Applying Agar's Concept of 'Languaculture' to Explain Asian Students' Experiences in the Australian Tertiary Context

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Abstract

This paper reports part of a broader qualitative case study of Asian students "translation" (Agar, 2006) to study in an Australian university. The paper is concerned with the experiences of eight participants and their involvement in a training programme in the use of language learning strategies (LLS) to support their engagement with second language (L2) academic and social discourses. Agar's (1994) concept of languaculture is used to frame the study. The participants' ability to translate between languaculture 1 (LC1—their home linguistic and cultural context) and languaculture 2 (LC2—the linguistic and cultural context of Australia) is investigated. The findings indicate that LLS can be assistive in this process but that there are contextual and linguistic factors that mediate success. These findings, and the data from the study, have enabled a refinement of Agar's (1994; 2006) languaculture model to better accommodate how training in the use of LLS can support translation from LC1 to LC2.

Keywords: languaculture, translation, academic discourse socialisation, language socialisation, language learning strategies, strategy training program

1. Languaculture

The term "languaculture" was coined by Michael Agar in 1994 to define the essential tie between language and culture. Agar differentiates between LC1—source languaculture and LC2—target languaculture. Agar (1994) states that language users draw on all kinds of things besides grammar and vocabulary such as past knowledge, local and cultural information, habits and behaviours as they negotiate languaculture. Later, Agar (2006) defines culture as "translation" in relation to his notion of 'languaculture'. According to Agar, "Culture is a lens built *for* LC1 that focuses on problematic meanings in LC2 and the contexts that render them understandable". He describes culture as "an artificial construction built to enable translation *between* them and us, *between* source and target" (p. 6). The following model has been developed to illustrate Agar's notion of languaculture.
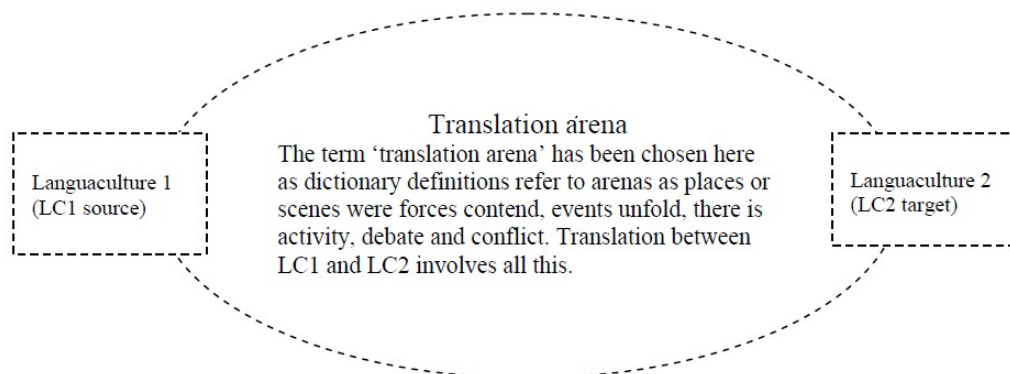

Figure 1. Agar's languaculture model

The concepts within this model have been used to both frame and guide the present study. Within the context of the study, LC1 reflects participants' existing languaculture, particularly in association with their English language learning experiences in their home country contexts. LC2 is the context in which the participants in this study learn and live—Australia. Being an effective participant within the LC2 is the aspirational target of the study's participants. Development towards this target involves being socialised into both the academic and social practices and discourses of the LC2. The authors suggest that this can be assisted by the effective and appropriate use of LLS as tools.

1.1 Background to the Study

The study aimed to investigate the knowledge and experiences L2 students of Asian background brought from their LC1 together with how these impacted their academic and social practices as they engaged with English in an Australian tertiary context (LC2). The study also sought to examine the impact of a strategy training programme on L2 academic discourse socialisation, L2 socialisationmore broadly and the continued development of English language proficiency. It is this second area that is the principal focus of this paper.

This study views LLS as one vehicle for dealing with the challenges encountered across academic and social discourses while promoting greater success in learning the English language. The application of LLS is considered as "an extremely powerful learning tool" (O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper, & Russo, 1985, p. 43) for learners in their attempt to communicate and learn in target languages. From this view then, flows the notion that learners can be instructed in the use of strategies, and that once trained, learners then become aware of how to approach the learning task, and what learning strategies are best able to achieve desirable outcomes in particular learning situations.

