

Multilingual Education

Yasemin Kirkgöz
Ali Karakaş *Editors*

English as the Medium of Instruction in Turkish Higher Education

Policy, Practice and Progress

 Springer

Multilingual Education

Volume 40

Series Editors

Hintat Cheung, Department of Linguistics & Modern Language,
Education University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong, New Territories, Hong Kong
Lixun Wang, Linguistics & Modern Language Studies, Education University
of Hong Kong, Tai Po, New Territories, Hong Kong

Editorial Board Members

Feng Anwei, The University of Nottingham, Ningbo, China
Kingsley Bolton, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore, Singapore
Tae-Hee Choi, Dept of Education Policy and Leadership, The Education
University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong, New Territories, Hong Kong
Ofelia Garcia, The Graduate Center, City University of New York,
New York, USA
Saran Kaur Gill, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia
Mingyue (Michelle) Gu, The Education University of Hong Kong,
Tai Po, Hong Kong
Hartmut Haberland, Roskilde University, Roskilde, Denmark
Andy Kirkpatrick, Department of Humanities, Languages and Social Sciences,
Griffith University, Brisbane, Australia
David C. S Li, Department of Chinese & Biling. Studies, Hong Kong Polytechnic
University, Kowloon, Hong Kong
Low Ee-Ling, National Institute of Education, Singapore, Singapore
Tony Liddicoat, Applied Linguistics, University of Warwick, Coventry, UK
Ricardo Nolasco, University of the Philippines at Diliman, Manila, Philippines
Merrill Swain, Ontario Institute of Studies in Education, University of Toronto,
Toronto, Canada
Li Wei, Birkbeck College, University of London, London, UK
Zhichang Xu, Monash University, Clayton, Australia
Virginia Yip Choy Yin, Chinese University of Hong Kong, Shatin,
New Territories, Hong Kong
Gu Yueguo, The Chinese Academy of Social Sciences, Beijing, China

The book series Multilingual Education publishes top quality monographs and edited volumes containing empirical research on multilingual language acquisition, language contact and the respective roles of languages in contexts where the languages are not cognate and where the scripts are often different, in order to be able to better understand the processes and issues involved and to inform governments and language policy makers. The volumes in this series are aimed primarily at researchers in education, especially multilingual education and other related fields, and those who are involved in the education of (language) teachers. Others who will be interested include key stakeholders and policy makers in the field of language policy and education. The editors welcome proposals and ideas for books that fit the series. For more information on how you can submit a proposal, please contact the Publishing Editor, Natalie Rieborn. E-mail: Natalie.Rieborn@springer.com

More information about this series at <https://link.springer.com/bookseries/8836>

Yasemin Kirkgöz • Ali Karakaş
Editors

English as the Medium of Instruction in Turkish Higher Education

Policy, Practice and Progress

 Springer

Editors

Yasemin Kirkgöz
English Language Teaching,
Faculty of Education
Çukurova University
Saricam, Adana, Turkey

Ali Karakaş
English Language Teaching,
Faculty of Education
Burdur Mehmet Akif Ersoy University
Burdur, Turkey

ISSN 2213-3208

ISSN 2213-3216 (electronic)

Multilingual Education

ISBN 978-3-030-88596-0

ISBN 978-3-030-88597-7 (eBook)

<https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-88597-7>

© The Editor(s) (if applicable) and The Author(s), under exclusive license to Springer Nature Switzerland AG 2022

This work is subject to copyright. All rights are solely and exclusively licensed by the Publisher, whether the whole or part of the material is concerned, specifically the rights of translation, reprinting, reuse of illustrations, recitation, broadcasting, reproduction on microfilms or in any other physical way, and transmission or information storage and retrieval, electronic adaptation, computer software, or by similar or dissimilar methodology now known or hereafter developed.

The use of general descriptive names, registered names, trademarks, service marks, etc. in this publication does not imply, even in the absence of a specific statement, that such names are exempt from the relevant protective laws and regulations and therefore free for general use.

The publisher, the authors and the editors are safe to assume that the advice and information in this book are believed to be true and accurate at the date of publication. Neither the publisher nor the authors or the editors give a warranty, expressed or implied, with respect to the material contained herein or for any errors or omissions that may have been made. The publisher remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

This Springer imprint is published by the registered company Springer Nature Switzerland AG

The registered company address is: Gewerbestrasse 11, 6330 Cham, Switzerland

Preface

Although the tendency for offering content courses through English medium instruction (EMI) at tertiary level education has been a recent linguistic transformation in many countries, primarily in the case of Mainland Europe, the EMI vogue is not a new phenomenon in the Turkish context (Wächter & Maiworm, 2014). The main driver of the EMI trend in other countries is the process of internationalization of higher education. However, the origins of teaching content courses through EMI in Turkish higher education date back to the late 1950s when the Middle East Technical University (METU), the first state-funded EMI institution of Turkey, was founded with its working language being English across the whole campus. METU was followed by Bogazici University, which was converted from a missionary American high school to a state university in 1963. Similarly, this move was followed by the private sector which resulted in the establishment of the first EMI foundation university of Turkey, Bilkent University, in 1984 in Turkey's capital Ankara. The actual boom in the number of EMI programs occurred following the legislation of the higher education law in 1990 which allowed the private sector to choose foreign languages as the medium of instruction. All of these efforts were not influenced by external factors, though. The main motivation then was to contribute to the westernization efforts and help Turkish students in the main follow the scientific enhancements in their relevant fields of study (Kirkgöz, 2005). However, along with the internationalization, particularly the Bologna process, Turkish higher education has taken several steps, one of which has been to increase the number of EMI courses and programs. Recent research indicates that roughly 20% of all undergraduate courses are delivered through partial or full EMI in Turkish universities (Arık & Arık, 2014). This number should be treated cautiously because first it does not involve the postgraduate programs and second it was reported almost 5 years ago. Thus, it is likely that the current ratio of EMI programs is higher than 20%.

Albeit EMI's long history in the Turkish context as noted above, researching issues around EMI only started in the mid-2000s, with researchers mostly addressing stakeholder perceptions and attitudes (e.g., Kılıçkaya, 2006). At times, there were critical reviews and collections discussing the pros and cons of delivering courses in EMI (e.g., Selvi, 2014; Sert, 2008). It is just recently that the surge of

interest in EMI has dramatically increased among language researchers who have, however, dealt with experiences, perspectives, attitudes, and linguistic practices of EMI stakeholders as well as challenges faced by them; their sense of motivation, anxiety, and achievement related to taking courses in EMI; and issues of policy and planning in small-scale projects and often in the form of case studies constrained to a single university context (e.g., Karakaş, 2018; Kirkgöz, 2009, 2019; Raman & Yiğitoğlu, 2015; Uçar & Soruç, 2018; Kamasak et al., 2021). Master's and doctoral dissertations have been written on similar issues (e.g., Karakaş, 2016; Küçük, 2018) and new ones are underway (e.g., İnci Kavak, 2021).

However, so far, there is not a book-length treatment of the EMI phenomenon written by Turkish and international scholars as well as practitioners having direct involvement and a close familiarity with EMI in Turkish higher education. Added to this, there are still uncharted areas of EMI (e.g., academic integrity, assessment, augmented reality, educational quality, mobility, and professional development) that still await to be addressed in the Turkish higher education context. Our focal purpose with this volume is to occupy this research space in Turkey by both investigating issues of similar interest in the previous studies at a greater depth and further addressing novel issues by adopting a multidimensional approach. Part of our aim is to more clearly demonstrate what happens at the policy and practice levels concerning EMI in different Turkish universities. We also intend to diversify the research contexts in our volume for a more comprehensive representation of EMI higher education in Turkey as previous studies were mostly carried out in the long-established universities mentioned above. Here, what we mean by long-established universities are those which have used English-only since they opened their doors. That is, they emerged as EMI universities originally. However, what is currently taking place is that universities that use their domestic language as the working language are switching to English; we refer to such universities as newly established. Thus, we would like to extend our understanding of how EMI operates not only in long-standing but also newly established EMI universities and programs. Finally, with this volume, we would like to respond to a research call by Doiz, Lasagabaster, and Sierra (2013) who argued that empirical research into EMI should be carried out by researchers who know the research context where there are many questions waiting to be answered.

Taking this call for research into account, we have decided to bring together this current volume, which consists of a total of 15 chapters written by both well-known Turkish and international scholars who have already published several works on EMI and/or issues surrounding EMI. The volume primarily includes empirical papers, yet there are also critical review articles on theoretical literature review and conceptual frameworks related to the stakeholders of and issues around EMI. The content of the volume significantly differs from those which have already been in the market in that this current volume has contributions on novel matters that have not been seriously investigated in the EMI research elsewhere.

Thus, it is our resolute belief that although the book treats the Turkish EMI context as a case, each issue addressed in the individual chapters has global relevance and offers implications for other nations, which, similar to most Turkish

universities, are in the more recent stages of implementing EMI. We believe that the novel issues raised and addressed within this volume (e.g., professional development and EMI; assessment and EMI; classroom interaction and EMI; academic writing practices in EMI; technology-enhanced EMI practices; contemporary issues on EMI) will inspire researchers in other contexts to replicate studies in this volume as well. We believe that this volume will be an important resource regarding largely unexplored issues in the EMI context. The chapters also include research on previously studied topics, yet taking a different perspective and building their work on different conceptual frameworks and theoretical foundations as well as diversifying data collection tools and participants.

Structure and Outline of the Volume or Short Summaries of Chapters

This book is organized into four main parts. The five chapters in **Part I** of the book explore **English medium instruction (EMI) policy at the macro level in context**. In the first chapter, **Ali Karakaş** and **Jennifer Jenkins** explore the Turkish language policy actors' perspectives from three long-established Turkish EMI universities (Boğaziçi University, Middle East Technical University, and Bilkent University) concerning academic English language policies and practices. The key findings of this are that despite lecturers' awareness of one-size-fits-all academic English policies applied to students and academic staff, lecturers do not seem to notice the mismatch between these policies and linguistic diversity in the student and staff profile as well as their practices. **In chapter "English-Medium Instruction in Northern Cyprus: Problems, Possibilities, and Prospects"**, **Ali Fuad Selvi** presents a critical review and evaluation of the EMI landscape in Northern Cyprus in its historical, political, economic, and sociolinguistic dynamics. Selvi argues that while quantitative growth in largely unplanned, loosely controlled and regulated, and rather unstable EMI implementation in higher education brings short-term financial benefits to the local economy, it damages the EMI phenomenon per se, by commodifying education and diminishing the credibility of local institutions of higher education. Selvi suggests that qualitative efforts are needed to promote overall effectiveness of EMI programs and that developing a critical, comprehensive, and multifaceted look at EMI involving multiple stakeholders will certainly be a worthwhile endeavor at the individual, instructional, administrative, institutional, and societal levels. The part continues with **Burcu Tezcan Ünal** and **Diane Schmidt** who approach the concept of EMI in Turkish higher education from the perspective of quality assurance and enhancement. After an overview of the challenges and critiques of the global trends towards quality assurance (QA) and EMI in the higher education sector, the authors show how challenges resulting from EMI can be turned into opportunities to enhance teaching and learning quality in Turkish higher education institutions, providing best-practice recommendations from international

models. In chapter “Internationalization, Mobility and English-Medium Instruction in the Context of Turkish Higher Education”, **Tuğba Elif Toprak Yıldız** discusses the linguistic aspect of internationalization in Turkish universities based on current data from incoming international students as well as outward university student mobility. These issues are discussed with reference to prevailing foreign language policies and EMI's potential for competitiveness in the global academic market to boost internationalization to render mobility programs more accessible and make them attractive to international students. The part ends with **Tijen Aksit** and **Alev Sezin Kahvecioğlu** exploring stakeholder perceptions of the use of EMI in Turkish higher education through an in-depth investigation with students, content professors, and English language instructors from 25 EMI universities. In particular, the researchers look at the effects of demographics and discipline studied on student perceptions. A similar question examines the potential effects of demographics on professors and language instructors' perceptions of EMI.

Part II of the book, also consisting of five chapters, is dedicated to **the implementation of English medium instruction (EMI) in Turkey**. Employing narrative inquiry, in the first chapter of this part, **Ufuk Keleş** and **Bedrettin Yazan** explore the micro-level implementation of EMI from the perspective of a university lecturer. Revolving around the narratives of educational trajectory and professional life experiences of one EMI lecturer, *Sema*, they intend to make sense of the challenges and complexities of micro-level implementation of EMI in Turkey's university context. To complement the existing studies, in chapter “Turkish Undergraduates' Perspectives on EMI: A Framework Induced Analysis of Policies and Processes”, **Erkan Arkin** and **Kenan Dikilitaş** offer a comprehensive understanding of how EMI is conceptualized by a group of EMI university undergraduates in terms of its perceived advantages and disadvantages, and the extent to which students' conceptualizations correspond to institutional EMI policies. The chapter takes a fresh approach by utilizing the ROAD-MAPPING as the conceptual framework (Dafouz & Smit, 2016) to analyze qualitative data from a semi-private EMI university in the north of Cyprus, offering valuable curricular and pedagogical implications to the EMI universities. Assessment is one of the under-researched areas in the growing body of EMI work. This missing research gap is addressed by **Kari Sahan** and **Özgür Şahan** who investigate the role of language (Turkish or English) in EMI course assessment. Based on a small-scale qualitative study from interviews and focus group discussions, they explore how lecturers and students perceive the role of language in EMI assessment (teachers and students beliefs about the role of language in EMI assessment), language-related challenges these two stakeholders perceive in EMI assessment, and finally they describe various strategies teachers and students can use to resolve language-related issues in the assessment of disciplinary knowledge in EMI engineering classrooms.

In chapter “A Closer Look at the Doctoral Writing Practices in an English-Medium Instruction University in Turkey”, **Merve Bozbiyık** and **Hacer Hande Uysal** take a closer look at academic writing processes of doctoral students in an EMI university in Turkey through analyzing supervisors' feedback procedures and doctoral students' learning processes during English academic writing. To achieve

this, they conduct 5-h video recorded semi-structured online interviews with four doctoral students and four supervisors from different disciplines. They suggest that understanding the relationship between supervisors and students during the English academic writing process enhances the quality of English academic writing. In the closing chapter of the part, **Tuncer Can** and **Alex Rey** bring to our attention the many innovations and opportunities brought about by augmented reality (AR) which makes displays of visual objects on the real environment using special software to help learners visualize the intended information and also exemplify the complex processes and terminologies in the classroom context. The chapter illustrates how the potential of AR technology can effectively be exploited in teacher education programs for prospective EMI language teachers to help them bring AR experiences into a multimedia enriched classroom learning environment.

Part III of the book, comprising three chapters, focusses on **learning through English medium instruction**. The part opens with **Mustafa Çoban** and **Salim Razi** focussing on the reading skill, a less-investigated field in the EMI literature. Using the Metacognitive Reading Strategies Questionnaire (MRSQ) with 41 EMI engineering students, and focus group interviews with 6 participants at a technical university in Turkey, they investigate the metacognitive reading strategies that EMI students generally use, and student opinions towards such reading strategies, suggesting that metacognitive reading strategy instruction can empower EMI students, particularly those lacking effective reading strategies, to become more active readers and to cope with the complexity and the challenge of reading texts. In chapter “Exploring the Functions of *Okay* as a Discourse Marker in an English-Medium Instruction Class”, **Erdem Akbaş** and **Betül Bal-Gezegin** identify the use and the interactional functions of “*okay*” as a specific discourse marker deployed by a lecturer in undergraduate-level EMI academic lectures in Turkey. Using corpus linguistics and conversation analysis methodologies and supporting with excerpts from two mathematics lessons of classroom discourse, they demonstrate how the use of *okay* could be an important resource for the lecturer in managing classroom practices and achieving educational goals. The part ends with **Donald Staub** who explores the complex phenomenon of student retention, an under-researched area, in intensive language programs, which precede students’ entry into their academic programs in EMI universities. Donald argues that a 1-year (or more) intensive language program, offered to help students achieve English language proficiency, may put rigorous psychological, social, and financial demands on some students, putting them at risk for leaving the university. The chapter underlines the need to establish student retention initiatives as a possible solution to student attrition in intensive language programs.

Part IV, the last section of the book, with two chapters, is devoted to **directions for English medium instruction in Turkey**. To open the part, **Mustafa Akıncioğlu** discusses how a progressivist and constructivist vision of education has gradually penetrated into academic research. The second section of the chapter summarizes a series of EMI University Symposia in the HE contexts of Turkey and Northern Cyprus Turkish Republic. Inspired by the research findings and the symposia results, Mustafa offers the English Medium Instruction Quality Management

Program (EMI QMP) model as a tangible solution for international HE institutions. This part, and the book, closes with **Yasemin Kirkgöz** and **Ali Karakaş** presenting the critical perspectives that have emerged from the previous chapters, making projections towards the EMI research in Turkish higher education and beyond. In view of the increasingly widespread implementation of EMI in Turkey and many other countries, we also attempt to draw researchers' and practitioners' attention to new EMI-related future issues such as pedagogy, sociolinguistics, and socio-culture, in addition to language policy and planning.

