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The Enactment of Academic Language Policy in the International University: A Mixed-Methods Investigation

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree in Education

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Abstract

The existing literature on international education in relation to language policy has suggested that internationalizing higher education (HE) does not ensure interculturality (Bash, 2009; Durant & Shepherd, 2009; Jenkins, 2014; Seidlhofer, 2011); the potential relationship between the internationalization of HE and language remains unclear (Jenkins, 2014; Meyer, Gekeler, Manger, & Urank, 2012; Saarinen, 2012). This study responds to the timely question regarding what kind of language policy can meet the needs of international students in an increasingly globalized academic culture (Jenkins, 2014) by adding a Canadian voice to the debate and featuring the changing sociolinguistic realities in internationalized Canadian HE.

This study aims to investigate the language policy for non-native English speaking (NNES) international students, as enacted at three interrelated but not necessarily congruent levels: language management, language beliefs, and language practices, with a particular focus on English for Academic Purposes (EAP) programs as an integral part of the 'international' university. Employing a mixed-methods approach, I collected data from document analysis, questionnaires, interviews, and classroom observations in three EAP programs in Canada. I draw on the theoretical framework of language policy (Spolsky, 2004, 2009, 2012/2018), and complementary concepts of mechanism (Shohamy, 2006) and plurilingual and pluricultural competence (Coste, Moore, & Zarate, 2009) to interpret and analyze the data.

Findings of this study shed light on the two-fold characteristics of the tripartite language policy in the EAP domain. While there is increasing awareness of the homogenizing

influence of internationalization as embodied in the monolingual orientation in language policy, international students' languages and cultural differences are marginalized in the current educational structures (e.g., instruction, curriculum, and assessment) of EAP. The findings suggest that plurilingualism may serve as an alternative approach to reshaping the educational structures of EAP in alignment with internationalization. The results contribute to language policymaking by deepening current understanding of how language policies and practices can, or are intended to, respond to the call for a greater diversification of languages, nationally and internationally.

Keywords

English for Academic Purposes (EAP), International Students, Internationalization, Language Policy, Linguistic Diversity, Plurilingualism

Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my beloved father Chen Zhenchun (陈镇春) and mother Lin Shaomin (林少敏) whose love, integrity, and blessings have always nurtured my growth and will continue to inspire me in my spiritual, educational, and academic pursuits.

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List of Key Acronyms and Abbreviations

BICS: Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills

CALP: Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency

CLA: Critical Language Awareness

CUP: Common Underlying Proficiency

EAP: English for Academic Purposes

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

EMI: English as the Medium of Instruction

ESL: English as a Second Language

HE: Higher Education

IELTS: International English Language Testing Service

L1: First Language or Mother Tongue

L2: Second Language or Additional Language

MMR: Mixed Methods Research

NES: Native English Speaking

NNES: Non-Native English Speaking

PIC: Plurilingual and Intercultural Competence

SUP: Separate Underlying Proficiency

TOEFL: Test of English as a Foreign Language

Chapter 1

1 Introduction

This dissertation presents a doctoral research study which responds to the timely question of the role of language(s) in the process of internationalization of higher education (HE) in multilingual and multicultural Canada. This study focuses on the enactment and enforcement of academic language policy of the international university as epitomized in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) programs provided to serve the language needs of international students. In this chapter, first and foremost, I acknowledge my personal positioning (see Section 1.1) in this study (as a Chinese international student who has studied in cross-cultural settings as well as an EAP instructor who has worked with multilingual university students for years). Then I introduce the multilayered context of this study (see Section 1.2), justify the rationale (see Section 1.3), and describe research questions (see Section 1.4), followed by a list of working definitions of frequently used terms (see Section 1.5). I end this chapter with an overview of the dissertation (see Section 1.6).

1.1 Coming to the Research

This doctoral research project was initiated by my interest in exploring the role of language(s) in the process of internationalization of HE grounded in multiple stakeholders' perceptions of language policies in the 'international' university. I have a personal investment in this project because of my lived experience as a Chinese

international student in the UK (for my master's degree program) and in Canada (for my doctorate program), as well as my extensive experience of teaching English as a Foreign or Second Language (EFL/ESL) in HE, explained in the following.

I began to learn English as a school subject from grade six and pursued my bachelor's degree in China with the specialization in EFL education. The way English was taught and assessed in my grade school years followed the traditional pattern of teaching the four skills (i.e., listening, speaking, reading, and writing) in their own compartments usually by the same teacher. However, during my bachelor's degree program, most content teaching in various courses (e.g., educational philosophy, educational methodology, applied linguistics) was delivered in English as the medium of instruction (EMI). In other words, English was no longer just a subject but became an important language through which I learned subject content in my discipline. Nevertheless, since all my classmates and most of my instructors were Chinese, we often shuttled or switched between Mandarin and English in our interactions for different purposes in a classroom where both instructors and students were expected to adhere to the "English only" communicative mode. That said, code switching was less frequent (but still common) in the classrooms where the focus was placed on speaking and academic writing and the instructors were more likely from native English-speaking (NES) backgrounds, which symbolized the general belief and the institution's upholding of the "nativeness" yardstick as the standard and the ultimate goal of English language education.

After my four-year undergraduate program, I decided to pursue a master's degree in Education in an English-speaking country (i.e., England), partly influenced by the "nativeness" myth. All content courses were instructed in English, and generally

acknowledged cross-cultural differences as significant sources of insights. In retrospect, however, in my attempts to include international and comparative perspectives in my academic work, I tended to perceive cultures in a simplistic dichotomy: 'Eastern' versus 'Western,' as if cultures were determinate, bounded, and homogeneous - a culturally essentialist ideology which I called into question in my later educational practice and academic pursuits.

I came to Canada to pursue a doctoral degree after eight years of teaching EFL in a Chinese university. Situated in an unfamiliar academic community, I have made endless efforts to incorporate my cultural and linguistic knowledge into my writing while learning about the local academic discourses in the faculty (e.g., how to approach a professor, how to present research in conferences, requirements/norms for writing in the field of language education, etc.). At the same time, scholarly discussions with other researchers in academia have challenged my previous understanding of culture and facilitated my ongoing reconstruction of my cultural identities and interculturality.

Lastly, my positioning in this study as both an insider, mainly a non-native English-speaking (NNES) international student myself; and an outsider, a researcher of EAP, should be acknowledged with a sense of critical reflexivity. On the one hand, my status as a Chinese international student and my experience of teaching Chinese students EFL/ESL in HE for eight years have contributed to the shaping of my research topic. This insider position has significantly helped me understand various challenges Chinese international students face in their second language (L2) academic socialization. On the other hand, my perspective as a researcher might have blinded me to some complexity and challenges associated with teaching and learning in the participating programs. That

said, my previous involvement in the curriculum development of an EAP program in a Canadian institution, teaching EAP in a Canadian college, and friendship with Chinese international students in different settings (e.g., church, community, campus) helped me gain reflective insights of their lived experiences in EAP. Taken together, although my research is influenced by who I am as a researcher therefore not without its biases, I made every effort to remain objective by acknowledging my personal positioning in the study and by using multiple methods to triangulate my data.

1.2 Background/Context

Globalization, facilitated by new technologies and manifesting itself differently in the context of changing time and space (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010), has challenged the traditional definition of schools, work, and public life as well as our perceptions of reality, locality, and community (Darley, 2000; Kramsch, 2000; Rizvi, 2009; Warschauer, 2004). As a response to globalization, internationalization has gained momentum in Canada, and the number of international students studying in Canada has increased rapidly in the recent decade. In fact, almost all Canadian post-secondary institutions have identified internationalization as a policy priority (Beck, 2008; Jones, 2009). This research study is situated in the complex and multilayered context of internationalization of Canadian HE, with multilingualism and multiculturalism on the rise both within and beyond the university communities, as described below.

According to the Canadian Bureau of International Education (CBIE) (2016), Canada ranks as the world's 7th most popular destination behind the United States, the United Kingdom, France, China, Australia, and Germany. In 2015, a total number of 353,570

international students were enrolled in the Canadian educational system with 65% in the sector of HE, and the province of Ontario hosts the largest portion of international students (43.6%). China has become the top source country for inbound students by taking up 33.55% of the whole international student population, followed by India (13.74%), France (5.68%), South Korea (5.57%), United States (3.45%), and others. In fact, as the most popular destination for international students across Canada, Ontarian HE has experienced a changing sociolinguistic situation partly due to a rapidly increasing NNES student body. For the institutions (all located in Ontario) within my study, international students have taken up to approximately 10% of the overall undergraduate student body, and over 20% of the total graduate student body, contributing to an increased linguistic and cultural diversity on campus. While international student enrollment radically increased by 92% between 2008 ($N = 184,170$) and 2015 ($N = 353,570$) (CBIE, 2016), the Canadian government aims to attract up to 450,000 international students by 2022 (Global Affairs Canada, 2014). To achieve this goal, according to the survey conducted by the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada (AUCC) (2014), the majority (88%) of Canadian universities has, not surprisingly, identified China as the top priority source country for inbound students in their internationalization plans due to the sustaining prominence of the Chinese international students' presence in Ontarian HE.

Since Ontarian HE predominantly relies on English as the language of instruction for most disciplinary programs, how to provide appropriate language support for non-native English speaking (NNES) students is of pivotal importance for their success in predominantly English-speaking academia. Like most Anglophone universities

worldwide, Ontarian HE admissions require evidence of English language proficiency for NNES applicants who must submit proof of English language proficiency in addition to academic qualifications in their application package. The common standardized English language proficiency tests which are acceptable to most Canadian undergraduate admission offices include: (a) the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), whether Internet based (iBT) or paper-based (PBT) and the Test of Written English (TWE), (b) the International English Language Testing Service Academic (IELTS Academic), (c) the Pearson Test of English Academic (PTE Academic), (d) the Michigan English Language Assessment Battery (MELAB), (e) the Canadian Academic English Language Assessment (CAEL), and (f) CanTEST offered by the University of Ottawa.

Among these six categories, IELTS Academic (referred to as IELTS hereafter) is the most frequently taken by international students, and the cut-off score for most disciplines or programs is 6.5 for university entry. Alternatively, however, NNES students may choose to enroll in an EAP pathway¹ or bridging² program hosted or recognized by the university to which they apply, and the successful completion of the EAP program would qualify the students for the language requirements. Demographically, the EAP programs host students from diverse backgrounds, but Chinese students, being the largest group of international students nationwide, usually are the majority of the whole student body in

¹ Pathway programs are typically designed for NNES international students who are offered a conditional admission in an undergraduate program in an English-medium university yet do not meet the minimum English language requirement. Some programs provide additional content courses (e.g., psychology) to familiarize students with lecture-style teaching and learning, but these courses do not bear credits.

² Bridging programs are similar to pathway programs with the primary goal of preparing NNES students' language skills for academic studies, but bridging programs offer some credit subject courses students take concurrently. Students who successfully complete the bridging program will get a head start (with a few already earned credits) when officially embarking on their university study.

these programs, especially in Ontarian HE. Therefore, how to support international students language-wise in general, and the critical cohort of Chinese students in EAP, in particular, becomes a vital question for a sustainable internationalization of HE.

However, understanding plurilingual students' language needs in EAP settings in current times of globalization and internationalization involves not only the immediate programmatic (EAP) and institutional (HE) context but also the broader societal context to which the programs and universities are intrinsically connected in covert or overt ways. Two well-known fundamental characteristics of Canadian society that relate to this study are multilingualism and multiculturalism.

According to Statistics Canada (2012), the sociolinguistic situation of Canada features linguistic duality (official languages) and linguistic diversity (non-official languages). While linguistic duality refers to the two official languages (English and French), linguistic diversity can be loosely described as multilingualism and often used to refer to the societal phenomenon, theorization, and perception, and/or policy statements regarding the multiplicity of languages (more than 200 languages) used as a home language or mother tongue (hereafter referred to as L1). Based on the results of Census 2011, 20% of Canada's population speaks a non-official language (i.e., a language other than English or French) at home in general, and the percentage rises to 80% in immigrant-populated metropolitan areas (e.g., Toronto, Montreal, Vancouver). Among the speakers of non-official languages in Toronto, for example, about one-third of them speak one of the following non-official languages: Chinese languages (15.8%, inclusive of Mandarin, Cantonese, and unspecified other Chinese languages), Punjabi (8.0%), Urdu (5.9%), and

Tamil (5.7%). In other words, Chinese languages have become the most common among non-official language speakers in the Canadian society.

At the same time, due to the intertwined relationship between language and culture, multiculturalism is correspondingly considered a core characteristic of Canadian society and interpreted as a sociological fact of Canadian life, a public policy to manage cultural diversity, and a relatively coherent set of ideologies pertaining to celebrating cultural diversity (Dewing, 2013). As a public policy at the federal level, in particular, the Multiculturalism Policy was introduced in 1971 to recognize “the contribution of non-Aboriginal, non-French and non-English ethnic groups to the cultural enrichment of Canada” (Dewing, 2013, p. 3). This policy has gone through a lengthy process of institutionalization since its birth, exemplified by the recognition of multicultural heritage in the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms in 1982 and the adoption of the Canadian Multiculturalism Act in 1988.

In addition, aligned with the linguistic diversity (200 languages) as suggested above, Canadian society now consists of more than 200 different ethnic origins as indicated in the 2011 National Household Survey, with 20.6% of the population born outside Canada. Furthermore, the main source countries has changed from European countries (e.g., the British Isles, Russia, Germany, Italy) to Asia and other parts of the world since the 1960s when major amendments occurred to Canada’s immigration legislation and regulations, exhibiting a trend of increasing diversity. By 2011, China and India had become the most frequently reported country of birth for foreign-born Canadians (Statistics Canada, 2012).

Given the ongoing immigration trend and the fundamental value of multilingualism and multiculturalism to Canadian society, it is reasonable to anticipate that issues related to multilingualism and multiculturalism will gain even greater significance in the years to come. This is especially the case at the intersection of immigration and internationalization of Canadian HE. Canadian immigration policies have been updated to attract and accommodate international students' potential stay in Canada after graduation due to the adjusted perception of international students as a critical group of potential ideal immigrants who can fuel the skilled workforce to contribute to Canada's economic growth and prosperity on the global stage.

To identify some specific examples, CBIE (2016) illustrates the following six developments in immigration with respect to internationalization, i.e., CBIE's International Students and Immigration Education Program, the repeal of changes to the Immigration Act, the impact of Express Entry, and the Post-Graduation Work Permit program on international students, and the provision of settlement services for international students after their graduation (p. 6). For example, the Post-Graduation Work Permit program allows international students to work for up to three years after graduation, which is advertised as a route to permanent residency. Likewise, the Express Entry Program, the Provincial Nominee Program, and the Federal Skilled Trades Class also target international students who recently graduated in Canada, speak at least one of the official languages, have certain required skilled work experience, are familiar with the Canadian society, and can take part in the Canadian economy (Government of Canada, 2017).

Further, as the province that hosts the largest population of international students, Ontario explicitly stresses the importance of recognizing international students' potential contribution to meeting Ontario's need for a skilled workforce, among other highlights in its postsecondary international education strategy (Ministry of Training, Colleges and Universities, 2016). By decreasing barriers to international students' immigration, these new developments serve a dual objective: (a) providing incentives for international students to choose Canada as an ideal destination for their education prior to their arrival, and (b) fueling the domestic economy with a skilled workforce after their graduation, and eventually, integrating them into the Canadian society which proclaims multilingualism and multiculturalism.

As shown above, I have mapped out the multilayered context of my research study, ranging from programmatic (EAP) and institutional (Ontarian HE) language policies to broader provincial/national (government) immigration policies in relation to internationalization and societal sociolinguistic situations of multilingualism and multiculturalism. I now turn to the rationale for my research problem in the following section by introducing the up-to-date literature in the field, identifying the gap in the research literature, and articulating the research questions under scrutiny.

1.3 Rationale

Over the last decade, internationalization-oriented strategies and developments hold a consensus on the importance of incorporating an international or intercultural dimension into the whole system of HE (Knight, 2004; Maringe & Foskett, 2010). AUCC (2014) suggests that curriculum, teaching, and learning are the central goals for many

universities and colleges across Canada. However, the existing literature in international and intercultural education in relation to language policy has made the case that internationalizing HE does not necessarily ensure interculturality, given the prevailing orientation towards a homogenizing approach to academic English, especially in Anglophone countries (Bash, 2009; Durant & Shepherd, 2009; Jenkins, 2014; Seidlhofer, 2011). As a result, an increasing number of researchers have argued that the role of language(s) must be examined critically and academic English policies need to be reformed or improved so as to better reflect sociolinguistic realities on the internationalized campus (Jenkins, 2014; Montgomery, 2010; Murray, 2016; Trahar, 2011; Vila & Bretxa, 2015).

Unfortunately, the potential relationship between the internationalization of HE and language has remained unclear (Jenkins, 2014; Meyer, Gekeler, Manger, & Urank, 2012; Saarinen, 2012) and existing research literature has not sufficiently explored the perspectives, practices, and experiences of the participants involved in the process of internationalization (Beck, 2012). Besides, few studies have examined how institutional language policies in their (mis)alignment with the ethos and agenda of internationalization have been understood, enacted, and negotiated by the multiple stakeholders in academic communities. Arguably, there exists “a mismatch between the *monolingual* [emphasis added] ethos and the ideology of English-medium tertiary education and the needs and identities of *multilingual* [emphasis added] students” (Preece & Martin, 2010, p. 3). This contradiction is likely to be captured in EAP programs (my research sites) where language becomes the focus of everyday discourses in and out of the classroom. Therefore, how multiple stakeholders (educators and students) in these

programs identify and address academic language needs and identities of international students in relation to EAP programs' enactment of institutional language policy, as well as their potential (mis)alignment with internationalization, becomes a timely question for scholarship.

Concerning the language support provided to plurilingual students, a growing body of research has highlighted the complexity of language socialization and power negotiation in multilingual classrooms and academic communities (e.g., Belcher & Lukkarila, 2011; Benesch, 2009; Canagarajah, 2004; Duff, 2003; Harklau, 2011; Leki, 2001, 2007; Marshall & Moore, 2013; Morita, 2004; Norton & McKinney, 2011). In addition, abundant studies have investigated the needs of multilingual students (e.g., Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Hyland, 2006; Long, 2005; Mo, 2005; Richards, 2001; Shing & Sim, 2011; West, 1994), and the ways in which they negotiate L2 academic discourses in academic communities as intercultural contact zones (e.g., Canagarajah, 2002; Cheng & Fox, 2008; Fox, Cheng, Berman, Song, & Myles, 2006; Fox, Cheng, & Zumbo, 2014; Ha & Baurain, 2011; Singh & Doherty, 2009).

However, the majority of scholarship has focused on micro-level language practice in the classroom without a systematic analysis of ties between practice, ideology, and management; there is scant literature that accounts for the associations between language ideology and perceptions of language policy, especially from mixed or quantitative perspectives. Most importantly, plurilingualism, as an integral component of language policy, has not been sufficiently discussed either. After all, as a complementary concept for language policy, plurilingualism has been extensively researched in the European context during the past decades (e.g., Castellotti & Moore, 2002) but has only been

gaining interest in L2 education in North America in recent years. My study addresses this research gap by conducting a relatively systematic analysis of academic English language policy with a particular focus on plurilingualism and draws on Chinese international students in EAP as a case in point.

In more concrete terms, this research study draws on the theoretical framework of language policy (Spolsky, 2004, 2009, 2012), along with complementary concepts of mechanism (Shohamy, 2006), plurilingual and plurilingual/intercultural competence (PIC) (Coste, Moore, & Zarate, 2009), and language interdependence hypothesis (Cummins, 2005a, 2007). On one hand, the overarching framework of language policy, along with the notion of mechanism, guides my overall investigation of participants' lived experience of language policy at three interrelated but not necessarily congruent levels: language practice (i.e., what people actually do with language), language beliefs (i.e., what people perceive as appropriate or legitimate language use), and language management (i.e., what specific efforts people make to modify or influence language practice); on the other hand, PIC and language interdependence hypothesis, significantly facilitate analyses pertaining to the nature of language teaching and learning as well as the relationships between L1 and L2.

Employing a mixed-methods approach, I collected data from document analysis, questionnaires, interviews, and classroom observations in three post-secondary EAP programs in Ontario. By gaining corroborating evidence from multiple sources, the findings of this research will contribute to the interdisciplinary knowledge base of language policy and second language education by deepening current understanding of how language policies and practices can, or are intended to, respond to the call for a

greater diversification of languages, nationally and internationally.

1.4 Research Questions

My research questions address the three components of language policy respectively as follows:

- A. *What* are the prevailing language *management* statements in the international university?
 - a. What are the English language proficiency requirements for admissions and assessment as declared on university websites?
 - b. What are the language-related areas of focus, if any, as articulated in university strategic or international plans?
 - c. What are the language expectations in EAP as reflected in its brochures and curriculum?
- B. *Why* do multiple stakeholders perceive the policy statements the way they do in terms of language *ideology*?
 - a. What is the general trend of language beliefs among the educators and Chinese students in EAP?
 - b. Are the educators' and students' language beliefs associated with their perceptions of academic English policies? If so, why are they associated, and what is the extent of their association?
- C. *How* are the policy management statements *practiced* by educators and students?
 - a. Do international students do live up to the language expectations (e.g., using standard academic English, conforming to writing norms) of the international

university? If so, to what extent do they do so, and how?

- b. Are international students' L1 languages and cultures are included/excluded in their learning of academic English as well as disciplinary content, inside and outside the classroom? If so, to what extent?

1.5 Definitions

The working definitions of high-frequency terms in this thesis are presented in alphabetic order below.

Code switching: referring to “the alternating use of two languages in the same stretch of discourse by a bilingual speaker” (Bullock & Toribio, 2009, p. xii). There are usually three types of code switching: “situational code switching” (Gumperz, 1971), “code crossing” (Gumperz, 1971), and “translanguaging” (Baker, 2011).

Domestic students: serving as a simplified indicator of local students at the host institutions. The word “domestic” is not to suggest immigration status (a small number of international students in EAP have permanent residency in Canada and pay tuition fees at the domestic rate).

EAP educators: serving as an umbrella term used to refer to both EAP instructors and EAP administrators since the administrators interviewed have rich experience in EAP teaching too.

Internationalization: referring to “the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions, or delivery of higher education” (Knight, 2008, p. 2).

International students: referring to NNES international Chinese students attending the EAP programs at the time the questionnaire was administered. They typically held a study permit, but there were exceptional cases where students were permanent residents of Canada. Regardless of their immigration status, the students enrolled in EAP programs of which the successful completion is a requirement before the start of their undergraduate degree program.

Language ideology (or language beliefs): referring to “the beliefs about language and language use” (Spolsky, 2004, p. 5). This thesis follows Spolsky’s interchangeable use of language ideology and language beliefs.

Language policy: referring to “all the language practices, beliefs and management decisions of a community or polity” (Spolsky, 2004, p. 9).

Language practices: referring to “the habitual pattern[s] of selecting among the varieties that make up its linguistic repertoire” (Spolsky, 2004, p. 5).

Language Management: referring to “any specific efforts to modify or influence ... [language] practice[s]” (Spolsky, 2004, p. 5).

Multilingualism: referring to “the knowledge of a number of languages or the co-existence of different languages in a given *society* [Emphasis added]” (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 4).

Plurilingualism: referring to “the study of individuals’ repertoires and agency in several languages, in different contexts, in which the individual is the locus and actor of contact; accordingly, a person’s languages and cultures interrelate and change over time, depending on individual biographies, social trajectories, and life paths” (Marshall &

Moore, 2016, p. 1). As opposed to multilingualism, the term plurilingualism emphasizes “the distinct aspects of *individual* [Emphasis added] repertoires and agency in several languages” (Marshall & Moore, 2013, p. 474).

Speech community (or domain): referring to a communication network shared by its members who hold a consensus on the appropriateness of the use of the multiple languages or language varieties used in that community (Spolsky, 2009).

Translanguaging: referring to “the process of making meaning, shaping experiences, understandings and knowledge through the use of two languages ... in an integrated and coherent way” (Baker, 2011, p. 288). It is regarded as one type of code switching, but singled out for the paradigmatic shift it represents.

1.6 Overview of the Dissertation

This dissertation is divided into seven chapters. Following Chapter 1 where I shared my positioning in this study as well as contextualized and justified my research study, Chapter 2 presents an integrated theoretical framework that is composed of selected theories appropriate for investigating and understanding the complexities of language policy in the context of HE in general and EAP programs in particular. In Chapter 3, I review the literature that informs and supports me in this study. In Chapter 4, I reflect upon my methodology and describe the multiple methods/techniques used in data collection. The findings are presented in Chapter 5 and are discussed in relation to previous research in Chapter 6. Lastly, in Chapter 7, I summarize the key findings, consider the significance and the limitations of this research study, and suggest future research directions.

Chapter 2

2 Theoretical Framework

The overarching theoretical framework that guides my study is Spolsky's (2004, 2009, 2012) language policy theory. I also integrate Shohamy's (2006) notion of mechanism and Cummins' (2001, 2009) theorization on the educational structures and educators' roles into my framework to examine the enactment of language policy in different aspects of academic English teaching and learning within the university domain. Additionally, I draw on the sociolinguistic notion of plurilingual and pluricultural/intercultural competence (Coste et al., 2009) and the language interdependence hypothesis (Cummins, 2005a, 2007) as complementary tools to facilitate the probing of the competence and agency of the plurilingual social actor. These constructs also help me analyze the relationship between language ideology and practice.

2.1 Theory of Language Policy

Language policy is essentially about the choices made by members who are situated in the social speech community(ies) or the domain(s) they belong to (Spolsky, 2009). It can be defined in tripartite terms as "all the language practices, beliefs and management decisions of a community or polity" (Spolsky, 2004, p. 9). Since the three components are independently describable yet interrelated in nature, a study of language policy on but one or two components is incomplete and will result in biased views.

Spolsky (2004) builds on Fishman's (1972) notion of domain to account for the interactions between macro-sociolinguistic factors and micro-sociolinguistic realizations. As Fishman, Cooper, and Ma (1971) suggest, language choice (the very core of language policy) is best studied in the context of sociolinguistic domains, distinguished by the location, participants, and topic in any given society. In other words, while the participants in a domain are defined by their societal roles and relationships to that community (e.g., teachers and students), the location (or the name of the domain) connects social roles to a specific physical place where members select the topics (what is appropriate to talk about) and decide the communicative function for each topic. The location-participant-topic approach helps account for code switching behaviors when people turn from one topic (e.g., discussing an academic topic) to another (e.g., social events). In my study, the domain notion helps me analyze the interactions among government, institution, and EAP programs (see Figure 1).

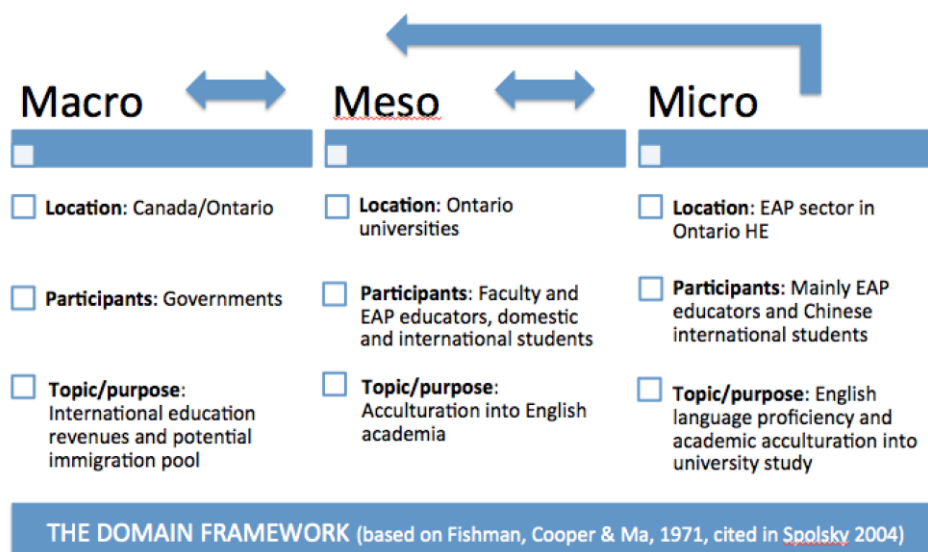


Figure 1: The Interactions between Levels of Context

Due to the existence of a large number of contextual factors or variables, both linguistic and non-linguistic (e.g., economic, political, cultural, demographic, social, religious, and psychological), within and across different domains, no simple prediction model is available (Spolsky, 2004). That said, Spolsky (2004) contends that “the sociolinguistic situation, the attitude to it, and the nature of the political organization” (p. 15) are the major factors that are crucial to our understanding of the complexity of language policy in a specific domain. Essentially, each domain has its own policy and each member in the domain determines his or her own understanding of what is appropriate to the domain in making language choices (Spolsky, 2009). For the school domain, the most crucial decision is to select which language to be the medium of instruction (Spolsky, 2004).

In my study, what this means for the EAP domain in Ontarian HE (primarily Anglophone universities) is not so much about which language to be selected as the medium of instruction (English is the obvious answer for most cases) but whether and to what extent instructors should tolerate, accept, or even encourage students to strategically draw on their plurilingual and pluricultural resources in their learning, both linguistically and cognitively. It is also necessary to consider the sociolinguistic situation in and outside the EAP classroom, people’s attitude to it, and the nature of the EAP programs. Assuming the EAP sector being an indispensable part of the international university, addressing these questions is particularly beneficial to universities’ internationalization process that strives to recruit and accommodate more international students and claims to promote global competence, interculturality, and sometimes, acquisition of additional languages among the members of the university community.

2.1.1 Language Practices

Language practices are the first component in Spolsky's (2004, 2009, 2012) model of language policy. They refer to "the habitual pattern[s] of selecting among the varieties that make up its linguistic repertoire" (Spolsky, 2004, p. 5) or "the sum of the sound, word and grammatical choices that an individual speaker makes, sometimes consciously and sometimes less consciously, that makes up the conventional unmarked pattern[s] of a variety of a language" (Spolsky, 2004, p. 9). Language practices encompass sounds, words, and grammar, as well as different norms and conventions (e.g., the levels of formality of speech) established and institutionalized in discourse communities.

Therefore, inquiry into language practices should consider what language(s) or language variety(ies) people use for different communicative functions, what variants they use with different interlocutors, and what rules are agreed upon "for speech and silence, for dealing with common topics, for expressing or concealing identity" (Spolsky, 2012, p. 5). In addition, Spolsky (2004, 2012) argues that language practices should be considered the 'real' language policy in the community due to their creating of the linguistic context and focus on the actual language behaviors/choices of language users.

2.1.2 Language Beliefs

According to Spolsky (2004), language beliefs - "a general set of beliefs about appropriate language practices" (p. 14) shared by members of a domain - form the ideological basis for language management that in turn intends to confirm or contradict the beliefs underlying the community's language practices. Simply put, language beliefs deal with the perceived appropriateness of language choice made by members in a

particular domain. Generally speaking, schools are “conservative institutions expected to pass on established traditional values” (Spolsky, 2009, p. 91), and are thus inherently resistant to any efforts towards pluralism (Coste et al., 2009). When the resistance to pluralism in ideology is translated into educational practice, a linguistic reality that does not conform to the dominant language policy or academic conventions may not be given credit or appropriately accommodated. Besides, institutional language policy reflects the language beliefs of those who are in control in school and may be driven by the policy of the government (Spolsky, 2009). Although Canada does not have a typical centralized educational system, the language policy in Canadian universities can still be influenced by the country’s bilingualism policy, arguably featuring a monolingual ideology which views bilinguals as the sum of two monolinguals yet without recognizing the complex and dynamic interactions between languages (Grosjean, 2010; Moore & Gajo, 2009; Heller, 2007a).

However, given the extreme linguistic complexity in current contexts of globalization and migration (e.g., Skutnabb-Kangas, Phillipson, Panda, & Mohanty, 2009), traditional binary models can no longer account for the multiplicity and hybridity in the language practices among plurilingual individuals. In this climate, the construct of plurilingualism, as an alternative approach to language policy, has gained increasing prominence in L2 education in North America in recent years, especially in transnational learning communities where linguistic heterogeneity is deemed as the ‘norm’ (Byrd Clark, Haque, & Lamoureux, 2012). It challenges the monolingual ideology permeated in many English-only classrooms, and problematizes the native/non-native speaker dichotomy, especially in terms of its presumption that non-native speakers desire to be native

speakers, an unrealistic goal in the first place (Corbett, 2010). Instead, the construct of plurilingualism values the *full* linguistic repertoires of teachers and students (Taylor & Snoddon, 2013) and aspires to incorporate this vision into pedagogical practices. In fact, an emerging body of research (e.g., Baker, 2012; Lindberg, 2003) has even advocated for PIC to be the goal of L2 education which can better prepare students to participate and succeed in an increasingly heterogeneous speech communities.

2.1.3 Language Management

Language management refers to “the formulation and proclamation of an explicit plan or policy, usually but not necessarily written in a formal document, about language use” (Spolsky, 2004, p. 11). It reflects conscious and explicit efforts made by members of a speech community, referred to as *language managers* who have or claim authority over other members in the domain to intervene, modify, and manipulate the language situation (both named languages/varieties and parts of language) (Spolsky, 2009). In other words, language management presupposes a manager who might be in a legislative or authoritative position at various levels such as a national legislature, a provincial government, an institution, or simply a teacher in the classroom. It should also be noted that a person could act as his or her own language manager by conducting “simple management” (Spolsky, 2009, p. 11). That is to say, a person can attempt to self-correct or self-modify his or her own language behavior, including “self correction in speech, or repetition or completing a sentence after a pause, or code switching to work around an unknown word or phrase” (p. 13), which may be attributed to language proficiency levels, sociocultural, or affective factors.

Although simple management can account for the individual's implicit awareness of his or her inappropriateness or inadequacy of language behavior and subsequent efforts of self-correction, it is insufficient to account for the negotiation strategies (by no means 'simple') employed by plurilingual individuals in their appropriation of L2 for specific purposes. For instance, a plurilingual writer may intentionally mix codes in order to challenge the readers to step out of their comfort zone, or flag his/her heritage or identity (Canagarajah, 2013a). Based on this reason, the notion of "plurilingual social actor" seems to be a more accurate description of the plurilingual speaker's heterogeneous repertoire made up of multiple languages and forms of knowledge, and reflection of the social complexities of linguistic plurality (Coste & Simon, 2009; Moore & Gajo, 2009).

Together, the three components of language policy serve as a comprehensive analytic guideline to examine the complexities involved in language policy making. The underlying presumption of this framework is that policy imposed changes (or top-down management efforts) do not necessarily produce intended or consistent effects on language practices, because the potential success of language management largely depends on its recognition of and congruity with the language situation, beliefs, and the sociolinguistic repertoire of the members of a domain (Spolsky, 2004). In my study, I use this framework to account for potential internal conflicts not only across the three components of language policy but also within each component, because university language policy may contain contradictory information within itself, and be enacted and developed by different micro-units (ranging from departments, programs, to individuals involved at different levels) in varied ways.

2.2 Mechanisms of Language Management

Shohamy (2006) builds on Spolsky's language policy by incorporating the notion of mechanism into the framework. She defines mechanisms as a variety of policy devices that can be categorized into "rules and regulations, language education policies, language tests, language in the public space as well as ideologies, myths, propaganda and coercion" (p. 56). The mechanisms embody ideologies and are employed to influence language practices often in covert and implicit ways, thus "it is only through the observations of the effects of these very devices that the real language policy of an entity can be understood and interpreted" (p. 46). In addition, Jenkins (2014) points out that the first three types of mechanisms (i.e., rules and regulations, language education policies, and language tests) as identified by Shohamy are particularly relevant to the academic language policy in HE, presented in the following.

2.2.1 Rules and Regulations

Rules and regulations are the most commonly used mechanisms to turn language ideologies into language practices (Shohamy, 2006). To maximize their control over language behaviors, governments often develop a series of laws and regulations such as policy documents, language laws, language academies, and citizenship laws. These policy documents aim to "perpetuate the ideology behind language policies, and transform it into language practice" (Shohamy, 2006, p. 75), although they may be resisted and negotiated in actual language practice. In the Canadian context, the Canadian Multiculturalism Act in 1988, as mentioned earlier, is a pertinent example of the Canadian government's policy to recognize Canada's demographic diversity by giving

credit to the contributions made by ethnocultural groups who do not speak English or French. However, there exist various criticisms of this approach being “excellent in principle, but a challenge in practice” (Kunz & Sykes, 2007, p. 8), which in turn indicates conflicts and tensions involved in policy implementation.

2.2.2 Language Education Policies (LEPs), Educational Structures, and Role Definitions

To cast a specific focus on educational institutions, Shohamy (2006) identifies the mechanisms in schools, or LEPs, as “a form of imposition and manipulation of language policy” (p. 76) used by authoritative organizations or agents to promote ideological power in society through formal education. The LEPs can be explicitly written into official documents (e.g., curricula or mission statements) and/or translated into textbooks and other types of materials, instruction, and assessment (as discussed in Cummins’ theorization of educational structures below), both serving the political, ideological, socioeconomic agendas of the nation-state. An example of LEPs is the “educational compartmentalization of languages” (Coste et al., 2009, p. 24) that still prevails in today’s L2 education with its long-term goal of conforming to native speaker norms and achieving native-speaker proficiency (Corbett, 2010; Han, 2004) in each language. Influenced by beliefs in “nativeness” and “language purity,” languages are often taught and measured in discrete and separate units, and the mixing of languages is considered illegitimate in schools, especially in formal assessment and evaluation.

However, the “fixed monolingual and purist criteria” (Shohamy, 2006, p. 84) engrained in this kind of practice contradicts the natural fluid and hybrid ways of using languages

by plurilingual students, marginalizing their needs and priorities. The research literature has criticized this strict categorization or educational compartmentalization of languages for its failure to address new forms of linguistic pluralism and hybridity (e.g., Lee & Marshall, 2012; Pennycook, 2010; Shohamy, 2006). Furthermore, Cummins' (2009) framework of role definitions (i.e., educators' language beliefs) and educational structures (i.e., enactment of LEP in terms of curriculum, pedagogy, and assessment in educational contexts) relate micro-level interactions to the macro-level societal structure.

As defined by Cummins (2009),

Role definitions [emphasis added] refer to the mindset of expectations, assumptions and goals that educators bring to the task of educating culturally diverse students. *Educational structures* [emphasis added] refer to the organization of schooling in a broad sense that includes policies, programs, curriculum, and assessment. Educational structures, together with educator role definitions, determine the micro-interactions between educators, students, and communities. (p. 263)

In this thesis, educational structures of EAP mainly refer to instruction, curriculum, and assessment. As suggested in the above quotation, Cummins' framework distinguishes itself from Spolsky's tripartite language policy composite by calling upon individuals' (especially teachers') agency in challenging coercive power relations embedded in language choice and empowering minority language students. In other words, even though teachers are responsible for implementing top-down language policies by "internalizing the policy ideology and its agendas as expressed in the curriculum, in textbooks and other materials and the very perceptions of language" (Shohamy, 2006, p. 78), "there is always freedom for educators to exercise choice in how they orchestrate classroom interactions" (Cummins, 2009, p. 262).

Indeed, instructors can define their role in language education differently and work

towards reversing minority students' academic failure by resisting coercive power relations as a starting point (Cummins, 2009). For example, some instructors may insist on the "English-only" rule in classroom communications, believing that "excluding the first language is in the students' best interest" (Auerbach, 2000, p. 178). However, others may modify current language practices in ideologically and practically achievable ways, and even more progressively, maneuver alternative pedagogical approaches that are more inclusive of students' diverse languages and draw on their holistic linguistic repertoires. Therefore, language classrooms, to a large extent, are actually "sites of struggle about whose knowledge, experiences, literacy and discourse practices, and ways of using language count" (Shohamy, 2006, p. 79) and language educators are at the forefront of the struggle. The micro-interactions between educators and students in the classroom can produce opportunities for "bottom-up and grassroots initiatives" (Shohamy, 2006, p. 93), challenge the operation of unequal power relations that devalue the cultural and linguistic capital of L2 students, and promote a collaborative relations of power within school (Cummins, 2009).

2.2.3 Language Tests

Shohamy (2006) singles out language tests, initially a central device of LEPs, as a significant category by itself, due to its strong influence on (a) determining/monitoring the prestige and status of languages, (b) redefining what counts as *good* as opposed to *bad* language knowledge, (c) perpetuating standard language as the goal of language education, and (d) suppressing multilingualism. High-stakes tests, especially, are such a powerful device to modify teachers and students' behavior (i.e., teaching/learning to the test) that they might even contradict knowledge, guidelines, and principles in official

curricula or declared policies. Take the English language proficiency tests (e.g., IELTS, TOEFL) required by the international university for NNES international students for example. As a crucial admission criterion, these tests exclude those prospective students who are not yet considered proficient in academic English and either reject them or issue a conditional offer which lists the successful completion of an EAP pathway program as a necessary condition for program admission largely due to financial considerations (competing for the market share of full fee-paying international students with counterpart universities worldwide). This gatekeeping practice not only creates a lucrative EAP industry where many international students pay expensive fees but also helps perpetuate the dominance of the English language and its speakers in academia.

Regarding the role of EAP educators in language tests, unfortunately, they are typically not part of the LEP making process. In fact, they are likely not intended to be actively involved in LEP development in the first place, evidenced by the fact that most teacher education programs do not include LEP-related knowledge as an integral part of their curricula, thus removing teachers from a potential provision of professional input and action (Shohamy, 2006). Also problematic in teacher education programs is the general positioning of teachers as agents of specific languages (with a focus on techniques of teaching certain aspects of language) rather than language professionals who are well informed by current applied linguistics theories and empirical studies. All this can lead to or perpetuate the pursuit of native-like proficiency as the goal and creation of artificial boundaries between different languages instead of recognizing their commonalities and

potential transfer of language knowledge³ (Coste et al., 2009; Cummins, 2001; Shohamy, 2006).

In my study, it is through mechanisms (e.g., English proficiency requirement for admissions) that top-down imposition of language management (e.g., use of standard academic English) interacts with language practices in the EAP classroom (e.g., conforming to the norms) and sometimes bottom-up initiatives (e.g., translanguaging) in a bi-directional flow. To better understand plurilingual students' fluid and dynamic language practices, I now turn to the notion of PIC and language interdependence hypothesis for their analytic values to my study.