L2 socialisation is concerned with how particular linguistic forms are used and interpreted in a local community and how novices are guided by expert members to participate in the routine practices of everyday life (Duff, 2012). In order to enable such an orientation, Schieffelin and Ochs (1986) emphasise facilitating novice learning in social interaction through the use of an 'expert' of the culture or through a knowledgeable member of the community.

The basic concept of L2 academic discourse socialisation is similar to that of L2 socialisation. However, the main element of L2 academic discourse socialisation is that it puts emphasis on socialisation into the practices of academic disciplines or content areas in the L2 (Duff, 2007b). Duff (2010) explains that academic discourse, especially English academic discourse, is increasingly becoming multicultural and students who come to study using English as the dominant academic discourse are expected to develop proficiency in this area. Studies (e.g. Duff, 2007a, 2007b; Morita, 2004, 2009) show that students from a range of linguistic and cultural backgrounds, and with variable levels of English language proficiency and prior competence in the use of academic discourse, face various challenges when they enter new academic institutions. This issue has become extremely salient.

This study gives attention to LLS, L2 socialisation and L2 academic discourse socialisation processes in an attempt to meet the needs of specific learners, especially in terms of the capacity of training to significantly impact language use in Australian academic and social contexts.

2. Literature Review

In what follows, a review of the literature within the key areas of the study is presented. This is then related to the literature associated with L2 students of Asian background learning and living in Australia.

2.1 Language Learning Strategies

In reviewing the literature in the area of LLS, it has become clear that the field of LLS remains controversial due to vagueness in definitions, various classification systems, and inconclusive research findings. The definition of LLS proposed by Griffiths (2008, p. 87) "activities consciously chosen by learners for the purpose of regulating their own language learning" was felt to be suitable for the purposes of this study. Griffiths points out that this definition is broad enough to enable flexibility within the field. The flexibility of this definition allows learners to facilitate not only language learning tasks with the help of strategies, and develop their use of the different language modes, but also any aspect of their learning which could include understanding of, and capacity to use the various conventions of English language academic and social discourses, the area of focus within this study.

In the area of strategy classification, it can be identified that there are two common ways of classifying strategies: strategy classification by function and strategy classifications by mode area. Classification by function namely, metacognitive, cognitive, affective, and/or social strategies is the most common way of classifying strategies. Accordingly, a number of strategy classification systems have been developed (e.g. O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990). Most of these strategy classification systems reflect categorisations of LLS that are relatively the same.With respect to classification by mode, there are a number of categorisations (e.g. Cohen, 2011a; Schmitt,

1997; Fan, 2003). While acknowledging the usefulness of all these strategies, Woodrow (2005) points out that there is no one taxonomy of LLS that can be applied to all groups of learners due to the limited empirical research findings in support of each taxonomy and also the scarcity of reduplication studies. In addition, Chamot (2004) suggests that modified classification systems can exist for researchers since learners' learning goals can be expected to vary in response to factors such as the need for interpersonal communication skills, academic study in L2 at various institutional levels, and course requirements. This, together with the learning context specific to educational institutions in which learners are studying, determines the types of LLS that will be suitable to assist learning (Chamot, 2004). As such, the types of LLS used in this study were context-specific strategies to assist the participants across their required academic and social discourses. The LLS, that were the focus of the strategy training programme within this study, were selected based on a needs analysis of participants rather than on any particular classification system.

The concept of strategy instruction has been a natural outcome of LLS research. In general, strategy instruction focuses on raising learner awareness of learning strategies and encourages them to systematically practise, reinforce and monitor their strategy use while working on language tasks to eventually promote effective learner performance (e.g., Chamot, 2005; Cohen, 2011b). A distinction is often made between explicit (instruction that is not part of a regular language course) as opposed to integrated strategy instruction (strategies are often woven within the language curriculum). Cohen (2003) suggests that the form of the strategy training should depend upon the students' needs and the availability of resources including time, money, materials, and teacher trainers. Based on participants' needs and their time availability, this study employed an intensive explicit strategy training programme that was conducted outside usual university classes over a five-day period.

There are a number of variables identified within the literature that influence a learner's strategy choice in L2 learning. Three of these variables were considered to be particularly significant in this study—culture, proficiency, and learning context. It would seem that the relationship between LLS and culture has not been comprehensively examined. It is not easy to find studies that examine strategy use in relation to culture, particularly studies conducted in recent years with a focus on Asian students in tertiary ESL contexts. It was intended that this study would go some way to building knowledge in this area.