Acknowledgments

First of all, we would like to thank Springer for seeing the importance and timeliness of the topic and investing in this edited book. Mrs. Helen van der Stelt, the assistant editor; Natalie Rieborn, the associate editor education; and Alexander James patiently guided us from the onset of this book project and answered every question we had. We are specifically grateful to our contributors for their commitment to writing and submitting their chapters on time despite the unexpected challenges and their increasing workload amid COVID-19. The reviewers, consisting mostly from our contributors have helped us a lot to shape this book and increase the quality of the individual chapters. They also deserve special thanks. Needless to say, any remaining errors are ours.

Adana, Turkey

Yasemin Kirkgöz

Burdur, Turkey

Ali Karakaş

References

- Arık, B. T., & Arık, E. (2014). The role and status of English in Turkish higher education. *English Today*, 30(4), 5–10. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0266078414000339>
- Dafouz, E., & Smit, U. (2016). Towards a dynamic conceptual framework for English-medium education in multilingual university settings. *Applied Linguistics*, 37(3), 397–415. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amu034>
- Doiz, A., Lasagabaster, D., & Sierra, J. M. (Eds.). (2013). *English-medium instruction at universities: Global challenges*. Multilingual Matters.
- İnci Kavak, V. (2021). *A functional analysis of translanguaging practices in engineering and literature courses in an English medium higher education context in Turkey*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Çukurova University, Adana, Turkey.
- Kamaşak, R., Şahan, K., & Rose, H. (2021). Academic language-related challenges at an English-medium university. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 49(100945), 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2020.100945>

- Karakaş, A. (2016). *Turkish lecturers' and students' perceptions of English in English medium instruction universities*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Southampton University, Southampton, UK.
- Karakaş, A. (2018). Visible language-covert policy: An investigation of language policy documents at EMI universities in Turkey. *International Online Journal of Education and Teaching (IOJET)*, 5(4), 788–807. <http://iojet.org/index.php/IOJET/article/view/436/294>
- Kılıçkaya, F. (2006). Instructors' attitudes towards English-medium instruction in Turkey. *Humanising Language Teaching*, 8(6), 1–16.
- Kirkgöz, Y. (2005). Motivation and student perception of studying in an English medium university. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 1(1), 101–123.
- Kirkgöz, Y. (2009). Students' and lecturers' perceptions of the effectiveness of foreign language instruction in an English-medium university in Turkey. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 14(1), 81–93. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13562510802602640>
- Kirkgöz, Y. (2019). Investigating the Growth of English-medium Higher education in Turkey and the Middle East. In D. F. Staub (Ed.), *Quality assurance and accreditation in Foreign language education: Global issues, models, and best practices from the Middle East and Turkey* (pp. 9–20). Springer Nature Switzerland.
- Küçük, C. (2018). *Investigating translanguaging as a teaching and learning practice in an English medium higher education context in Turkey*. Unpublished Master thesis. University of Çukurova, Adana, Turkey.
- Raman, Y., & Yiğitoğlu, N. (2015). Friend or foe?: English as the medium of instruction policy versus code-switching practices. *The International Journal of Research in Teacher Education*, 6(3), 1–23.
- Selvi, A. F. (2014). The medium-of-instruction debate in Turkey: Oscillating between national ideas and bilingual ideals. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 15(2), 133–152. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14664208.2014.898357>
- Sert, N. (2008). The language of instruction dilemma in the Turkish context. *System*, 36(2), 156–171. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2007.11.006>
- Uçar, H. F., & Soruç, A. (2018). Examining Turkish university students' sense of achievement, motivation, and anxiety: A comparison of the English- and French-medium education systems. *Eurasian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 4(2), 177–191. <https://doi.org/10.32601/ejal.464096>
- Wächter, B., & Maiworm, F. (Eds.). (2014). *English-taught programmes in European higher education: The state of play in 2014*. ACA papers on international cooperation in education. Lemmens Medien.

Contents

Part I English-Medium Instruction (EMI) Policy at the Macro Level in Context	
Academic English Language Policies and Practices of English-Medium Instruction Universities in Turkey from Policy Actors' Eyes	3
Ali Karakaş and Jennifer Jenkins	
English-Medium Instruction in Northern Cyprus: Problems, Possibilities, and Prospects.	27
Ali Fuad Selvi	
Reflections on English-Medium Instruction in Turkish Higher Education Institutions, Educational Quality and Insights from International Experience	47
Burcu Tezcan-Ünal and Diane Schmitt	
Internationalization, Mobility and English-Medium Instruction in the Context of Turkish Higher Education	69
Tuğba Elif Toprak Yıldız	
Stakeholder Perspectives on the Use of English-Medium Instruction (EMI) in Turkish Universities	87
Tijen Akşit and Alev Sezin Kahvecioğlu	
Part II Focus on Teaching Through English Medium Instruction (EMI)	
Multi-level EMI Policy Implementation in Turkey's Higher Education: Navigating Ideological Tensions	109
Ufuk Keleş and Bedrettin Yazan	
Turkish Undergraduates' Perspectives on EMI: A Framework Induced Analysis of Policies and Processes	135
Erkan Arkın and Kenan Dikilitaş	

Content and Language in EMI Assessment Practices: Challenges and Beliefs at an Engineering Faculty in Turkey	155
Kari Sahan and Özgür Şahan	
A Closer Look at the Doctoral Writing Practices in an English-Medium Instruction University in Turkey	175
Merve Bozbıyık and Hacer Hande Uysal	
Training Language Teachers for English-Medium Instruction (EMI) Contexts Through the Use of Augmented Reality	197
Tuncer Can and Alex Rey	
Part III Focus on Learning Through English Medium Instruction	
Questioning the Metacognitive Reading Strategies in an English-Medium Instruction (EMI) Setting	217
Mustafa Çoban and Salim Razi	
Exploring the Functions of <i>Okay</i> as a Discourse Marker in an English-Medium Instruction Class	233
Erdem Akbaş and Betül Bal-Gezegin	
Why Student Retention Matters for Turkish EMI Universities?	257
Donald F. Staub	
Part IV Directions for English-Medium Instruction in Turkey	
The EMI Quality Management Program: A Novel Solution Model	277
Mustafa Akıncioğlu	
Review and Final Thoughts: The Future of English-Medium Instruction in Turkey	301
Yasemin Kirkgöz and Ali Karakaş	

Contributors

Erdem Akbaş Erciyes University, Kayseri, Turkey

Mustafa Akıncıođlu Associate Researcher, University of Oxford, Oxford, UK

Tijen Akřit İhsan Dođramacı Bilkent University, Ankara, Turkey

Erkan Arkin Eastern Mediterranean University, Mersin, Turkey

Betül Bal-Gezegin Ondokuz Mayıs University, Samsun, Turkey

Merve Bozbıyık Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Turkey

Tuncer Can Istanbul University-Cerrahpařa, Istanbul, Turkey

Mustafa Çoban Bursa Technical University, Bursa, Turkey

Kenan Dikilitaş University of Stavanger, Stavanger, Norway

Jennifer Jenkins University of Southampton, Southampton, UK

Alev Sezin Kahveciođlu TOBB University, Ankara, Turkey

Ali Karakař Burdur Mehmet Akif Ersoy University, Burdur, Turkey

Ufuk Keleř Bahçeřehir University, Istanbul, Turkey

Yasemin Kirkgöz Çukurova University, Adana, Turkey

Salim Razi Çanakkale Onseki Mart University, Çanakkale, Turkey

Alex Rey Istanbul University-Cerrahpařa, Istanbul, Turkey

Kari Sahan University of Oxford, Oxford, UK

Özgür řahan Yozgat Bozok University, Yozgat, Turkey

Diane Schmitt Nottingham Trent University, Nottingham, UK

Ali Fuad Selvi Middle East Technical University Northern Cyprus Campus, Kalkanlı, Güzelyurt, Turkey

Donald F. Staub Izmir University of Economics, Izmir, Turkey

Burcu Tezcan-Ünal Zayed University, Dubai, UAE

Tuğba Elif Toprak Yıldız Izmir Democracy University, İzmir, Turkey

Hacer Hande Uysal Hacettepe University, Ankara, Turkey

Bedrettin Yazan University of Texas, San Antonio, TX, USA

Part I
English-Medium Instruction (EMI) Policy
at the Macro Level in Context

Academic English Language Policies and Practices of English-Medium Instruction Universities in Turkey from Policy Actors' Eyes



Ali Karakaş and Jennifer Jenkins

Abstract Recently, there has been a substantial rise in the number of English-medium instruction (EMI) programs all around the world. This profound linguistic transformation has drawn researchers' attention to several issues around the delivery of courses via EMI. However, research seems to be scarce concerning academic language policies and practices. This chapter attempts to narrow this gap in the Turkish higher education context by exploring language policy actors' perspectives about their institutions' academic English language policies and practices informed by quantitative and qualitative data collected through survey questionnaires and interviews with 72 Turkish lecturers from three long-established EMI universities. The study demonstrates that overall, lecturers are familiar with the existing policies and practices concerning students' and teaching staff's English. They favour institutional language admission and recruitment policies on English proficiency despite acknowledging their being grounded in native English standards. Likewise, agreeing on the usefulness of pre-faculty and faculty language support, most do not find them adequate for students to manage their academic tasks, particularly for discipline-specific language use and to follow so-called academic English standards. The results suggest that lecturers' views are guided by certain language ideologies, which are also elevated by institutional policies through various language policy mechanisms.

This chapter was largely generated from the data collected for the first author's PhD project entitled 'Turkish lecturers' and students' perceptions of English in English-medium universities', which was completed under the supervision of the second author.

A. Karakaş (✉)
Burdur Mehmet Akif Ersoy Univeristy, Burdur, Turkey
e-mail: akarakas@mehmetakif.edu.tr

J. Jenkins
University of Southampton, Southampton, UK
e-mail: J.Jenkins@soton.ac.uk

© The Author(s), under exclusive license to Springer Nature
Switzerland AG 2022

Y. Kirkgöz, A. Karakaş (eds.), *English as the Medium of Instruction in Turkish Higher Education*, Multilingual Education 40,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-88597-7_1

Keywords English-medium instruction (EMI) · Language policies and practices · Academic English

1 Introduction

Recent years have seen an upsurge in the spread of English across the world greatly facilitated by the internationalisation and globalisation processes affecting a wide range of domains (Galloway & Rose, 2015). Out of these domains, the higher education (HE) sector has perhaps gone through the most dramatic transformations to keep pace with the demands of internationalization by establishing international bilateral agreements, launching overseas branch campuses, recruiting international students and offering courses through English medium instruction (EMI) (Altbach & Knight, 2007, Coleman, 2006; Turner & Robson, 2008). EMI has been the most widely adopted initiative among many HE institutions across non-English dominant countries, predominantly the European and East/South Asian countries (e.g. Dearden, 2014, 2015; Fenton-Smith et al., 2017; Kirkpatrick, 2011a; Wächter & Maiworm, 2008, 2014). This recent initiative in universities' internationalization attempts has led some scholars to equate 'internationalization' with 'Englishization', a much greater use of English in non-Anglophone HE settings (Hultgren & Thøgersen, 2014; Jenkins, 2019; Kirkpatrick, 2011b). Institutions largely turn to EMI for utilitarian (e.g. revenue growth, top international rankings, international outlook/prestige), educational and cultural (e.g. increased student/staff mobility) and ideological (e.g. preventing brain drain) purposes (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Dearden, 2015; Selvi, 2014; Wilkinson, 2013).

Recent reports show institutions' increased recruitment of students and international staff from other countries (Coleman, 2006; Dearden, 2015; Doiz et al., 2013; Wächter & Maiworm, 2014). These attempts have given way to bi/multilingual and translanguaging practices in and outside the teaching situations at EMI institutions. It is through such a linguistic diversity alongside the use of English in teaching that many EMI institutions have claimed to be *international* institutions (Jenkins, 2014). However, it can be questioned whether their claim to being *international* pays regard to the linguistic diversity, especially in terms of the Englishes and other languages present on campuses, and if not, which kind(s) of Englishes and linguistic practices (e.g. monolingual, bi/multilingual) are currently in place in EMI institutions' English language policies and (desired) practices and to what extent policy actors are aware of these policies. This chapter explores the case of three long-established Turkish EMI universities' academic English policies for students and teaching staff from the perspectives of Turkish lecturers.

2 Contextual Background: EMI in Turkish HE

The roots of EMI policy date back to 1950s in Turkey. Being a western-attuned country, Turkey had its first state-funded EMI university, i.e. Middle East Technical University (METU), in 1956. The second state-funded EMI university is Boğaziçi University converted from an American missionary school (Robert College) in 1971. Alongside these state-led initiatives, the private sector also played a role in filling the gap between EMI supply and demand in Turkey as it did in other continents (Coleman, 2006). Tukey had its first private EMI university, i.e. Bilkent University, in Ankara in 1984, followed by Koç and Sabancı Universities in the 90s in Istanbul (O'Dwyer & Atlı, 2018). These universities relied on full version of EMI in teaching, mostly for internal purposes, such as to “enable students ... to access scientific and technological information published in English in their related disciplines” and increase the availability of qualified human resources (Official Gazette, 1984, as quoted in Kırkgöz, 2005, p. 102). Their student profile then was largely formed by Turkish students and international teaching staff to a lesser extent.

The major boom in the number of EMI programs occurred soon after the universities started adopting different modes of EMI, especially partial EMI. The adoption of EMI went in hand the growing number of universities, which went up to 208 (130 state and 78 private universities) in 2018 as noted in a recent report issued by the Student Selection and Placement Centre (Öğrenci Seçme ve Yerleştirme Merkezi [ÖSYM], 2018). A previous study demonstrated that one-fifth of all undergraduate programs in Turkey are carried through different versions of EMI, mostly in partial EMI (Arik & Arik, 2014). According to ÖSYM (2018), out of 208 universities, 47% of the 130 state universities and 72% of the private universities offer at least one program in EMI. The adoption of EMI is more rampant in the private universities in Istanbul and Ankara and the leading state universities, such as METU and Boğaziçi (Dearden & Akıncıoğlu, 2016). However, these figures remain as moderate estimates and thus need to be approached with a degree of caution, as they do not include the number of post-graduate EMI courses. Compared to the initial EMI universities, the recent EMI universities introduce EMI due to external factors, such as marketization and internationalization of HE and their student and academic staff cohort are linguistically and culturally more diverse (Karakaş & Bayyurt, 2019).

3 Theoretical Background: EMI and Language Policy

We take EMI as a phenomenon of HE and largely conceptualise it as “the use of English in the offer of university degree programs in higher education instead of the domestic language of the country in question” (Karakaş, 2015, para. 1). However, we also support the view that ENL (English as a Native Language) countries can be part of EMI definition since EMI is not about where it takes place, but who is taking part, and in UK HE especially, they have probably the highest amount of linguistic

diversity in their classrooms in the world (Jenkins, 2020). The key objective of EMI is set as “to broaden students’ general and specialized knowledge in academic subjects” (Taguchi, 2014, p. 89). Therefore, EMI is just a means rather than an end in the attainment of subject matter knowledge with no explicit language learning/teaching objectives as in the case of CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) and CBI (Content-based Instruction). Accordingly, content teachers do not assume the role of being language specialists (Airey, 2012; Aguilar, 2015; Baker & Hüttner, 2019; Brown & Bradford, 2017). Additionally, content lecturers and students managing tertiary level activities, e.g. teaching/learning and research in English can no longer be seen as learners of English but legitimate users of it (Björkman, 2008; Ljosland, 2011).

For EMI is a direct product of language policy decisions on the working language of instruction, this research makes use of the language policy framework. Language policy, from an educational perspective, refers to “the combination of official decisions and prevailing public practices related to language education and use” (McGroarty, 1997, p. 67). The domain of education is strictly regulated through top-down language education policy (LEP) making, i.e. “the process through which the ideals, goals, and contents of a language policy can be realized in education practices” (“Language Education Policy”, 2020, para. 2). More relevant to EMI in LEP is foreign language education policy (FLEP) dealing with decisions on which foreign language(s) to be taught and used in schools, who will teach/use these languages, how they will teach/use them, among many others.

Previous language policy research has drawn on Spolsky’s (2004, 2012) theorisation of language policy, later expanded by Shohamy (2006). Spolsky’s (2004) model treats language policy as a superordinate concept consisting of three inter-related components: language practices, language beliefs (ideologies) and language management. These components are elucidated as follows:

its language practices – the habitual pattern of selecting among the varieties that make up its linguistic repertoire; its language beliefs or ideology – the beliefs about language and language use; and any specific efforts to modify or influence that practice by any kind of language intervention, planning or management. (2004, p. 5)

What lies at the core of language policy is the attempt to manipulate individuals’ linguistic behaviours in certain ways through overt (language management) and covert (language ideologies) means. Unlike language ideologies and management components, language practice component concerns the extent to which individuals are prepared to act in accordance with the other components in their linguistic practices; for instance, whether they will follow the English-only policy in classes. Taking issue with Spolsky’s (2012) prime focus on explicit language policy decisions, Shohamy (2006) argues that real language policies cannot always be derived from the official statements in policy documents as “the real policy is executed through a variety of mechanisms that determine the de facto practices” (p. 54). Therefore, she suggests examining these mechanisms and their possible effects on real language policies.