2.3 Plurilingual and Intercultural Competence (PIC)

The sociolinguistic notion of PIC is proposed by Coste et al. (2009) to describe “the ability to use languages for the purposes of communication and to take part in intercultural interaction, where a person, viewed as a social actor has proficiency, of varying degrees, in several languages and experience of several cultures” (p. 11). As such, a person's competence in several languages should not be seen “as the superposition or juxtaposition of distinct competences, but rather as the existence of a complex or even composite competence on which the social actor may draw” (p. 11). This definition captures the holistic nature (i.e., the interconnectedness of linguistic and cultural repertoires) and highlights the situatedness of learners' agency in language use in various contexts (Marshall & Moore, 2016). Situated in different contexts, language

³ Language knowledge is associated with knowledge about language in general. It can be acquired through language x and transferred from language x to language y (Coste, Moore & Zarate, 2009).

learners have the capability “of creating links between linguistic and cultural elements ... [and] adapting to situations and interlocutors” (Piccardo, 2013, p. 609). The concept of PIC serves as a complementary lens to analyze the contradiction between the multiplicity and hybridity of languages and cultures and the binary models (treating languages or cultures as if they were fixed and separate system) entrenched in language practices. Besides the integration of the plurilingual dimension and intercultural dimension into a single concept, PIC highlights the role of language in the development of individuals’ intercultural competence, making the construct a good fit for my study.

Essentially, the term plurilingualism spotlights the plurilingual individual as “the locus and actor of contact” (Coste et al., 2009, p. v), as distinguished from multilingualism’s focus on societal contact (Beacco & Byram, 2007; Council of Europe, 2001; Moore & Gajo, 2009). It views individuals’ plurilingual and pluricultural reservoirs as a source for mutual enrichment rather than a barrier to communication, and advocates the language rights of plurilingual individuals who use “two or more languages - separately or together - for different purposes, in different domains of life, with different people” (p. v). That said, plurilingualism’s particular focus on the individual does not imply an absolute social-individual binary (Marshall & Moore, 2016; Piccardo, 2013). Instead, as Marshall and Moore (2016) argue, “rather than seeing plurilingualism as solely being about the individual, it is more about individuals making choices and interacting in specific contexts and situations, including those where their agency is constrained” (p. 5). In this sense, PIC stresses the relations between the communicative competence at individual levels and linguistic and cultural pluralism in society (Coste et al., 2009). Other fundamental principles of PIC include:

- challenging the unattainable ideal of achieving native-speaker competence in language education, and acknowledging the state of imbalance between languages (e.g., functional speaking ability in two languages but limited writing ability in one of them),
- recognizing partial or uneven competence in a particular language (e.g., an imperfect mastery of a second language but functional with specific limited objectives), and
- affirming the complex and dynamic construction of linguistic and cultural identities in communication (e.g., how the learner relates to different languages and cultures in code switching). (Coste et al., 2009)

Since language and cultural practices are considered as intertwined processes, the relationship between the two dimensions (plurilingual and intercultural) of PIC are viewed as two faces of “*a single entity*, albeit complex and heterogeneous” (Coste et al., 2009, p. 16). That is, on the one hand, the plurilingual dimension defines an individual’s linguistic competence in relation to the other languages he or she speaks and opposes the traditional deficit model that ignores the pre-existing knowledge of the language learner. It reflects the individual’s social paths from a long-term view and perceives the plurilingual individual as capable of employing a range of strategies to fulfill a range of different functions and meet specific communication needs in a dynamic way. For example, Coste et al. (2009) argue that code switching behaviors should be interpreted not necessarily as a sign of a person’s linguistic incompetence, but as a strategy to mobilize all available languages in contact for specific social functionality (e.g., changing

topic, accessing certain vocabulary, marking emblematic membership to a bilingual community).

The pluricultural or intercultural dimension of PIC, on the other hand, addresses the cultural aspects intertwined in language communications. It is defined as “the ability to mobilise [one’s] symbolic capital of experience of otherness at the highest price”⁴ (Coste et al., 2009, p. 22), thus accentuating the individual’s “ability to make choices, to manage risk optionally and to employ diversified strategies within partly compatible social and cultural logics” (p. 21). In addition, drawing on Bourdieu’s (1992, 1998) concept of market, the pluricultural dimension views pluricultural resources as symbolic goods in different communities (functioning as markets, be it business, political, or religious). In these markets, the plurilingual individual gradually develops the relationship with otherness into a specific skill that may be further converted to an asset (Coste et al., 2009).

As discussed earlier, schools usually resist any efforts towards pluralism or any form of frontier crossing. The rich pluricultural repertoire possessed by plurilingual students may find little relevance in this exclusive institution where the primary goal is to socialize students into established norms and conventions. To change the language reality in schools, students’ language learning and acculturation should be viewed as two interconnected aspects of the same process, and L2 education should promote a “de-

⁴ A constellation of terms has arisen to describe the concept of intercultural competence with different emphases on particular dimension(s), including “cross-cultural competence” (Brett, 2000; Kramsch, 1993; Wilcox, 2009), “cross-cultural communication” (Levy, 2007), “intercultural sensitivity” (Bennett, 1993), “intercultural awareness” (Baker, 2012), “sociocultural competence” (Byram, Zarate & Neuner, 1997), “intercultural competence” (Deardorff, 2006, 2009; Fantini, 2009), and “intercultural communicative competence” (Byram, 1997; Chun, 2011; Wang & Coleman, 2009).

compartmentalisation” of language education and cultivate in students a “plurilingual and pluricultural competence which is deliberately heterogeneous, although unified, in one repertoire” (Coste et al., 2009, p. 27). In this vein, plurilingual speakers who are not necessarily equally proficient in each (aspect of) language they master can nevertheless “communicate effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations based on [their] intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes” (Deardorff, 2006, p. 247). After all, general knowledge, skills, and attitudes are more important aspects of language education than unrealistic goals of “native-like” mastery of a language.

2.4 Language Interdependence Hypothesis

The concept of partial competence supported by plurilingual curricula as mentioned above does not imply fragmented or incomplete competences. Instead, it validates the language interdependence hypothesis (Cummins, 1981, 1991, 2005a, 2007) that I additionally employ to understand the interrelationship between students’ L1 (Mandarin) and L2 (English) in general, and the pivotal role of students’ L1 in their learning of L2 in particular.

Based on the Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) model, Cummins’ (1981) interdependence hypothesis states that “[t]o the extent that instruction in L_x is effective in promoting proficiency in L_x, transfer of this proficiency to L_y will occur provided there is adequate exposure to L_y (either in school or environment) and adequate motivation to learn L_y” (p. 29). Also, since the hypothesis stresses the interconnections between L1 and L2 not only in terms of linguistic proficiency but also in terms of cognitive/academic proficiency (Cummins, 2005a), it applies to both cognate languages (e.g., English and

French) and non-cognate languages (e.g., English and Mandarin) which significantly differ in their language forms. There are five types of possible two-way transfer situations across languages, including:

- transfer of conceptual elements (e.g., understanding the concept of photosynthesis),
- transfer of metacognitive and metalinguistic strategies (e.g., strategies of visualizing, use of graphic organizers, mnemonic devices, vocabulary acquisition strategies),
- transfer of pragmatic aspects of language use (e.g., willingness to take risks in communication through L2, ability to use paralinguistic features such as gestures to aid communication),
- transfer of specific linguistic elements (knowledge of the meaning of photo in photosynthesis), and
- transfer of phonological awareness-the knowledge that words are composed of distinct sounds. (Cummins, 2005a, p. 3)

Today, the monolingual orientation still arguably dominates the implementation of ESL/EFL/EAP programs, which may be explained by Cummins' (2001) Separate Underlying Proficiency (SUP) model. As opposed to CUP, the SUP model implies that proficiency in L_x and L_y is separate, thus "content and skills learned through L_x cannot transfer to L_y, and vice versa" (Cummins, 2005a, p. 4). Besides, the SUP model presumes a linear relationship between exposure to L2 and achievement in L2 (a.k.a. the maximum exposure hypothesis) and accounts for three inter-related monolingual instructional assumptions: (a) the "direct method" assumption which supports the

exclusive use of target language in the classroom, (b) the “no translation” assumption which typically, but simplistically, equates the use of translation with a regression to the much disputed grammar/translation method, and (c) the “two solitudes” assumption which perceives compartmentalization of two or more languages as the best way of language teaching and learning (Cummins, 2007).

In today’s EAP classrooms, these (mis)assumptions are commonplace, and students’ L1s are frequently regarded as a source of interference or impediment to L2 learning and thus excluded from classroom instruction and interaction. These assumptions continue to prevail in the multilingual classroom despite extensive empirical research in cognitive psychology and applied linguistics, which has clearly shown that “when students’ L1 is invoked as a cognitive and linguistic resource through bilingual instructional strategies, it can function as a stepping stone to scaffold more accomplished performance in the L2” (Cummins, 2007, p. 238), affirming the CUP model mentioned above.

In my analyses of data, both the CUP and SUP models help account for participants’ varied perceptions of the relationships between English and Mandarin. The models provide analytic lenses to examine how the monolingual orientation dilutes some otherwise promising opportunities for students’ engagement in their learning, and how the plurilingual orientation can create space for students’ development of PIC and help them succeed in their EAP learning and university study.

2.5 Summary

This chapter elaborated on why the framework of language policy, mechanisms, education structures, and educator role definition could guide my analysis of the multiple layers of academic language policy in HE. It also explained how the sociolinguistic construct of PIC and language interdependence hypothesis could facilitate a sufficient understanding of the plurilingual mind in the EAP classroom. In the context of globalization and internationalization of HE, policymakers must re-examine normalized assumptions about curriculum, assessment, and instruction in educational developments and cultivate PIC in students and instructors as citizens of the globalized and interconnected world.

Chapter 3

3 Literature Review

Given the importance of language in the processes of internationalizing HE, educational institutions should aim to develop both intercultural and linguistic sensitivity in all students. A number of scholars have contended that the role of language(s) in conceptualizing global citizenship and intercultural competence is understated (e.g., Byrd Clark et al., 2012; Stearns, 2009; Strange, 2005; Trahar, 2011). Since the English language is tied up with the processes of globalization (Canagarajah & Said, 2010; Morgan & Ramanathan, 2005; Pennycook, 2010), the ways English is perceived in relation to other languages are associated with the shaping and enactment of language policy in the international university.

In this chapter, following a brief description of the literature in internationalization of HE as the institutional context, I review and synthesize scholarly discussions about language beliefs, patterns of plurilingual students' language practice/use in different contexts, as well as academic English language policies made by institutions in general and practiced in EAP classroom interactions in particular.

3.1 Globalization and Internationalization of HE

Political, economic, and cultural globalization in the 21st century has accelerated international flows of people and rapid exchange of information, accompanied by a similar transnational flow of languages (Edwards, 2004) and challenged the traditional definitions of schools, work, and public life and our perceptions of reality, locality, and

community (Darley, 2000; Kramsch, 2000; Warschauer, 2004). In this changing context of cultural exchanges facilitated by global flows and networks, knowing and interacting with others no longer presupposes linearity and homogeneity, but rather generates “intricate demographic profiles, economic realities, political processes, media and technologies, cultural facts and artifacts and identities” (Rizvi, 2009, p. 258). As such, cultures are always in a state of becoming, and cultural differences are neither absolute nor separated, but “can only be understood in relation to each other, politically forged, historically constituted and globally interconnected through processes of mobility, exchange and hybridization” (Rizvi, 2009, p. 267). Based on the perception of the world as being increasingly interconnected and interdependent globally, educational practice calls for a new way of learning about other cultures and intercultural encounters by highlighting both the cognitive and ethical dimensions.

While economic globalization is shifting the global educational landscape (e.g., Edwards & Usher, 2000; Rizvi & Lingard, 2000; Unterhalter & Carpentier, 2010), HE is particularly involved in this trend (e.g., Altbach & Knight, 2007; Brustein, 2007; Knight, 2011; Marginson, 2006; Smith, 2006). According to Global Affairs Canada (2014), “International education is at the very heart of our [Canada’s] current and future prosperity” (p. 4) in a global economy that is increasingly interconnected. Indeed, in recent years, internationalizing HE has become a top priority of Canadian HE, and almost all Canadian post-secondary institutions have been involved in internationalization (Beck, 2008; Jones, 2009).

According to the existing literature, internationalization encompasses six inter-related areas of educational practice, i.e., international student recruitment, student/scholar

mobility, international research partnerships, marketing/branding and expansion of university campuses and branches abroad, virtual transnational internationalization, and the internationalization of university curriculum (e.g., Altbach & Knight, 2007; De Wit, 2011; Kehm & Teichler, 2007; Knight, 2008; Maringe, Foskett & Woodfield, 2013). Driven by the key rationale behind internationalization endeavors, i.e., to prepare graduates who are internationally and interculturally knowledgeable citizens (Knight, 2000), key findings from extensive national surveys across Canada (AUCC, 2014; Knight, 2000) have revealed that international activities, programs, and initiatives that have increased dramatically both in numbers and diversity over the past decade (McMullen & Angelo, 2011).

Though the debate surrounding what truly comprises the internationalization of HE is long-standing, the recruitment of international students has been unanimously recognized as a vital part of internationalization efforts (Trilokekar & Kizilbash, 2013; Zhang & Beck, 2014). There is a fierce competition between HE institutions for international students globally (Healey, 2008; Knight, 2004; Madgett & Belanger, 2008). International students move across geographical, political, cultural, and linguistic borders, and “bring a wealth of talent, knowledge, and international awareness that institutions want their student body to prosper from in preparation for work in global environments” (Leary, 2011, p. 18). The increasingly diverse ethnic and linguistic composition of the student population has even become the most visible indicator of educational internationalization (Levin, 2001; Luke, 2001). It has also become a viable source of revenue with the significantly higher tuition fees that international students pay than their domestic peers (Brown & Holloway, 2008; Huang, 2008). Indeed, the statistics on the number of

international students, the source countries, and their contribution to national/provincial economies are the most commonly presented information about international education in Canada (CBIE, 2014). Apart from economic benefits it engenders, internationalization also contributes to a “growing recognition of the value of diverse global perspectives” (AUCC, 2014), as well as bringing in a potential skilled workforce for Canada’s labour market (Global Affairs Canada, 2014).

At the same time, researchers have critically examined the links among neoliberalism,⁵ globalization, and internationalization in HE, arguing that the academy has been reshaped by neoliberal discourses such as the knowledge economy (Guile, 2006), human capital development (Becker, 2006), and performance-based funding (Shore & Wright, 2000). While Canada and its global players (e.g., the US, the UK, Australia, Germany, and France) are competing to attract international students in order to maximize economic opportunities, it is questionable if and to what extent internationalization of HE has become a matter of commercialization or corporatization of HE (Bok, 2003; Noble, 2001). Inevitably, Canada is no exception to these global trends (Woodhouse, 2009). For instance, the increased commodification of Canadian universities can be observed in practices such as charging differential fees to international students and the establishment of programs for profit (Currie & Newson, 1998). When it comes to university internationalization policies, Taskoh (2014) argues that there is a significant gap between two major values: liberal-academic (i.e., rhetorically promoting educational and

⁵ Neoliberalism refers to “a theory of political economic practices that proposes that human well-being can best be advanced by liberating individual entrepreneurial freedoms and skills within an institutional framework characterized by strong private property rights, free markets and free trade” (Harvey, 2005, p.2).

humanitarian values) versus neoliberal-instrumental (i.e., rationales oriented towards market-and-competition related goals). This gap is likely to permeate almost every aspect of HE, including the expensive EAP programs established for international students which have often been left out of the internationalization literature.

As one of the most important groups of participants in internationalization, international students' experience in Anglophone HE has been extensively researched, with the bulk of literature in the US, UK, and Australia. As reviewed by Jenkins (2014), the majority of empirical studies focusing on international students in the UK have focused on cultural rather than linguistic factors (Carter, 2012; Copland & Garton, 2011; Henderson, 2011; Trahar, 2011; Turner, 2011). Similarly, literature in the Australian context also focused on non-linguistic matters such as internationalizing the curriculum, intercultural issues, and global citizenship (Carroll & Ryan, 2005, Clifford & Montgomery, 2011; Ryan, 2013).

In the North American context, recent scholarship has explored the influence of institutional internationalization policy on NNES international students' academic performance (e.g., Fredeen, 2013; Taskoh, 2014, Weber, 2011). These studies explore internationalization policy in general, albeit including language-related policies as an important component. Fredeen (2013), for example, employs Foucauldian poststructural discourse analysis to examine the impact of internationalization policies (e.g., admission and registration, English proficiency assessment, academic integrity) on the students' academic trajectory in a Canadian university. Her findings reveal "how these policies and practices operate discursively at the local level to create conditions of im/possibility and shape subjectivities" (p. ii) and provide implications for university policy changes.

When it comes to the field of applied linguistics and sociolinguistics, the majority of studies tend to represent international students from a deficit view, though some are opposed to a one-way assimilation process and adopt a language socialization perspective instead (Duff, 2010; Lee & Maguire, 2011; Marshall, 2010; Marshall & Moore, 2013; Morita, 2004; Norton & McKinney, 2011). Researchers who adopt a socialization perspective in their research have challenged the role of standard academic English as the sole conduit to international students' success in Anglophone HE and argued for new educational approaches that foster students' intercultural experiences and transnational identities. As Jenkins (2014) argues, marginalizing the role of language and language learners is unacceptable in international education with its aim to provide students with the knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed to be globally and interculturally competent citizens.

To sum up, existing literature has extensively discussed the strategies, benefits, and challenges of internationalization, but hardly attempted to explore the role of language in the process of internationalization as perceived by multiple stakeholders involved in a highly significant part (EAP) of the international university. This study joins the critical discussion of what it means to be an 'international' university in terms of language policy-making, a question that has not been adequately explored until recent years (e.g., Jenkins, 2014). It is important and urgent to understand how the language policy and internationalization mandates/priorities influence the educational structures of EAP, and how EAP responds to such influences and accommodates international students' needs from both educator and student perspectives in the Canadian context.

In the following sections, I move from discussing the broad context in which my research

study is situated to a synthesis of scholarly literature on the specific focus of my study: the three interrelated components (language ideology, language practices, and language management) of language policy in the international university. Relevant sociolinguistic concepts as introduced in the previous chapter are further demonstrated and supported with up to date research literature.

3.2 Language Ideology

An examination of the evolving language ideologies is essential to studies of institutional language policy in relation to plurilingual students' language use and the attempts to modify/control such uses. Monoglossic and heteroglossic conceptualization of key concepts of bilingualism, multilingualism, and plurilingualism have been researched as both conceptual constructs and practices in the literature.

3.2.1 Monoglossic/Monolingual Ideology

Traditional L2 or bilingual language educational approaches embody a monoglossic or monolingual ideology that assumes a linear, sequential, and compartmented relationship between L1 and L2 and treats student groups in a simplistic manner “as if they were static, homogeneous, and monolithic” (García & Sylvan, 2011, p. 385). Influenced by the monoglossic ideology, the term bilingualism is interpreted as a “native-like control of two languages” (Bloomfield, 1933, p. 56) in terms of the four skills (i.e., speaking, listening, writing, and reading). Similarly, the term multilingualism is sometimes understood merely as a description of “native-like” proficiency in more than two languages (Kemp, 2009).

However, both terms have been poignantly contested in educational policies and practices in the changing context of globalization and migration (Heller, 2007b; Jeoffrion, Marcouyeux, Starkey-Perret, Narcy-Combes, & Birkan, 2014; Lee & Norton, 2009). Jeoffrion et al. (2014), for instance, challenge the myth of “absolute bilingualism” for its assumption of a native-speaker model and argue that the idea that a native speaker has a balanced and perfect mastery of his/her language is a fallacy in itself. Also, in reality, achieving native-like proficiency is almost an unattainable, though not utterly impossible, goal for the majority of L2 learners.

As sociolinguists increasingly problematize conventional conceptualizations of bi/multilingualism, there is a growing recognition of power relations in the (re)shaping of language ideologies, linguistic capital, and interactions in multilingual settings (Blommaert, 2013; Heller, 2007b, 2011; Kramsch, 2013; Lee & Norton, 2009). As argued by Heller (2007b), bi/multilingualism entails “a set of resources which circulate in unequal ways in social networks and discursive spaces, and whose meaning and value are socially constructed within the constraint of social organizational processes, under specific historical conditions” (p. 2), hence should be understood as both ideology and practice.

Hence, researchers contend that Fairclough’s (1992/2014) construct of critical language awareness⁶ (CLA) should be infused into language education. According to Taylor, Despaigne, and Faez (2017), both teachers and students should be armed with appropriate

⁶ The term critical language awareness is defined as an awareness of “how language conventions and language practices are invested with power relations and ideological processes which people are often unaware of” (Fairclough, 1992/2014, p. 215).

knowledge and techniques to critically interpret the lexical, syntactic, and other choices made by authors of written texts and examine the ideologies and worldviews underlying such choices as social practices. They further argue that CLA is especially important in a multilingual HE where high-stakes assessment practices (e.g., IELTS) promote the measuring of NNES students' mastery of linguistic norms rather than developing their critical skills of examining the unequal power relations inherent in various texts.

3.2.2 Heteroglossic/Plurilingual Ideology

The topic of plurilingualism in education emerged in the mid-1990s and gained impetus with the Council of Europe's (2001) publication of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (Marshall & Moore, 2013). Plurilingualism is considered synonymous with other terms coined and used in the field, e.g., multicompetence (Cook, 1999, 2016), translanguaging (Baker, 2011; García, 2009b, García & Li, 2014), translanguaging (Canagarajah, 2013b), polylinguaging (Jørgensen, 2010), and metrolinguistic (Pennycook & Otsuji, 2015).

For instance, Cook (1999) coined the term "multicompetence" to refer to "the compound state of mind with two languages...covering the total language knowledge of a person who knows more than one language, including both L1 competence and the L2 interlanguage" (p. 190). For another, Baker (2011) defines "translanguaging" as "the process of making meaning, shaping experiences, understandings, and knowledge through the use of two languages. Both languages are employed in an integrated and coherent way to organize and mediate mental processes in learning" (p. 288). Despite the subtle differences between the two terms presented above or other synonyms in the field,

there exists an ideological shift from seeing bilingualism or multilingualism from a “monolingual” perspective (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Cummins, 2005b) to a “plurilingual” perspective, which opens up new approaches to educational practices by recognizing language learners’ linguistic repertoires as fluid and dynamic, and most importantly, essential to their English language learning process (Taylor & Snoddon, 2013).

3.2.3 Research on Beliefs about Language Learning

Situated in sociocultural contexts, individuals’ beliefs about the nature of language and language learning are always changing and evolving. The links between language beliefs and language learning have been widely reported in previous literature (Bernat & Gvozdenko, 2005; Brown, 2009; Cotterall, 1999; Dörnyei, 1994; Heo, Stoffa, & Kush, 2012; Horwitz, 1988; Kern, 1995; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; Mori, 1999; Nikitina & Furuoka, 2006; Rieger, 2009; Tanaka & Ellis, 2003). As summarized by Jeoffrion et al. (2014), prior research on language beliefs in relation to language learning has utilized measures developed from the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) (Horwitz, 1985, 1988) and other Likert-type scales (e.g., the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning scale developed by Oxford, 1986), and produced mixed (mostly in complementary, but sometimes contradictory, manners) results.

Nevertheless, Jeoffrion et al. (2014) maintain that the research literature has illustrated (a) the value of discussing the nature of language learning in instruction (e.g., Horwitz, 1988) and promoting holistic pedagogical approaches in the L2 classroom (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011; Moore & Gajo, 2009), (b) a potential (favourable) change of attitudes

towards plurilingualism accompanied by a growth of language proficiency or the advancement of language programming (Brown, 2009; Mori, 1999; Piquemal & Renaud, 2006), (c) a difference of teachers' and students' attitudes towards technical instruction (e.g., grammar, vocabulary) (Brown, 2009) and accent (i.e., students value the mentioned aspects more than their teachers do) (Bernat & Gvozdenko, 2005), and (d) the context-specific nature of learner beliefs about language learning (Bernat & Gvozdenko, 2005; Nikitina & Furuoka, 2006; Rieger, 2009).

In addition, quantitative research which focuses on students' attitudes and motivations in L2 learning has manifested the interrelationship between L2 acquisition and learning motivation, i.e., L2 acquisition is positively associated with both instrumental and integrative motivation, yet the correlation of L2 acquisition with integrative motivation turns out to be stronger than its correlation to instrumental motivation (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; Tanaka & Ellis, 2003). What's more, for students in migration contexts, these two motivations usually overlap with language learning goals associated with their career development plans (Dörnyei, 1994).

At the same time, qualitative research has questioned the traditional assumption of taking the native-speaker competence as the yardstick to measure L2 competence of a multilingual person who accommodates parallel workings in multiple languages (e.g., Canagarajah, 2007; Canagarajah & Said, 2010). Unfortunately, many (if not most) teachers and students still hold monolingual attitudes, view languages in mutual exclusion (Beacco & Byram, 2007), and associate plurilingualism and code switching with confusion and disorder rather than complementarity (Castellotti & Moore, 2002). To change this reality, House (2003) proposes an expert multilingual speaker model in which

the ideal learning outcome is students' high familiarity with comparable sociocultural and historical conditions of use and comparable goals for interaction. Educational practices informed by this model regard the learner as a plurilingual individual who capitalizes on resources of his or her first and/or prior language(s). Ultimately, the primary goal of L2 education is shifting from producing (near-)native speakers to developing a high degree of familiarity with otherness, recognizing their partial competence within and across languages, and fostering intercultural communicative competence (Byram, 1997, 2008, 2013; Council of Europe, 2007), all of which are in line with the PIC principles as presented earlier.

3.3 Language Practices in the Multilingual Classroom

Concerning language practices, plurilingualism regards individuals' employment of different types of code switching as a variety of communicative strategies (Auer & Wei, 2007; Marshall, Hayashi, & Yeung, 2012; Pavlenko & Blackledge, 2004; Pennycook, 2007; Rampton, 2009). For example, a person may use code switching to negotiate meanings and identities (e.g., De Fina, 2007), or code crossing to create new meanings and community relationships (e.g., Rampton, 2009) in everyday life (Canagarajah, 2011). Also, researchers have sought out translanguaging or plurilingual pedagogical resources and approaches that de-compartmentalize languages and question normalized power relations in the multilingual classroom (e.g., Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Cummins, 2008; García, 2009a/b; García & Flores, 2012; Hornberger, 2003; Kramsch, 2010; Levine, 2011; Lin, 2013; Luke, 2009). Key literature related to these common language practices in L2 language classrooms is reviewed below.

3.3.1 Code Switching

Generally speaking, code switching refers to “the alternating use of two languages in the same stretch of discourse by a bilingual speaker” (Bullock & Toribio, 2009, p. xii) and there are three types of code switching: “situational code switching” (Gumperz, 1971), “code crossing” (Gumperz, 1971), and “translanguaging” (Baker, 2011). Plurilingual individuals can switch codes to various degrees for different purposes in different contexts.

To start with, “situational code switching” (hereafter referred to as code switching) occurs when the situations (physical or topical) change from one to another. For instance, Chinese international students may switch their language in use from English to Mandarin for casual talks during a class interval or seek clarification with each other on some part of the instructions for a group task in class. This type of code switching is often considered the most common, which is confirmed in my study as discussed later.

Based on research literature on the topic of code switching, multilingual individuals’ code switching practices have remained the subject of debate from both negative and positive perspectives. Although conventional perspectives regard code switching as a deficiency and thus should be eliminated or minimized from the classroom domain, many scholars have challenged the deficit perspectives of the use of code switching in the language classroom with empirical evidence for it being used as an effective pedagogical strategy (e.g., Boyle, 1997; De Fina, 2007; Ferguson 2003; Gajo 2007; Gort, 2006; Heller & Martin-Jones, 2001; Lin & Martin, 2005; Wang, 2003). For example, Gort (2006) examines students’ systematic and strategic use of code switching during writing and the

positive linguistic transfer from L1 to L2 as shown in students' written work. He argues that these code switching strategies are beneficial to bilingual students' language proficiency and literacy development. Therefore, both teachers and students should be mindful of the value of L1 as an asset in L2 teaching and learning.

The second type of code switching, code crossing, refers to “the use of a language or variety that feels anomalously ‘other’ for the participants in an activity, involving movement across quite sharply sensed social or ethnic boundaries, in ways that can raise questions of legitimacy” (Rampton & Charalambous, 2012, p. 482). While situational code switching assumes both interlocutors to share linguistic knowledge of certain languages, code crossing is often intended for its stylistic value and identity marking (Pennycook, 2007; Quist & Jørgensen, 2007; Rampton, 2009). Examples of crossing can be the use of Punjabi by young Caribbean descendants or the use of Turkish by the majority ethnic Germans in their peer interaction (Rampton & Charalambous, 2012). Therefore, code crossing can represent the creative construction and negotiation of meaning by interlocutors through crossing racial and ethnic boundaries and performing the code of others (Quist & Jørgensen, 2007; Rampton, 2009). Although code crossing is relevant to the EAP context in theory given the unique sociolinguistic situation of EAP (a predominant Mandarin-speaking student population and typically an instructor and a couple of other language students), it is not common in my study data due to the nature of my research design (primarily drawing on questionnaires and interviews with no access to written texts and limited immersion in the daily classes).

However, Michael-Luna and Canagarajah (2007) argue that the first two types of code switching (i.e., code switching and code crossing) are problematic because they continue

to view languages in discrete compartments and sometimes even in separation from their contexts. In this way, code switching and code crossing are still primarily framed as a deficiency in linguistic competence in educational structures (Escamilla, 2006), despite researchers' argument for student agency in selecting and mixing codes to serve unique needs and construct identities (Auer, 1998; Heller, 1995). By contrast, the last type of code switching (translanguaging) distinguishes itself from the previous two types by viewing code switching behaviors in light of the manifestation of a fluid and dynamic "languaging" continuum where clear borders between languages do not exist (Canagarajah, 2009). Therefore, translanguaging is the type of code switching that is most aligned with the ideological paradigm shift suggested earlier.

3.3.2 Translanguaging

Baker (2011) defines translanguaging as "the process of making meaning, shaping experiences, understandings and knowledge through the use of two languages ... in an integrated and coherent way" (p. 288), especially in terms of (oral) communicative competence of the plurilingual individual. Researchers in the field consider students' use of multiple languages as "a naturally occurring phenomenon ... [which] cannot be completely restrained by monolingual educational policies" (Canagarajah, 2011, p. 402). It is not seen as simply adding or subtracting languages but rather as a dynamic and complex language practice (García & Flores, 2012).

In the context of HE, translanguaging is widely researched as "a communicative device used for specific rhetorical and ideological purposes in which a multilingual speaker intentionally integrates local and academic discourse as a form of resistance,

reappropriation and/or transformation of the academic discourse” (Michael-Luna & Canagarajah, 2007, p. 56). For example, Smitherman (2003) has argued for students’ agency to reappropriate academic norms and conventions by integrating non-dominant and multimodal texts at lexical, rhetorical, and structural levels in order to resist and pluralize the dominant academic discourse. For another, Canagarajah (2006) explores how students mesh different codes in writing to serve specific purposes. It is noteworthy that translanguaging-informed practices are not intended to deny the importance of learning academic norms and conventions but to stress the need to go beyond pragmatic and instrumental objectives and learn to resist and negotiate the norms and rules defined by coercive power relations in the institution and the society. Furthermore, Canagarajah (2011) demonstrates how a Saudi Arabian undergraduate student was able to employ four types of translanguaging strategies (i.e., recontextualization strategies, voice strategies, interactional strategies, and textualization strategies) to question language choices, critically evaluate different opinions from her instructor and peers, and develop metacognitive awareness.

Despite the growing number of studies on translanguaging in HE, Canagarajah (2011) argues that “we still have a long way to go in developing a taxonomy of translanguaging strategies and theorizing these practices” (p. 415). Indeed, much as translanguaging has started to be incorporated in *informal* classroom interactions and low-stakes writing assignments (e.g., journals, online discussion), its impact on educational practices remains limited “unless and until it is seen as permissible to breach these standards ... in the production of [high-stakes] academic English texts” (Taylor & Snoddon, 2013, p. 439), indicating the power of established/institutionalized standards (manifested in

assessments) on actual language practices. As such, despite the consensus on recognizing multiple knowledge traditions and privileging content knowledge over the standard forms of English in the academy, plurilingualism stays marginalized and illegitimate in formal academic discourses (e.g., academic writing). While more research in plurilingualism is needed to open up new directions for language and literacy pedagogies towards an equitable and meaningful education for all students (García & Sylvan, 2011), it is crucial that instructors who work with international students gain pedagogical language knowledge in order to implement translingual or plurilingual pedagogies (Achugar, 2015).

3.4 Language Management

Though plurilingualism as ideology and practice has shown its positive and productive ways of opening up space in education for diverse knowledges, language management tends to see it as a problem rather than an asset. The international university's exclusion and marginalization of multilingual resources and individuals at the level of language management can be observed in the English language proficiency required admission purposes, course expectations, and EAP programs at EMI universities. In the following, I briefly map out university academic language policies in relation to international students in Canadian HE. These policies usually encompass information regarding the English language proficiency tests (featuring IELTS as the most common test written by international applicants to Canadian universities) required for admissions and English support programs/resources/services available to international students.

3.4.1 English Proficiency Admission Requirements

Language requirements in the ‘international’ university are likely the strongest indicator of the role of standard English as the ‘universal’ benchmark (Jenkins, 2014).

Interestingly, Jenkins’ (2014) comprehensive website analysis of 60 universities worldwide shows that universities in Anglophone countries turn out to be “far more detailed and explicit about English both in itself and in terms of its role in their internationalization strategies” (p. 111) than non-Anglophone universities. Indeed, Anglophone universities usually base admission considerations on prospective students’ academic qualifications along with evidence of English proficiency for those NNES applicants who must submit proof of English language proficiency (e.g., a minimum average IELTS score of 6.5) in their application package. Although this study does not address the relationships between IELTS scores and academic achievement at the numerical level per se (due to no access to students’ official IELTS scores and academic grades), to some extent it relates to the IELTS literature by including participants’ views of the university’s use of IELTS or other language tests (as part of academic language policies) for its predictive validity.

The extensive research literature on the use of standardized language tests for HE admissions has ensued mixed results, calling the predictive validity of language proficiency assessment into question. Some studies support the existence of a (weak) positive relationship between English language proficiency, as measured by TOEFL or IELTS, and subsequent academic achievement at university, as commonly measured by grade point average (GPA) (e.g., Bayliss & Raymond, 2004; Dooley & Oliver, 2002; Feast, 2002; Hill, Storch, & Lynch, 2000; Kerstjens & Nery, 2000; Nelson, Nelson, &

Malone, 2004; Wilson & Komba, 2012; Yen & Kuzma, 2009); other studies have argued that there is no statistically significant relationship between language testing scores and academic performance (e.g., Carroll, 2005; Krausz, Schiff, Schiff, & Van Hise, 2005; Lahib, 2016; Trice, 2003).

Even within the research body that does support the significant correlation between IELTS and GPA, some researchers suggest that the predictive power of IELTS on students' academic success wanes over time as the students advance in their academic trajectory in HE (Yen & Kuzma, 2009), not to mention that many students who meet IELTS or TOEFL entry requirements nevertheless struggle to meet the requirements (including language competence) of their degree programs. As a result, Lahib (2016) recommends that university admissions should not rely on the use of IELTS or TOEFL as the sole indicator of students' English language skills but combine the use of IELTS or TOEFL with diagnostic assessments (e.g., institution-specific post-entry assessment) to identify students' strengths and weaknesses and provide language support as appropriate.

The inconsistent results in the research literature can be understood in terms of the debated validity of IELTS or TOEFL test construction and a number of non-linguistic factors influencing students' academic achievement. For instance, IELTS, like any other tests, can be fallible in that it produces unidimensional scales that fail to measure the complex multidimensional nature of language ability (Spolsky, 2008), not to mention the dynamic and fluctuating nature of L2 development experienced by students. Besides, Fox et al. (2014) suggest that mixed and inconclusive results may relate to students' employment of test-taking strategies, thereby not necessarily measuring their academic English proficiency; even on occasions when they are linguistically competent, language

is but one of many important factors contributing to academic success. These nonlinguistic factors, as Yen and Kuzma (2009) claim, include students' adaptability to the new learning environment and personal goals. However, while the variety of contributing factors may play out differently and mean different things across contexts, voices from the intersection of EAP and internationalization are still scant in current literature.

3.4.2 English Support and Resources

As the number of international students in Canadian HE increases, EAP programs have also proliferated to provide academic language support to NNES students, especially those whose scores in standardized language tests (e.g., IELTS or TOEFL) are below the minimum requirement of English language proficiency. Broadly speaking, EAP programs focus on both the English language and associated study skills required for academic success by providing "specialized English language teaching grounded in the social, cognitive and linguistic demands of academic target situations" (Hyland, 2006, p. 2). These programs may differ in their emphasis, methodology, and approach (Fox et al., 2014), but share the common goal of developing students' language proficiency, often grounded in native English, to facilitate their adaptation to academic studies (Cheng & Fox, 2008; Fox et al., 2006).

With respect to international students' needs for academic English, Cummins (1979, 1981) argues that L2 students may rapidly develop fluent conversational skills in English - Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS) - yet lag behind in terms of academic skills - Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) - which typically requires five

to seven years for L2 students to catch up with their L1 counterparts. Cummins' CALP hypothesis implies that the English education (usually as a school subject in an EFL context) international students received prior to their international study can be far from enough to prepare them for "native-like" language proficiencies and hence becomes an extra hurdle for them to acquire academic literacy.

Unfortunately, EAP programs and language support services often fail to recognize and address the ideological nature of language and literacy learning, resulting in a limited impact on students' academic trajectory in general. Many EAP curricula nowadays encompass the components of language learning, cultural orientation, and study skills, yet are heavily oriented towards "the norms and conventions that are required for reading and writing in *Western* [emphasis added], academic contexts" (García, Pujol-Ferran, & Reddy, 2013, p. 188). Assuming that international students have to play by the rules of native English-speakers and reproduce what counts as linguistically and academically legitimate (Bourdieu, 1977) in order to survive and succeed in the 'Western' academy, assignments are strictly monolingual expecting all students to follow established academic English conventions and norms (Marshall et al., 2012). In addition, NNES students are usually viewed as a homogeneous group with the same objective of learning standard English and its cultural norms in order to achieve academic success in the international university.

The monolingual and essentialist orientation of language management and their implications for HE academic discourses have been criticized in recent decades (Benesch, 2001; Ivanič, 1998; Jeoffrion et al., 2014; Kramsch, 2010; Lillis, 2006; Street, 2004; Tollefson & Tsui, 2004). A number of researchers contend that this monolingual

orientation contradicts plurilingual students' cultural and linguistic competence in everyday verbal and written communication (Higgins, 2003; Lam, 2000), valorizes "English as the language of power and success" (García et al., 2013, p. 174), naturalizes the misconception of "standard English = international intelligibility" (Jenkins, 2014, p.122), and undermines the "international" ethos of internationalization (Doherty & Singh, 2005; Weber, 2011). In addition, these programs often take a generic approach for diverse students, without sufficient attention paid to disciplinary knowledge and academic discourses in different linguistic and cultural contexts (e.g., Duff, 2010; Gonzalez, Chen, & Sanchez, 2001; Hyland, 2012; Zhu, 2004). Therefore, the generic approach risks constructing "the Otherness of the international student in relation to the Western student" (Doherty & Singh, 2005, p. 53) in an essentialist manner.

Going beyond the critiques, some researchers have argued for alternative orientations for language and literacy education in HE. Jeoffrion et al. (2014), for example, advocate for a plurilingual syllabus which combines language instruction with content delivery. Based on their literature review, they posit that a plurilingual syllabus promotes not only the cognitive and sociocultural development (Kramersch, 2010) but also language acquisition of the individual, facilitated by the collaborative dialogues and the production of comprehensible outcomes (Swain, 2000) that a plurilingual syllabus should encourage.

Jeoffrion et al. (2014) state that a plurilingual syllabus draws on languages in contact⁷ and

⁷ The term "languages in contact" generally refers to a wide variety of outcomes of the dynamics of language contact between different languages or language varieties. Typical examples include pidgins (highly reduced languages with a minimal vocabulary and grammar of the target language), creoles (a blend of competing linguistic input that is used to represent the social identity of their speakers and their membership in a distinct creole community), and bilingual mixed languages used by NNES individuals (my case of point).

helps develop students' meta-linguistic and intercultural awareness. Likewise, García and Flores (2012) argue that plurilingual curricula and pedagogies should be guided by the principles of social justice and collaborative social practice and use all linguistic codes and modes as resources of equal value. They further propose a plurilingual scaffolding strategy that incorporates the dynamic plurilingualism of students in classroom instruction and interaction. Both studies make a strong case for plurilingualism as language policy to deal with the emergent linguistic heterogeneity of the 21st century.

3.5 Summary

The literature review presented in this chapter helps account for why language learning remains a significant challenge for international students in their academic study (e.g., CBIE, 2014; Montgomery, 2010; Sawir, 2005). As García et al. (2013) argue, “the language ideologies that valorized English as the language of power and success that were prevalent during colonial times are still very much in vogue today” (p. 174). Key issues presented in this literature review highlight the need to address the (unequal) relationship between English and other languages and challenge the rhetoric of ‘international’ and intercultural competence as lauded in internationalization discourses. Given the potential exclusion and marginalization of multilingual students in English medium institutions, there is a need to re-imagine HE as a multilingual space (Preece & Martin, 2010) where students’ multilingual resources are celebrated and their (development of) PIC promoted. The EAP sector seems to be a vibrant arena for intercultural encounters and thus an ideal site to conduct such investigations.

Chapter 4

4 Methodology

Education is a field of complex social phenomena, demanding multiple investigative tools and mixing of different methodologies (Greene, 2007). EAP, as a rich site for academic English acquisition and intercultural communication, is no exception. Since a central focus of my research is the potential gap between top-down institutional language management and bottom-up language practices of international students in the multilingual classroom, the mixed methodology enables me to explore broad themes regarding the real language policy in the educational structures of EAP and understand in-depth experiences of individuals in EAP. In this chapter, I describe the advantages as well as potential challenges of using the mixed methodology. Next, I lay out the research design of the study, providing details about research participants, multiple methods employed, and analysis procedures applied to both quantitative and qualitative data. Finally, I consider ethical issues and acknowledge the limitations of my research methods.

