

Exploring the publication practices of Japan-based EFL scholars through Collaborative Autoethnography

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Abstract

This study has investigated Japan-based English language scholars' experiences of and investment in academic publishing. Using a Collaborative Autoethnographic (CAE) approach (Chang, Ngunjiri & Hernandez, 2013), a diverse group of Japanese (n=2) and non-Japanese scholars (n=5) teaching and researching English explored and co-constructed their narratives about publishing practices. Analyzing the findings from our CAE through the lens of Darvin and Norton's (2015) work into identity, capital and ideology, a diversity of experiences was revealed in the process of writing for academic publication. A common narrative was that academic writing problems were shared by Japanese and non-Japanese scholars. Commonalities were also evident among experienced and less experienced scholars in dealing with journal editorial feedback, particularly the pressure exerted by editors on authors to cite works by the editors themselves, and also a lack of mediation by supervising editors when reviewers' feedback differed. One notable difference was that non-Anglophone scholars felt unable to challenge the rejection of the work, compared with Anglophone scholars who were often able to negotiate successfully with gatekeepers. Further to this, the CAE facilitated the sharing of views on how institutional and personal ideologies and working conditions shaped perceptions of the value of academic publication.

Keywords: capital, collaborative autoethnography, ideology, identity, Japan, publication

Introduction

In this study, we explore issues surrounding English language academic publication among Japan-based scholars engaged in university English language teaching. Previous studies reveal publication-related problems among researchers of English as an Additional Language (EAL) from different ethnolinguistic backgrounds (Flowerdew, 2001, 2007, 2008; Lillis & Curry, 2010; Salager-Meyer, 2008, 2013). In order to explore this further, this study considers the experiences of a cross-section of Japan-based scholars (n = 7), both Japanese and non-Japanese, with a balance of genders and a variety of experiences in publication. To some extent, this diversity of participant backgrounds working in a non-centre academic location such as Japan responds to recent calls by Corcoran, Englander and Muresan (2019) to broaden research into academic publishing. The Collaborative Autoethnography (CAE) (Chang, Ngunjiri & Hernandez, 2013) methodology of

gathering data on publication experiences and perceptions has been adopted as it encourages participants to both write their own narratives whilst helping co-construct those of others on a closed Google Drive site similar to a conversation. With a large amount of intertwining narratives, we have chosen to analyze findings based on an adapted framework from the work of Darvin and Norton (2015), who explore identity, capital and ideology issues originally among learners. This framework has been superimposed upon our teacher - researcher experiences in publishing.

The study was conducted over 18 months from July 2017 to December 2018 and has a dual purpose of gaining insights into our own EFL publication issues working within Japanese academia and forming a community of publication practice in which participants can interact and support each other on publication endeavours in the long term.

Literature Review

As our study addresses themes of publication practices and ideologies within Japanese academia at the tertiary level, our review of the literature firstly addresses issues pertinent to academic labour in Japanese academia in the tertiary sector. We then move on to issues related to our academic communities and networks, particularly how scholars are positioned and negotiate their positioning within and across them. Finally, the larger issues of academic publishing are explored from both authorial and editorial perspectives.

Japanese academia

The literature surrounding Japanese academia at the tertiary level, particularly in terms of the positioning and status afforded to English language faculty, has shown elements of marginalization of non-language faculty (McVeigh, 2002). This mirrors broader trends worldwide (Turner, 2012) and is exacerbated, in part, by larger neo-liberal forces impacting tertiary education and the encroachment of managerialism (Hadley, 2015). One sign of this is illustrated by McCrostie (2010) who reported on the bias in mostly English language teaching recruitment against foreign faculty though predominantly Japanese language-only job adverts, signalling a preference for Japanese nationals for tenured positions. McCrostie and Spiri (2010) also noted the short-term thinking by Japanese administration who placed “expiry dates” (para 12) on the employment of foreign English faculty, preferring them to move to other universities or return to their home countries. This limited view on foreign faculty clearly inhibits long-term research planning. With many non-Japanese faculty securing only part-time or limited term contracts, McCrostie and Spiri (2008, para 1) termed the resulting annual employment search by non-Japanese as a frenetic “musical chairs,” with Hall (1998) earlier noting a polarization between tenured Japanese faculty and adjunct, limited-term contract non-Japanese as a form of “academic apartheid” (p. 80). The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (known as MEXT, 2016) released data for 2015 showing that of 20, 756 foreign faculty employed in Japanese universities, 13, 021 (63%) were part-timers, compared to only 52% of Japanese employed on a part-time basis. The

proportion of foreigners attaining full-time status (37%) was then considerably lower than the 48% of Japanese in such employment status. Houghton, (in Houghton and Rivers, 2013), conducted a study of contract status EFL teachers at a large, unstated university in Japan and discovered that all Japanese nationals at the said university had tenured status while all non-Japanese teachers did not. Instead all were employed on a “limited, yet renewable five-year contract” (Houghton, 2013, p.70). However, despite this, Kubota’s (2002) perspective on western, white male ‘native’ teachers in Japan (2002) alluded to their privilege in easily securing work in English language teaching based mainly on their gender and ethnicity, rather than teaching competence. The insecure employment of many part-time, contracted “contingent” faculty (Gaillet & Guglielmo, 2014), whether Japanese or non-Japanese, in Japan mirrors worldwide trends in higher education, with the consequence that the precariousness of their employment status places pressure to publish in order to attain the more secure tenured (“non-contingent”) faculty status. Gaillet and Guglielmo (2014) advise that this move up to tenure can be achieved by collaborative research and active networking, as outlined in the Mexican case by Encinas-Prudencio, Sanchez-Hernandez, Thomas-Ruzic, Cuantlapantzi-Pichon and Aguilar-Gonzalez (2019). Encinas-Prudencio et al. (2019) do though highlight the complexities inherent in writing in English whilst studying in Spanish, presenting some students with challenges to engage in research bilingually. More importantly, however, larger issues of doing research whilst lacking the funds, resources and long-term presence at an institution are seen by Belcher (2007) as detrimental to the research profile of an institution; Swales (1987, p. 43) termed this disadvantaged status as “off-network[ed]” from the mainstream access to financial and material resources enjoyed by tenured faculty. In more recent ethnographic studies, Lillis and Curry (2010) explored the ways Eastern European scholars negotiated the journey into English-language publication by accessing personal networks beyond their local institutions. This process of compensating for a paucity of local resources, advice and opportunities to attend research conferences appears as key in overcoming the disadvantages of a geographically peripheral location and personal employment status.

