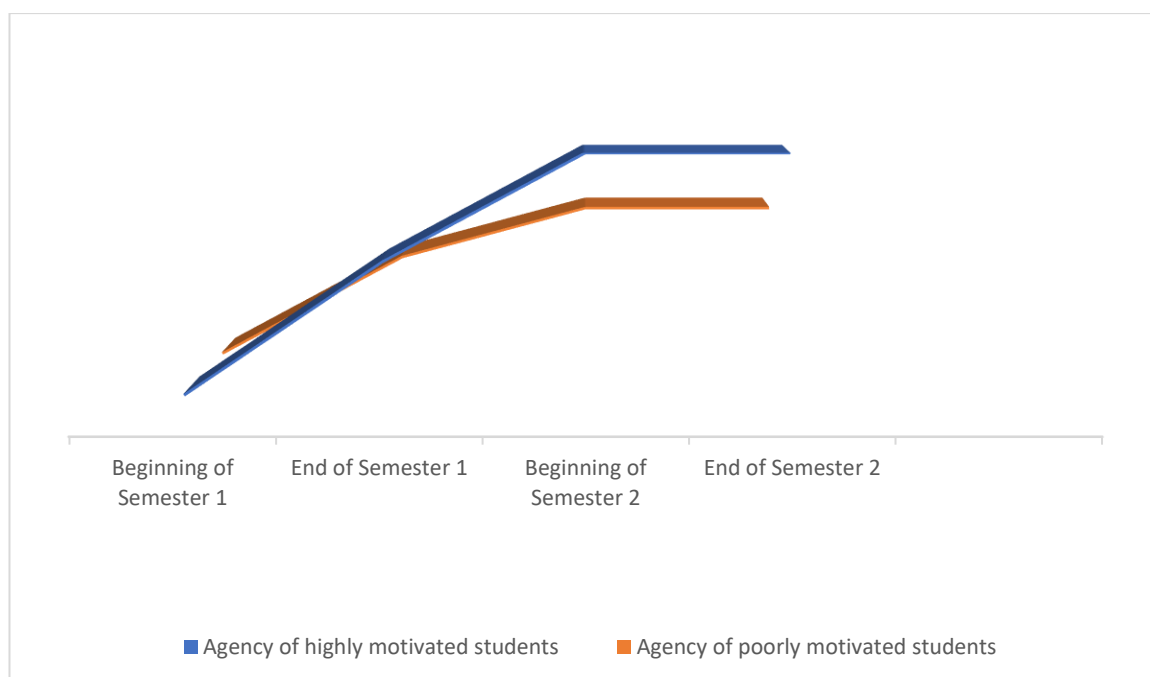
adaptive help-seeking behaviour, such as Harry's request for assignment exemplars from prior students.

As shown in Figures 9.1, 9.2, and 9.3, all three socio-cognitive phenomena eventually levelled out in Semester 2. Moreover, the degree of the participants' motivation at this point in time had a relationship to the participants' level of agency. For example, Marina's somewhat low motivation for academic success in Semester 2 resulted in a relatively low level of agency, i.e. she did not seek academic help from lecturers or the SLC. In contrast, the highly motivated participants, Reema and Sarah, demonstrated stronger agentic behaviour as was discussed earlier.

Figure 9.5 illustrates the trajectory of agency of both the highly and poorly motivated participants. While all participants' agency steadily increased until the beginning of Semester 2, the agency of highly motivated participants, Reema and Sarah, plateaued at a higher level in Semester 2.

Figure 9.5

Trajectory of agency of highly and poorly motivated participants



9.3 Chapter summary

This chapter presented a cross-case analysis of the research findings in response to the three RQs and the existing empirical research. The chapter started with a revision of the concept of cross-case analysis and the way it was employed in this research. Then, the presentation of various challenges that international L2 students encountered in their first-year undergraduate writing practices were discussed. Following that, the importance of students' self-efficacy, agency, and motivation was foregrounded and the interconnection between the three socio-cognitive phenomena in the formation of students' perceptions regarding their academic writing practices at NZ HE institutions in the early 21st century were discussed. The research findings indicated an overall lack of nuance in existing theories related to students' socio-cognitive phenomena. The findings also indicated that lecturers lacked an awareness of the shifting nature of these socio-cognitive phenomena throughout students' first year undergraduate writing experiences. The next chapter presents the insights gained from the research.

Chapter 10. Conclusion

10.1 Introduction

This chapter summarises the key findings of this study and provides an outline of its theoretical and pedagogical implications. Following that, the study's limitations are discussed and directions for further research are suggested.

10.1.1 Aims and methodology of the study

The first aim of this study was to identify the challenges that currently face international L2 students throughout the first year of their university studies as they attempt to meet the academic writing standards demanded by their NZ-based HE institutions, and how they respond to these challenges. Secondly, the study aimed at exploring whether these students' prior learning and experiences, such as their IELTS courses, prepared them for these academic writing challenges. Thirdly, the study aimed at identifying how these first-year students' perception of, and approach to their academic writing practices, including their prior learning, consciously changed throughout their first-year undergraduate writing experience.

In an attempt to provide a response to these aims, a longitudinal multiple case study approach was employed to examine the challenges, influences and experiences of four international L2 students as they underwent their first year of university study. The four participants were enrolled on undergraduate programs in different discipline areas across three NZ universities. The data was collected using qualitative methods, including semi-structured interviews, the analysis of documents (including assignment requirements, marking criteria, student written assignments, and the lecturers' feedback on students' written assignments).

Two broad overarching conclusions can be drawn from the findings of this longitudinal study:

- 1) Rather than being seen as a continually homogenous and static group, as is often evidenced in academic writing research, first year international L2 students should be seen as going through distinctly different stages of development with regards to their perceptions of, and engagement with, academic writing. These stages are inherently linked to the semester and assessment cycle of the university first year (i.e. the beginning of Semester 1, the middle of their first year studies, and the end of Semester 2), as well as their different preparatory study experiences and pre-university lives. Furthermore, the different types of academic writing challenges that these first year international L2 students face, and their particular responses to these challenges, are also fundamentally related to these different stages, as well as their different preparatory studies and pre-university lives.
- 2) Also crucial to the students ongoing engagement with their academic writing practices are the first year international L2 students' levels of agency, self-efficacy, and motivation. However, as above, these levels are also subject to the different stages of the student's first year of study, as well as their different preparatory studies and pre-university lives.

In light of these overarching findings, and unlike much previous research, which has tended to offer a snapshot in time with regards to students' undergraduate writing challenges, the study has ultimately deepened the understanding of students' changing perceptions regarding academic writing at different points in time during their first-year studies, and in doing so presented a more comprehensive picture of how and when in their first-year experience L2 students deal with these academic writing challenges by drawing on own self-efficacy, agency, and motivation.

10.2 Implications for practice

As often indicated in this thesis, many of the writing challenges that the participants encountered in the case studies have been identified by previous studies on academic writing, most of which have also suggested potential responses to these challenges. For example, previous studies have recommended clearer assignment requirements and marking criteria (Nicol, 2008; Razali & Jupri, 2014; Winkelmes et al., 2016), educators' educational support (Reeve and Tseng, 2011; Wingate, 2012a), focusing on

discipline-specific writing (Basturkmen, 2010; Hyland, 2003, 2007; Hyland & Shaw, 2016; Durrant, 2017; Macbeth, 2010), and ensuring students are able to respond to various genres conflated in a single assignment (Altinmakas & Bayyurt, 2019; Biber et al., 1999), Bychkovska & Lee, 2017; Leedham, 2015; Tardy et al., 2018). While these studies have all provided extremely useful ways forward, the present research offers suggestions that could help extend the findings of these previous studies, and hence provide further implications for practice.

Firstly, and as summarised above, the current research indicates that academic writing students should not be viewed as a homogenous and static group, but rather as individuals in different stages of development. This would suggest that academic writing instructors, and first year tertiary educators, might become more aware of these individual differences, how they are sensitive to the different stages of the first-year experience, and respond accordingly at each of these stages. Secondly, the current research indicates the crucial relationship between students' self-efficacy, agency, and motivation and the particular academic writing challenges they encounter at the different stages of their first year of university study. Accordingly, it is suggested that these socio-psychological phenomena need to be nurtured, developed, and strengthened by lecturers, mainly by providing students with an opportunity to participate in an open dialogue around academic writing and their particular assignment requirements. However, the current research also indicates that the particular focus of this dialogue is dependent on the stage of the academic year in which it is held. Students themselves, also need to be made aware of the importance of these socio-psychological phenomena when they approach their first-year undergraduate writing, and should be encouraged to demonstrate their own agency by asking questions, and seeking assistance that are relevant and important for the improvement of their own academic writing skills. These implications will be discussed further in the following sections, firstly for the practices of discipline-specific lecturers, and secondly for the practices of pre-degree preparatory course tutors.

10.2.1 Implications for discipline-specific lecturers

This section provides insights for the practices of discipline-specific lecturers focusing specifically on each of the three stages that structure the academic writing experiences of first year international L2 students.

10.2.1.1 Stage 1: Beginning of Semester 1

The importance of cultivating students' self-efficacy and agency

The findings suggest that when students enter their undergraduate studies, their self-efficacy is relatively high, as they believe that the academic writing skills acquired in their pre-degree courses are sufficient for the academic writing required in discipline studies. However, this is often not the case and students' miscalibration with the academic writing demands at the beginning of Semester 1 can result in a substantial decline in their self-efficacy by the time they approach their first assignments.

Therefore, to assist students' to better calibrate early in the first semester, lecturers could encourage students to demonstrate their own agency through types of adaptive help-seeking behaviour, such as dialoguing with their lecturers concerning unclear assignment requirements and marking criteria, addressing the SLC, or utilising proof-readers who are experts in their disciplines. A guest TLA and/or librarian speaker may also be invited to offer a short introduction about the services available to students and could highlight common misperceptions about these services. Furthermore, as the case study findings suggest, one of the challenges that prevents students exercising their agency was the struggle to organise their study time. As a result, lecturers and TLAs might work with students to better develop their time management skills before they approach their assignments in Semester 1. Lecturers and TLAs could also make student more aware of the time required to complete their assignments, particularly in Semester 1 when their discipline-specific writing skills are less developed.

10.2.1.2 Stage 2: End of Semester 1/Beginning of Semester 2

As the findings suggest, international L2 first year students' motivation to achieve positive academic outcomes may produce a spike in their agentic behaviour close to their assignment deadlines at the end of Semester 1, and at the beginning of Semester 2. This may be because at this particular stage international L2 students begin to recognise the limits of their ability to respond to their academic writing requirements. As a result, the following implications are suggested in relation to this second stage: i) the importance of motivating students, and ii) the importance of offering students avenues for exercising their agency.

The importance of motivating students

The findings suggest that international L2 first year students' motivation is an important factor that impacts on their agentic behaviour even in situations when they are uncertain about own capabilities. Therefore, it is vital for the students to maintain a relatively high level of motivation in the middle of their first year of studies where their sense of self-efficacy is often in decline. To achieve this, lecturers may offer to facilitate small study groups during which students could discuss their challenges, and brainstorm or share their ways of dealing with them. This study approach has been reported as being beneficial for students in terms of improving their English academic writing abilities, as well as increasing their motivation and can-do attitude (Neri & Ville, 2008; Brouwer et al., 2016; Bacha, 2010; Connor, 1996; Grabe & Kaplan, 1996; Leki, 1995). However, as discussed in Chapter 8, Morton, Storch, and Thompson (2015) say that students often find group work challenging at the beginning of their studies. Hence, lecturers need to develop and nurture students' group work skills through continuous facilitation of this study mode.

It is also suggested that students themselves seek motivational support for their academic success by devoting a certain amount of time to the development of their social network. As discussed in Chapter 1 and Chapter 3 respectively, Huang and Klinger (2006), and Chowdhury and Halder (2019) argue that a well-developed social network assists international L2 students to better identify the problems they face. Development of social networks may encourage students to seek peer support and potentially expand their own effective study strategies, as well as assist these students in quicker acculturation to their new academic culture.

Furthermore, as discussed in Chapter 8, Young (2017) claims that international students often avoid exposing and discussing their own weaknesses in front of others for fear of losing face. A good example was the case study participant Harry, who as a group leader, felt reluctant to seek support with academic writing from his group members. As a result, it is suggested that lecturers consider the issues that emerge when international L2 students take on a group leader role, especially those associated with the fear of losing face. These group leaders could be offered motivational support, for example, through dialogue with the lecturer.

The importance of offering students avenues for exercising their agency

The findings suggest that at the beginning of Semester 2, international L2 first year students have recognised the limits of their ability to respond to their academic writing requirements, and that this realisation results in an upsurge of their agency. Therefore, before students approach their assignments in Semester 2, lecturers might offer students opportunities to participate in a dialogue regarding the challenges that they have experienced, and the solutions they intend to pursue. Furthermore, lecturers should take an opportunity to restrain from conventional ways of thinking about meaning making in the academia and take into account students' perspectives with regards to academic writing. In other words, lecturers should welcome students' contributions to meaning making through designing and promoting a dialogue between lecturers and students. Lillis (2003) claims that such design frame allows to move from 'feedback' on students' writing to 'talkback', where students have an opportunity to negotiate what counts as relevant knowledge in their written text. However, given lecturers' high workloads, it might be suggested that they indicate their support and respect for what TLAs offer international L2 first year students, instead of downplaying their role, as was discussed in Chapter 3. To elaborate, a stronger lecturer/TLA partnership may empower TLAs with better ongoing discipline-specific writing support for students. Such collaborative work may result in the development of workshops that would focus on the concerns that are relevant and important to the students.

10.2.1.3 Stage 3: End of Semester 2

The findings suggest that at the end of Semester 2 students' self-efficacy, agency, and motivation plateaus. At this stage, students may take stock of their academic life and possibly focus on their other life experiences, such as how to balance social and academic demands. As discussed in Chapter 3, student social support positively impacts on students' level of self-efficacy (Brouwer et al., 2016; Brouwer et al., 2016a, 2016b; Vaughan et al., 2015). Therefore, students might be encouraged to develop their social network. Ongoing peer support may increase students' often plateaued level of self-efficacy in Semester 2 and, consequently, assist students in own academic improvements.

10.2.2 The insights for IELTS/EAP/FP educators

Although the current research examined students' perceptions of academic writing at three stages throughout their first-year undergraduate studies, the findings also provide implications for IELTS/EAP/FP educators. The study suggested that the international L2 first year student challenges with academic writing surface when they approach their first assignments in Semester 1. It was also suggested that while aspects taught in the EAP and FP courses, such as the APA norms, helped meet these challenges, students come to realise that writing skills acquired from their IELTS courses often have little relevance. The study suggested that this was mainly due to the differences between IELTS preparatory writing norms, and the nature and the type of writing required in the university context, which varied generically and was evidence-based. As indicated in Chapter 1, Hyland (2008, 2013a), Hyland and Tse (2007), Rogers (2000), Boggs (2015), and Wingate (2015) talk about the benefits of subject specific writing instruction in pre-degree courses. However, this is not always possible as pre-degree writing instructors do not always have the requisite subject specific knowledge. Instead, the current research indicates that what is more important is making students' aware that there are differences between the writing norms of pre-degree courses and the type of discipline specific writing required in the first-year undergraduate context. This might simply involve discussing examples of two or three university writing assignments with pre-degree students. Making students aware that there are different writing expectations may ensure that when students embark on their first-year undergraduate studies they are better calibrated, and there is a less of a chance that they will overestimate their abilities at the beginning of Semester 1. Better calibration of students at the onset of their university studies would also encourage them to exercise their own agency and ultimately lead to better academic outcomes.

In summary, the current study suggests that international L2 first year students' perceptions of academic writing change throughout the course of their first year of undergraduate study, and that this is reflected in the ways that the student approach and respond to the challenges of their written assessments at each stage of their study. Furthermore, the levels of these students' self-efficacy, agency, and motivation also fluctuates throughout the first year; a phenomenon that could be considered by their first-year lecturers. Moreover, in order to better prepare students for the demands of

academic writing in their first year of university, IELTS/EAP/FP educators should raise students' consciousness that pre-degree writing is not necessarily representative of first year academic writing. By better calibrating students for their future studies, educators may contribute to fostering the agency of international L2 students in their first year. Once in the academy, lecturers need to provide students with support for the different challenges that they will encounter in their first year of undergraduate study largely by facilitating an open dialogue with the students regarding their academic writing practices.

10.3 Limitations of the study

While this research provided an original empirical contribution to the field of academic literacies, it has certain methodological (Section 10.3.1) and scope limitations (Section 10.3.2), which in turn, provide some implications for future research (Section 10.4).

10.3.1 Methodological limitations

The documentation analysed in this study was provided by the participants. This brought certain limitations. Firstly, while allowing the participants to make their own choices regarding the written assignments they would discuss provided students with a degree of control in the research process, ultimately it did not provide the researcher with the full range of assignment types and genres that the participants encountered in their first year. Secondly, a certain amount of data was unavailable to the researcher, as students were not willing to share it, were unable to retrieve it from their university LMS, or were not provided with it by the time of our final interviews (e.g. assignment feedback at the end of Semester 2).

Another methodological limitation of the current research is that there is the possibility that in certain instances participants may not have fully trusted the researcher, or the credibility of the research process. Such mistrust may have restricted the participants' willingness to share all necessary details about their personal challenges and academic writing development. In addition, the interview component of the data collection process was based on the students' memory of events related to their academic writing practices and may not always have been reliable.

10.3.2 Scope limitations

Although the selection of the participants took into consideration their age, institution and discipline areas, the selected students cannot be considered to be representatives of the entire student population. Using the theoretical framework that underpins the current research a similar study with international L2 students in HE institutions with EMI in other countries may yield different results. Another scope limitation of the current study related to the allocated time for the research, which limited the possibilities to extend this research to interviewing IELTS/EAP/FP educators, as well as university lecturers' perceptions on students' academic writing skills.

10.4 Implications for future research

In light of the research findings discussed in Chapter 9 and limitations presented in the previous section, a number of suggestions for future research can be made. Firstly, more longitudinal research is recommended in the area of academic writing concerning undergraduate students. Secondly, given the limited number of participants in this study, it is suggested that similar future case study research expands on the number and diversity of participants in order to allow more generalisable results. Furthermore, future research may take a step forward and look at students' perceptions regarding academic writing beyond their first year of undergraduate study, that is, future research could involve students in their second and third years of undergraduate studies. Thirdly as the current research focused on students' first year undergraduate experience in NZ HE institutions, future studies may be conducted in other HE institutions with EMI in order to observe the possibilities for transferability of the current research findings to other contexts. Fourthly, since the current research involved mainly qualitative data, future research in this area may also benefit from a quantitative component, for example widely distributed student questionnaires. Fifthly, as the current research involved students' perceptions of own academic writing practices based on their memories of the events, future research may benefit from triangulation with other forms of data collection, such as think-aloud protocols, or the use of multimedia resources in the data collection processes. Finally, this research was focused on only one party in the educational process, i.e., students. Hence future research may investigate the challenges that university lecturers face when dealing with the international L2 students and their

academic writing in English. In addition, further research may involve TLAs and proof-readers and their perceptions of the challenges that students seek help with.

10.5 Concluding remarks

My personal experience as a PhD student matches the topic of the study – challenges that L2 students face during their writing practices. As an ESOL teacher I realised the range of challenges that my international L2 students may potentially encounter in their academic writing practices. The findings of the current research showed the kind of struggles that students go through when they are underprepared for academic demands at HE institutions with EMI. This PhD journey has certainly contributed to my professional and personal development.

On the professional level, I believe I have gained first-hand knowledge of the topic through scrutinising and analysing the relevant literature, regular discussions with my supervisors, and receiving their timely feedback on my drafts. In addition, the findings of this research have provided me with a deeper awareness of the challenges international L2 students face when confronted with academic demands in HE with EMI in relation to academic writing in the early 21st century. The findings are expected to better inform my teaching and research practices in the field of academic literacies.

On the personal level, similar to my student-participants, I experienced a range of challenges throughout my PhD study. This journey was filled with highs and lows, ranging from time when I experienced stress, worry, disappointment, and tears to the times filled with joy and pride for own academic achievements. The journey taught me how to be more patient, resilient, and manage my time between my study, family, and work.

In conclusion, I hope that the current PhD thesis contributes to the future research in the area in terms of scaffolding on the findings of the present study and addressing any limitations discussed earlier. I also hope that academic literacies research will further utilise longitudinal case study methodology to study academic writing as a social practice.

References

- Abdul Rahman, Z. A. A. (2013). The use of cohesive devices in descriptive writing by Omani student-teachers. *Sage Open*, 3(4), 1-10. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1177/2158244013506715>
- Adams, R. V., & Blair, E. (2019). Impact of time management behaviors on undergraduate engineering students' performance. *SAGE Open*, 9(1), 1-11. Doi: 2158244018824506
- Aguilar, C., Phaire, D., & Wright, A. (2019). Three Approaches to Bridging the Academic Literacy Gap. *CEAMAG Journal*, 27, 17-30.
- Ahmad, M., Mahmood, M. A., & Siddique, A. R. (2019). Organisational skills in academic writing: A study on coherence and cohesion in Pakistani research abstracts. *Languages*, 4(92), 1-26. <https://doi.org/10.3390/languages4040092>
- Ahmad, A., & Shah, M. (2018). International students' choice to study in China: An exploratory study. *Tertiary Education and Management*, 24, 325-337. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/13583883.2018.1458247>
- Ahmetoglu, Y., Brumby, D. P., & Cox, A. L. (2020, April). Time Estimation Bias in Knowledge Work: Tasks With Fewer Time Constraints Are More Error-Prone. *Extended Abstracts of the 2020 CHI Conference on Human Factors in Computing Systems* (pp. 1-8). https://discovery.ucl.ac.uk/id/eprint/10098803/1/LBW_Planning_fallacy%20%2812%29.pdf

- Alderson, J. C., & Hamp-Lyons, L. (1996). TOEFL preparation courses: A study of washback. *Language Testing*, 13(3), 280-297. <https://journals-sagepub-com.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/doi/pdf/10.1177/026553229601300304>
- Alderson, J. C., & Wall, D. (1993). Does washback exist? *Applied Linguistics*, 14(2), 115–29.
- Alexander, O. (2010). English for academic purposes in university settings: Teacher and learner competencies. IATEFL English for specific purposes SIG Bilkent University School of English Language Faculty Academic English Program. *The Leap into TEAP: The role of the BALEAP competency framework in the professional development of new EAP teachers*, 1-7.
- Alexander, O. (2019). The contribution of Halliday to EAP writing instruction: A personal journey. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 41(100769), 1-9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2019.100769>
- Alias A., Mohd Noor N.A., Mohamad Bhkari N., & Ariffin K. (2019). Student learning time: A needs analysis for university students' time management skills. In Y. M. N. Mohd, E. A. Badli, R. I. Mohd, H. Hasnizawati, & A. A. B. Mohd (Eds.), *Proceedings of the Regional Conference on Science, Technology and Social Sciences (RCSTSS 2016)*. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-0203-9_12
- Allison, D. (1996). Pragmatist discourse and English for Academic Purposes. *English for Specific Purposes*, 15(2), 85-103.