Proficiency as a variable has been examined more often than any other variable investigated in LLS research. Studies in the area suggest that more proficient learners use a greater number of strategies more effectively than less proficient learners (e.g. Oxford, 1996; Takeuchi, Griffiths, & Coyle, 2007). It should be noted however, that much of the research in the area has been conducted using the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) and much has been authored by Oxford. However, contrary to popular belief, the findings of some studies (Nisbet, Tindall, & Arroyo, 2005; Woodrow, 2005) have yielded different results. There are a number of reasons for these contradictory findings. Firstly, again the types of instruments selected to measure language proficiency are weak (Dornyei, 2005; Woodrow, 2005). Secondly, it was found that strategies other than those included in the SILL may have been used by language learners (Nisbet, Tindall, & Arroyo, 2005). Lastly, research in this area has been criticised on the basis that the frequency of strategy use does not measure language learning outcomes (Cohen, 2011a; Gu, 2002).

Norton and Toohey (2001) point out that in order to understand good language learning, it is essential to look at social practices as a learning context in which people learn languages. Only a limited number of studies (e.g. Carson & Longhini, 2002, Gao, 2006; He, 2002; Takeuchi, 2003) have investigated the relationship between LLS use and learning context from a qualitative perspective. The conclusion arrived at in these studies is strategy use is dynamic and changing because it varies across contexts. As a result, it has become clear that LLS research needs to focus more on qualitative dimensions that take into consideration the learning and living contexts where strategies are being used together with the notion of strategy use being enduring and evolutionary in order to support continued development of the L2. This study attempted to do this.

2.2 L2 Socialisation

L2 socialisation occurs when people leave their familiar culture (in which they have been primarily socialised from childhood) and enter a new cultural environment and join new discourse communities (Lave & Wagner, 1991). Learning a second language consists of processes of learning and acquiring the linguistic conventions and cultural practices of the L2 communities (Pennycook, 1995). Within such processes the 'novice' and 'expert' relationship is key. Duff (2012) explains that an 'expert' is someone who is more knowledgeable about, and proficient in the language and familiar with the culture whereas the 'novice' is someone who is less proficient. Schieffelin and Ochs (1986) argue that facilitating novice learning and social interaction by the 'expert' of the culture is best undertaken in the 'zone of proximal development' (ZPD), a concept introduced by Vygotsky

(1978). Within this zone, novices socialise into L2 communicative norms, and organise, and acquire cultural knowledge through various communicative activities that are culturally situated and widespread in everyday communication (Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986).

Researchers explain the stages of the socialisation process that a novice goes through in order to participate in social interactions. At the beginning stage, novices position themselves as peripheral observers (Ohta, 1999), thus their involvement in the social practices with 'experts' is limited (Lave & Wenger, 1991). The term peripherality is used to describe "an opening, a way of gaining access to sources for understanding through growing involvement" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 37). Within the context of this study, 'periphery' is the edge of the 'translation arena'.

However, as exposure to social interactions increase with the help of experts, novices slowly start internalising ways of appropriate participation including communicative norms and nuances, and meanings and purposes implicit within them (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976). This then enables them to increase their language performance and develop L2 proficiency. Several studies report on this process. Li (2000), for example, documents a Chinese immigrant woman's successful language socialisation experience in her new workplace through a process of scaffolding by more knowledgeable colleagues. On the other hand, Ranta (2004) reports on a study of Chinese international students at a Canadian university. As these students had extremely limited L2 oral interactions outside of their normal classroom contexts they were denied adequate access to experts and, as a result, remained on the periphery of the area referred to in Figure 1 as the translation arena.

With respect to this current study, participants were positioned as novices in their Australian university and in the broader Australian community. Their Australian peers or members of the Australian community were positioned as experts. This research examined the extent to which the strategy training intervention contributed to, or supported, participants with socialisation into the LC2. In this sense, the strategy training programme (and LLS) served as a tool designed to help participants move away from the periphery or edge of the translation arena into the LC2. The current study also focused on developing more clarity around other elements within the arena able to be used to support 'translation' into the LC2.