Returning to the Japanese tertiary context, recent government initiatives to internationalize higher education by offering more content programs and courses through English Medium Instruction (EMI) and attracting more non-Japanese students is reported as being undirected in its spread across Japanese universities, with elite universities taking more leadership (Stigger, 2018). The expectation that the government initiative would lead to an influx of more foreign faculty and an improvement in employment opportunities for non-Japanese faculty is assessed by Burgess, Gibson, Klaphake and Selzer (2010, p. 470) as follows:

...the situation of foreign teachers in Japan as peripheral and expendable seems to have changed little and may even have got worse.

Burgess et. al. (2010) base this claim on analysis of employment adverts for foreign faculty by elite universities receiving government funding to become “global”. Their findings reveal that the government funds were given on a limited 5-year basis and, as a consequence, job descriptions

stipulated an exact 5 year (non-renewable) limit on employment. This casts doubt on the intention of those universities to regard new foreign staff as long-term members of faculty. Tsuruta (2013) reports on Japanese university management and faculty resistance to this recent push towards internationalization as it appears to threaten the status quo by forcing Japanese faculty to teach in English, an unfair demand frequently beyond their linguistic capabilities. As a consequence, overall employment of non-Japanese faculty remains low at around 4% of the total faculty (Huang, 2009). Whitsed and Wright (2011, p. 29) summarize the dilemma for foreign teachers in Japanese higher education where they are “simultaneously positioned ‘inside and outside’ of the dominant culture as long-term residents.”

Communities of practice and networks

The problematic positioning of foreign faculty within Japanese academia then leads us to explore the nature of our academic communities. Lave and Wenger’s (1991) research into corporate institutions is frequently used as an analogy for this exploration. The concept of a “community of practice” (CoP) (Lave & Wenger, 1991) is used to investigate the internal system or mechanics of a community in which its members share a common purpose. The ways in which new members interact and progress in the community towards more a stable, accepted status is seen as the journey from the “periphery” towards more central positions of authority and agency, a process called “legitimate peripheral participation” (p. 29) where experienced members and newcomers are envisaged in an apprenticeship relationship.

Superimposing the CoP analogy on to educational institutions and even larger fields of study is a convenient and clarifying means to position academics; however, problems occur in this model of analysis when scholars work simultaneously in various institutions, as is the case for many contingent faculty out of economic necessity, or even for scholars working in one institution but affiliated with multiple faculties or committees, as is common practice for English language faculty allocated to teaching roles across the curricula. This affiliation to “overlapping communities of practice” (James, 2007, p. 133) tends to blur community boundaries and in the process leads to the formulation of scholars’ hybrid academic identities as behaviour, loyalties and language use require “fluidity” (Clegg, 2008, p. 332). A possible alternative to CoP could be that of “networks of practice” (Brown & Duguid, 2001), or more recently “individual networks of practice” (INoP) (Zappa-Hollman & Duff, 2014, p. 2), which look at how people are connected within and across communities. Instead of, or as a supplement to, understanding the system and its culture and languages as a focus of attention as in CoP, the use of networks or networking places the person as the focus of attention and gives a wider, not exclusively institutionally-bound picture of a scholar’s “social interactional landscape” (Zappa-Hollman & Duff, 2014, p. 7). Curry and Lillis (2010) have utilized this framework of analysis as a means to understand the diverse journeys into publication by European scholars, and they see key roles for emerging, multilingual scholars in the “brokers” (p. 283) they access to provide academic knowledge or connect them with those who do.

Academic publishing

For this final section of the literature review, we explore academic publishing from both the well-documented multilingual scholars' authorial experiences in negotiating peer review in English language journals and, importantly, from journal editorial and reviewer perspectives. As a caveat to this widened perspective, we also consider all scholars' journeys into publication, whether multilingual (non-native speaker) or native-speaker Anglophone, as all requiring representation in the discussion.

Much research into academic publishing has focused on the struggles of the multilingual scholar in negotiating the peer review process with editors and reviewers of center, Anglophone journals. Studies report inherent bias by Anglophone journal gatekeepers towards work by multilingual scholars labelled as less than native-like in language use or as dealing with content deemed as irrelevant to center readership (Canagarajah, 1996; Flowerdew, 2001, 2007, 2008). This normative pressure is termed as the exercise of "centering forces" (Lillis, 2013, p. 111), usually by journal editors and reviewers, but also by university and government bodies which evaluate scholarly work. More recently, research has shifted away from simply the recognition of this bias towards strategies to overcome these linguistic and geographical barriers (Lillis, 2013; Lillis & Curry, 2010). Notably, research by Lillis and Curry (2010) explores the networking that multilingual scholars engaged in to compensate for the lack of locally available academic resources needed to achieve publication. In a sense, this echoes Block's (2018) calls for language educators to proactively extend the empowerment of periphery students in educational contexts to the wider social sphere by making them aware of the value of their first language (L1) literacies in L2 academic writing production. One specific example of this wider role for journal editors and reviewers was put forward by Salager-Meyer (2008, 2013) and Paltridge (2013) who advocate a closer supportive/mentoring relationship between multilingual scholars and journal editors to bridge the linguistic shortfalls in multilingual scholars' writing and raise their profiles in the academic community. Corcoran, Englander and Muresan (2019) most recently explored the diverse local means such multilingual scholars embark upon to achieve publication, placing great emphasis on collaboration and networking.

The underlying issues stimulating this growth of research into the multilingual (non-native speaker) scholar's problems with publishing in English were identified by Fitzpatrick (2011) as the increasing pressure on academics, in general, to publish more in English from the institutional and governmental levels. Added to this pressure is the field-specific peer review process which often manifests itself in blind review circumstances of harsh "pit bull" reviewing (Walbot, 2009, p. 24) where fault-finding "takes precedence" (Martin, 2008, p. 302) over constructive feedback. For emerging scholars, this can be daunting if they seek to challenge mainstream beliefs about research and writing (Mignolo, 2011), so awareness of repercussions when doing so is essential (Harwood & Hadley, 2004). Bitchener (2018) and Hyland (2016) question whether this is a challenge solely for periphery, multilingual scholars and state that centre, Anglophone scholars also require academic writing guidance in language, structure and content. The fundamental argument that "periphery" (Canagarajah, 1996, p. 442) publication of research originating from

outside of the Anglophone center as representing “marked” (Lillis, Magyar, & Robinson-Pant, 2010, p. 783) academic knowledge production is then argued by Hyland as failing to recognize that academic writing and research should not be distinguished by a lack of ‘native’-like publication competence but is a skill acquired by experience. To counter this imbalance in awareness of bias and polarization in the centre versus periphery academic labelling and therefore potential stigmatization, more development is required among journal staff to challenge their perceptions of what constitutes valid research and writing emanating from any geographical context. This is seen in Adamson and Muller (2012) in efforts at Asian-based journals to unpack such reviewer perceptions and Adamson (2012) in initiatives to actively sensitize reviewers - both Anglophone and multilingual - to these issues through mentoring.