- Alsahafi, N., & Shin, S. (2017). Factors affecting the academic and cultural adjustment of Saudi international students in Australian universities. *Journal of International Students*, 7(1), 53-72.
- Al-Tamimi, A., & Shuib, M. (2009). Motivation and attitudes towards learning English: A study of petroleum engineering undergraduates at Hadhramout University of Sciences and Technology. *GEMA Online Journal of Language Studies*, 9(2), 29-55.
- Altbach, P. G., Reisberg, L., & de Wit, H. (Eds.). (2017). *Responding to massification: Differentiation in postsecondary education worldwide*. Sense Publishers.
- Altbach, P. G., Reisberg, L., & Rumbley, L. E. (Eds.). (2010). *Trends in global higher education: Tracking an academic revolution*. UNESCO Publishing.
- Altinmakas, D., & Bayyurt, Y. (2019). An exploratory study on factors influencing undergraduate students' academic writing practices in Turkey. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 37, 88-103. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2018.11.006>
- Ammigand, R., Drexlerd, M. L., Williamsonb, A. A., & Guerra, N. G. (2019). Prevalence and correlates of depressive symptoms among international students: implications for university support offices. *Journal of International Students* 2019, 9(1), 129-148. DOI: 10.32674/jis.v9i1.277
- Anderson, R. (2019). Squaring the circle between perceived rhetorical norms in academic writing and developing an individual academic writer identity. *Discourse on Culture*, 53-73.
- Andrade, H. G. (2005). Teaching with rubrics: The good, the bad, and the ugly. *College teaching*, 53(1), 27-31.

- Andrade, M. S. (2006). International students in English-speaking universities: Adjustment factors. *Journal of Research in International Education*, 5(2), 131–154. Doi:10.1177/1475240906065589.
- Andrew, S. (1998). Self-efficacy as a predictor of academic performance in science. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 27, 596–603.
- Appleby, R. (2009). The special politics of gender in EAP classroom practice. *English for specific purposes*, 18(4), 2-30.
- Arkoudis, S., & Tran, L. T. (2010). Writing blah, blah, blah: Lecturers' approaches and challenges in supporting international students. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, 22(2), 169-178.
- Arnó-Macià, E., & Mancho-Barés, G. (2015). The role of content and language in content and language integrated learning (CLIL) at university: Challenges and implications for ESP. *English for Specific Purposes*, 37, 63-73.
- Asher, N. (2004). Troubles with topics: Comments on Kehler, Oberlander, Stede and Zeevat. *Theoretical Linguistics*, 30, 255-262.
- Ashton-Hay, S. A., Wignell, P., & Evans, K. (2016). International student transitioning experiences: Student voice. *Journal of Academic Language and Learning*, 10(1), A1-A19.
- ATLAANZ [Association of Tertiary Learning Advisors of Aotearoa/ New Zealand], (n.d.). *About us*. <https://www.atlaanz.org/about-us>

AUT library. (n.d.). *Drop-ins for assessment advice*. <https://library.aut.ac.nz/for-lecturers/academic-writing-development-for-your-students/drop-ins-about-academic-writing>

Ayers, K. M. S., Thomson, W. M., Newton, J. T., & Rich, A. M. (2008). Job stressors of New Zealand dentists and their coping strategies. *Occupational medicine*, 58(4), 275-281.

Baba, K. (2009). Aspects of lexical proficiency in writing summaries in a foreign language. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 18(3), 191-208.

Bacha, N. N. (2010). Teaching literature in an English as a Foreign Language classroom: A study of student attitudes. *International Journal of the Humanities*, 8(1), 47-64.

Bahr, P. R. (2010). Revisiting the efficacy of postsecondary remediation: The moderating effects of depth/breadth of deficiency. *The Review of Higher Education*, 33(2), 177-205.

Baig, F. Z., Yousaf, W., Aazam, F., Shamshad, S., Fida, I., & Zammad, M. (2019). Power, Ideology, and Identity in Digital Literacy: A Sociolinguistic Study. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 9(4), 252-264.
<https://doi.org/10.5539/ijel.v9n4p252>

Baik, C., & Greig, J. (2009). Improving the academic outcomes of undergraduate ESL students: the case for discipline-based academic skills programs. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 28(4), 401-416. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/07294360903067005>

- Bailey, R. (2009). *Student writing and academic literacy development in higher education: An institutional case study* [Doctoral thesis, Northumbria University]. Northumbria Research.
http://nrl.northumbria.ac.uk/id/eprint/3077/1/Bailey.Richard_PhD.pdf
- Bailey, R. (2018). Student writing and academic literacy development at university. *Journal of Learning and Student Experience*, 1, 7-7.
- Bailey, S. (2017). *Academic Writing A Handbook for International Students* (3rd ed). Routledge.
- Bailey, R., & Garner, M. (2010). Is the feedback in higher education assessment worth the paper it is written on? Teachers' reflections on their practices. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 15(2), 187-198. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/13562511003620019>
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, 84, 191-215.
- Bandura, A. (1981). Self-referent thought: A developmental analysis of self-efficacy. In J. H. Flavell & L. Ross (Eds.), *Social cognitive development: Frontiers and possible futures* (pp. 200-239). Cambridge University Press.
- Bandura, A. (1982). Self-efficacy mechanism in human agency. *American Psychologist*, 37, 122-147.
- Bandura, A. (1994). *Self-efficacy*. John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. Freeman.

Bandura, A., & Locke, E. (2003). Negative self-efficacy and goal effects revisited.

Journal of Applied Psychology, 88(1), 87-99.

Barkhuizen, G., & Cooper, R. (2004). Students' perceptions of IELTS preparation: How helpful is it for tertiary study? *New Zealand Studies in Applied Linguistics*, 10 (1), 97-106.

Barrett-Lennard, S., & Bulsara, C. (2008). *Perceptions and expectations of English requirements and support*. www.studentservices.uwa.edu.au/ss/learning/networking-smarter/llrs_projects/

Barton, D. (2007). *Literacy: An Introduction to the ecology of written language*. Wiley-Blackwell.

Barton, D. (2017). *Literacy: An introduction to the ecology of written language*. John Wiley & Sons.

Basturkmen, H. (2010). *Developing courses in English for specific purposes*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Basturkmen, H. (2014). *Ideas and options in English for specific purposes*. Routledge.

Basturkmen, H. (2017). Developing writing courses for specific academic purposes. In J. Flowerdew & T. Costley (Eds.), *Discipline-Specific Writing: Theory into Practice* (pp. 31-45). Routledge.

Bates, R. H., Greif, A., Levi, M., Rosenthal, J. L., & Weingast, B. R. (2000). Analytic Narratives Revisited, *Social Science History*, 24(4), 696-702.

- Baxter, P., & Jack, S. (2008). Qualitative case study methodology: Study design and implementation for novice researchers. *The Qualitative Report*, 13(4), 544-559.
<http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR13-4/baxter.pdf>
- Beach, K. (1999). Consequential transitions: A sociocultural expedition beyond transfer in education. *Review of Research in Education*, 24, 101-139.
- Beaver, B., & Tuck, B. (1998). The adjustment of overseas students at a tertiary institution in New Zealand. *New Zealand Journal of Educational Studies*, 33, 167–179.
- Beck, R. C. (2004). *Motivation: Theories and principles* (5th ed.). Prentice-Hall.
- Beech, S. E. (2014). Why place matters: Imaginative geography and international student mobility. *Area*, 46(2), 170-177.
- Beech, S. E. (2018). Adapting to change in the higher education system: International student mobility as a migration industry. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 44(4), 610-625. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/1369183X.2017.1315515>
- Bell, A., Mladenovic, R., & Price, M. (2013). Students' perceptions of the usefulness of marking guides, grade descriptors and annotated exemplars. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 38(7), 769–788.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/02602938.2012.714738>
- Benenson, J. F., & Koulkazarian, M. (2008). Sex differences in help-seeking appear in early childhood. *British Journal of Developmental Psychology*, 26, 163-167.
<https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1348/026151007X231048>

- Benesch, S. (1993). ESL, ideology and the politics pragmatism, *TESOL Quarterly*, 27(4), 705-717.
- Benesch, S. (1999). Rights analysis: Studying power relations in an academic setting. *English for specific purposes*, 18(4), 313-327.
- Benesch, S. (2009). Theorizing and practicing critical English for academic purposes. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes* 8, 81-85.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2008.09.002>
- Bennett, N., Dunne, E., & Carre', B. (2000). *Skills development in higher education and employment*. The Society for Research into Higher Education.
- Benson, M. J. (1991). University ESL reading: A content analysis. *English for Specific Purposes*, 10(2), 75-88.
- Benson III, L., & Beach, L. R. (1996). The effects of time constraints on the prechoice screening of decision options. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 67(2), 222-228.
- Berg, B. L. (2007). *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences*. Pearson.
- Berg, B. L. (2009). *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences*. Allyn & Bacon.
- Bergey, B. W., Parrila, R. K., Laroche, A., & Deacon, S. H. (2019). Effects of peer-led training on academic self-efficacy, study strategies, and academic performance for first-year university students with and without reading difficulties. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 56, 25-39. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2018.11.001>

- Berman, R., & Cheng, L. (2010). English academic language skills: Perceived difficulties by undergraduate and graduate students, and their academic achievement. *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 4(1–2), 25-40.
- Bernard, H. R. (2013). *Social research method: qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Sage Publications.
- Berridge, D. (2017). The education of children in care: Agency and resilience. *Children and Youth Services Review*, 77, 86-93.
- Besnier, N. (1988). The linguistic relationship of spoken and written Neukulaelae registers. *Language*, 64, 707-736.
- Bhatia, V. K. (1997). Genre-mixing in academic introductions. *English for specific purposes*, 16(3), 181-195.
- Biber, D., Johansson, S., Leech, G., Conrad, S., & Finegan, E. (1999). *The Longman grammar of spoken and written English*. Longman.
- Bista, K. (2015). Asian international students' college experience: Relationship between quality of personal contact and gains in learning. *Journal of International and Global Studies*, 6(2), 38–54.
- Bloor, M. & Bloor, T. (1986). Language for specific purposes: Practice and theory. *CLCS Occasional Papers No. 19*, 1-36.
- Boggs, G. L. (2015). Listening to 21st century literacies: Prehistory of writing in an academic discipline. *Linguistics and education*, 29, 15-31.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2014.10.001>

- Boekaerts, M., & Rozendaal, J. S. (2010). Using multiple calibration indices in order to capture the complex picture of what affects students' accuracy of feeling of confidence. *Learning and Instruction*, 20(5), 372-382.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.learninstruc.2009.03.002>
- Boston, J. (1999). The funding of tertiary education: Enduring issues and dilemmas. In J. Boston, P. Dalziel, & S. St John (Eds.), *Redesigning the welfare state in New Zealand* (pp.197-217). Oxford University Press.
- Boston, N. (2017). *The Experiences of Mature Age Students Transitioning to Higher Education* [Doctoral dissertation, Auckland University of Technology]. Tuwera.
<http://hdl.handle.net/10292/11016>
- Boström, L., & Bostedt, G. (2020). What motivates students to study in upper secondary school?: A study on students' perspective on study motivation in four different study programs in Sweden. *International Journal of Teaching and Education*, 8(2), 18-34.
- Bowyer, K. (2012). A model of student workload. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 34(3), 239-258.
- Brady, L., Singh-Concoran, N., Dadisman, J. A., & Diamond, K. (2009). A collaborative approach to information literacy: First-year composition, writing center, and library partnerships at West Virginia University. *Composition Forum*, 19, 308-333. https://researchrepository.wvu.edu/faculty_publications/1210 308-333
- Brennen, R. E., Engela, K. E., Vogela, D. L., Tuckera, J. R., Yamawakic, N., & Lannin, D. G. (2018). Intersecting cultural identities and help-seeking attitudes: The role of religious commitment, gender, and self-stigma of seeking help. *Mental health, religion & culture*, 21(6), 578–587. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13674676.2018.1519782>

- Broadhead, J. (2018). Mature students, transformation and transition. *Education + Training*, 1-18. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1108/ET-02-2018-0035>
- Brookes, R. H. (2017). *Developing teamwork skills in undergraduate science students: The academic perspective and practice*. Proceedings of The Australian Conference on Science and Mathematics Education (formerly UniServe Science Conference). <https://lau.repository.guildhe.ac.uk/17299/1/Mature%20students%2C%20transformation%20and%20transition%20accepted%20version.pdf>
- Brouwer, J., Jansen, E., Flache, A., & Hofman, A. (2016a). The impact of social capital on self-efficacy and study success among first-year university students. *Learning and individual differences*, 52, 109–118. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2016.09.016>
- Brouwer, J., Jansen, E. P. W. A., Hofman, W. H. A., & Flache, A. (2016b). Een goed begin is het halve werk: Het belang van kleinschalig onderwijs voor de interactie, zelfeffectiviteit, en studiesucces in het eerste semester [Well begun is half done: The importance of small group teaching for interaction, self-efficacy and study success in the first semester]. *Pedagogische Studiën*, 93(3), 119–135.
- Brouwer, J., Jansen, E., Hofman, A., & Flache, A. (2016c). Early tracking or finally leaving? Determinants of early study success in first-year university students. *Research in Post-Compulsory Education*, 21(4), 376–393. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13596748.2016.1226584>.
- Brown, P. (1990). The ‘Third Wave’: Education and the Ideology of Parentocracy. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 11(1), 65-85. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/0142569900110105>
- Brown, H. (2000). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. Prentice Hall

- Brown, L., & Holloway, I. (2008). The adjustment journey of international postgraduate students at an English university: An ethnographic study. *Journal of Research in International Education*, 7(2), 232-249.
- Brown, P., Lauder, H., & Ashton, D. (2011). *The global auction: The broken promises of education, jobs, and income*. Oxford University press.
- Bruce, I. (2005). Syllabus design for general EAP writing courses: A cognitive approach. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 4, 239–256.
- Bruce, I. (2011). *Theory and concepts of English for academic purposes*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Bruce, I. (2018). The EAP teacher knowledge base: Current affordances and future challenges. *4th International Conference on EAP Teaching and Researching in China and The 3rd International Conference on EAP in Asia*, 1-39.
<https://researchcommons.waikato.ac.nz/bitstream/handle/10289/13027/Ian%20Bruce-Plenary%20CEAPA%20Conference-China-Presentation.pdf?sequence=6&isAllowed=y>
- Bruning, R., & Horn, C. (2000). Developing motivation to write. *Educational psychologist*, 35(1), 25-37.
- Bruno, I., & Santos, L. (2010). Written comments as a form of feedback. *Studies in Educational Evaluation*, 36(3), 111-120.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.stueduc.2010.12.001>
- Burnett, C., Merchant, G., Pahl, K., & Rowsell, J. (2014). The (im)materiality of literacy: The significance of subjectivity to new literacies research. *Discourse: Studies in the Cultural Politics of Education*, 35(1), 90-103.

- Burr, V. (2015). *Social constructionism*. Routledge.
- Burton, L., & Dowling, D. (2005). In search of the key factors that influence student success at university, in Higher education in a changing world. *Proceedings of the 28th HERDSA Annual Conference*, 68-78.
- Busher, H., & James, N. (2019) Struggling to become successful learners: Mature students' early experiences of access to higher education courses. *Studies in the Education of Adults*, 51(1), 74-88. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/02660830.2018.1556483>
- Butcher, A., & McGrath, T. (2004). International students in New Zealand: Needs and responses. *International Education Journal*, 5(4), 540–551.
- Bychkovska, T., & Lee, J. J. (2017). At the same time: Lexical bundles in L1 and L2 university student argumentative writing. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 30, 38-52.
- Byrne, M., Chughtai, A., Flood, B., Murphy, E., & Willis, P. (2013). Burnout among accounting and finance academics in Ireland. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 27(2), 127–142.
- Cagliero, R., & Jenkins, J. (2010). *Discourse, communities, and global Englishes*. Peter Lang.
- Çakir, R., Korkmaz, Ö., Bacanak, A., & Arslan, Ö. (2016). An exploration of the relationship between students' preferences for formative feedback and self-regulated learning skills. *Malaysian Online Journal of Educational Sciences*, 4(4), 14–30.

- Cameron, C. (2018a). Tertiary learning advisors in Aotearoa/New Zealand: Part one: Building a profile of our profession. *ATLAANZ Journal 3 (Special Issue: Identity and Opportunity)*, 1-24.
- Cameron, C. (2018b). Tertiary learning advisors in Aotearoa/New Zealand: Part two: Acknowledging our contribution. *ATLAANZ Journal, 3 (Special Issue: Identity and Opportunity)*, 25-43.
- Cameron, C. (2018c). Tertiary learning advisors in Aotearoa/New Zealand: Part three: Why do we stay? Rewards and challenges. *ATLAANZ Journal, 3 (Special Issue: Identity and Opportunity)*, 44-66.
- Cameron, C., & Catt, C. (2008, November 19-21). *Learning centre practice in Aotearoa/New Zealand* [Report on workshop]. 2008 Annual International Conference of the Association of Tertiary Learning Advisors Aotearoa/New Zealand, Porirua, New Zealand.
- Cameron, C. & Catt, C. (2014). Learning centre practice in Aotearoa/New Zealand: Preliminary report. In H. Martin & M. Simkin (Eds.), *Hikina te manuka! Learning connections in a changing environment* (pp. 1-18). ATLAANZ.
- Campbell, C. M. (2012). *Faculty Agency: Organizational contexts that matter in faculty careers* [Unpublished master's dissertation]. University of Maryland.
- Campbell, C., & Smala, S. (2016, March 21-26). *Assignment exemplars: Creating a one stop site for students* [Paper presentation]. Society for Information Technology & Teacher Education International Conference, Savannah, GA, United States.
<https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/143905031.pdf>

- Campbell, J., & Li, M. (2008). Asian students' voices: An empirical study of Asian students' learning experiences at a New Zealand university. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 12(4), 375–396. Doi:10.1177/1028315307299422
- Canagarajah, S. (2001). Addressing issues of power and difference in ESL academic writing. In J. Flowerdew & M. Peacock (Eds.), *Research perspectives on English for academic purposes* (pp. 117-131). Cambridge University Press.
- Canagarajah, S. (2002). Multilingual writers and the academic community: Towards a critical relationship. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes* 1(1), 29–44.
[https://doi.org/10.1016/S1475-1585\(02\)00007-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1475-1585(02)00007-3)
- Canagarajah, S. (2006). Negotiating the local in English as a Lingua Franca. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 26, 197–218.
- Canagarajah, A. S. (2013a). Negotiating translingual literacy: An enactment. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 40-67.
- Canagarajah, S. (2013b). Agency and power in intercultural communication: Negotiating English in translocal spaces. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, 13(2), 202-224. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/14708477.2013.770867>
- Candlin, S. (2000). New dynamics in the nurse-patient relationship. In S. Sarangi & M. Coulthard (Eds.), *Discourse and social life* (pp. 230–245). Longman.
- Candlin, C. N., Crichton, J., & Moore, S. H. (2017). *Exploring discourse in context and in action*. Palgrave Macmillan.

- Caplan, N. A. (2019). Asking the right questions: Demystifying writing assignments across the disciplines. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 41, 1-8.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2019.100776>
- Carless, D., & Ho Chan, K. K. (2016). Managing dialogic use of exemplars. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 42(6). <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/02602938.2016.1211246>
- Carter, S. (2008). Tertiary learning advisors: Identity, practice, professionalism. In E. Manalo, J. Bartlett-Trafford, & S. Crozier (Eds.), *Walking a Tightrope: The balancing act of learning advising* (Vol. 3, pp. 62-85). ATLAANZ.
- Carter, R., Salamonson, Y., Ramjan, L. M., & Halcomb, E. (2018). Students use of exemplars to support academic writing in higher education: An integrative review. *Nurse Education Today*, 65, 87-93.
- Cartwright, P., & Noone, L. (2001). Is this what we're supposed to be learning in this unit? In K. Chanock (Ed.), *Sources of confusion. Refereed proceedings of the National Academic Skills Conference* (pp. 45-60). La Trobe University.
- Casanave, C. (2002). *Writing games: Multicultural case studies of academic literacy practices in higher education*. Erlbaum.
- Casanave, C. (2008). Learning participatory practices in graduate school: Some perspective-taking by a mainstream editor. In C. Casanave & X. Li (Eds.), *Learning the literacy practices of graduate school: Insiders' reflections on academic enculturation* (pp. 14-31). University of Michigan Press.