2.3 L2 Academic Discourse Socialisation

In reviewing the literature on L2 academic discourse socialisation, it is clear that most of the studies have been conducted outside of Australia, particularly in North American or in Canadian contexts. Duff (2010) comments that academic discourse, particularly English academic discourse, has been widely researched from a range of theoretical perspectives. However research on socialisation into academic discourse has received little attention. Duff's (2004) study is significant as it suggests that students may well remain on the periphery even though they are positioned within an L2 context. Duff (2007a) reports on reluctance to access English speaking support networks because of cultural and pragmatic differences, and how this impacted the academic discourse socialisation of Korean undergraduate students in Canada. These students had difficulty with what Agar describes as 'translation'. Morita (2009) examined strategies that one Japanese student employed to help him overcome the challenges associated with language, culture, and gender issues whilst participating in a range of academic practices of a Canadian university. In this study, the crucial role of expert language users in L2 socialisation was again identified and highlighted. The student found it difficult to access experts and this impacted his language use. These studies show that the L2 academic socialisation process is challenging and impacts on student's participation and development of identity in the LC2.

As the review shows, novices often experience a range of challenges mainly due to language and cultural differences. As a result, novices can fail to develop the ability to participate in the practices of their target community and therefore remain on the periphery—on the edge of the translation arena. More studies are needed to provide explicit illustrations of the types of support novices/students can be provided with to deal with the challenges associated with the socialisation process. Such was the intent of this current study.

2.4 L2 Students of Asian Background in the Australian Learning and Living Context

The learning experiences of these students in the Australian tertiary context are widely documented in the literature (e.g. Biggs, 1996; Volet, 1999). The literature on L2 students of Asian background presents a contradictory description of the ways they approach their learning. They have been depicted as passive, reproductive and surface learners (Ballard & Clanchy, 1997; Watkins & Biggs, 2001).

However, such a view of Asian learners has been increasingly disputed. Chalmers and Volet (1997), for example, challenge the negative descriptions and suggest that L2 students of Asian background use deep and achieving approaches. Volet (1999) argues that Confucian Heritage Students (CHS) do not rely on a surface learning

approach. In fact, Volet (1999, p. 628) points out that "The negative picture of Asian learners in Australian universities contrasts sharply with evidence from university statistics, that when English language proficiency is not an issue, Asian undergraduate students tend to perform better in their academic study than local students". Sawir, Marginson, Forbes-Mewett, Nyland, and Ramia (2012) investigated the role of English language proficiency in 200 English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students' communicative capacity both inside and outside the education setting (nine Australian universities) using semi-structured interviews. This study found that proficiency enables EFL students to move beyond passivity. Moreover, it is identified that Asian learners learn through interactions. For example, Yoshimitsu (2007) found that a Japanese student's increasing interaction with her Australian peers contributed to her participation in the discourse practices of her Australian university. Similarly, Tran's (2008) study showed that four Chinese English as a Second Language student doing their Master's degree course at an Australian university frequently communicated with their lecturers and this made a significant contribution in their studies.

Whilst these studies document successful transition of international students, a number of other studies (e.g. Bretag, Horrocks, & Smith, 2002; Sawir, 2005) reveal that L2 students of Asian background experience a number of challenges while studying at Australian universities. The most fundamental issue that causes these challenges is low level of English language proficiency. For example, in a study (Sawir et al., 2012) on 200 international students 86% of whom were L2 students of Asian background, it was revealed that a number of academic difficulties were triggered by lack of English proficiency.

Also frequently reported within the literature is the difficulty expressed by international students in forming relationships with Australian students. This is attributed to cultural differences and is also related to English language proficiency. As a result of a lack of intercultural interaction, international students are reported as often facing feelings of isolation from their Australian peers as well as cultural loneliness (Robertson, Line, Jones, & Thomas, 2000; Sawir, Marginson, Deumert, Nyland, & Ramia, 2008). In such situations, these students tend to study and socialise with their own groups from the same or similar cultural background both at university and off-campus (Nesdale & Todd, 2000; Rosenthal, Russell, & Thomson, 2007; Volet & Ang, 1998). It is also recognised, however, that same-culture networks cannot ensure satisfactory engagement with local cultures (Sawir et al., 2008).

There are very few studies focused on enhancing language. Moreover, there are a relatively small number of studies that talk specifically about LLS to assist with academic learning and social interaction. An initial step, however, has been made in this direction by Rochecouste, Oliver, Mulligan, and Davies (2010). These authors investigated the relationship between LLS and academic success. Initially, this study set out to recruit a potential cohort of approximately 60.000 international students from 59 countries studying in five Australian universities. However, less than two percent of the potential number of international students participated in the questionnaire component of the study and only 12 students were interviewed after the questionnaire. It revealed that students used a range of LLS and academic learning strategies to enhance their learning and living experiences. The current study with its multiple interviews and strategy training approach aims to give more specific and in-depth information with respect to this area.