Methodology

Data-collection

We have adopted a Collaborative Autoethnographic (CAE) approach (Chang, Ngunjiri & Hernandez, 2013; Allen-Collinson, 2013; Bochner & Ellis, 1995) for this study as it encapsulates the joint-narrativizing purpose intended for the purpose of gathering data on our beliefs towards publishing, and also, importantly, directly aids in the creation of a community, albeit online. Chang et al. (2013, p. 24) note that individual narratives cannot achieve the same “synergy and harmony” as a CAE, which more actively encourages the “collective exploration of researcher subjectivity” (p. 25). In the process of co-constructing our narratives, we have stressed the sharing of “critical incidents” (Butterfield, Borgen, Amundson, & Maglio, 2005, p. 480), the key experiences underlying our beliefs. In CAE research, collaborators question, support, and elicit more information about such incidents, creating a natural, dialogic process which builds a conversational flow through the CAE and also holds the potential to express “counter-narratives” (Andrews, 2004, p. 1) when participants feel they have been stigmatized.

Historically, the phrase Collaborative Autoethnography has developed over time from three main key concepts: Collaboration, together with *Ethnography*, the systematic study of people and cultures, and *autobiography*, which refers to the study of self. According to Chang et al. (2013), referencing these latter “two conceptual opposites” is “oxymoronic” as they are quite contradictory to each other, posing the question “How can a study of self be done collaboratively?” (2013, p. 17). As a group, we have approached this by committing ourselves to a process of frank and open self-disclosure and dialogue through a closed-source Google Doc that was only accessible to participants of this study. The subsequent analysis was also conducted by four members of the group, whose contributions are reflected in the order of listed authors of this article.

Participants

There were initially nine participants involved in this study. Of these, one pulled out midway through the first year, while another pulled out several months later, leaving seven members who

provided further data through to the final stages. The group consisted of four females, two males, and one genderqueer, with ages ranging from 33 to 57 (mean age of 45) at the time of commencement in August 2017. At the early stages of this study, all members were asked to provide brief details on the highest degrees they had obtained and their personal experience of publishing and editing to date. All participants had obtained a Master's degree or higher, with two pursuing a doctorate and three have reached the Doctorate level. Likewise, all had indicated some degree of publication experience. However, academic paper editorial experience varied from none to experienced editor. All participants are currently employed as teachers at the tertiary level in Japan ranging in experience and are presently involved with academic writing projects. This information was acquired from a shared Google Drive file whereby participants gave brief self-introductions. Three members of the group are colleagues at the same institution, but the other three are spread out at further locations across Japan. See Table 1 below for basic details of the participants in this study.

Table 1: Participant backgrounds

Pseudonym	Nationality	Gender or sexual identity/ preferred pronoun	Age *	Qualification	Authorial experience	Editorial experience
Peter	British	male/he	57	MA/Ed.D.	Experienced	Experienced
Jennifer	British	female/she	55	MA/Ph.D.	Experienced	Experienced
Daniel	Filipino	genderqueer/ they	37	MA/taking Ph.D.	Novice	none
Susan	American	lesbian/she	44	MA	Novice	none
Megumi	Japanese	female/she	49	2 MAs	Experienced	Experienced
David	British	male/he	41	MA/Ph.D.	Some experience	Some
Ayako	Japanese	female/she	33	MA/taking Ph.D.	Novice	none

*Denotes age at the commencement of this project

Further to the information on our profiles in table 1, we also compiled individual bio profiles which were intended to cast light on our personal histories and core beliefs.

Bio profiles

Peter's regional UK school was distinctly multicultural. Later, studying in Germany at the undergraduate level in German-medium content also brought him away from the Anglocentric world of academic communication in early adulthood. He has worked in Thailand, Japan, Germany and the UK in ELT.

Jennifer's secondary education in the UK was very white, middle-class, and monolingual, and as a reaction to this, she studied languages at university and spent a year studying in what was then the Soviet Union. During doctoral studies in London, she was comfortable in a very diverse community with a very strong left-wing faculty. She has in the past found it difficult to bring her political views into her research in Japan until a recent narrative study with Filipino teachers.

Daniel has an MA in English language and literature and is a candidate for a Ph.D. in Language Education at a university in the Philippines. Before moving to Japan, they taught in the Philippines and Indonesia. Currently, they is writing a dissertation about translingualism.

Susan grew up in a liberal but very white city in the US, although she spent her junior year of high school in Colombia. At university, she majored in Latin American Studies and studied in Brazil for one year. She also came out as a lesbian at that time. She taught in Japan for around 15 years before starting graduate school, at which point her identity shifted from "teacher" to include "researcher" and "author" as well.

Megumi teaches academic writing, test-taking skills, sociolinguistics and discourse analysis. She has taught from primary to tertiary. Initially, she worked in Japanese public junior high schools as an English teacher. She received her MA in ELT and Master of Education from UK universities.

David has been a teacher for almost 20 years in Japan and is from a predominantly monocultural rural location in the UK. He was surrounded by foreigners from a young age due to his family's business as a guest house proprietor. This influence led to him learning German and later studying on an erasmus programme during his undergraduate degree. After completing a Ph.D. in blended learning and the use of technology in education, he finds his identity has shifted somewhat from teacher to researcher, to facilitator and now guide.

Ayako has just completed a Ph.D. in a Japanese university. She received her BA, focusing on second/foreign language acquisition in Hawaii, and her MA in Japan. She has researched codeswitching in teacher talk and L1 use, including translation, in the foreign language classroom.

Autoethnographic Dialogue

The fundamental beginnings of this project involved the lead researcher inviting others to comment on three main "frames" (Warwick & Maloch, 2003, p. 59), representing the main themes for our narratives, via a Google Drive file that was created in the spring of 2017. Barkhuizen and Wette (2008) state "narrative frames" (p. 373) are useful tools around which "storied experience"

(p. 374) can be conveyed, providing a loose structure for reflection. Our negotiated three frames were: 1. Authorial/researcher experience and perceptions, 2. Editorial/reviewer experience and perceptions and 3. Japan-based issues regarding publishing. After two months of acquiring suggestions from all contributors, a total of 14 more specific sub-themes related to the main frames were received. All members were encouraged to contribute to discussions that developed over six months on these sub-themes. After completion, a series of comprehensive comments and discussions was recorded amounting to 18 pages of written discourse on all frames and sub-themes. The breakdown of frames and subthemes can be seen in Table 2. below.