4 Academic English Language Policies in EMI

Academic English language policies to be addressed in this section are drawn from the common enactments of EMI universities as documented in previous research reports (Dearden, 2015; Dearden & Akıncioğlu, 2016; Wächter & Maiworm, 2008, 2014). These policies are aimed at several issues concerning both students and academic staff. The policies are briefly outlined below.

4.1 *Academic English Language Policies for Students*

English Language Admission Requirements

Most EMI universities require incoming students to document their competency in the use of English before commencing their chosen field of study. For this, they may sit for institutions' in-house or international language tests (e.g. IELTS and TOEFL) to provide scores at the required level to be eligible for admission (Jenkins & Mauranen, 2019; Jenkins, 2014; O'Dwyer & Atlı, 2018). Drawing on Shahomy's (2006) language testing mechanism, research on language entry requirements shows that albeit not mentioning it in the policy papers, EMI universities judge students' English proficiency against standard native Englishes, i.e. British or American English, through native-English-oriented tests (Arik & Arik, 2014; Jenkins, 2014; Jenkins & Mauranen, 2019; Karakaş, 2018; Saarinen & Nikula, 2013). Those who satisfy admission requirements can enter their freshman year in their programs while those who fail need to get language support in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) units.

Pre-faculty Language Support Policy

This language support is tailored for students who could not meet language entry requirements and is provided in Preparatory Year Programmes (PYP) in non-Anglophone contexts (Dearden & Akıncioğlu, 2016; Kırkgöz, 2018; O'Dwyer & Atlı, 2018). Students attend these programs for a minimum of 1 year and they may stay for up to 2 years. At the end of the program, they need to succeed in the end-of-year proficiency test for their transfer to their programs; otherwise, they are expelled from the university and move into a Turkish-medium one. The PYP heavily relies on integrated skills-based curriculum delivered by language teachers, both native and non-native speakers of English. They use teaching materials imported from the Inner Circle countries and certain proficiency standards, such as CEFR, (Common European Framework of References), which "corresponds to native-like proficiency in the respective language" (Jenkins & Leung, 2013, p. 1608). Research indicates that these programs provide remedial treatment to students whose English is

considered a problem to be fixed in EAP programs (Jenkins, 2014). Research also shows that they fail to prepare students for discipline-specific English use in their faculties and thus most students enter their chosen programs with a low level of English (e.g. Kırkgöz, 2009; O'Dwyer & Atlı, 2018; Macaro et al., 2016; see chapter “Reflections on English-Medium Instruction in Turkish Higher Education Institutions, Educational Quality and Insights from International Experience” for some recommendations to improve the efficacy of PYP).

Faculty Language Support

Students receive faculty language support after being placed into their departments. Most universities offer faculty language support through mandatory and elective academic English courses alongside departmental courses (Karakaş, 2018). EAP teachers based at universities' schools of foreign languages provide this kind of language support. Most language teaching materials used by teachers come from core English-speaking countries (i.e. the UK and the USA) and the ones developed locally by the teaching staff draw on American or British English (Jenkins, 2014; Jenkins & Mauranen, 2019). Likewise, website and documentary analysis of language support units show that the kind of English prescribed on students is standard (native) English (Jenkins, 2014; Jenkins & Mauranen, 2019; Karakaş, 2018).

4.2 Academic English Language Policies for Lecturers

Universities want to make sure that their local or non-native teaching staff are linguistically ready to teach in English. To that end, there are several measures imposed by universities. One common policy is to ask teachers to present qualifying scores from international (e.g. TOEFL or IELTS) or in-house/national proficiency tests to prove their eligibility for teaching in EMI (e.g., Ball & Lindsay, 2013; Dimova & Kling, 2015; Klaassen & Bos, 2010). Some universities seek academic staff with overseas (Anglophone countries) degrees; invite candidates for interviews, microteaching and/or observation (Li & Wu, 2017; Ng, 2019). In certain contexts, the recruitment criteria are based on in-service lecturers' availability and willingness to teach EMI courses and specific disciplinary expertise (Dimova, 2017). Similarly, the Higher Education Council (Yüksek Öğretim Kurumu, YÖK) in Turkey decrees that to be eligible for teaching EMI courses, lecturers need to meet one of the following conditions: getting 80 from the national foreign language exam (Yabancı Dil Sınavı, YDS) or equivalent scores from the international tests; having a postgraduate degree from an Anglophone institution or having work experience of a minimum of 1 year in an overseas institution. Additionally, universities are granted the right to lay down further conditions, e.g. microteaching and interviews (YÖK, 2016). Despite such policies and practices, research points to the growing concern about the language-related problems (e.g. oral production) some lecturers encounter in

their language use (e.g., Ball & Lindsay, 2013; Bolton & Kuteeva, 2012; Tatzl, 2011). To resolve such problems, some universities launch courses/training to support their teaching staff (Valcke & Pávon, 2015); however, such staff support remains scarce in most contexts, particularly in Turkey.

5 Methodology

5.1 *Research Sites*

The study was conducted in three EMI universities in Turkey, of which two are state-funded, i.e. Boğaziçi University and METU, and one is a private university, i.e. Bilkent University. These universities are the elite EMI institutions, using English from their inception across a wide range of undergraduate and postgraduate programs. Their academic performance has been well documented in several university ranking lists. They are currently in the top 600–800 worldwide according to Times Higher Education (2020). Owing to their national and international outlooks as well as EMI nature, international student profile is relatively high on their campuses. Similarly, the academic staff profile in these universities is rather diverse and rich in linguistic backgrounds, albeit mostly consisting of Turkish lecturers. A closer look at the university websites and staff profiles shows that the majority of the lecturers hold overseas postgraduate degrees, mostly from English-speaking countries, e.g. the USA, the UK and Canada.

5.2 *Overview of Participants*

The participants of the study were 72 lecturers from the above universities. They were recruited through purposive sampling to access “individuals who can provide rich and varied insights into the phenomenon under investigation so as to maximise what we can learn” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 126) about institutions’ language policies and practices from their perspectives. More detailed information about participants is given about research techniques used for data collection below.

5.3 *Questionnaires*

The questionnaires included all 72 Turkish lecturers. They represented varied age levels, academic titles, and degrees of experience in teaching EMI courses. Their distribution by each university was almost equal. They came from different faculties representing hard sciences, social sciences and humanities. The majority of them

Table 1 Demographic characteristics of the lecturers

N = 72		(f)	(%)			(f)	(%)
Gender	Male	46	63.9	Title	Prof.	28	19.4
	Female	26	36.1		Assoc. prof	14	19.4
Age	30–39	26	36.1		Assist. prof	22	30.6
	40–49	23	31.9		Doctor	8	11.1
Experience	50–59	15	20.8	Experience	0–10	25	34.7
	60+	8	11.1		11–20	22	30.6
	University	Bilkent	24		33.3	21–30	16
University	Boğaziçi	22	30.6		31+		
	METU	26	36.1	PhD country	America	41	56.9
	Faculty	E & A Sciences	24	33.3		Turkey	15
Engineering		34	47.2		UK	8	11.1
Science and letters		14	19.4		Canada	3	4.2
					Other	5	6.9

earned their doctorate degrees in Anglophone universities, while some in Turkey and a few in European countries. The following Table 1 details participants' background information.

With the questionnaire study, it is aimed to reach a large number of participants located at different sites. Also, questionnaires allow for the collection of a great deal of information in a relatively short time and enable researchers to obtain a broader picture of the research phenomenon (Wray & Bloomer, 2013). The questionnaire consisted of 15 closed-ended items on language policies and practices, such as PYP, language support programs and teacher recruitment policies. The language of the questionnaires was English. Descriptive statistics were used in the analysis of the data to display trends or patterns in participants' views about language policies and practices.

5.4 Interviews

14 lecturers participated in follow-up semi-structured interviews to expand on their responses to the questionnaires. Seven were from METU, four from Bilkent University, and three from Boğaziçi University. Nine were male and five were female. Seven were from hard sciences (engineering departments), three from social sciences and four from humanities. The interviews were held on an online platform and digitally recorded to be later transcribed for data analysis (See Appendix for transcription conventions). Qualitative content analysis was used to analyse the data (Schreier, 2012). The purpose was to make "subjective interpretation of the content of the text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns" (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005, p. 1278). The concentration was largely on the latent content, i.e. "a second-level, interpretative analysis of the

underlying deeper meaning of the data” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 246). The data analysis was done following the steps suggested by Dörnyei (2007, pp. 246–257): transcribing the data, pre-coding and coding, growing ideas, and interpreting the data and drawing conclusions. These steps were helpful for data reduction and indexing, especially in the act of determining ‘golden’ quotations to illustrate the key issues discussed in certain thematic cases.

6 Results and Discussion

6.1 Questionnaire Findings

The questionnaire items address different issues related to language policies and practices. Thus, for purposes of clarity, the questionnaire data is presented under three groupings: lecturers’ views about policies and practices for teaching staff and for students as well as communication goals in spoken and written English in their academic activities.

Lecturers Views About Language Policies and Practices Concerning Teaching Staff

There were seven questionnaire items in this category, which respectively dealt with the kind of English against which their Englishes are judged in the recruitment process, their views about recruitment policies, the kind of English they are required to use in teaching, their academic writing practices for publication and their attitudes towards students’ deviant English use. The following Table 2 outlines their views about these issues.

Table 2 shows that the local proficiency test is not perceived as a good indicator of their proficiency (S1, $\bar{x} = 2.75$). Nonetheless, their agreement on the need for lecturers to present scores from language tests for proving their English proficiency is a remarkable point considering their dissatisfaction with the local language test (S10, $\bar{x} = 3.04$). One explanation for this might be their desire for lecturers’ being tested in international language tests (e.g. TOEFL, IELTS). Regarding the kind of English they are obliged to use in their teaching and academic activities, less than half agreed that they are expected to use particular native Englishes (S9, $\bar{x} = 2.20$), especially considering the institutional policy urging them to publish in English in international journals (S14, $\bar{x} = 2.34$). However, these journals “remain deeply grounded in the norms of British and/or North American academic English, despite their (linguistically paradoxical) claims to internationalism” (Jenkins, 2011, p. 927). Even worse, in most cases, these journals request NNES submitters to have their English “checked” by a NES.

Table 2 Summary of perceptions about policies and practices concerning teaching staff

SN	N	S. agree		Agree		Disagree		S. disagree		Mean	SD
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	\bar{x}	s
S1	72	7	9.7	42	58.3	21	29.2	2	2.8	2.75	.66
S10	72	18	25	40	55.6	13	18.1	1	1.4	3.04	.70
S9	72	8	11.1	15	20.8	33	45.8	16	22.2	2.20	.91
S14	72	5	6.9	27	37.5	28	38.9	12	16.7	2.34	.84
S6	72	3	4.2	6	8.3	37	51.4	26	36.1	1.80	.76
S15	72	5	6.9	34	47.2	29	40.3	4	5.6	2.55	.70
S7	72	17	23.6	43	59.7	12	16.7	–	–	3.06	.63

S1. The language proficiency test (YDS) fail to sufficiently measure the level of lecturers' academic English skills

S10. It is reasonable that lecturers should also take a proficiency test to prove that they can teach in English-medium programs

S9. The university wants lecturers to use British or American English in teaching rather than other kinds of English

S14. The university enforces native English on lecturers by forcing them to publish their papers in English

S6. Lecturers tend to write in Turkish first, and then make their papers translated into English for publishing

S15. Lecturers often get their papers proofread in order to avoid rejection of their papers by journals

S7. Lecturers should be more tolerant towards students' English as long as their English is intelligible (comprehensible)

Additionally, in response to their language practices for publication, the majority do not feel challenged in writing papers for publications and do not resort to translation as a coping strategy (S6, \bar{x} = 1.80), yet more than half accepted benefiting from proofreading services to increase the prospect of acceptance for publications (S15, \bar{x} = 2.55). This action might be taken to remove non-native/non-standard features from their papers, which are not favourably seen by the reviewers and editors (Flowerdew, 2001). Lastly, when it comes to students' linguistic practices in their classes, lecturers seemed tolerant of their English use providing intelligibility is not at stake (S7, \bar{x} = 3.06).

Lecturers Views About Language Policies and Practices for Students

In this category, the questionnaire items addressed issues concerning candidate and full-time students in the respective institutions in terms of policies on admission requirements, exemption policy, language supports and linguistic acts. Table 3 details the distribution of the lecturers' responses by each item.

Notably, most lecturers expressed scepticism about students' English proficiency (S13, \bar{x} = 3.19). Thus, they find language requirements quite reasonable. Many lecturers appear to be aware that students' English is judged against native kinds of English through standardized international tests (S5, \bar{x} = 3.06). However, not many

Table 3 Summary of perceptions about policies and practices concerning students

No	N	S. agree		Agree		Disagree		S. disagree		Mean	SD
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	\bar{x}	s
S5	72	14	19.4	49	68.1	9	12.5	–	–	3.06	.56
S2	72	6	8.3	55	76.4	10	13.9	1	1.4	2.91	.52
S3	72	8	11.1	30	41.7	27	37.5	7	9.7	2.54	.82
S12	72	6	8.3	20	27.8	36	50	10	13.9	2.30	.81
S8	72	42	58.3	30	41.7	–	–	–	–	3.58	.49
S13	72	21	29.2	45	62.5	5	6.9	1	1.4	3.19	.61

S5. International proficiency tests (e.g. TOEFL, IELTS) test students’ proficiency in British or American English

S2. The preparatory school helps students improve their English for studying content courses in English

S3. Students’ academic writing should conform to either American or British English in their exam papers and assignments

S12. It is important for students to have native English proficiency to learn departmental courses in English

S8. Students should get language support from the university (e.g. from academic writing centres) to be able to improve their writing skills

S13. It is fair that all non-native English students should take the proficiency exam if they are not graduates of English medium schools

agree that students need to accommodate to native English conventions to follow faculty courses (S12, S3, \bar{x} = 2.54), but slightly more than half consider it important when it comes to students’ writing practices in examinations and coursework (S3, \bar{x} = 2.54). Their deficit view on students’ academic writing became more apparent in their agreement on students’ need to get language support for academic writing (S8, \bar{x} = 3.58). In regards to the pre-faculty language support, the majority considered the language support provided at PYP rather beneficial for students’ overall language improvement (S2, \bar{x} = 2.91).

Lecturers Views on Spoken and Written Communication

In this category, there were only two items addressing lecturers’ priority in communication and how they conceptualise the concept of good academic writing. The following Table 4 indicates their views on these issues.

Markedly, more lecturers (S4, \bar{x} = 2.76) pay high regards to achieving communicative success in their oral practices rather than linguistic correctness; however, grammatical correctness is still prevalent among around one-third of them. In the case of academic writing, they seemed to be a bit more concerned, with slightly more than one-third (37.5%) giving precedence to native English norms over intelligibility (S11, \bar{x} = 2.79).

Table 4 Lecturers' goals in spoken communication and views on good academic writing

No	N	S. agree		Agree		Disagree		S. disagree		Mean	SD
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	\bar{x}	s
S4	72	7	9.7	43	59.7	20	27.8	2	2.8	2.76	.66
S11	72	13	18.1	32	44.4	26	36.1	1	1.4	2.79	.74

S4. Communicative success is more important than speaking correctly in oral contexts (e.g. presentations, discussions)

S11. Good academic writing should be identified in terms of intelligibility (comprehensibility) rather than writing like native English speakers

6.2 Interview Findings

Findings About Policies and Practices Concerning Lectures

In the interviews, we discussed each universities' recruitment policies and talked about the requirements they fulfilled to get their current position. These discussions showed that there were three main measures applied to check their eligibility for teaching EMI courses: proof of English proficiency, overseas work/research experiences and publication in foreign journals. Additionally, we discussed their views on such policies and practices.

Proof of English Proficiency

For proof of proficiency, lecturers mentioned four types of measures taken by their institutions in accordance with the regulations determined by YOK (2016). These are presenting a (national or international) proficiency test scores, conducting a micro-teaching session, face-to-face interviews and cross-translations (from source to target language and vice versa). Most reported satisfying the language proficiency criteria with scores from YDS and some with scores from IELTS and TOEFL. Microteaching sessions were, as noted by several teachers, carried out in different modes, e.g. presentations or a short lecture of 10–20 min. It was noted that lecturers' performance assessment had both pedagogical (content knowledge) and language dimensions (e.g. pronunciation, grammatical competence) and some jury members in the interviews were language teachers tasked with assessing lecturers' spoken interaction. Furthermore, EAP teachers evaluated the translations of texts. Assessment guidelines had some aspects on grammatical accuracy, appropriateness, style, cohesion and discourse/choice of words. From these practices and assessment criteria as language policy mechanisms on lecturers' language use, it is evident that the kind of English lecturers are expected to use is standard native English. This requirement seems to be in place by implication as there is no such overt statement in the policies. An exchange of talk with a lecturer from METU provides evidence that institutions are native-English oriented in their academic English policies.