- Cavagnetto, A. R. (2010). Argument to foster scientific literacy: A review of argument interventions in K-12 science contexts. *Review of Educational Research*, 80(3), 336–371. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/40927285>
- Caviola, S., Carey, E., Mammarella, I. C., & Szucs, D. (2017). Stress, time pressure, strategy selection and math anxiety in mathematics: A review of the literature. *Frontiers in psychology*, 8, 1-13. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2017.01488>
- Ceylan, N. O. (2019). Student perceptions of difficulties in second language writing. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 15(1), 151-157.
Doi:10.17263/jlls.547683.
- Chafe, W. (1982). Integration and involvement in speaking, writing, and oral literature. In D. Tannen (Ed.), *Spoken and written language: Exploring orality and literacy* (pp. 35-53). Ablex.
- Chan, K. L. R. (2020). Washback in education: A critical review and its implications for language teachers. *Journal of Foreign Language Education and Technology*, 5(1), 108-124.
- Chan, S. J., & Lin, J. W. (2016). Aiming for better employment: A holistic analysis from admission to labour market. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 38(3), 282-296.
- Chanock, K. (2007). What academic language and learning advisers bring to the scholarship of teaching and learning: Problems and possibilities for dialogue with the disciplines. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 26(3), 269-280. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/07294360701494294>

- Chapman, A., & Pyvis, D. (2006). Quality, identity and practice in offshore university programmes: Issues in the internationalization of Australian higher education. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 11(2), 233-245. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/13562510500527818>
- Chen, C. P. (1999). Professional issues: Common stressors among international college students: Research and counseling implications. *Journal of College Counseling*, 2, 49-65. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1002/j.2161-1882.1999.tb00142.x>
- Chen, L. (2006). Attracting East Asian students to Canadian graduate schools. *Canadian Journal of Higher Education*, 36, 77–105.
- Cheng, L., & Fox, J. (2008). Towards a better understanding of academic acculturation: Second language students in Canadian universities. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 65, 307–333. Doi: 10.3138/cmlr.65.2.307.
- Cheng, L., Myles, J., & Curtis, A. (2004). Targeting language support for non-native English-speaking graduate students at a Canadian university. *TESL Canada Journal*, 50-71.
- Cherryholmes, C. (1988). *Power and criticism: Poststructural investigations in education*. Teachers College Press.
- Chikkatur, A. P., & Jones-Walker, C. (2013). The influence of researcher identity on ethnographies in multiracial schools. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 26(7), 829-847. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/09518398.2012.666292>
- Chinazzi, M., Davis, J. T., Ajelli, M., Gioannini, C., Litvinova, M., Merler, S., Pastore y Piontti, A., Mu, K, Rossi, L., Sun, K., Viboud, C., Xiong, X., Yu, H., Halloran, M.

- L., & Viboud, C. (2020). The effect of travel restrictions on the spread of the 2019 novel coronavirus (COVID-19) outbreak. *Science*, 368(6489), 395-400.
- Christensen, C. L., & Carlile, P. R. (2009). Course research: using case method to build and teach management theory. *Academy of management learning & education*, 8(2), 240-251.
- Cho, Y., & Bridgeman, B. (2012). Relationship of TOEFL iBT® scores to academic performance: Some evidence from American universities. *Language Testing*, 29(3), 421-442. Doi: 10.1177/0265532211430368
- Choi, J. A. (2006). Doing poststructural ethnography in the life history of dropouts in South Korea: Methodological ruminations on subjectivity, positionality and reflexivity. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 19(4), 435-453. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/09518390600773163>
- Choi, J. H. (2013). Attitudes of international music students from East Asia toward US higher education institutions. *International Journal of Music Education*, 31(3), 346–358. Doi: 10.1177/0255761411433719.
- Chowdhury, S., & Halder, S. (2019). Academic help-seeking: A constructivist approach in learning and achievement. *International Journal of Education & Management Studies*, 9(4), 227-231.
- Clarence, S. (2012). Making inter-disciplinary spaces for talk about and change in student writing and literacy development. *Teaching in Higher Education* 17(2), 127–137 <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/13562517.2011.611876>
- Clark, R. (1992). Principles and practice of CLA in the classroom. In N. Fairclough (Ed.), *Critical language awareness* (pp. 117-140). Longman.

- Clark, R., & Ivanič, R. (2013). *The politics of writing*. Routledge.
- Cleary, A. (2017). Help-seeking patterns and attitudes to treatment amongst men who attempted suicide. *Journal of Mental Health*, 26, 220–224. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.3109/09638237.2016.1149800>
- Cogo, A. (2015). English as a lingua franca: Descriptions, domains and applications. H. Bowles & A. Cogo (Eds.), *International Perspectives on English as a Lingua Franca: Pedagogical insights* (pp. 1-12). Macmillan.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2011). *Research methods in education* (7th ed.). Routledge.
- Collins Dictionary. (2020). Terms of reference. In *Collins.com dictionary*. Retrieved July 23, 2020, <https://www.collinsdictionary.com/dictionary/english/terms-of-reference>
- Connor, U. (1996). *Contrastive rhetoric cross-cultural aspects of second-language writing*. Cambridge University Press.
- Conway, G. D, Jugarap, E. J. M., Marquez, V. M., Crisostomo, K. A., & Ouano, J. A. (2018). Examining the salience of school connectedness in college students' academic help-seeking behavior. *Philippine Association for Counselor Education, Research, and Supervision (PACERS)*, 20(1), 61-80.
- Cooke, R., & Bledsoe, S. (2008). Writing centers and libraries: One-stop shopping for better term papers. *The Reference Librarian*, 49(2), 119-127. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/02763870802101310>

Cooper, T. (2013). Can IELTS writing scores predict university performance?

Comparing the use of lexical bundles in IELTS writing tests and first-year academic writing. *Stellenbosch Papers in Linguistics Plus*, 42, 63-79. Doi: 10.5842/42-0-155

Copeland, D. E., Winkelmes, A., & Gunawan, K. (2018). Helping students by using transparent writing assignments. In T. L. Kuther (Ed.), *Integrating writing into the college classroom: Strategies for promoting student skills* (pp. 26-38).

<http://teachpsych.org/ebooks/>

Cordón, F. (1997). Youth residential independence and autonomy: A comparative study. *Journal of Family Issues*, 6, 572-575. Doi: [10.1177/019251397018006002](https://doi.org/10.1177/019251397018006002).

Cots, J. M. (2013). Introducing English-medium instruction at the University of Lleida, Spain: Intervention, beliefs and practices. In A. Doiz, D. Lasagabaster, & J. M. Sierra (Eds.), *English-medium instruction at universities: Global challenges* (106-128). Multilingual Matters.

Coupland, N. (2010). *The handbook of language and globalisation*. Wiley-Blackwell.

Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (2nd ed.). Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. Sage Publications.

Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. Sage Publications.

Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2018). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Sage Publications.

- Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2007). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. Sage.
- Creswell, J. W., & Tashakkori, A. (2007). Differing perspectives on mixed methods research. *Journal of mixed methods research*, 1(4), 303-308.
- Crosthwaite, P. (2016). A longitudinal multidimensional analysis of EAP writing: Determining EAP course effectiveness. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 22, 166-178.
- Crystal, D. (2003). *English as a global language* (2nd ed.). Cambridge University Press.
- Cumming, A., Lai, C., & Cho, H. (2016). Students' writing from sources for academic purposes: A synthesis of recent research. *Journal of English for Academic purposes*, 23, 47-58.
- Dansereau, D., Carmichael, L. E., & Hotson, B. (2020). Building first-year science writing skills with an embedded writing instruction program. *Journal of College Science Teaching*, 49(3). <https://www.nsta.org/journal-college-science-teaching/journal-college-science-teaching-januaryfebruary-2020/building>
- Danziger, K. (1997). The varieties of social construction. *Theory and psychology*, 7(3), 399-416.
- Dao, T. K., Lee, D., & Chang, H. L. (2007). Acculturation level, perceived English fluency, perceived social support level, and depression among Taiwanese international students. *College Student Journal*, 41, 287-295.

- Darby, A., Longmire-Avital, B., Chenault, J., & Haglund, M. (2013). Students' motivation in academic service-learning over the course of the semester. *College Student Journal*, 47(1), 185-191.
- Day, T. (2018). *Success in academic writing*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Deane, M., & O'Neill, P. (2011). *Writing in the Disciplines*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Deckers, L. (2005). *Motivation: Biological, psychological, and environmental* (2nd ed.). Pearson.
- De Magalhães, M. B., Cotterall, S., & Mideros, D. (2019). Identity, voice and agency in two EAL doctoral writing contexts. *Journal of second language writing*, 43, 4-14. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2018.05.001>
- Denzin, N. K. (1978). *The research act: A theoretical introduction to sociological methods*. McGraw-Hill.
- Denzin, N., & Lincoln, Y. (2011). *The Sage handbook of qualitative research* (4th ed.). Sage Publications.
- Devitt, A. J. (2009). Teaching critical genre awareness. In C. Bazerman, A. Bonini, & D. Figueiredo (Eds.), *Genre in a changing world* (pp. 337-351). WAC Clearinghouse.
- Devitt, A. J. (2015). Genre performances: John Swales' Genre Analysis and rhetorical-linguistic genre studies. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 19, 44-51.
- DeWitt, D., & Alias, N. (2017). Infographic posters for enhancing 21st century communication skills. http://eprints.um.edu.my/18115/1/DeWitt_Full_paper_Infographic.pdf

- Dias, P., & Pare, P. (Eds.). (2000). *Transitions: Writing in academic and workplace settings*. Hampton Press.
- Dimmock, C., & Ong Soon Leong, J. (2010). Studying overseas: Mainland Chinese students in Singapore. *Compare*, 40(1), 25–42. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/03057920903155666>
- Doherty, C., & Singh, P. (2005). How the West is done: Simulating Western pedagogy in a curriculum for Asian international students. In P. Ninnes & M. Hellsten (Eds.), *Internationalizing higher education: Critical explorations of pedagogy and policy* (53-74). Springer.
- Donnelly, D. P., Kovar, S. E., & Fisher, D. G. (2019). The Mediating Effects of Time Management on Accounting Students' Perception of Time Pressure, Satisfaction with the Major, and Academic Performance. *Journal of Accounting and Finance*, 19(9), 46-63.
- Dooley, P., & Oliver, R. (2002). An investigation into the predictive validity of the IELTS test as an indicator of future academic success. *Prospect*, 17(1), 36-54.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methodologies*. Oxford University Press.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Ryan, S. (2015). *The psychology of the language learner revisited*. Routledge.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2013). *Teaching and researching: Motivation*. Routledge.

- Drennan, L. M. (2017). Engaging Students through Writing: A Collaborative Journey. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 31(3), 63-81.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.208535/31-3-1041>
- Dudley-Evans, T. (2001). English for specific purposes. In R. Carter & D. Nunan (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages* (131-136). Cambridge University Press.
- Dudley-Evans, T., & Saint John, M. J. (1998). *Developments in English for specific purposes: A multi-disciplinary approach*. Cambridge university press.
- Duff, P. A. (2010). Language socialization into academic discourse communities. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 30, 169-192.
<https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190510000048>
- Durrant, P. (2009). Investigating the viability of a collocation list for students of English for academic purposes. *English for Specific Purposes*, 28, 157–169.
- Durrant, P. (2014). Discipline- and level-specificity in university students' written vocabulary. *Applied Linguistics*, 35(3), 328-356.
- Durrant, P. (2016). To what extent is the Academic Vocabulary List relevant to university student writing? *English for Specific Purposes*, 43, 49-61.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2016.01.004>
- Duru, E., & Poyrazli, S. (2007). Personality dimensions, psychosocial-demographic variables, and English language competency in predicting level of acculturative stress among Turkish international students. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 14, 99-110. Doi: 10.1037/1072-5245.14.1.99

- Ee, M. S., Yeoh, W., Boo, Y. L., & Boulter, T. (2018). Examining the effect of time constraint on the online mastery learning approach towards improving postgraduate students' achievement. *Studies in Higher Education*, 43(2), 217-233. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/03075079.2016.1161611>
- Eisenhardt, K. M. (1989). Building theories from case study research. *The Academy of Management Review*, 14(4), 532-550.
- Eisenhardt, K. M., & Graebner, M. E. (2007). Theory building from cases: Opportunities and challenges. *Academy of management journal*, 50(1), 25-32.
- Elder, C. (2003). The DELNA initiative at the University of Auckland. *Language Testing Update*, 33, 38-42.
- Elmborg, J., & Hook, S. (2005). *Centers for learning: Writing enters and libraries in collaboration*. Association of college and research libraries.
- Elola, I., Nakatsukasa, K., & Tecedor, M. (2018). Developing academic literacy and researchers' identities: The case of multilingual graduate students. *L2 Journal*, 10(2). <https://doi.org/10.5070.L210235210>
- Elton, L. (2010). Academic writing and tacit knowledge. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 15(2), 151-160. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/13562511003619979>
- Emirbayer, M., & Mische, A. (1998). What is agency? *American Journal of Sociology*, 103(4), 962–1023.
- Engberg, D., Glover, G., Rumbley, L. E., & Altbach, P. G. (2014). *The rationale for sponsoring students to undertake international study: An assessment of national student mobility scholarship programmes*. British Council.

https://www.britishcouncil.org/sites/default/files/e002_outward_mobility_study_final_v2_web.pdf

- English, F. (1999). What do students really say in their essays? Towards a descriptive framework for analysing student writing. In C. Jones, J. Turner, & B. Street (Eds.), *Student writing in the university: Cultural and epistemological issues* (pp. 17-36). John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Erfani, S. (2011). A comparative study of class activities and students' expectations of IELTS and TOEFL iBT preparation courses: A methodological triangulation washback study. *Journal of English Studies*, 1, 87-102.
- Essid, J., & McTague, B. (2020). *Writing centers at the center of change*. Taylor and Francis.
- Evans, T. (1995). Globalisation, Post-Fordism and Open and Distance Education. *Distance Education* 16(2), 256–269. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/0158791950160207>
- Evans, S., & Morrison, B. (2011a). Meeting the challenges of English-medium higher education: The first-year experience in Hong Kong. *English for Specific Purposes*, 30(3), 198-208.
- Evans, S., & Morrison, B. (2011b). The first term at university: Implications for EAP. *ELT Journal*, 65(4), 387-397. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1093/elt/ccq072>
- Fabrice, H. (2010). *Learning Our Lesson Review of Quality Teaching in Higher Education: Review of Quality Teaching in Higher Education* (Vol. 2010, No. 2). OECD Publishing.

- Fakeye, D. O., & Ogunsiji, Y. (2009). English language proficiency as a predictor of academic achievement among EFL students in Nigeria. *European Journal of Scientific Research*, 37(3), 490-495.
- Farhady, H., Tavassoli, K., & Irani, F. H. (2018). Selecting corpus-based grammatical structures for ESP/EAP materials. In Y. Kırkgöz & K. Dikilitaş (Eds.), *Key Issues in English for Specific Purposes in Higher Education* (pp. 77-92). Springer International Publishing.
- Feast, V. (2002). The impact of IELTS scores on performance at university. *International Education Journal*, 3(4), 70-85.
- Fenton-Smith, B., & Humphreys, P. (2015). Language specialists' views on academic language and learning support mechanisms for EAL postgraduate coursework students: The case for adjunct tutorials. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 20, 40–55. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2015.05.001>
- Fenton-Smith, B., Humphreys, P., & Walkinshaw, I. (2018). On evaluating the effectiveness of university-wide credit-bearing English language enhancement courses. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 31, 72-83.
- Ferer, E. (2012). Working together: Library and writing center collaboration. *Reference Services Review*, 40(2), 543-557. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1108/00907321211277350>
- Fischer, F., Kollar, I., Ufer, S., Sodian, B., Hussmann, H., Pekrun, R., Neuhaus, B., Dorner, B., Pankofer, S., Fischer, M., Strijbos, J. W., Heenea, M., & Eberle, J. (2014). Scientific reasoning and argumentation: Advancing an interdisciplinary

research agenda in education, *Frontline Learning Research* 4, 28–45.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.14786/flr.v2i3.96>

Fletcher, M. (2004). *Undergraduate assignment writing: An experiential account* [Doctoral dissertation, Griffith University]. Griffith Research Online
<https://research-repository.griffith.edu.au/bitstream/handle/10072/365389/02Whole.pdf?sequence=1>

Flick, U. (2011). Mixing methods, triangulation and integrated research: Challenges for qualitative research in a world of crisis. In N. Denzin & M. Giardina (Eds.), *Qualitative inquiry and global crisis* (pp. 132-152). Left Coast Press.

Flowerdew, J. (2016). English for specific academic purposes (ESAP) writing: Making the case. *Writing & Pedagogy*, 8(1), 1-4.

Flowerdew, J., & Peacock, M. (2001). *Research perspectives on English for academic purposes*. Ernst Klett Sprachen.

Flubacher, M. C., & Del Percio, A. (Eds.). (2017). *Language, education and neoliberalism: Critical studies in sociolinguistics*. Multilingual Matters.

Foster, R. L. (1997). Addressing epistemological and practical issues in multimethod research: A procedure for conceptual triangulation. *Advances in Nursing Science*, 20(2), 1-12.

Foucault, M. (1980). *Power/knowledge: Selected interviews and other writing, 1972-1984*. Routledge.

- Fox, J., & Artemeva, N. (2017). From diagnosis toward academic support: Developing a disciplinary, ESP-based writing task and rubric to identify the needs of entering undergraduate engineering students. *ESP Today*, 5(2), 148-171.
- Fraser, C., Manalo, E., & Marshall, J. (2009). Many and varied roles: An inter-institutional project to evidence the impact of Learning Advisors on student achievement. *ATLAANZ*, 5, 31-44.
- Freire, P. (2005). *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*. Continuum.
- Gamache, P. (2002). University students as creators of personal knowledge: An alternative epistemological view. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 7(3), 277-293.
- Gambrell, L. B. (2015). Getting students hooked on the reading habit. *The reading teacher*, 69(3), 259–263. <https://doi.org/10.1002/trtr.1423>
- Gee, J. P. (1986). Orality and literacy: From the savage mind to ways with words. *TESOL Quarterly*, 20(4), 719-746.
- Gee, J. P. (1989). Literacy, discourse, and linguistics: Introduction. *The Journal of Education*, 171(1), 5-17.
- Gee, J. P. (1990). *Social linguistics and literacy: Ideology in discourses*. Falmer press.
- Gee, J. (1996). *Social linguistics and literacies: Ideology in discourse*. Taylor & Francis.
- Gee, J. P. (2010). A situated-sociocultural approach to literacy and technology. *The new literacies: Multiple perspectives on research and practice*, 165-193.
<https://tinyurl.com/Gee2010>

- Gibbs, G. (2006). How assessment frames student learning. In C. Bryan & K. Clegg (Eds.), *Innovative Assessment in Higher Education* (pp. 23-37). Routledge.
- Gibbs, G. & Simpson, C. (2004). Does your assessment support your students' learning? *Learning and Teaching in Higher Education*, 1(1), 3-31.
- Giblin, J. (2016). *Factors influencing the selection of academic help sources* [Doctoral dissertation, Old Dominion University]. ODU Digital Commons.
https://digitalcommons.odu.edu/stemps_etds/13
- Giblin, J., Stefanik, J., Eckhof, A., & Luo, T. (2020). An exploration of factors influencing the decision-making process and selection of academic help sources. *Journal of Computing in Higher Education*, 1-18. Doi: 10.1007/s12528-020-09252-0
- Glazzard, J., & Stones, S. (2019). Student perceptions of feedback in higher education. *International Journal of Learning, Teaching and Educational Research*, 18(11), 38-52.
- Glover, C. (2004). *Report on an analysis of student responses to a questionnaire given to Year 2 and Year 4 science students at Sheffield Hallam University*. [Unpublished Master's thesis]. Sheffield Hallam University.
- Gomm, R., Hammersley, M., & Foster, P. (2011). *Case Study Method*. Sage.
- Gonzalez, T., de la Rubia, M. A., Hincz, K. P., Comas-Lopez, M., Subirats, L., Fort, S., & Sacha, G. M. (2020). Influence of COVID-19 confinement in students performance in higher education. *PLoS One*, 15(10), 1-23. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1371/journal.pone.0239490>

González, J., & Wagenaar, R. (2003). *Tuning educational structures in Europe*.

Universidad de Deusto.

Goodnight, G. T., Hingstman, D., & Green, S. (2015). The student debt bubble. *Journal of Cultural Economy*, 8(1), 75-100. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/17530350.2014.947307>

Goody, J. (1977). *The domestication of the savage mind*. Cambridge University Press.

Goody, J. (1986). *The Interface Between the Written and the Oral*. Cambridge University Press.

Goody, J., & Watt, I. (1968). The consequences of literacy. In J. Goody (Ed.), *Literacy in traditional societies* (pp. 27-68). Cambridge University Press.

Gorham, J., & Christophel, D. M. (1992). Students' perceptions of teacher behaviors as motivating and demotivating factors in college classes. *Communication Quarterly*, 40(3), 239-252.

Goulart, M. I., & Roth, W. M. (2010). Engaging young children in collective curriculum design. *Cultural Studies of Science Education*, 5, 553–562. Doi: 10.1007/s11422-009-9196-3

Gourlay, L., & Deane, J. (2012). Loss, responsibility, blame? Staff discourses of student plagiarism. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, 49(1), 19-29.

Grabe, W., & Kaplan, R. (1996). *Theory and practice of writing*. Addison Wesley Longman.

Graddol, D. (2010). *English next India*. London: British Council.