3. Research Approach

A number of theoretical perspectives converge in this study. Social constructivism, particularly the notion of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (Vygotsky, 1978), is useful in understanding participants' knowledge construction.Knowledge expression is achieved through the use of a phenomenological approach (van Manen, 1990). This enabled participants' to present their lived-experiences in their own words. In addition, elements of ethnomethodology have been appropriated. The concept of 'member' (Garfinkel, 1967) is particularly pertinent when examining participants' socialisation processes as they translate from LC1 to LC2.

3.1 Design

As this study was concerned with developing detailed understandings about the participants' experiences, a qualitative case study was an appropriate fit for this research. This allowed for an exploration of the complexities of participants' learning and living experiences in both the home and Australian context.

3.2 Participants

Eight participants in the study were selected using purposeful sampling in order to provide "information-rich cases" for in-depth study (Patton, 2002, p. 46). In the selection of participants three criteria needed to be met: (a) they had to be from an Asian country, (b) they had to have studied English in their home countries but felt they needed to improve their English language proficiency, and (c) they needed to be studying at tertiary level in the

Australian university that was the case study site. These criteria were proposed to ensure that the potential participants possessed shared perspectives and experiences that were related to the research focus. The length of time they had lived in Australia varied with the average being six months. The participants have been designated pseudonyms—Annan (Thailand), Akio, Ai, Mariko, Nori (Japan), Dara, Maly (Cambodia) and Sung Hi (South Korea).

3.3 Data Collection

Data collection consisted of a number of stages: (a) initial individual semi-structured in-depth interview, (b) strategy training programme including observations and strategy checklist, and (c) a second round of individual semi-structured in-depth interviews. The first interviews were conducted at the beginning of the study to obtain information about participants' English language learning experiences both at home (LC1) and in the Australian context (LC2), their experiences with LLS use, academic learning, and socialisation in Australia. After the first round of interviews, a needs analysis was conducted to identify areas of need, together with strategies considered suitable for supporting the translation process. Each participant was then involved in selecting the specific LLS that they wished to develop and use to deal with their individual challenges.Out of this process a strategy training programme was designed.

The strategy training programme itself was one of the principal data collection methods. An explicit intensive 5-day strategy training programme was developed to provide instruction in, and use of LLS to support participants' engagement with, and utilisation of, academic discourses and also to foster language socialisation into the broader Australian community. A total of 6 vocabulary, 5 listening, 16 reading, 11 writing, 4 tutorial participation, 16 oral communication strategies were included in the strategy training programme and these were delivered through 6 instructional modules developed specifically for this research.

Observations were conducted during the instructional sessions. This study employed participant observation (Merriam, 1998) in the sense that one of the authors was present in the strategy training sessions as a facilitator and the participants were informed that they would be observed. This method was used to gauge participants' (a) level of interaction and interest, (b) level of cooperation, and (c) use of strategies to complete tasks.

A strategy checklist was employed to collect follow up data after the completion of the strategy training sessions. Participants were given a strategy checklist to record their strategy use for a period of 8 weeks. This was done in order to track and evaluate the progress of their strategy use and also to help participants consolidate their capacity to use LLS.

A second interview was then conducted with each participant in order to build a comprehensive understanding of the participants' total experiences with strategy use and the strategy training programme.

3.4 Data Analysis

Within the qualitative research process, the data collection and analysis phases are in many ways intertwined and it is therefore difficult to draw a strict line between the two phases (Sarantakos, 1993). The four stage data analysis process for this study was undertaken at different points in data collection. The first stage dealt with the data collected from the initial in-depth interview and included writing a case study for each participant. The second stage was concerned with the data from the strategy training programme focused mainly on observations and the strategy checklist. The third stage comprised data analysis of the second in-depth interview with the focus exclusively on finding out the participants' learning and living experiences after being involved in the strategy training programme. The last stage involved a comprehensive analysis of all data and included a cross-case analysis (Patton, 2002).

4. Discussion

Data from the study have enabled a refinement of Agar's (1994, 2006) languaculture model to better accommodate how training in the use of LLS can support translation into the LC2. In what follows, this reconceptualisation is presented and discussed.