Example 1:

1. L3: /.../ but here's the thing for example (.) *when I started working here erm (2) the preparatory namely the school of foreign languages (.) evaluated whether i*
2. *could lecture through English via <a> "speaking" <test>*
3. A: the preparatory school=
4. L3: =yes
5. A: so madam=
6. L3: = it was part of the job <requirement> that's it I provided a TOEFL test score
7. *and it was KPDS at that time it's become YDS now there's foreign language test*
8. *<requirement> inevitably (.) then I showed its result /.../ well there were three or*
9. *four persons, we sat all together in the school of foreign languages we had a*
10. *conversation in English for about 10 minutes they said (.) yes you could lecture in*
11. *English-medium madam @@@ I said alright ...*
- 12.

The above exchange emerged while we were discussing the language requirements L3 had to satisfy when she applied for a vacant position. It is evident the institutions are highly concerned about their teaching staff's English proficiency and thus several measures are in place to ensure that they commence work at faculties with the desired level and kind of academic English. Later, in our talk, it became clear that such policies and practices apply to Turkish lecturers and NNES lecturers from other countries. Here is what she told in this regard:

...there's something funnier one of our colleagues, a foreign national, American then, later on, he obtained Turkish citizenship he is still a member of our university (2) after being a Turkish citizen he was subjected to the same condition <evidence of language proficiency>... now that he is a Turkish citizen the application procedures for Turkish citizens are supposed to cover him as well poor man he took the test <TOEFL> there is no other way he also took KPDS @@@ ...

We understand from the anecdote that the rule is so rigid that even an American needs to satisfy language criteria upon changing his status of nationality. It can be inferred that the American lecturer did not have to meet such criteria when he was first appointed to this current position because of his native English background. Albeit not commenting further on this, the discursive function of laughter implies that she finds such policies baseless and unreasonable.

While talking to another lecturer, similar points were raised about the rationale of overseas experiences, interviews and cross-translation in the recruitment process.

Example 2:

1. L6: ... so if you wish to be a lecturer here you will have to work abroad at least a year /.../ if
2. *you have done your doctorate abroad (.) it erm satisfies the condition of working abroad*
3. A: is the purpose of (.) this policy that since education will be in English-medium they
4. *should practice <English> there or [are there any other reasons*
5. L6: *[yes it's so and also there is a concept what*
6. *we call "inbreeding" (.) to tell truth the stay of the PhD holders from METU*
7. *or of others recruited in the same universities (2) where they obtained their doctorates is*
8. *not considered appropriate in the academia /.../*

The overseas experience requirement seems to serve two purposes: compensating for lack of practice in the use of academic English and making lecturers familiar with other institutions and work cultures to increase their effectiveness and productivity. From these practices, it is apparent that the institutions value study abroad experiences and especially those trained in English speaking countries, as the analysis of university websites indicated earlier (Karakaş, 2018). Thus, the term ‘overseas’ or ‘abroad’ is often a euphemism for English-speaking countries. Encouraging local PhD holders to go abroad for a while implies that their English is seen in need of remediation to get closer to the right kind of English institutions desire.

While continuing to talk on measuring lecturers’ English proficiency, L6 reported that interviews intend to measure how sufficient their spoken English is for delivering EMI courses and the translations were there to see how good one is at academic writing. The examiners were just EAP teachers as they reported. This practice and the lack of examiners with specialized disciplinary knowledge make it clear that language issues overweigh issues of content-specific knowledge and their pedagogical skills. It is assumed that once a lecturer has a high command of English, this will suffice to teach content courses effectively, too. The following extract outlines these issues:

Example 3:

1. L6: erm when recruiting academic teaching staff here they are definitely subjected
2. to an interview what’s more you are required to get a proficiency certificate
3. from the school of English which certifies you can teach courses in English-
4. medium (.) this is a erm condition following language exams /.../
5. A: the interview is done orally isn’t it=
6. L6: =orally yes in English three <language> teachers came there (.) from the
7. department
8. of modern languages (.) i had an interview with them entirely in English /.../
9. apart
10. from that except for the interview when i got here there was this thing (.) well
11. again i think it’s a rule of the <engineering> faculty they give you a one-page
12. long (.)
13. English text and Turkish text you cross translate them

It is very likely that in the assessment of lecturers’ oral and written language, much attention is paid by EAP teachers to linguistic characteristics of lecturers’ English use, such as grammatical and morphosyntactic errors, word choice and suprasegmental features. Some participants talked of them specifically. A Bilkent lecturer remarked “You need to speak English *fluently* so this is a criterion...they evaluate our accent and such like there”. A Boğaziçi lecturer often undertaking roles in such assessments noted: “it becomes evident there <in the sample seminar> whether s/he can speak *good English*” (L13). However, he did not clarify what he meant by speaking good English and whose speech should be considered good. However, the previous discussions on the notion of good English indicate that ‘good English’ is often a euphemism for native-like English (Karakaş, 2017; Mauranen

et al., 2010). To corroborate this, there is some evidence from another Boğaziçi lecturer who remarked that “there was a native speaker [name] you saw earlier s/he was in the jury they check the translations of the texts” (12). The inclusion of an American lecturer in the assessment board hints that lecturers’ English is evaluated by someone perceived to have the right kind of academic English.

Views on Recruitment Policies and Practices

When asked about their views on the above-mentioned policies and practices, lecturers were rather negative about the measures taken by their institutions. Just a small number were positive about the policies and practices for two particular grounds: efficacy of measures to assess lecturers’ English skills and ‘better than nothing’ argument. To illustrate, regarding the utility of language tests and interviews, a lecturer put this:

it’s impossible to make one’s presence felt in such a globalized and universalized environment <academia> without a good command of foreign language /.../ thus foreign language is compulsory (.) it needs to be measured somehow (L11).

This account suggests that L11 is sceptical about his (potential) colleagues’ competence in English and thus support recruitment policies and practices that target at measuring their English proficiency in certain kinds of Englishes. Those who believed that there should be language monitoring on lecturers’ English were not very satisfied with the existing policies, yet they believed that the policies and practices in place are better than not having any quality control on lecturers’ English. In this respect, L6 noted, “if there are no better alternatives presented they are better than nothing”. Likewise, L2 maintained “one is to prove his/her capability of publishing internationally”.

Those who were critical of recruitment policies and practices pointed to three lines of arguments: inadequacy of measuring English proficiency, a strong emphasis on grammatical competence and lack of disciplinary knowledge and literacy. For many, the tests administered locally and those international ones are faulty in several respects. As L3 put, for instance, “tests are always problematic things. One can be very successful in the test with very little knowledge using test strategies and tactics”. Criticizing the content and organization of the local language test (YDS), another lecturer said: “a multiple-choice exam is not decisive, particularly in terms of determining the ability of teaching in the university because speaking” component is missing in it (L4). Similarly, turning to the measurement of their written English, L7 argued for the lack of predictive validity when it comes to performing academic tasks through English:

someone who gets 70 from YDS cannot write an article [because] one can achieve high scores by memorizing the rules such as using however between a semi-colon and a comma (.) but this does not let you write and comprehend what you are reading.

As far as those concerned with the tests’ heavy reliance on grammatical correctness, they were dissatisfied with lack of performance-oriented practices in the assessment of their English skills as the existing practices fail to see the extent to which they

could use English for real-world academic activities in their faculties. The next conversation exchange illustrates these points:

Example 4:

1. A: you mentioned before you have taken this YDS test
2. L12: *it's VERY misleading* (.) have you seen that test? /.../ *a very misleading test* i
3. mean now look *its reading comprehension part is very important* why it's at
4. least academic what's the aim there because one will apply for promotion to
5. associate professor [er::m
6. A: [to follow up <read> publications in the field=
7. L12: *=whether they can follow up the publications in their field /.../ BUT the important thing is to be able to follow <read> research literature in the field*
- 8.

It seems that L12 is familiar with the test and its content and considers it inappropriate for measuring their English proficiency for communicative situations in which they have to read, comprehend and write academic texts. Furthermore, one's capacity to perform these tasks through English cannot be predicted with a test focusing on linguistic competence only. Thus, he prioritizes content and meaning over language. This is probably because he feels responsible for the delivery of subject-specific knowledge for which English is merely a tool.

This was obvious in his following utterance: “what's important is whether one can understand the paper. I mean if one is going to study English language and literature that alters the case. of course but YDS is administered to anyone. Therefore it's a misleading test”. As previous studies (e.g. Aguilar, 2015; Baker & Hüttner, 2019) vastly indicated, most content lecturers do not see themselves as a language teacher and accordingly prefer to tolerate deviations from standard English, with a focus on communication of content in their own ways.

Additionally, some lecturers made suggestions to their institutions to amend their existing academic English policies. For instance, one lecturer proposed that language proficiency measures pay attention to disciplinary language use: “how we can be sure about a candidate's pedagogical content knowledge who will train students in particular fields in the university (.) therefore discipline-specific exam is a must” (L12). Further to this, another lecturer brought the issue of lack of content-specific questions in the interviews: “I was not asked anything relevant to mechanical engineering there in my interview. We generally chatted about daily life, my university life, where I did my PhD and so on” (L9).

Findings About Policies and Practices Concerning Students

Views on Language Admission Requirements

The interviews showed that most lecturers did not see anything wrong with students' English being judged against native English standards. Rather, they showed approval of the existing policies and practices for two reasons: the international tests' worldwide recognition and the belief in their indication of actual English proficiency. L3, for instance, told: "of course universities have to offer something standard /.../ they surely have to recognize some of the international tests apart from their own tests". L3 sees the acceptance of international test scores as an external obligation probably to allow for international students unable to take the in-house test. Another lecturer with an explicit reference to TOEFL addressed this point as follows: "the exam called TOEFL is also an admission requirement at universities in the US if a <foreign> student can apply to a university in the US with TOEFL s/ he must be able to do the same here" (L7).

From these accounts, it becomes evident that lecturers believe it is through these tests that non-Turkish students can apply to their institutions and contribute to the linguacultural make-up on campus, yet lecturers do not problematize students' being judged against native kinds of English. Even some think that the institutions can realize internationalization at home through such policies. L7 noted in this regard: "so here we now accept foreign students to master programs. If it is not English but Turkish, they do not come. I mean they can't come to study... they all prove their English through international test scores".

As for the second argument that international tests are better indicators of English proficiency, lecturers mostly compared these tests with that of their institution and the nationwide administered one (YDS). Mostly criticizing the lack of spoken and written components in the in-house exams, many suggested their institutions develop a similar exam to the international ones. One METU lecturer insisted that especially students' English should be tested through "a test of spoken English such as that of TOEFL" (L3). Likewise, some argued that international tests more accurately measure students' competence in academic English. Talking about this issue, a lecturer said:

I've seen some students sitting for the same exam at different times got different scores. But for example, with TOEFL this is not the case. The same person nearly gets similar scores once taking it successively (L13).

Such views on international tests display the perception among lecturers that they are more reliable in terms of measuring English proficiency. Moving from this view, L3 reported "directly refer[ing] the non-Boğaziçi students applying for master and PhD programs to <take>TOEFL for proficiency". What emerges from these remarks is the consensual ideology held by lecturers that native English standards outweigh non-native English and what is considered 'international' is more highly regarded than what is seen as local and non-standard.

Views on Pre-faculty and Faculty Language Support

The questionnaire results showed lecturers' displeasure with the language support given to students in the PYP. The interviews unearthed the reasons behind their negative views about language support. There were two key concerns raised about the lack of emphasis on students' academic English and the lack of discipline-specific courses in the curricula. For these reasons, many considered the PYP and faculty English courses deficient for preparing students for their departmental courses. The following exchange of talk illustrates the common views on the language support given in the EAP programs.

Example 5:

1. A: What are the deficiencies you've taken notice (2) regarding <the preparatory unit> do you have any idea about this
- 2.
3. L1: I think for instance *they don't properly teach how to write "essays"* I mean
4. (.) after all because the preparatory system or (.) *exams like TOEFL*
5. *and IELTS are not discipline (.) discipline-specific in any case (.) it's not the*
6. *same English an engineering and an international relations student should*
7. *learn (2) they are expected to write essays in our department but if students*
8. *don't know how to write an essay then there's a big problem I...I they have to*
9. *teach this*
at the preparatory school...

One can conclude that the language support units fail to accomplish their primary goal in the eyes of the lecturers: training students for academic English use in their disciplines. L1 also draws attention to the disciplinary differences in the need for academic English, which is, however, not taken into account in the language support provision. Additionally, facing such a problem in students' language use, several teachers reported acting like a language teacher to help students improve their academic English. In this regard, one lecturer reported that

there are some things to be avoided in academic English. We change organizational things in students' writing (.) as lecturers we correct edit their writing we say how they should express certain things I usually comment put "the" before this and the like (L5).

Such practices remind us of Marshall's (2009) notion of ESL remedial identity in that despite being placed in their disciplines completing a PYP, students are still considered in need of remediation in their linguistic practices and not seen as users of English but learners. The prevalence of the discourse of remediation among some lecturers implies that they want students to use English consistent with the conventions of the so-perceived right kind of English. Similarly, expressing dissatisfaction with faculty language support, almost all lecturers acknowledged providing linguistic help to learners in their classes. To clarify this issue, L3 said:

what we seek to do is to nurture students in respect of history we're not a department which teaches English (.) but we're striving to improve their language skills as much as possible we've started to take up such a role besides our own duty.

Lecturers' such practices illustrate that "the already widespread discourse of remediation [continues] to predominate" in non-Anglophone contexts as it does in Anglophone universities regarding non-native English students (Turner, 2012, p. 11). Such practices have been also reported in previous studies despite lecturers' not seeing themselves as teachers of disciplinary English (Airey, 2012; Aguilar, 2015; Baker & Hüttner, 2019; Brown & Bradford, 2017).

Some lecturers even came up with some proposal which they thought would fix such problems in students' English. These proposals mainly included extending the duration of language support in the PYP and recruitment of more foreign EAP teachers. One lecturer suggested that "the students enrolled in social sciences or in the departments such as history psychology should study English for two years instead of one" (L3). Another lecturer, L6, insisted that if foreign EAP teachers manage these support programs, the results would be more satisfactory. What is unclear is what L6 meant by foreign teachers. However, it is likely that 'foreign' usually refers to native English teachers in EFL contexts. The evidence from these accounts is that the deficit view on students' English is rampant among many lecturers, who see EAP programs and teachers as the agents to fix this problem (see Jenkins, 2014, for a similar argument).

7 Conclusion

In this chapter, we have seen that lecturers from three elite EMI universities are aware of the native-English oriented policies of their institutions as to students' and teaching staff's academic English use. However, the surprising thing was their support for these normative policies and practices despite their general agreement that effective communication and good academic writing cannot be achieved just by adjusting to certain conventions. More specifically, lecturers preferred to take issue with the general content of language support programs and courses. Thus, they appeared to have ignored these programs' implicit concentration on particular kinds of academic English and their deficit approach to students' English. This deficit view became more apparent when it comes to expectations' on student academic English, which, to most lecturers, need to be in conformity with standard English conventions. This was also obvious in their wish for students to get more support from the writing centres of their universities. This deficit view also translated into their colleagues' English as they believe that teaching staff should also certify their English proficiency, if possible through scores from international tests that are considered better indicators of 'true English proficiency' and more predictive of their future practices in academic English compared to the in-house tests.

From these results, we can conclude that despite their awareness of one-size-fits-all policies of their institutions applying to both students' and academic staff's academic English, lecturers do not seem to notice the mismatch between these policies and linguistic diversity in the student and staff profile and their practices. This lack of awareness might stem from the ideologies they hold about English and how it should be used in academic settings as well as institutional demands and regulations on the use of the right kind of academic English. Thus, albeit having the power to challenge such normative policies and practices on the ground level as policy agents, only a few were ready to bend such policies in their own and students' practices, with a counter ideology of intelligibility, meaning-negotiation and effectiveness in communicative tasks.