- Graff, H. J. (1987). *The legacies of literacy: Continuities and contradictions in western culture and society* (Vol. 598). Indiana University Press.
- Graff, H. J., & Duffy, J. (2008). Literacy myths. In B. Street & N. H. Hornberger (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of language and education* (Vol. 2, pp. 41-53). Springer.
- Grammarly. (2020). *Our mission*. <https://www.grammarly.com/about>
- Grapin, S. E., Llosa, L., Haas, A., Goggins, M., & Lee, O. (2019). Precision: Toward a meaning-centered view of language use with English learners in the content areas. *Linguistics and Education, 50*, 71-83.
- Graves, R. (2017). Writing assignments across five academic programs. *Writing assignments across university disciplines*, 1-30.
- Gravetter, F., & Forzano, L. (2018). *Research methods for behavioural sciences*. Cengage.
- Gray, B. (2016). Under fire: Neoliberalising higher education: Language and performing purpose in corporatised universities. *Critical Arts: A South-North journal of cultural and media studies*, 745-750.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/02560046.2016.1269237>
- Green, A. (2005). EAP study recommendations and score gains on the IELTS Academic Writing test. *Assessing Writing, 10*(1), 44-60.
- Green, A. (2006). Washback to the learner: Learner and teacher perspectives on IELTS preparation course expectations and outcomes. *Assessing Writing, 11*(2), 113-134.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asw.2006.07.002>

- Green, A. (2007). Washback to learning outcomes: A comparative study of IELTS preparation and university pre-sessional language courses. *Assessment in Education*, 14(1), 75-97. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/09695940701272880>
- Greenfield, P. (1966). On culture and equivalence: II. In J. Bruner, R. R. Olver, & P. M. Greenfield (Eds.), *Studies in cognitive growth* (pp. 270-318). Wiley.
- Greenfield, P., & Bruner, J. (1966). Culture and cognitive growth. *International Journal of Psychology*, 1, 89-107
- Grose-Fifer, J., & Davis-Ferreira, C. (2018). Improved Student Outcomes in Biological Psychology Courses Through Scaffolded Reading and Writing Assignments. In T. L. Kuther (Ed.), *Integrating writing into psychology course: Strategies for promoting student success* (pp. 137-155). <http://teachpsych.org/ebooks/>
- Guan, X., & Jones, G. (2011). Unlearning and relearning: Chinese students in a New Zealand first year undergraduate class. *New Zealand Journal of Teachers' Work*, 8(2), 208–219.
- Gubrium, J. F., & Holte, J. A. (2003). Analyzing interpretive practice. In N. Denzin & Y. Lincoln (Eds.), *Strategies of qualitative inquiry* (pp. 214-248). Sage Publications.
- Guilfoyle, A. (2006). Understanding key dimensions of international postgraduate student transition and learning experiences. *International Journal of Learning*, 13(6), 71-78.
- Gustafsson, J. (2017). Single case studies vs. multiple case studies: A comparative study. *Engineering and Science, Halmstad University Sweden*, 1-15.

- Guthrie, J. T., & Klauda, S. L. (2014). Effects of classroom practices on reading comprehension, engagement, and motivations for adolescents. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 49(4), 387–416. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/43497193>
- Hacker, D. J., Bol, L., Horgan, D. D., & Rakow, E. A. (2000). Test prediction and performance in a classroom context. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 92(1), 160-170. Doi:10.1037/0022-0663.92.1.160
- Hadjiconstantinou, S., & Nikiforou, E. (2012). ESAP courses: An innovative vista in language learning. From needs analysis to evaluation. *English for Specific Purposes World*, 12(36), 1-15.
- Haggis, T. (2006) Pedagogies for diversity: Retaining critical challenge amidst fears of ‘dumbing down’. *Studies in Higher Education* 31(5), 521-535. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/03075070600922709>
- Haggis, J. (2013). The feminist research process—defining a topic. *Feminist Praxis (RLE Feminist Theory): Research, Theory and Epistemology in Feminist Sociology*, 67-79.
- Haggis, T., & Pouget, M. (2002). Trying to be motivated: Perspectives on learning from younger students accessing higher education. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 7(3), 323-336.
- Haghighi, S. B., Shooshtari, Z. G., & Jalilifar, A. (2019). Discipline specificity and students’ English writing proficiency: A case of collaborative teaching for transfer. *TESOL Journal*, 10(3), 1-19. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1002/tesj.431>

- Halliday, T. M., & Frisard, M. I. (2020). Exercise and nutrition science students' perceptions of blogging as a required course component. *Translational Journal of the ACSM*, 5(2), 6-20. Doi: 10.1249/TJX.0000000000000115
- Hamida, N., Sulaiman, S. W., & Pandiya, M. (2019). Language Teaching in Vocational Higher Education Based on Industry Needs. In A. S. Priyatmojo & P. Kalisa (Eds.), *Proceedings of the UNNES International Conference on English Language Teaching, Literature, and Translation (ELTLT 2018)* (Vol. 188, pp.165-170). Atlantis Press. <https://www.atlantis-press.com/proceedings/eltlt-18/125910550>
- Hammer, J. H., Vogel, D. L., & Heimerdinger-Edwards, S. R. (2013). Men's help seeking: Examination of differences across community size, education, and income. *Psychology of Men & Masculinity*, 14(1), 65–75. Doi: 10.1037/a0026813
- Hammersley, M., & Atkinson, P. (1995). *Ethnography: Principles in practice* (2nd ed.). Routledge.
- Haneda, M. (2014). From academic language to academic communication: Building on English learners' resources. *Linguistics and Education*, 26, 126–135.
- Hardy, C., & Clughen, L. (2012). Writing at university: Student and staff expectations and experiences. In C. Hardy & L. Clughen (Eds.), *Writing in the Disciplines* (pp. 25-54). Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- Halverson, J. (1992). Havelock on Greek orality and literacy. *Journal of the History of Ideas*, 53(1), 148-163. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2709915>
- Hancock, D. R., & Algozzine, R. (2017). *Doing case study research: A practical guide for beginning researchers*. Teacher College Press.

- Handley, K., den Outer, B., & Price, M. (2013). Learning to mark: Exemplars, dialogue and participation in assessment communities. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 32(6), 888-900.
- Handley, K., & Williams, L. (2011). From copying to learning: Using exemplars to engage students with assessment criteria and feedback. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 36(1), 95-108.
- Harlen, W., & James, M. J. (1997). Assessment and learning: Differences and relationship between formative and summative assessment. *Assessment in Education*, 4(3), 365-380. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/0969594970040304>
- Harris, M. (2000). Preparing to sit at the head table: Maintaining writing center visibility in the twenty-first century. *The Writing Center Journal*, 20(2), 13- 21.
- Harris, A. (2016). Integrating written communication skills: Working towards a whole of course approach. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 21(3), 287–300. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/13562517.2016.1138456>
- Hartnett, M. (2018). Motivation in distance education. In M. G. Moore, & W. C. Diehl (Eds.), *Handbook of Distance Education* (2nd ed.). Routledge.
- Harwood, N., Austin, L., & Macaulay, R. (2009). Proofreading in a UK university: Proofreaders' beliefs, practices, and experiences. *Journal of Second Language Writing* 18, 166–90. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2009.05.002>
- Harwood, N., Austin, L., & Macaulay, R. (2012). Cleaner, helper, teacher? The role of proofreaders of student writing. *Studies in higher education*, 37(5), 569-584. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/03075079.2010.531462>

Havelock, E.A. (1963). *Preface to Plato*. Harvard University Press.

Hawe, E., Lightfoot, U., & Dixon, H. (2019). First-year students working with exemplars: Promoting self-efficacy, self-monitoring and self-regulation. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 43(1), 30-44. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/0309877X.2017.1349891>

Hayes, B., & Read, J. (2004). IELTS test preparation in New Zealand: Preparing students for the IELTS academic module. In L. Cheng, W. Watanabe, & A. Curtis (Eds.), *Washback in language testing* (pp. 119-134). Routledge.

Hawkey, R. (2006). *Impact theory and practice: Studies of the IELTS test and Progetto Lingue 2000*. Cambridge University Press.

Heath, P. J., Brenner, R. E., Vogel, D. L., Lannin, D. G., & Strass, H. A. (2017). Masculine norm adherence and psychological help-seeking barriers: The buffering role of self-compassion. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 64, 94 –103.
Doi:10.1037/cou0000185

Heath, S. B. (1983). *Ways With Words*. Cambridge University Press.

Hechanova-Alampay, R., Beehr, T.A., Christiansen, N.D., & van Horn, R.K. (2002). Adjustment and strain among domestic and international student sojourners: A longitudinal study. *School Psychology International*, 23(4), 458–74.

Hedgcock, J. S., & Lee, H. (2017). An exploratory study of academic literacy socialization: Building genre awareness in a teacher education program. *Journal of EAP*, 26, 17-28. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2017.01.004>

Heller, H. (2016). *The capitalist university*. Pluto Press.

- Henanggil, M. D. F., Chania, R. S., & Mulyati, Y. (2019, July 22-25). The Relationship Between Listening Ability and the Ability to Write News Using Audiovisual Media for Middle School Students. *Proceedings of the 2019 3rd International Conference on Education and Multimedia Technology*, 55-59.
<https://doi.org/10.1145/3345120.3345121>
- Hendry, G., & Anderson, J. (2013). Helping Students Understand the Standards of Work Expected in an Essay: Using Exemplars in Mathematics Pre-Service Education Classes. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education* 38(6), 754–768. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/02602938.2012.703998>
- Hendry, G.D., Armstrong, S., & Bromberger, N. (2012). Implementing standards-based assessment effectively: Incorporating discussion of exemplars into classroom teaching. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 37(2), 149–161. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/02602938.2010.515014>
- Hendry, G. D., White, P., & Herbert, C. (2016). Providing exemplar-based ‘feedforward’ before an assessment: The role of teacher explanation. *Active Learning in Higher Education*, 17(2), 99-109. Doi: 10.1177/1469787416637479
- Herb, M. M., & Sabatino, L. A. (2020). Sharing space and finding common ground: a practical guide to creating effective writing center/library partnership. In J. Essid & B. McTague (Eds.), *Writing centers at the center of change* (pp. 17-37). Routledge.
- Higher Education Funding Council for England [HEFCE]. (2011). *The National Student Survey: Findings and Trends 2006–2010*. Higher Education Funding Council for England.

- Hildyard, A., & Olson, D. R. (1978). Memory and inference in the comprehension of oral and written discourse. *Discourse Processes*, 1(2), 91-117.
- Hillocks, G., Jr. (2010). Teaching argument for critical thinking and writing: An introduction. *English Journal*, 99(6), 24–32.
- Hiver, P., & Al-Hoorie, A. H. (2019). *Research methods for complexity theory in applied linguistics*. Multilingual matters.
- Hjortshøj, K. (2001). *Understanding writing blocks*. Oxford University Press on Demand.
- Ho, E. S., Li, W. W., Cooper, J., & Holmes, P. (2007). *The experiences of Chinese international students in New Zealand*. Education New Zealand.
- Hocking, D., & Toh, G. (2010). b. *Asian Journal of English Language Teaching*, 20, 161-183.
- Holden, C. (2015). *A Case Study Investigation Into Success and Failure in Foundation Year Medical School in a Middle Eastern Transnational Context* [Doctoral thesis, UCL Institute of Education, University of London, UK]. Creative Commons. <https://discovery.ucl.ac.uk/id/eprint/10021729/1/Final%20Submission%20Post%20Viva%20Thesis%20Caroline%20Holden.pdf>
- Holdsworth, C. (2009). ‘Going away to uni’: Mobility, modernity, and independence of English higher education students. *Environment and Planning A*, 41, 1849-1864. Doi:10.1068/a41177

- Holmes, P. (2004). Negotiating differences in learning and intercultural communication: Ethnic Chinese students in a New Zealand university. *Business Communication Quarterly*, 67(3), 294–307. Doi:10.1177/1080569904268141.
- Horowitz, D. (1986). What professors actually require of students: Academic tasks for the ESL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 20, 445-462.
- Horowitz, D. (1991). ESL writing assessments: Contradictions and resolutions. In D. Hamp-Lyons (Ed.), *Assessing second language writing in academic contexts* (pp. 71–86). Ablex.
- Hua, Z. (2015). *Research methods in intercultural communication: A practical guide*. Wiley-Blackwell.
- Huang, J., & Klinger, D. A. (2006). Chinese graduate students at North American universities: Learning challenges and coping strategies. *Comparative and International Education/Éducation Comparée et Internationale*, 35(2), 48-61.
- Hubble, S., & Bolton, P. (2020). *Mature higher education students in England* (Report No. 8809). House of Commons Library. <https://dera.ioe.ac.uk/35163/1/CBP-8809.pdf>
- Hunter, S. C., Boyle, J., & Warden, D. (2004). Help seeking amongst child and adolescent victims of peer aggression and bullying: The influence of school-stage, gender, victimisation, appraisal, and emotion. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 74, 375-390. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1348/0007099041552378>
- Hutchison, T. & Waters, A. (1987). *English for specific purposes*. Cambridge University Press.

- Hyland, K. (2002). Specificity revisited: How far should we go now? *English for Specific Purposes*, 21(4), 385-395.
- Hyland, K. (2003). Genre-based pedagogies: A social response to process. *Journal of second language writing*, 12, 17–29.
- Hyland, K. (2006). *English for academic purposes: An advanced resource book*. Routledge.
- Hyland, K. (2007). Genre pedagogy: Language, literacy and L2 writing instruction. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 16, 148–164.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2007.07.005>
- Hyland, K. (2008). As can be seen: Lexical bundles and disciplinary variation. *English for Specific Purposes*, 27, 4-21. Doi: [10.1016/j.esp.2007.06.001](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2007.06.001).
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2007.06.001>
- Hyland, K. (2011a). Projecting an academic identity in some reflective genres. *Ibérica: Revista de la Asociación Europea de Lenguas para Fines Específicos (AELFE)*, 21, 9-30.
- Hyland, K. (2011b). The presentation of self in scholarly life: Identity and marginalization in academic homepages. *English for specific purposes*, 30(4), 286-297. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2011.04.004>
- Hyland, K. (2013a). Writing in the university: Education, knowledge and reputation. *Language Teaching*, 46(1), 53-70. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1017/S0261444811000036>

- Hyland, K. (2013b). Faculty feedback: Perceptions and practices in L2 disciplinary writing. *Journal of second language writing*, 22(3), 240-253.
- Hyland, K. (2015). Genre, discipline and identity. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 19, 32–43.
- Hyland, K. (2016). General and specific EAP. In K. Hyland & P. Shaw (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of English for academic purposes* (pp. 17-29). Routledge.
- Hyland, K., & Tse, P. (2007). Is there an “academic vocabulary”? *TESOL Quarterly*, 41(2), 235-253. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.2307/40264352>
- Hyland, K., & Shaw, P. (2016). *The Routledge Handbook of English for Academic Purposes*. Routledge.
- Hysaj, A., Elkhoully, A., Qureshi, A. W., & Abdulaziz, N. A. (2019). Study of the impact of tutor’s support and undergraduate student’s academic satisfaction. *American Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences Research*, 3(12), 70-77.
- Ingram, D., & Bayliss, A. (2007). IELTS as a predictor of academic language performance. *IELTS Research Reports*, 7, 137-204.
- International English Language Testing System [IELTS]. (2005). *The IELTS handbook*. Cambridge: Cambridge ESOL Examinations/The British Council/ IELTS Australia.
- International English Language Testing System [IELTS]. (2013). *IELTS Guide for Institutions and Organisations*. Cambridge ESOL Examinations/The British Council/ IELTS Australia.

- Ivanič, R. (1998). *Writing and identity: The discursal construction of identity in academic writing*. John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Ivins, T., Copenhaver, K., & Koclanes, A. (2017). Adult transitional theory and transfer shock in higher education: Practices from the literature. *Reference Services Review*, 45(2), 244-257. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1108/RSR-08-2016-0048>
- Jackson, R., & McKinney, J. G. (2012). Beyond tutoring: mapping the invisible landscape of writing center work. *Praxis: A Writing Center Journal*, 9(1), 1-11.
- Jairam, D. (2020). First-year seminar focused on study skills: An ill-suited attempt to improve student retention. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 44(4), 513-527. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/0309877X.2019.1582757>
- James, M. A. (2009). 'Far' Transfer of Learning Outcomes from an ESL Writing Course: Can the Gap be Bridged? *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 18(2), 69–84. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2009.01.001>
- James, M. A. (2010). An investigation of learning transfer in English-for-general-academic-purposes writing instruction. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 19(4), 183-206. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2010.09.003>
- Janke, K. K., Mospan, C. M., & Cain, J. (2019). Papers don't write themselves: Creating a system to support writing productivity. *Currents in Pharmacy Teaching and Learning*, 11(10), 965-971.
- Jenkins, S., Johnson, I., & Ginley, J. (2019). Work, Stress and Play: Students' perceptions of factors impacting on their studies and well-being. *European Journal of Dental Education*, 23(3), 349-354.

- Jimenez-Munoz, A. (2015). Flipping lectures: analysing student workload in EMI contexts. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 212, 35-41.
- Joet, G., Usher, E. L., & Bressoux, P. (2011). Sources of self-efficacy: An investigation of elementary school students in France. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 103(3), 649–663. Doi: 10.1037/a0024048
- Johns, A. M. (2008). Genre awareness for the novice academic student: An ongoing quest. *Language Teaching*, 41(2), 237-252. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1017/S0261444807004892>
- Johns, A. M., & Dudley-Evans, T. (1991). English for specific purposes: International in scope, specific in purpose. *TESOL quarterly*, 25(2), 297-314.
- Johnson, E. M. (2008). An investigation into pedagogical challenges facing international tertiary level students in New Zealand. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 27(3), 231–243. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/07294360802183796>
- Johnson, G. M., & Cooke, A. (2016). Self-regulation of learning and preference for written versus audio-recorded feedback by distance education students. *Distance education*, 37(1), 107-120. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/01587919.2015.1081737>
- Johnston, S., Yoshida, H., & Conrwell, S. (2009). Forum: Writing centers and tutoring in Japan and Asia. *JALT 2009 Conference proceedings*, 692-701.
- Jon, J. E., Lee, J. J., & Byun, K. (2014). The emergence of a regional hub: Comparing international student choices and experiences in South Korea. *Higher Education*, 67(5), 691–710. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/43648682>

- Jones, L., Allen, B., Dunn, P., & Brooker, L. (2017). Demystifying the rubric: A five-step pedagogy to improve student understanding and utilisation of marking criteria. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 36(1), 129-142. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/07294360.2016.1177000>
- Jonsson, H. (2013, October 23-26). *Motivating and preparing first-year students in computer and engineering science* [Paper presentation]. 2013 IEEE Frontiers in Education Conference (FIE), Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, USA. <https://www.diva-portal.org/smash/get/diva2:1012669/FULLTEXT01.pdf>
- Jordan, R. R. (1997). *English for academic purposes: A guide and resource book for teachers*. Cambridge University Press.
- Jordan, R. R. (2002). The growth of EAP in Britain. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 1(1), 69-78.
- Kachru, B. B., & Nelson, C. L. (1996). World Englishes. In S. L. McKay & N. H. Hornberger (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and language teaching* (pp. 71-102). Cambridge University Press.
- Kalfa, S., & Taksa, L. (2015). Cultural capital in business higher education: Reconsidering the graduate attributes movement and the focus on employability. *Studies in Higher Education*, 40(4), 580–595. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/03075079.2013.842210>
- Karabenick, S. A. (2011). Classroom and technology-supported help seeking: The need for converging research paradigms. *Learning and Instruction*, 21(2), 290–296. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.learninstruc.2010.07.007>

- Karabenick, S. A., & Dembo, M. H. (2011). Understanding and facilitating self-regulated help seeking. *New directions for teaching and learning*, 2011(126), 33-43.
- Karabenick, S., & Newman, R. (Eds.). (2006). *Help seeking in academic settings: Goals, groups, and contexts*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Karabenick, S. A., & Newman, R. S. (2009). *Seeking help: Generalizable self-regulatory process and social-cultural barometer*. In M. Wosnitza, S. A. Karabenick, A. Efklides, & P. Nenniger (Eds.), *Contemporary motivation research: From global to local perspectives* (p. 25–48). Hogrefe & Huber Publishers.
- Kasworm, C. (2005). Adult student identity in an intergenerational community college classroom. *Adult Education Quarterly*, 56(1), 3-20. Doi: 10.1177/0741713605280148
- Kearns, H., & Gardiner, M. (2007). Is it time well spent? The relationship between time management behaviors, perceived effectiveness and work-related morale and distress in a university context. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 26, 235- 247. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/07294360701310839>
- Keefe, K., & Shi, L. (2017). An EAP program and students' success at a Canadian University. *TESL Canada Journal*, 34(2), 1-24. <http://dx.doi.org/1018806/tesl.v34i2.1260>
- Kember, D. (2004). Interpreting student workload and the factors which shape students' perceptions of their workload. *Studies in higher education*, 29(2), 165-184.
- Kember, D., & Leung, D. Y. P. (2006). Characterising a teaching and learning environment conducive to making demands on students while not making their workload excessive. *Studies in Higher Education*, 31(2), 185-198.

- Kettle, M. (2011) Academic practice as explanatory framework: Reconceptualising international student academic engagement and university teaching. *Discourse: Studies in the Cultural Politics of Education*, 3(1), 1-14. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/01596306.2011.537067>
- Khosa, D. K., & Volet, S. E. (2013). Promoting effective collaborative case-based learning at university: A metacognitive intervention. *Studies in Higher Education*, 38(6), 870-889.
- Kiely, R. (2005). A transformative learning model for service-learning: A longitudinal case study. *Michigan journal of community service learning*, 12(1), 5-22.
- Kiley, M. (2003) Conserver, strategist or transformer: The experiences of postgraduate student sojourners. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 8(3), 345-356. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/13562510309401>
- King, R., & Raghuram, P. (2013). International Student Migration. *Special Issue: Population, Space and Place* 19(2), 127–222. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1002/psp.1746>
- Knight, N. (1999). Responsibilities and limits in the supervision of NESB research students in the social sciences. In Y. Ryan & O. Zuber-Skerritt (Eds.), *Supervising postgraduates from non-English speaking backgrounds* (pp. 93-100). Open University Press.
- Kobayashi, H., & Rinnert, C. (2013). L1/L2/L3 writing development: Longitudinal case study of a Japanese multicompetent writer. *Journal of second language writing*, 22, 4-33.