4.1 Reconceptualising Agar's Languaculture Model

A number of changes to Agar's languaculture model have been made in response to the findings from this study. The refined model (Figure 2) presents a visual representation of how these emergent factors fit together to shape and impact participant translation from LC1 to LC2.
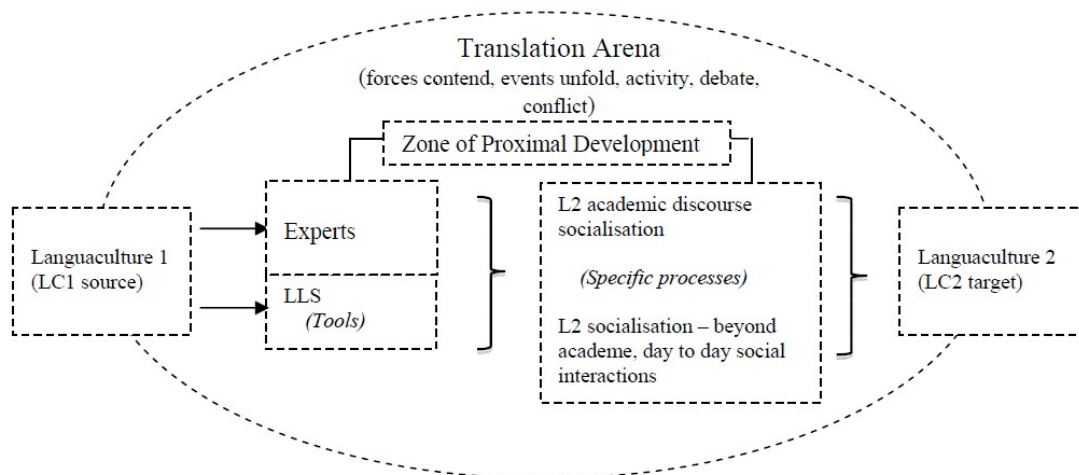
Figure 2. A reconceptualisation of Agar's languaculture model

4.2 Explaining the 'Refined Languaculture Model'

As noted at the beginning of this paper, this study was about what Agar (2006, p. 6) describes as translation between source (LC1) and target culture (LC2). The particular focus of the study was how participants experienced the processes associated with learning about, and using, LLS to support academic discourse socialisation and L2 socialisation within the LC2. The use of the term 'translation arena', extrapolated from Agar's original notion of translation, has enabled more clarity to be developed around the concept of translation. In this study the 'translation arena' is a place or scene where forces contend, events unfold, and there is activity, debate and conflict. These activities and factors are examined in the following sections to explain the revised languaculture model and report the findings of this study. Collectively these findings illuminate additional key elements within 'translation'.

4.2.1 Forces Contend

Within the context of this study and the reconceptualised model, 'forces contend' encapsulates such things as experiences and artefacts of the LC1 associated with participants' English language learning experiences and the use of LLS in their home country contexts. Also included here are experiences of, and expectations associated with LC2 before the strategy training programme. The findings of this study reveal that in the LC1 participants experienced a very different academic culture to that of their Australian university. In their LC1 context, participants experienced an education system that did not encourage them to take an active role in constructing knowledge but instead was characterised by a scholastic, didactic approach of transmission and testing, with minimum attention to interactive learning. Participants' LC1 English language education did not prepare them to use the language conventions necessary for effective communication through a range of text types and discourse patterns with speakers of the English language. Participants did not know how to provide their opinions spontaneously and had little understanding of the concept of LLS as known within Western discourses. For example:

In Cambodia, we only follow textbook and we can't improve the way we think. I was bad on speaking and writing as well. Only the grammar. (Maly)

I have to do is listening what teacher said. We don't have to express our opinion, just listening so we don't have to do discussion so I can't get any other views from other students. I have just one view about the topic. I have to listen for one and half an hour each unit [in university in Japan]. (Akio)

Overall, participant data indicate that they were positioned in their home education systems as essentially passive learners. As such, when participants commenced their studies in the Australian university context, both their English language proficiency and preparedness for learning and living in the Australian LC2 were extremely limited. They were trying to engage with the L2 academic discourses using strategies and approaches derived from the LC1 context such as working hard and interpreting information as being either right or wrong. These approaches were of limited assistance in the LC2. In addition, a number of participants were isolated from the host community and their social interactions were restricted for the most part, to their 'like' people. Thus, forces

associated with their LC1 learning and living experiences contended with LC2 expectations and experiences.