Appendix: Transcription Conventions

Symbols	Explanations
(.)	Pause of about one second or less
(2)	Pause of about two seconds, etc
XXX	Unable to transcribe (unintelligible word or words)
@	Laughter (length indicated by a number of @)
A	Ali (the researcher)
L1, L2, L3	EMI lecturers
[]	Overlapping utterances
=	Latched utterances
uh-huh	Used to indicate affirmation, agreement
/.../	Speech not included in the example as material is irrelevant
< >	My additional information to make meaning clear
<i>I</i>	Italics are used to highlight issues under discussion in the extracts

References

- Aguilar, M. (2015). Engineering lecturers' views on CLIL and EMI. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 18, 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2015.1073664>
- Airey, J. (2012). I don't teach language: The linguistic attitudes of physics lecturers in Sweden. *AILA Review*, 25, 64–79.
- Altbach, P. G., & Knight, J. (2007). The internationalization of higher education: Motivations and realities. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 11(3/4), 290–305. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315307303542>
- Arik, B. T., & Arik, E. (2014). The role and status of English in Turkish higher education. *English Today*, 30(4), 5–10. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0266078414000339>

- Baker, W., & Hüttner, J. (2019). "We are not the language police": Comparing multilingual EMI programmes in Europe and Asia. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 29(1), 78–94. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ijal.12246>
- Ball, B., & Lindsay, D. (2013). Language demands and support for English medium instruction in tertiary education: Learning from a specific context. In A. Doiz, D. Lasagabaster, & J. M. Sierra (Eds.), *English-medium instruction at universities: Global challenges* (pp. 44–61). Multilingual Matters.
- Björkman, B. (2008). "So where we are?" Spoken lingua franca English at a technical university in Sweden. *English Today*, 24(2), 35–41. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0266078408000187>
- Bolton, K., & Kuteeva, M. (2012). English as an academic language at a Swedish University: Parallel language use and the 'Threat' of English. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 33(5), 429–447.
- Brown, H., & Bradford, A. (2017). EMI, CLIL, & CBI: Differing approaches and goals. In P. Clements, A. Krause, & H. Brown (Eds.), *Transformation in language education* (pp. 328–334). JALT.
- Coleman, J. A. (2006). English-medium teaching in European higher education. *Language Teaching*, 39(1), 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S026144480600320X>
- Dearden, J. (2014). *English as a medium of instruction – A growing global phenomenon: Phase 1 Interim report* (pp. 1–8). British Council. Retrieved from http://www.britishcouncil.org/sites/britishcouncil.uk2/files/english_as_a_medium_of_instruction.pdf
- Dearden, J. (2015). *English as a medium of instruction a growing global phenomenon* (pp. 1–34). British Council. Retrieved from http://www.britishcouncil.org/sites/britishcouncil.uk2/files/e484_emi_-_cover_option_3_final_web.pdf
- Dearden, J., & Akincioglu, M. (2016). *EMI in Turkish universities: Collaborative planning and student voices*. Report. Oxford University Press. Retrieved from https://elt.oup.com/elt/catalogue/pdf/emi_research_report.pdf
- Dimova, S. (2017). Life after oral English certification: The consequences of the Test of Oral English Proficiency for Academic Staff for EMI lecturers. *English for Specific Purposes*, 46, 45–58.
- Dimova, S., & Kling, J. (2015). Lecturers' English proficiency and university language policies for quality assurance. In R. Wilkinson & M. Walsh (Eds.), *Integrating content and language in higher education: From theory to practice. Selected papers from the 2013 ICLHE conference* (pp. 50–65). Peter Lang.
- Doiz, A., Lasagabaster, D., & Sierra, J. M. (Eds.). (2013). *English-medium instruction at universities: Global challenges*. Multilingual Matters.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methodologies*. Oxford University Press.
- Fenton-Smith, B., Humphries, P., & Walkinshaw, I. (2017). *English medium instruction in higher education in Asia Pacific: From policy to pedagogy*. Springer.
- Flowerdew, J. (2001). Attitudes of journal editors to non-native speaker contributions. *TESOL Quarterly*, 35(1), 121–150. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3587862>
- Galloway, N., & Rose, H. (2015). *Introducing global Englishes*. Routledge.
- Hsieh, H.-F., & Shannon, S. E. (2005). Three approaches to qualitative content analysis. *Qualitative Health Research*, 15, 1277–1288. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1049732305276687>
- Hultgren, A. K., & Thøgersen, J. (2014). Englishization of Nordic universities: Policy and practice — A disconnect. *Language Problems and Language Planning*, 38(3), 247–264. <https://doi.org/10.1075/lplp.38.3.02hul>
- Jenkins, J. (2011). Accommodating (to) ELF in the international university. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43(4), 926–936. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2010.05.011>
- Jenkins, J. (2014). *English as a lingua franca in the international university. The politics of academic English language policy*. Routledge.
- Jenkins, J. (2019). English medium instruction in higher education: The role of English as lingua franca. In X. Gao (Ed.), *Second handbook of English language teaching* (pp. 1–18). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-58542-0_7-1

- Jenkins, J. (2020). Red herrings and the case of language in UK higher education. *Nordic Journal of English Studies*, 19(3), 59–67.
- Jenkins, J., & Leung, C. (2013). Testing English as a Lingua Franca. In A. J. Kunnan (Ed.), *The companion to language assessment* (pp. 1605–1616). Blackwell.
- Jenkins, J., & Mauranen, A. (Eds.). (2019). *Linguistic diversity on the EMI Campus: Insider accounts of the use of English and other languages in universities within Asia, Australasia, and Europe*. Routledge.
- Karakaş, A. (2015). English medium instruction. *Key Concepts in Intercultural Dialogue*, 66. Retrieved from <http://centerforinterculturaldialogue.org/publications/>
- Karakaş, A. (2017). Students' perceptions of 'Good English' and the underlying ideologies behind their perceptions. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 13(2), 487–509.
- Karakaş, A. (2018). Visible language-covert policy: An investigation of language policy documents at EMI universities in Turkey. *International Online Journal of Education and Teaching (IOJET)*, 5(4), 788–807. <http://iojet.org/index.php/IOJET/article/view/436/294>
- Karakaş, A., & Bayyurt, Y. (2019). The scope of linguistic diversity in the language policies, practices, and linguistic landscape of a Turkish EMI university. In J. Jenkins & A. Mauranen (Eds.), *Linguistic diversity on the EMI campus: Insider accounts of the use of English and other languages in universities within Asia, Australasia, and Europe* (pp. 96–122). Routledge.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2005). Motivation and student perception of studying in an English medium university. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 1(1), 101–123.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2009). Students' and lecturers' perceptions of the effectiveness of foreign language instruction in an English-medium university in Turkey. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 14(1), 81–93. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13562510802602640>
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2018). Confronting similar challenges?: Exploring students' experiences of studying engineering at a Turkish university: Turkish versus English-language medium of instruction. *Rassegna Italiana di Linguistica Applicata*, 2–3, 145–160.
- Kirkpatrick, A. (2011a). English as a medium of instruction in Asian education (from primary to tertiary): Implications for local languages and local scholarship. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 2, 99–120.
- Kirkpatrick, A. (2011b). Internationalization or Englishization: Medium of instruction in today's universities. *Working Paper Series* 2011/003.
- Klaassen, R. G., & Bos, M. (2010). English language screening for scientific staff at Delft University of Technology. *HERMES-Journal of Language and Communication in Business*, 45, 61–75.
- Li, M., & Wu, T. (2017). Creating an EMI program in international finance and business management. In W. Tsou & S. Kao (Eds.), *English as a medium of instruction in higher education* (pp. 21–38). Springer.
- Ljosland, R. (2011). English as an Academic Lingua Franca: Language policies and multilingual practices in a Norwegian university. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43(4), 991–1004. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2010.08.007>
- Macaro, E., Akıncioğlu, M., & Dearden, J. (2016). English medium instruction in universities: A collaborative experiment in Turkey. *Studies in English Language Teaching*, 4(1), 51–76.
- Marshall, S. (2009). Re-becoming ESL: Multilingual university students and a deficit identity. *Language and Education*, 24(1), 41–56. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09500780903194044>
- Mauranen, A., Hynninen, N., & Ranta, E. (2010). English as an academic lingua franca: The ELFA project. *English for Specific Purposes*, 29(3), 183–190. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2009.10.001>
- McGroarty, M. (1997). Language policy in the USA: National values, local loyalties, pragmatic pressures. In W. Eggington & H. Wren (Eds.), *Language policy: Dominant English, pluralist challenges* (pp. 67–90). John Benjamins.
- Ng, P. (2019). Enacting an ELF-informed English-medium instruction curriculum: An autoethnography. In K. Murata (Ed.), *English-medium instruction from an English as a Lingua Franca perspective* (pp. 123–136). Routledge.

- O'Dwyer, J., & Atli, H. H. (2018). ESP/EAP in university programs in a non-target language community –issues and challenges. In Y. Kırkgöz & K. Dikilitaş (Eds.), *Key issues in English for specific purposes in higher education* (pp. 291–304). Springer Publishing.
- ÖSYM. (2018). *Yüksek Öğretim Programları ve Kontenjanları Kılavuzu*. Retrieved from: <https://www.osym.gov.tr/TR,15240/2018-yuksekokretim-programlari-ve-kontenjanlari-kilavuzu.html>
- Saarinen, T., & Nikula, T. (2013). Implicit policy, invisible language: Policies and practices of international degree programs in Finnish higher education. In A. Doiz, D. Lasagabaster, & J. M. Sierra (Eds.), *English-medium instruction at universities: Global challenges* (pp. 131–150). Multilingual Matters.
- Schreier, M. (2012). *Qualitative content analysis in practice*. Sage.
- Selvi, A. F. (2014). The medium-of-instruction debate in Turkey: Oscillating between national ideas and bilingual ideals. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 15(2), 133–152. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14664208.2014.898357>
- Shohamy, E. (2006). *Language policy: Hidden agendas and new approaches*. Routledge.
- Spolsky, B. (2004). *Language policy*. Cambridge University Press.
- Spolsky, B. (2012). What is language policy? In B. Spolsky (Ed.), *The Cambridge handbook of language policy* (pp. 3–15). Cambridge University Press.
- Taguchi, N. (2014). English-medium education in the global society. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 52(2), 89–98. <https://doi.org/10.1515/iral-2014-0004>
- Tatzl, D. (2011). English-medium masters' programmes at an Austrian university of applied sciences: Attitudes, experiences and challenges. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 10(4), 252–270. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2011.08.003>
- Times Higher Education. World University Rankings. (2020). https://www.timeshighereducation.com/world-university-rankings/2020/world-ranking#!/page/8/length/25/sort_by/rank/sort_order/asc/cols/stats
- Turner, J. (2012). *Reconfiguring English and pedagogic practices in the 'inner circle' international university*. Plenary talk delivered at the CALPIU '12 conference, Higher education across borders: Transcultural interaction and linguistic diversity. Roskilde, 1–4 April, 2012.
- Turner, Y., & Robson, S. (2008). *Internationalizing the university*. Continuum Intl. Pub. Group.
- Valcke, J., & Pávon, V. (2015). A comparative study on the use of pronunciation strategies for highlighting information in university lectures. In R. Wilkinson & M. L. Walsh (Eds.), *Integrating content and language in higher education: From theory to practice. Selected papers from the 2013 ICLHE conference* (pp. 323–341). Peter Lang.
- Wächter, B., & Maiworm, F. (2008). *English-language-taught degree programmes in European higher education. The picture in 2007*. Lemmens Medien.
- Wächter, B., & Maiworm, F. (Eds.). (2014). *English-taught programmes in European higher education: The state of play in 2014*. ACA papers on international cooperation in education. Lemmens Medien.
- Wilkinson, R. (2013). English-medium instruction at a Dutch University: Challenges and pitfalls. In A. Doiz, D. Lasagabaster, & J. M. Sierra (Eds.), *English-medium instruction at universities: Global challenges* (pp. 3–24). Multilingual Matters.
- Wray, A., & Bloomer, A. (2013). *Projects in linguistics and language studies* (3rd ed.). Routledge.
- Yüksek Öğretim Kurumu (YÖK) Higher Education Council. (2016). *Yükseköğretim kurumlarında yabancı dil öğretimi ve yabancı dille öğretim yapılması* [Foreign language teaching and foreign language medium education at higher education institutions]. Resmi Gazete [Official Journal]. No. 296662 Retrieved from <https://www.mevzuat.gov.tr/mevzuat?MevzuatNo=21475&MevzuatTur=7&MevzuatTertip=5>

English-Medium Instruction in Northern Cyprus: Problems, Possibilities, and Prospects



Ali Fuad Selvi

Abstract The increasing waves of internationalization of higher education around the world (especially in contexts where English is not the dominant language) bring about unprecedented pressures for higher education systems around the world, and Northern Cyprus is no exception. As a manifestation of this pressing trend, institutions of higher education in the country revise the contents of their curriculum, create opportunities for staff and student mobility, upgrade their technological infrastructure, and, most remarkably, adopt English as a medium of instruction (EMI). Quantitative increases in terms of institutions and programs adopting EMI over the last couple of decades, as well as qualitative efforts to promote overall effectiveness of instruction provided within these programs, are clear testaments to the validity and relevance of the EMI phenomenon for the local higher education landscape. Departing from this premise and drawing from a local symposium that brought together key stakeholders involved in EMI practices, this chapter presents a critical review and evaluation of the local EMI landscape contextualized in historical, political, economic, and sociolinguistic dynamics. It is argued that hasty, largely unplanned, loosely controlled and regulated, volatile and rather unstable EMI implementations in higher education bring short-term financial benefits for the local economy while damaging the EMI phenomenon *per se*, commodifying education, and denigrating the credibility of Northern Cyprus and institutions of higher education therein.

Keywords English-medium instruction · Northern Cyprus · Higher education · Internationalization · Commodification

A. F. Selvi (✉)

Middle East Technical University Northern Cyprus Campus, Kalkanlı, Güzelyurt, Turkey

e-mail: selvi@metu.edu.tr

© The Author(s), under exclusive license to Springer Nature
Switzerland AG 2022

Y. Kirkgöz, A. Karakaş (eds.), *English as the Medium of Instruction in Turkish Higher Education*, Multilingual Education 40,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-88597-7_2

1 Introduction

As English continues to be a global language and a major linguistic actor in the ongoing waves of globalization, it has been positioned as a linguistic flag and a neoliberal euphemism for *marketization*, *privatization*, and *internationalization* of education at all levels (Chowdhury & Phan, 2014). As a manifestation of this ongoing and global trend, we have been witnessing the proliferation of English, particularly in non-Anglophone educational contexts, in various forms and approaches, including EMI (Macaro et al., 2018). Even though there are a plethora of definitions of and discussions around the term,¹ it is commonly accepted as “the use of the English language to teach academic subjects (other than English itself) in countries or jurisdictions where the first language of the majority of the population is not English” (Macaro et al., 2018, p. 37). Today, EMI is adopted in various forms (see Macaro et al., 2019 for a discussion on language- and content-end continuum), degrees (course, programmatic or institutional levels), in primary, secondary (Eurydice Report, 2006) and tertiary levels (e.g., Wächter & Maiworm, 2014) all around the world from Europe (e., g. Erling & Hilgendorf, 2006) to Asia (e.g. Galloway et al., 2020). Collectively, these recent developments make EMI a *glocal* (symbiotically global and local) phenomenon—a phenomenon prevalent around the *globe* with a wide variety of impacts, manifestations, and implications for the *local* context.

Parallel to the unprecedented expansion of the EMI and related practices in diverse teaching contexts, scholars around the globe began to investigate various issues surrounding this phenomenon and its implications for various stakeholders. Therefore, we witness tremendous growth in moving towards a comprehensive understanding of this phenomenon in such areas as follows:

- students’ beliefs (e.g., Karakaş, 2016; Kırkgöz, 2014, 2018) and instructors’ beliefs (e.g., Başibek et al., 2014; Earls, 2016; Jensen & Thøgersen, 2011; Kılıçkaya, 2006)
- language proficiency of students (e.g., Kim & Shin, 2014) and instructors (e.g., Macaro, 2018; West et al., 2015)
- language(s) in the classroom (e.g., Karakaş, 2016, 2019; Kirkpatrick, 2014; Macaro, 2020)
- country-specific or areal policy reviews (e.g., Graham & Eslami, 2019; Selvi, 2014)
- critiques of EMI implementations (e.g., Ferguson, 2013; Shohamy, 2012)

¹It should be acknowledged that the fluidity of the EMI concept in various contexts with idiosyncratic realities and dynamics brings about a myriad of definitions and points of considerations. Interested readers may refer to Fenton-Smith et al. (2017), Macaro (2018), and Pecorari and Malmström (2018) for conceptual discussions on the problematization of the term. The operational definition adopted in this paper, however, aims to orient the reader with a preliminary scope and understanding of the concept.

- impact on English language development (e.g., Galloway et al., 2017; Rogier, 2012) and content learning (e.g., Hellekjaer, 2010)
- impact on the home language and culture (e.g., Jenkins, 2014; Kirkpatrick & Liddicoat, 2017)
- quality assurance, accreditation, and certification (e.g., Kirkgöz, 2019; Macaro et al., 2020; Staub, 2019)
- sociolinguistic ramifications on identity (e.g., Jahan & Hamid, 2019; Selvi, 2020)

Collectively, these studies scrutinizing different aspects of the EMI phenomenon and EMI implementations are a testament to the burgeoning of this promising line of inquiry for researchers as well as attest to the importance and multifaceted nature of this phenomenon for various stakeholders, including students, instructors, educational institutions, policymakers, and governments.