- Komaraju, M., & Nadler, D. (2013). Self-efficacy and academic achievement: Why do implicit beliefs, goals, and effort regulation matter? *Learning and individual differences*, 25, 67-72.
- Korobova, N., & Starobin, S. S. (2015). A comparative study of student engagement, satisfaction, and academic success among international and American students. *Journal of International Students*, 5(1), 72-85.
- Koulikov, M. (2007). Russia, LiveJournal, and the implications of national usage of social blogging for information exchange and dissemination. *The Selected Works of Mihail Koulikov*.
<https://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.948.9265&rep=rep1&type=pdf>
- Koval, E. M., Hackett, P. M., & Schwarzenbach, J. B. (2016). A mapping sentence mereology for understanding the mobility of international students. In K. Bista & C. Foster (Eds.), *Global perspectives and local challenges surrounding international student mobility* (pp. 53-67). IGI Global.
- Krashen, S. (2011). Academic proficiency (language and content) and the role of strategies. *TESOL Journal*, 2(4), 381-393.
- Kress, G., & Street, B. (2005). Mult-modal and literacy practices, Foreword to Travel notes from the New Literacy Studies: Case studies of practice. In K. Pahl & J. Rowsell (Eds.), *Travel Notes from the New Literacy Studies: Case Studies of Practice* (pp. vii-x). Multilingual Matters.
- Kubota, R. (2016). Neoliberal paradoxes of language learning: Xenophobia and international communication. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural*

development, 37(5), 467-480. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/01434632.2015.1071825>

Kuh, G. D., Cruce, T. M., Shoup, R., Kinzie, J., & Gonyea, R. M. (2008). Unmasking the effects of student engagement on first-year college grades and persistence. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 79(5), 540–563. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/00221546.2008.11772116>

Kvale, S. (1996). *Interviews: An introduction to qualitative research interviewing*. Sage.

Kvale, S., & Brinkmann, S. (2009). *Inner views: Learning the craft of qualitative research interviewing*. Sage Publications.

Labov, W. (1973). Where do grammars stop. In R. W. Shuy (Ed.), *Report of the Twenty-Third Annual Round Table Meeting on Linguistics and Language Studies* (pp. 43-88). Georgetown University Press.

Lanham, R. A. (1995). Digital literacy. *Scientific American*, 273(3), 198-199.

Lapan, S. D., Quartaroli, M. T., & Riemer, F. J. (2011). *Qualitative research: An introduction to methods and designs*. John Wiley & Sons.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (2013). Transfer of Learning Transformed. *Language Learning*, 63(1), 107–129. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2012.00740.x>

Lasagabaster, D. (2008). Foreign language competence in content and language integrated courses. *The Open Applied Linguistics Journal*, 1(1), 30-41.

Lasagabaster, D., & Sierra, J. M. (2009). Language attitudes in CLIL and traditional EFL classes. *International CLIL research Journal*, 1(2), 4-17.

- Lau, J., Garza, T., & Garcia, H. (2019). International students in community colleges: On-campus services used and its affect on sense of belonging. *Community College Journal of Research and Practice*, 43(2), 109-121. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/10668926.2017.1419891>
- Lauder, H. (2014, November 19-21). *Jobs or Skills? The Role of Education in the 21st Century* [Paper presentation]. 2014 APERA-HKERA Annual Conference, Hong Kong Institute of Education, Hong Kong.
- Laurs, D. (2010). Collaborating with postgraduate supervisors. In V. V. D. Ham, L. Sevillano, & L. George (Eds.), *Shifting sands, firm foundations: Proceedings of the 2009 Annual International Conference of the Association of Tertiary Learning Advisors of Aotearoa New Zealand (ATLAANZ)* (pp. 18-30). ATLAANZ.
- Lawless, C. (2000). Using learning activities in Mathematics: Workload and study time. *Studies in Higher Education*, 25(1), 97-111.
- Laws, D. (2020). What use is a critical moment? *Negotiation Journal*, 107-126. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1111/nejo.12323>
- Lea, M. R. (2004). Academic literacies: A pedagogy for course design. *Studies in Higher Education*, 29(6), 739-756. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0307507042000287230>
- Lea, M. (2008). Academic literacies in theory and practice. In N. H. Hornberger (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of language and education* (pp. 634-645). Springer International Publishing.
- Lea, M., & Street, B. (1998). Student writing in higher education: An academic literacies approach. *Studies in Higher Education*, 23(2), 157-172. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079812331380364>

- Lea, M. R., & Street, B. V. (2000). Student writing and staff feedback in higher education: An academic literacies approach. In Lea, M. R. & Stierer, B. (Eds.). *Student writing in higher education: New contexts* (pp. 32-46). The Society for Research into Higher Education (SRHE) & Open University Press.
- Lea, M. R., & Street, B. V. (2006). The "academic literacies" model: Theory and applications. *Theory Into Practice*, 45(4), 368-377. https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1207/s15430421tip4504_11
- Lee, S. (2018). Scaffolding evidence-based writing for English learners in three steps. *Reading Teacher*, 72(1), 99-106.
- Lee, B., Farruggia, S. P., & Brown, G. T. L. (2013). Academic difficulties encountered by East Asian international university students in New Zealand. *Higher Education Research and Development*, 32(6), 915-931. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/07294360.2013.806444>
- Leech, N. L., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2007). An array of qualitative data analysis tools: A call for data analysis triangulation. *School Psychology Quarterly*, 22(4), 557-584.
- Leedham, M. (2009). From traditional essay to 'Ready Steady Cook' presentation: Reasons for innovative changes in assignments. *Active Learning in Higher Education*, 10(3), 191-206.
- Leedham, M. (2015). *Chinese students' writing in English: implications from a corpus-driven study*. Routledge.
- Le Ha, P. (2008). *Teaching English as an international language: Identity, resistance and negotiation*. Multilingual Matters.

- Leki, I. (1995). Coping strategies of ESL students in writing tasks across the curriculum. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29(2), 235–60.
- Leki, I. (2000). L2 writing: A commentary. *Learning and Instruction*, 10(1), 101-105.
- Leki, I. (2007). *Undergraduates in a second language: Challenges and complexities of academic literacy development*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Leki, I. (2017). *Undergraduates in a second language: Challenges and complexities of academic literacy development*. Routledge.
- Leki, I., & Carson, J. G. (1994). Students' perceptions of EAP writing instruction and writing needs across the disciplines. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28(1), 81-101. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.2307/3587199>
- Leong, F. T. L., & Chou, E. L. (1996). Counseling international students. In P. B. Pedersen, J. G. Draguns, W. J. Lonner, & J. E. Trimble (Eds.), *Counseling across cultures* (4th ed., pp. 210–242). Sage.
- Levin, E. (2000). *Making expectations explicit* [Paper presentation]. Proceedings of the 1st year in Higher Education Conference, Brisbane, QLD, Australia.
- Lewthwaite, M. (2007). Teacher and student attitudes to IELTS writing tasks: Positive or negative washback. *UGRU Journal*, 5, 1-16.
- Lexico.com. (2020) Globalisation. In *Lexico.com Dictionary*. Retrieved May 1, 2020, from <https://www.lexico.com/en/definition/globalization>
- Li, M. (2007). Chinese students' learning difficulties in Australia and New Zealand. In Z. Zhou & D. Knapp (Eds.), *Experiencing another culture* (pp. 86–103). Yunnan People's Publisher.

- Li, M. (2016). Learning the rules of the game: Issues affecting academic acculturation of Asian international students in New Zealand universities. In K. Bista & C. Foster (Eds.), *Exploring the social and academic experiences of international students in higher education institutions* (pp. 38-58). IGI Global.
- Li, M. & Bray, M. (2007). Cross-border flows of students for higher education: Push-pull factors and motivations of mainland Chinese students in Hong Kong and Macau. *Higher Education*, 53(6), 791-818. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/29735087>
- Li, M., & Campbell, J. (2010). The impact of culture on intercultural friendship building. In Y. Sun (Ed.), *Intercultural studies: New frontiers* (pp. 125–147). Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
- Li, Y., & Hu, G. (2018). Supporting students' assignment writing: What lecturers do in a Master of Education programme. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 43(1), 1-13. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/02602938.2016.1274017>
- Liu, E. Z. F., Lin, C. H., Chen, F. Y., & Peng, P. C. (2012). Cluster Analysis of Adolescent Blogs. *Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology-TOJET*, 11(2), 69-79.
- Liberman, K. (1994). Asian student perspectives on American university instruction. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 18, 173-192. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0147-1767\(94\)90027-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/0147-1767(94)90027-2)
- Liddon, L., Kingerlee, R., & Barry, J. A. (2017). Gender differences in preferences for psychological treatment, coping strategies and triggers to help-seeking. *British journal of clinical psychology*, 57, 42-58. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1111/bjc.12147>

- Lillis, T. (2001). *Student writing: Access, regulation and desire*. Routledge.
- Lillis, T. (2003). Student writing as ‘academic literacies’: Drawing on Bakhtin to move from critique to design. *Language and Education*, 17(3), 193-207. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/09500780308666848>
- Lillis, T. (2014). Academic literacies. In C. Leung & B. Street (Eds.), *The Routledge Companion of English Studies* (pp. 361-374). Routledge.
- Lillis, T., & Scott, M. (2007). Defining academic literacies research: Issues of epistemology, ideology and strategy. *Journal of applied linguistics*, 4(1), 5-32. <http://dx.doi.org/doi:10.1558/japl.v4i1.5>
- Lillis, T., & Tuck, J. (2016). Academic literacies: A critical lens on writing and reading in the academy. In K. Hyland & P. Shaw (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of English for academic purposes* (pp. 30-43). Routledge.
- Lillis, T., & Turner, J. (2001). Student writing in higher education: contemporary confusion, traditional concerns. *Teaching in higher education*, 6(1), 57-68. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/13562510020029608>
- Lim, J., & Polio, C. (2020). Multimodal assignments in higher education: Implications for multimodal writing tasks for L2 writers. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 47, 1-8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2020.100713>
- Lin, N. (1999). Network and status attainment. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 25, 467–487.
- Lin, S. Y., & Scherz, S. D. (2014). Challenges facing Asian international graduate students in the US: Pedagogical considerations in higher education. *Journal of International Students*, 4(1), 16-33.

- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry*. Sage.
- Lindlof, T. R., & Taylor, B. C. (2002). *Qualitative communication research methods*. Sage.
- Litchman, M. (2012). *Qualitative research in education: A user's guide*. Sage publications.
- Liu, M., & Braine, G. (2005). Cohesive features in argumentative writing produced by Chinese undergraduates. *System*, 33(4), 623-636.
- Livholts, M., & Tamboukou, M. (2015). *Discourse and narrative methods: Theoretical departures, analytical strategies and situated writings*. Sage.
- Lobo, A., & Gurney, L. (2014). What did they expect? Exploring a link between students' expectations, attendance and attrition on English language enhancement courses. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 3(5), 730-754. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/0309877X.2013.817002>
- Loewen, S., & Plonsky, L. (2016). *An A-Z of applied linguistics research methods*. Palgrave.
- Lock, A., & Strong, T. (2010). *Social Constructionism: Sources and stirrings in theory and practice*. Cambridge University Press.
- Lofland, J., & Lofland, L. (1995). *Analysing social settings: A guide to qualitative observation and analysis*. Wadsworth.
- Lumley, T., & Stoneman, B. (2000). Conflicting perspectives on the role of test preparation in relation to learning. *Hong Kong Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 5, 50-80.

- Lumsden, E., McBryde-Wilding, H., & Rose, H. (2010). Collaborative practice in enhancing the first year student experience in Higher Education. *Enhancing the Learner Experience in Higher Education*, 2 (1), 12-24.
- Lunenborg, F. C. (2011). Goal-setting theory of motivation. *International Journal of Management, Business, and Administration*, 15(1), 1-6.
- Ma, L. P. F. (2018). Student evaluation of academic literacy workshops and individual consultations: A study in an Australian university. *Journal of Academic Language & Learning*, 12(2), A1-A17.
- Macbeth, K. P. (2010). Deliberate false provisions: The use and usefulness of models in learning academic writing. *Journal of second language writing*, 19(1), 33-48.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2009.08.002>
- Mak, W. W., & Cheung, R. Y. (2012). Psychological distress and subjective burden of caregivers of people with mental illness: The role of affiliate stigma and face concern. *Community Mental Health Journal*, 48(3), 270-274.
- Maldoni, A. M. (2017). A cross-disciplinary approach to embedding: A pedagogy for developing academic literacies. *Journal of Academic Language & Learning*, 11(1), A104-A124.
- Maley, A. (1992). An open letter to 'the profession' via the Editor of ELT Journal. *ELT Journal*, 46(1), 96-99. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1093/elt/46.1.96>
- Marginson, S. (2014). Student Self-Formation in International Education. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 18(1), 6-22. Doi: 10.1177/1028315313513036.

- Marginson, S. (2016). The worldwide trend to high participation higher education: Dynamics of social stratification in inclusive systems. *Higher Education*, 72, 413–434. Doi: 10.1007/s10734-016-0016-x.
- Marginson, S., & Considine, M. (2000). *The enterprise university: Power, governance and reinvention in Australia*. Cambridge University Press.
- Marginson, S., Nyland, C., Sawir, E., & Forbes-Mewett, H. (2010). *International student security*. Cambridge University Press.
- Martínez, I. A., Beck, S. C., & Panza, C. B. (2009). Academic vocabulary in agriculture research articles: A corpus-based study. *English for specific purposes*, 28(3), 183–198.
- Matthews, B. (2017). “*I wouldn’t imagine having to go through all this, and still be the same person. No way*”: *Structure and Agency in the International Student Experience* [Doctoral dissertation, University of Stirling]. Stirling Online Research Repository.
<https://www.storre.stir.ac.uk/bitstream/1893/26829/1/Final%20Thesis%20BM.pdf>
- Maxwell, J. A. (1992). Understanding and validity in qualitative research. *Harvard Educational Review*, 62, 279–299.
- Mazzarol, T. (1998). Critical success factors for international education marketing. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 12(4), 163–175. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1108/09513549810220623>
- Mazzarol, T., Kemp, S., & Savery, L. (1997). *International students who choose not to study in Australia. An examination of Taiwan and Indonesia*. Australian International Education Foundation.

- Mazzarol, T., & Soutar, G. N. (2002). "Push-pull" factors influencing international student destination choice. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 16(2), 82-90. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1108/09513540210418403>
- McCarter, S. & Jakes, P. (2009). *Uncovering EAP*. Macmillan.
- McCarthy, P. M., Guess, R. H., & McNamara, D. (2009). The components of paraphrase evaluations. *Behavior Research Methods*, 41, 682-690.
- McConnell, E. (2020). *Project Terms of Reference (TOR) Template*. MyManagementGuide.com <https://mymanagementguide.com/terms-of-reference-tor-template/>
- McKenzie, K., & Gow, K. (2004). Exploring the first year academic achievement of school leavers and mature-age students through structural equation modelling. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 14(2), 107-123.
- McKinley, J., & Rose, H. (2019). *The Routledge Handbook of Research Methods in Applied Linguistics*. Routledge.
- McLaughlin, M., & Rasinski, T. (2015). Reaching struggling readers. *Reading Today*, 32(6), 36-37.
- McMurray, S., Dutton, M. McQuaid, R.W., & Richard, A. (2016). Employer demands from business graduates. *Education and Training*, 15(1), 112-132. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1108/ET-02-2014-0017>
- McNamara, T., Morton, J., Storch, N., & Thompson, C. (2018). Students' accounts of their first-year undergraduate academic writing experience: Implications for the use of the CEFR. *Language Assessment Quarterly*, 15(1), 16-28. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/15434303.2017.1405420>

- McWilliams, R., & Allan, Q. (2014). Embedding academic literacy skills: Towards a best practice model. *Journal of University Teaching and Learning Practice*, 11(3), 1-20.
- Merisotis, J. P. & Phipps, R. A. (2000). Remedial education in colleges and universities: What's really going on? *The Review of Higher Education*, 24(1), 67-78. Doi: [10.1353/rhe.2000.0023](https://doi.org/10.1353/rhe.2000.0023).
- Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education*. Jossey Bass Publishers.
- Merriam, S. B. (2009). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation*. Jossey-Bass.
- Merriam, S. B., & Tisdell, E. J. (2016). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation*. Jossey-Bass.
- Merriam-Webster. (2020a). Literacy. In *Merriam-Webster.com dictionary*. Retrieved February 15, 2020, from <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/literacy>
- Merriam-Webster. (2020b). Literate. In *Merriam-Webster.com dictionary*. Retrieved February 15, 2020, from <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/literate#h1>
- Merrill, B. (2012). Learning to Become an Adult Student: Experiences in a UK University. *International Journal of Continuing Education and Lifelong Learning*, 5(1), 21–42.
- Merrill, B. (2015). Determined to stay or determined to leave? A tale of learner identities, biographies and adult students in higher education. *Studies in higher education*, 40(10), 1859-1871. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/03075079.2014.914918>

- Mickelson, N. (2018). Cultivating critical reading: using creative assignments to promote agency, persistence, and enjoyment. *Transformative Dialogues: Teaching & Learning Journal*, 11(1), 1-14.
- Mills, C. M., Legare, C. H., Grant, M. G., & Landrum, A. R. (2011). Determining who to question, what to ask, and how much information to ask for: The development of inquiry in young children. *Journal of experimental child psychology*, 110, 539-560.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jecp.2011.06.003>
- Ministry of Education. (2013). *Export education levy annual: For the financial year ended 30 June 2013*.
https://www.educationcounts.govt.nz/_data/assets/pdf_file/0016/146221/Export-Education-Levy-Annual-Report-2012-2013b.pdf
- Ministry of Education. (2017). *Export education levy annual: For the financial year ended 30 June 2017*.
https://www.educationcounts.govt.nz/_data/assets/pdf_file/0008/183977/Export-Education-Levy-Annual-Report-2016-2017.pdf
- Ministry of Education. (2018). *Export education levy annual: For the financial year ended 30 June 2018*.
https://www.educationcounts.govt.nz/_data/assets/pdf_file/0010/193474/EEL-Annual-Report-201718.pdf
- Misra, R., & McKean, M. (2000). College students' academic stress and its relation to their anxiety, time management, and leisure satisfaction. *American Journal of Health Studies*, 16(1), 41-51.

- Mohammadi, J., Mohebi, S., Dehghani, F., & Ghasemzadeh, M. J. (2019). Correlation between Academic Self-Efficacy and Learning Anxiety in Medical Students Studying at Qom Branch of Islamic Azad University, 2017, (Iran). *Majallah-i Dānishgāh-i Ulūm-i Pizishkī-i Qum (Qom Univ Med Sci J)*, 12(12), 89-98.
- Mok, K. H. (2016). Massifying and internationalising higher education, changing labour markets and social mobility: Challenges for education and urban governance. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 38(3), 233-241. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/1360080X.2016.1174402>
- Mok, K.H., & Jiang, J. (2018). Massification of higher education and challenges for graduate employment and social mobility: East Asian experiences and sociological reflections. *International journal of educational development*, 63, 44-51. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedudev.2017.02.003>
- Mok, H., & Wu, A. M. (2016). Higher education, changing labour market and social mobility in the era of massification in China. *Journal of Education and Work*, 29(1), 77–97. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/13639080.2015.1049028>
- Mongin , P. (2016). What Are Analytic Narratives? *7th Workshop on Computational Models of Narrative*, 13(13), 1-13.
- Mongin, P. (2019). Analytic Narratives: What they are and how they contribute to historical explanation. In C. Diebolt & M. Haupert (Eds.), *Handbook of Cliometrics* (pp. 1-33). Springer.
- Montgomery, C. (2010). *Understanding the international student experience*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Moore, K. D. (2001). *Classroom teaching skills*. Mc Graw Hill.

- Moore, T., & Morton, J. (2005). Dimensions of difference: A comparison of university writing and IELTS writing. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 4(1), 43-66. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2004.02.001>
- Moos, D. C., & Azevedo, R. (2009). Learning with Computer-Based Learning Environments: A Literature Review of Computer Self-Efficacy. *Review of Educational Research*, 79(2), 576. Doi: 10.3102/0034654308326083
- Mori, S. (2000). Addressing the mental health concerns of international students. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, 78(2), 137-144. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1002/j.1556-6676.2000.tb02571.x>
- Morris, B. (2008). A learning centre's role in institutional success, retention and completion of qualifications. In E. Manalo, J. Bartlett-Trafford, & S. Crozier (Eds.), *Walking a tightrope: The balancing act of learning advising: Proceedings of the 2007 Annual International Conference of the Association of Tertiary Learning Advisors of Aotearoa/New Zealand (ATLAANZ)* (pp. 86-102). ATLAANZ.
- Morris, R., & Hayes, C. (1997). Small group work: Are group assignments a legitimate form of assessment?. In R. Pospisil & L. Willcoxson (Eds.), *Learning Through Teaching* (pp. 229-233). Murdoch University. <http://lsn.curtin.edu.au/tlf/tlf1997/morris.html>
- Morton, J., Storch, N., & Thompson, C. (2015). What our students tell us: Perceptions of three multilingual students on their academic writing in first year. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 30, 1-13. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2015.06.007>
- Moussu, L. (2013). Let's Talk! ESL Students' Needs and Writing Centre Philosophy. *TESL Canada Journal*, 30(2), 55-68.