4.1 Mixed Methodology

This study follows the working definition of mixed methodology or Mixed-Methods Research (MMR) suggested by Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, and Turner (2007) based on their analysis of 19 definitions of MMR by leading scholars in the field of MMR,

Mixed methods research is the type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g., use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the broad purposes of breadth and depth of

understanding and corroboration. (p. 123)

Quantitative and qualitative methodology help the researcher address the research problem in different ways. While quantitative methodology explains phenomena by collecting numerical data that are analyzed with mathematically based methods to seek statistical generalization, qualitative methodology mainly relies on non-numerical data to explore perceptions and insights. Since both methodologies have their strengths and limitations, some researchers (e.g., Denscombe, 2008; Ercikan & Roth, 2006; Moss, 2005) have argued that polarization of research into either quantitative or qualitative approach is neither meaningful nor productive, and others have further suggested that MMR could be used to transcend the incommensurability or incompatibility thesis which is based on the fundamentally different worldviews (or epistemologies and ontologies) underpinning quantitative and qualitative inquiry (i.e., positivism/postpositivism and constructivism/interpretivism) (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Feilzer, 2010; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Remarkably, the latter division of opinions perceives MMR as the “third methodological movement” following the developments of first quantitative and then qualitative research (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009).

Adopting an anti-dichotomous view of quantitative and qualitative approach, MMR researchers believe that diverse methodological approaches can and should exist in a complementary fashion within the educational research community (Brannen, 2005; Denzin, 2008; Eisenhart, 2005). Drawing on the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative methods, data, forms of analysis and reporting, MMR features abductive

reasoning, intersubjectivity, and transferability, as summarized by Morgan (2007), and can shed new insights into social realities.

For MMR's strength of abductive reasoning, it refers to the logical connection made by the researcher between data and theory (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009) with the purpose of facilitating "the interpretation of the data from a multidimensional perspective, [with] each data set informed, questioned, and enhanced by the others" (Feilzer, 2010, p. 12). In other words, abductive reasoning moves back and forth between induction and deduction as well as between different approaches to theory and data (Morgan, 2007). As Morgan (2007) further suggests, this abductive logic should be expanded from individual projects to all kinds of knowledge "produced under the separate banners of Qualitative and Quantitative Research" (p. 71) so that we could learn from one another in a mutually illuminating way based on useful points of connection. In this research study, abductive reasoning significantly facilitated the data analysis and interpretation where I, guided by my theoretical framework, compared and converged the quantitative and qualitative data sets for a fuller and deeper understanding, or "a multidimensional perspective" as mentioned by Feilzer (2010), of the research problem.

Next, MMR refutes the forced dichotomy between complete objectivity and complete subjectivity in terms of the relationship between the researcher and the research process, but adopts an intersubjective stance that enables the researcher "to achieve a sufficient degree of mutual understanding with not only the people who participate in our research but also the colleagues who read and review the products of our research" (Morgan, 2007, p.71). In this view, knowing cannot exist in a vacuum, and the centrality of communication and shared meaning is highlighted. Intersubjectivity encourages the

researcher to examine his or her personal position of reference in relation to ideologies and assumptions grounding the research projects as well as the social processes when analyzing interactions, texts, or artifacts where both consensus and conflict coexist (Anderson, 2008; Morgan, 2007). In my study, this intersubjective stance is undertaken by the acknowledgement of my personal positioning as both an insider (a Chinese international student and EAP instructor) and an outsider (a researcher adopting the paradigm stance of critical pragmatism) to the educators and students who participated in this research project, as suggested in the beginning of the thesis.

Lastly, transferability, a notion proposed by Lincoln and Guba (1985) to serve as an alternative to generalizability or external validity, constitutes the trustworthiness criteria for a constructive inquiry process together with credibility, dependability, and confirmability. Rather than seeking for generalizability, MMR researchers focus on whether and how the results obtained from one specific context and research project can be appropriately used or transferred to other contexts or studies (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Since research contexts have their uniqueness and share commonalities, a “thick description” (Geertz, 1973) of the research context is vital to the evaluation of the transferability of research results. In this study, I worked diligently to increase the transferability of my results by triangulating data, theories, and methods and cautiously acknowledge the limitations as well in my description of the instruments later in this chapter and the concluding chapter.

However, MMR is not without criticisms, among which the primary concerns are whether it leads to a lack of methodological rigour and ethical grounding (Ulrich, 2007). In other words, MMR has been mainly questioned by some researchers for lacking

practical methodological principles and conceptual frameworks for research on one hand and serving mere opportunistic and utilitarian purposes on the other. To respond to these two concerns, MMR researchers have argued that MMR has its own standards of rigour, i.e., the research must provide useful answers to the research question(s) (Denscombe, 2008). To avoid the suspicion of mere opportunism and utilitarianism (Ulrich, 2007), MMR by no means sidelines but highlights ethical grounding in the researchers' endorsement of critical pragmatism.

To contextualize my considerations of the above two criticisms of MMR in this study, it was the research questions (language policy at three interrelated levels) that helped me select MMR for my research methodology. Like other MMR researchers, I reject the dichotomous thinking that tends to divide quantitative and qualitative methods, and deem MMR as the best approach to answering my "hybrid" research questions (Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007) so that I can explore both the general trends and the interrelationships involved in this research problem by drawing on both numerical data and narrative data.

With regard to my ethical grounding, I place myself in the "critical applied linguistics" camp (Pennycook, 2001) where I join other researchers in our conduct of "a constant skepticism, a constant questioning of the normative assumptions of applied linguistics" (p. 10). Also, it is imperative for me to examine my position of reference, as suggested earlier, in relation to ideologies and assumptions grounding the research projects as well as the social processes when analyzing data. In addition, perceiving ethics as essential tenets in my research, I draw on Moustakas' (1995) three relationships (i.e., Being-In, Being-For, and Being-With) between the researcher(s) and the researched, take a supportive stance in relation to my participants, and listen to my participants while

offering my knowledge and experience. This also means that my understanding of the “critical” is inclusive of the “pragmatic” in my research. While my research rejects monological knowledge transmission and views participants’ perceptions and experiences as varied and multiple and constantly (re)configured by the interactions in the power dynamics of the academy, I do agree with some general understandings (while being precautionary about stereotyping and essentialism) of Chinese students’ learning experience as well.

4.2 Research Design

Guided by MMR, I employed multiple methods to collect data from multiple stakeholders in three EAP programs in Ontarian HE. International students were involved in questionnaires, interviews and classroom observations; instructors were involved in interviews and/or classroom observations; administrators were involved in interviews only. My data collection mainly followed a convergent parallel mixed methods design (Creswell, 2014). Despite the fact that the quantitative data and qualitative data were collected sequentially (i.e., student questionnaires were conducted prior to student interviews) due to the independent nature of the doctoral study, the two sets of data were analysed in a parallel fashion (see Chapter 5) before they were compared to each other and merged for discussion (see Chapter 6).

The combined use of quantitative methods (questionnaire) and qualitative methods (interview, classroom observation, and document analysis) generate different but complementary data on the same topic, which results in a better understanding of the research problem (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Table 1 provides a snapshot of the

research methods and materials used to collect data to address the distinct focus of each research question at different levels of language policy (i.e., management, practices, and beliefs), further explained in the following.

Table 1

Overview of Research Methods Used to Address the Research Questions

Research Question	Focus	Methodology	Method(s)	Materials
A. <i>What</i> are the prevailing language management statements in the international university?	Language management	Qualitative	Document analysis	University/ EAP program websites EAP brochures and syllabus (if applicable)
B. <i>Why</i> do multiple stakeholders perceive the policy statements the way they do at the level of language beliefs?	Language beliefs	Mixed	Questionnaire Interview	Interview protocol Questionnaire
C. <i>How</i> are the policy management statements implemented by educators and students?	Language practices	Qualitative	Interview Observation	Interview protocol Observation notes

4.2.1 Document Analysis

In order to answer the first research question (i.e., What are the prevailing academic language management statements in the international university?), I conducted textual analyses of the language requirements of the participating universities as posted on their

websites, the brochures of their EAP programs, in addition to internationalization strategies and/or statements. Pertinent data contained information regarding the institution's stated/implied conceptualization of internationalization, language requirements (language proficiency requirements for NNES students, language expectations for assignments), types of language support available, testimonials, and visuals. This set of qualitative data helped delineate a broad picture of internationalization of Ontarian HE and the major language management efforts at the institutional level.

4.2.2 Questionnaire

The quantitative component of this study is quasi-experimental and considered as an exploratory stage of hypothesizing the interrelationships between language beliefs and language policy (management). A questionnaire was administered to a total number of 93 students to collect data for quantitative perspectives to my second research question (i.e., Why do multiple stakeholders perceive the policy statements the way they do at the level of language beliefs?). Inclusion criteria for questionnaire participants were NNES Chinese-background international students who had been educated in EMI contexts outside of China for less than four years⁸ and enrolled in an EAP program to fulfil the language requirement.

Instrument description. The questionnaire comprises three parts: participant background information, the Language Policy (LP) subscale (containing eight items), and

⁸ The use of four years as a general cut-off point is to align with many Ontarian universities' exemption policy. That is, NNES applicants may qualify for an exemption from the English language requirement if they have studied in English for at least three years (full-time) in Canadian secondary education or four years in certain English-speaking countries/territories (e.g., Australia, Dominica, New Zealand, South Africa, UK).

the Language Beliefs (LB) subscale (containing 24 items) (see Appendix A-B). Firstly, the part of participant background intends to obtain information regarding gender, length of educational experience in Canada, previous overseas experience outside Mainland China, admitted university discipline, language background, and most recent scores on English language proficiency tests (if applicable). Next, the LP subscale is primarily based on Jenkins (2014) and other relevant research in the literature to capture some general trends from the questionnaire data before I conducted interviews for more in-depth understanding. Lastly, the LB subscale is adapted from Jeoffrion et al.'s (2014) questionnaire, encompassing items related to both “plurilingual posture” (i.e., holistic and experiential approaches to language learning) and “monolingual posture” (i.e., normative and decontextualized conception of language learning). Modifications were made to some of the items on both measures to gear them towards the specific questions raised in my research and to situate them in the specific context of academic English.

4.2.3 Interview and Classroom Observation

Interviews are generally considered an appropriate method to elicit “in-depth responses about people’s experiences, perceptions, opinions, feelings, and knowledge” (Patton, 2002, p. 4). In order to collect appropriate data in response to my third research question (i.e., How are the policy management statements implemented by the educators and students?) and elicit qualitative perspectives to the second research question, interviews were used as the primary method to obtain self-reported data generated by multiple stakeholders (students, teachers, and administrators). Supplementary classroom observations were also conducted to verify interview statements.

A total of 11 students and nine educators participated in the interviews (see Table 2 for an overview of educator and student participants with pseudonyms). The interviews are semi-structured, an approach deemed as appropriate for expanding, developing and clarifying participants' responses (Scott & Morrison, 2006). The interview protocols (see Appendix C-E) are developed from my literature review. The process of interviewing began upon receipt of the questionnaires from student participants who indicated they were willing to participate in an interview with the researcher. Interviews were conducted via the telephone, virtual communication, or face-to-face in a location and time preferred by the individual, such as a coffee shop, library, etc.

With regard to the educator participants, since there was no questionnaire for this group, they were contacted by their own program administrators via email after my research request was approved by the chair/director of the programs. Educators were asked to email the researcher directly regarding their interest in participating in the study and to receive further details (e.g., the Letter of Information and Consent Form, the interview protocol) prior to the interview. All interviews took place over a three-month period. The interview data generated nuanced insights into multiple stakeholders' perceptions of top-down language requirements/expectations, and their effects on language practices and language beliefs.

Table 2

Overview of educator and student participants with pseudonyms

Educator Participants*		Student Participants		Gender
1	Alison	1	Andi	Male
2	Barbara	2	Anna	Female
3	Catherine	3	Bowen	Male
4	Diana	4	Fangfang	Female
5	Ellen	5	Meilin	Female
6	Florence	6	Hao	Male
7	Gloria	7	Yanni	Female
8	Heather	8	Yingying	Female
9	Irene	9	Kai	Male
		10	Yufan	Male
		11	Wei	Male

Note. * Educator participants were given female pseudonyms to maximize anonymity.

Following interviews, classroom observations occurred within the chosen institutions in order to produce additional data on the observed, rather than self-reported, language practices in the multilingual classrooms. Time was negotiated between the (instructor) participants and the researcher. Since the main purpose of observing classrooms is to verify and better understand the language behaviours in the classroom, my field notes were primarily qualitative, focusing on interesting moments of language behaviours and individuals' interactions (e.g., students' translanguaging, instructors' implementation of the English Only policy within the classroom). These observations also provided an opportunity to follow-up with the instructors and students who participated in the

interviews. During onsite observations, I remained aware that, though language practices are generally considered compliant to patterns and norms, studying them is challenging as the observer constitutes as an extra participant in the domain and consequently modifies de facto language behavior - a phenomenon called as the observer's paradox (Labov, 1972). Therefore, I remained as a non-participant observer of classroom activities so as to minimize the impact of my presence.

In practical terms, it was most challenging to coordinate my research timeline within a 12-week semester of the EAP programs, from obtaining approval from the participating universities and programs, making arrangements for questionnaire completion, conducting interviews with students and educators, to the occurring of classroom observation. It was understandable that programs often preferred the data collection to occur in the middle of their semester when students were not overwhelmed with either settling down at the beginning of the semester or preparing for final exams towards the end of the semester. When I actually had the opportunity to sit in and observe some classes for a limited amount of time, I intentionally did not "stick" to my student participants all the time and had to move around so that other students and the instructor would not be able to identify which student(s) were my research participants, which made observations of targeted students extremely difficult. In addition, since no audio or video recording was used, I solely relied on my observations and my field notes of students' and instructors' language practices within the classrooms. All this led to a small number of observation hours yet protected the ethical principles of anonymity for my student participants.

4.2.4 Validity/Trustworthiness

The validity or trustworthiness of this MMR study is mainly interpreted per the transferability criteria as suggested in the previous section. While the statistical generalization of the overall research results is relatively limited, triangulation helps ensure the credibility of the findings; for the quantitative component itself, the validity and reliability of the instrument is reported and cautiously interpreted, given the exploratory nature of the developing and testing of the measures, described respectively below.

Triangulation. To avoid bias resulting from using a single method, observer, theory, or data source, Denzin (1978) suggests four types of triangulation: (a) data triangulation (i.e., the use of multiple sources of data), (b) theoretical triangulation (i.e., the use of several theories to interpret data), (c) methodological triangulation (i.e., the use of multiple methods), and (d) investigator triangulation (i.e., involving multiple researchers). In this study, the first three types of triangulation were achieved, with the last type (investigator triangulation) being not applicable due to the independent nature of the doctoral study. First, data were collected from multiple stakeholders (i.e., students, instructors, and management). Second, guided and united by the overarching theoretical framework of language policy, complementary theories (e.g., mechanism, plurilingualism, and educators' role definitions) were used to structure and analyze my data. Third, multiple methods (i.e., document analysis, interviews, observations, and questionnaire) were employed to collect data. The combination of multiple perspectives, theoretical lenses, and data collection methods contributed to a solid establishment of the internal validity of the qualitative component of the study.

Validity and reliability (of the quantitative component). The validity of the quantitative component (the questionnaire instrument) mainly relies on face validity and content validity. I grounded my instrument on an extensive search of the literature on language beliefs in general and learner beliefs about plurilingualism (my focus) in particular to establish the content validity. During the development of the instrument, I also consulted a number of friends (who are also Chinese international students in Canadian HE, hence comparable to my targeted student body in EAP) to complete the questionnaire and advise whether the questionnaire items looked valid to them in order to increase the face validity.

Related to the validity of the results is the issue of reliability which provides information regarding the extent to which the scores are accurate and free of systematic or random errors especially in educational measurement (Muijs, 2011). According to Muijs (2011), since quasi-experimental studies involve human beings in educational settings where random elements (e.g., mood, room temperature) could intervene, it is not uncommon that instruments can exhibit low reliability and indicate less clear relationships.

In this study, Cronbach's alpha, a , was computed to determine the reliability or internal consistency of the entire scale ($a = .58$), and the LP subscale ($a = .43$) and the LB subscale ($a = .43$). All a values here were below the minimum acceptable value of .70 (Muijs, 2011) in order to ascertain the internal consistency among the items on a certain measure. The low alpha values suggest that neither the entire scale nor each subscale represent a unitary construct, which could be due to the potential existence of multiple constructs being measured. Besides, Tavakol and Dennick (2011) remind researchers that "alpha is a property of the scores on a test from a specific sample of testees" and it should

be measured each time the same test is administered to a different sample (Streiner, 2003). This indicates that alpha scores of the same measure can vary with different groups of participants situated in different contexts.

Likewise, the research literature underscores the context-specific nature of language belief instruments due to different identifications of factors underlying the beliefs (e.g., Bernat & Gvozdenko, 2005; Nikitina & Furuoka, 2006). After all, language beliefs are inherently complex and subjective, and an individual is likely to hold ambiguous and sometimes even contradictory beliefs for various reasons during his or her completion of the questionnaire. As Sakui and Gaies (1999) point out, beliefs-related questionnaire items are “situationally conditioned” (p. 481) and participants may simply think of different situations when responding to the same question. They contend that this kind of inconsistency does not necessarily relate to the reliability of the instrument. They further assert that “[u]nless we limit ourselves to questionnaire items which explicitly target a very specific situation and ask about learners’ beliefs relative to that situation, we may have to accept the inherent limitations of questionnaire items – no matter how carefully developed, field-tested, and revised they may be” (p. 481). To offset this weakness, Sakui and Gaies (1999) stress that interview data must be included to triangulate questionnaire data (i.e., *what* beliefs) and provide valuable insights (i.e., *why* the participant has certain beliefs) that are otherwise not heard.

However, despite the reliability (and related validity) concern, I decided to maintain the current structure of the instrument for three reasons. First, it was not appropriate to delete certain items to increase the alpha values and improve the reliability, since my further examination of the alpha values with “if item deleted” on IBM SPSS Statistics (Version

20) revealed no significant difference. Second, it was not realistic for me to add more related items on the subscales either, because I was not able to gain multiple accesses to the same student population during a more extended period of field research in order to test out revised questionnaires until desirable alpha values were achieved. Lastly, the primary purpose of including the quantitative component in this study is to use the answers provided to individual items as meaningful information to facilitate a comprehensive understanding of language policy rather than summarize or stabilize the items onto a solid scale. Therefore, the data generated by the measure were used as exploratory results to compare with qualitative data of the study, not as conclusive results for the development or validation of the questionnaire measure itself. Being aware of the challenges of these issues on the trustworthiness of the results, I remained cautious during my interpretation of the quantitative results, my discussion of the converged results, and my acknowledgment of these limitations in the concluding chapter.

Generalizability. The generalizability of the findings of this research to a larger population is relatively limited, partly because of the validity and reliability considerations of the quantitative component and the intended purpose of the qualitative component of this study, which does not seek replication of data across different contexts in the first place but in-depth understandings of a unique phenomenon. The quantitative component (questionnaire) involved measures that are still exploratory and drew on a relatively small sample size ($N = 93$), both affecting the statistical generalizability of the findings to some extent and should be interpreted with caution. However, the restraint of statistical interpretations does not necessarily impede the research's analytical generalizability which instead relies on "the fit between the situation studied and others

to which one might be interested in applying the concepts and conclusions of that studied” (Schofield, 1990, p. 226). Therefore, my data are nonetheless reasonably representative and can contribute to a synthesis of literature with a focus on similar phenomena and discussion of future trends in the field.

4.3 Ethical Procedures

4.3.1 Recruitment Procedure

Firstly, following my obtaining of the ethical approval from the ethics board of my home university as well as the ethics clearance certificate from each participating institution, I sent the Letter of Information and Consent Form (see Appendix F) to the heads or directors of EAP programs deemed as potential research sites. They were requested to approve my access to the instructors, administrators, and students in their program. The heads or directors were also invited to participate in the study, although giving me access to potential participants did not oblige them to participate in the study. If they approved the study, they sent my Letter of Information and Consent Form (see Appendix G for instructor copy and Appendix H for administrator copy) to instructors and administrators within their programs.

Next, instructors were asked to contact me directly by email to indicate whether they would allow me to visit their class(es) to recruit students and whether they were interested in participating in an interview with me. Again, allowing me to visit their classes did not oblige them to participate in the interview. Upon receiving instructors’ permission to attend their class(es) to recruit participants, I visited the classes, briefly described the study to the students, and invited them to participate. These visits were

arranged at the end of class and students were informed of their freedom to leave the classroom if they wished. Students were provided with the Letter of Information and Consent Form (see Appendix J-K for student bilingual copies), as well as paper copies of the questionnaire which they typically completed at the end of class. Students who indicated at the end of the questionnaire their interest in participating in an interview and/or classroom observations were approached to make arrangements for the interview and observations.

For administrators, they were only asked about their interest in participating in an interview, because they, although with extensive teaching experience, were not teaching at the time of the research and could not be observed. In addition, I contacted university-level management (e.g., president, vice president, officer from the Internationalization Office) by sending them the Letter of Information and Consent Form (see Appendix H) directly by their public work emails but only one person volunteered to participate in the interview with me.

4.3.2 Consent Process and Language of Communication

Written consent was signed by participants with face-to-face interviews. For Skype or telephone interview participants, their participation was seen as an indication of consent. Likewise, students' completion of the questionnaire was an indication of their consent.

Generally speaking, international students in Canadian HE are competent in communicating in English. Nonetheless, the Chinese students were provided with the option of completing the questionnaire and interview in Mandarin, given the fact that Mandarin is the shared L1 between the participants and the researcher (myself) and likely

the preferred language of communication by the students. All student-related documents were provided in both English and Mandarin, with translations being verified by a PhD student (not involved in this study) who is a native speaker of Mandarin and proficient in both languages. Not unexpectedly, all students opted for Mandarin for completing the questionnaire and the interview, though there were numerous code switching and translanguaging moments throughout the interviews.

4.3.3 Risks, Benefits, and Safety

There were no known potential risks to the participants. I remained diligent throughout the research study to ensure confidentiality and anonymity of participants. Students were not required to disclose their name on the questionnaire and pseudonyms were used for the interviews and classroom observations for both students and educators. Given the relatively small number of educator participants, I also used female pronouns in my presentation and discussion of interview data (including participant quotations) in order to maximize their anonymity. Students were given the opportunity not to answer any questions on the questionnaire by choosing non-applicable (N/A) or prefer not to answer. In addition, participants were informed in the Letters of Information that they may opt out of the research study as they wish at any time by withdrawing their consent to participate.

4.4 Data Analysis Procedures

The process of data analysis started after the stage of data collection. These procedures include (a) preliminary organization based on raw data, (b) sorting out codes, patterns,

and themes through statistical techniques and content analysis, and (c) representing data in various forms (e.g., tables, figures, texts) (Creswell, 2007), as described below.

4.4.1 Quantitative Data Analysis Procedure

The quantitative data were analysed with univariate and bivariate statistical techniques via IBM SPSS Statistics (Version 20). To be more specific, univariate analyses were conducted to provide the means and standard variations of scores regarding the overall instrument, its two subscales, and individual items or variables that are particularly representative on the two subscales. It also generated an overview of participants' demographic (mainly language education-related background) data. As well, correlational analyses were completed to examine the interrelationship between variables in the LP subscale and variables in the LB subscale, in terms of both statistical significance (p value) and the degree to which two variables were related (effect size). As Muijs (2011) suggests, while the p value denotes the significance level, the effect size is very important information to indicate the strength of the relationship. The effect size criteria I used for interpreting Pearson correlation coefficients (Pearson's r) were Muijs' (2011) cut-off points, i.e., $<+/- .1$ weak, $<+/- .3$ modest, $<+/- .5$ moderate, $<+/- .8$ strong, and $>+/- .8$ very strong (p. 98).

4.4.2 Qualitative Data Analysis Procedure

While the student questionnaires constituted the quantitative data source for my inquiry, the qualitative data were derived from interview transcripts, observation notes, and documents that were either accessible from program websites or voluntarily supplied by the participating programs.

Data organization and preparation. All interviews (except one with an educator who requested not to be recorded) were audio-recorded and transcribed. In terms of the language(s) used for interview and transcribing, all educator interviews were conducted and transcribed solely in English; all student interviews were conducted in Mandarin as preferred by the student participants who sometimes nonetheless resorted to English words during the interviews, transcribed in Mandarin (or occasionally a mix of Mandarin and English) accordingly, and only translated into English when selected as illustrative quotations in this thesis. Contrary to the abundance of interview data, classroom observation data are rather limited due to practical and ethical considerations as suggested earlier, hence constituting a minor component of my qualitative data, mainly used to enhance my general understanding of the language realities in the EAP classroom. Regarding the documents used in the study, they were organized and categorized into university internationalization plans and English language proficiency requirements for further analysis.

Thematic content analysis. The qualitative data were analysed by thematic content analysis, and the process was facilitated by the use of the MaxQDA software (Version 12). With its focus on themes and frequency, thematic content analysis is most appropriate for my data, because my research objective is to investigate multiple stakeholders' perceptions of institutional language policy rather than examining the linguistic and cognitive features of their language per se. The process of thematic content analysis entails three stages: pre-analysis, exploration, and interpretation (Bardin, 2009). Following the pre-analysis stage which mainly involved data preparation and organization as mentioned above, I defined the codes at the exploration stage by allowing

the codes to arise from the text while drawing on existing theories or literature to help aggregate similar codes to form categories which were further converged into major themes. For instance, many participants explicitly described plurilingual students' use of L1 in EAP as "natural," "comfortable," and "inevitable," all of which formed basic codes in my encoding. These codes were frequently mentioned by the participants and aggregated with other similar codes to form the category of "rationales of L1 use" which in part contributed to the "Students' L1 as an asset" theme.

Once the basic coding was completed and categorized into themes, the interpretation stage involved a careful examination of the relationships among the preliminary categories as well as a diligent reference to my theoretical framework and prior research in literature. The flexibility of abductive reasoning especially helped me compare the similarities and differences between concepts that were interrelated and overlapping until the patterns became clear and the themes stood out on their own.

Finally, I reviewed my transcripts a few more times to juxtapose evidence and quotations with their corresponding themes. These statements provided a deep, situated, and nuanced knowledge of the complex, fluid, and sometimes contradictory nature of participants' attitudes and beliefs in their language learning and teaching, and help demonstrate outstanding congruence and discrepancies between language management, beliefs, and practice.

During the coding process, I used the MaxQDA software (Version 12) as a means to assist my coding. MaxQDA is praised as a "high-end code and retriever program" (Fielding & Cisneros-Puebla, 2009, p. 356) whose text retrieval function has been

especially useful for analyzing multilevel codes with each code being connected to relevant segments of text (Senyurekli & Detzner, 2008). This function largely increased the accessibility of the text, especially during the process of comparing coded segments and themes (Gibbs, 2009), and facilitated the exchange and reproduction of data (Bardin, 2009).

4.5 Summary

In this chapter, I justified how the philosophical underpinnings of my research (from a critical pragmatic perspective) inform my research methodology and complementary research methods employed to collect data. The content of the questionnaire instrument and interview protocol was described, and the analytic techniques applied to the quantitative and qualitative data were presented respectively. While the different methods employed contributed to the corroboration and trustworthiness of my data, limitations were also acknowledged. In addition, ethical considerations were discussed and data analysis procedures detailed. In the next two chapters, I present the results of my quantitative and qualitative data analysis respectively in terms of how they answered my research questions.

Chapter 5

5 Findings

Following the analytic procedures described in Chapter 4, I achieved two broad sets of results based on the quantitative and the qualitative data collected, respectively.

The quantitative strand of results helped depict a ‘portrait’ of the average international student in the EAP sector of Ontarian HE with respect to her language and educational background, general perceptions of language policy in the international university, plurilingual orientation in her language beliefs (based on univariate analyses), as well as significant correlations between her perceptions of language policy and language beliefs (based on bivariate analyses).

While the quantitative results delineated the general trends of students’ understandings of language policy, the qualitative results elucidated the role/status of language(s) and culture(s) as encoded in the internationalization agenda of the ‘international’ university (based on documents), and elicited EAP students’ voices and unfolded their lived experiences in the host community (based on interviews) around the central question of language policy. The qualitative results are represented in four major themes, i.e., (a) students’ L1 as a problem, (b) students’ L1 as an asset, (c) one-way socialization, and (d) two-way dialogue. Details are reported in the following sequence: univariate analysis results (Section 5.1), bivariate analysis results (Section 5.2), document analysis results (Section 5.3) and interview analysis results (Section 5.4).

5.1 Univariate Statistics Results

5.1.1 Participant Backgrounds

A total of 93 students (42 males and 51 females) participated in this questionnaire. The average length of experience in Canadian education was 11.18 months ($SD = 10.68$), suggesting four-fifths (81.7%) of students' Canadian education period falling between 0.50 and 21.86 months. With regards to their other international experience prior to their arrival in Canada, the majority (82%, 74 students) had had no previous international experience while the minority (18%, 16 students) indicated that they had had some short-term summer camp or study experience outside their home country. The majority of students (78%) were conditionally admitted to Business and Accounting and Finance programs (see Table 3 for details).

In term of their language profile, 85% of the participants spoke two languages (i.e., Chinese⁹ and English); 13% of the students spoke three languages (Chinese, English, and another language, e.g., Japanese, Korean). The students were also asked to rate self-perceived proficiency in the four skills of English (i.e., speaking, listening, reading, and writing) with value-assigned scores (1= basic proficiency; 2 = intermediate proficiency; and 3 = advanced proficiency). As Table 4 shows, the average score of this item was $M = 1.75$ ($SD = .40$), slightly below the point of 2.0 for "intermediate." The scores for each specific skill were reported as follows. In terms of speaking proficiency, 25 students

⁹ Chinese is used as a blanket term here to refer to Mandarin and other Chinese language varieties. Note that Mandarin is identified as the Chinese students' L1 in this study.

(28% based on valid data¹⁰) rated themselves as “advanced,” 64 students (70%) as “intermediate,” and two students (2%) as “basic.” This distribution matched the scores on the listening scale, i.e., 24 students¹¹ (27%) considered themselves “advanced,” 64 students (71%) “intermediate,” and two students (2%) “basic.” With regard to self-perception of reading and writing proficiency, there was a slight increase in population on both ends of the subscales. That is, 27 students (30%) and 29 students (32%) considered themselves as “advanced” learners in these two aspects respectively, but there were four students and six students identifying themselves at the “basic” level. Therefore, there were a smaller number of students in the “intermediate” level: 60 students (66%) in the reading skill and 56 students (62%) in the writing skill.

When it comes to the students’ prior experience with standardized language proficiency tests, 86 students (93%) indicated that they had written IELTS previously. For the seven students who did not take IELTS, two of them took TOEFL iBT, two CAEL, one COPE, and two chose “non-applicable.” Regarding self-reported IELTS scores (see Table 5), the range was from 5.00 (lowest) to 6.50 (highest), with $M = 5.76$ ($SD = .37$); 5.50 was the most common overall IELTS score, followed by 6.00 as the second common score. Put together, 93% scored between 5.50 and 6.00, which means that the majority of students did not meet the university’s minimum requirement (IELTS 6.50), which was the major reason for them to be in EAP programs.

¹⁰ All percentages used in this thesis are valid percent, excluding the missing values.

¹¹ The only discrepancy between the speaking and listening subscales was a missing value on the listening subscale by one student.

Table 3

Disciplines to Which Student Participants were Conditionally Admitted

Admitted university program	Number of students	Valid Percentage
Business	45	53%
Accounting & Finance	21	25%
Social Science	7	8%
Science	5	6%
Arts & Humanities	3	4%
Computer Science	2	2%
Engineering	1	1%
Information & Media Studies	1	1%
Total	85	

N = 85; Missing responses = 8.

Table 4

Summary of Mean and SD Scores of Students' Self Perception of English Language Proficiency

Items	Entire Sample		
	N	M	SD
English speaking	91	1.75	.49
English listening	90	1.76	.48
English reading	91	1.75	.53
English writing	91	1.75	.57
Overall proficiency	90	1.75	.40

Table 5

Summary of Self-reported IELTS Scores

IELTS Score	Number of Students (n = 75)	Valid Percent
5.00	2	3%
5.50	38	51%
6.00	31	42%
6.50	3	4%
Total	74	100%

Apart from background information, the questionnaire consisted of two subscales: the LP subscale (items 1-8), and the LB subscale (items 9-32). Both were based on a 4-point Likert scale (1= disagree strongly, 2 = disagree, 3 = agree, 4 = agree strongly), in addition to the provided option of “non-applicable or prefer not to respond” which was treated as missing value in my data analysis. Besides, reverse coding was applied to increase the truthfulness of participants’ responses to multiple questions; all items, including those that were reverse coded on the questionnaire, were reported so that higher scores indicated a positive response and low scores indicated a negative response. In addition, in order to simplify my description of the items, I collapsed categories into “for” (agree/strongly) and “against” (disagree/strongly) by using the cut-off point of 2.50. That is, based on the 4-point Likert scale, mean scores above the midpoint of 2.50 indicated plurilingual posture, and mean scores below the midpoint denoted monolingual posture.

5.1.2 The LP Subscale

As shown in Table 6, there was a general tendency towards a plurilingualism-oriented language policy for all LP items ($M = 2.98$, $SD = .29$), with all individual item means being above the mid-point 2.50, except for item 3 (“Academic English policy should require all students to follow Canadian academic norms in their written English work,” $M = 2.03$, $SD = .60$). This means that students adopted a plurilingual orientation in their perceptions of all language management (requirements or expectations), except academic writing. However, in sharp contrast to students’ agreement on the requirement of following Canadian academic norms in their written English, the highest mean among all scores was generated by item 4, i.e., “The international university should respect and tolerate students’ diverse ways of speaking English (e.g., accent, expression)” ($M = 3.52$, $SD = .67$), an agreement shared by 92% of the students. This significant contrast is one of the most interesting, but not unexpected, findings of the study, suggesting a major discrepancy between linguistic diversity as promoted by the “international” university and encoded in “speaking” (diverse ways of speaking English) and English hegemony as entrenched in the “academic” culture and guarded by “writing” norms (all students follow Canadian academic norms in written English).

With regard to the other items on the LP measure, most students also agreed that “English language proficiency tests cannot predict individual students’ academic success in an international university” (92%), “University language policy should encourage multilingual students to draw on their knowledge of several languages, not just English” (91%), and “English should not be used as the only medium of instruction and classroom interaction in an international university” (67%). The data indicated that the students did

not perceive English to be the sole conduit to academic success, and desired a more inclusive educational policy that took into account their holistic linguistic repertoire and adopted a more flexible approach to the language(s) of instruction and interaction in the classroom. That said, the majority (88%) were still satisfied with the language support provided by the EAP program or university, with a mean score rating of 3.15 ($SD = .62$).

Table 6

Summary of Descriptive Results of the LP Subscale

Items	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1. Standard academic English should be used as the only measure of academic English abilities for English language learners.	85	2.81*	.68
2. English should not be used as the only medium of instruction and classroom interaction in an international university.	89	2.82	.82
3. Academic English policy should require all students to follow Canadian academic norms in their written English work.	86	2.03*	.60
4. The international university should respect & tolerate students' diverse ways of speaking English (e.g., accent, expression).	90	3.52	.67
5. University language policy should encourage multilingual students to draw on their knowledge of several languages, not just English.	89	3.19	.66
6. English language proficiency tests (e.g., IELTS, TOEFL) can objectively measure an English language learner's academic English abilities.	90	2.86*	.82
7. English language proficiency tests cannot predict individual students' academic success in an international university.	91	3.51	.67
8. Overall, there are sufficient English support measures & resources for international students in the university.	89	3.15	.65
Overall score (Item 1-8)	64	2.98	.29

Note. * Reverse coding was applied to scores of negatively-keyed items; higher means indicate a stronger tendency towards plurilingualism-oriented policies, and vice versa.

5.1.3 The LB Subscale

The results based on the 24 items in the LB measure are presented in the following six categories (see Table 6) as suggested by Jeoffrion et al.'s (2014):

- Category 1: integrative versus instrumental attitudes,
- Category 2: flexible versus fixed/innate ability,
- Category 3: learning and communication strategies,
- Category 4: pragmatic versus normative language learning approach,
- Category 5: language transfer versus reliance on L1, and
- Category 6: decompartmentalized versus compartmentalized view of language learning.

Category 1: Integrative versus instrumental attitudes (items 9-14). Based on the frequency tables using valid values in this first category (see Table 7), most students agreed with the positively-keyed statements that “People who speak several languages are better able to adapt to other cultures” (90%), “I learn a language better when I like the country(ies) in which it is spoken” (92%), “Knowledge of English is not enough to prepare students for intercultural communication” (96%), and disagreed with the negatively-keyed statements that “It is possible to separate a language from its culture” (79%), “It is not necessary to know several languages in future workplace” (82%), and “Knowledge of academic English is enough for students to succeed in the international university” (86%). When reverse coding was applied, the overall score of this category was $M = 3.17$ ($SD = .33$), indicating a general endorsement of integrative attitudes towards L2 learning.

Table 7

Summary of LB Variables (Category 1: Integrative versus Instrumental Attitudes)

Items	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Category 1 Integrative versus instrumental attitudes			
9. People who speak several languages are better able to adapt to other cultures.	88	3.42	.71
10. I learn a language better when I like the country(ies) in which it is spoken.	88	3.35	.68
11. It is possible to separate a language from its culture.	89	2.85*	.63
12. Knowledge of English is not enough to prepare students for intercultural communication.	92	3.48	.58
13. It is not necessary to know several languages in future workplace.	85	2.93*	.53
14. Knowledge of academic English is enough for students to succeed in the international university.	92	3.11*	.69
Computed variable score (item 9-14)	79	3.17	.33

Note. * Reverse coding was applied to scores of negatively-keyed items; higher means indicate a stronger tendency towards plurilingualism-oriented policies, and vice versa.

Category 2: Flexible versus fixed or innate ability (item 15-19). In the second category (see Table 8), again, most students agreed with the positively-keyed items that “It is possible to speak a language fluently without having learned it during childhood” (78%) and “It is possible to learn a language successfully even with a learning disability” (92%), but disagreed with the negatively-keyed items that “Only people who have a natural talent for languages can learn additional languages successfully” (80%) and “A high level of intelligence is required to learn several languages” (73%). Put together, this category presented an average score of 2.96 ($SD = .50$), representing the students’ beliefs in

individuals' language learning ability flexible and socially constructed rather than fixed or innate.

Table 8

Summary of LB Variables (Category 2: Flexible Ability versus Fixed/Innate Ability)

Items	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Category 2 Flexible ability versus fixed/innate ability			
15. Only people who have a natural talent for languages can learn additional languages successfully.	84	3.02*	.73
16. It is possible to speak a language fluently without having learned it during childhood.	87	2.90	.68
17. A high level of intelligence is required to learn several languages.	85	2.92*	.83
18. It is possible to learn a language successfully even with a learning disability.	86	3.05	.55
Computed overall score (item 15-18)	77	2.96	.50

Note. * Reverse coding was applied to scores of negatively-keyed items; higher means indicate a stronger tendency towards plurilingualism-oriented policies, and vice versa.

Category 3: Learning and communication strategies (items 19-20). Concentrating on learning and communication strategies in terms of vocabulary memorization and grammar application (Brown, 2009; Horwitz, 1985, 1988), Table 9 suggests that 64% of the students agreed with “Memorizing vocabulary lists helps me to better understand and speak languages,” and 59% believed that “It is possible to speak a language fluently without necessarily having learned the grammar well.” The average score of these two items was $M = 2.70$ ($SD = .56$), indicating students' general agreement on the importance of L2 vocabulary memorization, but less so on L2 grammatical correctness, to their understanding of L2 and communication in L2.

Table 9

Summary of LB Variables (Category 3: Learning and Communication Strategies)

Items	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Category 3 Learning and communication strategies			
19. Memorizing vocabulary lists helps me to better understand and speak languages.	89	2.75	.77
20. It is possible to speak a language fluently without necessarily having learned the grammar well.	91	2.65	.75
Computed overall score (item 19-20)	88	2.70	.56

Category 4: Pragmatic versus normative language learning approach (items 21-24).

As Table 10 suggests, most participants agreed with positively-keyed statements that “It is possible to be understood in a foreign language even without a good accent” (86%) and “A multilingual person does not necessarily have perfect mastery of several languages” (86%), but disagreed with negatively-keyed statements that “The goal of language learning is to use the language like a native-speaker of the language” (76%) and “Being multilingual is to speak, understand, read, and write several languages perfectly” (59%). Taken together, the overall average for this category was 2.69 ($SD = .34$).

This data category indicated a notable ideological shift away from the “native-speaker” model towards the yardstick of intelligibility (as opposed to native accents and native-like mastery of languages) by acknowledging the dynamic and unbalanced or partial (not necessarily perfect) state of plurilingualism across and within languages.

Table 10

Summary of LB Variables (Category 4: Pragmatic versus Normative Language Learning Approach)

Items	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Category 4 Pragmatic versus normative language learning approach			
21. The goal of language learning is to use the language like a native-speaker of the language.	90	2.02*	.75
22. It is possible to be understood in a foreign language even without a good accent.	91	3.05	.60
23. A multilingual person does not necessarily have perfect mastery of several languages.	88	3.02	.55
24. Being multilingual is to speak, understand, read, and write several languages perfectly.	90	2.62*	.61
Computed overall score (item 21-24)	84	2.69	.34

Note. * Reverse coding was applied to scores of negatively-keyed items; higher means indicate a stronger tendency towards plurilingualism-oriented policies, and vice versa.

Category 5: Language transfer versus reliance on L1 (item 25-28). In the fifth category (see Table 11), the students mostly perceived language transfer in a positive light: 81% agreed that “A person who speaks several languages can learn others more easily” and 88% acknowledged that “When I learn another language, I compare it with my native language and culture”; the majority (89%) disagreed with the idea that “I do not use my knowledge of previously learned languages to help myself learn a new language,” indicating the importance of L1 in their L2 learning. However, almost half of the students (48%) agreed that they tried *not* to use translation, which revealed potential reluctance of or ambivalence towards the use of translation between L1 and L2 among the students. That said, the overall score based on these four items nevertheless suggested a plurilingual orientation with $M = 2.86$ ($SD = .30$).