The rapid, uncontrolled, and largely unplanned growth of English around the world since the 1950s has brought about an unprecedented demand for the English language, and instrumental and integrative motivations to gain new skills and perceived “linguistic capital” (Bourdieu, 1991) associated with the English language (e.g., professional entry requirements, career opportunities, higher-status, etc.). Therefore, governments and educational institutions at various levels began to devise new modes and adopt new models to cater to this widespread need. As a result, “E”MI programs, especially in non-Anglophone *markets*, are strategically *positioned, advertised, and marketed* as a gateway to “linguistic capital” and towards a better, more prestigious, higher-status, elite, upwardly-mobile future (Kirkpatrick, 2011). On the one end of the spectrum, the proponents of EMI practices often underscore such benefits as promoting academic internationalization, attracting international students, boosting learning both in linguistic and content domains, creating opportunities for staff and student mobility, widespread availability of instructional and research materials, and greater employability (see Coleman, 2006 for a summary). On the other hand, critiques base their concerns on the divisive nature of EMI (e.g., exacerbating existing sociolinguistic inequalities, forming social elites based on English language proficiency), negative impacts on the local language, culture, identity, and even social structure (see Macaro et al., 2018 for a summary). When arguments coming from both ends of the spectrum are taken into considerations, it becomes even more obvious that EMI is a controversial issue operating at the nexus of educational, linguistic, political, economic, and social strata. Thus, the complexity of making sense of the EMI phenomenon and EMI practices necessitate a closer and more comprehensive look at the local context.

With that preamble, the current chapter opens with an historical portrayal of the linguistic landscape of the island in several periods ranging from the pre-Ottoman periods to the present day. The discussion largely focuses on the local EMI landscape in Northern Cyprus, predominantly in K-12 and higher education. The remainder of the chapter draws upon from a third-leg of a symposium series, focusing on EMI policies and practices in higher education. The chapter has strategically focused on the findings from the local symposium in Northern Cyprus for several reasons. Contextually, Northern Cyprus is a relatively understudied/underexplored

context in the growing EMI literature around the world. Conceptually, the symposium brings together main stakeholders whose voices are the loudest (e.g., EMI instructors, students, instructors of academic English) and those whose voices are unheard in EMI environments (e.g., Ministry of National Education officials, YÖDAK members, and university presidents). Methodologically, the chapter draws upon the symposium report as a principal data source for analysis since the growing EMI literature around the world predominantly uses surveys/questionnaires and interviews as methodological apparatuses. The chapter ends with a conclusion synthesizing the discussion and pointing out some future directions serving as a roadmap for the future of the EMI policies and practices in the local context.

2 EMI in the Local Context: A Brief Look at Northern Cyprus

The present-day interest in, demand for, and access to English and EMI practices in Northern Cyprus exhibit completely different characteristics when considering its historical, political, and sociolinguistic trajectory over the past couple of centuries. The island of Cyprus is at the intersections of three continents (Europe, Africa, and Asia), many civilizations (Mycenaeans, Phoenician, Assyrian, Venetian, Ottoman, and British, just to name a few), and political disputes between Greek and Turkish Cypriots—the two major ethnolinguistic communities on the island. Over the years, the power dynamics on the island have shifted, and the administrative changes brought about important implications on the local language policies and educational practices.

The island was conquered and ruled by the Ottoman Empire for three centuries (1571–1878) before it became first a British protectorate (1878–1914) and eventually a Crown colony (1914–1960). The transference of administrative rights from the Venetians to the Ottomans brought Ottoman Turkish to the island in *official language* status. During the final years of the Ottoman rule, coinciding with the *Tanzimat* (Reorganization) era, Western languages, such as English and French, began to appear as subject matter in local educational curricula.

In British Cyprus, English, alongside Greek and Turkish, held an official language status and occupied a linguistic role in formal/official settings (especially with British officials) and served as a *lingua franca* between Turks and Greeks, when necessary (Arkin, 2013), even though its sphere of influence was rather limited (Persianis, 1978). The English School (also known as *Αγγλική Σχολή* or *İngiliz Okulu*) founded by an Anglican clergyman, Canon Frank Darvall Newham, in Nicosia in 1900, *Viktorya İnas Sanayi Mektebi* (Victoria Girls High School) founded in 1901 in Nicosia, *Omorfo Öğretmen Koleji* (Morphou Teachers' College) founded in 1937 in Morphou/Güzelyurt, and *Şekspir Mektebi* (The Shakespeare School) founded by Nejmi Sagıp Bodamyalızade in 1943 in Nicosia were prime examples of English-medium schools during this time (Vancı Osam, 2019). These schools

served as stepping stones to instrumental benefits, privileges, and job prospects at governmental institutions (Demirciler, 2003; Feridun, 2000). It could be argued that this period is characterized by the emergence of a multilingual/multicultural trend in education (Pehlivan, 2018).

The establishment of the Republic of Cyprus in 1960 also meant the establishment of Greek and Turkish as official languages of the country and the removal of English as an official language. Even though English lost its official status, it continued to exist as an important linguistic actor on the island. The intercommunal conflicts between Greek and Turkish Cypriots have escalated from 1963 onwards and solidified the divide between the people of Cyprus. During this time, Greeks and Turks designed and implemented their own educational curricula. Three Turkish Cypriot educators working at The English School, which remained in the Greek Cypriot-controlled southern Nicosia, established an English-medium institution, Kösklüçiftlik English School, in 1964 which was later called *İngiliz Koleji* (English College) in 1968 and eventually *Türk Maarif Koleji* (Turkish Education College) in 1973. The political upheaval and intercommunal strife on the island have exacerbated until Turkey's intervention in 1974, the formation of *Kıbrıs Türk Federe Devleti* (The Turkish Federated State of Cyprus) in 1975, establishment of *Kuzey Kıbrıs Türk Cumhuriyeti* (Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus, abbreviated as TRNC) after 8 years of failed peace negotiations between the Greek and Turkish Cypriot communities. More interestingly, these changes resulted in political, physical, ideological, and linguistic homogenization and partition for Turkish and Greek Cypriot communities living on the island.

Today, the island of Cyprus is a partitioned state constituted by the Republic of Cyprus (*Κυπριακή Δημοκρατία*), a European Union member state claiming *de jure* sovereignty over the entire island in the south, and Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (*Kuzey Kıbrıs Türk Cumhuriyeti*), an independent state recognized only by Turkey in the north. Therefore, while the former has Greek and Turkish as official languages, the latter adopt Turkish as an official language. Educational institutions at all levels (primary, secondary, and tertiary) provide English courses. Furthermore, selective public schools (e.g., Türk Maarif Koleji) and almost all private K-12 schools (e.g., The English School of Kyrenia, Necat British College, Near East College, and TED Northern Cyprus College, among others) adopt EMI.

Institutions of higher education have a special role and importance in the EMI landscape in Northern Cyprus and therefore deserve substantially greater attention. From a legal perspective, Article 36(3) of the TRNC Higher Education Law (2005) describes the government's position governing the medium of instruction at higher education institutions as follows:

Yükseköğretim kurumlarında öğretim dili İngilizcedir. Ancak mütevelli heyeti veya yöneticiler kurulunca belirlenen program/programlar ve/veya dersler, YÖDAK²'in onayı halinde, Türk dilinde ve/veya başka geçerli bir dilde de yürütülebilir. [The medium of instruction in

²Abbreviated as YÖDAK, *Yükseköğretim Planlama, Denetleme, Akreditasyon ve Koordinasyon Kurulu* (The Higher Education Planning, Evaluation, Accreditation, and Coordination Council) is a governmental body responsible for planning and regulating higher education in the country.

higher education institutions is English, However, with the approval of YÖDAK, the program/programs and/or courses determined by the Board of Trustees or Board of Directors could be offered in Turkish and/or any other valid language.] (translation by the author)

Together with tourism, higher education is labeled as “a leading sector,” extending economic growth and development in the local context (KEI, 2012). For this reason, government officials and promotional materials of these institutions often use the expression *üniversite adası* (a university island) when referring to Northern Cyprus (Baykan et al., 2018). The data provided by the *Kuzey Kıbrıs Türk Cumhuriyeti, Milli Eğitim ve Kültür Bakanlığı, Yüksek Öğretim ve Dış İlişkiler Dairesi Müdürlüğü* (Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus Ministry of National Education and Culture Directorate of Higher Education and Foreign Affairs), as summarized in Table 1, indicates that a total of 103,748 students are studying at one of the 21 institutions of higher education on the island (HEFA, n.d.). When broken down in terms of demographic backgrounds, about 12% (or 12,243) of the students are Turkish Cypriots, 48.5% (or 50,286) come from Turkey, and almost 40% of the students are international students coming from 140 countries around the world (HEFA, n.d.). Excluding Turkey from the picture, the top five countries providing international students are Nigeria, Jordan, Syria, Cameroon, and Iran (Ernur, 2019).

We have been witnessing an inexorable, staggering, and largely unplanned growth in the number of institutions providing higher education in Northern Cyprus (see Fig. 1 below). Especially in the last decade, the higher education landscape of the island has changed drastically and is characterized by privatization. In addition to 21 institutions, more than a dozen institutions are currently in different stages of establishment (Büke, 2019). However, as Ekici (2019) acknowledges, “the higher education in Northern Cyprus is largely supplied by profit-maximizing institutions, and the policymakers constantly refer to higher education as the ‘key economic sector’” (p. 232) as it leads to more employment opportunities, greater revenues for small businesses, more rental income. For this reason, policies and practices undergirding higher education in the local context are under heavy criticism for leading to the *commodification of education* and converting the north of the island into *ücretli üniversiteler cenneti* (private university heaven) (Maviş, 2013).

From a socio-educational perspective, Northern Cyprus has a unique status—Even though the total number of international students studying in Turkish universities (154,505) is more than three times higher than the students studying at Northern Cyprus universities (41,219), their ratio to the total number of students portrays a drastically different picture—40% in Northern Cyprus whereas only 2.5% in

Table 1 University students in Northern Cyprus in 2019 (HEFA, n.d.)

Origin	Number	Percentage (%)
Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus	12,243	11.80
Republic of Turkey	50,286	48.46
Other countries	41,219	39.72
TOTAL	103,748	100

The percentages do not add up to 100 due to rounding

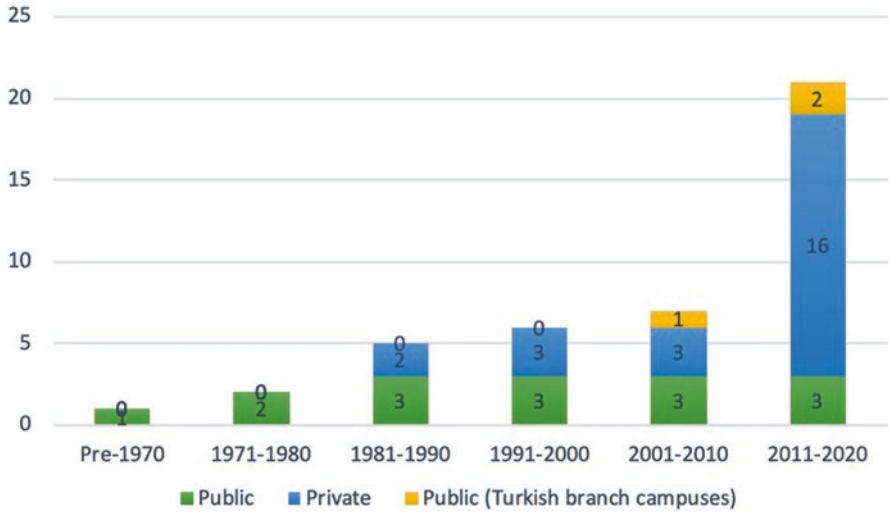


Fig. 1 The aggregate growth of higher education institutions in Northern Cyprus

Turkey. A natural consequence of these numbers is campuses and cities with multi-lingual and multicultural vibes. Therefore, English stands out not just as a lingua franca in communication but also as an academic lingua franca and a practical choice as a medium of communication. In sum, both demographic figures (quantitatively) and ethnolinguistic diversity among international students (qualitatively) underscore the importance of English as a medium of communication and instruction within and beyond university campuses in Northern Cyprus.

3 The EMI Symposium in Northern Cyprus

Back in 2018, a symposium series, entitled *Üniversitelerde İngilizcenin Eğitim Dili Olarak Kullanımı: Bütüncül Bir Yaklaşım* (English-medium instruction at institutions of higher education: A holistic approach), has been initiated in response to the pressing needs and issues surrounding the EMI phenomenon and practices facing a wide variety of EMI stakeholders in higher education. The inaugural symposium was held in İstanbul (in collaboration with Boğaziçi University and Kadir Has University in June 2018) and followed by an event in İzmir (organized by İzmir University of Economics in October 2018). The third and the penultimate event, before the culminating nation-wide meeting hosted by Middle East Technical University (METU) in Ankara in April 2019, focused on the context of Northern Cyprus. Organized in close cooperation between METU Northern Cyprus Campus and Eastern Mediterranean University, the one-day symposium was held in Turkish at Eastern Mediterranean University in Famagusta, Northern Cyprus, in November 2018.

The symposium in Northern Cyprus brought together key stakeholders involved in the EMI processes (e.g., EMI instructors, students, instructors of academic English) as well as those high-profile stakeholders that are important yet often absent from the mainstream discussions and literature (e.g., Ministry of National Education officials, YÖDAK members, and university presidents). The symposium was organized in three major sections:

1. **The administrators' panel session**, entitled “the role and importance of EMI in institutions of higher education in Northern Cyprus,” bringing together high-profile stakeholders (e.g., university presidents/vice presidents and senior-level governmental policymakers),
2. **The practitioners' panel session**, entitled “the problems encountered in programs offering EMI in institutions of higher education in Northern Cyprus,” bringing together various stakeholders within institutions of higher education, and
3. **Breakout sessions**, entitled “the problems encountered by and suggestions for improvement for instructors offering courses in English as a medium of instruction programs,” bringing together various stakeholders in EMI environments.

3.1 The Administrators Panel Session

High-profile discussants in the first panel session focused on English language teaching and EMI practices in Northern Cyprus and contextualized their discussion in two major areas: (1) the local sociopolitical, historical, linguistic, and geopolitical dynamics creating Northern Cyprus as a unique case in EMI practices, and (2) language policies and language of science in higher education (Vancı Osam et al., 2019).

First, focusing on the historical trajectory of English and EMI practices in the local context presents Northern Cyprus and Turkey as interrelated yet distinct cases. The emergence of English and EMI practices in Turkey could be viewed as a consequence of waves of globalization, internationalization, and global competitiveness. However, English in (Northern) Cyprus has an undeniable role and importance in the historical consciousness, individual and collective memory, educational curricula, and even daily life. The traces of English in British Cyprus (e.g., loyalty to the British Crown, English language skills serving as a gateway for tertiary education in Britain, financial gains and losses for governmental employees based on linguistic skills) influenced the constant restructuring of the island as it transitioned from the British colony to a republic and eventually a political stalemate (e.g., teacher training institutes, EMI practices in public and private K-12 institutions, and giving EMI a legal status by the Higher Education Law). These historical factors eventually enabled local policymakers to strategically position institutions of higher education as highly attractive options for international students. Thus, the number of international students (excluding Turkey) has increased more than tenfold (3813 in

2009 to 41,219 in 2019) (Karabaş, 2015). Furthermore, despite the exponential quantitative growth in international students and EMI institutions (especially private institutions), the qualitative effectiveness of instructional practices at EMI institutions is still questionable. Today, nearly 6000 faculty members (2578 from TRNC, 2195 from Turkey, and 982 from 90 different countries) working in 21 institutions of higher education in Northern Cyprus (Ernur, 2019). Therefore, there is definitely a clear need to support EMI instructors in their day-to-day interactions with the growing student body.

Next, panelists focused on policies concerning the language of instruction and science in institutions of higher education. They referred to EMI as a strategic decision conducive to the sociolinguistic and educational trajectory on the island. On the other hand, participants also acknowledged that this strategic decision comes with a set of consequences—valuing English over other languages (including the local language(s)), contributing to the idea of lessening the importance of local language(s) as a medium of instruction and language of science, influencing the national identity through English as an academic lingua franca. Furthermore, discussants suggested that presenting Northern Cyprus as a *university island* is nothing but a misnomer since this hollow nomenclature only serves to underscore the quantitative increase over the years and perpetuating the widespread perception that universities are established as backbones of the *higher education sector*, bringing *financial revenue* to the country. Instead, the participants agreed that the primary motivation behind the establishment of higher education should be the advancement of science. Finally, senior-level administrators and policymakers voiced the language question surrounding the EMI practices and highlighted the critical importance of high-quality language teaching practices in K-12 (and offered suggestions of such models as sheltered instruction and content and language-integrated instruction) in promoting EMI implementations at the tertiary level.

3.2 *Practitioners Panel Session*

The second panel session brought together various stakeholders at the forefront of EMI practices in the local context, namely EMI instructors (both social science and engineering), administrators in schools of foreign languages, and undergraduate students taking EMI courses (Vancı Osam et al., 2019).

Students in the panel listed the problems that they faced as follows: the expectation of completing English preparatory school at a relatively fast pace, the difficulty in handling the linguistic and subject-matter demands in the early years of the program, and lack of continued support mechanisms geared towards EMI. Responding to the concerns raised by the students, EMI instructors recognized the extension of undergraduate-level courses to promote students' language development, especially in their areas of specialization. They also recognized the vitality of greater collaborative and concerted efforts between academic programs and schools of foreign

languages. In the long-term, EMI instructors agreed upon the post-graduate benefits of these programs (e.g., wider employment opportunities, greater professional network). In the short term, they believed that EMI practices necessitate a novel approach in terms of instructional design, materials, and practices, both within and beyond the classroom. Finally, panelists argued that the EMI processes and products should be validated by internal and external quality control and assurance mechanisms such as self-appraisals and program accreditations.