- Mu, J. C. (2012). Using hermeneutic multi-case study to investigate L2 students' academic writing strategies. *The Linguistics Journal*, 6(1), 81-103.
- Multon, K. D., Brown, S. D., & Lent, R. W. (1991). Relation of self-efficacy beliefs to academic outcomes: A meta-analytic investigation. *Journal of counseling psychology*, 38(1), 30.
- Na, C. D., & Nhat Chi Mai, N. X. (2017). Paraphrasing in academic writing: A case study of Vietnamese learners of English. *Language Education in Asia*, 8(1), 9-24. https://doi.org/10.5746/leia/17/v8/i1/a02/na_mai
- Nallaya, S. (2018). An exploration of how first year students are inducted into their discipline's academic discourses. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 87(1), 57-66. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijer.2017.11.007>
- Nasser, R. (2012). The breadth and depth of foundation courses in Qatar's only public institution of higher education. *Journal of Applied Research in Higher Education*, 4(1), 42-57. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1108/17581181211230621>
- Neil, M. (2018). University gatekeeping tests: What are they really testing and what are the implications for EAP provision? *JACET Journal*, 62, 15-27.
- Nelson-Le Gall, S., & Resnick, L. (1998). Help seeking, achievement motivation, and the social practice of intelligence in school. *Strategic help seeking: Implications for learning and teaching*, 39-60.
- Neri, F., & Ville, S. (2008). Social capital renewal and the academic performance of international students in Australia. *The Journal of Socio-Economics*, 37, 1515–1538. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socec.2007.03.010>

- Nesi, H., Matheson, N., & Basturkmen, H. (2017). University literature essays in the UK, New Zealand and the USA: Implications for EAP. *New Zealand Studies in Applied Linguistics*, 23(2), 25-38.
- Neumann, A., & Pereira, K. B. (2009). Becoming strategic: Recently tenured university professors as agents of scholarly learning. In A. Neumann (Ed.), *Professing to learn: Creating tenured lives and careers in the American research university* (pp. 137-171). The Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Neville, C. (2008). The challenge of referencing. *Adviser, Learner Development Unit*, 1-25.
- Neville, C. (2012). Referencing: Principles, practice and problems. *RGUHS Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences*, 2(2), 1-8.
- Nicol, D. (2008). Learning is a two-way street. *Times Higher Education*, 24.
<https://tinyurl.com/Nicol2008>
- Nicol, D., Thomson, A., & Breslin, C. (2014). Rethinking feedback practices in higher education: a peer review perspective. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 39(1), 102-122. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/02602938.2013.795518>
- Noels, K. A. (2009). The internalization of language learning into the self and social identity. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 43–65). Multilingual Matters.
- Nova, M. (2018). Utilizing Grammarly in evaluating academic writing: A narrative research on EFL students' experience. *Journal of English Education and Applied Linguistics*, 7(1), 80-96. Doi: 10.24127/pj.v7i1

- Nunan, T., George, R., & McCausland, H. (2000). Rethinking the ways in which teaching and learning are supported: The flexible learning centre at the university of south Australia. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 22(1), 85-98.
<https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/713678130>
- Ocak, G., & Boyraz, S. (2016). Examination of the relation between academic procrastination and time management skills of undergraduate students in terms of some variables. *Journal of Education and Training Studies*, 4(5), 76-84.
- O'Carroll, J., Ennis, C., Loscher, K., Ryan, D., & Dixon, N. (2017) Strategies for Enhancing the Mature Student Experience in Higher Education. *Technological University Dublin*, 1-8.
- OECD. (2013a). *Education at a glance 2013*. https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/education/education-at-a-glance-2013_eag-2013-en
- OECD. (2013b). *Foreign/international students enrolled*.
<https://stats.oecd.org/viewhtml.aspx?datasetcode=RFOREIGN&lang=en>
- OECD. (2018). *Education at a glance 2018*. <https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/docserver/eag-2018-en.pdf?expires=1576235460&id=id&accname=guest&checksum=2AD3F9C39B127F595BD0AAAFCE57251BA>
- OECD. (2019). *Education at a glance*. https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/education/education-at-a-glance-2019_f8d7880d-en;jsessionid=QQ3JP6SWlBkYNOzfFngtn1CD.ip-10-240-5-52
- OECD. (2020). *International student mobility (indicator)*.
<https://data.oecd.org/students/international-student-mobility.htm>

- Oliver, P. (2008). *Writing your thesis* (2nd ed.). Sage Publications.
- O'Loughlin, K. (2013). Developing the assessment literacy of university proficiency test users. *Language Testing*, 30(3), 363-380. Doi:10.1177/0265532213480336.
- Olson, D. (1988). Mind and media: The epistemic functions of literacy. *Journal of Communications*, 38(3), 254-279.
- O'Neill, R., & Russell, A. M. T. (2019). Stop! Grammar time: University students' perceptions of the automated feedback program Grammarly. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology*, 35(1), 42-56. Doi: 10.14742/ajet.3795
- Ong, W. J. (1982). *Orality and literacy: The technologizing of the word*. Methuen.
- Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Leech, N. L. (2004). Enhancing the interpretation of significant findings: The role of mixed methods research. *The Qualitative Report*, 9(4), 770-792.
- Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Seaman, M. A. (1995). The effect of time constraints and statistics test anxiety on test performance in a statistics course. *The Journal of experimental education*, 63(2), 115-124.
- Pajares, F. (1996). Self-efficacy beliefs in achievement settings. *Review of Educational Research*, 66, 543-578.
- Pajares, F. (2003). Self-efficacy beliefs, motivation and achievement in writing: A review of the literature. *Reading & Writing Quarterly*, 19, 139-158. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/10573560308222>
- Pajares, F. (2008). Motivational role of self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulated learning. In D. H. Schunk & B. J. Zimmerman (Eds.), *Motivation and self-regulated learning: Theory, research, and applications* (pp. 111-139). Taylor & Francis.

- Pajares, F., & Valiante, G. (2001). Gender differences in writing motivation and achievement of middle school students: A function of gender orientation? *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 26, 366-381.
<https://doi.org/10.1006/ceps.2000.1069>
- Palmer, L., Levett-Jones, T., & Smith, R. (2018). First year students' perceptions of academic literacies preparedness and embedded diagnostic assessment. *Student Success*, 9(2), 49-62. Doi: 10.5204/ssj.v9i2.417
- Paltridge, B. (2014). Genre and second-language academic writing. *Language Teaching*, 47(3), 303-318. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1017/S0261444814000068>
- Paltridge, B., Harbon, L., Hirsch, D., Shen, H., Stevenson, M., Phakiti, A., & Woodrow, L. (2009). *Teaching academic writing: An introduction for teachers of second language writers*. University of Michigan Press.
- Paltridge, B., & Starfield, S. (2007). *Thesis and dissertation writing in a second language*. Routledge.
- Papatsiba, V. (2005). Political and individual rationales of student mobility: A case-study of ERASMUS and a French regional scheme for studies abroad. *European Journal of Education*, 40(2), 173-188.
- Paré, A. (2017). The Once and Future Writing Centre: A Reflection and Critique. *Canadian Journal for Studies in Discourse and Writing/Rédactologie*, 27, 1-8.
- Park, C. (2003). In other (people's) words: Plagiarism by university students - literature and lessons. *Assessment & evaluation in higher education*, 28(5), 471-488.

- Park, I. (2014). Stepwise Advice Negotiation in Writing Center Peer Tutoring. *Language and Education* 28(4), 362–382. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/09500782.2013.873805>
- Parker, J. S., Shum, K. Z., Suldo, S. M., Shaunessy-Dedrick, E, Ferron, J. M., & Dedrick, R. F. (2019). Predictors of adaptive help seeking across ninth- grade students enrolled in Advanced Placement and International Baccalaureate courses. *Psychology School*, 56, 652–669. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1002/pits.22223>
- Parkinson, P. (2008). Space for performing teacher identity: Through the lens of Kafka and Hegel. *Teachers and teaching: Theory and practice*, 14(1), 51–60. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/13540600701837640>
- Patel, A., Bakhtiyari, K., & Taghavi, M. (2011). Evaluation of cheating detection methods in academic writings. *Library Hi Tech*, 29(4), 623-640.
- Paterson, C., Paterson, N., Jackson, W., & Work, F. (2020). What are students' needs and preferences for academic feedback in higher education? A systematic review. *Nurse education today*, 85, 1-12.
- Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research method*. Sage Publications.
- Pomykalski, J. J. (2006). Constructing integrated writing assignments for the IS curriculum. *Journal of Information Systems Education*, 17(2), 171-184.
- Poulter, S., Riitaaja, A., & Kuusisto, A. (2016). Thinking multicultural education ‘otherwise’: From a secularist construction towards a plurality of epistemologies and worldviews. *Globalisation, Societies and Education*, 14(1), 68-86. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/14767724.2014.989964>

- Pekrun, R., Goetz, T., Perry, R.P., Kramer, K., Hochstadt, M., & Molfenter, S. (2004). Beyond test anxiety: Development and validation of the test emotions questionnaire (TEQ). *Anxiety Stress Coping*, 17, 287–316.
- Pennycook, A. (1997a). Cultural alternatives and autonomy. In P. Benson & P. Voller (Eds.), *Autonomy and independence in language learning* (pp. 35-53). Longman.
- Pennycook, A. (1997b). Vulgar pragmatism, critical pragmatism, and EAP. *English for Specific Purposes*, 16(4), 253-69.
- Perez-Llantada, C., & Swales, J. M. (2016). English for specific purposes. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of Research in Second Language Teaching and Learning* (Volume 3, pp. 42-55). Routledge.
- Perkins, R., & Neumayer, E. (2014). Geographies of educational mobilities: Exploring the uneven flows of international students. *The Geographical Journal*, 180(3), 246-259. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1111/geoj.12045>
- Phillipson, R. (2017). Myths and realities of ‘global’ English. *Language Policy*, 16(3), 313-331. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10993-016-9409-z>
- Pintrich, P. R., & Garcia, T. (1991). Student goal orientation and self-regulation in the college classroom. In M. Maehr & P. R. Pintrich (Eds.), *Advances in motivation and achievement: Goals and self-regulatory processes* (Vol. 7, pp. 371-402). JAI Press.
- Pomykalski, J. J. (2006). Constructing integrated writing assignments for the IS curriculum. *Journal of Information Systems Education*, 17(2), 171-184.
- Poock, M. C., & Love, P. G. (2001). Factors influencing the program choice of doctoral students in higher education administration. *National Association of Student*

Personal Administrators Journal, 38, 203–223. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.2202/1949-6605.1136>

Potter, W. J. (2018). *Media literacy*. Sage Publications.

Poyrazli, S., Arbona, C., Nora, A., McPherson, R., & Pisecco, S. (2002). Relation between assertiveness, academic self-efficacy, and psychosocial adjustment among international graduate students. *Journal of College Student Development*, 43(5), 632–642.

Poyrazli, S., Kavanaugh, P. R., Baker, A., & Al-Timimi, N. (2004). Social support and demographic correlates of acculturative stress in international students. *Journal of College Counseling*, 7, 73-82. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1002/j.2161-1882.2004.tb00261.x>

Pratt, C. (2010). Maintaining the momentum of students of Spanish from high school to college. *Hispania*, 93(4), 671-685.

Prebble, T., Hargreaves, H., Leach, L., Naidoo, K., Suddaby, G., & Zepke, N. (2005). *Impact of student support services and academic development programmes on student outcomes in undergraduate tertiary study: A synthesis of the research*. Research Division.

Preece, S. (2010). The positioning of learners and educators in academic literacy. In G. Blue (Ed.), *Developing academic literacy* (pp. 25-38). Peter Lang.

Pytash, K. E. (2017). *Writing from the margins: Exploring the writing practices of youth in the juvenile justice system*. Rowman & Littlefield.

- Quinn, C. (2013). Communicating writing tasks effectively: Assignment sheets as pedagogical tools. *The Language Teacher*, 37(3), 23-29.
- Rabia, A., & Hazza, M. (2017). Undergraduate Arab international students' adjustment to US universities. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 6(1), 131-139. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5430/ijhe.v6n1p131>
- Rajulton, F. (2001). The fundamentals of longitudinal research: An overview. *Canadian Studies in Population*, 28(2), 169-185.
- Ramos Salazar, L., & Hayward, S. L. (2018). An examination of college students' problem-solving self-efficacy, academic self-efficacy, motivation, test performance, and expected grade in introductory-level economics courses. *Decision Sciences Journal of Innovative Education*, 16(3), 217-240.
- Rashidi, N., & Javanmardi, F. (2011). The IELTS preparation washback on learning and teaching outcomes/Resultats d'apprentissage et d'enseignement de la preparation a l'IELTS washbacks. *Cross-Cultural Communication*, 7(3), 132. Doi: 10.3968/j.ccc.1923670020110703.162.
- Ravari, Z. K., & Tan, K. E. (2019). A qualitative investigation of strategies and experiences of non-native students writing master's theses. *Journal of Applied Research in Higher Education*, 11(2), 310-324. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1108/JARHE-07-2018-0120>
- Razali, R., & Jupri, R. (2014). Exploring teacher written feedback and student revisions on ESL students' writing. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 19(5), 63– 70. <https://doi.org/10.9790/0837-19556370>

- Read, J., & Hayes, B. (2003). The impact of IELTS on preparation for academic study in New Zealand. *IELTS Research Reports*, 4, 154-205.
- Reeve, J., & Tseng, C. M. (2011). Agency as a fourth aspect of students' engagement during learning activities. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 36(4), 257-267.
- Richardson, M., Abraham, C., & Bond, R. (2012). Psychological correlates of university students' academic performance: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 138(2), 335–387. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0026838>
- Riitaoja, A. L., Poulter, S., & Kuusisto, A. (2010). Worldviews and multicultural education in the Finnish context: A critical philosophical approach to theory and practices. *Finnish journal of ethnicity and migration*, 5(3), 87–95.
- Robbins, S., Lauver, K., Le, H., Davis, D., Langley, R., & Carlstrom, A. (2004). Do psychosocial and study skill factors predict college outcomes? A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 130(2), 261–288. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.130.2.261>
- Roberts, M., & Reid, K. (2014). Using Bourdieu to think about the tertiary learning advice consultation. *Journal of Academic Language and Learning*, 8(1), A70-A82.
- Robertson, C. E. (2017). Pedagogical concerns and approaches to EAP writing instruction within an ELF Program. *The Center for ELF Journal*, 3, 21-26.
- Robertson, M., Line, M., Jones, S., & Thomas, S. (2000). International students, learning environments and perceptions: A case study using the Delphi technique. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 19(1), 89–101. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/07294360050020499>

- Robertson, D. A., & Padesky, C. J. (2019). Keeping students interested: Interest-based instruction as a tool to Engage. *The Reading Teacher*, 73(5), 575-586.
- Robinson-Pant, A. (Ed.). (2004). *Women, literacy and development: Alternative perspectives*. Routledge.
- Rogers, M. (2000). Genre and terminology. In A. Trosborg (Ed.), *Analysing professional genres* (Vol. 74, pp. 3-24). John Benjamins publishing company.
- Rogers, P. S., & Rymer, J. (2001). Analytical tools to facilitate transitions into new writing contexts: A communicative perspective. *The Journal of Business Communication* (1973), 38(2), 112-151.
- Roll, I., Aleven, V., McLaren, B. M., & Koedinger, K. R. (2011). Improving students' help-seeking skills using metacognitive feedback in an intelligent tutoring system. *Learning and Instruction*, 21(2), 267-280.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.learninstruc.2010.07.004>
- Romero, M., & Barbera, E. (2011). Quality of E-learners' Time and Learning Performance Beyond Quantitative Time-on-Task. *International Review of Research in Open and Distance Learning* 12(5), 125–37.
- Roper, B. (2018). Neoliberalism's war on New Zealand's universities. *New Zealand Sociology*, 33(2), 9-39.
- Rosch, E. (2013). Principles of categorization. In E. Rosch & B. B. Lloyd (Eds.), *Cognition and categorization* (pp. 27-48). Lawrence Erlbaum.

- Rosing, H., Reed, D., Ferrari, J. R., & Bothne, N. J. (2010). Understanding student complaints in service-learning pedagogy. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 46, 472-481.
- Rothbauer, P. M., & Given, L. M. (2008). *Triangulation [The SAGE Encyclopedia of Qualitative Research Methods]*. Sage Publications.
- Rowe, A. D., & Fitness, J. (2018). Understanding the role of negative emotions in adult learning and achievement: A social functional perspective. *Behavioral sciences*, 8(27), 1-20.
- Roza, D. (2019). The challenges and strategies of teachers in teaching TOEFL and IELTS test pPreparation. *J-SHMIC: Journal of English for Academic*, 6(2), 1-13.
- Rumbley, L. E. (2020). Coping with COVID-19: International higher education in Europe. *The European Association for International Education (EAIE)*, 1-26.
- Runeson, P., & Host, M. (2009). Guidelines for conducting and reporting case study research in software engineering. *Empirical software engineering*, 14(2), 131-164. Doi: 10.1007/s10664-008-9102-8
- Ruth, D. (2018). Education as gift: Taking education out of the market and the market out of education. *New Zealand Sociology*, 33(2), 203-228.
- Ryan, R. A. & Deci, E. L. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist*, 55, 68-78. Doi: 10.1037/0003-066X.55.1.68
- Ryan, S., & Dörnyei, Z. (2013). The long-term evolution of language motivation and the L2 self. *Fremdsprachen in der Perspektive lebenslangen Lernens*, 89-100.

Ryan, A. M., Pintrich, P. R., & Midgley, C. (2001). Avoiding seeking help in the classroom: Who and why? *Educational Psychology Review*, 13(2), 93-114.

Saddler, B., & Andrade, H. (2004). The writing rubric. *Educational Leadership*, 62(2), 48-52.

Sadighi, S., Yamini, M., Bagheri, M. S., & Yarmohammadi, L. (2018). Investigating preuniversity EFL teachers' perceived wash-back effects of university entrance exams and teaching materials on students' learning objectives and teachers' class performance. *Cogent Social Sciences*, 4(1), 1-16.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/23311886.2018.1546448>

Sadler, D. R. (1987). Specifying and Promulgating Achievement Standards. *Oxford Review of Education* 13, (2), 191–209. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/0305498870130207>

Sadler, T. D. (2004). Informal reasoning regarding socioscientific issues: A critical review of research. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 41(5), 513–536. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1002/tea.20009>

Saglam, A., L. G., & Farhady, H. (2019). Can exams change how and what learners teach? Investigating the washback effect of a university English language proficiency test in the Turkish context. *Eurasian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 4(2), 177-186. <http://dx.doi.org/10.32601/ejal.464094>

Sainz, M. A., Ferrero, A. M., & Ugidos, A. (2019). Time management: Skills to learn and put into practice. *Education+ Training*. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ET-01-2018-0027>

- Salem, L. (2016). Decisions...Decisions: Who chooses to use the writing center? *The writing center journal*, 35(2), 147-171.
- Sarangi, S., & Candlin, C. N. (2004). Making methodology matter. *Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 1(2), 101-106.
- Sarantakos, S. (1998). *Social research*. Macmillan Education.
- Sardegna, V. G., Lee, J., & Kusey, C. (2018). Self-efficacy, attitudes, and choice of strategies for English pronunciation learning. *Language Learning*, 68(1), 83-114.
<https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1111/lang.12263>
- Sato, T., & Hodge, S. R. (2009). Asian international doctoral students' experiences at two American universities: Assimilation, accommodation, and resistance. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education*, 2(3), 136-148. Doi: 10.1037/a0015912.
- Saunders, M. N. K., Thornhill, A., & Lewis, P. (2019). *Research methods for business students*. Pearson.
- Sawir, E., Marginson, S., Forbes-Mewett, H., Nyland, C., & Ramia, G. (2012). International student security and English language proficiency. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 16(5), 434-454. Doi:10.1177/1028315311435418.
- Scager, K., Boonstra, J., Peeters, T., Vulperhorst, J., & Wiegant, F. (2016). Collaborative learning in higher education: Evoking positive interdependence. *CBE—Life Sciences Education*, 15(ar69), 1-9.
- Scarino, A. (2014). Situating the challenges in current languages education policy in Australia – unlearning monolingualism. *International Journal of Multi-linguism*, 11, 289-306. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/14790718.2014.921176>

- Schunk, D. H. (1984). Self-efficacy perspective on achievement behavior. *Educational Psychology*, 19, 48–58.
- Schunk, D. H. (1991). Self-efficacy and academic motivation. *Educational psychologist*, 26(3-4), 207-231.
- Schunk, D. H. (1996, April). *Self-efficacy for learning and performance* [Paper presentation]. Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New York, NY, USA. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED394663.pdf>
- Schunk, D. H. (2008). Attributions as Motivators of Self-Regulated Learning. In D. H. Schunk & B. J. Zimmerman (Eds.), *Motivation and Self-Regulated Learning: Theory, Research and Applications* (pp. 245–266). Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Schunk, D. H., & DiBenedetto, M. K. (2014). Academic self-efficacy. In M. J. Furlong, R. Gilman, & E. S. Huebner (Eds.), *Handbook of positive psychology in schools* (pp. 115–130). Routledge.
- Schunk, D. H., & DiBenedetto, M. K. (2015). Self-efficacy: Education aspects. *International Encyclopedia of the Social & Behavioral Sciences: Second Edition*, 515-521. Doi: [10.1016/B978-0-08-097086-8.92019-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-08-097086-8.92019-1)
- Schunk, D. H., & DiBenedetto, M. K. (2016). Self-Efficacy Theory in Education. In K. R. Wentzel & D. B. Miele (Eds.), *Handbook of Motivation at School* Routledge (pp. 34-53). Routledge.
- Schunk, D. H., & Pajares, F. (2004). Self-efficacy in education revisited. In D. M. McInerney & S. Van Etten (Eds.), *Big theories revisited* (Vol. 4, pp. 115-138). Information Age Publishing.

- Schunk, D. H., & Pajares, F. (2009). Self-efficacy theory. In K. R. Wentzel & A. Wigfield (Eds.), *Handbook of motivation at school* (pp. 35–53). Routledge.
- Schunk, D. H., Pintrich, P. R., & Meece, J. L. (2008). *Motivation in education: Theory, research, and applications*. Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Schunk, D. H., & Usher, E. L. (2011). Assessing self-efficacy for self-regulated learning. In B. J. Zimmerman & D. H. Schunk (Eds.), *Handbook of Self-regulation of Learning and Performance* (pp. 282-297). Routledge.
- Schunk, D. H., & Usher, E. L. (2012). Social cognitive theory and motivation. In R. M. Ryan (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of human motivation* (pp. 13–27). Oxford University Press.
- Schunk, D., & Zimmerman, B. (Eds.). (1998). *Self-regulated learning: From teaching to self-reflective practice*. Guilford Press.
- Schwartz, P., Kelly, E., & Boyer, N. (1999). Emerging global knowledge economy. In N. M. Belting (Ed.), *The future of the global economy: Towards a long boom?* (pp. 77-115). OECD.
- Scoles, J., Huxham, M., & McArthur, J. (2013). No Longer Exempt from Good Practice: Using Exemplars to Close the Gap for Exams. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education* 38(6), 631–645. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/02602938.2012.674485>
- Scott, J. (2017). *Social network analysis*. Sage Publications.
- Scribner, S., & Cole, M. (1978). Literacy without schooling: Testing for intellectual effects. *Harvard Educational Review*, 48(4), 448-461.