These contending forces meant that at the beginning of the study, for participants, the translation arena was a place where they were principally 'spectators' on the periphery.

4.2.2 Events Unfold

The events that have unfolded in this study encompass participant experiences pre, during, and post the strategy training programme. Data from the study identify 'experts' (or LC2 members) as being significant in supporting participant translation as events unfolded through the study. Data also suggest that LLS can be an important tool set within the process. Scaffolded learning across the ZPD, using experts, emerged as an essential process in participants learning to be able to use LLS effectively and appropriately. The connection between these processes and tools is thus made explicit,and is reflected in the reconceptualised languaculturemodel (Figure 2).

4.2.3 Activity

In terms of activity, data from the strategy training programme yielded some interesting findings with respect to impact on L2 academic discourse socialisation, L2 socialisation, and continued language development. These are reported in the following discussion.

The impact of strategy training on L2 academic discourse socialisation was varied. Data from the study identify that participants found cognitive strategies useful. For example, Akio and Maly stated that the use of vocabulary strategies enabled them to read texts more quickly. In addition, participants (Akio & Ai) claimed that the application of skimming and scanning strategies increased their reading comprehension.These strategies also helped Nori and Akio identify relevant segments within texts, and they reportedbeing able to use them in tutorials and essays. Tutorial participation strategies designed to relax participants, and connect them with their classmates, were also commented onas beinghelpful.

Participants, however, did not use metacognitive strategies to good effect particularly when reading.They had difficulty thinking about their thinking and in making meaning beyond literal interpretation. Data indicate that the quantity of reading material that participant felt they had to 'get through' impacted their ability to even try to use metacognitive strategies to read critically and reflexively. Instead, the participants felt that they needed to finish reading the texts as soon as possible without spending too much time. Participants' lacked an appreciation of the importance of metacognitive reading strategies in engagement with academic discourses. Akio explained:

… before I came here I am not familiar with tutorial, discussion so before [in Japan] *I just finish reading then tutor asks some basic information about reading. So they don't ask questions deep related to reading so it was easy to answer the question. But here* [in Australia] *we have to think ourself very deeply more critical but so maybe I think that is the reason. If I use deep strategy, maybe I could understand more …but I couldn't do that much.*

The most ineffectively used metacognitive strategies were—planning, monitoring and self-evaluation tutorial participation strategies. Participants (Ai, Akio, Maly, & Nori) could not use these strategiesbecause they could not understand what was going on in their tutorials.Limited English language proficiency was identified as a problem. Maly said:

I often feel uncomfortable in tutorial with other native speakers because they speak very fast and I got lost. I just don't understand what they are talking about. So I can't participate.

Data also suggest another explanation for their poor use of LLS to support tutorial participation.Participants found it difficult to 'jump' into an academic conversation, or interject in open-ended and free-flowing discussions. This was revealed as being related to their previous pedagogical orientation and experiences that were reported as being tightly structured with teachers rarely encouraging discussion. Therefore, the significant differences in pedagogical styles between LC1 and LC2 contributed to participants' poor strategy use. This resulted in participants avoiding participation in tutorials all together.

The impact of oral communication strategies on the L2 socialisation process was mixed. Overall, participants used strategies to start conversations, keep conversations going, and to maintain interactions with their conversation partners. The context in which they chose to use them is, however, significant. Sung Hi and Annan, for example, successfully used oral communication strategies by creating their own opportunities to engage with native, or expert English speakers within everyday social LC2 situations.

This, however, was not the case for all participants. The findings that emerged from Dara and Maly's accounts of their strategy use were different. They did not create opportunities to talk to LC2 English/expert speakers. They chose instead to socialise only with 'like' people and they remained isolated from the host community. This

resulted in ineffective or limited use of oral communication strategies. Data suggest that overall the notion of translation was too hard and confronting for Dara and Maly and they remained on the peripheryof the LC2.

Turning now to the activity of continued language development, all participants in their second interview asserted that they believed that their language had improved through the use of LLS. There is little real evidence, however, to corroborate this. Participants felt positive about the impact of LLS on language development but the voices of the participants themselves, recorded verbatim in this study, do little to support such an assertion. It is also overly simplistic to suggest an uncomplicated linear association between learners' self-perceptions of their proficiency improvement and strategy use. Due to the time constraints of this study, it was difficult to see the long-term impact of LLS use on participants' English language proficiency. This needs to be considered in future research.