Even though EMI environments primarily consist of instructors and students, language instructors (both within the intensive English programs before students begin their studies as well as within modern language programs throughout their academic programs) are largely invisible and overlooked yet important actors in the EMI landscape in higher education. Considering the fact that a great majority of the students come to EMI environments with an established linguistic background in their home languages, instructors in the panel recognized the difficulty that students face in handling both linguistic and subject matter demands in EMI courses. Furthermore, they suggested that the existing *one-year pre-undergraduate intensive academic English program* model is largely inadequate in subject-specific demands in the English language. Instructors of English also raised their concerns with regards to their students' productive language skills (especially in speaking) and acknowledged the importance of the language beyond academic programs and in ensuring multilingual and multicultural campus environments.

In courses where students in EMI courses face difficulties with comprehending the language, and thus subject matter, instructors need to adopt strategies to scaffold their instruction—teaching at a slower pace, making content more accessible and comprehensible by using concept maps and audiovisual materials, using signposts, recycling of the content in a meaningful manner, writing technical keywords on the board or projecting on a slide, and conducting the individual sessions in smaller yet meaningful chunks involving pair and group work divided by different forms of assessment ensuring comprehension (Arkin, 2013). Furthermore, technology-supported approaches (e.g., video recordings of the course materials, blended or flipped learning applications) could be adopted in these environments to maximize student learning. Similarly, in courses where the EMI instructor faces linguistic and instructional difficulties, solutions may include but not limited to providing in-service training for EMI instructors that value comprehensibility and fluency over obsessions with native accent and accuracy, spending more time and energy in course planning, and maintaining a constructive communication channel with the course participants.

3.3 Breakout Sessions

In this segment of the symposium, a total of 5 working groups (each of which consisting of 5–7 participants representing various stakeholders in EMI practices) were established around a hypothetical yet plausible scenario related to EMI

implementations in institutions of higher education (Vancı Osam et al., 2019). Each of these working groups discussed these scenarios and expected to generate a set of solutions under three major categories, namely (1) preventive solutions, (2) immediate solutions (in the classroom), and (3) corrective and improvement solutions. After the initial discussions that lasted for 30–35 min, the group spokesperson for each group presented their groups' viewpoints and solutions³ in a 5–8-min presentation to the entire symposium attendees. Table 2 below summarizes the solutions in hypothetical EMI scenarios generated by various working groups that participated in the symposium.

4 Conclusion and Future Directions

Referred to as “an unstoppable train which has already left the station” (Macaro et al., 2019, p. 232), the EMI phenomenon, as well as practices, environments and their ramifications, will continue to be at the center of discussions, debates, and even critical engagements. Therefore, developing a critical, comprehensive, and multifaceted look at EMI involving multiple stakeholders will certainly be a worthwhile endeavor at individual, instructional, administrative, institutional, and societal levels. This is a particularly important step in the context of Northern Cyprus, where EMI practices (especially in higher education) are strategically situated at the crux of internationalization in an unrecognized state.

The local higher education landscape in Northern Cyprus is characterized by a set of entangled and contradictory discourses. On the one hand, higher education is seen as a form of “student tourism” (Katırcıoğlu, 2010), mostly privatized and regulated by business families, and creating major thrust in employment as well as in the service sector, which collectively accounts for roughly 40% of the local economy (Mehtap-Smadi & Hashemipour, 2011). On the other hand, the grandiose mission to become a hub for higher education serves as a resilient border-crossing attempt to destabilize its current political status and its ramifications (e.g., restrictions, embargoes, isolations) and connecting the Turkish Cypriot community with the world (Koldaş et al., 2018). Interestingly, in both sets of discourses, EMI practices stand out as an indispensable aspect of the picture and hence the local higher education landscape. However, since EMI is a highly controversial phenomenon placing individuals and institutions at different positions on the ideological spectrum, it is imperative to begin the reflection process by concretizing the rationale behind this choice and addressing the *why?* question in EMI practices. This is particularly important since “many of these EMI programs have been established without any real planning or thought for the potential implications” (Macaro et al., 2019, p. 237).

³It should be noted that the suggestions presented in this section were developed by a diverse group of EMI stakeholders with varying degrees of experience, expertise, involvement in and commitment to EMI processes, and therefore, should be treated with some caution.

Table 2 Preventive, immediate, and corrective and improvement solutions in hypothetical EMI scenarios developed by the symposium attendees

Scenarios	Preventive solutions	Immediate solutions	Corrective and improvement solutions
(1) EMI instructor with high competence in subject matter yet limited competence in English	Awareness raising and promoting linguistic competence in Ph.D. programs EMI competence to be included in employment processes (e.g., EMI teaching demo, EMI certification) Certification training for those lacking competence	Peer support from a colleague with EMI experience and expertise in the same program Reviewing course materials prior to teaching Implementing novel instructional models (e.g., flipped learning, promoting autonomous learning)	Intensive in-service training offered by the institution Developing an action plan between the employer (university) and the employee (instructor) Establishment of an EMI center at the institution of higher education to provide in-service training
(2) EMI instructor with high competence in English and subject matter yet has a heterogeneous group of students in terms of language skills	During the instruction Using audiovisual materials to boost comprehension Encouraging group work by creating heterogeneous working groups Instructional planning of activities to serve as a bridge between what students already know and what they will learn After the instruction Using visually enhanced concept mapping Implementing novel instructional models (e.g., flipped learning)	Making instructional input more comprehensible Toning down the instructional pace Maintaining a constant feedback channel with the students Increasing comprehension by personalized examples Diversifying working groups (e.g., individual, peer, small group, seminar)	Identifying the linguistic needs of the students in EMI programs and developing a roadmap to meet them Promoting collaborative endeavors between EMI instructors and instructors of academic English to meet the linguistic needs of the students in EMI programs

(continued)

Table 2 (continued)

Scenarios	Preventive solutions	Immediate solutions	Corrective and improvement solutions
(3) Both the EMI instructor and the students with limited competence in English	<p>For instructors: Revising the hiring processes to be more sensitive to assessing EMI instructors' general language proficiency (using internationally-recognized tests such as TOEFL, IELTS, PTE, etc.) and actual use of language skills in instruction (through a model EMI demo lesson) Offering a course on the "Pedagogy of EMI" for instructors with no background in education yet currently employed by the institution of higher education For students: Extending the instructional hours allocated to language development Increasing the minimum scores in language proficiency exams to begin EMI programs</p>	<p>For instructors: Offering an intensive "EMI awareness and support" training encompassing linguistic and instructional approaches For students: Offering training on study skills concretized by a cooperative model such as a peer support mechanism</p>	<p>Systematic monitoring of their development and needs at regular intervals Providing institutional support to the instructors offering EMI courses to enhance their effectiveness (in such domains as linguistic competence, instructional language use, approaches and techniques adopted in instruction, development of high-quality instructional materials, among others) Conducting formative and summative appraisals of development through student, peer, and mentor evaluations Institutionalizing the EMI processes and support mechanisms Offering continuous and individualized language support for students in EMI programs</p>
(4) EMI instructor with high competence in English but no experience teaching in English	<p>Revising the hiring processes to be more sensitive to assessing EMI instructors' general language proficiency (using internationally-recognized tests such as TOEFL, IELTS, PTE, etc.) and actual use of language skills in instruction (through a model EMI demo lesson)</p>	<p>Creating opportunities for self-reflection (through video recording) Receiving support from peers with greater experience and expertise (working in the same or different programs), students (with whom they work), and English language instructors (especially on developing effective instructional materials and delivery)</p>	<p>Adopting a holistic and multi-stakeholder model in improving EMI processes (peer mentoring, support by language specialists, institutional support mechanisms)</p>

(continued)

Table 2 (continued)

Scenarios	Preventive solutions	Immediate solutions	Corrective and improvement solutions
(5) EMI instructor with high competence in and teaching in English but having difficulty in managing a multicultural environment	Emphasizing the importance of establishing rapport with course participants (getting to know students, developing greater awareness about their backgrounds, cultures, beliefs, socio-academic motivations) and extracurricular activities promoting harmony, intercultural sensitivity, and inclusivity (e.g., international student festival)	Supporting small- and group work to minimize ethnic and cultural differences Foregrounding global or international examples in EMI courses Enhancing the accessibility of instruction by adopting a slower pace, more audiovisual materials, and novel instructional models (e.g., hybrid or flipped learning)	Generating institutionalized mechanisms and solutions to support students in EMI programs and institutions (e.g., Teaching and Learning Center) Improving the physical infrastructure of the institution enabling the implementation of various instructional strategies Supporting EMI instructors in developing instructional materials conducive to the multicultural student profile Supporting students through orientations, awareness training, peer and individualized support

Concretizing EMI as a strategic decision in the local context should encourage stakeholders to justify their intentional and rational decisions contextualized in the socio-educational, linguistic, and political dynamics and trajectories in societies therein. More specifically, EMI-related decisions should be informed by needs, necessities, and aspirations rather than hasty moves joining the bandwagon and connecting the dots between EMI and neoliberal discourses—propagating pseudo-internationalization through Englishization, viewing students as customers and sources of revenue, using multiculturalism and multilingualism as euphemisms for EMI, prioritizing institutional and national economic revenues over the quality of education, and fetishizing with institutional rankings and performance indicators (e.g., university rankings, frameworks, etc.).

The falling of this first, biggest, and most important domino piece will knock the rest down—informing the subsequent decisions, actors, processes, environments, and mechanisms, which may all be summarized as the *how?* question. EMI, as a strategic decision, needs a comprehensive and consistent response evident in every aspect of an educational institution, anything from instructional practices to hiring processes. More specifically, it will be very helpful in adopting a framework undergirding the EMI practices, defining goals in the subject matter and English (vis-à-vis other languages in the local linguistic ecology), determining affordances and

constraints in the successful implementation of EMI, and devising support mechanisms throughout the entire process. In social and educational contexts such as Northern Cyprus, where EMI is the norm rather than the exception, and English is used as an intranational lingua franca in multilingual/multicultural campuses and cities, the role, and importance of English transcends EMI classes and permeates into all spheres of life. Moreover, this is an important step towards a more concerted, systematic and comprehensive response involving both visible and invisible stakeholders involved in EMI implementations, which, as Macaro et al. (2019) remind us, is traditionally “‘dumped’ on the faculty and students with little consultation, preparation, and compensation (Hamid & Nguyen, 2016)” (p. 235). EMI practices need to be strategically recognized, carefully planned, and systematically controlled by respective institutions of higher education, as well as with some support by the national council of higher education and internationally recognized independent bodies of accreditation.

Even though answering both, *why?* and *how?* questions are helpful, they are far from being the entire picture. As a controversial phenomenon situated at the nexus of educational, ideological, sociolinguistic, economic and social strata of societies, EMI as a strategic decision brings about a set of implications at individual, instructional, administrative, institutional, and societal levels, which may be summarized in *what (does it mean for)?* question. More specifically, stakeholders involved in this endeavor need to answer the questions, including but not limited to, the following:

- What are the principles and policies undergirding language(s) in the local linguistic-cultural ecology? To what extent is EMI congruent with these policies?
- What are the micro- (individual stakeholders), meso- (institutional), and macro-level (national) attitudes towards EMI practices?
- Are EMI stakeholders on board with this model? Do we have substantial empirical evidence about their predispositions?
- What do EMI implementations mean for the home language(s) in the local linguistic-cultural ecology? How does it reconfigure the symbolic and instrumental values ascribed to English and languages other than English as a medium of communication, instruction, and science?
- What are the affordances and challenges (to be) faced in the successful implementation of EMI practices?
- Do EMI practitioners come to these environments having received proper professional development geared towards the unique needs of this context? Also, do they continue receiving training and support throughout their instructional experience? Are there tools, mechanisms, structures, resources (physical, human, etc.) in place to maintain these processes?
- Do students come to these environments having received information about the needs and expectations of this context? Also, do they receive training and support throughout their academic programs? Are there tools, mechanisms, structures, resources (physical, human, etc.) in place to maintain these processes?

As a discursive field of neoliberalism, globalization, and human capital (Pennycook, 2016), the “E” (English) in EMI will continue to be both the product and process of ongoing negotiation and reconstruction of identities and complexities embedded therein (Selvi, 2020). From an EMI perspective, Northern Cyprus presents an interesting case with its own idiosyncrasies and contradictions. Even though the remnants of its colonial past are somewhat indistinct today, the historical presence of English as a colonial language alongside local languages (Greek and Turkish, as well as others) has trickled down to societal and educational levels and remained stable in a context of instability over the last century. From a societal point of view, Turkish Cypriot diaspora living in the UK and other English-speaking countries (e.g., the US, Australia, Canada), British expatriate community living on the island, the utilization of English as a lingua franca between Turkish and Greek Cypriots as well as with others coming from different ethnolinguistic backgrounds on the island all contributed to forging and sustaining ties with the English language. From an educational point of view, English managed to maintain its stature in all levels of education—the importance attached to English instruction in the entire K-12 level, the promotion of EMI practices in selective public and private K-12 institutions, and attributing a legal status to EMI in higher education. From a sociopolitical perspective, Northern Cyprus finds itself in a constant transformation as a country whose identity pulled in different directions—stuck between *independent* and *not recognized by international law*, defined through such metaphors as *yavru vatan* (baby motherland) or even *besleme* (servant) by some Turks and as *μικρή-πατρίδα* (our small land) by Greeks, and marginalized in power-sharing arrangements by being labeled as “minority” by their Greek counterparts. Overwhelmed by political isolation and economic sanctions paving the way to deepening the economic and political ties and dependence on Turkey, Northern Cyprus sought new economic spaces for advancement. The dearth of a systematic approach to language and language-in-education policies and planning, and neoliberal economic policies packaged in terms of *internationalization* and instrumentalized in *Englishization* and *EMI* have collectively contributed to the treatment of higher education as an indisputable backbone of the local economy in the last couple of decades. As a result, we have been witnessing hasty, largely unplanned, loosely controlled and regulated, volatile and rather unstable EMI implementations in higher education, bringing short-term financial benefits for the local economy while damaging the EMI phenomenon *per se*, commodifying education, and denigrating the reputation of Northern Cyprus and the institutions of higher education therein.

The one-day EMI symposium in November 2018 was a first and concrete step towards externalizing the opportunities, challenges, and controversies surrounding the local EMI implementations in the local institutions of higher education. The holistic approach bringing together various stakeholders sharing the same common denominator should serve as a viable model for future discussions. The development of a systematic approach to the local EMI landscape necessitates identification fulfillment and constant improvement of principles, resources, processes, practices,

support mechanisms throughout the entire process. Only then we can begin talking about the importance of EMI as a strategic decision for institutions of higher education.