Table 11

Summary of LB Variables (Category 5: Language Transfer versus Reliance on L1)

Items	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Category 5 Language transfer versus reliance on L1			
25. I do not use my knowledge of previously learned languages to help myself learn a new language.	92	3.01*	.60
26. A person who speaks several languages can learn others more easily.	86	2.93	.55
27. I try not to use translation (e.g., from English to Chinese) when learning another language.	90	2.46*	.60
28. When I learn another language, I compare it with my native language and culture.	88	3.06	.55
Computed overall score (item 25-28)	81	2.86	.30

Note. * Reverse coding was applied to scores of negatively-keyed items; higher means indicate a stronger tendency towards plurilingualism-oriented policies, and vice versa.

Category 6: Decompartmentalized versus compartmentalized view of language

learning (items 29-32). The last category (see Table 12) directly challenged the traditional view of languages being in their own compartments for plurilingual individuals. The majority of students (92%) agreed that “Every language (e.g., English, Chinese) and language variety (e.g., Cantonese) should be valued” and 78% considered that “It is possible to learn several languages effectively at the same time, even if they are from different language families (such as English and Chinese).” In terms of the negatively-keyed items, 46% disagreed with the statement “Learning several languages, especially when they are from different language families (such as English and Chinese), diminishes the level of mastery of each one,” and 52% with the statement “Students should use two languages (e.g., English and Mandarin) without mixing them up,” both indicating a close divide between advocates and opponents of the issues. Also, the

students' evenly divided beliefs on the relationship between L1 and L2 (as represented in the issue of language mixing as well as the debate on the additive or subtractive effects of bilingualism) appeared to resonate with the above-mentioned ambivalence towards L1 use in L2 learning in Category 5.

Taken together, the overall average of this category was 2.83 ($SD = .32$), suggesting a plurilingual orientation among the students, despite their uncertainty or ambiguity with regard to the potential conflicts between languages in the learning process and legitimacy of language mixing.

Table 12

Summary of LB Variables (Category 6: Decompartmentalized versus Compartmentalized View of Language Learning)

Items	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Category 6 Decompartmentalized versus compartmentalized view of language learning			
29. Every language (e.g., English, Chinese) and language variety (e.g., Cantonese) should be valued.	91	3.32	.61
30. Students should use two languages (e.g., English and Mandarin) without mixing them up.	87	2.53*	.81
31. It is possible to learn several languages effectively at the same time, even if they are from different language families (such as English and Chinese).	87	2.85	.66
32. Learning several languages, especially when they are from different language families (such as English and Chinese), diminishes the level of mastery of each one.	84	2.43*	.68
Computed overall score (item 29-32)	79	2.83	.32

Note. * Reverse coding was applied to scores of negatively-keyed items; higher means indicate a stronger tendency towards plurilingualism-oriented policies, and vice versa.

5.2 Bivariate Statistics Results

Correlational analysis results revealed the interrelationships between variables from the LP subscale and variables belonging to the LB subscale, in terms of both statistical significance (p value) and the degree to which two variables/groups are related (effect size). The effect sizes for Pearson's r varied between weak to moderate, with most of the significant relationships having an effect size slightly below or above the .3 (modest) cut-off point. These interrelationships are summarized into three groups:

- Group 1: English and other languages (see Section 5.2.1),
- Group 2: standard academic English and English varieties (see Section 5.2.2), and
- Group 3: the value of IELTS and EAP in relation to academic success (see Section 5.2.3).

Since the direction of the relationship has been somewhat inconsistent as argued by the research literature, a directional hypothesis was not made in this study and all correlations were based on two-tailed tests.

Overall, the correlation results highlighted the fundamental importance of recognizing linguistic diversity, valuing 'other' language knowledges in intercultural settings, legitimizing the fluidity and dynamics between languages, and acknowledging plurilingual students' capability of learning EFL/ESL as adults. More specific details are presented below.

5.2.1 English and Other Languages (Group 1)

The first group of correlations concerned identifying a number of LB variables that were associated with two LP items that addressed the question of the role of English and other

languages in the classroom: “English should not be used as the only medium of instruction and classroom interaction in an international university” (LP2), and “University language policy should encourage multilingual students to draw on their knowledge of several languages, not just English” (LP5).

As shown in Table 13, the former LP item (LP2, a perception that is anti English-only classroom policy) was significantly and positively correlated with five variables from the LB subscale, i.e., beliefs that “Knowledge of English is not enough to prepare students for intercultural communication” (LB12) with $r(88) = .27, p < .05$, “It is possible to speak a language fluently without necessarily having learned the grammar well” (LB20) with $r(87) = .24, p < .05$, and “A multilingual person does not necessarily have perfect mastery of several languages” (LB23) with $r(84) = .31, p < .01$, and negatively correlated with “Knowledge of academic English is enough for students to succeed in the international university” (LB14) with $r(88) = -.26, p < .05$, and “Learning several languages, especially when they are from different language families, e.g., English and Chinese, diminishes the level of mastery of each one” (LB32) with $r(80) = -.27, p < .05$.

This data set suggested that students’ rejection of an English-only classroom language policy was associated with beliefs that (a) monolingual English knowledge was inadequate for intercultural communication, (b) an imperfect L2 grammar and an imperfect mastery of languages did not necessarily affect fluency and communication, and (c) learning different languages at the same time did not necessarily diminish the level of mastery of each one. In addition, all correlations in this group were from weak to modest, except for the pair of LP2 and LB23 (modest to moderate) with $r(84) = .31, p < .01$.

The latter LP item (LP5, a perception that supports the incorporation of students' holistic linguistic repertoire) was significantly and positively correlated with the belief that "Knowledge of English is not enough to prepare students for intercultural communication" (LB12) with $r(88) = .35, p < .01$, and negatively correlated with the beliefs that "I do not use my knowledge of previously learned languages to help myself learn a new language" (LB25) with $r(88) = -.22, p < .05$, and "students should use two languages, e.g., English and Mandarin, without mixing them up" (LB30) with $r(88) = -.23, p < .05$, both having a weak to modest effect size. This meant that a person who viewed monolingual English knowledge as inadequate for intercultural communication and prior language knowledge and language mixing useful in L2 learning tended to support educational practices that drew on students' holistic linguistic repertoire.

Together, this group of correlations indicated a statistically informed relationship of an endorsement of values of linguistic diversity and recognition of the indispensable role of students' L1 and other languages in their learning to a supportive perception of a plurilingual classroom language policy and pedagogical approaches in the classroom.

Table 13

Correlations between Perceptions of English and Other Languages and Language Beliefs (Group 1)

	LP2			LP5		
	Anti English-only classroom policy			Holistic linguistic repertoire		
	<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
LB12	88	.27*	.012	88	.35**	.001
LB14	88	-.26*	.016	88	.01	.898
LB20	87	.24*	.024	89	.04	.681
LB23	84	.31**	.005	85	.06	.589
LB25	88	-.10	.380	88	-.22*	.040
LB30	83	-.03	.812	85	-.23*	.039
LB32	80	-.27*	.018	81	-.19	.082

Note. * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (two-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed).

5.2.2 Standard Academic English and English Varieties (Group 2)

This group of correlational results (see Table 14) are based on the following two LP items: “Standard academic English should be used as the only measure of academic English abilities for English language learners” (LP1), and “The international university should respect and tolerate students’ diverse ways of speaking English, e.g., accent, expression” (LP4).

To start with, the perception of standard academic English use as the only measure of academic English abilities (LP1) turned out to be positively correlated with beliefs that “Knowledge of academic English is enough for students to succeed in the international

university” (LB14) ($r(84) = .22, p < .05$), “Students should use two languages (e.g., English and Mandarin) without mixing them up” (LB30) ($r(80) = .28, p < .05$), and, to an even greater extent, “I do not use my knowledge of previously learned languages to help myself learn a new language” (LB25) ($r(84) = .37, p < .01$). These correlations indicated that people who viewed languages in a discrete and compartmentalized way (no positive transfer from L1 and no language mixing) were more likely to agree with the exclusive use of standard academic English to measure plurilingual students’ academic English abilities.

Meanwhile, the other perception that endorsed a respect for diverse ways of speaking English (English varieties) (LP4) had a modest to moderate correlation with beliefs that “It is possible to be understood in a foreign language even without a good accent” (LB22) ($r(88) = .34, p < .01$), and “Every language and language variety should be valued” (LB29) ($r(88) = .30, p < .01$); it also had a significant but weak to modest correlation with the belief that “Knowledge of English is not enough to prepare students for intercultural communication” (LB12) ($r(89) = .22, p < .05$). All these correlations were positive. They suggested that people who were tolerant of accents, valued language and language varieties, and viewed knowledge of multiple languages as beneficial to intercultural communication were more supportive of a language policy that was respectful and inclusive of diverse ways of speaking English.

When juxtaposed against each other, the two sets of correlations in Group 2 revealed opposite ideological orientations underlying the respective ‘exclusive’ and ‘inclusive’ aspects of the language policy in the international university.

Table 14

Correlations between Perceptions of Standard Academic English and Other English Varieties and Language Beliefs (Group 2)

	LP1			LP4		
	Standard academic English being the only measure			Respect diverse ways of speaking English		
	<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
LB12	84	-.06	.604	89	.22*	.036
LB14	84	.22*	.042	89	.05	.619
LB22	83	.13	.243	88	.34**	.000
LB25	84	.37**	.001	89	-.10	.373
LB29	83	.08	.487	88	.30**	.005
LB30	80	.28*	.012	84	-.03	.761

Note. * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (two-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed).

5.2.3 The Value of IELTS and EAP in Relation to Academic Success (Group 3)

The third group of correlations dealt with students' perceptions of IELTS (as the most common test they wrote before) to their academic success and overall satisfaction with the EAP language support in the university.

As shown in Table 15, the associated LB variables with the perception that "English language proficiency tests cannot predict individual students' academic success in an international university" (LP7) included four LB variables: "Knowledge of English is not enough to prepare students for intercultural communication" (LB12) with $r(90) = .29, p$

< .05, “It is not necessary to know several languages in future workplace” (LB13) (in a negative manner) with $r(84) = -.28, p < .05$, “It is possible to be understood in a foreign language even without a good accent” (LB22) with $r(90) = .31, p < .01$, “Every language and language variety should be valued” (LB29) with $r(89) = .23, p < .05$.

To provide more details, participants’ disagreement on the predictability of English language proficiency tests (LP7) was positively correlated with their belief about knowledge of English being insufficient for intercultural communication ($r(90) = .29, p < .01$), and negatively correlated with a belief in monolingualism in future workplace ($r(84) = -.28, p < .05$), both suggesting the benefits of plurilingualism or multilingualism for intercultural communication and future workplace in a globalized world. Also, disagreement on the predictive validity of English language proficiency tests was positively associated with an acceptance of accents, with $r(90) = .31, p < .01$, a stronger correlation (modest to moderate effect size) than the other pairs (weak to modest effect size), and a respect for every language and language variety, with $r(89) = .23, p < .05$. All these correlations signaled a plurilingual orientation in students’ perception of the language policy in the international university.

Concerning students’ overall satisfaction with the English support measures and resources in the university (LP8), it was significantly and positively associated with beliefs that “It is possible to speak a language fluently without having learned it during childhood” (LB16) with $r(83) = .30, p < .01$, “Every language and language varieties should be valued” (LB29) with $r(83) = .25, p < .05$, “It is possible to learn several languages effectively at the same time, even if they are from different language families, such as English and Chinese” (LB31) with $r(83) = .31, p < .01$, and, ironically but not

totally unexpectedly, “The goal of language learning is to use the language like a native-speaker of the language” (LB21) with $r(86) = .22, p < .05$.

Among all the correlations above, students’ overall satisfaction with language support had a stronger correlation (with modest to moderate effect size) with beliefs that young age is not a necessary condition for individuals to learn and speak an additional language fluently ($r(83) = .30, p < .01$), and individuals can learn multiple languages effectively at the same time ($r(83) = .31, p < .01$), than the rest of the variables. This suggested that the key factors associated with students’ satisfaction with the language support (especially the EAP programs) included recognition of students’ capability of learning English as an additional languages as adults and the possibility of learning multiple languages effectively at the same time, to a greater extent; as well as recognition of linguistic diversity and an enduring assumption of the native-speaker model, to a less extent.

With the exception of the “speaking like a native-speaker” assumption, the correlations in Group 3 featured a significant plurilingual orientation in students’ perceptions of the predictive validity of IELTS to academic success and their satisfaction of language support provided by the universities. This exception of the “speaking like a native-speaker” assumption indicates that the native-speaker model still existed as an outstanding barrier to plurilingualism as the alternative language policy.

Table 15

Correlations between Perceptions of IELTS and EAP and Language Beliefs (Group 3)

	LP7			LP8		
	English tests cannot predict academic success			Satisfaction with English support		
	<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
LB12	90	.29*	.007	88	.20	.057
LB13	84	-.28*	.010	81	-.07	.526
LB16	85	.10	.401	83	.30**	.006
LB21	88	.07	.523	86	.22*	.044
LB22	90	.31**	.003	87	.10	.348
LB29	89	.23*	.033	83	.25*	.021
LB31	85	.21	.056	83	.31**	.005

Note. * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (two-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed).

To sum up the bivariate statistics results, the three groups presented in this section provided statistical evidence as to the anticipated association between LP perceptions and LB variables as proposed by scholarship in the qualitative strand. However, it is noteworthy that the pair of LP8 (satisfaction with language support) and LB21 (a recognition of the native-speaker model) seemed to highlight thoughts that featured a monolingual orientation when compared with the other significant variables (featuring a plurilingual orientation) positively associated with student satisfaction. This contradiction suggested the long-lasting influence of the nativeness myth among the students, which will be discussed later.

Four LB items (LB12, 22, 25, 29) turned out to be of particular relevance to LP items, as demonstrated by their higher frequency and/or stronger effect in their correlations to the students' perception of LP from time to time. This suggested that it would be especially important to prioritize discussions on the topic of plurilingualism as embodied in the four correlations/interactions between LP and LB, i.e., the plurality of language knowledge in intercultural communication (as of LB12), greater tolerance of accents (as of LB22), the indispensable role of L1 in L2 learning (as of LB25), and respect of all language and language varieties (as of LB 29) among other related beliefs. These LB topics are further addressed in combination with student and educator voices in relation to the question of what constitutes appropriate language policy in order to promote optimal language support in the international university in Chapter 6.

5.3 Document Analysis Results

Document analysis results of this study depicted a two-fold academic language policy of the international university, with a prevailing dominance of English accompanied by an increased recognition of the role of *other* languages (and cultures) in the global prospect of internationalized HE at the level of language management. While the dominance of English was mainly enacted in the English language proficiency requirements for NNES applicants on the university websites and implemented in the EAP brochures and syllabi (see Section 5.3.1), the critical awareness of the status of other languages (and cultures) in relation to English appeared to be on the rise in universities' internationalization agenda (see Section 5.3.2).

In the following, I present these two themes that emerged from content analysis of various documents and website texts. Since there are three participating EAP programs, I refer to each EAP program and its hosting university as Program/University A, Program/University B, and Program/University C, respectively. Note that original texts from publically available documents are referred to in segments (i.e., words and phrases) rather than direct quotations for confidentiality/anonymity purposes.

5.3.1 The Dominance of English

The dominance of the English language was evident at both university and EAP levels. At the university level, academic English safeguarded the entry of university degree programs and monitored the academic language use throughout students' studies; at the EAP level, the taken-for-granted focus of EAP courses was to improve international students' English language proficiency and skills in accordance with university language standards for academic studies, as illustrated below.

The supremacy of the English language for admissions and assessment at the university level. To start off, although the Canadian universities host a multilingual student body and are dedicated to internationalization, they elucidated the supremacy of the English language by claiming themselves to be “English language” universities in their admission requirements for NNES students. Based on information from university websites, degree program admissions unanimously required proof of adequate English proficiency as measured by standardized language tests from NNES applicants in addition to academic qualifications. With IELTS academic being the most common option selected among the student participants (and likely the entire international student

body), the minimum overall band score accepted by the universities was IELTS 6.5 (with no part less than 6.0) or its equivalence from other recognized tests (e.g., TOEFL iBT 83), otherwise students needed to go through EAP and complete the highest level of EAP programs successfully in order to meet the language requirement in lieu of standardized tests. That said, students could apply for an exemption from this requirement if they had completed at least one full year program at an accredited English-medium university.

Apart from admissions, the English language would play an “important” role in the NNES students’ assessment after they embark on their programs. Proficiency in both spoken and written English was considered a must for them to engage and succeed. For example, a participating university clearly articulated the paramount importance of English language proficiency to students’ academic success, i.e., students must demonstrate their ability to “speak and write clearly and correctly” in English “in any subject” and “at any level.” The university stressed that this factor will be taken into account during the marking or grading process conducted by faculty who may either fail or return the work that shows “a lack of proficiency in English” to the student for revision. As such, the predominant status of (academic) English was established, engrained and reinforced in the admissions and assessments as part of the educational structures of the international university.

The focus on English language proficiency and skills at the EAP level. Going through expensive¹² EAP programs provided by the universities or their recognized partners was

¹² The tuitions can range from approximately 6,000 to 25,000 CAD, depending on the length (eight weeks to eight months) and nature of program (pathway or bridging).

the alternative route taken by some NNES students (my student participants) whose English language proficiency (e.g., IELTS 5.0 – 6.0) was close but not enough to meet the university language requirement (e.g., IELTS 6.5). At the EAP program level, based on websites, brochures, and internally-shared syllabi, the main focus of EAP courses was to improve international students' English language proficiency as required to succeed in the university, i.e., “confidence in reading, writing, listening and speaking skills” and “university study readiness to ensure success.” Examples included: listening for key ideas in lecture-style instruction and presentations, analyzing academic readings, practicing note-taking skills, and developing techniques for academic writing.

These learning outcomes were somehow considered as equivalent to IELTS 6.5. For instance, Program C claimed that students would be able to “speak and write at an IELTS 6.5 level” to satisfy the minimum requirement for full admission (without taking IELTS) after their successful completion of EAP programs. Also, Program B warned students of the consequence of an unsuccessful completion of EAP, i.e., the cancellation of university admission, as stressed on its website. Therefore, EAP seemed to be assumed comparable to IELTS or other recognized standardized language tests for the university's English language requirement.

5.3.2 The Rising Importance of Other Languages and Cultures

Despite the stressing of the English language proficiency on university admissions and assessment as presented above, the recognition of the importance of other languages and cultures was emerging and could be captured in three aspects as highlighted throughout institutional internationalization documents (e.g., university strategic plans, action plans,

mandate agreements): the context (visions of the “global” university), the rationale (values of inclusivity and diversity underlying the “global” vision), and the approaches (strategies in curriculum, teaching, and service to enhance international/intercultural understandings) in the process of internationalization.

The context: visions of the “global” university. The institutions shared a “global” positioning and prioritizing of internationalization in their strategic plans, with the common objective to become a “truly global/international university” and compete with other universities in a “global” or “world-class,” rather than national or continental, scope. Accordingly, the mission statements featured an ardent expectation for the graduates to become “global citizens” or “global leaders” who are fully aware of the local-global intersection, have globally or internationally relevant knowledge and skills, and can succeed in their career “anywhere” in the world. For instance, University A forefronted the promotion of “global citizenship and awareness” and enhancement of “international relevance” at the core of its shared “international vision.” Likewise, University B stressed its commitment to “equipping students to be internationally knowledgeable and interculturally competent,” University C also highlighted its “global orientation” in its academic programs, research, and student population and called upon its local-global communities to work towards building a university exemplifying global citizenship.

The rationale: values of inclusivity and diversity underlying the “global” vision.

Underlying the universities’ global vision were core values of inclusivity and diversity that applied to all areas of HE, which should supposedly include, yet did not specifically mention, the making of academic language policy. Based on document analysis results,

the institutions strived to create a supportive and inclusive environment for all students, of which the most visible indicator seemed to be international recruitment and enrollment. For example, University C emphasized the significance of recruiting outstanding applicants from both Canada and around the world to the establishment of “a diverse student body” from different geographical, linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Yet the institutions realized that international recruitment or enrollment itself does not ensure an inclusive community, and thereby called for a commitment to cultivating in the students an openness, curiosity, and genuine respect for linguistic and cultural differences, and promoting mutual (two-way) learning and enrichment that benefit all members of the integrated community. Similarly, University A reiterated the imperative and accountability for each member of its community to respect, embrace, nurture and celebrate diversity in its academic planning and activity. And University B advocated the community to “live in and with diversity.” All this was consistent with the mandates or missions of the institutions (and HE in general): to undertake “social responsibility” and “serve the public good.”

The approaches: strategies to enhance international/intercultural understandings.

Like most other institutional initiatives or changes, internationalization requires collective efforts in every aspect of HE. Driven by the global vision as well as influenced by the core values of inclusivity and diversity as suggested above, the institutions realized that they must provide a full range of international learning opportunities, resources, and services, locally and globally, to develop and enhance students’ international/intercultural understandings in order to facilitate the internationalization process. The most common approaches or strategies used or proposed to enhance international/intercultural

understanding among the faculty, staff, and students involved the fundamental areas of curriculum, teaching and learning, and services in HE.

With respect to curriculum of academic programs, the strategies promoted by the institutions included: (a) integrating language learning into curriculum, (b) adopting a broader view of social, cultural, historical, and political issues, (c) teaching students “transferable knowledge and leadership skills for the 21st century” (e.g., critical thinking and communication skills), and (d) developing students’ ability to analyze problems from multiple perspectives, all of which served the overarching goal of preparing students for living and working in a globally interconnected world. Take the broader perspective for example. University C suggested an “integration of a much broader frame of reference” in its Business programs as well as a broadening and deepening of “linkages with the broader community.” Similarly, University A advocated for the provision of more “experiential learning opportunities that occur beyond campus in the broader community.” Take language learning opportunities for another instance. University C realized that most of its student body was not capable of studying in another language, and suggested increasing the number of students who take language courses and the number of graduates who can speak multiple languages. University B also highlighted the importance of foreign language learning opportunities for the students’ development of intercultural sensitivity.

Regarding teaching and learning, it was suggested that more professional development opportunities (e.g., language learning, intercultural training) be provided to faculty and staff so that they could develop cross- and intercultural competence in order to work with diverse students both at home and abroad. In other words, in addition to traditional

international learning abroad opportunities (e.g., international partnerships, exchange, study tours, study abroad programs) as if the ‘international’ or ‘intercultural’ encountering existed ‘out there’ in foreign countries, the universities in this study demonstrated an increasing awareness of opportunities for valuable international learning *at home*. For example, there were efforts to pair up language learning students for peer support. There were also sociocultural events provided for domestic and international students to mingle and network. The universities believed that these opportunities could provide “a transformative cross-cultural experience” to domestic students by exposing them to the “culture, perspective and ethos” of international students in the universities’ own ‘backyard’. Furthermore, the universities planned to offer more incentives of intercultural learning. For instance, University A proposed to develop an “international learning certificate” to be inclusive of language learning opportunities for staff and faculty, and intercultural learning opportunities (e.g., intercultural workshops) for domestic students. University C even planned to provide financial support for language study to expand students’ language and cultural learning.

Lastly, the services in some institutions were starting to pay more attention to the unique needs of international students and provide a wide array of supports to meet their language and cultural needs, including resume workshops in different languages, immigration support, socializing opportunities to practice conversational English and develop networks, and cultural transition programs. Together, proposed initiatives in the areas of curriculum, teaching and learning, and service collectively served the goal of developing global citizens who are internationally literate and interculturally competent

through a meaningful international educational experience in a diverse and inclusive community.

The inclusion of (inter)cultural learning outcomes in EAP syllabi. In keeping with the rising importance of cultural knowledge and interculturality as claimed in university internationalization documents, (inter)cultural learning outcomes were incorporated in the syllabi provided by Program A and Program B (internal documents were not provided by Program C). For example, Program B explicitly included understandings of “complex cultural references” in the reading and listening outcomes as well as abilities to “compare and contrast personal and cultural perspectives” in the speaking outcomes in its syllabus. What’s more, it highlighted the cultural component in a separate section of sociocultural outcomes on its syllabi where students were expected to develop the ability to “identify and respect common Canadian cultural and academic expectations and norms,” demonstrate intercultural knowledge and awareness, and engage “effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations.”

Likewise, Program A acknowledged the importance of both “linguistic and socio-cultural knowledge and skills for successful communication in academic contexts” in its course description and incorporated an understanding of “cultural and discipline-specific references” in the educational objectives and development of intercultural competence in its syllabus. Therefore, it becomes clear that EAP continued to justify and serve the broader university’s language demands by promoting an exclusive focus on English and the sociocultural norms in the host community whilst it was starting to work towards developing students’ interculturality (e.g., by understanding the complexity in cultural references, demonstrating intercultural knowledge, and reflecting on cultural differences

and similarities). That said, the emphasis or onus appeared to be placed on the students to learn about the local culture with little mention or affirmation of the students' L1 language and cultural identities as potential assets to contributing to the local (academic) culture.

To sum up, the two-fold language management of the international university captured a dynamic, and sometimes disrupted, equilibrium between English and other languages within the internationalization rhetoric. That is, the admissions and assessment of the university perpetuated and reinforced the privilege of English in the educational structures of HE and defined the primary focus of EAP programs, whilst the global orientation of the university made it imperative to reflect on the potential marginalization of other languages and cultures. This reflection was evident in the EAP syllabi (sociocultural component) where international students were expected to demonstrate openness and respect for other cultures, develop intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and conduct effective and appropriate intercultural communications.

5.4 Interview Analysis Results

The main themes emerging from the thematic content analysis of interview transcripts and supplementary observation notes encompassed a spectrum of facilitators and impediments to international students' learning of academic English, including:

- perceptions of students' L1 as a problem (see Section 5.4.1),
- perceptions of students' L1 as an asset (see Section 5.4.2),
- emphasis on a one-way academic socialization for the international students (see Section 5.4.3), and

- calling for a two-way dialogue to facilitate internationalization from within (see Section 5.4.4).

While the first two themes focused on the language dimension, the latter two themes addressed the sociocultural dimension of the students' language learning experience. In the following sections, I illustrate each of the four themes with supporting details and voices from educators and students. Quotations of educators are based on verbatim transcriptions, and quotations of students are based on my translation of original Mandarin.

5.4.1 Students' L1 as a Problem

The predominant language policy in the international university manifested a primarily monolingual orientation which was encoded in both the educators' promotion of the "English-only" language policy in the classroom and the centrality of conforming to standard academic English and writing norms for academic success. The Chinese students were required or expected to intentionally keep away from Mandarin and unlearn their previous Chinese ways of writing so that they could "think in English" and write English in a way that could "appease" the professors in the university. In this section, I report findings with regard to the English-only policy for language use in the multilingual classroom and the L1 interference perspective (among other reasons) underlying the policy, as well as the conforming approach to teaching and learning standard academic English and writing norms, which was resisted or negotiated to varied extent in students' actual speaking and writing.

The English-only policy in the multilingual classroom. EAP educators, as language managers in the classroom, usually declared the English-only policy at the beginning of the courses, but it was clear that the individual educators had the autonomy to decide how strict they wanted to be in their enforcement of the policy and regulation of students' deviant language use. In fact, there are two representative positions among the educators: English only and no translation (the strict version), and L1 as the last resort (the compromised version). The two positions shared the consensus of the exclusive use of English in the classroom but differed in terms of strictness in the enforcement of the English-only policy.

To provide more details, educators who adopted the former position (English only and no translation) often regulated the students to use English exclusively for classroom activities by devices ranging from friendly reminders to more severe means such as deducting students' participation marks. However, the majority of educators held the latter position (L1 as the last resort), encouraging students to use English as much as possible whilst tolerating students' use of L1 or translation for a better understanding of the content and/or clarification purposes, if needed. The following remarks from an instructor described a typical situation of EAP students' everyday language use in group and independent work.

Barbara: Most Chinese students from my experience speak English in class, and as soon as they walk out the door, they flip back to Chinese. ... In class, if you're doing group work, they'll start in English, but then as things get like less formal, the teacher is not beside you, they will use Chinese to communicate to each other. When they're reading or doing independent work, you'll see like on their paper, they'll translate an English word into Chinese on the paper. They will just write the Chinese word beside it. So instead of writing a definition in English or a synonym, they're just writing the Chinese word to translate it.

These language behaviors involving students' L1 (e.g., communicating with each other in L1, and translating English words into L1 as notes) were frequently observed yet seen as understandable yet “counterproductive” to the students' L2 learning outcomes by the educators, regardless of the strict or compromised position they might assume. The L1 interference perspective is the most commonplace among the educators who deemed students' L1 accountable for their L2 grammar mistakes and pronunciation problems. Educators also provided other reasons to justify the English-only policy which including (a) the monolingual policy met the language expectation of international students as well as the English-speaking (*not* international¹³) university, (b) English was the one and only choice of common language of communication in a multilingual/international context, and (c) the policy could increase students' opportunities to practice spoken English as the EAP classroom was deemed as the only venue where Chinese students speak English.

To be more specific, many mentioned that the difference of grammatical structure in English and Mandarin could cause a number of grammatical problems in the students' use of English, especially in terms of organizing the word order and selecting the tenses. For instance, students were often unaware of the occurrence of Chinese English in their writing and would only realize and ‘see’ the problems when their instructor marked their work. Also, students had common patterns in misuse of the different tenses (e.g., blurt out the verb in the present tense when telling a story in the past) or sometimes failed to understand and/or utilize the present/past/future perfect tenses. As a result, students might “speak English with Mandarin grammar” (Diana).

¹³ The participants viewed the universities as ‘international’ mostly due to the increased recruitment and presence of international students but ‘not international’ in the aspect of language policy.

Pronunciation stood out as an issue that was more difficult to “fix” when the students had an L1 background (Mandarin) which was a non-cognate language (iconographic) to English (alphabetic). As perceived by an educator, “there are huge differences obviously. ... They have to learn an alphabetic system rather than an iconographic system. They have to learn to pronounce letter combinations, which is not the way it works in [pronouncing] Mandarin [characters].” Admittedly, certain sounds (e.g., voiced and unvoiced “th”) in English were not found in Mandarin and students had to change the muscles in their mouth to learn those new sounds. Also, they needed to learn to pronounce letter combinations, which is not the case in Mandarin characters (despite the fact that Pinyin, the official Romanization system for Mandarin, is introduced to children at the very early stage of Mandarin teaching and learning). Therefore, L1 “creates habits that are hard to overcome when speaking the next language” (Alison). It was based on these concerns that most of the educators interviewed stated that students should intentionally keep away from their L1 in all activities, namely, they should speak English all the time with their same-L1 peers even in all-Chinese groups, consult monolingual English dictionaries (as opposed to bilingual or English-Mandarin ones), make notes in English only, avoid translation, and eventually develop an ability to “think in English” (Alison).

However, L1 interference was inherent among the students who usually consciously worked against the interference influences and focused on the pivotal importance of their L1 in their learning of L2 and subject content delivered in L2. For instance, students found reading subject (e.g., psychology, math) materials in their L1 helpful for them to make cognitive connections between the new knowledge and their prior knowledge. Likewise, they protested against the total rejection of translation and preferred to use an

English-Chinese dictionary or a bilingual dictionary that offers both English and Chinese explanations of the vocabulary. In addition, many international students admitted that they went through a great deal of “thinking in Chinese” prior to and throughout their writing stages. Therefore, the aforementioned goal of trying to get the students to “think in English” became virtually unattainable for most students in EAP programs. In fact, despite the numerous efforts made and devices employed to exclude students’ L1 use in the classroom, students would naturally flip back to their L1, whisper to each other in their L1, or speak English only when the instructors were upfront and immediately switch back to their L1 once the instructor stepped away. After all, as Catherine admitted, “you can only police it so much.”

Apparently, although the universities were advancing the internationalization process, the notion of the “international university” had largely been reflected in the linguistic and cultural diversity in the student and faculty population, but not in its language policy and practice in formal teaching and learning activities. As inferred from an instructor’s comments quoted below, the international university did not necessarily promote a “multilingual” orientation.

Diana: It’s an international university because it’s made up of people from different nationalities, but the language of instruction [or] the language of research it’s going to continue to be English. ... If it’s something for an international university, it sounds like you’d want to be multilingual. But in this case, my students are going to an English-only university. So yes we want to keep the language in the classroom as English as much as we can.

Accompanying the English-only classroom language policy was an absence of drawing on students’ L1 and language knowledge other than English, as unanimously mentioned by the students. For instance, Yufan stated that “my university does not encourage the use

of multiple languages in communications inside or outside the classroom or in student writing. I don't think the university would encourage me to speak or use Chinese in any aspect.” Indeed, as argued by another student Bowen, “there is no place for our knowledge of mother tongue when we are not even allowed to use Chinese occasionally in class.”

Conforming to standard academic English and writing norms. While the policy for spoken English (language of instruction and interaction) allowed for occasional breach without punitive consequences, when confronted with the language requirement of the English university, most educators and students took a pragmatic and conformist approach to written English (learning the privileged language and writing forms in Canadian academic culture), albeit not without ambivalence and tensions. At the same time, they lauded the value of EAP programs in which they were situated, but questioned the use of IELTS as an objective measure of academic English language proficiency or a predictor of academic success at the university. To provide more details, I present data that related to (a) the perceived sovereignty of standard academic English and writing norms, (b) IELTS versus EAP in relation to academic success, and (c) tensions and mismatched understandings in students’ L2 acculturation, in the following.

The perceived sovereignty of standard academic English and writing norms in L2 academic acculturation. The students often had mixed feelings towards their L2 academic acculturation. In general, the students positively acknowledged the benefits of conforming to the use of standard academic English (e.g., spelling, grammar, punctuation), writing conventions (i.e., APA), and writing style (i.e., choice of words, sentence structure, and paragraph structure) in the loosely defined ‘Canadian’ academic

culture so that they could not only succeed academically, but also achieve a better understanding of the differences in language and literacy across cultures and contexts and maximize their study abroad experience. For instance, students viewed the writing norms as good guidelines which provided “systematic,” “rigorous,” and “straightforward” instructions for novice student writers new to Canadian HE and made it easy for both the writer and the reader to navigate the text; a student (Wei) lauded the exposure to different norms for helping him better understand the content of learning as well as educational differences between China and Canada. However, the potential values of reflecting on differences across cultures and contexts were often shadowed by the gatekeeping power of standard academic English and writing norms, as succinctly captured in a narrative that students “have to play the game” as suggested by Catherine below.

Catherine: They [international students] need to understand what writing is accepted. It’s not always about what is right or wrong; it is what is accepted. ...I think it is partially finding the balance where they are able to write something that is still true to them, but enough that they can appease the person that is holding the power over them. There is always going to be someone that has that power if it’s an instructor or an editor. We are not just writing for ourselves ... You have to play the game a bit.

Viewing academia as a “game” field, educators such as Catherine viewed writing norms being “not always about what is right or wrong” but “what is accepted.” Comparably, Alison, another educator, described the privileged language and writing norms as “a dress code” for the specific university setting which “simplified” things with “very little room for flexibility.” In this sense, as Catherine suggested above, students should learn the expectations of what kind of writing is accepted and learn how to write that particular style in order to “appease the person [and the English-only system] that is holding the power over them.” After all, students had to be “realistic,” because “professors will not

be inclined to be liberal about those things” (Alison) and “there is not much interest in other types of English” (Catherine) other than Canadian, British, and American English. Therefore, educators felt obliged to point out students’ non-standard use of English even if “it does not impede comprehension for the most part” (Alison) to help the students conform to the standard English and writing norms so that they could pass the assessment and get the marks they need.

This view was well echoed by the students who also regarded standard academic English and privileged writing norms as “rules” by which professors, who might lack knowledge of multiple languages and language varieties and literacies across cultures, abide in order to evaluate/assess diverse students’ assignments “fair and square.” For example, students mentioned the dilemma between an idealistic prospect of all English varieties to be respected and accepted by the university and the practical challenges of enacting and implementing such policies in an English-medium university. As Kai suggested, “Although I really hope that English varieties will be appropriately accommodated, it would be very difficult for professors and the university to implement such policies.”

IELTS versus EAP in relation to academic success. Although IELTS and EAP safeguard the entrance into the university as two parallel routes to the international university, the participants valued them rather differently. Both educators and students thought highly of the value of the EAP programs in terms of teaching students more academically focused language and study skills for the university than IELTS which was perceived as a generic standardized test comprised of “a mix of general English and attempted EAP” (Gloria), hence conveying questionable validity as a measure of students’ language proficiency and a predictor of their future academic success.

To be more specific, while some educators and students admitted that IELTS could provide a general and reasonable measure of students' English language proficiency and academic capabilities, they widely questioned the use of IELTS as the gatekeeper for university admissions on the grounds that (a) IELTS is only a snapshot of a student's L2 proficiency which may fluctuate overtime, (b) IELTS may test test-taking strategies more than language proficiency itself, (c) IELTS requires stress and time management skills which may severely affect a student's performance on the test, (d) IELTS may have limited relevance to actual university learning, and (e) IELTS focuses on general and simplified academic English rather than discipline-specific language as required in actual university learning.

The most frequently mentioned problems of IELTS among the points listed above were the influence of test-taking strategies on students' performance on the test and its limited relevance to actual university learning. Like most other tests, IELTS was considered "...not just about proficiency. It is about knowing how they will try to trick you and how these tests work" (Catherine). In some extreme cases, "students might even be able to figure out the correct answers to the questions without necessarily understanding the content of text by using some tactics in their reading comprehension" (Fangfang). The IELTS testing mechanism was deemed unrealistic or irrelevant to real university study, as Gloria questioned below.

Gloria: Now if you think about it, when in university, would you ever have to sit down to a cold topic and write about it? It's never. That is not what we do at university. It is the way we test. ... Listening test, for example, a listening test is—they listen to a lecture, they take notes and straight after the taking the notes, they do a comprehension test. But in reality, that is not how a lecture works. You take notes, then you are meant to go home, and you revise those notes, and then you study those notes before the test and then you read a textbook as well. So the

textbook is the main thing, and the lecture gives supplementary [information] or it interprets the textbook. So what we are doing in testing is not real.

This perception resonated with the majority of the participants who acknowledged a wide array of extraneous factors (e.g., stress, time management) that would affect the test scores. Ultimately, both students and educators viewed work ethic and attitudes towards studies as far more crucial factors than IELTS in association with academic success in the long term.

Compared with institutions' use of IELTS to identify students' language proficiency readiness for university study, participants considered the language support offered by the EAP programs more beneficial for students' L2 academic acculturation. Students particularly lauded the usefulness of writing "templates" (e.g., the "hamburger" template of essay writing) and samples in their learning, but were not particularly aware of potential grammar problems in their writing, an issue raised by the educators as persistent and attributed to L1 interference. From the students' perspectives, learning standard academic English and the writing norms was a "natural learning curve" (Wei) and the most important factors contributing to academic success included sufficient learning resources (e.g., website links and materials) provided by instructors, the individual efforts made (e.g., looking for more information and asking questions for clarification) made by the students themselves, motivation, and some extent of familiarity to the writing forms in the students' prior high school education.

The students' efforts and motivation were well recognized by their instructors in most cases. Although academic acculturation entailed "a steep learning curve ... [with] some growing pains" (Diana) especially in the beginning when the academic norms or concepts

(e.g., paraphrasing, plagiarism) were new to them, the instructors recognized the conscious efforts made by the students. As Catherine pointed out, the students tried hard to “work against writing in a fashion that might be more appropriate in China” and “provide a paper that they thought was acceptable in Canada” and as a result, most students became “quite adjusted to, quite knowledgeable of Canadian academic writing.” To end this section with an illustrative comment made by an educator on the value of EAP versus IELTS to university study, “[using] the IELTS [and] going directly into university does not mean that the student is ready for an academic environment. I think coming to a language program, they learned so many other things that IELTS cannot teach them to get them ready for the academic environment” (Barbara).

Perceived tensions and mismatched understandings. The perception that students were generally performing well should not obscure the tensions and conflicts that arose during their academic acculturation in L2. The students were often shocked at the beginning of their course by the low marks they received on their essays but afterwards were able to reflect on cultural differences of rhetorical conventions and improve their writing to meet the expectations of their instructors. The most frequently mentioned confusion experienced by these students (and their instructors) was *what counted as clear and logical* in Canadian academic writing. For example, a student, Meilin, expressed her initial confusion and the subsequent development of her understanding of cultural differences in the following:

The main challenge is to change the way we think, to change the implicit Chinese way of thinking. ... When I started the program, I received really low marks in my writing. I asked my teacher why. She left question marks on many of my paragraphs and told me she could not understand what I wrote. But I thought that I conveyed meaning quite clearly. So I explained my ideas once more in greater details to my teacher. And then my teacher said, “Why didn’t you do so in your

essay? ... The main reason is that I did not convey the meaning in a simple and explicit way. [My translation from original Mandarin]

As suggested in the above quotation, Meilin, like many other students, struggled at the beginning of the course with essay writing and did not understand why what made sense to herself (“I thought that I conveyed meaning quite clearly”) did not make sense to her instructor (“she could not understand what I wrote”). Fortunately, she was able to seek clarifications from her instructor and conduct her own contrastive rhetoric analysis. In her understanding, the “Chinese way of thinking” (as reflected in writing) was “implicit,” and the Canadian way would require students to “convey the meaning in a simple and explicit way.” As she continued to elaborate on these cultural differences in her essay writing, she seemed to consider the Chinese way of writing inductive and the Canadian way deductive as she talked about how she learned to tell her readers the most important information at the beginning of writing (theses in the first paragraph and topic sentences in the main body), as opposed to the Chinese way of keeping the most important information at the end of writing. She admitted that the realization of cultural differences on the parameters of clarity made a big difference in her improvement of writing. Although she told me that she appreciated and connected with her L1 rhetorical conventions, she had to “change” her personal and cultural preference and conform to L2 writing norms to succeed academically in the EAP program and university.

At the same time, some instructors also experienced difficulty in understanding why many Chinese students wrote in a contradictory logic. For example, viewing the students’ logical reasoning as a major problem due to the cultural differences in writing, Florence stated that the students needed to understand that “the logic of writing in English is

different from the logic of writing in Chinese” which applied to the structure of paragraphs and sentences. She further compared the difference to the incompatibility between the Windows and the Mac systems, suggesting that students should not apply their Windows (Chinese logic of thinking) mentality to Mac (Canadian logic of thinking), and students needed to consciously work against their “Chinese logic of explaining things” in order to improve their writing in Canadian HE. This view was reiterated by another instructor, Gloria, who remarked on this aspect of cultural difference by giving an example as follows.