- Scribner, S., & Cole, M. (1981). *The psychology of literacy*. Harvard University Press.
- Scurr, R. (2006). It is not enough to read an essay and mark it; one must also guess if a student has purchased professional help. *The Times Higher Education Supplement*, 13-15.
- Sefalane-Nkohla, P. G. (2019). *The role of writing centre in enhancing the quality of students' academic writing at a university of technology* [Doctoral dissertation, Stellenbosch University]. SUNScholar Research Repository.
<http://scholar.sun.ac.za/handle/10019.1/105929>
- Seidman, I. E. (1991). *Interviewing as qualitative research*. Teachers College Press.
- Seidman, I. (2006). *Interviewing as qualitative research: A guide for researchers in education and the social sciences* (3rd ed.). Teachers College Press.
- Severiens, S., & Wolff, R. (2008). A comparison of ethnic minority and majority students: Social and academic integration, and quality of learning. *Studies in Higher Education*, 33(3), 253-266. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/03075070802049194>
- Sharma, A. (2007). Making (electrical) connections: Exploring student agency in a school in India. *Science Education*, 92(2), 297–319.
- Shaw, K. (1999). Defining the self: Constructions of identity in community college students. In K. Shaw, J. Valadez, & R. Rhoads (Eds.), *Community colleges as cultural texts* (pp. 153-172). State University of New York Press.
- Shaw, A. (2017). *Income and expenditure report 2017: The cost of being a student in New Zealand*. New Zealand Union of Student Associations.

- Shenton, A. K. (2004). Strategies for ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research projects. *Education for Information*, 22(2), 63-75.
- Shepard, L. A. (2006). Creating coherent formative and summative assessment practices. *Orbit*, 36(2), 41-44.
- Sherry, C., Bhat, R., Beaver, B., & Ling, A. (2004, July 3-6). Students as customers: The expectations and perceptions of local and international students. *HEDSA Conference 2004*, Miri, Sarawak Malaysia. <http://www.hersa.org.au/wp-content/uploads/conference/2004/PDF/P017-jt.pdf>
- Shin, S. (2007). 'Fire your proofreader!' Grammar correction in the writing classroom. *ELT Journal*, 62(4), 358-365. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1093/elt/ccm089>
- Silfakis, N. C. (2018). ELF as an opportunity for foreign language use, learning and instruction for Greece and beyond. In Z. Tatsioka, B. Seidlhofer, N. Sifakis, & G. Ferguson (Eds.), *Using English as a Lingua Franca in education in Europe: English in Europe* (Vol. 4, pp. 13-27). Walter de Gruyter GmbH & Co KG.
- Simkin, M. G. (1992). The case for writing assignments in computer education. *Journal of Computer Information Systems*, 32(2), 15-19.
- Simons, H. (2009). *Case study research in practice*. Sage Publications.
- Skinner, I., & Mort, P. (2009). Embedding academic literacy support within the electrical engineering curriculum: A case study. *IEEE Transactions on education*, 52(4), 547-554.
- Skyrme, G. (2007). Entering the university: The differentiated experience of two Chinese international students in a New Zealand university. *Studies in Higher*

Education, 32(3), 357–372. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/03075070701346915>

Skyrme, G. (2013). ‘It’s totally different’: Undergraduate Chinese students learning to write in a New Zealand university. In L. Jin & M. Cortazzi (Eds.), *Researching Intercultural Learning* (152-172). Palgrave Macmillan.

Skyrme, G. (2018). Learning to write in the university after the writing course is over: What helps second language writers? *Higher Education Research & Development*, 37(6), 1274-1286. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/07294360.2018.1477741>

Slomp, D. H. (2012). Challenges in assessing the development of writing ability: Theories, constructs and methods. *Assessing Writing*, 17, 81-91. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asw.2012.02.001>

Smith, R., & Khawaja, N. (2011). A review of the acculturation experiences of international students. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 35(6), 699-713. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2011.08.004>

Snyder, L. G., & Snyder, M. J. (2008). Teaching critical thinking and problem-solving skills. *The Journal of Research in Business Education*, 50(2), 90-99.

Somekh, B., & Lewin, C. (2009). *Research methods in the social sciences*. Sage Publications.

Sotardi, V. A., & Friesen, M. D. (2017). Student reflections on learning and studying during the transition to university: Implications for tertiary learning advisors. *ATLAANZ Journal*, 2(1), 19-35.

- Spack, R. (1988). Initiating ESL students into the academic discourse community: How far should we go? *TESOL Quarterly*, 22(1), 29–52.
- Spolsky, B., & Hult, F. M. (2010). *The handbook of educational linguistics*. Wiley-Blackwell.
- Springer, S.E., Harris, S., & Dole, J.A. (2017). From surviving to thriving: Four research-based principles to build students' reading interest. *The Reading Teacher*, 71(1), 43–50. <https://doi.org/10.1002/trtr.1581>
- Spruill, N., Hirt, J., & Mo, Y. U. N. (2014). Predicting persistence to degree of male college students. *Journal of College Student Retention: Research, Theory & Practice*, 16(1), 25-48.
- Stewart, G., Kamata, A., Miles, R., Grandoit, E., Mandelbaum, F., Quinn, C., & Rabin, L. (2019). Predicting mental health help seeking orientations among diverse Undergraduates: An ordinal logistic regression analysis. *Journal of affective disorders*, 257, 271-280. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jad.2019.07.058>
- Stake, R. E. (2006). *Multiple case study analysis*. Guilford Press.
- Stake, R. E. (2010). *Qualitative research: studying how things work*. The Guilford Press.
- Stefani, L (1998). Assessment in partnership with learners. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, 23(4), 339–350.
- Stieger, S., & Jekel, T. (2019). Ideology, education, and financial literacy: Uncovering neoliberal ideology in assessment studies of economics education—the case of Austria. *JSSE-Journal of Social Science Education*, 4-26. Doi: 10.4119/jsse-906

Stigger, E. (2019). The correlation between IELTS scores and international students' academic success: A literature review. *BC TEAL Journal*, 4(1), 84-94.

Storch, N., & Hill, K. (2008). What happens to international students' English after one semester at university? *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics*, 31(1), 1-17.
<https://doi.org/10.2104/aral0804>

Storch, N., & Tapper, J. (2009). The impact of an EAP course on postgraduate writing, *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 8(3), 207–223.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2009.03.001>

Strangfeld, J. A. (2019). I just don't want to be judged: Cultural capital's impact on student plagiarism. *SAGE Open*, 9(1), 1-14. Doi: 10.1177/2158244018822382.

Strauss, P. (2013). "I don't think we're seen as a nuisance": The positioning of postgraduate learning advisors in New Zealand universities. *TEXT Journal of Writing and Writing Courses*, 21, 1-15.

Strauss, P. (2017). Caught between two stools? Academic writing in 'new' vocational disciplines in higher education. *Teaching in Higher education*, 22(8), 925-939.
<https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/13562517.2017.1319813>

Strauss, P. (2019). Academic writing: The Human Side. In G. Barkhuizen (Ed.), *Qualitative Research Topics in Language Teacher Education* (pp. 110-114). Taylor & Francis Group.

Strauss, P., & Goodsir, W. (2011). The role of academic literacy in post-graduate hospitality education. *RHPF Northern Regional Hub Project Fund Ako Aotearoa*, 1-31.

Street, B.V. (1984). *Literacy in theory and practice*. Cambridge University Press

Street, B. (1993). Introduction: The New Literacy Studies. In B. Street (Ed.), *Cross-cultural approaches to literacy* (pp. 1-21). Cambridge University Press.

Street, B. V. (2005). At last: Recent applications of New Literacy Studies in educational contexts. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 39(4), 417-423.

Street, B. (2006). Autonomous and ideological models of literacy: Approaches from New Literacy Studies. *EASA Media Anthropology Network E-seminar 9*, 1-15.

Street, B. (2015). Academic writing: Theory and practice. *Journal of Educational Issues*, 1(2), 110-116.

Street, C. T., & Ward, K. W. (2012). Improving validity and reliability in longitudinal case study timelines. *European Journal of Information Systems*, 21(2), 160-175.
<https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1057/ejis.2011.53>

Stromquist, N. P., & Monkma, K. (2014). Defining globalisation and assessing its implications for knowledge and education, revisited. In N. P. Stromquist & K. Monkma (Eds.), *Globalization and education: Integration and contestation across cultures* (pp.1-19). Rowman and Littlefield education.

Sumer, S., Poyrazli, S., & Grahame, K. (2008). Predictors of depression and anxiety among international students. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, 86, 429-437.

Sürücü, A., & Ünal, A. (2018). Investigation of teacher behavior increasing and reducing student motivation. *OPUS Uluslararası Toplum Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 8(14), 253-295.

- Swales, J. (1985). ESP - the heart of the matter or the end of the affair. *English in the world*, 212-223.
- Swanborn, P. G. (2018). *Case Study Research: What, Why and How?* Sage.
- Tai, J., Ajjawi, R., Boud, D., Dawson, P., & Panadero, E. (2018). Developing evaluative judgement: enabling students to make decisions about the quality of work. *Higher Education*, 76(3), 467-481. Doi: 10.1007/s10734-017-0220-3
- Tan, B. H., Emerson, L., & White, C. (2017). Reforming ESL writing instruction in tertiary education: The writing centre approach. *The English Teacher*, 1-14.
- Tardy, C. M., Buck, R. H., Pawlowski, M., & Slinkard, J. R. (2018). Evolving Conceptions of Genre among First-Year Writing Teachers. *Composition Forum* (Vol. 38). Association of Teachers of Advanced Composition.
- Tawash, E., Anand, E., Holden, C. E., Hughes, J., & Maddison, W. (2019). From Arabic high school graduate to Western qualified nurse: The challenge of transition (a discussion paper). *Studies in Higher Education*, 1-9. Doi: 10.1080/03075079.2019.1623774.
- Taylor, L. (2005). Washback and impact. *ELT Journal*, 59(2), 154-155.
- Taylor, M. L. (2017). *Unraveling the Mysteries of Case Study Research*. Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Taylors College. (2020). *Foundation studies certificate*.
<https://www.taylorsauckland.ac.nz/pathway-programmes/foundation-certificate>
- Teddlie, C., & Tashakkori, A. (2011) Mixed methods research. *The Sage handbook of qualitative research*, 4, 285-300.

- Tempelaar, D. T. (2006). The role of metacognition in business education. *Industry and Higher Education*, 20(5), 291–297.
- Tesch, R. (1990). *Qualitative Research: Analysis Types and Software*. Routledge.
- The University of Auckland. (2020a). *Academic English Language Requirements (AELR)*. <http://www.delna.auckland.ac.nz/en/aelr.html>
- The University of Auckland. (2020b). *Academic English language requirements*. <https://www.auckland.ac.nz/en/students/academic-information/aelr.html>
- The University of Auckland. (2020c). *DELNA for students*. <http://www.delna.auckland.ac.nz/en/delna-for-students.html>
- The University of Waikato [Te Whare Wananga o Waikato]. (n.d.). *Consultations with Student Learning*. <https://www.waikato.ac.nz/teaching-and-learning/student-learning/appointments>
- The World University Ranking. (n.d). *The World University Ranking 2020*. [https://www.timeshighereducation.com/world-university-rankings/2020/world-ranking#!/page/0/length/25/sort by/rank/sort_order/asc/cols/scores](https://www.timeshighereducation.com/world-university-rankings/2020/world-ranking#!/page/0/length/25/sort%20by/rank/sort_order/asc/cols/scores)
- Thies, L. C. (2012). Increasing student participation and success: Collaborating to embed academic literacies into the curriculum. *Journal of Academic Language & Learning*, 6(1), A15-A31.
- Thom, M. (2020). Are group assignments effective pedagogy or a waste of time? A review of the literature and implications for practice. *Teaching Public Administration*, 38(3), 257-269. Doi: 10.1177/0144739420904396.

- Thomas, L. (2012). *Building student engagement and belonging in higher education at a time of change: Final report from the what works? Student Retention and Success Programme*. Higher Education Funding Council for England.
- Thompson, C., Morton, J., & Storch, N. (2013). Where from, who, why and how? A study of the use of sources by first year L2 university students. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 12(2), 99-109. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2012.11.004>
- Thorkildsen, T. A. (2002). *Motivation and the struggle to learn: Responding to fractured lie*. Allyn & Bacon.
- Tian, L., & Liu, N. C. (2020). Inward international students in China and their contributions to global common goods. *Higher Education*, 1-21.
- Tight, M. (2019). Mass Higher Education and Massification. *Higher Education Policy*, 32, 93–108.
- Tinto, V. (1993). *Leaving college: Rethinking the causes and cures of student attrition* (2nd ed.). University of Chicago Press.
- Tiruchittampalam, S., Ross, A., Whitehouse, E., & Nicholson, T. (2018). Measuring the Effectiveness of Writing Center Consultations on L2 Writers' Essay Writing Skills. *Languages*, 3(4), 1-13. <https://doi.org/10.3390/languages3010004>
- Toh, G. (2019). *Effecting Change in English Language Teaching: Exposing Collaborators and Culprits in Japan*. Springer International Publishing AG.
- Torenbeek, M., Jansen, E. P. W. A., & Hofman, W. H. A. (2011). How is the approach to teaching at secondary school related to first-year university achievement? *School*

Effectiveness and School Improvement, 22(4), 351–370. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/09243453.2011.577788>

Tran, L. T. (2013). *International student adaptation to academic writing in higher education*. Cambridge Scholar Publisher.

Tran, L. T. (2016). Mobility as ‘becoming’: A Bourdieuan analysis of the factors shaping international student mobility. *British journal of sociology of education*, 37(8), 1268-1289. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/01425692.2015.1044070>

Tran, L. T., Huu Nghia, T. L., Khuong, C., & Thanh Le, T. T. (2019) Language and learning advisors as a valuable but under-recognised workforce in higher education: A Bourdieuan analysis of their professional development in international education. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 24(6), 755-771. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/13562517.2018.1499079>

Trow, M. (1973). *Problems in the transition from elite to mass higher education*. Carnegie Commission on Higher Education.

Tuck, J. (2017). *Academics engaging with student writing: Working at the higher education textface*. Taylor & Francis.

Tullis, J. G., & Benjamin, A. S. (2011). On the effectiveness of self-paced learning. *Journal of Memory and Language*, 64, 109-118.

Tuncel, E., Sedikoglua, S., & Memmedova, K. (2016). Statistical reasoning of impact of motivation on students' achievement in foreign language learning. *Procedia Computer Science*, 102, 244 – 250. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.procs.2016.09.397>

- Turner, J. (2004). Language as academic purpose. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 3(2), 95-109. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1475-1585\(03\)00054-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1475-1585(03)00054-7)
- Turner, J. (2011a). *Language in the academy: Cultural reflexivity and intercultural dynamics*. Multilingual Matters.
- Turner, J. (2011b) Rewriting writing in higher education: The contested spaces of proofreading. *Studies in Higher Education*, 36(4), 427-440. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/03075071003671786>
- Turner, V. (1987). Betwixt and between: The liminal period in rites of passage. In L. C. Mahdi, S. Foster, & M. Little (Eds.), *Betwixt and Between: Patterns of masculine and feminine initiation* (pp. 3-22). Open Court.
- Taylor, M. L., & Søndergaard, M. (2017). *Unraveling the Mysteries of Case Study Research*. Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.
- Tynan, L., & Johns, K. (2015). Piloting the post-entry language assessment: Outcomes from a new system for supporting research candidates with English as an additional language. *Quality in Higher Education*, 21(1), 66–78. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/13538322.2015.1049442>
- Unesco. (2019). *Education: Inbound internationally mobile students by continent of origin*. <http://data.uis.unesco.org/index.aspx?queryid=169>
- University of Canterbury. (n.d.). *Consultations*. <https://www.canterbury.ac.nz/support/asc/services/consultations/>
- UP Education. (2020). *The university of Auckland certificate in Foundation Study*. <https://partnerships.up.education/programmes/university-of-auckland/>

- Ushioda, E. (2009). A person-in-context relational view of emergent motivation, self and identity. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 215–228). Multilingual Matters.
- Ushioda, E. (2015). Context and complex dynamic systems theory. In Z. Dörnyei, P. D. MacIntyre, & A. Henry (Eds.), *Motivational dynamics in language learning* (pp. 85–96). Multilingual Matters.
- Uysal, H. H. (2010). A critical review of the IELTS writing test. *ELT Journal*, 64(3), 314-320. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1093/elt/ccp026>
- Vaccarino, F., & Dresler-Hawke, E. (2011). How you doing, mate? The perceptions of benefits and barriers in forming friendships with international students: A New Zealand perspective. *Intercultural Communication Studies*, 10(2), 177–189.
- Van Blankenstein, F. M., Saab, N., van der Rijst, R. M., Danel, M. S., Bakker-van den Berg, A. S., & van den Broek, P. W. (2019). How do self-efficacy beliefs for academic writing and collaboration and intrinsic motivation for academic writing and research develop during an undergraduate research project? *Educational Studies*, 45(2), 209-225. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/03055698.2018.1446326>
- Vancouver, J. B., & Kendall, L. N. (2006). When self-efficacy negatively relates to motivation and performance in a learning context. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(5), 1146-1153. Doi:10.1037/0021-9010.91.5.1146
- Van Dinther, M., Dochy, F., & Segers, M. (2011). Factors affecting students' self-efficacy in higher education. *Educational research review*, 6(2), 95-108.
- Van Laer, S., & Elen, J. (2019). The effect of cues for calibration on learners' self-regulated learning through changes in learners' learning behaviour and

outcomes. *Computers & education*, 135, 30-48.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2019.02.016>

Vannoni, M. (2014). What are case studies good for? Nesting comparative case study research into the lakatosian research program. *Cross Cultural Research*, 49(4), 331-357.

Van Rensburg, W., & Lamberti, P. (2009). The language of learning and teaching in higher education. In S. Gravett & H. Geyser (Eds.), *Teaching and learning in higher education*. (pp. 67-87). Van Schaik.

Vaughn, M. (2018). Making sense of student agency in the early grades. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 99(7), 62-66. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/26552385>

Vaughn, M. (2019). Adaptive teaching during reading instruction: A multi-case study. *Reading Psychology*, 1, 1 –33. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/02702711.2018.1481478>

Vaughn, M. (2020). Where to from here: Fostering agency across landscapes. *Theory into Practice*, 59(2), 234-243. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/00405841.2019.1702391>

Vaughn, M., Premo, J., Sotirovska, V. V., & Erickson, D. (2020). Evaluating agency in literacy using the student agency profile. *The Reading Teacher*, 73(4), 427-441.

Vaughan, S., Sanders, T., Crossley, N., O'Neill, P., & Wass, V. (2015). Bridging the gap: The roles of social capital and ethnicity in medical student achievement. *Medical Education*, 49(1), 114–123. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/medu.12597>

- Vedder, R., Denhart, C., & Robe, J. (2013). *Why are recent college graduates underemployed? University enrollments and labour-market realities*. Center for college affordability and productivity (NJ1).
- Victoria University of Wellington Te Herenga Waka. (n.d.). *Making an appointment*. <https://www.wgtn.ac.nz/student-learning/about/making-an-appointment>
- Vieira, E., & Grantham, S. (2011). Perceptions of control facilitate reading engagement. *Reading Psychology*, 32(4), 322–348. <http://doi.org/10.1080/02702711.2010.545278>
- Vogel, D. L., & Heath, P. J. (2016). Men, masculinities, and help-seeking patterns. In S. R. Wester & J. Wong (Eds.), *APA handbook for the psychology of men and masculinities* (pp. 685–707). American Psychological Association.
- Volet, S., & Karabenick, S. (2006). Help seeking in cultural context. In S. Karabenick & R. Newman (Eds.), *Help seeking in academic settings: Goals, groups, and contexts* (pp. 117-150). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society*. Harvard University Press.
- Walker, C. A. (2015). Social Constructionism and Qualitative Research. *Journal of Theory Construction & Testing*, 19(2), 37-38.
- Ward, C. (2001). *The impact of international students on domestic students and host institutions*. Ministry of Education.
- Ward, C., & Masgoret, A. M. (2004). *The experience of international students in New Zealand: Report on the results of the national survey*. Ministry of Education.
- Wardle, E. (2007). Understanding ‘Transfer’ from FYC: Preliminary Results of a Longitudinal Study. *Writing Program Administration*, 31(1-2), 65-85.

- Wardle, E. (2009). 'Mutt genres' and the goal of FYC: Can we help students write the genres of the university? *College Composition and Communication*, 60, 765–789.
- Was, A. M., & Warneken, F. (2017). Proactive help-seeking: Preschoolers know when they need help, but do not always ask for it. *Cognitive Development*, 43, 91-105.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cogdev.2017.02.010>
- Webb, N. M., Nemer, K. M., Chizhik, A. W., & Sugrue, B. (1998). Equity issues in collaborative group assessment: Group composition and performance. *American Educational Research Journal*, 35(4), 607-651.
- Weinberg, D. (2014). *Contemporary Social Constructionism: Key Themes*. Temple University Press.
- Weiner, B. (2010). The development of an attribution-based theory motivation: A history of ideas. *Educational Psychologist*, 45(1), 28–36. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/00461520903433596>
- Weigle, S. C. (2002). *Assessing writing*. Cambridge University Press.
- Wentzel, K. R., & Brophy, J. E. (2014). *Motivating students to learn* (4th ed.). Routledge.
- Wesley, K. (2000). The ill effects of the five paragraph theme (teaching writing in the twenty-first century). *The English Journal*, 90(1), 57–60.
- Wette, R. (2010). Evaluating student learning in a university-level EAP unit on writing using sources. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 19(3), 158-177.