Table 2. Main frames and sub-themes of the autoethnographic dialogue

Main frame	Sub-themes
1. Authorial/ researcher experience and perceptions	· Publishing difficulties/experiences with editors from authors' perspectives · Language issues in academic writing for publication purposes · Access to research & knowledge of suitable journals · Researcher identity & gender issues in Japanese academia · Voice & pluralizing academic writing · Writing for publication singly or with others (Communities of writing practice in Japanese academia/language teachers). · Support/training for academic writing for the publication process · Creating manageable research projects · Publishing personal narratives
2. Editorial/ reviewer experience and perceptions	· Academic publishing experiences/difficulties from reviewers' and editors' points of view · Standards and expectations from the reviewer's point of view
3. Japan-based issues regarding publishing	· Academic publishing advice in teaching associations/personal networks and communities · Views on academic publishing in Japan and beyond (indexing, prestige) · Standards and expectations in Japanese academia

In March 2018 three of us presented a report on the ongoing CAE. One of the key emergent themes was “Affirming agency/identity when publishing and dealing with/resisting power of centering organizations” (Adamson, Fujimoto-Adamson, & Martinez, 2018). Subsequently, we narrowed our research focus to our investment in academic publishing. A further Google Drive document was created to generate further data on our professional identities and contexts and on

our current and envisaged research activities. Participants were invited to contribute on the following five topics:

1. current position and type of institution, and how long we have worked there
2. career path to achieve this position
3. expected or desired future career path/ position
4. ways our positions have influenced our publishing practices
5. any research- or publishing-related differences noticed about our different positions

As the document was a collaborative Google Drive file, all contents were viewable to the group and members were free to comment on points raised or experiences from each individual. Everyone provided frank and honest opinions about their publishing experiences with internal and external factors that may have influenced their production. After two months, 6,400 words of written discourse were obtained. The next stage of data analysis was carried out on both these Google Drive files showcasing autoethnographic discourse from which key discussions and conclusions were drawn.

Investment as a Theoretical Framework

As a theoretical framework, our study draws on the foundational work on identity and investment by Bonny Norton and others (Darvin & Norton, 2015, 2019; Norton, 2001, 2013; Norton Peirce, 1995). Norton adopts the poststructuralist view that “language constructs our sense of self, and that identity is multiple, changing and a site of struggle” (Darvin & Norton, 2015, p. 36). Identity is also “how a person understands his or her relationship with the world, how that relationship is structured across time and space, and how the person understands possibilities for the future” (Norton, 2013, p. 45). Inspired by the social theory of Bourdieu (1977, 1984, 1991), Norton proposes the concept of *investment* to explain the relationship between an individual’s identity and their commitment to learning a second language (Norton, 2001, 2013; Norton Peirce, 1995). As a sociological construct, investment assumes that identity is complex and dynamic and that the conditions of power in different contexts can position learners in multiple and often unequal ways. More recently, the concept of investment has been re-envisaged by Darvin and Norton (2015) as the intersection of identity, capital and ideology (see Fig. 1).

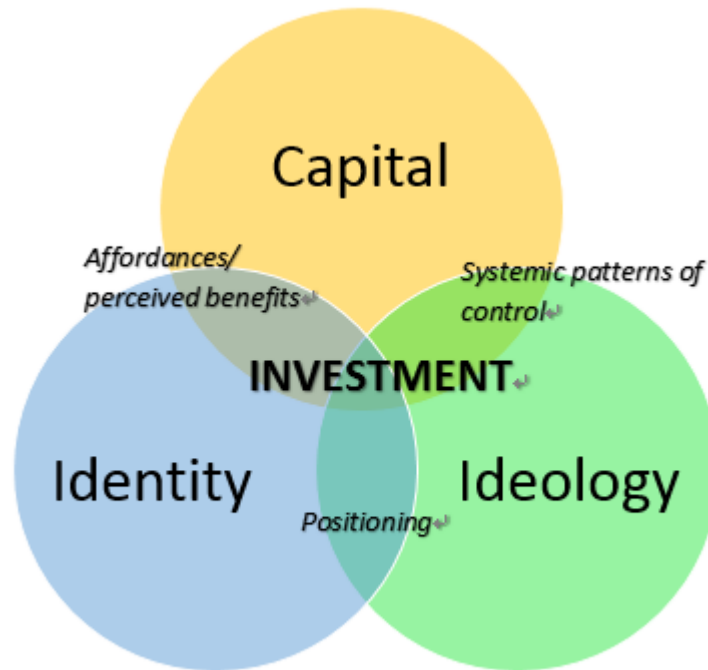


Figure 1: Model of Investment (Darvin & Norton, 2015)

Identity here refers to the latent variable of how people view themselves and how they are perceived by others through struggles in life, something that “continually changes over time and space” (Darvin & Norton, 2015, p. 45). *Ideology* refers to the “sites of control”, where “the management of resources and the legitimization of regulatory systems take place” (p. 42), in other words to the power structures that are inherent in public and private institutions, such as the universities where we work or the journals to which we submit our research. As Darvin and Norton observe, however, such sites of control constitute a “layered space where ideational, behavioural, and institutional aspects interact and sometimes contradict one another” (pp. 43-44). Finally, *capital* refers to the *economic capital* of wealth, property, or income; the *cultural capital* of knowledge and educational background; and the *social capital* of connecting to “networks of power” (p. 44). The location of investment at the intersection of each of the three dimensions highlights the fact that changes in one area, such as through developing one’s identity as an academic researcher, is unavoidably affected by conditions of institutional power (ideology) and by access to resources (capital).

According to Darvin and Norton, the three dimensions of identity, ideology and capital are pivotal in the way learners perceive themselves and can influence the time and energy they have or are willing to invest in an activity, such as language learning, or, as in the present case, in academic publishing. We have adopted this model because it allows us to consider affordances and constraints to academic publishing in both specific and wider social and ideological contexts.