Data from the study identify that strategy training of itself is not enough to facilitate translation. Other activities were essential. Contact and exchange with expert language users have emerged as being critical with respect to modelling language use, providing access to the LC2, nurturing and scaffolding. This finding supports the work of Schieffelin and Ochs (1986) who argue that expert facilitation or guidance in the ZPD is essential in socialisation processes because through guided or collaborative interactions, novices socialise into L2 norms, and organise, and acquire cultural knowledge that is culturally situated and used in different academic and social discourses. Within the reconceptualised languaculture model this is recognised as being essential and complimentarytothe use of language learning strategies as tools. The recognition of this alignment is a significant outcome of this study.

4.2.4 Debate and Conflict

The findings of this study identify that the process of translation between LC1 and LC2 is not easy. Accounts of participants' experiences with the use of LLS reveal internal and external debate and conflict. Participants debated within themselves with respect to what their difficulties in using LLS were and how they could 'move' into the LC2.

Debate and conflict were also part of the external environment and activities within the translation arena, and these were problematic for participants to differing degrees. Most found the expectations around debate, argument and conflict with respect to academic activities, particularly tutorials, to be confronting. For example, before the strategy training programme, Sung Hi said,

I found that Australian student they usually they usually ask like everything when they feel they have problem. Even that is so small. But to me if it is small I think I can handle that. I am alone in the class, as an Asian as a female student so I feel shy. And we are not aggressive people like Western people.

Here Sung Hi perceived her Australian classmates' asking questions, regardless of whether the question was significant or not, as "aggressive". This example demonstrates conflict or a clash between LC1 values and understandings and those of the LC2. As reported by Barnard (2009) being upfront and assertive, and asking questions, were difficult for participants such as those in this study. Sung Hi's comments after the training programme illustrate, however, that within the translation arena, training and the use of LLS can have an impact:

… at the moment I ask even though that is small. I wanna show that I am here. I don't feel shy with my mistakes anymore. I asked people to explain again rather than to be panic.

Therefore, this study shows that the use of LLS has mitigated the influence of the behaviour or actions of Australian students on Sung Hi. LLS have supported her L2 socialisation.

Also, context has emerged as being critical for supporting appropriate LLS use and this is significant for successful translation into the LC2. However, for some participants using LLS in the broader Australian context was not an easy thing to do. Instances of debate and conflict, examples of which are reported here, indicate that the process of translation into the LC2 can be challenging.

5. Conclusion

This research aimed to both support and report on the eight participants' socialisation into Australian academic discourses and also the broader Australian community. It hypothesised that, through increasing awareness and use of LLS, participants would be better able to 'translate' into the LC2.

Overall, the findings indicate that strategy training and use can have a positive impact on participants' learning and living experiences, and that their use can support the translation process into LC2 academic and social discourses. The findings show that LLS can help in the move away from the periphery of the translation arena. In this regard, this study reveals a number of critical factors with respect to how training in the use of LLS can

support translation. Key factors identified are context appropriate strategy use, contact and exchange with expert language users, and the use of LLS as learning and communication tools used regularly and independently. The importance of tailored strategy training intervention, together with the use of an extended strategy checklist process, is supported by the findings of this study.

However, not all participants were able to translate successfully and the findings highlight the complexity of the translation process. This study identifies that strategy training will only be able to support in the metacognitive use of language if the participants have adequate language proficiency. Also, if participants use LLS when communicating only with 'like' people then their success with the translation process will be limited and they will continue to remain as 'spectators' on the periphery of the translation arena.

From a theoretical perspective, a significant contribution of this study lies in that it has connected the two theoretical orientations of LLS and L2 socialisation. Previously these have, for the most part, been conceptualised, theorised and operationalised discreetly in LLS and L2 socialisation studies. Out of this study emerges a theoretically cohesive model (based on Agar's notion of languaculture) that incorporates concepts of L2 socialisation together with the LLS concept. In this light, and also in light of the findings, this study contributes to the development of a better understanding of the role LLS can play in the processes of apprenticing L2 students of Asian backgrounds, such as the participants in this study, into the academic and social discourses of Australia as their LC2. In other words, this new model provides a clearer articulation of forces, factors and processes that impact the learning and living experiences of such students within the LC2. The study itself illuminates how these forces, factors and processes interrelate and interact to influence success in the translation process. Additional studies, however, need to be conducted to 'test' the utility of the revised languaculture model with respect to supporting students' L2 socialisation processes across academic and social discourses through the use of LLS.

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