Gloria: With the Chinese students, what you often get is a contradiction in the conclusion. So they will have a strong argument through their writing, and then the conclusion will say, “of course, this is case by case, and many people believe the opposite.” So it’s not that okay. You have done your research. You have found the answer. Now you kind of just write the answer. [But] They will often contradict themselves.

It can be inferred from the juxtaposition of the students’ (e.g., Meilin) and instructors’ (e.g., Gloria, Florence) accounts that the gap of understanding might be in part attributed to a lack of CLA. On the one hand, the students’ knowledge and skills of L2 academic writing (at postsecondary level) was only starting to develop as they transitioned from high school to HE. They had an insufficient amount of experience in ESL writing in Canadian HE, and their English proficiency was mostly in the intermediate level. It was natural and inevitable for them to draw on prior knowledge (L1 rhetoric conventions) in their learning and navigation of L2. On the other hand, the EAP instructors were working with a student body whose L1 and culture they had little knowledge of. Without some basic knowledge of the students’ L1 and/or guidance on how to engage students to conduct compare-and-contrast analyses of writing norms, the instructors risked depositing the knowledge of L2 academic writing into the students as passive recipients

(students had to “change” or work against their L1 rhetoric without a critical examination of the power relations imbued in texts).

Indeed, like Meilin, many students frequently talked about how their writing practice was regulated by the marking criteria which treated their ways of writing as the “wrong” ways, and penalized them with rather low marks, which resulted in students’ doubt of their own knowledge of writing and fear of expressing their own thoughts. They agonized at their Chinese logic of writing being deemed irrelevant and illegitimate to academic writing in Canadian universities, and became resistant to the canonical device that suppressed students’ individuality as expressed in their different ways of writing, and overall, an impression that “adjustment was a forced submission to the only standard that counts [in the Canadian academic culture]” (Anna). As can be seen in the student quotation below, Yingying contended that “what I feel as logical does not make any sense to them [professors].” She further argued that the Canadian instructors should “learn a little bit about other ways of thinking and writing” in order to better understand students’ writing.

Yingying: Canadian professors should really learn a little bit of the Chinese way of thinking and writing. For example, I feel what I wrote is very normal and logical, but our professors could not understand it and found it very strange. But for me, I feel what I wrote makes sense based on my logic. I think if Canadian professors learn a little bit [of the Chinese way of thinking] and understand the logical reasoning of Chinese or other peoples, they will better understand the content when grading essay[s]. For Chinese students, we also should try to learn their ways of thinking and adapt to their ways as much as possible. After all, we live in this social environment, and it is not possible to maintain our own style, [because] ‘When in Rome, do as the Romans do.’ [My translation from original Mandarin]

Yingying’s request sounded reasonable and not radical, as she was not asking for changes of the institution’s standards of writing (“When in Rome, do as the Romans do”) but to

seek “a little bit of” respect and understandings of differences and English varieties instead of stigmatizing them. Unfortunately, there was not enough dialogue or communications on this issue to honor the students’ voice and accommodate their needs.

To summarize the first theme (Students’ L1 as a problem), the language policy for the EAP classroom featured a monolingual orientation as represented by the prevalent English-only policy for plurilingual students’ language use and the conformist approach to facilitating their L2 academic acculturation. Although the language policy was maneuvered differently by different individual instructors, the students were seldom encouraged to draw on their L1 or other language knowledges, whether cognitive or linguistic, in any respect, likely leading to the students’ perception of the international university as a place that marginalizes their L1 language and identity. However, consistent with the two-fold language policy as found in document analysis that cast critical reflections on the advancing the internationalization agenda and the increasing presence of NNES students, interview analysis results also elicited voices from participants that questioned the exclusive and hegemonic nature of the monolingual orientation, as reported below.

5.4.2 Students’ L1 as an Asset

Despite the prevailing monolingual approach described above, on the rise was an awareness of students’ L1 as an asset among the participants. They did not necessarily deny the pragmatic value of the monolingual approach under current circumstances, but at the same time were hopeful for progressive changes that would challenge the status quo of unequal power relations between languages and better affirm the students’

identities in the academic community. The students, in particular, expressed a strong desire for a classroom language policy that would go beyond passively viewing L1 as the last resort in their learning and would actively recognize and validate their L1 in their learning of the English language and subject content, which is categorized into the second theme here: students' L1 as an asset.

In this section, I present data in terms of (a) the alternative language policy (allowing L1 use as long as the outcome is in English) adopted by some instructors, (b) the interdependence perspectives that affirm students' L1 use and language mixing, and ultimately, (c) the understandings of the goal of L2 teaching and learning as well as multilingualism and plurilingualism.

The alternative language policy. As opposed to the aforementioned English-only policy, some educators and most students expressed thoughts that contributed to the shaping of an alternative language policy which focused on the outcomes of tasks in English and allowed the flexible use of L1 during the process of teaching or learning activities. For instructors who preferred a more flexible classroom language policy, they recognized the benefits of students' L1 in the L2 classroom, including speeding up the flow of the classroom, achieving a deeper understanding, and building up classroom dynamics, all making the teaching and learning an overall better experience for all. Further, they defended students' right to speak their L1 and relied on their own professional discretion to guide classroom discussions. For example, Catherine stated that, though she did not know the students' L1, she could still tell if the students were using their L1 for “productive” purposes, e.g., “clarifying information” or “preparing something you want to say,” or just being lazy or switching to an irrelevant topic to the

assigned task. Similar thoughts were shared by Gloria who stressed the many benefits of including students' L1 during learning process as it contributes to their final output in English, as she explained below.

Gloria: We do have an English only policy and we do keep to that. But to tell you the truth, *all that matters is the result of the task* [Emphasis added]. So I think that some task work can be done in the first language but the output, the final output has to be done in English. ... Let's take for example the students taking their notes for lecture, and then they have to answer questions based on those notes. I see no reason why those notes have to be in English. What that matters is they have a note-taking strategy that works for them. So different students might have different note-taking strategies and if it's quicker for them to write Chinese characters or a few words, then that's fine. So I don't think it's correct to limit students to just the strategy that we want, they have to develop a strategy that works for them and if that means they use the first language, then fine.... If they can form a bond in their L1 and they are all friends and work together as a group and I truly believe that as a group, they can succeed better than the individual.

Some instructors also remarked on the importance of conducting conscious “compare and contrast” analyses between (or metalinguistic reflections on) L1 and L2, in order to minimize potential interference and boost positive transfer between. As acknowledged by Ellen, “We [EAP teachers] do think about how is your [students'] language organized because we are teaching language” and she further purported that “you can have interference from your L1, the first language, but you get greater understanding of the new language if you understand how your first language worked and then see the differences and compare and contrast.”

However, how to consciously draw upon the holistic linguistic repertoire of plurilingual students may pose a challenge for the EAP programs in Anglophone universities where the instructors do not necessarily speak other languages, especially Mandarin. Neither are they familiar with plurilingual pedagogies. Nonetheless, with the rapidly growing

presence of Chinese students and recognition of the value of L1, some educators had already started to learn about the students' L1 in order to better help them. For example, echoing Ellen's statement regarding L1 language organization as quoted above, Florence found her own plurilingual abilities valuable assets and wished she had more knowledge of her students' L1 (Mandarin) so that she could understand the common mistakes made by the Chinese students and help them learn by drawing the comparison between English and Mandarin, as follows.

Florence: It [L1] makes a lot of sense for them, and it'd definitely make everything faster, because you can make these comparisons. I felt a lot of times when we have these multicultural classes, I have felt really sorry for the Chinese [students], because I knew really little about Chinese and I couldn't really draw the comparison. ...I don't really know much and I think as teachers maybe we should also do some research, because if we teach classes that are predominantly Chinese, I think as language teachers we have to do this because sometimes it helps students.

Since the instructors viewed their lack of knowledge in the students' L1 as a barrier to implementing plurilingual pedagogy, they did not explicitly discuss or promote a flexible language policy with their students, and the alternative language policy remained more of a "spontaneous" and sporadic thing done by individual instructors than a "systematic" thing encouraged and supported by the university. Just as Catherine admitted, "this kind of thing would happen really spontaneously in the classroom ... When something comes up, maybe you do compare it to their L1, but I am not sure if it is going to be a systematic thing." Under these circumstances, it was the students themselves, as frequently reported by the interview participants, who initiated or attempted various ways to make use of and mobilize their linguistic and cognitive resources in order to learn more effectively in the EAP program. For instance, Andi stated that "it is very helpful to have a general foundation of language knowledge when you learn a new language, despite subtle

differences between your mother tongue and the new language.” Wei also mentioned that “one’s L1 proficiency can positively serve as a relative frame of reference in learning L2.” Indeed, most students believed that the positive transfer (interdependence) from L1 to L2 significantly outweighed the negative transfer (interference). Therefore, an exclusive monolingual classroom language policy was not always viewed as a viable option in the multilingual classroom.

However, it should be noted that the alternative language policy was primarily desired or accepted in the realm of spoken English, not written English. This finding is consistent with questionnaire results (i.e., strong plurilingual orientation among students’ perceptions of language management with the exception of written English) presented earlier. As revealed by the interview analysis results, adhering to standard academic English and conforming to norms was prevalently promoted in writing and imposed on the students who complained about the lack of communication and mutual understanding between the professors and the students on the parameters of writing. That said, while students were motivated to acculturate into the academic writing in Canadian universities, as Yingying suggested earlier, Canadian instructors should “learn a little bit about other ways of thinking and writing” to better understand students’ writing. Students frequently expressed a strong desire to have professors who could demonstrate more respect, curiosity, and some basic knowledge of other English varieties, and could mediate critical and open dialogues on the topic of academic writing from multiple (cross-cultural) perspectives, all of which would contribute to a better understanding of different ways of writing and to meeting international students’ language needs.

The interdependence perspectives that validate students' L1 use and language

mixing. To justify the alternative language policy, students (and some educators as well) provided various reasons to explain their thoughts. These reasons converged into the subtheme of language interdependence perspectives among which the most significant rationales were (a) a recognition of students' L1 as the linguistic and cognitive foundation for students' learning and (b) an acknowledgment of language mixing as natural, inevitable, and situated social practice, as follows.

L1 as the linguistic and cognitive foundation for learning. Most frequently, both educators and students talked about the centrality of one's L1 as the foundation for learning L2 and subject knowledge. Focusing on L2 learning, the students used their L1 in activities (e.g., translation, consulting bilingual dictionaries, and making bilingual notes) as an effective device and/or "frame of reference" to make meaning of new information (e.g., vocabulary, academic terminology, and pronunciation). Some instructors, Diana, for instance, also mentioned that "it is much easier for you to draw out from that content that you learned in your L1" and viewed translation as an important device for such connection and transfer.

Take dictionary use for example. Many students preferred to use bilingual dictionaries (i.e., dictionaries that provide explanations and examples in both English and Chinese) because the English texts could provide accurate and nuanced descriptions of vocabulary and the Chinese texts could facilitate their meaning making process. Some of them followed a routine by starting with looking at the Chinese explanations of new vocabulary to get a general idea and then looked through the English explanations to confirm if the nuances of the meaning and usage of the words matched their initial

understanding since translations did not always accurately match the meanings. In other words, it was through the combined use of both languages that students were able to fully understand the meaning and usage of new words, an approach that goes against some instructors' assumption of the superiority of English-to-English dictionaries. As Wei stated, "we do not learn a new language from scratch. I always draw on my mother tongue as a foundation and reference check-in point so that I can understand the new words and memorize their usage."

Likewise, students remarked on different strategies and degrees of incorporating L1 into their note-taking process. Some students mentioned that they used primarily English in language classes but brought in their L1 whenever they felt appropriate; other students stated that they used a great amount of L1 in their note taking and other learning activities. For example, Meilin described how she mobilized L1 resources in her learning.

Meilin: I think it is most efficient to use or mix both Mandarin and English. Sometimes an English word can have a long spelling, but its meaning can be succinctly captured with two Mandarin characters. This is a perfect occasion to use the [bilingual] advantage. It is great if the Mandarin word could replace the long-spelling English word with the equivalent meaning. This is good because all that matters is to take notes of the most important content during lectures. ... Take margin cost for example. The professor was teaching the concept of margin cost the other day. Since I did not really understand it, I looked it up online and found a lot of resources in Mandarin that explained the concept in great details, which was a convenient way to learn about economics. All you need to do is to type four [Mandarin] characters "bian ji xiao ying" [边际效应, meaning margin cost], and you will find many examples. [Otherwise] we could not fully get [understand] the meaning of many foreign [referring to English] words. [My translation from original Mandarin]

Based on the previous examples, students' learning appeared to involve a great deal of "thinking in L1" which was often regarded by themselves as a natural and necessary stage to facilitate a deep and active learning process rather than a sign of deficiency in

English. In this line, translation was regarded as an important device to connect new content with their previous knowledge base in order to achieve a deeper understanding of the new content. Students appreciated the moments when instructors sometimes allowed or even encouraged them to express thoughts on certain topics (e.g., different symbolic meanings of animals or colors in diverse cultures) in their L1 first and translate together into English. They also found translation useful in learning new subject content by connecting their prior knowledge to new information, as exemplified by the following student.

Hao: We frequently use the knowledge that we have learned before in China as a foundation for learning new knowledge in the university classroom. We won't cast aside the knowledge foundation or try to translate it into English. What we usually do is to translate English back to Mandarin in order to connect new knowledge [in English] with prior knowledge [in Mandarin]. ... For example, in the Economics course, when they [professors] lectured about microeconomics and macroeconomics, I immediately translated the terms into Mandarin and connected them to related concepts that I learned before in the Chapter of Economics and Society in the Politics class. I already had a basic understanding, and now I just learn deep[er]. [My translation from original Mandarin]

The students' learning experiences indicated that the more challenging the cognitive task was, the more important was their use of their L1.

Language mixing as natural and situated social practice. Somehow related to the centrality of L1 in their learning suggested above, students frequently referred to language mixing as a natural, inevitable, and situated social practice among themselves in the classroom and beyond. Since the EAP students were primarily from a Chinese background, they often worked with same-language peers in study groups or group discussions in which students defined their own preferences of incorporating a certain extent of L1 use (e.g., use Mandarin as the main discussion language mixed with

references to English vocabulary and texts) into the process of completing academic tasks.

The reasons of language mixing explained by the students themselves included (a) the need for *group identity* marking, (b) the *natural* inclination to switch codes for expressing oneself, and (c) the *strategic* maneuver of all available linguistic resources and codes for better communicating with others. First, the students felt strongly about their Chinese identity and considered the use of Mandarin as an irreplaceable means to bond with each other and affirm their group identity. When the majority of them considered Mandarin to be the appropriate primary working language for group work, those who insisted on speaking English only would become an outlier and isolated by peers. Sometimes, students even deliberately mixed languages for fun and a sense of humor to bond with their friends (e.g., “去哪儿 eat 呀?” Translation: “Where are you going to eat [for dinner]?”), especially on social media. Second, the students repeatedly stressed that mixing was not a sign of deficiency in L2 but a natural and desirable practice even among highly proficient plurilinguals. For instance, a student (Yufan) explained that both English and Mandarin were components of an integrated linguistic repertoire in his brain and he would pick whichever codes came to him first. Lastly, students often mixed languages to help each other, especially peers with a lower English proficiency, better understand the content of the lesson, and facilitate communication.

Of course, taking account of the language interdependence perspectives does not exclude the possibility of students’ reverting to L1 due to their lack of language proficiency in L2 sometimes. Nonetheless, based on student accounts, most of the time, they were very

conscious of who their audience/interlocutors were and maneuvered the languages accordingly to achieve the most effective communication possible, demonstrating their capability of “adapting to situations and interlocutors” (Piccardo, 2013, p. 609). Among the majority of the students, their goal was to learn English as an international language and improve their communicative competence in two or more languages rather than achieving (near-)nativeness or a perfect mastery in L2, a subtheme I address below.

Understandings of the goal of L2 learning and multilingualism and

plurilingualism.¹⁴ Another interesting finding from the qualitative data was that positive association between the desire for alternative language policies and a preference of communicative competence over (near-)nativeness as the goal of their L2 learning, as well as a recognition of partial competence (among the languages) and imbalanced skills (among the skills within a language) in understandings of plurilingualism, especially in the context of internationalized HE and globalized workplace.

The perceived goal of L2 learning: from nativeness to communicative competence.

There seemed to be more awareness of the value of L1 when participants defined the objective of L2 learning in terms of communicative competence rather than (near)nativeness. Despite possible L1 interference on grammar and pronunciation, the educators admitted that they were generally able to understand the students’ L2 (English) regardless. In fact, many preferred to use intelligibility as a measure of communicative effectiveness, and called for more respect to ‘other’ Englishes (e.g., Chinese English).

¹⁴ In the student questionnaire and interviews, I used the term “multilingualism” as an umbrella term for both societal multilingualism and individual plurilingualism because students were unfamiliar with the term “plurilingualism” and the distinctions made between plurilingualism and multilingualism in the research literature.

For example, Ellen tolerated students' common mistakes of dropping articles and argued that multilingual students could "speak the different languages to different degrees of success." Another instructor, Gloria, suggested that "universities are hopefully becoming more open [to English varieties] as long as the mistake is a syntactical mistake and not a semantic mistake," because "ideas still express meaning, not to express grammar."

Especially with the future workplace in mind, both students (e.g., Andi) and instructors (e.g., Ellen) stressed that communicative competence would be much more important than the language itself. After all, as the students themselves frequently mentioned, they would never become native speakers of English anyway, whether they wanted to or not.

Participants also viewed the development of the English language as a dynamic, fluid/porous, and ever changing/evolving process; and different varieties of English as necessary, and as a source of enrichment, especially in terms of speaking. For example, although Chinese English usage is very different from standardized North American usage, "it seems natural that some uses of Chinglish will influence the actual use of English" (Heather), given the increasing prominence of China, the rapidly increasing Chinese student mobility, and the nature of English being "such a porous language, it's so open that it changes all the time" (Heather). Therefore, EAP educators should not overemphasize accuracy to the exclusion of focusing on content; that is, they should be more tolerant if an essay written by an international student has strong content but is a little wobbly in terms of grammar or punctuation. After all, "the main focus is meaning, not the syntactical stage" (Gloria).

The perceived nature of plurilingualism: imbalance and partialness. The students had relatively limited remarks on the question of multilingualism/plurilingualism and

generally associated multilingualism with the ability to speak multiple languages by its literal meaning and/or the societal environment where multiple languages could be used. Conversely, most EAP educators viewed plurilingualism as the ability not only to communicate in multiple languages, but also to “live, think, and study” in multiple languages simultaneously with cultural sensitivity. Engaged in “multiple languages, multiple cultures, multiple perspectives, multiple ways of thinking” (Catherine), the plurilingual person knew multiple/alternative ways of speaking and doing things, drew on knowledge of different linguistic and cultural repertoires (Gloria), understood and appreciated what different languages bring to different settings (Heather), and felt comfortable “navigating through the cultures and norms and values of these specific cultures without judging (or personalizing)” (Florence). As such, the scope of plurilingualism went beyond language and entailed an intertwined relationship with culture.

In general, participants recognized the imbalance among the languages of the plurilingual individual who learned languages not to the same degree, but each language as enabling the individual to be at least functional in everyday communication. However, it would depend on the specific needs of the individual whose changing life and work circumstances might determine the appropriate level of proficiency required of them. As Catherine asserted, “if you can speak a language and it serves the purposes that you need it for, then that is significant enough”; turning it around, the ability to read high-level texts but not to converse fluently should not be considered as diminishing a person’s multilingual ability either. When it comes to the related question of the development of the four skills within a language, participants restated that it would depend on the context

or specific needs of the individual who was not necessarily competent in all four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). For example, Wei pointed out that people working in the field of written translation might have strong skills in reading and writing but weaker in listening and speaking, yet should still be considered multilingual. That being said, students acknowledged that a comprehensive development of all four skills would contribute to a better understanding and navigation of a specific language.

So far, the first two themes depicted the general language policy in EAP where the English-only approach was both promoted and challenged by educators and students with an ongoing ideological shift from the monolingual orientation towards the alternative plurilingual orientation against the backdrop of globalization and internationalization of HE. On the one hand, English (and especially standard academic English) was still, to a great extent, considered the sole language for international students' L2 academic socialization. Indeed, both students and educators unanimously acknowledged the "imperialistic" nature of English being deemed as the working language in industry and academia. As such, "the onus seems to be on the world to know English" (Diana) as well as to "be able to spell and read and write in a standard form of English" (Alison) in the university where a "sink or swim" policy was largely in place (Diana).

On the other hand, there were criticisms of the dominance of English as the sole language for internationalization, and many participants pointed out that standard academic English should not necessarily remain as the only measure of international students' language ability. Some even expected an adjusting or redefining of 'standard' for academic English against the backdrop of internationalization. As Heather stated, "we are

probably going to have to adjust to a certain degree what we considered to be standard academic English. Otherwise, internationalization will fail.”

Further, if universities are truly dedicated to nurturing global citizenship among the students, it seems more appropriate to situate academic English as but one specific, not the sole, objective within a broader perspective of EAP education and English-medium HE. This is evident among the participants who became more affirmative of the value of plurilingualism when they expanded their vision from the immediate EAP domain to the broader society and future employment opportunities. They stressed that plurilingualism would be an asset or even a must for cross-cultural communications and businesses in an increasingly globalized workplace, although it would also depend on individuals’ positions and fields. For example, Meilin mentioned that multilingualism on top of expertise in a field would be a real advantage in the international job market, and the trend seemed to be more people learning Mandarin due to China’s rising power. In addition, Fangfang, another student, stated that learning another language was a way to step out of one’s comfort zone and appreciate different cultures and perspectives in understanding the world, which would contribute to mutual understanding and enrichment among people from different language and cultural backgrounds. Given the intertwined relationship between language and culture, I now turn to present findings with a focus on the sociocultural component in students’ L2 learning experience.

5.4.3 One-Way Socialization: International Students Stepping Out of Their Comfort Zone

While the EAP programs focused on improving the students’ English language

proficiency and skills, their sociocultural needs were given less attention due to the time and resource restraints of the program and the students. It seemed that the students were largely left on their own to network and socialize with students or people from other backgrounds in a sociocultural environment they were unfamiliar with. What's more, a common mentality existed among the participants was "when in Rome, do what the Romans do" (also see Jenkins, 2014), namely, the physical geographic location was deemed as a key factor to determine *who* should be responsible for learning about the other. Therefore, Chinese international students who decided to come to Canada were expected to be responsible for learning and socializing into the local culture largely on their own, whilst there was limited awareness of or interest in the opportunities international students brought in for the Canadian universities' internationalizing from within (see 5.4.4 for details). With regard to international students' (lack of) contribution to intercultural communication on the campus, there seemingly existed a gap of understanding, especially regarding the reasons behind the students' insufficient participation, as represented by the contrasting voices of educators and students themselves. There was a persisting image among the educators of the Chinese students sticking together and lacking interest in socializing with their Canadian peers or other-background students, juxtaposed with a strong longing for 'deep' friendship with Canadian peers as expressed by the students themselves in this study.

The impression of Chinese students sticking together (educator perspectives). The 'Chinese students stick together' statement seemed to be a common impression among the EAP educators and others. As Alison mentioned, "they will live off campus, and they don't tend to mix with the other kids from the other countries and from Canada."

Likewise, Barbara also remarked that “the Chinese students tend to stick together” in their own ethnic group and did not try to find Canadian friends by, say, joining clubs or volunteering organizations. A primary reason for the students’ sticking together was that “shared food, culture, language and so on” (Alison) brought a sense of comfort and safety to people. Indeed, as Barbara understood it, “they are seeking out things that are unknown to them [in Canada]...[But] there is a sense of comfort of speaking with people who also speak Chinese...that’s probably why people stick in their groups because it is more comfortable, because you feel safer.”

However, staying within the L1 comfort zone was perceived by the educators as an important cause for the students’ isolation with the host community and a barrier to intercultural communication. As a result, “they do not have Canadian friends [and] when they go home, it is just them in their language groups” (Diana) in spite of their geographical location in Canada and Canadian universities. Therefore, although it was considered understandable or “very human to seek out whom you can connect with” (Catherine) due to the sense of comfort and safety in speaking with same-language people, the educators stressed that the students should step out of their comfort zone by getting outside of their friend groups and trying to meet people from other language backgrounds. For instance, Barbara suggested that the students should “get outside of their friend group [and] try to meet other people.” To do this, Diana recommended that the students should “join clubs or volunteer in different volunteer organizations” in order to learn about Canadian culture, network, and find friends. Whether and to what extent the students related to the image of sticking together, along with the reasons behind and

the support required to enhance intercultural communication, is the other side of narrative I turn to present in the following.

The desire for ‘deep’ friendship with Canadian peers (student perspectives).

Generally speaking, the students confirmed the truthfulness of the image of them sticking together, yet suggested that it was not because they were not interested in making local friends or stepping out of their comfort zone. They felt it was because they were not provided with sufficient socializing opportunities in a new environment (Note that most students are still considered as ‘newcomers’ due to their relatively short educational experience in Canada) and even on occasions where they did make attempts to network, there seemed to exist an invisible wall between them and other people in the host community which they found hard to break. In other words, despite the social events or activities organized by the EAP programs and universities, these students still lacked interaction opportunities and appropriate support to “step out of their own group” and mingle with other people; they also experienced a sense of *othering* in their relatively limited cross-cultural encounters. Putting diverse people together does not mean that they will make connections and develop deep friendships. As Anna said,

They [emphasis added, referring to Canadian partners] know very little of the real China today and often stereotype *us* [emphasis added] based on *their* [emphasis added] limited and outdated knowledge of China in *our* [emphasis added] conversations. But this is wrong and sometimes is really frustrating for *us* [emphasis added]. [My translation from original Mandarin]

As such, the inadequacy of structural support, and conscious or unconscious stereotyping, emerged as the two most frequently mentioned barriers for the Chinese students’ integration.

To improve their intercultural learning and socialization, students considered activities such as volunteering or visiting local families more beneficial to their development of cross-cultural understandings than class day trips to Niagara Falls or watching sports games, because the latter did not expose them to adequate diversity when the people they hung out with were still largely their Chinese peers due to the extremely high presence in the EAP programs. As Wei suggested, “after all, the extracurricular activities organized by the EAP programs are just for EAP students who are almost all Chinese, so intercultural learning outcomes are very limited.” He proposed that the programs should “encourage students to participate in student clubs based on their interests, make the clubs more welcoming to international students, and create more opportunities for us to make friends.”

For the students who had experience with the peer guide or peer mentoring initiatives as available to the students in some institutions, most of them considered their relationship with their Canadian peer or guide “superficial,” “routine-like,” and “short-termed” so that they were not able to really connect with each other, let alone develop a friendship. As Andi who had a peer guide admitted, although he met with his peer guide regularly on a weekly or bi-weekly frequency, “I felt our meeting was like a matter of routine. Although we sit together and have happy chats, there was no genuine friendship developed between us.” In his view, the university and the EAP program should provide more long-term and sustainable opportunities (e.g., increase the demographic and ethnocultural diversity in the classroom, part-time job opportunities on campus) for international students to communicate with domestic students in more authentic social communication settings.

To sum up, the persisting image of Chinese students sticking together seemed to be truthful according to the accounts of both educators and students. However, the Chinese students did demonstrate a strong desire to interact with other people in the host community. They desired more structural/systematic support as well as intercultural competence from Canadian partners in order to scaffold and facilitate intercultural communication. More details concerning the urgency of intercultural training and increase of intercultural awareness are presented in the next part.

5.4.4 Two-Way Dialogue: Internationalization from Within

While there was a call for the international students to step out of their comfort zone and actively participate and engage with domestic partners, participants also called for more awareness and efforts from Canadian educators and students in the EAP programs and the universities in order to promote *mutual* learning from each other in intercultural communication and create more opportunities of internationalizing from within. In fact, some instructors praised the Chinese students' ongoing efforts to contribute to intercultural communication and pointed out the need for local partners to make more effort to engage in this process. As Diana said, "I definitely think that Chinese students are doing a lot already. Just by being here, they are putting themselves in our environment." Another instructor, Alison, also recommended that EAP programs should "do more to bring in the students' personal experiences from their home country in." In addition, she argued against the "when in Rome, do what the Romans do" mentality, pointing out that "very often people have this assumption [that] you come here to Canada and we are going to tell you about Canada, and you are not going to have much conversation about China, which is stupid. ...It is too much a one-way thing."

As consistent with the general two-fold tendency in institutional language policy as represented in the other parts of findings, participant voices that highlighted mutual learning and two-way dialogues as opportunities of internationalization from within centered on two aspects: (a) the often neglected role of language in current discourses about intercultural communication and internationalization, and (b) the urgency to raise intercultural awareness among Canadian partners to embrace and enhance intercultural learning.

The often neglected role of language in intercultural communication. The intertwined relationship between language and culture were captured in participants' remarks on the impossibility of learning a culture without learning the language or vice versa, namely, "the language *is* the culture" (Gloria). Due to the connections of language and culture, the learning of a certain language (or culture) would largely facilitate the learning of its culture (or language). For example, Alison suggested that knowing multiple languages helped people understand international cultures and it would be difficult for people who did not know the Chinese languages to really understand the culture, philosophy, and history of China. Gloria criticized the prescriptive approach to language teaching (e.g., focusing on grammar formula from textbooks) in terms of its static (mis)assumption of the development of language which and she argued that language is always changing. She used the present perfect rule as an example to illustrate cultural difference as embodied in language, that is, NNES people might find it difficult to understand the usage of present perfect tense when talking about the past event with a present consequence in English. Therefore, sensitivity to cultural differences would make it easier to understand the common mistakes Chinese students make in English.

Likewise, the students prevalently referred to the language as the foundation and expression of culture. For example, Anna stated that the Chinese culture was reflected on the usage of the Chinese language and a person who would like to learn about the Chinese culture could start with analyzing the lexis (vocabulary) and syntax (grammar) of the language. In addition, Diana strongly called upon Canadian teachers to learn the Chinese culture (and language), as quoted below.

Diana: Canadian teachers, we should really try to learn as much as we can about their [Chinese students'] culture. I don't think that we put enough importance in learning about Chinese culture and language. We don't have to learn the language per se, but it would be great if we did, if we learn enough about the grammar and about the different sounds that are problematic for them in English and the sounds that they're familiar with in Chinese. The more information we have, the better we can help them to figure out how to improve their English quickly. ... just knowing those little bits of information sometimes can go a long way in helping the student feel better about themselves and the teacher not feeling so helpless. ... They know a lot of that stuff, so all you got to do is just ask. They know the differences. They know where they are lacking grammatical rules and so on and so forth. If you just engage and ask, then you'll learn a lot from the students.

As can be seen from this quotation, Diana not only elaborated on the importance of learning about other cultures (and languages), but also suggested a simple and feasible approach in response to some instructors' concern of how to draw on the students' L1 when it is a language that they have little knowledge of. In this case, Diana viewed students as the experts of such knowledge, which, when translated into practice, would have the potential to reverse the traditional power relationship in the classroom (i.e., teachers claiming the power of knowledge over students) that "They [students] know a lot of that stuff, so all you got to do is just ask." By doing so, students' L1 knowledge might be validated, and associated L1 identities affirmed, as "the students feel better about themselves and the teacher not feeling so helpless," which might lead to better learning outcomes.

The perceived urgency of raising intercultural awareness. While some knowledge of cultural (and language) difference could help the educators to understand students' behaviors and language practices in the classroom, over-simplistic and essentialist interpretations of cultural difference might contribute to a reinforced stereotype of Chinese students being passive, quiet, and *othered* learners in Canadian HE. In other words, addressing cultural difference without necessary and adequate intercultural awareness runs the risk of cultural essentialism by dichotomizing the 'West' and the 'East,' which undermines intercultural learning from each other and the unity of the community.

As Catherine suggested, "people need to understand how certain social functions may occur and certain things are acceptable or not acceptable, and even gain a little bit of understanding about why people do things." It was clear from Catherine's statement that intercultural awareness is a prerequisite to understanding *how* people make certain language choices in their use of language as social functions and *why* certain language behaviours are considered appropriate or not. The emphasis on the "inter" (two-way or mutual understanding) requires efforts from both interlocutors in the dialogue. Chinese students (especially in lower levels of EAP) needed to develop their cultural awareness and language skills to communicate appropriately in multicultural settings by means of, say, getting involved in a course about Canadian culture. By the same reasoning, Canadian partners also needed to develop intercultural competence by, for example, appropriate cultural training (e.g., a required intercultural communication course), and reflection on cross-cultural differences with an understanding that "no culture is the right

or best culture” (Ellen) so that they could be more culturally and linguistically sensitive to students from diverse backgrounds and be better able to accommodate diversity.

The urgency to increase intercultural awareness among the Canadian partners was a pressing request from the students in this study, as mentioned earlier. The Chinese students told me that they often encountered impatience from the Canadian partners to understand their accented English and/or a lack of genuine interest in listening to and learning about their cultures, which contributed to the students’ impression that their L1 cultures and languages were unvalued and irrelevant in the ‘international’ university. This phenomenon was acknowledged by educators such as Barbara who stated that “there is a gap of the domestic students seeking out international opportunities.” That is, “international students are trying really hard” but “domestic students are trying less because ...they do not need to [do it] for survival ...[and] they just do not realize the opportunities there are available” (Barbara). At the same time, the students expressed a strong desire that, while they were willing to try all means to step out of their comfort zone, they would like their Canadian instructors and peers to be more informed and understanding of Chinese cultures as reflected in their language use (ways of speaking and writing). For instance, Yanni said that

Canadian teachers and students should be more welcoming to international students and accept the international students into their circle. They should tolerate international students’ accents and be happy to help us improve English. Turning it around, although there are many cultural differences between, Canadian students should try to learn about and get accustomed to Chinese cultures and to focus on commonalities between so that real friendship can develop. [My translation from original Mandarin]

From an optimistic perspective, despite the perceived lack of intercultural awareness and intercultural training opportunities in the international university, there was an increasing

realization among the EAP educators that Canadian professors and students should “have more awareness of what it means for them to be in class and to come from abroad” (Florence), “really try to learn as much as we can about their culture” (Diana), “have the awareness and the sensitivity that they’re working with a range of students who are going to be at somewhat different levels in their skills” (Heather), learn how to “speak English as a global language and not as a Canadian language,” and teach students “how to operate anywhere in the world, not just in Canada” (Gloria). This resonated well with student voices that called for a mutually engaging intercultural communication where the two-way dialogue should involve putting themselves into each other’s shoes, mutually learning about each other, breaking cultural stereotypes, and seeking commonalities so that friendships could develop and international students could develop a sense of belonging and be included in the host community. I end this section with a quote from an educator which represented such rising awareness of mutual learning opportunities from within the internationalized campus as below.

Barbara: International students coming here, the expectations are not just on them. The expectation is as hosts, being from here, that we also engage in the international environment as well. So it’s like a two-way street. International students seek out domestic students to learn how to speak like a Canadian or learn the culture, but vice versa that we do the same.

5.5 Summary: The Portrait of the Average EAP Student

In this chapter, I have presented major findings from both quantitative and qualitative perspectives, both contributing to drawing the portrait of the average international student attending the EAP program of the international university. While the quantitative results sketch the contour (general trends and interrelationships) of institutional language policy

as perceived by the average student, the qualitative results afford the flesh and blood of the portrait with student and educator voices; the combination of both contribute to a more nuanced and deeper understanding of their life experiences of language policies and practices in their academic acculturation or socialization in English.

To provide basic background information, the average international student is a bilingual (Chinese and English) female student who is conditionally admitted to a Business undergraduate degree program in a Canadian university. She attends the EAP program of which the successful completion would qualify her for the English language proficiency requirement by the university, and had little previous overseas study or work experience. At the time the questionnaire was administered, she has been studying in the EAP program for four months¹⁵. She wrote the IELTS test(s) before with the overall score being Band 5.5 or 6.0¹⁶ and considers her own English language proficiency at the intermediate level across the four language skills.

In general statistical terms, the average student demonstrates a strong plurilingual orientation in her perceptions of institutional language policies, except for requirements of standard academic English in formal writing. To be more specific, she prefers a language policy that respects *and* includes her full linguistic resources (not just English), especially different ways of speaking English (i.e., spoken English varieties), in her

¹⁵ The length of enrollment in an EAP program was based on the mode (4 months being the most common pattern), instead of the mean (11.18 months, which was inclusive of a small number of students who studied in Canadian high schools), in order to provide a more reflective picture of the average EAP student.

¹⁶ The IELTS score was based on the most two common scores, instead of the mean (5.76), in order to make the score align more to practice where students' average IELTS score keeps to 0.5 intervals, e.g., 5.0, 5.5, 6.0, etc.

academic study, yet considers it imperative for herself to conform to Canadian academic norms in written English. That said, conforming to the norms does not necessarily mean that she readily agrees with the exclusive status of a standard enacted and imposed on her. Rather, the student questions the dominant status of standard academic English used as the *sole* measure of plurilingual students' academic English abilities. She would like to learn in a classroom that adopts English as the major working language but allows students' flexible use of L1 in peer interactions and learning activities. Furthermore, she strongly disagrees with the predictive validity of IELTS for students' academic success in the university and considers EAP more valuable for their academic transition.

Ideologically, the average student holds plurilingual beliefs with respect to the nature of language and language learning in general. To be more specific, she holds integrative attitudes towards the learning of an additional language in relation to its culture, envisioning multilingualism as an integral requirement for intercultural communication, academic studies in the internationalized university as well as employment in the future workplace. She also believes that a person's ability to learn additional languages is flexible rather than fixed or innate. In addition, she favors pedagogical approaches that emphasize intelligibility over a native-like accent and recognize the imbalance between languages as well as partial competences across the four skills of a given language.

However, somehow contradictory to her overall valuing of her L1, the average student demonstrates notable ambivalence towards the use of translation and language mixing, both involving L1, in her learning of L2 (English). On the one hand, she admits that she constantly compares her L1 and L2 and finds her knowledge of L1 helpful in her learning of L2; on the other hand, she is uncertain of the legitimacy of her L1 and fairly reluctant

in hybrid language use in her learning of L2. Likewise, she holds contradictory beliefs regarding the concurrent development or mastery of multiple languages. While she strongly believes that every single language and language variety should be valued and people can learn several languages effectively at the same time, she, once again, wonders whether language mixing is appropriate and whether the learning of several languages diminishes the level of mastery of each one. That being said, her understanding of the relationship between English and other languages shifts towards a plurilingual orientation when the context of language use expands from narrower domains (i.e., the local EAP programs and English-medium university) to broader realms (i.e., internationalized universities and a globally interconnected world).

The above-mentioned consistency and contradiction among the student's perceptions of LP and attitudes to LB can be understood better with correlational analysis results which further support the complex interrelationships between LP and LB items relating to topics of the status and role of language(s) and language varieties in the EAP classroom and the university community. The more the student believes that monolingual knowledge is not enough for intercultural communication, academic studies, and future workplace, and that plurilingual knowledge and competence is legitimate and important in language learning and academic studies in a multilingual context, the more likely she is to prefer plurilingual approaches in language policy making and educational practices.

With regard to the role or value of IELTS and language support (with a focus on EAP) in relation to academic success in the university, the average student tends to disagree with the predictive validity of IELTS to her academic success in the university. Her perception is associated with a plurilingual orientation in her language beliefs (i.e., monolingual

knowledge is not enough, and accents and English varieties should be respected and accepted) in the same direction. Likewise, her overall satisfaction with the language support (EAP) is connected with plurilingual beliefs that emphasize the social constructive nature of L2 learning and language diversity or ecology. The more EAP programs celebrate students' linguistic diversity and development of plurilingualism, the more satisfied the student tends to be.

However, there is the exception of the native speaker model which nonetheless imposes a lasting influence on the student since she appears to associate desirable language support with a promotion of nativeness as per correlational analyses, which is contradictory to the notable shifting away from the native-speaker model to intelligibility and communicative competence as suggested by univariate analyses. Therefore, the native-speaker model appears to be a constantly challenged yet especially persistent barrier to plurilingualism as the alternative language policy.

While the quantitative results draw out the contour of the average student portrait, the qualitative results enrich the portrait by adding textures and voices to it. Consistent with the quantitative results, the results of both document and interview analysis further unfold a contradiction between institutional rhetoric (of integrating an international component into HE as prioritized in their internationalization agenda) and everyday realities (where there is an absence of a language policy that honors the international tenets). In other words, there exists a significant gap between the shared vision (upheld ideals) and the perceived reality (due to various challenges and constraints), especially when the institutional policy statements (e.g., language proficiency requirements) guarded the

entrenched status of English as *the* language for the English universities for admission and assessment purposes.

Influenced by and responding to the competing discourses on internationalization circulated in the host community, the student negotiates the actual language policy with peers and educators in the EAP domain of the university. She experiences a continuum of perspectives that depict international students' L1 anywhere from problematic to an asset, and their socialization process from an assimilation process (where the onus is on the international students to step out of their comfort zone) to a source of valuable opportunities for intercultural dialogues and mutual enrichment which may facilitate internationalization from within.

So far, I have shown that, as a complementary source of insights of quantitative inquiry, qualitative perspectives of the lived experiences, along with the dilemmas and challenges, of multiple stakeholders in their enforcement and negotiation of the language policy provide important nuances and depth of knowledge on the research problem. Detailed discussions of the merged findings are presented in the next chapter.

Chapter 6

6 Discussion

The discussion chapter is comprised of the merged findings of this study based on my research design (i.e., convergent parallel mixed research design). It compares the results to previous research literature in the field and interprets the results through the theoretical lenses described in my conceptual framework. The content of the chapter is divided into two sections: a discussion of the general trends of the institutional language policy in terms of its three components (language management, practices, and beliefs) (see Section 6.1), and an analysis of the interrelationships between perceptions of language management and language beliefs (see Section 6.2). Both sections have a particular focus on the EAP domain in its ecological relationship to the internationalizing university and the multilingual Canadian society.

I acknowledge that the discussion of the major themes reflects philosophical beliefs in critical pragmatism as well as my dual positionality as an international student and an EAP instructor. I empathize with both groups of study participants (Chinese international students and the EAP educators) regarding the pragmatic need to learn academic English and conform to writing norms in order to achieve academic success in Canadian HE. However, I also firmly believe in the necessary critical dimension of EAP so as to become more reflexive in dialogues and proactive in actions. To do so, stakeholders must attend to the critical role of language in internationalization of HE premised upon inclusivity and diversity.