The three areas of identity, ideology and capital are the focus of a set of questions formulated by Darvin and Norton (2015, p. 47) to explore learners’ language and literacy learning practices. We have adapted these questions to suit our purpose of better understanding our own

investments in academic publishing. Although initially conceived as a framework for understanding language learning rather than academic publishing, we see the categories of identity, ideology and capital as having considerable explanatory power in our own career histories and experiences. Darwin and Norton (2019) themselves use their model of investment to examine their own collaborative writing experiences, especially from the perspectives of the Anglophone supervisor (Norton) who mentored her student (Darvin from the Philippines) towards publication. Issues of identity, capital and ideology originally explored for learners are superimposed on this supervisory relationship to describe the challenges underpinning Darvin's own "academic socialization" (p. 186), some of which may resonate with our own.

Findings & Discussion

In this presentation of our findings, we also interweave key literature into the presentation. Darwin and Norton's (2015) framework is retained as the basic structure around which our findings are focused; however, some sub-questions have been merged or slightly adapted to suit our purposes.

1. Identity (Professional Self)

a) How important is academic writing for our current professional identity and our future/imagined professional identity? (i.e., How strongly do we feel about it?)

The participants identify mainly as educators, describing themselves as "tenured professor" or "contract lecturer" rather than "researcher." Many note that an advanced degree, or even networking, held the key to getting hired for their current position and that research and publications were secondary. Nevertheless, as also advocated by Gaillet and Guglielmo (2014), several participants seem motivated to publish in part because they believe publications will enable them to achieve tenured positions or otherwise advance their careers. Megumi and Daniel, on the other hand, are striving to finish their doctorates, which itself necessitates research and publishing.

Some participants wrote of the influence their colleagues have on their identities and efforts. Susan related that having colleagues actively working on research "propels me to focus more on research as well." On the other hand, David acknowledged the unhealthy competition that can develop at institutions when colleagues attempt to "outperform each other", a view indicative of an unhealthy CoP with an absence of apprenticeship relations (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

The more seasoned authors in the group, meanwhile, have broadened their scope from getting published to editing and overseeing journals, and do not aspire to additional responsibilities. This may be because as full professors, they are already heavily involved in research and publishing.

b) How much time, effort, and money, have we invested in academic writing?

All of the participants mentioned ongoing efforts at various levels: as researcher, writer, editor, and/or adviser. David, discussing not just academic writing but other areas as well, wrote about

how his participation affects his identity: “I have invested so much time and energy... that I feel almost obliged to stay and fulfil this role.”

In several cases, lengthy efforts were needed to publish a single piece. Peter noted that during his postgraduate studies, his writing was rejected from top journals “time after time,” which he called “very discouraging” as feedback frequently took the form of “falsification” (Martin, 2008, p. 302) where editors sought intentionally to find more fault in the content rather than see the overall value of the paper in terms of a balance of its merits and demerits. It seems that part of his professional identity rested on being published in a prestigious journal. David, meanwhile, noted that his persistence paid off when, 17 months after initial submission, a piece of his was finally published. Megumi also discussed persistence, but from another perspective: “As a non-Anglophone researcher, writing a research paper in English is not easy for me, but I can see lots of advantages.” It is apparent from these narratives that initial publication was challenging for Anglophone and multilingual non-native speaker scholars alike (Hyland, 2016).

Participants all acknowledged the significant investment of time required to conduct and publish research. While some were quite active in research and publishing despite duties such as committee work and curriculum design, others found it difficult to secure sufficient time for research. The monetary costs of research and publishing, including the sometimes hefty prices of accessing journal articles, were also discussed. In comments resonant with the struggles of “off-network[ed]” scholars (Swales, 1987, p. 43), Ayako noted that she has often had to give up downloading articles because her university did not shoulder the costs. Participants who are full-time faculty members, however, all noted that they currently have access to a limited research budget. Ayako concluded that it can be difficult to balance the monetary demands of research with the time demands; as a part-time worker, she has time but lacks a research budget, while full-time faculty may have research budgets but lack time.

- c) *How have we positioned ourselves and been positioned by others in the process of academic publishing (i.e., as novices/experts? as native/non-native speakers? as legitimate/non-legitimate? etc); and*
- d) *How do we position other people in the process of academic publishing (i.e. as fair/unfair? Constructive/demoralizing?)*

Discussions of positioning took on a number of dimensions. The main themes include reviewer feedback; identity, language, and voice; publishing costs; and collaboration with other researchers.

In several sections of the CAE, participants discussed their reactions to editor feedback. One common thread was the potential that negative feedback has to demoralize authors and create undue barriers to publishing. Megumi detailed her experience of submitting to conference proceedings a paper based on her presentation and receiving what she felt was an “illogical” request to rewrite the paper, “including its research methods. In that case, I thought that it would have been [a] completely different study. Therefore, I decided to withdraw my submission”, a decision which echoes Mignolo’s (2011) calls for authors to challenge editorial dogma.

Another difficulty discussed at length was confusing or contradictory feedback. Several of us shared our frustration at receiving widely disparate comments from different readers, such as a highly critical review from one and a positive review from another. A shared opinion was that this may stem from reviewers trying to position themselves as superior, especially when the critical reviews contained few or no concrete suggestions. Peter argued that such feedback “shows poor reviewing practice,” similar to the unnecessarily harsh feedback reported by Walbot (2009), and in response, Megumi shared examples of reviewer guidelines that could help ameliorate this issue. Several participants noted how their personal negative experiences in publishing have led them to cultivate empathy, both toward their research participants and, in their roles as reviewers and editors, toward other writers.

Negative feedback did not necessarily lead researchers to abandon their research. Jennifer related an incident in which she was initially “horrificed and dismayed” by negative feedback, but later used the feedback to “think more critically and more purposefully about what I wanted to say.” In other words, she deliberately positioned herself as legitimate and the reviewer as constructive.

In discussions of identity and voice, participants brought up a number of ways they struggled with positioning themselves and others. Susan argued that Japanese academia is very heteronormative, and she described having to defend her writing and her lesbian identity after an editor accused her of plagiarism because he felt her article was “clearly written from the point of view of a husband.” She expressed her disappointment at being positioned as “non-legitimate,” but seemed to take heart from the encouragement of the other participants. In one sense, this experience exhibits the negative “centering forces” (Lillis, 2013, p. 111) at play in the form of editorial power, yet, fortunately, is also indicative in its final outcome, of the benefits of belonging to a supportive CoP or network.