- Wette, R. (2017). Source text use by undergraduate post-novice L2 writers in disciplinary assignments: Progress and ongoing challenges. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 37, 46-58.
- Wette, R. (2019). Academic writing: Linking writers, readers, and text content. In G. Barkhuizen (Ed.), *Qualitative Research Topics in Language Teacher Education*. Taylor & Francis. https://books.google.co.nz/books?hl=en&lr=&id=-ZmfDwAAQBAJ&oi=fnd&pg=PT7&dq=Qualitative+Research+Topics+in+Language+Teacher+Education&ots=kUBaMwmOrg&sig=gQ3SuEMMM_vFFF6yvrZkWgJRQJQ&redir_esc=y#v=onepage&q=Qualitative%20Research%20Topics%20in%20Language%20Teacher%20Education&f=false
- Whannell, R., & Whannell, P. (2014). Identifying tertiary bridging students at risk of failure in the first semester of undergraduate study. *Australian Journal of Adult Learning*, 54(2), 101–120.
- Wilkins, S., Balakrishnan, M. S., & Huisman, J. (2011). Student choice in Higher Education: Motivations for choosing to study at an international branch campus. *Journal of Studies in International Education* 16(5), 413-433. Doi: 10.1177/1028315311429002
- Williams, P. A. H. (2005, February 03-04). Awareness invoking positive change: Reflections on lecturing practice in Computer and Information Science. *The Reflective Practitioner. Proceedings of the 14th Annual Teaching Learning Forum, Perth*. <http://lsn.curtin.edu.au/tlf/tlf2005/refereed/williams.html>
- Williams, J., & Takaku, S. (2011). Help seeking, self-efficacy, and writing performance among college students. *Journal of Writing Research*, 3(1), 1-18.

- Williams, T., & Williams, K. (2010). Self-efficacy and performance in mathematics: Reciprocal determinism in 33 nations. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 102, 453–466. Doi: 10.1037/a0017271
- Wilson, K. (2016). Critical reading, critical thinking: Delicate scaffolding in English for Academic Purposes (EAP). *Thinking Skills and Creativity*, 22, 256-265.
- Wilson, K., Collins, G., Couchman, J., & Li, L. (2011). Co-constructing academic literacy: Examining teacher-student discourse in a one-to-one consultation. *Journal of Academic Language and Learning*, 5(1), A139-A153.
- Wilson, P., & Fry, J. (2020). *Migration after Covid-19: New Zealand closed the border to prioritise the wellbeing of everyone here, and when we reopen it, we should have the same goal in mind*. NZIER Insight 2020-89. http://www.think-asia.org/bitstream/handle/11540/12214/nzier_insight_89_igration_after_covid_19.pdf?sequence=1
- Winder, R., Kathpalia, S. S., & Koo, S. L. (2016). Writing centre tutoring sessions: addressing students’ concerns. *Educational Studies*, 42(4), 323-339. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/03055698.2016.1193476>
- Wingate, U. (2006). Doing away with ‘study skills’. *Teaching in higher education*, 11(4), 457-469. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/13562510600874268>
- Wingate, U. (2012a). ‘Argument!’ Helping students understand what essay writing is about. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 11(2), 145 – 154.
- Wingate, U. (2012b). Using academic literacies and genre-based models for academic writing instruction: A ‘literacy’ journey. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 11(1), 26-37. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2011.11.006>

- Wingate, U. (2015). Academic literacy and student diversity. The case for inclusive practice. *Multilingual Matters*.
- Wingate, U. (2018). Academic literacy across the curriculum: Towards a collaborative instructional approach. *Language teaching*, 51(3), 349-364. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1017/S0261444816000264>
- Wingate, U., & Tribble, C. (2012). The best of both worlds? Towards an English for academic purposes/academic literacies writing pedagogy. *Studies in Higher Education*, 37(4), 481-495. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/03075079.2010.525630>
- Winkelmes, M. A., Bernacki, M., Butler, J., Zochowski, M., Golanics, J., & Weavil, K. H. (2016). A teaching intervention that increases underserved college students' success. *Peer Review*, 18(1/2), 31-36.
- Wlodkowski, R. J. (2008). *Enhancing adult motivation to learn: A comprehensive guide for teaching all adults* (3rd ed.). Jossey-Bass.
- Won, S., Hensley, L. C., & Wolters, C. A. (2019). Brief Research Report: Sense of Belonging and Academic Help Seeking as Self-Regulated Learning. *The journal of experimental education*, 1-13. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00220973.2019.1703095>
- Wood, J. L., Newman, C. B., & Harris III, F. R. A. N. K. (2015). Self-efficacy as a determinant of academic integration: An examination of first-year black males in the community college. *Western Journal of Black Studies*, 39(1), 3-17.
- Woodrow, L. (2006a). English in academic settings: A postgraduate course for students from non-English speaking backgrounds. In M. A. Snow & L. Kamhi-Stein (Eds.), *Developing a new course for adult learners* (pp. 197-217). TESOL Inc.

- Woodrow, L. J. (2006b). A model of adaptive language learning. *The Modern Language Journal*, 90, 297–319. <https://doi.org/http://www.jstor.org/stable/3876830>
- Woodward-Kron, R., & Jamieson, H. (2007). Tensions in the writing support consultation: negotiating meanings in unfamiliar territory. In C. Gitsakis (Ed.), *Language and languages: Global and local tensions* (pp. 40-61). Cambridge Scholars Publication.
- Wu, C. C. (2011). High graduate unemployment rate and Taiwanese undergraduate education. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 31(3), 303– 310. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedudev.2010.06.010>
- Wu, H. P., Garza, E., & Guzman, N. (2015). International student's challenge and adjustment to college. *Education Research International*, 2015, 1-9. Doi: [10.1155/2015/202753](https://doi.org/10.1155/2015/202753)
- Yang, R. (2003). Globalisation and higher education development: A critical analysis. *International review of education*, 49(3-4), 269–291. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/3445290>
- Yang, Y., & Badger, R. (2015). How IELTS preparation courses support students: IELTS and academic socialisation. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 39(4), 438-465. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/0309877X.2014.953463>
- Yaron, L. (2016). A practical guide to evidence-based writing across subject areas. *Education Week Teacher*. <https://www.edweek.org/tm/articles/2016/08/30/a-practical-guide-to-evidence-based-writing-across.html>
- Yeh, C. J., & Inose, M. (2003). International students' reported English fluency, social support satisfaction, and social connectedness as predictors of acculturative stress.

Counselling Psychology Quarterly, 2003, 15-28. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/0951507031000114058>

Yin, R. K. (1984). *Case study research: Design and methods* (1st ed.). Sage.

Yin, R. K. (1994). *Case study research: Design and methods*. Sage Publications.

Yin, R. K. (2002). *Case study research: Design and methods*. Sage Publications.

Yin, R. K. (2003). *Case study research*. (3rd ed.). Sage.

Yin, R. K. (2005). *Introducing the world of education: A case study reader*. Sage Publications.

Yin, R. K. (2006). Case study methods. In J. L. Green, G. Gamilli, & P. B. Elmore (Eds.), *Handbook of complementary methods in education research* (pp. 111-123). American Educational Research Association.

Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case study research: Design and methods* (4th ed.). Sage Publications.

Yin, R. K. (2012). *Applications of case study research*. Sage.

Yin, R. K. (2014). *Case study research: Design and methods* (5th ed.). Sage.

Yin, R. K. (2018). *Case study research and applications: design and methods*. Sage Publications.

Young, J. T. (2017). Confucianism and accents: Understanding the plight of the Asian international student in the U.S. *Journal of International Students*, 7(3), 433-448.
Doi: 10.5281/zenodo.570022

- Yucel, R., Bird, F.L., Young, J., & Blanksby, T. (2014). The road to self-assessment: Exemplar marking before peer review develops first-year students' capacity to judge the quality of a scientific report. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 39(8), 971–986. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.1080/02602938.2014.880400>
- Zvacek, S. M., de Fátima Chouzal, M., & Restivo, M. T. (2015, September 20-24). *Accuracy of self-assessment among graduate students in mechanical engineering* [Paper presentation]. Proceedings of the International Conference on Interactive Collaborative Learning (ICL), Florence, Italy.
<https://ieeexplore.ieee.org/abstract/document/7318192>
- Zhang, Y. L. (2016). International students in transition: Voices of Chinese doctoral students in a US research university, *Journal of international studies*, 6(1), 175-194.
- Zhang, Z., & Brunton, M. (2007). Differences in living and learning: Chinese international students in New Zealand. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 11(2), 124–140. Doi:10.1177/1028315306289834.
- Zhang, J., & Goodson, P. (2011). Predictors of international students' psychosocial adjustment to life in the United States: A systematic review. *International journal of intercultural relations*, 35(2), 139-162. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2010.11.011>
- Zheng, B., Yim, S., & Warschauer, M. (2018). Social media in the writing classroom and beyond. In J. I. Lontas (Ed.), *The TESOL Encyclopedia of English Language Teaching* (pp. 1-5). Wiley-Blackwell.
- Zhu, W. (2004). Writing in business courses: An analysis of assignment types, their characteristics, and required skills. *English for Specific purposes*, 23(2), 111-135.

- Zimmerman, B. J. (2000). Attaining self-regulation: A social cognitive perspective. In M. Boekaerts, P. R. Pintrich, & M. Zeidner (Eds.), *Handbook of self-regulation* (pp. 13–39). Academic Press.
- Zimmerman, B. J., & Bandura, A. (1994). Impact of Self-Regulatory Influences on Writing Course. *American Educational Research Journal*, 31(4), 845-862. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.aut.ac.nz/10.2307/1163397>

Appendices

Appendix A: Ethical Approval



AUTEC Secretariat
Auckland University of Technology
D-88, WU406 Level 4 WU Building City Campus
T: +64 9 921 9999 ext. 8316
E: ethics@aut.ac.nz
www.aut.ac.nz/researchethics

22 May 2018

Pat Strauss
Faculty of Culture and Society

Dear Pat

Ethics Application: **16/440 An investigation on the way in which international second language students apply their IELTS learning in their first year undergraduate writing practices**

At their meeting of 14 May 2018, the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC) received the report on your ethics application. AUTEC noted your report and asked me to thank you.

On behalf of AUTEC, I congratulate the researchers on the project and look forward to reading more about it in future reports.

When communicating with us about this application, we ask that you use the application number and study title to enable us to provide you with prompt service. Should you have any further enquiries regarding this matter, you are welcome to contact me by email at ethics@aut.ac.nz or by telephone on 921 9999 at extension 6038.

Yours sincerely



Kate O'Connor
Executive Manager
Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee

Cc: alyona_nc@hotmail.com; Darryl Hocking

Appendix B: Written advertisement

The logo for the Auckland University of Technology (AUT) is displayed in the top right corner. It features the letters 'AUT' in a large, white, sans-serif font against a dark grey rectangular background.

TE WĀNANGA ARONUI
O TĀMAKI MAKĀU RAU

Hello **first year students!**

- ❖ Are you a first year student?
- ❖ Are you an international student?
- ❖ Is your first language NOT English?
- ❖ Did you take an IELTS test to get into your current study?

If this is you, I invite you to take part in a research where you will be provided with an opportunity to voice your concerns related to first year undergraduate writing.

I am PhD student at the Auckland University of Technology researching whether IELTS learning assists international second language students in their first year undergraduate writing practices.

If you would also like to take part in face to face interviews, please contact the researcher.

Researcher: Alena Shannaq

Mobile: 021310177

Email: alyona_nc@hotmail.com

Project supervisors: Associate Professor Pat Strauss, pat.strauss@aut.ac.nz

Doctor Darryl Hocking, darryl.hocking@aut.ac.nz

Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 17/11/2016, Reference Number 16/440.

Appendix C: E-poster



TE WĀNANGA ARONUI
O TĀMAKI MAKAU RAU

Hello **first year students!**

- ❖ Are you a first year student?
- ❖ Are you an international student?
- ❖ Is your first language NOT English?
- ❖ Did you take an IELTS test to get into your current study?

If this is you, I invite you to take part in a research where you will be provided with an opportunity to voice your concerns related to first year undergraduate writing.

I am PhD student at the Auckland University of Technology researching whether IELTS learning assists international second language students in their first year undergraduate writing practices.

If you would also like to take part in face to face interviews, please contact the researcher.

Researcher: Alena Shannaq
Mobile: 021310177
Email: alyona_nc@hotmail.com

Project supervisors: Associate Professor Pat Strauss,
pat.strauss@aut.ac.nz
Doctor Darryl Hocking,
darryl.hocking@aut.ac.nz

Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 17/11/2016, Reference Number 16/440.

Appendix D: Indicative Interview Questions

Indicative Interview Questions

Part A – Personal background information

1. How old are you?
2. In which country did you receive your education?
3. What language did you mostly speak?
4. Did you take an IELTS preparatory course, or courses, before you sat an IELTS test?
5. How long were the course or courses in total?
6. How many years did you learn English before taking your IELTS preparatory course(s)? */How much English language learning did you have before you enrolled onto the IELTS course?*
7. Where did this English learning take place (name as many as applicable)?

Primary school

Secondary school

University

Private language school

Other (Specify) _____

8. What was your IELTS score (overall, and for each skills)
9. What area are you studying in (eg. Education, engineering, business)?
10. What stage of your study are you currently at?
11. Did you start your current undergraduate study at the beginning of the academic year (i.e. March)

Part B - Research questions

1. What have you learnt during your IELTS preparatory courses with regards to writing an essay?
2. What kind of IELTS skills, strategies and knowledge do you think will be/ are useful for your first year written assignments?
3. Do you think the skills you have learnt during IELTS preparatory courses will be/ are effective for your current written assignments
4. In what way?
5. Overall, do you think that the IELTS skills you learnt will be/ are useful for your current undergraduate writing?
6. What else do you think will be/ is useful for your current undergraduate academic writing assignments?
7. What requirements of your current writing practice were not taught in IELTS?

► Later meetings

1. What IELTS skills, strategies and knowledge did you apply in this assignment?
2. What skills, strategies and knowledge did you use in your current assignment that were not taught in IELTS?

Appendix E: Participant Information Sheet

Participant Information Sheet

The current Information Sheet is for case studies participants.

Date Information Sheet Produced:

03 November 2016

Project Title

An investigation of the way in which international second language students apply their IELTS learning in their first year undergraduate writing practices.

An Invitation

I am a PhD student at the Faculty of Culture and Society, School of Languages and Culture at Auckland University of Technology. I am interested in academic literacy and, specifically, whether IELTS learning assists international second language students in their first year undergraduate writing practices.

By taking part in this research, you will be provided with an opportunity and platform to talk about your concerns related to first year undergraduate writing. It might also raise awareness of what other students in a similar situation go through, when you interact online. You may find this helpful.

Participation in the current study is voluntary and whether you choose to participate or not will neither advantage nor disadvantage you.

As the result of this research I will gain a Doctoral degree and the findings of the study will be presented in national and international conferences, and journal articles.

What is the purpose of this research?

The primary purpose of the research is to find out more about the way that first year international second language students consciously apply their IELTS learning to their first year undergraduate writing, and how this application changes throughout their first year of study. This study is longitudinal and will examine the specific stages when students attempt to transfer their IELTS learning to their academic writing practices. The results from the study will be useful for teachers of IELTS, lecturers in university writing support programmes, and university admissions committees. IELTS stakeholders (e.g. developers, instructors, university admission staff) will be provided with details of the role played by IELTS in the first year writing practices of second language international students. Ultimately, it may offer IELTS developers and instructors information regarding possible changes to the current IELTS curricula.

How was I identified and why am I being invited to participate in this research?

You are an international student whose first language is not English. You have taken IELTS preparatory courses and passed the IELTS test with the results required by your current institution for your current study. You are a first year undergraduate student.

How do I agree to participate in this research?

You will be asked to sign a Consent Form prior to the beginning of the first interview. For your convenience the Consent Form has been emailed to you and you are welcome to study it and in case of any concerns contact the researcher directly using the details provided below.

Your participation in this research is voluntary (it is your choice) and whether or not you choose to participate will neither advantage nor disadvantage you. You are able to withdraw from the study at any time. If you choose to withdraw from the study, then you will be offered the choice between having any data that is identifiable as belonging to you removed or allowing it to continue to be used. However, once the data collection has been finalised, removal of your data may not be possible.

What will happen in this research?

You will be asked to take part in three face to face interviews during your first year undergraduate study. The dates and times for these interview sessions will be provided to you and

The places for the interviews will be advised closer to the date of the interview but will be within your university campus area.

By the first interview session you will be asked to provide the researcher with a copy of your course books which will contain course assignments requirements.

You will be asked to bring in a copy of your assignments with your tutors' written feedback, as soon as it becomes available to you. The researcher will keep a copy of your written graded works for analysis purposes.

You will be also asked to be post comments in an online blog, the link to which will be provided to you by the researcher. Blogging will require you to comment on your undergraduate writing experiences on a weekly basis. These comments will be visible to other bloggers. You will be asked to create a pseudonym profile to use during your participation in blogging so that you will not be identified by the other bloggers. However, the researcher will ask you to share your pseudonym with her for further data collection and analysis.

The data gathered from you will be used only for the purposes of the current study and will be available only to the researcher and her supervisors. Your identity will not be revealed.

What are the discomforts and risks?

You may feel uncomfortable sharing your struggles or failures throughout your first year undergraduate study, if there are any. However, you do not have to answer any questions you may find uncomfortable during face to face interviews.

Your written assignments with tutors' written feedback will bring no judgemental comments from the researcher. This information will remain confidential and will not be shared with anyone apart from my supervisors for analysis purposes.

How will these discomforts and risks be alleviated?

You do not need to answer questions that you may find uncomfortable, or you may terminate an interview or your participation in the research. Your confidentiality is of paramount importance, thus, every effort will be made to ensure that you will not be identified.

What are the benefits?

You will be provided with an opportunity and platform to voice your concerns related to first year undergraduate writing. You may gain insights into your undergraduate experiences, especially as far as your use of English is concerned. You will also become aware of what other students in similar situations are experiencing.

Research may help IELTS developers to instructors information regarding possible changes to the current IELTS curricula.

How will my privacy be protected?

Your names will not be used in the findings of this study. You will be assigned a code name. Any of your contact details will not be shared with anyone but only kept by the researcher for the purpose of arranging further interview sessions.

What are the costs of participating in this research?

The only cost involved is your time. The total time will be around 9 hours spread throughout the academic year (24 weeks). This will include three interviews of around 45 minutes and blogging of around 15 minutes a week.

What opportunity do I have to consider this invitation?

You will have up to two weeks from the time I contact you. Your participation is voluntary and whether you choose to participate or not will neither advantage nor disadvantage you. If at any

stage of the research you would like to seek further information, you are welcome to contact the researcher directly or her supervisors using the details provided below.

You are able to withdraw from the study at any time. If you choose to withdraw from the study, then you will be offered the choice between having any data that is identifiable as belonging to you removed or allowing it to continue to be used. However, once the findings have been produced, removal of your data may not be possible.

Transcripts from each interview session will be returned to you. You may edit them in any way you choose or remove them from the study.

The finding of the research will be provided on <http://www.aut.ac.nz/profiles/language-culture/associate-professor/dr-pat-strauss>, as well as in a form of a Doctoral thesis and other scientific publications.

Will I receive feedback on the results of this research?

The findings of this research will be uploaded on <http://www.aut.ac.nz/profiles/language-culture/associate-professor/dr-pat-strauss>. The results will also be available in a form of a Doctoral Thesis in the AUT library depository.

What do I do if I have concerns about this research?

Any concerns regarding the nature of this project should be notified in the first instance to the Project Supervisors, Pat Strauss, pat.strauss@aut.ac.nz, +64 9 921 9999 ext 6847, or Darryl Hocking, darryl.hocking@aut.ac.nz, +64 9 921 9999 ext 6802.

Concerns regarding the conduct of the research should be notified to the Executive Secretary of ATEC, Kate O'Connor, ethics@aut.ac.nz, 921 9999 ext 6038.

Whom do I contact for further information about this research?

Please keep this Information Sheet and a copy of the Consent Form for your future reference. You are also able to contact the research team as follows:

The researcher, Alena Shannaq, alyona_nc@hotmail.com, +64 21 310 177;

The Project Supervisor, Pat Strauss, pat.strauss@aut.ac.nz, +64 9 921 9999 ext 6847;

The co-supervisor Darryl Hocking, Darryl.hocking@aut.ac.nz, +64 9 921 9999 ext 6802.

Researcher Contact Details:

Alena Shannaq, alyona_nc@hotmail.com, +64 21 310 177.

Project Supervisor Contact Details:

The Project Supervisor, Pat Strauss, pat.strauss@aut.ac.nz, +64 9 921 9999 ext 6847;

The co-supervisor, Darryl Hocking, darryl.hocking@aut.ac.nz, +64 9 921 9999 ext 6802.

Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 17/11/2016, ATEC Reference number 16/440.

Appendix F: Consent Form

Consent Form

Project title: *An investigation of the way in which international second language students apply their IELTS learning in their first year undergraduate writing practices.*

Project Supervisors: *Pat Strauss, Darryl Hocking*

Researcher: *Alena Shannaq*

- ☐ I have read and understood the information provided about this research project in the Information Sheet dated 03 November 2016.
- ☐ I have had an opportunity to ask questions and to have them answered.
- ☐ I understand that notes will be taken during the interviews and that they will also be audio-taped and transcribed.
- ☐ I understand that taking part in this study is voluntary (my choice) and that I may withdraw from the study at any time without being disadvantaged in any way.
- ☐ I understand that if I withdraw from the study then I will be offered the choice between having any data that is identifiable as belonging to me removed or allowing it to continue to be used. However, once the findings have been produced, removal of my data may not be possible.
- ☐ I agree to take part in this research.
- ☐ I wish to receive a summary of the research findings (please tick one): Yes ☐ No ☐

Participant's signature:

Participant's name:

Participant's Contact Details (if appropriate):

.....
.....
.....
.....

Date:

Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on *type the date on which the final approval was granted* AUTEK Reference number *type the AUTEK reference number*

Note: The Participant should retain a copy of this form.