6.1 General Trends of the Language Policy in the International University

To introduce the organization of this section, I open the discussion with a synopsis of the multi-layered context of this study (see Section 6.1.1). Next, I demonstrate the general trends of the language policy in the international university which arguably feature an (uneven) combination of (prevailing) pragmatic and (symbolic) critical considerations throughout the levels of management (see Section 6.1.2), beliefs (see Section 6.1.3), and practices (see Section 6.1.4). The two-fold characteristic of language policy contributes to both perpetuation and contestation of the institutionalized monolingual approach for the rapidly growing NNES international students in the process of internationalization.

6.1.1 The Three-level Context of Internationalization

Contextual factors (e.g., the sociolinguistic situation, the members' attitudes to it, and the nature of the organization) are important to understanding the complexity of language policy in a specific domain (Spolsky, 2004). In this study, the immediate EAP domain (micro-context) is situated in and influenced by internationalized Ontarian HE (meso-context) and further, yet to a less degree, by the multilingual and multicultural Canadian society (macro-context). Therefore, the sociolinguistic situation of the EAP programs, community members' (or stakeholders') attitudes to the prevailing language policy in the educational structures of EAP in relation to the university, and the nature of EAP being a lucrative and indispensable part of the international university are important contextual factors to understand multiple stakeholders' perspectives of academic language policy in this study.

Macro-context (government). In the broad societal context, the government of Canada is the primary policy maker using language laws as the primary policy devices to translate the ideology (of those who are in control) into practice. As suggested in the introductory chapter, the sociolinguistic situation of Canada features linguistic duality (English and French as the two official languages) and linguistic diversity (non-official languages, especially immigrant languages). While linguistic duality is enforced by top-down efforts such as language laws (e.g., Official Languages Act), linguistic diversity remains as a manifest yet shadowed reality which federal policies have made few attempts to accommodate (Ricento, 2013). The unequal status and power relationship as perceived between English (as the primary official language in Ontario) and Chinese (as the largest minority language in Canada) may give rise to tensions and conflicts in Canadian society with its changing demographics and linguistic complexity, accompanied by a growing population of Chinese immigrants.

Meanwhile, in the current climate of international education, the significance of linguistic diversity has become even more magnified by the increasing NNES international student population, among which the Chinese student body constitutes the largest group.

International education not only brings about the economic benefits generated by the expensive tuition fees paid by the students and the local and national revenues (Global Affairs Canada, 2014), but also impacts immigration programs and policies developed (e.g., the Post-Graduation Work Permit program) to attract international students for Canada's future workforce (CBIE, 2016). In this sense, linguistic diversity issues are related to Chinese international students in the internationalization of HE in the short term and Canadian multilingualism in the long term.

Multiculturalism, which is inevitably paired with multilingualism, is also considered a core characteristic of Canadian society. Along with the evolution and institutionalization of multiculturalism (e.g., the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms in 1982, the Canadian Multiculturalism Act in 1988) in the previous decades, many polls and published articles suggest that Canadians have developed increasingly favourable attitudes towards multiculturalism, which are “supportive of a multicultural society, at least in principle if not always in practice” (Dewing, 2013, p. 8). With universities being the epitome of society, the changing sociolinguistic situation and people’s attitudes towards diversity in Canadian society are evident in the meso-context of HE.

Meso-context (university). Echoing the Government of Canada’s prioritizing of international education to be the central aspect of educational changes, universities are striving to maximize the economic benefits and facilitate international students’ adaptation to English-speaking Canadian universities. Universities have also started to reflect on the imperialist discourse underlying the one-way socialization of international students, which is in keeping with Canadians’ (claimed) favourable attitudes towards diversity.

To be more specific, much as the economic benefits of recruiting international students are well recognized, ethical and cultural aspects are increasingly acknowledged in terms of the value of three movements: (a) including international students and diverse cultures in internationalizing Canadian and Ontarian HE, (b) cultivating a global perspective among Canadian students who are to become global citizens, and (c) promoting the “diplomacy of knowledge” (Advisory Panel on Canada’s International Education Strategy, 2012, p. viii). As argued by Rezai-Rashti (2004), there has been more

recognition of globalization and internationalization as a stimulus for production of heterogeneity instead of merely being an impetus for homogeneity and addressing the plurality and hybridization of cultures seems to carry the symbolic weight in this process. As such, the combination of, along with the unequal status between, economic and ethical/cultural considerations in the macro-context has an impact on language policy making in the meso-context (university).

The sociolinguistic change within the universities has a direct impact on three groups of members (and their general attitudes to the growing presence of international students) in the university community. The first group is the admission office that strictly implements top-down decisions and adheres to the minimum English language requirements as measured by IELTS or a successful completion of in-house EAP programs. The second group consists of university professors and domestic students who can be unprepared to accommodate and interact with international students (and their linguistic and cultural differences) in the classroom. The last group (the scrutinized group in this study) is the (NNES) international students who are often ambivalent towards the monolingual approach of the institution's language policy. With its unique role in both preparing the students to survive and succeed in the university and identifying and accommodating students' needs, the EAP sector is a key zone within the international university for scholarly investigation of the tensions and conflicts arising in the students' L2 academic socialization and exploration of alternative directions for improvement.

Micro-context (EAP). As an integral part of internationalization, the objectives of EAP programs are multifold and influenced by the combination of economic and ethical/cultural discourses of internationalization. EAP programs aim to generate

revenues for the host institutions and help conditionally admitted NNES students improve their English language proficiency and academic readiness. More recently, EAP programs also intend to develop the international students' cross-cultural sensitivity (so that *they* would be more sensitive to cultural differences and fit into the local university community).

The typical sociolinguistic situation of the EAP domain in my study (and likely in other comparable programs too) features the Chinese student body being the dominant ethnic and linguistic group along with a much lower proportion of students from other language backgrounds. This demographic constitution contributes to an interesting power negotiation situation on the issue of language choice between the stakeholders in the domain: the EAP educators and sometimes the university professors (who usually use English as the only medium of instruction) and the predominant group of Chinese students (who usually use Mandarin, more or less, to interact with peers and understand learning content). Notably, both educators and students demonstrate varied attitudes (including ambivalence and dilemmas) towards the language policy for EAP in relation to the internationalizing university and the globalized workplace and society.

In terms of the enforcement of language management policies, evidently, the top-down imposed English language requirements are translated into the educational structures of EAP, mainly including the curriculum, instruction, and assessment. While EAP educators are typically not part of the decision-making process at the university level and frequently refer to the assessment criteria set by university professors in their teaching, individual instructors still have some degree of autonomy to choose to accept or challenge the operation of coercive power relations (Cummins, 2009). Their role definitions are

typically enacted in their classroom language management, mainly in terms of whether instructors should tolerate or accept students' use of their L1, and to what extent the instructors encourage and guide students to draw on their full range of linguistic repertoire instead of English alone.

Together, the general focus on the gatekeeping status of English in NNES students' acculturation process, accompanied by the limited attention paid to recognizing and validating the value of NNES students' L1 and other languages, illustrates the unequal status between the dominant English language and the other languages, as well as the unequal power relations between the speakers of these languages.

6.1.2 Language Management

At the institutional level of language management, the findings revealed an uneven weighting of pragmatic/economic rationales (i.e., revenue stream and global competitiveness of the institution) and critical/cultural reflections (i.e., how to develop an inclusive community and promote intercultural learning for all). This finding is in keeping with Taskoh's (2014) proposition of the two competing discourses (i.e., the neoliberal-instrumental discourse and the liberal-academic discourse) in his critical policy analysis of internationalization of a Canadian university. However, by concentrating on the particular role of language in internationalization, my study further elucidates the substantial mismatch between such discourses due to people's contrasting attitudes towards *written* English which is stringently regulated/monitored by the most potent policy device (i.e., language requirements for admission and assessment) and *spoken* English where the use of different languages and English varieties are

increasingly tolerated (yet in a passive way that still promotes the exclusion of L1 in oral communications).

English and university admission and assessment. As suggested earlier, the international university's admission requirement of English language proficiency as measured by standardized language tests (e.g., IELTS) or met by the completion of the EAP program serves the dual purpose of promoting English as the gatekeeping language *and* creating a lucrative EAP industry. The student participants generally disagreed with the validity of IELTS and disputed its predictive indication of their future academic performance, which resonates with previous research literature that rejects the predictive validity of IELTS for subsequent academic success (e.g., Carroll, 2005; Krausz et al., 2005; Lahib, 2016; Trice, 2003), as mentioned in my literature review. In addition, this study provides insights into rationales relating to the questioned interrelationship between IELTS and academic success as discussed in the later section (Section 6.2.3).

With respect to assessment criteria after the students' admission/enrollment into programs, the international university requires students to demonstrate their ability to write in English "clearly" and "correctly" - two parameters that attempt to intervene in and regulate NNES students' use of written English, which result in varying degrees of success in the outcomes. Informed by Shohamy's (2006) notion of mechanism, it is through the powerful mechanism of *formal* assessment that the institution (re)defines and perpetuates what counts as *good* language knowledge (standard English) as opposed to *bad* language knowledge (other English varieties). Hence, formal assessment suppresses students' plurilingualism, at least in the realm of academic writing, in the international university.

In fact, the results of my study make clear that conforming to the writing norms or conventions in Canadian academic culture was the only monolingualism-oriented LP variable approved of by most students (based on questionnaire data), despite tensions and conflicts around linguistic and cultural differences as reflected in academic writing (based on interview data). This denotes that, while students yearn for respect of every language and language varieties and plurilingual pedagogies in general, the plurilingual approach is viewed as a viable alternative only in the periphery (i.e., less formal teaching and learning activities), a zone far away from the center of the academic discourse (formal academic writing) that remains to be strictly monolingual and exclusive of other language and language varieties. As such, it is not surprising that CLA-informed pedagogy is scarce in the EAP classroom. The students do not seem to have been provided explicit instruction, scaffolding, modeling, or guided practice analyzing (comparing and contrasting) how different languages (e.g., lexicon and syntactic choices) can be maneuvered by writers from various positionalities and language and sociocultural perspectives in their learning process.

English and the educational structures of EAP. Due to the top-down demands imposed by the university, the educational structures (i.e., curriculum, instruction, and assessment) of EAP are heavily oriented towards “the norms and conventions that are required for reading and writing in Western, academic contexts” (García, Pujol-Ferran, & Reddy, 2013, p. 188). The assumption is that NNES international students have to play by those rules as defined by native English-speakers, reproduce what counts as linguistically and academically legitimate (Bourdieu, 1977) by native English-speakers, and should have achieved near-native English proficiency before their full admission to the degree

programs. In order to serve the NNES student body deemed by the university as ‘deficient’ in English language proficiency as measured by standardized tests (e.g., IELTS) (a policy widely questioned by both students and educators, as discussed in Section 6.2.3), EAP bears the responsibility to ‘fix’ their English so that they can be linguistically competent for academic studies in English.

The systematic perpetuation of the prestige and status of English as suggested in this study is in agreement with Jenkins’ (2014) research which indicates that the ‘universal’ benchmark status of English is more explicit and elaborate in Anglophone universities than in non-Anglophone contexts. Although my study does not involve comparisons among universities across countries in a worldwide scope, the participants’ familiarity with the Anglophone universities’ English language requirements and expectations nonetheless suggests the ubiquitous monolingual orientation in language management in Canadian HE.

The values of othered languages and cultures. While it is apparent that English has been and will continue to serve as the gatekeeping language for admitting and assessing incoming NNES international students, what is encouraging is the emergence of critical awareness and recognition of the values of *othered* languages and cultures. Such critical reflection was captured in the universities’ mentioning of intercultural learning in the internationalization documents (e.g., integrating language learning into curriculum, providing intercultural training for faculty, tailoring services to the unique needs of international students). Critical reflection was also contained in the EAP curriculum’s coverage of intercultural learning outcomes (e.g., abilities to “compare and contrast personal and cultural perspectives” in the syllabi) and the EAP classroom’s language

policy (i.e., the alternative language policy that allows the flexible use of L1 during the process of learning tasks). All this provides evidence that the wealth of knowledges, cultures, and perspectives brought by international students have gained attention in internationalization at home initiatives, e.g., activities that promote students' development of international understanding and intercultural skills at campus as opposed to going abroad (Knight, 2006). It is reasonable to assume that internationalization-at-home¹⁷ efforts will likely attract still more attention in the years to come.

In alignment with the 'international' or 'intercultural' ethos, the language expectations for oral communication in the classroom have become more tolerant with English varieties (e.g./i.e., Chinese English). The strict version of English-only classroom language policy appears to be fading out in current EAP classrooms as people develop more favourable attitudes towards difference and diversity. However, a significant gap exists between the 'ideal' and the reality where plurilingual pedagogies are largely absent, students' L1 (Mandarin) is still viewed as irrelevant to L2 learning, and limited systematic efforts are made towards an explicit recognition of students' plurilingualism.

The symbolic yet superficial existence of PIC-related language management decisions and efforts can be further explained by the nature of schooling, whether it is K-12 or HE: education is inherently conservative with its primary goal to acculturate students into established norms and conventions (Spolsky, 2009) and naturally inclined to resist any

¹⁷ The term "internationalization-at-home" is juxtaposed with internationalization abroad and cross-border internationalization. The concept mainly refers to "aspects of internationalization which would happen on a home campus" (Knight, 2008, p. 22). These campus-based aspects entail "the intercultural and international dimension in the teaching-learning process and research, extra-curricular activities, and the relationships with local cultural and ethnic community groups" (Knight, 2008, p. 22).

efforts towards pluralism (Coste et al., 2009). As such, international students' linguistic pluralism, which does not conform to the monolingual language policy, is rarely appreciated by the educational structures of EAP.

In short, confronted with the empire status of (standard academic) English, the awareness and efforts of promoting PIC among the members of the entire university domain remain rhetoric and bound by structural factors (e.g., the lack of incentives, resources, and support). As such, English, especially standard academic English, continues to be “the language of power and success” (García, Pujol-Ferran, & Reddy, 2013, p. 174) that dominates in formal assessment as well as classroom instruction and interactions, contributing to a systematic perpetuation of English and marginalization or even exclusion of other languages and knowledges.

6.1.3 Language Beliefs

Language beliefs (of people who are in power) form a basis for language management. Language management in turn confirms or contradicts the beliefs (of grassroots educators and students) underlying the community's language practices. The monoglossic and heteroglossic ideologies as found in this study can be interpreted through the lens of Cummins' (2001) CUP and SUP models along with the key tenets of PIC.

The monoglossic ideology and the SUP model. As found in this study, the most divided opinions entailed students' different understanding of plurilingualism and the debated interference effect of L1 on L2 learning. For people who were influenced by deep-rooted monoglossic beliefs, the ‘ideal’ EAP classroom tended to be one that would (a) pursue maximum (rather than sufficient) exposure to English, (b) promote the exclusive use of

English in the classroom, and (c) devalue practices involving students' L1 (e.g., translation and language mixing) during the learning process. They also tended to assume L2 acquisition to be linear, sequential, and compartmented, and the ultimate goal of L2 education to be a (near-)native-speaker proficiency.

The findings of enduring monolingual beliefs mirror the research literature which shows that many teachers and students still hold a monolingual attitude towards language learning, think of languages in mutual exclusion (Beacco & Byram, 2007), and associate plurilingualism and code switching with confusion and disorder rather than complementarity (Castellotti & Moore, 2002). The monoglossic ideology and its influence on L2 education can be explained by the SUP model that assumes two language systems to be separated solitudes between which little transfer of language knowledge and literacy skills would occur. Influenced by the perception of compartmentalization of languages, people may augment the interference effect of L1 on one's L2 learning to the extent that students' use of L1 (e.g., code switching) is downplayed to be a temporary transitional strategy or even a learning deficiency, a practice that contradicts empirical evidence and understandings of the multilingual mind (Cummins, 2007). Such deficit perceptions neglect language interdependence and transferable knowledge and skills, and mask the otherwise teachable moments of drawing on CLA for active intercultural learning.

The heteroglossic ideology and the CUP model and PIC. The CUP model and the PIC tenets can account for the rising heteroglossic ideology, especially the most highly rated language beliefs that recognize L1-L2 interdependence between students' L1 and L2 linguistically and cognitively, and the intertwined relationship between language and

culture. The results of this study indicate that students who accepted and mobilized their full linguistic resources tended to exhibit a stronger agency in L2 learning, while those who held ambivalence towards L1 use tended to experience persistent confusion, frustration, and even self-denial.

This can be understood from the PIC lens that views plurilingual students as active agents or social actors who strategically mobilize all available language resources (various levels of mastery of different languages) (Grosjean, 2010) and forms of knowledge (Moore & Gajo, 2009) in order to accomplish different communication tasks in different contexts. Based on the CUP model, the positive transfers and interconnections between L1 and L2 occur in both linguistic and cognitive terms, thus apply to both cognate language and non-cognate languages which may significantly differ in the forms of language. In addition, since the group of Chinese international students in this study learned EFL in China and were still relatively new in an English-medium learning environment, it is unrealistic (nor beneficial) for them to draw a clear borderline between language and cognitive aspects of learning anyway. L1 has been central in their previous cognitive development and will continue to play a pivotal and indispensable role in their learning of new content. Therefore, the students' learning should *not* be framed within monolingual approaches but supported with various plurilingual opportunities, resources, and guidance to motivate and empower them in active learning.

When it comes to the intertwined relationship between language and culture, the students' learning of standard (academic) English is intrinsically a process of L2 (academic) acculturation at the same time, in line with PIC stressing of the two dimensions of language (plurilingual) and culture (intercultural) as two faces of "a single

entity” (Coste et al., 2009, p. 16). This further suggests that international students’ learning of standard (academic) English in Canadian (academic) culture involves the abundant crossing of linguistic and cultural borders as well as emergent reflection on the differences as well as interconnections between languages and cultures as they make and negotiate meaning. Unfortunately, however, the students’ acculturation process seemed to be a one-way adaptation with the cultural learning onus placed mostly on the students.

Based on participants’ emic accounts, the honoring of the value of other languages and cultures in university internationalization documents and EAP syllabi appeared to be hardly translated into actions in the EAP classroom. To resolve the tensions around language and cultural differences, cultural differences must be viewed as neither absolute nor separate, but *in relation to* each other (Rizvi, 2009). While the linguistic and cultural borders can be messy at times, they afford valuable opportunities for developing CLA and intercultural understanding. However, inferred from the students’ unanimous yearning for respect and acceptance of different languages and language varieties, interculturality seemed to be lacking in the host community. While the students made numerous efforts to learn (standard academic) English and its (academic) culture, the host community, at least in the students’ impression, appeared to have far less (if any) genuine interest in learning about/from the students’ cultures (let alone languages). The lack of interest seems to undermine or even contradict the ‘mutual learning’ principle stressed in intercultural communication discourses. Even in occasional social events organized by some EAP programs and intended to celebrate cultural diversity, language is often neglected as if it were independent of culture.

As a result, ethnocentric educational practices appear to continue positioning the

international students “in learning and cultural deficit” (Marginson & Sawir, 2011, p. 10), without adequate recognition of their agency in and capacity for intercultural learning (Marginson & Sawir, 2011) or the multilingual resources that they bring into the university (Preece, 2010). When the students’ L1 is overlooked, it becomes rather questionable to what extent their cultures are respected, valued and integrated into the multilingual community.

6.1.4 Language Practices

The combination of pragmatic and critical (symbolic) considerations in language management and the coexistence of monoglossic and heteroglossic ideologies contribute to students’ (and instructors’) different degrees of compliance with and contestation of the monolingual language policy in EAP settings.

Situated in a classroom where Chinese students are the majority who generally favour a plurilingual orientation, the students managed and negotiated their own language practice by self-modifying their language behavior to accommodate the monolingual policy, or intentionally switching or mixing codes to communicate with each other in and outside the EAP classroom. By using the multiple languages and forms of knowledge that make up their holistic linguistic repertoire, they were able to mark their Chinese identities and bond with each other, developing camaraderie and succeeding as a group. These results of the study affirm the related research literature that supports students’ employment of code switching and translanguaging as effective communicative strategies, negotiate meanings and identities, and create new meanings and community relationships (Canagarajah, 2011, Marshall et al., 2012).

To be more specific, the students' language use entailed a flexible employment of all three forms of code switching (i.e., code switching, code crossing, and translanguaging, as described and distinguished in Section 3.3) to varying extents. Briefly, based on participants' accounts, code switching was the most common type. It could be captured in students' shuttling between English and Mandarin during class intervals and seeking clarifications during instruction and group discussions, which was most easily understood and tolerated by the instructors in my study. Next, translanguaging was reported being evident in some students' deliberate, integrated, and coherent ways of using both languages in mental processing and oral communications. Lastly, code crossing was performed occasionally when students used Mandarin to refer to a unique cultural frame intended for a stylish expression and Chinese identity marking (Pennycook, 2007). It could be understood instantly by other Chinese students but hard to be explained to their non-Chinese EAP instructor and fellow students in quick words without a detailed introduction of the cultural background of these terms.¹⁸

However, despite the various functions and ways of drawing on their *full* linguistic repertoire, the students viewed their experience of academic writing as being dominated by an exceedingly monolingual and conformist approach. Regulated by such an approach, their L1-related writing skills were discredited, and any attempts to resist or reappropriate academic norms would usually be penalized (often without being given a chance to justify their “wrong” way). This echoes Fredeen's (2013) finding that the

¹⁸ One example of code crossing among the Chinese participants was a student's reference to the Chinese word “Lanxiang” (藍翔). This word is originally part of the name of “Shandong Lanxiang Vocational School” and went viral online after its rap-style advertisement and subsequent scandals associated with its founder Lanxiang Rong in 2014. Since then, Chinese people have started to play around with the word Lanxiang in derogative and sarcastic ways, especially on social media and other online platforms.

existence of “hegemonic privilege associated with standard Canadian English” contributes to negative feelings ranging from “self-blame, invisibility, powerlessness, voicelessness, silence, and depression to anxiety” (p. 254) among the NNES international students.

Further, though well-intentioned instructors may try to convince the students that academic norms are not about good or bad (as if they were neutralized codes), they cannot change or challenge the political nature of academic discourses unless they incorporate critical approaches into their instruction. Otherwise, the implicit discourse as received (though sometimes questioned and resisted) by the students is that their language and cultural difference are ‘problems,’ rather than potential assets, to their academic socialization. Indeed, when the instructors have no knowledge of the students’ L1 and are not provided systematic guidelines of plurilingual pedagogy in the context of HE, they are not able to explicitly or systematically incorporate code switching or translanguaging in their EAP teaching, no matter how effective it has been proven to be in abundant empirical research literature with a primary focus on K-12 education.

In a nutshell, based on the analyses of the general trends of language policy, I argue that members in the EAP domain demonstrate an increasing awareness and tolerance of international students’ linguistic and cultural differences, yet still lack an adequate understanding of the interdependence and interconnectedness between languages and cultures in order to perceive such differences as assets to diversity. Without the necessary training, support, and resources to foster educational changes geared towards plurilingualism, the symbolic rhetoric towards linguistic and cultural diversity cannot be transformed into practice. As such, the international university and its EAP sector will

likely continue promoting the “local” language and culture (English Canadian academic culture) and perpetuating its institutionalized status without much interest in, let alone systematic guided actions toward the “global” (language and cultural interdependence from a global perspective).

6.2 The Interrelationships Between Perceptions of Language Management and Language Beliefs

In addition to the general trends in the three components of language policy, it is also important to understand the associations and interactions between people’s perceptions of language policy and particular language beliefs (based on statistical results and complementary qualitative insights) in order to obtain a fuller and deeper understanding of language policy. The interpretation of the interrelationships involves reflections on three critical topics/questions influencing students’ language choice:

- the relationship between English and other languages (whose language counts?),
- the relationship between ‘standard’ English and other English varieties (which English counts?), and
- the relationship of IELTS and EAP to academic success (which is perceived as more related to academic success by members of the EAP domain?).

Together, these discussions highlight the prominence of language diversity, dynamics, and fluidity (as highlighted by both numbers and voices). They also bring to the fore the critical question of whose language assumes power and authority in the ‘international’ community, and provoke reflections on the negotiation of the power relations behind English and other languages by educators and students in their co- and reconfiguration of the actual language policy in the EAP classroom.

6.2.1 The Relationship between English and Other Languages

The first group of interrelationships comprises two aspects of language policy, i.e., (a) language of instruction and interaction and (b) students' drawing on their holistic linguistic repertoire, both highlighting the unequal power relationship between the dominating English and the other languages in the international university (whose language counts?).

Inclusion or exclusion of L1 in instruction and interaction. The first aspect of interrelationships responds to the debate on the English-only classroom policy. While English undoubtedly serves as the language of instruction in the Anglophone universities in general (with the exception of language courses where the medium of instruction is expected to be the target language), its exclusive use in interactions, especially student-to-student interactions, is challenged by the majority of students who disagreed on English-only discussions where the working group share the same L1. Rather, this study has indicated that the beliefs underlying a person's support of a more inclusive and flexible classroom language policy appear to be associated with his or her adoption of certain plurilingualism-oriented beliefs that challenge the dominance of English in the international university from bottom up.

In this study, the plurilingualism-orientated beliefs associated with opposition to English-only interactions are: (a) knowledge of English is *not* enough to prepare students for intercultural communication, (b) knowledge of standard academic English is *not* enough for students to succeed in the international university, (c) it is possible to speak a language fluently *without* necessarily having learned the grammar well, (d) learning

several languages, even when they are non-cognate languages, would *not* diminish the level of mastery of each one, and (e) a multilingual person does *not* necessarily have to achieve perfect mastery of several languages. The first two beliefs denote the need for multiple language (variety) knowledges among the participants of internationalization to align with the ‘intercultural’ and ‘international’ ethos of the university. At the same time, the latter three beliefs indicate that languages spoken by a plurilingual person should not be perceived from a monolingual framework (balanced and perfect mastery of languages) but from a dynamic perspective that focuses on language interconnections and communicativeness.

In addition, corroborative qualitative results shed further light on this aspect of interrelationships by eliciting students’ (and educators’) voices from lived experience. Although the participants of this study were usually not familiar with the university internationalization documents and the “global” vision as advocated in those documents, they recognized the validity of integrating multiple languages (including their L1) and cultures into an international setting and the dynamics between the languages of a plurilingual individual. This is evident in the students’ general opposition to the English-only classroom language policy (positioning L1 as an undesired last resort) and their desire for the alternative language policy (perceiving L1 as a valuable and legitimate resource). Generally, the students’ flexible use of L1 (e.g., translation, code switching) in learning activities (e.g., discussion, note-taking, dictionary use) can facilitate the learning process, deepen their understanding, strengthen group dynamics, and increase their learning efficacy and confidence, all contributing positively to the product (e.g., oral presentations and written assignments) in English.

Incorporating or neglecting students' holistic linguistic repertoire. In addition to the preference of a more flexible language policy for interaction, students showed strong support for educational approaches that incorporate their full linguistic knowledge. This position was statistically associated with an understanding that (a) knowledge of English is *not* enough to prepare students for intercultural communication, (b) students inevitably use their knowledge of previously learned languages in their L2 learning, whether they like it or not, and (c) language mixing is a natural pattern of language use that should be not banished. Likewise, the voices of the majority of the student participants, based on qualitative results, revealed a passionate call for plurilingual pedagogies which should challenge the current exclusive approaches which discourage L1 use by advocating for inclusion of students' *whole* linguistic resources. This set of quantitative and qualitative results shares an emphasis on an ecological view of linguistic diversity and a dynamic view of language interdependence with the previous aspect of interrelationship, yet further brings to attention the issue of the legitimacy of fluidity across languages of the plurilingual person.

6.2.2 The Relationship between 'Standard' English and English Varieties

The second group of interrelationships includes another two aspects of language policy: the status of standard academic English and the (lack of) respect for English varieties. The interpretation of these two aspects in relation to their underlying language beliefs cast reflections on the question of which English counts or holds power in the international university, namely, *whose* English is crowned by *whom* to be the 'standard' in the internationalized university (where the demographics are highly multilingual) and its EAP (where international students use non-native Englishes).

In quantitative terms, the majority of students disagreed with the sole reliance on standard academic English for measuring their academic English abilities. This perception was related to students' understandings of the facilitation of L1 use to their L2 learning, language mixing being a natural and socially situated practice, and knowledge of standard academic English being insufficient for academic success in the international university. All this implies the complex interactions between languages and the importance of factors (e.g., study skills, work ethic) other than knowledge of standard academic English in their academic achievement.

At the same time, the students' call for more respect for English varieties was associated with a set of language beliefs that accents do not necessarily impede oral communication, monolingual knowledge of English is *not* enough to prepare students for intercultural communication, and ultimately, every language variety should be valued. This denotes a consensus on accepting L1-influenced accents and ways of speaking English. It is also noteworthy that the perception of monolingual knowledge of English as being insufficient for intercultural communication comes up with a higher frequency throughout correlational analyses, suggesting the rising prominence of plurilingual language knowledge in intercultural communication.

In qualitative terms, while students generally felt obliged to conform to the 'standard' due to its high-stakes influence on their academic study, they did not necessarily understand or agree with the discourses surrounding the parameters of 'good' writing. To address this gap of understanding, EAP educators must understand that students' language choice does not only involve the use of multiple languages and language varieties (Spolsky, 2009) but also influences elements (e.g., lexicon, grammar) at all levels (Spolsky, 2004).

An assimilative approach may exclusively stress *'the local standard'* as in the writing conventions and norms (as if they were homogeneous in Canadian academic culture, which is another related topic yet not within the scope of my study) without listening to international students' emic perspectives and building on their language and cultural backgrounds. This can lead to lasting confusion and frustration on both sides (educators and students) and severely undermine the process and outcomes of teaching and learning.

6.2.3 IELTS and EAP in Relation to Academic Success

Almost all students in this study had experience writing IELTS at least once prior to their EAP programs at the time of the research. While the overt juxtaposition of IELTS and EAP on the university websites (as two options for NNES students to meet the language requirement) implies an equation between IELTS and EAP in terms of their measuring of students' English language abilities, the EAP educators and students viewed them carrying significantly different values to their academic success.

IELTS in relation to academic success. IELTS, as an internationally recognized standardized English language test and thus a central device of LEP (Shohamy, 2006), (re)defines what counts as 'good' English in both spoken and written English and asserts a powerful impact on the students' prior language practices. However, the majority of students in this study questioned its objectivity in measuring plurilingual students' academic English abilities as well as its predictive validity on their academic success. The associated language beliefs entailed respect for linguistic diversity, a tolerance of accents, and a hope for the future of multilingualism for intercultural communication as well as future career development.

In general, students and educators stressed the paramount importance of test-taking skills in writing IELTS tests. They believed that IELTS scores could not guarantee a healthy work ethic that was deemed key to academic success in real university study. The students admitted that in their previous learning of English before the EAP programs, they focused on test-taking strategies and drills exclusively in test preparation courses, even though such language practices contradict pedagogical guidelines and principles based on empirical research. However, the fallacy of IELTS as a predictive indicator of academic success becomes somehow self-evident when universities send the ‘deficient’ students to the EAP program whose curriculum, teaching and learning materials, and assessment is placed on an entirely different track from IELTS. Instead, the students and their EAP educators unanimously regarded a strong work ethic or attitudes towards studies to be the most important indicator of academic success in the long term.

These IELTS-related findings are consistent with the research literature where a body of mixed and inconclusive results suggests that there is no consensus on the predictive validity of language proficiency assessment as to students’ academic performance at university, likely due to three reasons: (a) the nature of standardized language testing itself (i.e., unidimensional scales cannot measure the complex multidimensional nature of language ability, Spolsky, 2008), (b) an array of contextual factors (i.e., language is but one of many important factors contributing to academic success, Fox et al., 2014), and (c) the influence of test-taking strategies on its validity.

EAP in relation to academic success. EAP, in contrast, was lauded by the majority of the students who appreciated the unique values of the programs and were satisfied with the English support measures and resources provided by the university and the EAP

program. Their satisfaction was positively associated with, and further supported by, student voice which featured a rejection of the “the younger, the better” presumption, validation of the dynamics between languages, respect for linguistic diversity, and, somehow contradictorily, a desire to master English like a native-speaker.

To explain in greater detail, first of all, some students admitted that young age could be a potential advantage, but should not constitute a necessary condition for successful L2 learning. Since the EAP students are usually young adult learners of English, a rejection of the young age presumption seems to contribute to their confidence in learning English in their adulthood and ownership of their English. Next, respect for linguistic diversity in general and validation of the dynamics between L1 and L2 in particular in EAP appeared to contribute to the affirming of the students’ L1 identity and full linguistic repertoire, hence resulting in a better cognitive development and an overall better EAP experience. However, interestingly, the students still associated their L2 learning to the “native-speaker” standard. This indicates the influence of deep-rooted and widespread nativeness myth among the students who otherwise demonstrate strong plurilingual orientation. This may also partly explain why EAP programs tend to hire NES instructors to appease their ‘clients,’ especially in the teaching of spoken English.

The EAP programs that participated in my study shared the common goal of developing students’ language proficiency and facilitating their transition to academic communities as suggested in the literature (Cheng & Fox, 2008; Fox et al., 2006). However, some EAP educators in my study did demonstrate an evolving belief in their teaching of English with rising critical reflections on the dominant status of native English in its relations to other languages, which diverge from the findings in the above-mentioned literature where

EAP programs tend to improve students' English proficiency grounded in 'native' English(es).

It should be acknowledged that EAP professionals nowadays are increasingly informed by state-of-the-art applied linguistics theories and empirical research due to their academic accomplishment (e.g., degree programs, professional credentials) and/or professional development opportunities. Therefore, many of them reject the pursuit of (near-)nativeness, accept the use of English varieties in speaking, and realize students' use of L1 in L2 learning as being a natural process and even a potential resource for L2 learning. With such awareness in place, it is now timely to redefine the role of EAP in relation to the broader internationalization agenda of the university to become "sites of internationalized education" that are the consequence and in turn facilitator of "the cultural processes of globalization" (Singh & Doherty, 2009. p. 9), and reshape the educational structures of EAP to better accommodate the needs of international students. Recommendations are suggested in the final chapter (Section 7.3).

6.3 Summary

In this chapter, I have discussed the merged findings of my study in terms of the general trends in the three components of language policy and the interrelationships between perceptions of language management and the underlying language beliefs. To summarize, my overall analyses highlight a mixture of pragmatic/economic and critical/cultural considerations across language management, beliefs, and practice. This study has also made it clear that the pragmatic agenda (NNES students' adaptation to English-speaking

academic culture) exceedingly outweighs critical or ethical considerations (the prospect of intercultural learning opportunities).

Broadly, the unequal power relations between English and other languages as embedded in the language policy in Canadian HE seem to resonate with the power relations between official (English and French) and non-official languages at the level of the nation-state. At the level of language management of the institution, the uneven weights assigned to pragmatic and critical considerations manifest in the gatekeeping status of English in university admission and assessment and the educational structures of EAP, contributing to the othering or exclusion of NNES students' other languages. At the level of beliefs, with the coexistence of monoglossic and heteroglossic ideology, stakeholders express different understandings (e.g., interference versus interdependence) of the relationship between the languages of a plurilingual person. When it comes down to language practices, students and instructors demonstrate different degrees of compliance with and contestation of the monolingual language policy in EAP settings. Together, the two-fold characteristics of language policy can contribute to the reinforcement as well as problematization of the dominant status of English as the only legitimate language in a way that excludes the students' L1, others their cultural differences, and marginalizes their language identities.

The discussion of the interrelationships between perceptions of language management and language beliefs affords a fuller and deeper understanding of language policy and sheds further light on the critical topic of power relations and prominence of language diversity, dynamics, and fluidity in the international university. First of all, concerning the power relations between English and other languages, the correlations between

plurilingualism-oriented beliefs and opposition to English-only interactions speak to the need for multiple language knowledges for an ‘international’ university and favour a language interdependence perspective to accommodate NNES students’ language needs. Stakeholders’ voices based on their lived experience further support the importance of recognizing the dynamics and fluidity between languages and call for a plurilingual approach to communication and pedagogy.

Next, to facilitate reflections on the power relations between ‘standard’ English and English varieties, the exclusive status of standard academic English is challenged by beliefs that recognize the complex interactions between languages and the importance of other factors (e.g., study skills, work ethic) in academic studies. Students’ and instructors’ voices further suggested the existence of mismatched understandings of the parameters of ‘good’ writing, which could generate a negative impact on the learning process and outcomes.

Lastly, for the perceived value of IELTS and EAP to academic success, students and educators seem to favour EAP over IELTS, yet consider a strong work ethic as the key indicator of academic success. Meanwhile, the interrelationships between students’ satisfaction with language support and certain language beliefs underline the influence of the long-lasting nativeness myth among the students who otherwise demonstrate plurilingual beliefs. That said, some EAP educators are informed of current applied linguistics theories and do not always agree with the nativeness standard. They have the potential to become pioneers in designing and implementing plurilingual pedagogies together with their students and challenge the dominance of English in the international university from bottom up.

Moving on to the next chapter, I will conclude the study by articulating the implications based on the results. I will also make recommendations for institutions and EAP programs regarding how to improve language and sociocultural support for international students. Last but not least, I will acknowledge the limitations of this study and point out future research directions.

Chapter 7

7 Conclusion

In this final and concluding chapter, I reiterate the purpose of this research study, summarize how the central findings connect with the research purpose and answer my research questions as a whole, and highlight the importance of the research and its contributions to the knowledge of the field. I then consider the implications of the findings and provide recommendations for EAP programs and educators for better accommodating international students' language needs. Finally, I address the limitations of this research study and point out some beneficial directions for future research.

7.1 Purpose, Key Findings, and Significance

7.1.1 Purpose

In the context of globalization and internationalization, Canadian HE is experiencing a rapid increase of NNES international students who come from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds and need to be socialized into the local academic culture in English. Given that the role of language in the internationalization process remains under-researched, this research study examined a topic at the intersection of L2 education (EAP) and international education (admission and accommodation of inbound international students). It did this by responding to the overarching question of whether the language policy of the university aligns with the international ethos and meets the needs of NNES international students and by focusing on the rich intercultural milieu of EAP as an epitome of the landscape of internationalized Canadian HE.

Informed by language policy and plurilingualism theories and guided by a mixed-methods research design, I examined the tripartite academic English language policy enacted at three levels (language management, beliefs, and practices) as framed in three leading research questions: (a) What are the prevailing language management statements in the international university?, (b) Why do multiple stakeholders perceive the policy statements the way they do at the level of language beliefs?, and (c) How are the policy management statements implemented by the educators and students?. Ultimately, I intended to explore the prospective opportunities as well as the structural challenges of incorporating plurilingualism into the educational structures of EAP so that the internationalized EAP curriculum can foster plurilingual and intercultural competence among all members of the academic community.

7.1.2 Key Findings

The findings of the study revealed the complexity of language policy within its three components (language management, beliefs, and practices) and the interaction between the components. That is to say, there is an unequal weighting of pragmatic and ethical considerations at the levels of language management, evolving language beliefs toward a plurilingual orientation despite the influence of some deep-rooted monoglossic ideology, and heterogeneous language practices among the Chinese international students in EAP.

To summarize my answer to the first research question (What are the prevailing language management statements in the international university?), the prevailing language management statements in the international university feature an uneven/unequal weight/status given to the gatekeeping English language and other(ed) languages as

reflected in the language-related policy devices (admission requirements and assessment criteria) of the university and its strategic plans and other internationalization documents. While the prevalence of standard academic English is ensured and reinforced by standardized language testing and high stakes formal assessment, the role of other English varieties is recognized via increased tolerance of English accents and a call for including students' diverse cultural knowledges in class discussions. Nonetheless, there is far less recognition of international students' L1 and other language knowledges and tolerance of the heterogeneous language use among plurilingual students. Although the universities engage in internationalization and try to include an ethical dimension in this process, NNES students are generally required to refrain from plurilingual practices and feel their L1 language and culture have no place in the multilingual academic community.

To respond briefly to the second research question (Why do multiple stakeholders perceive the policy statements the way they do at the level of language beliefs?), I have demonstrated that there is substantial evidence of a shift away from monoglossic to heteroglossic ideology. However, the monolingual (mis)assumptions are still prevalent, and the heteroglossic assumptions are perceived as an idealistic prospect, resulting in people's ambivalence towards plurilingualism. Influenced by language management, most educators and students (to a much less extent) tend to simply regard ELLs' use of L1 in the L2 classroom as a temporary scaffolding device or even a learning deficiency, with the learning outcomes measured by monolingual standards; some recognize the value of students' L1 (Mandarin) in L2 (English) learning, but view the differences between Mandarin and English (they are non-cognate languages) from an essentialist viewpoint rather than an interdependence perspective. Consequently, all this may

contribute to a discourse that constructs “the Otherness of the international student in relation to the Western student” (Doherty & Singh, 2005, p. 53), labels them as “the Chinese students” who stick to their own language group, places the onus on the Chinese students to step out of *their* comfort zone, and downplays (if not bypasses) the host community’s partaking in intercultural encountering grounded on mutual respect and equal dialogue.

Lastly, to answer the third research question (How are the policy management statements implemented by the educators and students?), the *de facto* language policy or actual language choice made by students and managed by their educators is influenced by both the top-down language management (mainly homogenizing) of the university and the evolving language ideology towards plurilingualism (with ambivalence). Situated in the sociolinguistic situation of the EAP classes where the Chinese students constitute the vast majority, the students demonstrate the capacity to self-modify their language behavior to improve and succeed in their academic work, and mobilize all available resources to serve various communicative purposes and social functionality in their learning activities (e.g., group discussions, dictionary consultation, note-taking). They also exhibit their agency by claiming ownership of their English (and Mandarin of course) by intentionally mixing languages in creative ways, switching codes to negotiate meanings and identities, and succeeding as a group.

7.1.3 Significance

Many universities are striving to advance their internationalization process by steadily increasing the enrolment of international students, as well as developing support

programs to ensure their success. Given the changing nature of the student body within the context of educational internationalization, this study is original in adopting the mixed-methods methodology to investigate the links between language management and language beliefs from both quantitative and qualitative perspectives and providing results based on a systematic analysis of language policy situated in three-level contexts of internationalization. The results of the study contribute to the literature by deepening the current understanding of the life experience and potential agency of international students and how institutional policies and pedagogical practices can meet international students' needs, engage both international students and domestic partners in two-way intercultural learning, and respond to the call for a greater diversification of languages, locally and globally.