Another topic was the pushback participants encountered when they tried to stay true to themselves or carve out their own personal style. Jennifer related that she has “often had submissions rejected because a reviewer doesn’t like my style of writing or my style of research.” Daniel described another type of pushback, which was a direct request by an editor that the editor’s own published works be cited. This showed, according to Daniel, “the power of an editor as a ‘centering’ force” to which they later reflected, “As I struggle with the editor’s wants, I also struggle with my own ethics with the neoliberal orientation of academic publishing.” This incident resonates particularly with Paltridge (2013) who calls for the recognition of local voices and the exercise of authorial agency in the peer-review process but also reminds us of the potential backlash by editors towards non-conforming authors (Harwood & Hadley, 2004).

One thread focused on the choice of whether to work individually or collaboratively. Participants shared a number of benefits to collaborative research, such as that it improved their motivation, provided additional funding, and expanded their networking opportunities. On the other hand, Jennifer shared that in her experience “many universities privilege single-authored over co-authored publications.” Peter also addressed the difficulties that can occur in research involving CoP (Lave & Wenger, 1991), when some members contribute more than others: “One

part of me thinks that all members of the CoP need to give as well as take, but I also realize that when we create a CoP, people have the right to participate as they wish.”

2. Capital (Value)

a) What are the benefits to us of publishing our work?

In this question, we included the value of collaborative research to the idea of “benefits” of publishing, as in this CAE. Notably, Susan saw the dialogic process of co-constructing our narratives in the CAE as “a helpful space to not only widen my sphere of knowledge about publishing in general, but also to get specific ideas, advice, and encouragement about ways that I can press forward”, a clear sentiment which resonates with the advice of Encinas-Prudencio et al. (2019) who advocate engagement in support networks for emerging scholars in non-center contexts. Looking back at their research histories, both Peter and Megumi experienced frequent rejections in their early years of research, with Megumi labelling it as “a stigma” which influences how she reviews emerging scholars in her journal work with sympathy and diplomacy. In this sense, it appeared that negative publishing incidents for some of the CAE participants acted to shape reviewing and editorial behaviours in a positive manner, making us more reflective of the overall publishing process and our roles within it. It also illustrates that the “marked” (Lillis et al. 2010, p. 73) nature of peer review does not necessarily lead to authors assuming similar reviewing attitudes when becoming involved in providing peer review themselves.

b) What are the benefits and drawbacks of publishing our work in international (high-status) publications?

The first point was by Megumi who saw great “potential” in writing in English because of the “accessibility to larger audience.” Susan concurred this would mean “greater chances for publication in a widely-circulated, international journal.” However, Daniel and Peter pointed out that writing in English does not necessarily provide access to a wider readership with Peter drawing attention to the demerits of high subscription fees for some high-status journals which limit the number of readers.

Secondly, Megumi thought that L1 (Japanese) publication would mean only Japanese scholars could read her work. Nevertheless, Daniel noted several non-Japanese academics also read Japanese articles “in strategic ways” and stressed the important point is “not just on the language itself” but their research skills. These arguments mirror the Mexican scholars’ challenges with language priorities when researching multilingually (Encinas-Prudencio et al. 2019).

Thirdly, Jennifer and David identified issues related to the bilingual and multilingual publication. Jennifer recounted how the Japan Association for Language Teaching special interest group to which she belongs struggled to publish newsletters that were initially “fully bilingual” to be accessible to Japanese teachers, a process which put a heavy workload on editors and was ultimately abandoned. On the other hand, David recognized the merits of using multilingual references since they exhibit multicultural perspectives compared to articles written in English.

Finally, continuing the theme of accessibility and cost, Susan related the story of choosing a publisher for an edited book for which she wrote a chapter.

There was a lot of discussion among the various authors and editors as to what to do; in the end, it was decided to take the book to Multilingual Matters instead, because although it carries less prestige than Springer, their books are more affordable and would likely reach a much greater audience.

c) *Is there pressure/encouragement from our institutions to publish? How do our institutions value our publications?*

Firstly, Peter bemoaned the conflicting stances in internal university committees regarding the publishing record of potential candidates for recruitment:

... some colleagues see admin experience and Japanese language proficiency as possibly more important than publishing and research.

He also referred to the “centering forces” (Lillis, 2013, p. 111) in publishing apart from such recruitment committees, represented by “the gatekeepers - journal editors, Ministries of Education, Indexing organizations and university promotion committees” - which exert an influence over where and how we publish. Echoing Daniel and Peter on the competition surrounding academic publishing, Jennifer commented:

... we live in a “neoliberal culture”, by which I meant that supportive work environments are giving way to a more competitive and pressured environment for individuals; this has a very negative impact on research, researcher development, and publishing.

Peter illustrated this culture by noting that his university gives research funds commensurate with the amount of publications faculty members produce. Taking up this theme of neoliberalism, Daniel referred to Mignolo (2000, p. 308) who coined the expression “barbarian theorizing” meaning “a departure from models considered to be universally valid from western perspectives.”

d) *Do we use our experience in academic publishing to help others to publish?*

In views resonating with Salager-Meyer (2008, 2013) and Paltridge (2013), Ayako called for more support in academic writing where experienced researchers can provide help for those less experienced. Jennifer mentioned that such a network already exists within the JALT Learner Development SIG, a scheme that can “offer friendly and constructive advice.”

Drawing upon her recent experiences, Ayako particularly was confused at the lack of mediation by an editor for one of her first publications. Peter and Megumi, as experienced editors, commented that this represented poor editorial practice. Susan noted the need for “specific advice”

for novice authors like herself and Jennifer, who has both authorial and editorial experiences, noted too that “thoughtful and critical” feedback from editors on her work was most appreciated.

3. Ideology

a) What systemic patterns of control (policies, codes, institutions) make it difficult (or easy) for us to do research and write for publication?

Systemic patterns of control are seen when publishing academic research and at our own institutions. Firstly, our data shows mixed experiences in negotiating the publication process. In narratives which appear to confirm Hyland’s (2016) view that both native-speaker Anglophone and non-Anglophone (multilingual) scholars struggle to publish, Peter and Jennifer reported frequent rejections by journals with Jennifer revealing that reviewers deemed her research approach or writing style as inappropriate. Megumi and Ayako expressed frustration with review feedback containing little indication of why their work was not satisfactory and how to improve it. However, when Peter and Susan challenged reviewers’ initial rejections, they managed to receive positive outcomes from the editor, which suggests that in our experiences journal gatekeepers can be persuaded to change their decisions possibly more successfully by native than non-native English-speaking authors. Habibie (2019, p.42) notes the common assumption that “...native-speaker status of Anglophone scholars privileges them in scholarly publication in English-medium international journals, as it makes them aware of generic expectations and discursive practices”; however, as Casanave (2019) and Hyland (2016) indicate, this represents a myth which is easily dispelled when looking at other studies in negotiating the review process. On the other hand, as Flowerdew and Wang (2016) found, successful publication, particularly for non-native speakers, requires significant investment and continuous negotiation between author, editor, and reviewer, to co-create meaning. If such direction is lacking, authors may lose the persistence necessary (Belcher, 2007) to reach final publication.

One problem raised was unclear expectations for authors and reviewers. This concurred with Peter’s research on reviewer beliefs which found substantive disparities among reviewers about how to give feedback (Adamson & Muller, 2012). In response to such disparities, journals Megumi worked for introduced more transparent and developmental reviewing policies for new reviewers (see Adamson, 2012) to avoid harsh and arbitrary “pit bull” (Walbot, 2009, p. 24) feedback where “falsification” or deliberate and unbalanced fault-finding, “takes precedence” (Martin, 2008, p. 302).

Turning to university policies, publishing was generally reported as necessary for promotion and recruitment, which concurs with worldwide tertiary practice (Satlow, 2016). However, Peter recalled experiences on a hiring committee where research was “relegated” below administrative experience, raising questions regarding “managerialism in education, anti-academic sentiments, [and] neoliberalism in education.”

As for the role of qualifications in careers, Susan, who hoped to reach tenure but had opted not to take a Ph.D., felt a need to compensate for this lack of a degree by publishing more. David

noted one requirement for his Ph.D. was publication, although this first experience negotiating peer review was problematic.

Participants reported diverse experiences with the role of their institutions in supporting academic publishing. One issue concerned practice-based research for students' benefit, where Susan complained that the small size of her university and assignment of different classes and proficiency levels made comparative research impossible. Peter suggested that rather than compare different classes during a single semester, she could compare classes from multiple semesters.

Another common issue was collegiality and support in research, a point which Ayako felt was lacking in her university as she progressed in her doctoral studies. As the only researcher in her field at her university, she expressed a desire for "mental support as well as academic writing support." Meyer and Evans (2003) note that such mentoring, whether institutional or informal, enhances publication output. Susan, on the other hand, felt supported; her institution designated time off for research and the fact that two colleagues are active in research incentivized her to follow suit and join them in a collaborative project. Although Jennifer is not engaged in research with her colleagues, like Susan, she is motivated by the fact that all are active in their fields. This meshes with Rodgers and Neri's (2007) finding that a faculty member's research productivity is increased by the productivity of departmental colleagues, in part through collaboration and academic discourse. However, they note that peer expectations and peer pressure also play a role in publishing success. David described a highly competitive, yet unsupportive environment at his previous university where research collaboration was unpopular. While such intense competition may lead to a higher number of publications (Hesli & Lee, 2011), for David it became a source of stress and discouragement.

Perhaps more important than institutional collegiality and support was the emphasis on time and money. As tenured faculty, Peter, Megumi and Jennifer have access to research budgets, yet internal committee work restricts their research time. Ayako, a graduate student, illustrated the dilemma of financial and time restraints succinctly, especially in her "off-networked" (Swales, 1987, p. 46; Belcher, 2007) university status (Gaillet & Guglielmo, 2014, p. 11):

I [have] been paying for the tuition and for membership fees to attend conferences, get articles published, and gain access to journals. My university pays fees for some journals, but I have given up downloading articles so many times because of the money.

Susan, Jennifer, Peter and Megumi drew attention to the role of teaching associations such as JALT (Japan Association for Language Teaching) in providing research grants and mentoring that can compensate for an absence of institutional research support, .

b) What are the prevailing ideologies in Japan about research and publishing?

Three distinct ideologies emerged in our CAE: neoliberal, Japanese nationalist, and diversity promotion. Neoliberalism was mentioned particularly by Daniel, Peter, and Jennifer, regarding the

monetisation of academic publishing. Peter observed the recent proliferation of new journals which charge authors for publishing but offer little quality peer review. At the same time, Peter wondered whether publishers should charge as colleagues in other fields regard paying to publish as normal practice:

Many major publishers are charging authors for Open Access (to make their work free to view for readers) or offering another choice of free publication but placing the paper behind subscription walls for readers.

Jennifer responded that although she has been paid for publishing, she opposes the necessity for authors to pay or reviewers to receive remuneration. Daniel too, questioned whether authors and readers should pay. This depends on ethics and therefore “critical resistance” in the form of alternative routes towards publication.

One characteristic of neoliberal ideology mentioned was the self-branding, entrepreneurial self (Block, 2018). This resonates with Daniel’s experience with an editor who demanded they cite his and Peter’s reaction to the anecdote which resonates with Fitzpatrick’s increasing pressure on faculty to publish (2011):

(Daniel): *As I struggle with the editor’s wants, I also struggle my own ethics with the neoliberal orientation of academic publishing.*

(Peter): *It looks like the editor wants to increase his citation count. That indicates that he is under pressure at his institution to be cited.*

(Daniel): *Yes, there are larger forces at play. How we respond to the structures around us is another thing. I resisted both his interests and the structures that shape his interests.*

Continuing this thread of discussion, Jennifer bemoaned the “creeping neoliberalism as [Japanese] universities see ways to cut costs at the expense of teachers and students” and the pressure on faculty to do funded research; Peter continued this thread by noting how the spread of neoliberalism impacted employment and teaching in Japanese universities (Hadley, 2015), particularly how the constant search for limited-term contracted positions among contingent faculty hindered long-term research (McCrostie, 2010; McCrostie & Spiri, 2008). Another ideology Jennifer raised was “Nihonjinron”, the discourse of Japanese uniqueness and homogeneity, covered by Kubota (2002) in relation to ELT policy and McVeigh (2002) to nationalist ideologies in Japanese universities. As English teachers in this context, Jennifer argued we tend to be affiliated to language teaching centres rather than to faculties, so our publications may then be afforded lower status. Our struggles to be accepted in our academic communities due to a lack of acceptance of our diversity and identities (gender, sexual, intersectional) too, mean as Block (2018) also argues, that language education policies need to extend their influence beyond the language classroom and into the institution and society at large. Although Jennifer noted this

is changing, Susan alluded to an incident where her LGBT identity in a publication was not recognised and she was unfairly accused of plagiarism.