7.2 Implications

The findings of this study underscore the disjunction of intercultural learning between rhetoric and reality in the international community, echoing the proposition in the related research literature that internationalizing HE does not ensure interculturality (Bash, 2009; Durant & Shepherd, 2009; Jenkins, 2014; Seidlhofer, 2011). By focusing on the university's EAP domain as the central mechanism of language support for international students, this study ascertains the critical role of language in the process of internationalization. I contend that beliefs relating to language diversity, dynamics, fluidity, and the native-speaker standard are of paramount importance and particular relevance to the prospect of plurilingualism as the alternative approach to language policy in the international university. In addition, while the study acknowledges the progress

that has been made to date in the host communities, it discusses the implications herein for a more balanced language policy making, contributing to the sustainability of internationalization. The implications presented below will be of particular relevance and interest to directors and instructors in EAP programs, language teacher education programs, university admission offices, disciplinary departments, and faculties who work with international students.

On the positive side, admittedly, the host communities (EAP and university) have already started to pay attention to the homogenizing effect of an exclusive academic language policy imposed on NNES international students' heterogeneous language practices. Universities have also begun to develop initiatives or plans to increase domestic partners' (students, faculty, and staff) intercultural awareness and competence to work with international partners and engage in two-way dialogues for mutual learning and enrichment.

Still, more collective and critical reflections are needed on the competing discourses of pragmatic/economic and critical/cultural considerations as embedded in institutional language policy by highlighting the power relations between English (and standard academic English) and othered languages (and English varieties). Up to now, the pragmatic considerations prevail, and current educational policies and practices tend to perpetuate and reinforce the dominance of English (and standard academic English); the critical considerations mostly bear symbolic and rhetorical values without well-established guidelines and ensuing actions. One pertinent example from this study is people's contrasting attitudes towards linguistic plurality in written English (little tolerance or understanding of Chinese English in high-stakes writing tasks) versus spoken

English (some space for L1 use and respect for English varieties in informal or less formal communications). Without powerful policy devices to translate the rhetoric about recognizing students' linguistic and cultural capital in the educational structures of EAP, standard academic English will continue to be regarded as the *sole* conduit to academic success.

To move forward, however, this study does not suggest that the host institution should radically change the parameters of 'good' writing and encourage students' use of different English varieties in academic writing in the near future. Instead, I suggest that realistic changes should start with the *process* of teaching and learning by drawing on plurilingual perspectives based on multiple stakeholders' general language beliefs (i.e., plurilingual orientation in their perceptions of policies and practices except for academic writing). That is to say, I advocate for more understanding from the host community of international students' linguistic and cultural differences (which are more or less inherent in their spoken and written English) as the next step forward, so that the students' voices can be heard, their needs better accommodated and their L1 identities affirmed. Also, learning about international students' language and cultural differences in a non-essentialist manner will help the domestic partners develop intercultural awareness which is deemed as crucial for reconciling language and culture-related conflicts in multilingual settings and ensuring students' future success in an increasingly interconnected and interdependent world. Lastly, there is still a long way to go for the 'English' university to develop infrastructure (e.g., internationalized curriculum, intercultural workshops) to translate the intercultural spirit into all aspects of HE (including language support) so that it can stand as a truly 'international' university.

7.3 Recommendations

In light of the changing sociolinguistic landscape of Canadian HE in the era of internationalization, the EAP domain, as a rich international contact zone itself and its key function to help many new-arriving NNES international students transition to the university, must re-define its goal and modify its educational structures to align with the ‘international’ ethos of HE. Such changes should *consciously* take a reflexive stance to attend to ethical and cultural issues relating to language(s) in the curriculum, pedagogy and assessment of EAP programs, examine the potential exclusion and marginalization of NNES international students in educational approaches, facilitate the reconceptualization of international students’ L1 from a problem to an asset, and engage international students in shared intercultural learning opportunities for all members of the university. With the particular group of Chinese international students in mind, I make recommendations for improving language support (see Section 7.3.1) and sociocultural support (see Section 7.3.2) for institutions and EAP instructors as follows.

7.3.1 Language Support

Language support of the university, especially EAP, should consciously reflect on the monolingual orientation and critique *neutralized* discourses in educational policies and practices that perpetuate the exclusionary state of affairs where Chinese international students are becoming the *other* in the so-called international university community. To better support the students, I propose recommendations in terms of plurilingual pedagogy, PIC-guided curriculum, and PIC-friendly assessment protocols.

Plurilingual pedagogy (institutional level and individual level). Given the reality that plurilingual students “live, think, and study” in multiple languages simultaneously (Barbara, an EAP instructor participant in this study), EAP educators can draw on plurilingual pedagogy as a key device to resonate with, rather than to go against, the plurilingual students’ language beliefs and practices to start the “bottom-up and grassroots initiatives” (Shohamy, 2006) and challenge the normative language requirements “homogenizing from above” (Jenkins, 2014, p. 6). However, EAP instructors, while they are not opposed to the idea of plurilingual pedagogy, are often not armed with the necessary knowledge and skills regarding how to implement it in their own classroom, especially when they have little understanding of the students’ L1. The following provides some recommendations for both EAP programs and individual instructors, respectively.

EAP programs must provide the instructors with the necessary training, funding, and resources to promote plurilingual pedagogy and support the instructors in guided initiatives. To do so, first of all, EAP programs need to provide professional development opportunities (training) in plurilingual pedagogy for instructors as well as recruit EAP instructors and curriculum developers who have adequate knowledge of Mandarin (and other languages). Though it is not possible for the instructors to accommodate all the languages spoken by the students, it is beneficial for the instructors to have some knowledge of the language(s) spoken by the majority of the students. In fact, some individual educators in this study clearly expressed an interest in learning basic Mandarin and plurilingual pedagogy with the intention to better teach diverse students. Experts in plurilingual pedagogy can provide the necessary tool-kits and train the instructors how to

implement plurilingual pedagogy while not necessarily speaking the students' L1. At the same time, bilingual (Mandarin-English) instructors can take into consideration the unique aspects of Mandarin in instructional guidelines and curriculum development. They can also provide the knowledge base to familiarize other colleagues with Chinese students' language and cultural background (given the large presence of this ethnic student group).

Next, EAP programs should provide funding to the instructors to attend conferences, so that instructors will be informed of cutting-edge theories and theory-informed practices of L2 teaching and learning in and outside Canada. Conference registration and travel are costly, and it is very difficult for contract-based instructors to afford the expenses on their own. Third, EAP programs can encourage instructors to conduct action research or participate in plurilingualism related research projects in various roles (e.g., research partner, participant) so that the instructors can develop more understanding and competence of plurilingual pedagogy. Last, programs should motivate the instructors who have the knowledge base, skills, and background in practicing or experimenting plurilingual pedagogies to showcase and share their experience (successes and challenges) with colleagues.

However, when programmatic support is not yet in place, individual EAP instructors (and university professors who teach the EAP students) should have some degree of freedom in determining how to teach, engage, and interact with students in their own classroom. According to PIC tenets, both educators and students, seen as active agents of their own language management, may negotiate the classroom language policy in an open dialogue

and modify the instructional approach to deal with students' language practices in ideologically and practically achievable ways (Spolsky, 2004).

A good example is García and Flores' (2012) plurilingual scaffolding strategy that balances structural constraints and progressive tenets of plurilingualism. The strategy includes five scaffolding stages, involving (a) establishing contextual and instructional routines and language patterns, (b) contextualizing through heterogeneous language practices and modes, (c) modeling the routines and language use and verbalizing the actions, (d) bridging target learning content with students' prior knowledge through various learning activities conducted in other languages, not just English, and (e) allowing students to demonstrate their understanding in different ways of languaging. Though this strategy was originally used in K-12 settings, the structure and the principles underlying it certainly relate to educational practices in post-secondary education as well.

As an example of plurilingual pedagogical initiatives in Canadian HE, Marshall and Moore (2016) describe how an instructor of a first-year academic writing class employed the following strategies as guidelines:

- raise awareness among students of each other's languages and cultures as they negotiated a range of new academic genres and conventions;
- encourage students to develop their voices and identities as newcomers to the academy; and
- open up spaces for the use of languages other than English as tools for learning, and in the *process* [emphasis added] of creating final *products* [emphasis added] in academic written English. (p. 9)

Three students (Yeon, whose L1 is Korean, Troy, who self-identified as a monolingual English speaker, and Jake, a French-English bilingual speaker) were involved in the reported vignette. They all agreed to include a non-mutually comprehensible code (i.e., Korean) as a tool for learning in their collaborative task, which turned out to be successful; that is, it provided strong evidence of the students' clear understanding of the learning content. Note that two students in the same group lacked knowledge of Korean, and the instructor did not have any prior knowledge of the Korean language either. Nonetheless, the students demonstrated their agency, negotiated their identities, and achieved effective learning results in a classroom that endorsed the representation of all of the students' languages while learning academic English.

It can be seen from these two examples that it is important to point out that passive tolerance of students' L1 (i.e., the compromised version of English-only policy as reported in Chapter 5) does *not* automatically transform into plurilingual pedagogy. Since plurilingual pedagogy promotes explicit instructions that recognize the fluid and dynamic interactions between L1 (e.g., Mandarin) and L2 (e.g., English) from an interdependence or de-compartmentalization perspective, instructors should encourage students to draw on their holistic linguistic repertoire, not just English, in conscious and strategic use of multiple and hybrid languages/codes. Although instructors do not necessarily have to speak the students' L1(s) in order to conduct plurilingual learning activities, some basic understanding of students' L1 will clearly help deepen understandings of L1-L2 connections and enhance the classroom rapport. EAP instructors who are proficient in both English and Mandarin can further guide students' cross-linguistic analyses of English-Mandarin differences and commonalities. Of course, this is not to deny the

overarching objective of improving students' proficiency in L2, but to affirm their L1 identities, increase their confidence in L2, and learn how to actively draw on the interconnections of L1 to L2, all of which make a positive contribution to students' PIC.

Furthermore, plurilingual pedagogy explicitly invites students to analyze, question, and challenge dominant discourses (e.g., language requirements) by exploring alternative and multiple perspectives, validating *their* linguistic and cultural perspectives. For example, as shown in this study, the two parameters of good writing (clarity and grammatical correctness) imposed on students create a lot of confusion, misunderstandings, tensions, and even conflicts in the writing classroom. Based on my findings, it seems problematic to teach the students only the overt rules (what standards or criteria are used) and techniques (how to conform to the norms), without also instilling in them sufficient critical understanding of the covert discourses embedded in such requirements. These covert discourses involve questions of *who* (Who formulated language requirements?), *why* (What are the sociocultural, historical, and political contexts and rationales behind the rules?), and *what-if* (What is gained and lost by complying with these requirements, and what are the consequences of trying to change current conditions?).

Addressing these questions in an open manner will nurture students' critical thinking and help students better understand the power relations between languages and language varieties, differences *and* interdependence between languages and cultures, as well as the heterogeneity of academic discourses across different universities, departments, faculties, and individuals. From an optimistic perspective, it may ultimately help resolve the tensions and conflicts arising in the classroom due to a simplistic, static, and essentialist understanding of academic writing in L2.

The two previous examples suggest that plurilingual or translingual pedagogy has great potential to capitalize on students' heterogeneous linguistic repertoires during the *process* of learning, which leads to a more desirable *product*; namely, learning standard academic writing. While I endorse these plurilingual approaches, it should be noted that some scholars advocate for an even more radical approach by incorporating diverse English varieties into both the process and product of academic writing. An exemplary strategy for appropriating the standards of academic writing in HE is proposed by Canagarajah (2006) who recommends that instructors draw on “code meshing as a strategy for *merging* [emphasis added] local varieties with Standard Written English in a move toward gradually pluralizing academic writing” (p. 586) in order to help students develop plurilingual competence and negotiate and “reconstruct policies ground up” (p. 587). Canagarajah (2006) suggests that students be trained to negotiate grammatical choices based on their unique purposes of communication, situated context, and assumptions of readers and writers.

To respond to some practitioners' concerns whether such practices would lower the academic standards for NNES students, Canagarajah (2006) posits that the conscious employment of the code meshing strategy should by no means be seen as a practice that lowers pedagogical standards for NNES students; rather, it is even more demanding than monolingual standards because the students do not only need to master standard written English to be academically successful, but also merge their own preferred English varieties in *meaningful* ways in order to mark and celebrate their identities, which is demonstrated in the employment of translanguaging strategies by the Saudi Arabian student (Canagarajah, 2011), as mentioned in my literature review. As such, plurilingual

pedagogy can serve both pragmatic and ethical interests in appropriate contexts and help students become confident and creative writers.

PIC-guided curriculum. The EAP curriculum needs to be revised in accordance with the principles of PIC to serve the following objectives: (a) the development of individuals' general competence (consisting of knowledge, skills, and attitude), (b) the extension and diversification of communicative language competence (i.e., pragmatic effectiveness and sociolinguistic finesse in addition to linguistic mastery), (c) better performance in specific language activities (i.e., a matter of reception, production, interaction, or meditation), and (d) optimal functional performance in a given domain (e.g., the public, occupational, educational, or personal domains) (Coste et al., 2009, p. 28-29).

Compared to the traditional curriculum, the PIC-guided curriculum includes critical thinking and intercultural learning components in a manner that does not impose the onus entirely on the students but stresses the centrality of mutual respect and enrichment in the process. It regards *all* linguistic practices and modes as resources of equal value as guided by the principles of social justice and collaborative social practice (García & Flores, 2012), and promotes both sociocultural development and language acquisition of the plurilingual individual (Jeoffrion et al., 2014). For example, the curriculum may include materials in students' L1 and expose students to English varieties. But it is not easy for programs to develop curriculum materials that effectively address the linguistic and cultural differences and interdependences between English and other languages (e.g., Mandarin). As Canagarajah (2011) states, "we still have a long way to go in developing a taxonomy of translanguaging strategies and theorizing these practices" (p. 415).

PIC-friendly assessment protocols. Efforts towards plurilingual pedagogy and PIC-informed curriculum will likely produce ripple effects on assessment framework. Formal assessment is the most powerful policy device. In fact, the most controversial topic facing plurilingualism is perhaps whether and to what extent assessment protocols should be adjusted in order to honor plurilingualism by taking into accounts linguistic diversity and fluidity, grounded on the assumption that the academy should become more flexible and tolerant of diversity (Belcher & Braine, 1995). While assessment may take different forms, this study includes recommendations for two distinct types: IELTS for admission purposes and language requirements for academic writing.

IELTS and admissions. This study suggests that IELTS still conveys some value for university admission decisions for estimating students' future academic performance, not because it accurately measures students' academic English abilities, but because good IELTS scores are deemed as signs of a good student. In the study, IELTS is considered by the participants as a mix of general English and attempted academic English and does not represent the real academic English used in academia in general, let alone discipline and individual variations.

Therefore, university admission should be cautious with the value of IELTS as a measurement of students' English language proficiency or an indicator for their future academic performance, given the mixed and inconclusive results of the predictive validity of gatekeeping tests. Universities can consider adopting alternative testing strategies which are based on democratic principles (Shohamy, 2017) and informed by the specific context, domain, and subject area in which the students are to function (Leung, Lewkowicz, & Jenkins, 2016). While changes to pre-enrolment tests remain debatable, a

general consensus that has been reached widely is that universities should provide ongoing language supports (e.g., EAP courses, plurilingual teaching assistants or mentors, discipline-specific language and literacy guidance) as needed *throughout* students' academic study.

Assessing academic writing in L2. As it is problematic to gauge plurilingual individuals' competence against the native-speaker model, researchers have advocated for replacing the native-speaker model with an expert multilingual speaker model (House, 2003) or multicompetence (Cook, 1999). I recommend the assessment framework of L2 academic writing to be informed of the empirical evidence of plurilingualism research and the possibilities of differentiating assessment criteria for plurilingual students' writing by developing and designing rubrics that recognize and validate students' pluralistic linguistic and cultural capital (e.g., by focusing more on the semantics or meaning, and less on the syntactical aspects or grammatical correctness [such as the misuse of singular and plural forms of nouns] as long as it does not affect meaning). I also suggest professors start to shift the "L1 interference" (a deficiency model) perspective towards the language interdependence perspective. Professors and students should explore ways to negotiate and co-construct meaning by actively drawing upon heterogeneous language codes, modes, and resources as effective communication strategies. Additionally, professors should grant students some autonomy or space to justify their informed choices of different writing styles and norms, thereby helping students (and themselves) develop knowledge, skills, and attitudes that are in line with PIC, and encourage students to draw on a broader frame of reference than a monocultural realm.

Undoubtedly, changing the formal assessment policy can be the most challenging and debated aspect of plurilingualism in HE. However, educators and researchers must work collectively towards democratic changes of assessments given its power/status in language management whose potential success largely depends on its recognition of and congruity with the sociolinguistic situation, language beliefs, and language practices, as well as its attendance to potential internal conflicts within each component of language policy (Spolsky, 2004). As Taylor and Snoddon (2013) argue, the impact of plurilingualism on educational practice will remain limited “unless and until it is seen as permissible to breach these standards ... in the production of [high-stakes] academic English texts” (p. 439). After all, excluding students’ L1 does *not* serve the best interest of the international students as is assumed by many, nor does it promote the claimed intercultural ethos of Canadian HE or the heterogeneous language realities in Canadian society. PIC-inspired approaches seem to make EAP education more enjoyable and meaningful for both educators and students.

7.3.2 Sociocultural Support

Due to the intertwined relationship between plurilingual and intercultural competence, sociocultural support is as important as language support to the EAP students’ transition into Canadian HE. It should be noted that most students are still relatively new to Canada and have limited previous international experience. Therefore, sociocultural support provided by their EAP program and the university assumes vital importance for their settlement (study and life) in a new country/culture. To facilitate a two-way dialogue based on open-mindedness, genuine interest, and mutual respect, sociocultural activities

should be provided in a way that creates rich intercultural learning opportunities for both international students and the members of the host communities.

Intercultural learning opportunities for the international students. This study has made the case that promoting English-only does not necessarily lead to optimum English learning processes and outcomes. EAP programs and universities should work together to create welcoming atmospheres and opportunities for the students to showcase their linguistic and cultural knowledges in various forms (e.g., a vignette on the campus magazine, a video featuring individual narratives and stories) so that students would view their language and cultural difference as more of an asset, instead of a barrier, to their socialization into the university and Canada.

Universities and EAP programs should also make a concerted effort to connect the EAP community to the broader university or even local residential communities and significantly increase the students' exposure to English in *authentic* multilingual sociocultural settings outside the EAP classroom. The students are generally very eager to learn about and adapt to the local cultures. They demonstrate immense interest in participating in community service work and making use of various volunteering opportunities. Therefore, many more co-curricular and extracurricular activities are needed for the students to network with other-language peers or people (e.g., domestic students) as opposed to being forced to speak English to their Mandarin peers (a rare situation in their real social life in a same-language community). It will be more helpful for students learn how to be more sensitive to language and cultural differences from real life experiences.

Further, EAP programs need to reconsider the length of the courses in their curriculum development to give more credit to sociocultural activities if possible. Influenced by commodification discourses, EAP has somehow become a fast-service industry, and the courses are typically ranging from three to 12 months depending on the students' proficiency level. With the intensive focus on the language goal, sociocultural needs are relatively overlooked, and intercultural learning opportunities often give way to the already heavy-loaded academic work of the students. Therefore, EAP programs should consider modifying the length of courses to make space/time for integrating international students' intercultural learning (communicating with other-language people) into educational outcomes.

Intercultural learning and training for the host community. To serve the dual purpose of better accommodating/engaging international students and cultivating global citizenship among domestic students simultaneously, Canadian HE is facing an urgent call for measures to increase intercultural awareness from the host community and to facilitate the process of internationalizing from within. To increase intercultural awareness among the host community, many more intercultural training opportunities should be provided to professors and administrators who work with international students.

In addition, the university should incorporate language courses (e.g., Mandarin courses) and other international learning opportunities into curriculum and programs, encourage more inclusion of different cultural frames of reference in the teaching and learning processes, and enhance the development of liaison with different ethnocultural groups (Knight, 2006). There should be more attention paid to the networking between local

communities and the international student body in co- and extracurricular activities. For instance, it may be a good idea to create opportunities of pairing the Chinese international students with domestic students who are learning Mandarin as a foreign language, so that they can learn from each other in terms of language and culture. It should also recognize/reward exemplary initiatives that contribute to deepening people's understanding of the educational and humanitarian values of internationalization.

In the current political atmosphere around xenophobia and racism, awareness of differences does not guarantee an embracing of diversity, nor does the conceptual or physical establishment of community ensure a sense of unity among its members.

Canadian HE must attend to “a dynamic balance” between the two competing discourses or values, i.e., liberal-academic versus neoliberal-instrumental, for internationalization initiatives so that universities can maintain or improve their competitiveness in the global market of international education without compromising humanitarian values (Taskoh, 2014). Only by doing so can *all* members of the EAP and university domain benefit from mutual learning and enrichment and develop a truly intercultural competence that entails a dynamic understanding of differences across languages and cultures, embracing cross-cultural differences, and most importantly, drawing on the interconnections to develop and consolidate a unified community that nurtures global leaders of the future.

7.3.3 Imagining the Average EAP Student in the PIC-informed Classroom

Imagine the aforementioned average EAP student in the classroom inspired by PIC tenets and guided by plurilingual pedagogies. At the very beginning of the course, the instructor welcomed the students (who may be surprised at the large presence of Chinese students

in the EAP program), introduced the basics of plurilingualism and benefits of including the students' two or more languages in learning activities based on empirical evidence in research literature, and listened to the students' voices regarding any questions or concerns they might have. There are a few students who still prefer to work in a strictly English-only group. That is fine too, and they have the freedom to form their own group as they like. But this average student, like the majority of her classmates, feels more confident and comfortable working in a same-language group where members can use their L1 and English in flexible and hybrid ways as agreed upon.

As the course goes on, she can read a text in English and discuss it in her flexible use of both languages with her peers. She consults bilingual dictionaries and compares the Mandarin and English explanations and examples of English vocabulary for an accurate, contextualized, and nuanced understanding. She makes notes with mixed codes as she feels appropriate and helpful. She is encouraged to connect the new learning content to her prior knowledge by switching languages to discuss with her peers, using translation as a strategy to clarify meaning and support each other, and by reading related texts (which can be self-supplied or provided by instructors or teaching assistants) in both English and Mandarin to enhance her understanding. What's more, she is guided and modeled in how to draw on CLA to conduct cross-linguistic analyses of the writing norms in English and Mandarin for a better understanding of cultural differences and analyzing/questioning the unequal power relations embedded in texts of standard English and English varieties (e.g., Chinese English).

Outside the EAP classroom, the EAP program and the university are helping her to become aware of the volunteering opportunities available, and her active participation

earns her credits for her academic achievement in the program. She applies for a police check and signs up for a volunteering position of teaching assistant at a local school. She enjoys practicing her oral English in a natural and authentic English setting and contributes her knowledge and culture to the school community when there is an opportunity. Meanwhile, she also finds that people she encounters in the university have shown growing and genuine interest in her language and culture and there are opportunities around for her to showcase her language and cultural capital in a variety of ways (e.g., students-teach-students sharing series). She feels satisfied, motivated, and empowered that she is not treated as an ‘outsider’ or ‘alien’ but a well-supported and active participant of the ‘international’ community.

7.4 Limitations

To add transparency to my study and acknowledge the limited scope, methodological restrictions, and practical constraints I experienced during the research, I identify three main limitations of the study, in terms of its time span, statistical generalizability, and comprehensiveness, in my offer of cautious interpretations of the results.

7.4.1 Time Span

The data collection process took place over a three-month period within a single term of EAP courses, and it was a single participation for all educators and students involved in the study. While this decision was appropriate based on the nature and scope of my research (an independent doctoral study with time and resource constraints), a longitudinal study (over an extended period of EAP programs or even into their four-year university study) with multiple participations and comparisons would ideally depict a

more complete picture of the participants' evolving and changing perceptions and beliefs over time along their trajectory in the different years of Canadian HE (e.g., students may have stronger plurilingual orientation in their language beliefs as they move to the upper years of their academic studies, cf. Jeoffrion et al., 2014).

7.4.2 Measurement

The quantitative component of this study assumes limited statistical generalizability because of the limitations of my measurement. The sampling was partial and cross-sectional, and based on voluntary participation (instead of simple random sampling) both at the program level and individual level, thus not necessarily approximating characteristics of other programs and individuals. Also, despite every effort I made to base the instrument on a sound theoretical ground, the internal consistency for the entire scale and the subscales (as measured by Cronbach's alpha) was low, possibly due to a number of reasons (i.e., the lack of a unitary underlying construct, the context-specific nature of the sample, and the complexity of language beliefs instruments) as suggested earlier on in Chapter 4. After all, learner beliefs measurements focusing on plurilingualism are still rare in the literature (Jeoffrion et al., 2014), and there are few established instruments to date, within my knowledge, that measure the quantitative dimension of the interrelationship between LP and LB. Therefore, this measurement is considered exploratory, and the results will contribute to my further development of the instrument.

When it comes to the qualitative data collection, the research involved only three EAP programs and 20 participants in the interviews. There are only two categories of

participants (EAP educators and students, with one exception of an individual from university management), without perspectives of other participants in the EAP (e.g., professors of the simulation courses; domestic students who serve as peer guides for international students) or university community (e.g., faculties, university internationalization office). Therefore, participants' (EAP educators' and students') voices based on their lived experience might constitute two sources of illuminating, yet incomplete, perspectives of the whole story.

7.4.3 Comprehensiveness

Although I strived to provide a comprehensive and objective account of the research problem, this study mainly relied on self-reported data from the sources of questionnaires and interviews, which inevitably affects the comprehensiveness or thickness of my description and analysis of the research problem. I had no access to students' writing samples and social media texts to analyze and compare their code meshing patterns as a realization of translanguaging on the text. Also, the curriculum documents are gathered from only two of the research sites that voluntarily shared their internal documents. In addition, the classroom observations were also conducted for a limited amount of time because of time and access restraints. Although the observation data corroborated interview data and my extensive experience of EAP realities, surprising findings might otherwise emerge given more immersion (or ethnographic fieldwork) in an extended observation period.

7.5 Future Research Directions

There are many possibilities and significant demands for future research regarding the connection between language(s) and internationalization of HE. Additional studies are needed to capture individuals' change of perspectives from pre- and post- surveys and interviews. It will be beneficial to recruit a larger sample size from more programs and universities (the more, the merrier) to provide more data to collect evidence of statistical interrelationships between language policy (management) and language beliefs. Also, more studies are needed to develop and refine quantitative measures by following well-established guidelines such as Hinkin, Tracey, and Enz's (1997) seven-step process of scale development and analysis: (a) generating items, (b) testing items for conceptual consistency, (c) administering questionnaire, (d) conducting factor analysis, (e) determining the internal consistency of the scale, (f) determining construct validity, and (g) repeating the scale-testing process with a new data set. This process will involve piloting, revising, and repeating until a solid scale is established with adequate reliability and validity for testing future hypotheses.

Future research on this topic can also include more categories of participants (e.g., university professors, domestic students) to provide a more nuanced and triangulated depiction of the research problem, and incorporate more sources of data (e.g., students' writing samples as marked by instructors, social media text as social practice of multiple and hybrid codes and identities, program curriculum and other internal documents) in order to increase the overall generalizability and comprehensiveness of the research study.

Furthermore, there should be research that explores the opportunities as well as challenges for educators and students who are pioneering plurilingual pedagogies in EAP, or other comparable transnational/multilingual classrooms in HE. To date, plurilingual pedagogies in HE are still scarce. As Taylor and Cutler (2016) assert, “translingual [plurilingual] pedagogy is still in its infancy (e.g., in secondary and higher-education settings) ... there is still no consensus about the role of the NL [L1] or how best to incorporate translingual [plurilingual] methods” (p. 391). Yet, initiatives to explore plurilingual pedagogies across the curriculum (e.g., science, education, linguistics courses) have made the case that dynamic teaching practices enable students to actively draw upon their linguistic capital for better academic performance (Pujol-Ferran, DiSanto, Rodríguez, & Morales, 2016). Therefore, much more research is needed to contribute to the development of practical classroom toolkits (Benesch, 2001) and a coherent curriculum design framework (Lillis, 2006) for practitioners to better deal with the complexities and dynamics of everyday teaching.

7.6 Concluding Remarks

My favorite Canadian commercial is the multilingual Molson global beer fridge (Molson Canadian, 2015). I love the generous fridge that provides free beer to strangers on the street, but most importantly, it requires multiple languages to say “I am Canadian” as the code to ignite the celebration. This commercial touched my heart every time I watched it. A short answer to the reason is that it connects my subjectivity and affirms my hybrid identities as both Chinese and Canadian-to-be (permanent resident at the moment of writing).

Like others, I have multiple identities, among which a significant dual one is being an NNES Chinese international student pursuing doctoral studies in Canadian HE and an EAP instructor having worked with adult students from diverse language and cultural backgrounds for many years. Throughout the research and writing process, I resonate strongly with both students and educators in my study in many of their accounts and constantly reflect upon the question of how to balance the critical and pragmatic considerations in EAP education provided to international students. There were certain moments that I felt the pragmatic concerns were so overwhelming that the cultural aspects of EAP education were masked or concealed in students' L2 academic socialization for various reasons as if they were irrelevant (or much less important) to the students' academic well-being. However, NNES students cannot, and should not, perform as domestic Canadian students or idealized native speakers of English (Marshall, 2010) in order to be accepted and integrated into internationalized Canadian HE.

As an EAP practitioner and researcher, I call on colleagues in the field to reflect on, question and resist normative academic discourses that fictionalize and fossilize differences between non-cognate languages (e.g., English and Mandarin) and between 'Western' and 'Eastern' cultures, ideologies that valorize or neutralize English as the international language of supreme power and success (García et al., 2013), and educational practices that consciously or unconsciously perpetuate a systematic exclusion or othering of international students. EAP education, based on critical pragmatism and guided by plurilingualism, does not have to submit itself to the homogenizing orientation of top-down imposed language management, but take a proactive lead and keep a

dynamic balance between critical and pragmatic agenda towards an equitable and transformative educational experience for all students.

To end the final chapter, despite the entrenched privilege of English in the international university, I hope that this research study can spark dialogues between multiple stakeholders in the internationalization agenda and support grassroots initiatives starting from the EAP domain. International students' languages and cultures are the stepping stones for them to step out of their comfort zone. Yet all the small steps we take around the open dialogue of enacting an inclusive language policy for diverse students are also stepping stones which will lead to synergic changes in the university community and beyond, so that all members of the international university can develop, embrace, and celebrate global citizenship.

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Appendices

Appendix A: International Student Questionnaire (English Version)

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire. Please answer each question to the best of your understanding. There is no right or wrong answer. Only your opinion matters! Your thoughtfulness & candid responses will be greatly appreciated. Your responses will be kept completely confidential.

Part I Please check the word or phrase that best describes your opinion.

	Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Agree	Agree Strongly	N/A or Prefer not to respond
Language Policy (LP)					
1. Standard academic English should be used as the only measure of academic English abilities for English language learners.					
2. English should not be used as the only medium of instruction and classroom interaction in an international university.					
3. Academic English policy should require all students to follow Canadian academic norms in their written English work.					
4. The international university should respect and tolerate students' diverse ways of speaking English (e.g., accent, expression).					
5. University language policy should encourage multilingual students to draw on their knowledge of several languages, not just English.					
6. English language proficiency tests (e.g., IELTS, TOEFL) can objectively measure an English language learner's academic English abilities.					
7. English language proficiency tests cannot predict individual students' academic success in an international university.					
8. Overall, there are sufficient English support measures and resources for international students in the university.					
Language Beliefs (LB)					
9. People who speak several languages are better able to adapt to other cultures.					
10. I learn a language better when I like the country(ies) in which it is spoken.					
11. It is possible to separate a language from its culture.					
12. Knowledge of English is not enough to prepare students for intercultural communication.					
13. It is not necessary to know several languages in future workplace.					
14. Knowledge of academic English is enough for students to succeed in the international university.					
15. Only people who have a natural talent for					

languages can learn additional languages successfully.					
16. It is possible to speak a language fluently without having learned it during childhood.					
17. A high level of intelligence is required to learn several languages.					
18. It is possible to learn a language successfully even with a learning disability.					
	Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Agree	Agree Strongly	N/A or Prefer not to respond
19. Memorizing vocabulary lists helps me to better understand and speak languages.					
20. It is possible to speak a language fluently without necessarily having learned the grammar well.					
21. The goal of language learning is to use the language like a native-speaker of the language.					
22. It is possible to be understood in a foreign language even without a good accent.					
23. A multilingual person does not necessarily have perfect mastery of several languages.					
24. Being multilingual is to speak, understand, read, and write several languages perfectly.					
25. I do not use my knowledge of previously learned languages to help myself learn a new language.					
26. A person who speaks several languages can learn others more easily.					
27. I try not to use translation (e.g., from English to Chinese) when learning another language.					
28. When I learn another language, I compare it with my native language & culture.					
29. Every language (e.g., English, Chinese) and language variety (e.g., Cantonese) should be valued.					
30. Students should use two languages (e.g., English and Mandarin) without mixing them up.					
31. It is possible to learn several languages effectively at the same time, even if they are from different language families (such as English and Chinese).					
32. Learning several languages, especially when they are from different language families (such as English and Chinese), diminishes the level of mastery of each one.					

Part II Personal education and language background. Please check the answer that applies.

33. I identify my gender as: _____ [] Prefer not to respond

34. Months of experience in Canadian education system: _____ month(s) [] Prefer not to respond

35. Have you had any other international experiences (for example, a short-term course or study/work abroad experience) prior to your education in Canada?

[] Yes (if selected, please go to Q36) [] No (if selected, please go to Q37)

[] N/A or prefer not to respond (if selected, please go to Q37)

36. Please briefly describe your international experiences in the space below:

(1) where: _____; for how long: _____ months

(2) Where: _____; for how long: _____ months

(3) Where: _____; for how long: _____ months

N/A or prefer not to respond

37. What is your current enrolment status in the university?

Current enrolled student in an academic English program for ESL/EFL students (if selected, please go to Q38)

Former enrolled student in an academic English program for ESL/EFL students (if selected, please go to Q39)

Other (please specify: _____ & then go to Q40) Prefer not to respond (if selected, please go to Q40)

38. What level/class are you studying at the academic English program for ESL/EFL students: _____?

Other (please specify: _____) Prefer not to respond

39. In which department are you studying at the university?

Arts & Humanities Accounting & Finance Health Science Computer Science
 Engineering Information & Media Studies Business Science Social Science

Architecture Education Law Others (please specify: _____) Prefer not to respond

40. How many languages or language varieties do you speak in addition to Chinese languages (e.g., Mandarin & Cantonese)?

1 2 3 4 5 Other (please specify: _____) N/A or prefer not to respond

41. If you speak other languages in addition to your mother tongue (L1) (Chinese) & English (L2), please provide the names of those languages & indicate your proficiency level for each of them in the space below. {For example, if you speak Spanish as a third language & estimate that your proficiency level in it is moderate, you may indicate: L3: Spanish Proficiency level: High Moderate Basic }

L3: _____ Proficiency level: High Moderate Basic

L4: _____ Proficiency level: High Moderate Basic

Other (please specify: _____) N/A or prefer not to respond

42. What is your proficiency level in English?

	High	Moderate	Basic	N/A or Prefer not to respond
Speaking				
Listening				
Reading				
Writing				

43. What kind(s) of language proficiency test have you taken in the past? (you may select multiple tests if they pertain)

- IELTS (International English Language Testing System)
- TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) Internet based (iBT)
- TOEFL - Paper-based (PBT) & the TWE (Test of Written English)
- PTE Academic (Pearson Test of English Academic)
- MELAB (Michigan English Language Assessment Battery)
- CanTEST (managed by the University of Ottawa)
- CAEL (Canadian Academic English Language Assessment)
- Other (please specify: _____)
- I have not written an English language entry test before. Prefer not to respond

44. Please provide the total or average score(s) of the test(s) you took as selected above, if applicable.

Name of Test	Score
IELTS	Average Score: _____ Listening: _____ Reading: _____ Writing: _____ Speaking: _____
TOEFL Internet based (iBT)	Total Score: _____ Reading: _____ Listening: _____ Speaking: _____ Writing: _____
TOEFL Paper-based & TWE	Paper test: _____ Writing: _____
PTE Academic	
MELAB	
CanTEST	
CAEL	
Other (please specify)	
N/A or Prefer not to respond	

45. If you are interested in participating in a follow-up interview to discuss these questions further with me, please provide your Email address: _____

46. If you have any additional comments, please use the space below to mention it (in either English or Mandarin).

[END]

Thank you for completing the survey!

Appendix B: International Student questionnaire (Mandarin Version)

国际学生问卷调查（中文版）

感谢您在百忙中抽出时间来填写这份问卷。请仔细阅读题和选择相应的答案。我们尊重和感谢您发自内心的回应，答案没有正确或者错误之分。所有的答案将完全保密。

第一部分：请回答以下问题，根据您自己的想法，在最贴切的答案下打勾√。

	强烈 反对	不同意	同意	强烈 同意	不适用或 保留意见
语言政策					
1. 标准的学术英语应该成为衡量英语学习者的学术英语能力的唯一标准。					
2. 在国际性大学里，英语不应成为唯一的课堂教学和交流语言。					
3. 大学的语言政策应该要求国际学生的英语写作遵守加拿大本地的学术英语规范。					
4. 大学应该尊重和包容国际学生英语口语方面的多样性（如口音，表达方法等）。					
5. 大学的语言政策应该鼓励国际学生使用他们的多种语言知识，而不仅仅局限于英语。					
6. 英语能力测试（如雅思，托福等）能准确衡量一个英语学习者的学术英语能力。					
7. 英语能力测试不能预测一个学生大学入学后的学习成绩。					
8. 总体来说，大学为国际学生的英语学习和提高提供了充分的帮助措施和资源。					
语言观念					
9. 通晓多种语言的人通常更容易适应不同的文化。					
10. 如果我喜欢某些国家，那么这些国家的语言我也会学的更好。					
11. 语言和文化并非相互融合，而是可以分隔。					
12. 要想进行成功的跨文化交流，光有英语知识并不足够。					
13. 将来的工作岗位并不需要我们掌握多种语言知识。					
14. 要想在国际性大学取得成功，掌握学术英语知识就足够了。					
15. 只有具有语言天赋的人才能学好外语。					
16. 并不一定只有童年时期所学的语言，才能说的流利。					
17. 学生需要高智商才能学好多种语言。					
18. 哪怕有一些学习障碍的人，也有可能学好一种语言。					
19. 背诵单词帮助我更好的理解和使用一门语言。					
20. 哪怕没有学好语法，也有可能流利的说一种语言。					
21. 语言学习的目标是能达到或者接近母语者的水平。					
22. 即使没有好的口音，使用外语的表达内容仍然有可能被他人所理解。					
23. 一个会多种语言的人，不一定需要在每种语言上达到精					

通的水平。					
24. 一个会多种语言的人，应该在每种语言的听说读写方面都达到精通的水平。					
	强烈反对	不同意	同意	强烈同意	不适用或保留意见
25. 我不会使用我之前的语言知识来帮助我学习一门新的语言。					
26. 一个已经会多种语言的人，会更容易学会新的语言。					
27. 我试图不要借助翻译（比如英语翻译成中文）来理解外语。					
26. 在学习一种新的语言时，我常常将它与我的母语和母语文化做比较。					
29. 每一种语言（如英语，中文）和地域性方言（如广东话），都应该被重视。					
30. 学生不应该在语言表达中混合使用两种语言（如，英语和中文）。					
31. 想要同时有效地学习多种语言（哪怕这些语言属于不同的语系，例如英语与中文）是有可能的。					
32. 同时学习多种语言（哪怕这些语言属于不同的语系，例如英语与中文）会妨碍所学的每种语言的掌握。					

第二部分：个人教育和语言背景，请在相应的答案前打勾 [√] 或者在空格处填写。

33. 我的性别是：_____ [] 保留意见。

34. 在加拿大受教育的时间：_____ 个月 [] 保留意见

35. 来加拿大之前，您是否有其他海外背景或经历（如短期的游学课程，海外的工作 / 学习经历）？

[] 有 (若选择此项，请从 36 题继续答题) [] 没有 (若选择此项，请从 37 题继续答题)

[] 不适用或保留意见 (若选择此项，请从 37 题继续答题)

36. 请在告知您其他海外经历的地点和持续时间。

(1) 地点: _____; 时长: _____ 个月

(2) 地点: _____; 时长: _____ 个月

(3) 地点: _____; 时长: _____ 个月

[] 不适用或保留意见

37. 您目前在加拿大大学的就读现状是什么？

[] 正在就读于大学为英语学习者开设的学术英语课程(若选择此项，请从 38 题继续答题)

[] 曾经就读于大学为英语学习者开设的学术英语课程(若选择此项，请从 39 题继续答题)

其他课程 (请具体说明: _____, 然后从 39 题继续答题)

保留意见(若选择此项, 请从 40 题继续答题)

38. 您目前就读的为英语学习者开设的学术英语课程的级别或者班级是: _____?

其他 (请具体说明 _____) 保留意见

39. 您目前就读的大学系别或专业是什么?

艺术/人文 Arts & Humanities 会计/金融 Accounting & Finance 健康科学 Health Science

计算机科学 Computer Science 工程 Engineering 信息与媒体 Information & Media Studies

商科 Business 科学 Science 社会科学 Social Science 建筑 Architecture

教育 Education 法律 Law 其他 (请具体说明: _____) 保留意见

40. 除中文 (包括普通话, 广东话等) 之外, 您还会几种语言或者地域性方言?

1 种 2 种 3 种 4 种 5 种 其他 (请具体说明: _____) 不适用或保留意见

41. 如果您会中文 (第一语言) 以及英文 (第二语言) 之外的语言, 请在下方告知具体是哪些语言以及相应的语言水平。{例如: 如果您会西班牙语, 且估计自己的西班牙语水平为中等, 您可以填写如下: 第三语言: Spanish 或者 西班牙语 语言水平: 精通 中等 基本}

第三语言: _____ 语言水平: 精通 中等 基本

第四语言: _____ 语言水平: 精通 中等 基本

其他 (请具体说明: _____) 不适用或保留意见

42. 您如何评估自己的英语语言水平?

	精通	中等	基本	不适用或保留意见
英语口语				
英语听力				
英语阅读				
英语写作				

43. 您曾经参加过哪些英语语言能力测试 (可多选)?

雅思 IELTS (International English Language Testing System)

托福机考 TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) Internet based (iBT)

托福笔试与写作 TOEFL Paper-based (PBT) & the TWE (Test of Written English)

PTE 学术英语考试 (Pearson Test of English Academic)

密歇根英语考试 (MELAB, Michigan English Language Assessment Battery)

CanTEST (managed by the University of Ottawa)

加拿大学术英语语言测试 CAEL (Canadian Academic English Language Assessment)

其他 (请具体说明: _____) 没有参加过大学英语入学考试。 保留意见

44. 如果您参加过以上考试, 请提供您的总分或平均得分:

考试种类	得分
IELTS	平均分: _____ 听力: 阅读: 写作: 口语:
TOEFL Internet based (iBT)	总分: _____ 阅读: 听力: 口语: 写作:
TOEFL Paper-based & TWE	笔试: 写作:
PTE Academic	
MELAB	
CanTEST	
CAEL	
其他 (请具体说明: _____)	
不适用或保留意见	

45. 如果您愿意与我预约一次采访, 以进一步的讨论问卷中涉及的问题, 敬请留下您的 Email 地址:

46. 如果您有需要补充的内容, 请在下方填写 (用中英文表达皆可)?

[完]

衷心感谢您对本研究的支持!

Appendix C: Student Interview Protocol (English Version)

A. Language Policy

1. Should standard academic English be used as the sole measure of academic English abilities for English language learners? Explain your answer.
2. Should English be used as the sole medium of instruction and be the only language used during classroom interaction in an international university? Explain your answer.
3. Certain forms of writing are privileged in Canadian academic culture. How do you envision international students fitting into those norms? What if they speak (and write) other varieties of English (e.g., Jamaican English, Indian English, etc.)?
4. In what ways does the university encourage multilingual students to draw on their knowledge of several languages, not just English?
5. How accurately can language tests measure a student's proficiency in a second/foreign language? Do international students who score higher on English language entry tests such as IELTS and TOEFL necessarily perform better in their studies than students who score lower?
6. What kinds of support does the university as a whole, and/or the academic English program (for ESL/EFL students) provide to international students' English language development? In an ideal world (e.g., if there were no monetary constraints), what would you envision as being useful to these international students?

B. Language Beliefs

7. How might students' knowledge of previously learned language(s) influence their learning of a new language (in positive and negative ways)?
8. Is it difficult for students to use two languages without mixing them up? Can you give some examples?
9. What influence do age of acquisition and intelligence have on an individual's success in language learning?
10. What (if any) language-related expectations does the international university hold of today's students/graduates?
11. What is your understanding of multilingualism?

12. What is your understanding of the relationship between language and culture?
13. In your experience with intercultural communication, have you ever found that a person's accent influenced his/her being understood?
14. In your view, what can Canadian teachers and students and Chinese international students do, respectively, to contribute to intercultural communication?
15. Would you like to make any other comments on the topic?

Appendix D: Student Interview Protocol (Mandarin Version) 采访问题 (中文版)

A. 语言政策

1. 标准学术英语是否应该成为衡量英语学习者的学术英语能力的唯一标准？为什么
2. 在国际性大学里，英语是否应该作为唯一的教学媒介语和课堂交流语言？为什么
3. 加拿大的学术文化推崇某些特定的写作模式。您如何看待国际学生适应融入这些写作模式？您又如何看待国际学生在口语（和写作）中使用其他英语变体（如，牙买加英语，印度英语等）？
4. 大学在哪些方面鼓励国际学生使用他们的多种语言知识，而不仅仅局限于英语这一门语言？
5. 对于学生的二语或外语的语言水平而言，语言测试的准确度有多高？国际学生在英语入学考试（例如雅思和托福）中得分的高低，是否与其进入大学后的学习成绩成正比？
6. 总的来说，您所在的大学，或者为国际学生所开设的学术英语课程，为你的英语语言能力的提高提供了哪些帮助？在一个理想的环境中（比如，不需考虑财政限制），大学或者英语课程还能国际学生提供什么帮助？

B. 语言观念

7. 学生已经掌握的母语和其他语言知识，对于学习一门新的语言而言，有哪些（正面和负面）影响？
8. 您是否经常混合使用两种语言？能举例说明吗？
9. 一个人的智商以及开始学习语言（或外语）的年龄对于语言（或外语）学习有什么影响？
10. 国际性大学对当今的学生 / 毕业生有什么语言方面的要求或期望？
11. 您如何理解多语这个概念？
12. 您如何理解语言与文化之间的关系？
13. 在您的跨文化交流的经验中，您是否觉得口音妨碍一个人的表达被别人所理解？
14. 为了促进跨文化交流，加拿大本地的师生以及中国留学生分别需要做出怎样的努力？
15. 您有什么需要补充的吗？

Appendix E: Educator Interview Protocol

A. Language Policy

1. Should standard academic English be used as the sole measure of academic English abilities for English language learners? Explain your answer.
2. Should English be used as the sole medium of instruction and be the only language used during classroom interaction in an international university? Explain your answer.
3. Certain forms of writing are privileged in Canadian academic culture. How do you envision international students fitting into those norms? What if they speak (and write) other varieties of English (e.g., Jamaican English, Indian English, etc.)?
4. In what ways does the university encourage multilingual students to draw on their knowledge of several languages, not just English?
5. How accurately can language tests measure a student's proficiency in a second/foreign language? Do international students who score higher on English language entry tests such as IELTS and TOEFL necessarily perform better in their studies than students who score lower?
6. What kinds of support does the university as a whole, and/or the academic English program (for ESL/EFL students) provide to international students' English language development? In an ideal world (e.g., if there were no monetary constraints), what would you envision as being useful to these international students?

B. Language Beliefs

7. How might students' knowledge of previously learned language(s) influence their learning of a new language (in positive and negative ways)?
8. Is it difficult for students to use two languages without mixing them up? Can you give some examples?
9. What influence do age of acquisition and intelligence have on an individual's success in language learning?
10. What (if any) language-related expectations does the international university hold of today's students/graduates?
11. What is your understanding of multilingualism?

12. What is your understanding of the relationship between language and culture?
13. In your experience with intercultural communication, have you ever found that a person's accent influenced their being understood?
14. In your view, what can Canadian teachers and students and Chinese international students do, respectively, to contribute to intercultural communication?
15. Would you like to make any other comments on the topic?

Appendix F: Letter of Information and Consent Form (Head/director)



The Enactment of Academic Language Policy in the International University

Letter of Information (Head, director)

Principal Investigator: Dr. Shelley Taylor, Associate Professor, Faculty of Education, Email: (removed as per university formatting guideline), Phone: (removed as per university formatting guideline)

Co-investigator: Le Chen, PhD candidate, Faculty of Education

My name is Le Chen and I am a PhD student at the Faculty of Education at Western University. I am currently conducting research on the academic English language policy and practice in postsecondary institutions in Canada. I would like to invite you to participate in this study because your perceptions of university language policy and practice will provide valuable data for my study and offer important implications for language policy making.

Purpose of the research study

The aim of this research study is to explore various stakeholders' perceptions of and experiences with institutional language policy.

If you allow me to recruit the instructors, administrators, and Chinese students to participate in the research study,

1. Please contact me directly by email at (removed as per university formatting guideline) to indicate your permission or any questions you have regarding participant recruitment.
2. Please indicate if you would distribute the Letter of Information and Consent Form (Instructor copy, as attached) and the Letter of Information and Consent Form (Administrator copy, as attached) to potential instructor and administrator participants, respectively. Please let me know if you prefer me approaching the instructors and administrators directly by their work email addresses instead.
3. Please indicate if and which area(s) a student recruitment advertisement (as attached) is allowed to be posted in your institution.
4. Your permission for my recruitment of instructors, administrators, and students does NOT oblige you to participate in an interview with me.

If you agree to participate in this research study,

you may be contacted to participate in an interview. You will have the option to do the interview remotely through telephone, virtual communication (e.g. Skype), or meet with me face to face at a place and time of your preference. The interview will take approximately 45 - 60 minutes. It will be audio recorded, unless you request that it not be audio recorded, in which case I will take notes. I will contact you afterwards to offer you the opportunity to review and verify the transcripts of the interview.

Confidentiality

The information collected will be used for research purposes only and kept in confidentiality. Neither your name nor information that could identify you will be used in any publication or presentation of the study results. All information collected for the study will be kept confidential. You will choose a pseudonym (an alias) that I will use throughout my analyses. No real names or names of locations will be used or identifiable in the report or future publications. No information about the program in which you are/were

enrolled will be disclosed. Only representatives of the University of Western Ontario Non-Medical Research Ethics Board may require access to the study-related records to monitor the conduct of the research. Other people/groups/organizations outside the study team will not have access to information collected.

To protect your privacy, all digital data will be stored on a password-protected USB in the researcher's office. The data will be stored in a locked cabinet with all names removed from the data (replaced with a pseudonym). If you wish to withdraw from the study, you have the right to request withdrawal of information collected about you. If you wish to have your information removed, please let the researcher know. All electronic interaction data will be destroyed by shredding upon completion of the study while all other data will be stored in a locked filing cabinet for a period of five years after the completion of the study. A list linking your assigned code for the study with your data will be kept by the researcher in a secure place, separate from your study file. This list will also be destroyed/erased upon the completion of the study.

Risks & Benefits

There are no known or anticipated risks or discomforts associated with participating in this study. You may benefit from the results of the study in terms of how Canadian higher education can better identify and recognize the needs and identities of newly arriving international students. If you would like to receive a copy of any potential study results, please contact me by email at (removed as per university formatting guideline).

Voluntary Participation

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may decide not to be in this study. Even if you consent to participate, you have the right to not answer individual questions or to withdraw from the study at any time. If you choose not to participate or to leave the study at any time, it will have no effect on your academic or employment status. You do not waive any legal right by signing this consent form attached.

Compensation

Each participant will be offered a \$5 gift card as a token of my appreciation for your time.

Questions

If you have any questions about the conduct of this study or your rights as a research participant you may contact the Office of Research Ethics, Western University at (removed as per university formatting guideline). If you have any questions about this study, please contact Le Chen at (removed as per university formatting guideline) or Dr. Shelley Taylor at (removed as per university formatting guideline) or by e-mail at (removed as per university formatting guideline)

Consent

For Skype or telephone interview participants, your participation is an indication of your consent to participate. For face-to-face interview participants, a written Consent Form is attached to this letter for you to sign.

This letter is yours to keep for future reference.

The Enactment of Academic Language Policy in the International University

**Consent Form – Head/director copy**

Principal Investigator: Dr. Shelley Taylor, Associate Professor, Faculty of Education

Co-investigator: Le Chen, PhD candidate, Faculty of Education

I have read the Letter of Information, have had the nature of the study explained to me and I agree to participate in the following part(s) of research. All questions have been answered to my satisfaction.

1. I agree to participate in the interview. YES NO
2. I consent to the use of unidentified quotes obtained during the study in the dissemination of this research. YES NO
3. I agree to be audio recorded in this research. YES NO

Name (please print): _____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Appendix G: Letter of Information and Consent Form (Instructor)



The Enactment of Academic Language Policy in the International University

Letter of Information – Instructor

Principal Investigator: Dr. Shelley Taylor, Associate Professor, Faculty of Education, Email: (removed as per university formatting guideline), Phone: (removed as per university formatting guideline)

Co-investigator: Le Chen, PhD candidate, Faculty of Education

My name is Le Chen and I am a PhD student at the Faculty of Education at Western University. I am currently conducting research on the academic English language policy and practice in postsecondary institutions in Canada. I would like to invite you to participate in this study because your perceptions of university language policy and practice will provide valuable data for my study and offer important implications for language policy making.

Purpose of the research study

The aim of this research study is to explore various stakeholders' perceptions of and experiences with institutional language policy.

If you allow me to recruit the Chinese students in your class(es) to participate in the research study,

1. Please contact me directly by email at (removed as per university formatting guideline) to indicate your permission or any questions you have regarding student recruitment.
2. We will make arrangements for visit your class(es) towards the end of a session to recruit Chinese students to participate in a survey. Students will be given the opportunity to leave prior to or after the announcement. Instructors will not be present during the announcement to ensure confidentiality and anonymity for student participants. Students will be provided with the Letter of Information (student copy), as well as hard copies of the survey. This survey will take approximately 10 - 15 minutes to complete. Students can complete the survey after the class. I will answer any questions students may have and collect the returned copies of the survey.
3. Students will have the option at the end of the survey if they are interested in participating in a follow-up interview with me after the survey data are collected.
4. Your permission for my student recruitment does NOT oblige you to participate in an interview with me.

If you agree to participate in this research study,

1. You may be contacted to participate in an interview. You will have the option to participate in the interview remotely through telephone, virtual communication (e.g. Skype), or meet with me face to face in a place and at a time of your preference. The interview will take approximately 45 - 60 minutes. It will be audio recorded, unless you request that it not be audio recorded, in which case I will take notes. I will contact you afterwards to offer you the opportunity to review and verify the transcripts of the interview.
2. I may contact you to make arrangements for me to observe your classroom if you give permission for me to do so at the end of the interview. However, your participation in the interview does not oblige you to allow me to observe your class(es). The lengths and times of observation can be negotiated between us. I will only take notes; I will NOT audio or video record my classroom observation(s). Small talks (5 minutes) may be conducted after each observation either online or in person at a time of your convenience.

Confidentiality

The information collected will be used for research purposes only and kept in confidentiality. Neither your name nor information that could identify you will be used in any publication or presentation of the study results. All information collected for the study will be kept confidential. You will choose a pseudonym (an alias) that I will use throughout my analyses. No real names or names of locations will be used or identifiable in the report or future publications. No information about the program(s) that you are involved will be disclosed. Only representatives of the University of Western Ontario Non-Medical Research Ethics Board may require access to the study-related records to monitor the conduct of the research. Other people/groups/organizations outside the study team will not have access to information collected.

To protect your privacy, all digital data will be stored on a password-protected USB in the researcher's office. The data will be stored in a locked cabinet with all names removed from the data (replaced with a pseudonym). If you wish to withdraw from the study, you have the right to request withdrawal of information collected about you. If you wish to have your information removed, please let the researcher know. All electronic interaction data will be destroyed by shredding upon completion of the study while all other data will be stored in a locked filing cabinet for a period of five years after the completion of the study. A list linking your assigned code for the research study with your data will be kept in a secure place, separate from all other files. This list will also be destroyed/erased upon the completion of the study.

Risks & Benefits

There are no known or anticipated risks or discomforts associated with participating in this study. You may benefit from the results of the study in terms of how Canadian higher education can better identify and recognize the needs and identities of Chinese international students. If you would like to receive a copy of any potential study results, please contact me by email.

Voluntary Participation

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may decide not to be in this study. Even if you consent to participate, you have the right to not answer individual questions or to withdraw from the study at any time. If you choose not to participate or to leave the study at any time, it will have no effect on your academic or employment status. You do not waive any legal right by signing this consent form attached.

Compensation

Each participant will be offered a \$5 gift card as a token of my appreciation for your time.

Questions

If you have any questions about the conduct of this study or your rights as a research participant you may contact the Office of Research Ethics, Western University at (removed as per university formatting guideline)

If you have any questions about this study, please contact Le Chen at (removed as per university formatting guideline) or Dr. Shelley Taylor at (removed as per university formatting guideline) or by e-mail at (removed as per university formatting guideline)

Consent

For Skype or telephone interview participants, your participation is an indication of your consent to participate. For face-to-face interview participants, a written Consent Form is attached to this letter for you to sign.

This letter is yours to keep for future reference.



The Enactment of Academic Language Policy in the International University

Consent Form – Instructor

Principal Investigator: Dr. Shelley Taylor, Associate Professor, Faculty of Education

Co-investigator: Le Chen, PhD candidate, Faculty of Education

I have read the Letter of Information, have had the nature of the study explained to me and I agree to participate in the following part(s) of research. All questions have been answered to my satisfaction.

1. I agree to participate in the interview. **YES** **NO**
2. I consent to the use of unidentified quotes obtained during the study in the dissemination of this research. **YES** **NO**
3. I agree to be audio recorded in this research. **YES** **NO**
4. I agree to participate in the classroom observation. **YES** **NO**

Name (please print): _____ Signature: _____

Date: _____

Appendix H: Letter of Information and Consent Form (Administrator)



The Enactment of Academic Language Policy in the International University

Letter of Information – Administrator

Principal Investigator: Dr. Shelley Taylor, Associate Professor, Faculty of Education, Email: (removed as per university formatting guideline), Phone: (removed as per university formatting guideline)

Co-investigator: Le Chen, PhD candidate, Faculty of Education

My name is Le Chen and I am a PhD student at the Faculty of Education at Western University. I am currently conducting research on the academic English language policy and practice in postsecondary institutions in Canada. I would like to invite you to participate in this study because your perceptions of university language policy and practice will provide valuable data for my study and offer important implications for language policy making.

Purpose of the research study

The aim of this research study is to explore various stakeholders' perceptions of and experiences with institutional language policy.

If you agree to participate in this research study, you may be contacted to participate in an interview. You will have the option to do the interview remotely through telephone, virtual communication (e.g. Skype), or meet with me face to face at a place and time of your preference. The interview will take approximately 45 - 60 minutes. It will be audio recorded, unless you request that it not be audio recorded, in which case I will take notes. I will contact you afterwards to offer you the opportunity to review and verify the transcripts of the interview.

Confidentiality

The information collected will be used for research purposes only and kept in confidentiality. Neither your name nor information that could identify you will be used in any publication or presentation of the study results. All information collected for the study will be kept confidential. You will choose a pseudonym (an alias) that I will use throughout my analyses. No real names or names of locations will be used or identifiable in the report or future publications. No information about the program in which you are/were enrolled will be disclosed. Only representatives of the University of Western Ontario Non-Medical Research Ethics Board may require access to the study-related records to monitor the conduct of the research. Other people/groups/organizations outside the study team will not have access to information collected.

To protect your privacy, all digital data will be stored on a password-protected USB in the researcher's office. The data will be stored in a locked cabinet with all names removed from the data (replaced with a pseudonym). If you wish to withdraw from the study, you have the right to request withdrawal of information collected about you. If you wish to have your information removed, please let the researcher know. All electronic interaction data will be destroyed by shredding upon completion of the study while all other data will be stored in a locked filing cabinet for a period of five years after the completion of the study. A list linking your assigned code for the study with your data will be kept by the researcher in a secure place, separate from your study file. This list will also be destroyed/erased upon the completion of the study.

Risks & Benefits

There are no known or anticipated risks or discomforts associated with participating in this study. You may benefit from the results of the study in terms of how Canadian higher education can better identify and recognize the needs and identities of newly arriving international students. If you would like to receive a copy of any potential study results, please contact me by email at (removed as per university formatting guideline).

Voluntary Participation

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may decide not to be in this study. Even if you consent to participate, you have the right to not answer individual questions or to withdraw from the study at any time. If you choose not to participate or to leave the study at any time, it will have no effect on your academic or employment status. You do not waive any legal right by signing this consent form attached.

Compensation

Each participant will be offered a \$5 gift card as a token of my appreciation for your time.

Questions

If you have any questions about the conduct of this study or your rights as a research participant you may contact the Office of Research Ethics, Western University at (removed as per university formatting guideline). If you have any questions about this study, please contact Le Chen at (removed as per university formatting guideline) or Dr. Shelley Taylor at (removed as per university formatting guideline) or by e-mail at (removed as per university formatting guideline).

Consent

For Skype or telephone interview participants, your participation is an indication of your consent to participate. For face-to-face interview participants, a written Consent Form is attached to this letter for you to sign.

This letter is yours to keep for future reference.



The Enactment of Academic Language Policy in the International University

Consent Form – Administrator

Principal Investigator: Dr. Shelley Taylor, Associate Professor, Faculty of Education

Co-investigator: Le Chen, PhD candidate, Faculty of Education


I have read the Letter of Information, have had the nature of the study explained to me and I agree to participate in the following part(s) of research. All questions have been answered to my satisfaction.

1. I agree to participate in the interview. YES NO
2. I consent to the use of unidentified quotes obtained during the study in the dissemination of this research. YES NO
3. I agree to be audio recorded in this research. YES NO

Name (please print): _____ Signature: _____

Date: _____

Appendix I: Letter of Information and Consent Form (University Level Management)

Western 

The Enactment of Academic Language Policy in the International University

Letter of Information (University level management)

Principal Investigator: Dr. Shelley Taylor, Associate Professor, Faculty of Education, Email: (removed as per university formatting guideline), Phone: (removed as per university formatting guideline)

Co-investigator: Le Chen, PhD candidate, Faculty of Education

My name is Le Chen and I am a PhD student at the Faculty of Education at Western University. I am currently conducting research on the academic English language policy and practice in postsecondary institutions in Canada. I would like to invite you to participate in this study because your perceptions of university language policy and practice will provide valuable data for my study and offer important implications for language policy making.

Purpose of the research study

The aim of this research study is to explore various stakeholders' perceptions of and experiences with institutional language policy.

If you agree to participate in this research study, you may be contacted to participate in an interview. You will have the option to do the interview remotely through telephone, virtual communication (e.g. Skype), or meet with me face to face at a place and time of your preference. The interview will take approximately 45 - 60 minutes. It will be audio recorded, unless you request that it not be audio recorded, in which case I will take notes. I will contact you afterwards to offer you the opportunity to review and verify the transcripts of the interview.

Confidentiality

The information collected will be used for research purposes only and kept in confidentiality. Neither your name nor information that could identify you will be used in any publication or presentation of the study results. All information collected for the study will be kept confidential. You will choose a pseudonym (an alias) that I will use throughout my analyses. No real names or names of locations will be used or identifiable in the report or future publications. No information about the program in which you are/were enrolled will be disclosed. Only representatives of the University of Western Ontario Non-Medical Research Ethics Board may require access to the study-related records to monitor the conduct of the research. Other people/groups/organizations outside the study team will not have access to information collected.

To protect your privacy, all digital data will be stored on a password-protected USB in the researcher's office. The data will be stored in a locked cabinet with all names removed from the data (replaced with a pseudonym). If you wish to withdraw from the study, you have the right to request withdrawal of information collected about you. If you wish to have your information removed, please let the research know. All electronic interaction data will be destroyed by shredding upon completion of the study while all other data will be stored in a locked filing cabinet for a period of five years after the completion of the study. A list linking your assigned code for the study with your data will be kept by the researcher in a

secure place, separate from your study file. This list will also be destroyed/erased upon the completion of the study.

Risks & Benefits

There are no known or anticipated risks or discomforts associated with participating in this study. You may benefit from the results of the study in terms of how Canadian higher education can better identify and recognize the needs and identities of newly arriving international students. If you would like to receive a copy of any potential study results, please contact me by email at (removed as per university formatting guideline).

Voluntary Participation

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may decide not to be in this study. Even if you consent to participate, you have the right to not answer individual questions or to withdraw from the study at any time. If you choose not to participate or to leave the study at any time, it will have no effect on your academic or employment status. You do not waive any legal right by signing this consent form attached.

Compensation

Each participant will be offered a \$5 gift card as a token of my appreciation for your time.

Questions

If you have any questions about the conduct of this study or your rights as a research participant you may contact the Office of Research Ethics, Western University at (removed as per university formatting guideline). If you have any questions about this study, please contact Le Chen at (removed as per university formatting guideline) or Dr. Shelley Taylor at (removed as per university formatting guideline) or by e-mail at (removed as per university formatting guideline)

Consent

For Skype or telephone interview participants, your participation is an indication of your consent to participate. For face-to-face interview participants, a written Consent Form is attached to this letter for you to sign.

This letter is yours to keep for future reference.



The Enactment of Academic Language Policy in the International University

Consent Form – University level management

Principal Investigator: Dr. Shelley Taylor, Associate Professor, Faculty of Education

Co-investigator: Le Chen, PhD candidate, Faculty of Education

I have read the Letter of Information, have had the nature of the study explained to me and I agree to participate in the following part(s) of research. All questions have been answered to my satisfaction.

1. I agree to participate in the interview. YES NO
2. I consent to the use of unidentified quotes obtained during the study in the dissemination of this research. YES NO
3. I agree to be audio recorded in this research. YES NO

Name (please print): _____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Appendix J: Letter of Information and Consent Form (Student English Version)



The Enactment of Academic Language Policy in the International University

Letter of Information – Students

Principal Investigator: Dr. Shelley Taylor, Associate Professor, Faculty of Education, Email: (removed as per university formatting guideline), Phone: (removed as per university formatting guideline)

Co-investigator: Le Chen, PhD candidate, Faculty of Education

My name is Le Chen and I am a PhD student at the Faculty of Education at Western University. I am currently conducting research on the academic English language policy and practice in postsecondary institutions in Canada. I would like to invite you to participate in this study because your perceptions of university language policy and practice will provide valuable data for my study and offer important implications for language policy making.

Purpose of the research study

The aim of this research study is to explore various stakeholders' perceptions of and experiences with institutional language policy.

If you agree to participate in this research study,

5. You will fill out a hard copy survey. This survey will take approximately 10 - 15 minutes to complete.
6. You may be contacted to participate in an interview (if you indicate your interest in participating in a follow-up interview at the end the survey) after the survey data are collected. However, your participation in this survey does not obligate you to participate in the interview. Should you choose to participate, you will have the option to talk in a language of your preference (English or Mandarin), through telephone, virtual communication (e.g. Skype), or meet with me face to face in a place and at a time of your preference. The interview will take approximately 45 - 60 minutes. It will be audio recorded, unless you request that it not be audio recorded, in which case I will take notes. I will contact you afterwards to offer you the opportunity to review and verify the transcripts of the interview.
7. I may contact you to make arrangements for me to observe your classroom if you give permission for me to do so at the end of the interview. However, your participation in the interview does not oblige you to allow me to observe your class(es). The lengths and times of observation can be negotiated between us. I will only take notes; I will NOT audio or video record my classroom observation(s). Small talks (5 minutes) may be conducted after each observation either online or in person at a time of your convenience.

Confidentiality

The information collected will be used for research purposes only and kept in confidentiality. Neither your name nor information that could identify you will be used in any publication or presentation of the study results. All information collected for the study will be kept confidential. You will choose a pseudonym (an alias) that I will use throughout my analyses. No real names or names of locations will be used or identifiable in the report or future publications. No information about the program in which you are/were involved will be disclosed. Only representatives of the University of Western Ontario Non-Medical

Research Ethics Board may require access to the study-related records to monitor the conduct of the research. Other people/groups/organizations outside the study team will not have access to information collected.

To protect your privacy, all digital data will be stored on a password-protected USB in the researcher's office. The data will be stored in a locked cabinet with all names removed from the data (replaced with a pseudonym). If you wish to withdraw from the study, you have the right to request withdrawal of information collected about you. If you wish to have your information removed, please let the researcher know. All electronic interaction data will be destroyed by shredding upon completion of the study while all other data will be stored in a locked filing cabinet for a period of five years after the completion of the study. A list linking your assigned code for the research study with your data will be kept in a secure place, separate from all other files. This list will also be destroyed/erased upon the completion of the study.

Risks & Benefits

There are no known or anticipated risks or discomforts associated with participating in this study. You may benefit from the results of the study in terms of how Canadian higher education can better identify and recognize the needs and identities of Chinese international students. If you would like to receive a copy of any potential study results, please contact me by email at (removed as per university formatting guideline).

Voluntary Participation

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may decide not to be in this study. Even if you consent to participate, you have the right to not answer individual questions or to withdraw from the study at any time. If you choose not to participate or to leave the study at any time, it will have no effect on your academic or employment status. You do not waive any legal right by consenting to participate.

Compensation

Each participant will be offered a \$5 gift card as a token of my appreciation for your time.

Questions

If you have any questions about the conduct of this study or your rights as a research participant you may contact the Office of Research Ethics, Western University at (removed as per university formatting guideline). If you have any questions about this study, please contact Le Chen at (removed as per university formatting guideline) or Dr. Shelley Taylor at (removed as per university formatting guideline) by e-mail at (removed as per university formatting guideline).

Consent

For survey participants, completion of the survey is an indication of your consent to participate. For telephone interview participants, your participation is an indication of your consent to participate. For face-to-face interview participants, a written Consent Form is attached to this letter for you to sign.

This letter is yours to keep for future reference.



The Enactment of Academic Language Policy in the International University

Consent Form – Students

Principal Investigator: Dr. Shelley Taylor, Associate Professor, Faculty of Education

Co-investigator: Le Chen, PhD candidate, Faculty of Education

I have read the Letter of Information, have had the nature of the study explained to me and I agree to participate in the following part(s) of research. All questions have been answered to my satisfaction.

1. I agree to participate in the interview. YES NO
2. I consent to the use of unidentified quotes obtained during the study in the dissemination of this research. YES NO
3. I agree to be audio recorded in this research. YES NO
4. I agree to participate in the classroom observation. YES NO

Name (please print): _____ Signature: _____

Date: _____

Appendix K: Letter of Information and Consent Form (Student Mandarin Version)



研究项目解释说明书—致学生

研究项目名称: 国际性大学环境下学术语言政策的制定与执行

研究主要负责人: 雪莉·泰勒, 博导/教授, 西安大略大学教育系

研究成员: 陈乐, 在读博士生, 西安大略大学教育系

我是西安大略大学教育系的在读博士生, 我的名字叫陈乐。我目前正在调查研究加拿大高等教育机构的语言政策与实践。我在此诚邀您参加这个课题。您对于高校语言政策与实践的观点将为我的博士研究提供宝贵数据, 且为语言政策的制定提供重要的参考依据。

研究目标

本研究旨在探讨加拿大高校的各类相关人员在大学语言政策上的观点和经历。

若您愿意参与此项研究,

1. 您需要填写一份问卷调查, 填写过程大约需要 10 到 15 分钟。
2. 如果您在问卷末表示愿意参加采访以进一步阐述您的观点, 我将在问卷数据搜集完毕后与您联系, 预约采访。访谈完全是自愿性的。如果您同意参加, 您可以选择采访的语言(英语或中文), 选择电话, 使用网络聊天软件(如 Skype), 或者面谈, 在一个您方便的时间以及地点。采访全程大约需要 45 到 60 分钟。采访将被录音。如果您不同意录音, 我将仅用笔记进行记录。采访结束后, 我将联系您询问是否愿意复查我们访谈内容的文字记录。
3. 如果您在采访结束时表示愿意接受课堂观察, 我将与您联系, 安排课堂观察。课堂观察也是完全自愿性的。我们可以商量课堂观察的次数和时间。观察过程中我仅作笔记, 没有任何录音和录影。我可能会在您方便的情况下, 基于观察内容, 与您进行 5 分钟左右的简短探讨。

保密原则

此数据仅用于研究使用。研究者用于报告和发表的学术刊物所抽取的数据, 在任何情况下不得包括你的名字, 所在地点, 或者是导致您的参与被认出的任何信息。按照大学的研究数据管理规定, 所有的数据严格保密, 在研究中以假名替代人名与地名。为了监控以及确保此项研究参与者的权益, 西安大略大学的非医学类学术道德会或许会要求查看研究记录。除此之外, 所有机构, 团体, 和个人不会有任何渠道查看原始调查数据。

为了保密, 问卷以匿名形式进行; 访谈的录音会保存在优盘中, 设置密码保护, 且存放在安全的办公室里, 在本研究结束后销毁。其他数据在进行假名替换处理后存放在上锁的文件柜内保存, 在本研究结束五年之后销毁。同时, 一份匹配您的代码与数据的文件将另外保存在一个安全地点,



在本研究结束后销毁，以最大限度地保障你的隐私。您有权退出研究以及要求移除任何与您相关的数据。

风险与受益

参与本研究并无任何已知的风险或者不适。您可以从本研究的结果中受益，了解加拿大高等教育应如何更好的辨识中国留学生的多种需要和身份认同。如果您希望收到一份本研究结果的简报，请与我联系。

自愿原则

您的参与是完全自愿性的。您可以全部的或部分的参与此项目，您也可以在任何阶段退出，或在参与期间拒绝回答您认为不方便回答的问题。这不会对您学生或工作身份产生任何不利后果。同样，同意参加本研究对您的法律权益没有任何影响。

答谢卡

每位参加者将收到一份价值五加元的礼物卡以感谢您的支持。

问题解答与联系方式

如果您对本项目的研究方法或您作为参与者的权利有任何疑问，请联系西安大略大学的学术道德办公室。如果您对本研究有任何疑问，敬请联系本研究主要负责人雪莉·泰勒教授。您也可以联系研究成员陈乐。

参与意向

1) 如果您同意参加问卷调查，完成提交问卷本身即代表您默认同意参加本研究，不需另外填写同意书。2) 如果您同意参加电话或者借助网络聊天软件的访谈，完成采访本身即代表您默认同意参加本研究。3) 如果是选择面谈，请使用随函附件的书面同意书。此外，如果您同意参加课堂观察，也请在附件书面同意书中示意。

此信请您惠存。

国际性大学环境下学术语言政策的制定与执行

同意书

研究主要负责人: 雪莉·泰勒, 博导/教授, 西安大略大学教育系

研究成员: 陈乐, 在读博士生, 西安大略大学教育系

我已经阅读研究项目解释说明书, 了解此研究的目的与内容, 且同意参加此研究的以下部分。我的相关问题已得到满意的解答。

1. 我同意接受研究者的采访。 同意 不同意
2. 我同意我的采访数据在研究中以匿名的方式被引用。 同意 不同意
3. 我同意采访被录音。 同意 不同意
4. 我同意接受课堂观察。 同意 不同意

您的姓名(以印刷体填写): _____

您的签名: _____ 日期: _____

Curriculum Vitae

Name: Le Chen

Post-secondary Education and Degrees: University of Western Ontario
London, Ontario, Canada
2018 Ph.D., Education (Applied Linguistics)

University of Birmingham
Birmingham, England
2003 M.A., Education (International Management & Policy)
(with Distinction)

Zhejiang University
Hangzhou, China
2002 B.A., English Language & Literature

Honours and Awards: Douglas Ray Award - Comparative & International Education
Society of Canada
2018

Mitacs Globalink Research Award
2017

Social Science and Humanities Research Council
Doctoral Fellowship
2015-2017

Province of Ontario Graduate Scholarship
2015-2016 (declined)

Province of Ontario Graduate Scholarship (International)
2014-2015

Western Graduate Research Scholarship
2012-2016

Graduate Student Internal Conference Award
2015

John Dearness Memorial Graduate Award
2014

Inclusive Education Research Award
2014

Graduate Student Internal Conference Awards
2014

Teaching with Technology Award
2010

Visiting Scholarship
2009-2010

Promising Educator Development Grant
2008-2010

Mentoring Excellence Award
2007

M.A. Graduation with Distinction
2003

Academic Excellence Scholarship
2002

Outstanding B.A. Thesis Award
2002

Work Experience

Instructor
Sheridan College
2017

Teaching/Research Assistant
University of Western Ontario
2012 - 2016

Researcher
Institute for Language Policy & Planning
Shanghai Maritime University
2010 - 2018

Tenure-Track Lecturer
Shanghai Maritime University
2004 - 2012

Academic Service

Reviewer
American Educational Research Association (AERA) (since 2015)
Canadian Society for the Study of Education (CSSE) (since 2012)

Canadian Journal for New Scholars in Education (since 2015)
 TESOL Doctoral Forum (since 2015)

Committee & Volunteer

Robert Macmillan Graduate Research in Education Symposium
 (2013)

Mentor

PhD Mentorship Program, University of Western Ontario (2014)

Volunteer

TESOL Convention (2015)

American Association for Applied Linguistics (AAAL) (2015)

Examiner

Public English Test System (PETS) (2004-2012)

Cambridge ESOL (2006-2012)

Selected Publications (since 2009):

Chen, L. (accepted). Language policy and Chinese language education in Canada. Invited book chapter in *Language situation (Special volume)*. Beijing, China: The Commercial Press.

Chen, L. (2016). Language situation in Quebec. In Cai, Y. L. & Wang, K. F. (Eds.) *Reports on language life in foreign countries: 2016 (pp. 103-111)*. Beijing, China: The Commercial Press.

Chen, L. (2016). Introduction to language life in Canada. In Cai, Y. L. & Wang, K. F. (Eds.) *Language life in foreign countries: 2016 (pp. 176-194)*. Beijing, China: The Commercial Press.

Zhang, Z., & **Chen, L.** (2016). Language ecology and language policy in Kazakhstan. *Journal of Language Policy & Language Planning*, 6(2), 51-62.

Zhang, Z., & **Chen, L.** (2016). Language considerations in constructing the “Silk Road Economic Belt and the 21st-century Maritime Silk Road.” *World Language Strategies*, 76(10), 1-4.

Chen, L. (2015). Researching identity and interculturality. Book review: Dervin, F. & Risager, K. (Eds.). (2014). *Researching identity and interculturality. The Linguist List*.

June 23. Available at <https://linguistlist.org/pubs/reviews/get-review.cfm?SubID=36017757>

Chen, L. (2013). Understanding critical literacy in bilingual education. *Journal of EFL Learning & Teaching*, 2(2), 5-9.

Guo, L. Hu, L. C., Li, Yanyu., & **Chen, L.** (2013). *English genre film appreciation*. Beijing, China: Beijing University Press.

Chen, L. (2011). Teacher belief and professional development of language teachers. *Journal of Foreign Language Education, November 2011 Special Issue*, 238-240.

Chen, L. (2011). How can critical discourse analysis theories inform L2 critical reading. *Journal of Culture and International languages*, 8(10), 1-7.

Zhang, Z., & **Chen, L.** (2010). Review of contemporary policies in foreign language education in the United States. *Journal of Foreign Language Education, November 2010 Special Issue*, 88-91.

Chen, L. (2010). Understanding “lamb/sheep” from a cross-cultural perspective. *Shandong Literature*, 619(6), 111-112.

Chen, L. (2010). Christianity, fantasy, and ecology in *the Chronicles of Narnia: the Lion, the Witch, and the Wardrobe*. *Masterpieces Review*, 332(8), 143-144.

Chen, L. (2009). The plants in the Bible: Cultural associations and crosscultural translation. *Journal of Foreign Language Education, June 2009 Special Issue*, 295-297.

Chen, L. (2009). A crosscultural perspective of traditional painting arts. *Contemporary Literature*, 12, 217-218.

Chen, L. (2009). A comparative study of differentiation in the classroom. *Journal of Global Education Forum*, 5(2), 4-9.

Hu, Y. F., Tong, H. L., **Chen, L.**, & Sun, Y. Y. (2009). *Innovating College English: A reading, writing and translation course (Volumn I)*. Shanghai, China: East China Normal University Press.

Lu, Z. F., Lu, L.R., Hu, Y. F., Tong, H. L., **Chen, L.**, & Kong, Y. H. (2009). *Innovating College English: A reading, writing and translation course (Volumn II)*. Shanghai, China: East China Normal University Press.

Yuan, Y. F., Mao, R. H., Zhang, Y. M., Tong, H. L., **Chen, L.**, Zhou, Y., Jiang, H. M. (2006). *Practical English test for colleges (Level B)*. Shanghai, China: Fudan University Press.

Conference Presentations:

Chen, L. (2018). *Discourses of deficit, difference, and diversity: Understanding Chinese international students' writing experiences in the EAP classroom*. Paper presented at AAAL, Chicago, US.

Chen, L., & Taylor, S. (2018). EILs' translanguaging and language choices viewed from academy. Canadian Centre for Studies and Research on Bilingualism and Language Planning, Ottawa, Canada.

Chen, L. (2017). *Negotiating academic language policies in the multilingual classroom*. Paper presented at AAAL, Portland, US.

Chen, L. (2017). *Problematizing the English-only classroom language policy in the international university*. Paper presented at CSSE, Toronto, Canada.

Chen, L. (2016). *From English-only to plurilingual pedagogies*. Paper presented at TESL Ontario Annual Conference. Toronto, Canada.

Chen, L. (2016). *A plurilingual approach to language policy in the international university*. Paper presented at TESOL 2016 Doctoral Forum, Baltimore, US.

Chen, L. (2015). *Toward a participatory curriculum: Student voice and curriculum agency in the Chinese context*. Paper presented at the Canadian Society for the Study of Education (CSSE) Annual Conference, Ottawa, Canada.

Chen, L. (2015). *Student voice and critical English for Academic Purposes: A Mixed Methods Investigation*. Paper presented at TESOL International Convention and English Language Expo, Toronto, Canada.

Chen, L. (2014). *Cultural contexts and situated possibilities in developing a dialogic approach in second language writing*. Paper presented at the Canadian Association of Applied Linguistics (CAAL/ACLA) Annual Conference, St. Catherine, Canada.

Chen, L. (2014). *Engaging student voice as a strategy for educational change in the Chinese context*. Paper presented at CSSE 2014, St. Catherine, Canada.

Chen, L. (2014). *The school I'd like: A study of Chinese pupils' perspectives on schooling and school improvement*. Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association (AERA), Philadelphia, US.

Chen, L. (2014). *Revisiting the 'deficit' discourse in the multilingual classroom*. Paper presented at the Multi-sited International Conference, Intercultural vs. multicultural education: The end of rivalries? University of Western Ontario, London, Canada.

Chen, L. (2013). *Revisiting critical discourse analysis for critical reading*. Paper presented at TESL London Conference 2013, London, Canada.

Chen, L. (2013). *Student voice and school improvement*. Poster presented at the Western Research Day, London, Canada.

Chen, L. (2013). *How can student perceptions inform school improvement agenda*. Poster presented at the Robert Macmillan Graduate Research in Education Symposium, University of Western Ontario, London, Canada.

Guest Lectures:

Chen, L. (Oct 27, 2017). A doctoral study using mixed methods. Invited address to Dr. Zheng Zhang's MA Student Seminar, Faculty of Education, UWO.

Chen, L. (Mar 3, 2016). *Beyond ethnographic/case study research or blurring the lines?: Panel discussion on mixed methods research & ethnographic case studies*. Invited address to Dr. Shelley Taylor's MA Student Seminar, Faculty of Education, UWO.

Chen, L. (Nov 3, 2015). *The Role of Language Policy in Second Language Acquisition*. Invited address to Dr. Shelley Taylor's MA Student Seminar, Faculty of Education, UWO.

Chen, L. (Oct 21, 2015). *How to write a SSHRC proposal*. Invited address to Dr. Kathy Hibbert's PhD Student Seminar, Faculty of Education, UWO.

Chen, L. (Oct 20, 2014). *From critical pragmatism to social constructivism and postpositivism, and back again*. Invited address to Dr. Shelley Taylor's PhD Student Seminar, Faculty of Education, UWO.