Of final note, Jennifer questioned where “Japan fits in the geopolitical scheme of academic writing” with Peter positing that it may fall into the “semi-periphery” category (Bennett, 2014, p. 2) which has both characteristics of the dominant Anglophone centre and the off-networked (Swales, 1987; Belcher, 2007) nature of the periphery. Jennifer observed that “many universities rate singly authored publications more highly than collaborative publications.” In response, in an incident resonant of David’s previous university, Peter noted that a colleague disapproved of collaborative research due to the institutional evaluation system favouring single authorship, a stance which runs counter to Gaillet and Guglielmo’s (2014) advice in encouraging contingent faculty to research through collaboration.

c) What ideologies have influenced our “habitus” (ways of thinking and behaving) in relation to academic writing and publication? (i.e., if we were educated and/or have worked in other countries, our beliefs and expectations are likely to be different from those who were educated in Japan).

Our ideologies impacting our “habitus” are represented in our short biographies following table 1 in the Methodology section and are discussed to some extent in the final round of data collection. We took it for granted that our ways of thinking and behaving would be shaped by our education and other formative influences we received in Japan (Megumi, Ayako), the U.S. (Susan), the Philippines (Daniel) and the UK (Peter, Jennifer, David). In addition, Peter, Jennifer and Susan commented on aspects of social class that have influenced their ways of thinking. Peter commented, for example, that coming from a strongly working class and multi-ethnic city in the UK gave him “a working class adversity to ‘showing off’ and creeping up to authority figures.” Jennifer and Susan, for their part, confided that they had both attended predominantly white, private high schools in the UK and the US respectively (although Susan had a scholarship). All three, however, studied languages in their home countries and for extended periods abroad, giving them an international perspective and a desire to live in other countries. Jennifer and Peter both claimed to have strongly left-wing views, although Jennifer stated that she had felt it difficult to bring her political perspective to her research until a recent study with Filipino teachers. David claimed that his family’s international understanding from a young age may have influenced him to live abroad and continue on his current path.

The biographies and discussion on habitus give insights into our diverse views, work experiences, and research interests on issues about multiculturalism, ethnicity, and identity. From our diverse backgrounds, we see experiences across global contexts from the centre Anglophone sites of scholarship in study and work to the semi-periphery (Bennett, 2014) and periphery contexts in our pursuits of academic labour and research. We posit that these experiences have impacted our varied paths into academic publication in ways mirroring Encinas-Prudencio et al’s findings among Mexican scholars’ “not linear but complex enculturation processes” (2019, p. 51).

Conclusions

Conclusions to this study must first take into account its small-scale nature. Nevertheless, the autoethnographic means of gathering co-constructed narratives over time has allowed for a deeply reflective and dialogic account of publication practices. The diverse backgrounds of participants in terms of ethnicity, gender, and experience have aided this depth of views with the consequence that the process of CAE can be assessed as both developmental for us, the participants, and informative for the wider academic community.

The first conclusion is that CAE's interactive means to co-construct narratives has been a more rewarding process than typical self-written narrativization (Chang et al. 2013). By providing continuous space to challenge, affirm, and seek clarification of each other's beliefs, the online means of constructing the overall CAE has also afforded us time to reflect on our input and responses to our co-researchers. In echoes of Andrews (2004), there have been accounts of critical incidents where we have countered negative images and stereotypes of gender, ethnicity and methodological stance ascribed to us by offering collegial support for exercising our agency. We argue here that this support acts to re-legitimize our positioning in the wider community (Lave & Wenger, 1991), something which may have been more difficult without participation in the CAE.

The challenging of beliefs has also manifested itself in a healthy disagreement over key publication issues, for example in the use of Japanese or English to gain access to a wider (or narrower) readership. This diversity in stances can be reflected upon as presenting us with opportunities to re-think our views and consider other perspectives.

Our own varied experiences in publication from authorial and editorial angles have been a key component in developing the knowledge base regarding publication norms and practices. This was illustrated in exchanges regarding the issue of publication fees where some of us had paid and others not, narratives which elicited insightful ideological views and were helpful in de-mystifying practical pathways into academic publication.

Of some note were the difficulties encountered by both Anglophone and multilingual (non-native speaker) members of the CAE in publishing, even for those most experienced in research. Reports of difficulties for Anglophones regarding language issues, perhaps most commonly associated with multilingual scholars, resonated with Hyland (2016) and Bitchener (2018) in that academic writing is to be learned and crafted and cannot be assumed to be a given competence among Anglophone speakers. The negotiation of peer review with journal editors and reviewers was revealed as key here and, although we encouraged each other to exercise agency, caution about the possible repercussions of non-compliance was also evident (Harwood & Hadley, 2004).

The normative, "centering" influences (Lillis & Curry, 2010) were revealed as a fertile area of discussion in the CAE and how those dominant powers intersected with our own ideological stances on English, gender, ethnicity and personal writing style was, as mentioned previously, clearly revealed. The means by which those forces can be countered apart from the collegial support within the CAE group, though, was thrown open to some discussion. Our membership includes editorial staff who are aware of these issues and shared their experiences with journal initiatives to sensitize reviewers against biased peer review practice. Indeed, some journals for

which we work operate schemes to guide emerging scholars in their writing and develop and mentor new reviewers. What transpired was that the CAE itself became such a scheme, affecting participants' perception of research by allowing them a safe space to develop their research knowledge, experience, and confidence. As Susan, a novice researcher, later wrote, "I feel like I have a more accurate perception of the whole process now and am much better prepared to go it alone in the future without getting discouraged and giving up."

Perhaps of final note is the benefit of using Darwin and Norton's (2014) framework as a lens through which the myriad of issues we have faced, and are currently encountering, can be unpacked and analyzed. As Jennifer commented:

Unfortunately, the neoliberal culture that shapes our lives leads us to see value in purely monetary terms: Time is money.

The ideological insights that emerged from our exchanges in the CAE regarding the spread of neoliberalism that is apparent in the growth of monetization of academic publication as well as in increasing managerialism in academia in Japan were particularly valuable to us. Seen from this perspective, and adding to the effects of individual habitus, the affordances and constraints of our gender and ethnic identities, and our experiences in academia (Gaillet & Guglielmo, 2014) and in academic publishing (Belcher, 2007; Swales, 1997; Lillis & Curry, 2010), these wider issues of ideology point to avenues for further exploration. In particular, we see future possibilities for research into identity in academic publishing based on more diverse identity ascriptions and with greater awareness of the shaping influences of ideology and capital. These are at times alluded to in our CAE, for example, gender and sexuality identification, experiences in journal editing, and our fundamental stances towards challenging standard ways of writing and researching. Related to these, the sense of risk or tension between our personal academic (publication) literacy competences and the expectations of journal editors represents a site for studies which examine our past experiences and future possibilities and limitations.

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