References

- Arkin, İ. E. (2013). *English-medium instruction in higher education: A case study in a Turkish university context*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Eastern Mediterranean University, Famagusta, Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus.
- Başıbek, N., Dolmacı, M., Cengiz, B. C., Bür, B., Dilek, Y., & Kara, B. (2014). Lecturers' perceptions of English medium instruction at engineering departments of tertiary level education: A study on partial English medium instruction at some state universities in Turkey. *Procedia—Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 116, 1819–1825. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.01.477>
- Baykan, H., Altınay, F., Eyüboğlu, Ş. Z., & Altınay, Z. (2018). An evaluation of higher education sector to the economy. *Quality & Quantity: International Journal of Methodology*, 52(1), 59–65. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11135-017-0587-3>
- Bourdieu, P. (1991). *Language and symbolic power*. Polity Press.
- Büke, A. (2019). *KKTC yükseköğretimi dün, bugün ve yarın* [Yesterday, today and tomorrow of higher education in TRNC]. Retrieved from <https://yodak.gov.ct.tr/Portals/111/KKTC%20Yuksekogretim.pptx?ver=2019-08-22-144601-133>
- Chowdhury, R., & Phan, L. H. (2014). *Desiring TESOL and international education: Market abuse and exploitation*. Multilingual Matters. <https://doi.org/10.21832/9781783091492>
- Coleman, J. A. (2006). English-medium teaching in European higher education. *Language Teaching*, 39(1), 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.1017/s026144480600320x>
- Demirciler, G. (2003). *Turkish Cypriots' attitudes towards English*. Unpublished master's thesis. Eastern Mediterranean University, Famagusta, Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus.
- Earls, C. W. (2016). *Evolving agendas in European English-medium higher education: Interculturality, multilingualism and language policy*. Palgrave. <https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137543127>
- Ekici, T. (2019). *The political and economic history of North Cyprus: A discordant polity*. Palgrave Macmillan. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-13479-2>
- Erling, E. J., & Hilgendorf, S. K. (2006). Language policies in the context of German higher education. *Language Policy*, 5(3), 267–293. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10993-006-9026-3>
- Ernur, E. (2019, December 17). 140 ülkeden, 41 bin 219 yabancı öğrencimiz var [We have 41,219 international students from 140 countries]. *Kıbrıs Gazetesi/Cyprus Daily*. Retrieved from <https://www.kibrisgazetesi.com/kibris/140-ulkeden-41-bin-219-yabanci-ogrencimiz-var-h79334.html>
- Eurydice Report. (2006). *Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) at school in Europe*. Eurydice European Unit. Retrieved from <https://op.europa.eu/en/publication-detail/-/publication/756ebdaa-f694-44e4-8409-21eef02c9b9b>
- Fenton-Smith, B., Humphries, P., & Walkinshaw, I. (2017). *English medium instruction in higher education in Asia Pacific: From policy to pedagogy*. Springer. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-51976-0>
- Ferguson, G. (2013). The language of instruction issue: Reality, aspiration and the wider context. In H. McIlwraith (Ed.), *Multilingual education in Africa: Lessons from the Juba language-in-education conference* (pp. 17–22). British Council.
- Feridun, H. (2000). *Eğitimle bir ömür* [A lifetime with education]. Boğaziçi Yayınları.
- Galloway, N., Kriukow, J., & Numajiri, T. (2017). *Internationalisation, higher education and the growing demand for English: An investigation into the English medium of instruction (EMI) movement in China and Japan*. British Council. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781351184335-9>

- Galloway, N., Numajiri, T., & Rees, N. (2020). The 'internationalisation', or 'Englishisation', of higher education in East Asia. *Higher Education*, 80, 395–414. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-019-00486-1>
- Graham, K. M., & Eslami, Z. R. (2019). Attitudes toward EMI in East Asia and the Gulf: A systematic review. *Language Problems and Language Planning*, 43(1), 8–31. <https://doi.org/10.1075/lplp.00030.gra>
- Hamid, M. O., & Nguyen, V. H. (2016). Globalization, English language policy and teacher agency, focus on Asia. *International Education Journal: Comparative Perspectives*, 15(1), 26–44.
- HEFA. (n.d.). 2018–2019 ve 2019–2020 akademik yılları toplam öğrenci sayılarının uyuşuklara göre dağılım tabloları [The distribution tables of number of students in 2018–2019 and 2019–2020 academic years]. Retrieved from https://yobis.mebnet.net/Downloads/Istatistikler/KKTC_%C3%9Cniversiteleri_%C4%B0statistikleri/20192020/2018-2019_ToT_Nat.pdf
- Hellekjaer, G. O. (2010). Language matters assessing lecture comprehension in Norwegian English-medium higher education. In C. Dalton-Puffer, T. Nikula, & U. Smit (Eds.), *Language use in Content-and-Language-Integrated Learning (CLIL) classrooms* (pp. 233–258). John Benjamins.
- Jahan, I., & Hamid, O. (2019). English as a medium of instruction and the discursive construction of elite identity. *Journal of SocioLinguistics*, 23(4), 386–408. <https://doi.org/10.1111/josl.12360>
- Jenkins, J. (2014). *English as a lingua franca in the international university: The politics of academic English language policy*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203798157>
- Jensen, C. D., & Thøgersen, J. (2011). Danish university lecturers' attitudes towards English as the medium of instruction. *Ibérica*, 22, 13–34.
- Karabaş, E. (2015). *KKTC yükseköğretim sektör stratejisi* [Strategy of higher education sector in TRNC]. Unpublished master's thesis. Eastern Mediterranean University, Famagusta, Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus.
- Karakaş, A. (2016). Turkish lecturers' views on the place of mother tongue in the teaching of content courses through English medium. *Asian Englishes*, 18(3), 242–257. <https://doi.org/10.1080/013488678.2016.1229831>
- Karakaş, A. (2019). A critical look at the phenomenon of 'a mixed-up use of Turkish and English' in English-medium instruction universities in Turkey. *Journal of Higher Education and Science/Yükseköğretim ve Bilim Dergisi*, 9(2), 205–215. <https://doi.org/10.5961/jhes.2019.322>
- Katırcıoğlu, S. T. (2010). International tourism, higher education, and economic growth: The case of North Cyprus. *The World Economy*, 33, 1955–1972. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9701.2010.01304.x>
- KEI. (2012). *KKTC yükseköğretim strateji ve eylem planı önerisi* [TRNC higher education strategies and action plan suggestion]. Retrieved from <http://www.kei.gov.tr/>
- Kılıçkaya, F. (2006). Instructors' attitudes towards English-medium instruction in Turkey. *Humanising Language Teaching*, 8(6), 1–16.
- Kim, E. G., & Shin, A. (2014). Seeking an effective program to improve communication skills of non-English-speaking graduate Engineering students: The case of a Korean Engineering school. *IEEE Transactions on Professional Communication*, 57(1), 41–55. <https://doi.org/10.1109/tpc.2014.2310784>
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2014). Students' perceptions of English language versus Turkish language used as the medium of instruction in higher education in Turkey. *Turkish Studies*, 9(12), 443–459.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2018). Confronting similar challenges?: Exploring students' experiences of studying engineering at a Turkish university: Turkish versus English-language medium of instruction. *Rassegna Italiana di Linguistica Applicata*, 2–3, 145–160.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2019). Investigating the growth of English-medium higher education in Turkey and the Middle East Region. In D. Staub (Ed.), *Quality assurance and accreditation in foreign language education* (pp. 9–20). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-21421-0_2

- Kirkpatrick, A. (2011). English as a medium of instruction in Asian education (from primary to tertiary): Implications for local languages and local scholarship. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 2, 99–120.
- Kirkpatrick, A. (2014). The language(s) of HE: EMI and/or ELF and/or multilingualism? *Asian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 1(1), 4–15.
- Kirkpatrick, A., & Liddicoat, A. (2017). Language education policy and practice in East and Southeast Asia. *Language Teaching*, 50(2), 155–188. <https://doi.org/10.1017/s0261444817000027>
- Koldaş, U., Tüzünkan, M., Ayaz, E., & Çıraklı, M. (2018). Branding and internationalization of higher education in an unrecognized state through sports: The Women basketball team of Near East University in Northern Cyprus. *Quality & Quantity*, 52, 725–735. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11135-017-0649-6>
- Macaro, E. (2018). *English medium instruction: Language and content in policy and practice*. Oxford University Press.
- Macaro, E. (2020). Exploring the role of language in English medium instruction. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 23(3), 263–276. <https://doi.org/10.1080/013670050.2019.1620678>
- Macaro, E., Curle, S., Pun, J., An, J., & Dearden, J. (2018). A systematic review of English: Medium instruction in higher education. *Language Teaching*, 51(1), 36–76. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444817000350>
- Macaro, E., Hultgren, A., Kirkpatrick, A., & Lasagabaster, D. (2019). English medium instruction: Global views and countries in focus: Introduction to the symposium held at the Department of Education, University of Oxford on Wednesday 4 November 2015. *Language Teaching*, 52(2), 231–248. <https://doi.org/10.1017/s0261444816000380>
- Macaro, E., Akincioğlu, M., & Han, S. (2020). English medium instruction in higher education: Teacher perspectives on professional development and certification. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 30, 144–157. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ijal.12272>
- Maviş, B. (2013). Kıbrıs diye bir ada varmış [There is apparently an island called Cyprus]. *Eleştirel Pedagoji/Critical Pedagogy*, 26, 15–19.
- Mehtap-Smadi, S., & Hashemipour, M. (2011). In pursuit of an international education destination: Reflections from a university in a small island state. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 15(5), 409–428. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315310365539>
- Pecorari, D., & Malmström, H. (2018). At the crossroads of TESOL and English medium instruction. *TESOL Quarterly*, 52(3), 497–515. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.470>
- Pehlivan, A. (2018). Medium of instruction policies: Turkish Cypriots and their reflections on instructional technologies. *EURASIA Journal of Mathematics, Science and Technology Education*, 14(5), 1683–1693. <https://doi.org/10.29333/ejmste/85107>
- Pennycook, A. (2016). Politics, power relationships and ELT. In G. Hall (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of English language teaching* (pp. 26–37). Routledge.
- Persianis, P. (1978). *Church and state in Cyprus education: The contribution of the Greek Orthodox church of Cyprus to Cyprus education during the British administration (1878–1960)*. Violaris Printing Works.
- Rogier, D. (2012). *The effect of English-medium instruction on language proficiency of students enrolled in higher education in the UAE*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. The University of Exeter, Exeter, UK.
- Selvi, A. F. (2014). The medium-of-instruction debate in Turkey: Oscillating between national ideas and bilingual ideals. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 15(2), 133–152. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14664208.2014.898357>
- Selvi, A. F. (2020). Resisting English medium instruction through digital grassroots activism. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2020.1724120>

- Shohamy, E. (2012). Linguistic landscapes and multilingualism. In M. Martin-Jones, A. Blackledge, & A. Creese (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of multilingualism* (pp. 538–551). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203154427.ch32>
- Staub, D. F. (2019). *Quality assurance and accreditation in foreign language education: Global issues, models, and best practices from the Middle East and Turkey*. Springer Nature.
- TRNC Higher Education Law. (2005). *Kuzey Kıbrıs Türk Cumhuriyeti yükseköğretim yasası* [Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus higher education law]. Retrieved from <http://www.meb-net.net/sites/default/files/yasalar/65-2005-2.pdf>
- Vancı Osam, Ü. (2019). Kıbrısta İngilizcenin yeri ve önemi [The role and importance of English in Cyprus]. In Ü. Vancı Osam, İ. E. Arkin, & A. F. Selvi (Eds.), *Üniversitelerde İngilizcenin eğitim dili olarak kullanımı: Bütüncül bir yaklaşım–iii. Sonuç raporu* [English medium instruction at institutions of higher education: A holistic approach-III. Final report] (pp. 6–16). Retrieved from <https://emi-sempozyum.emu.edu.tr/tr/PublishingImages/DAU%20EMI%20SEMPOZYUM%20RAPORU.pdf>
- Vancı Osam, Ü., Arkin, İ. E., & Selvi, A. F. (2019). *Üniversitelerde İngilizcenin eğitim dili olarak kullanımı: Bütüncül bir yaklaşım–iii. Sonuç raporu* [English medium instruction at institutions of higher education: A holistic approach-III. Final report]. Retrieved from <https://emi-sempozyum.emu.edu.tr/tr/PublishingImages/DAU%20EMI%20SEMPOZYUM%20RAPORU.pdf>
- Wächter, B., & Maiworm, F. (2014). *English-taught programmes in European higher education. The state of play in 2014*. Lemmens Medien GmbH.
- West, R., Güven, A., Parry, J., Ergenekon, T., Aşık, G., Aydın, İ., & Başışoş, S. (2015). *The state of English in higher education in Turkey*. TEPAV and British Council. https://www.britishcouncil.org.tr/sites/default/files/he_baseline_study_book_web_-_son.pdf

Reflections on English-Medium Instruction in Turkish Higher Education Institutions, Educational Quality and Insights from International Experience



Burcu Tezcan-Ünal and Diane Schmitt

Abstract This chapter will approach the concept of English-medium instruction (EMI) in Turkish higher education from the perspective of quality assurance and enhancement of teaching and learning in the academic programmes. Following the market driven global higher education trends, Turkey's signatory commitment to the Bologna Declaration in 2001 indicated its intention to provide a transparent, comparable and accountable higher education environment to enable student and staff mobility, which has increased the country's focus both on quality and EMI matters. Increasing acceptance of English as a global academic lingua franca and worldwide implementations of it as the instructional language at undergraduate and graduate levels in higher education institutions have brought challenges worldwide as well as in Turkey. While existing studies present valuable insights into the issue focusing on various aspects of EMI in higher education, they are largely inconclusive and/or lack the rigor to make generalised conclusions. Thus, rather than elaborating on the challenges that EMI has caused in Turkish academia, this chapter will focus on how challenges can become opportunities to enhance the quality of education in Turkish higher education institutions for both academics and students by providing recommendations derived from international experiences.

Keywords Turkish higher education · English-medium instruction · Quality development · Professional development · English language development continuum

B. Tezcan-Ünal (✉)
Zayed University, Dubai, UAE
e-mail: burcu.tezcan-unal@zu.ac.ae

D. Schmitt
Nottingham Trent University, Nottingham, UK

© The Author(s), under exclusive license to Springer Nature
Switzerland AG 2022

Y. Kirkgöz, A. Karakaş (eds.), *English as the Medium of Instruction in Turkish Higher Education*, Multilingual Education 40,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-88597-7_3

1 Introduction

This chapter will discuss two globally significant and essentially market-driven trends in higher education (HE) which have emerged as a consequence of globalisation: quality assurance and EMI, paying specific attention to Turkey. In recent decades, as a response to the growing public demand for higher education for economic and social mobility, countries worldwide have moved towards providing mass access to HE by significantly increasing the number of institutions in the university sector (Altbach et al., 2019). At the same time, more and more institutions in non-anglophone countries are using English as the medium to teach academic subjects as means to internationalise their universities, in order to keep pace with globalisation (Dearden, 2014). Both of these phenomena create challenges for determining and maintaining quality standards. These challenges include setting appropriate teaching and learning standards for an increasingly diverse student population and ensuring that universities have sufficient numbers of appropriately qualified staff (Altbach et al., 2019). As a G20 country and an important global player, Turkey's HE sector has followed these trends; likewise it should develop policies to more effectively respond to the move towards EMI while maintaining academic quality (Aslan, 2018).

The main focus of this chapter will be how the effective implementation of EMI offers opportunities to enhance quality in Turkish higher education by examining good practices from other countries with a view to implementing them in Turkey. We will first offer a brief summary of the global trends towards quality assurance (QA) and EMI in the higher education sector, overviewing the challenges and critiques. We will then provide a description of the Turkish higher education sector with a focus on the challenges and complexities brought by QA and EMI. Finally, we will make recommendations for institutional language policies, support for the academic literacy needs of students, and professional development for staff.

2 QA and EMI in the HE Sector

Quality has always mattered for higher education institutions; as a focus on quality has helped them to adapt to the changing needs of society, and thus survive (Van Vught & Westerheijden, 1994). Since the 1990s, political, technological and economic developments have led to a massive increase in the number of higher education students and providers as well as a diversification of programmes (Brennan & Shah, 2000). In many contexts, arguably this unprecedented growth has been made possible by the growth of English as the *lingua franca* of HE as it has increased the mobility of students and academic staff (Jenkins, 2013). These changes increase the need for QA in higher education institutions (HEIs), especially since competition to attract talented students has coincided with shrinking financial resources. The main aims of QA in HE, in theory, are to enhance the educational experiences of students

and to provide transparency, comparability and accountability to protect the public (Eaton, 2011). Thus, stakeholders (in most cases funders) including governments, parents and industry increasingly pressure HEIs to seek ways of assuring the quality of their practices either mandatorily or voluntarily (Singh, 2010).

To be successful in a globalised knowledge-based economy, countries require well-educated citizens who are able to research, innovate, communicate and collaborate in cross-border partnerships. A significant consequence of this is that the English language has become the principal medium of communication in international trade, academic research and educational settings (Marginson, 2010). English has also become the *academic lingua franca* which allows institutions to internationalise (Altbach et al., 2019) and students and academics to be internationally mobile (Dearden et al., 2016). These global developments have spurred HE providers to introduce an increasing number of academic programmes in the English language in countries where the first/local language of the population is not English, a phenomenon labelled EMI (Macaro, 2018). Given that many well-established HEIs in anglophone countries receive massive numbers of international students seeking high quality education, the issue is a global market-driven phenomenon, as EMI allows more countries to gain a share of the growing international student market that is currently dominated by anglophone countries (IIE, 2019). However, it is also linked to national development agendas (Altbach et al., 2019), which are also largely market-driven. EMI is characterised by four main features: (1) English is the language used for instructional purposes; (2) English is not itself the subject being taught; (3) language development is not a primary intended outcome; (4) for most participants in the setting, English is a second language (Pecorari & Malmström, 2018).

Hu (2019) enumerates some of the forces that are driving the increasing popularity of EMI: (1) the borderless world brought on by globalisation requires the use of a global lingua franca for trade and accessing technological innovations, (2) EMI increases national competitiveness by allowing access to the latest developments in science and technology, (3) EMI enhances quality in HE and supports students' development of twenty-first century skills, (4) EMI can internationalise HE institutions, which then increases opportunities to recruit fee paying first-rate international students and academics to create new financial sources, (5) EMI improves students' employability skills and graduate competitiveness, (6) EMI elevates institutions in global rankings, and (7) in some contexts, EMI is seen as more efficient than traditional English language teaching because it offers students the opportunity to improve their proficiency through engagement in meaningful use of English while learning disciplinary content. Consequently, many HEIs in non-anglophone developing and developed countries increasingly provide EMI with the intention of creating competitive advantage (Altbach et al., 2019). Because the focus on QA of HEIs is strongly rooted in global economic agendas, it is likely to continue to be significant for the foreseeable future (Tezcan-Unal et al., 2019a, b) and the same can be said of English language teacher education (Staub & Kırkgöz, 2019) as well as EMI (Björkman, 2016; Macaro et al., 2019).

3 QA in EMI Settings

QA schemes require HEIs to develop internal policies to continuously self-assess their practices and to continue developing in order to ensure that their academic and administrative practices and students' educational experiences are of a sufficient standard (see for example, European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education, (ENQA, 2015)'s or Middle States Commission of Higher Education (MSCHE, 2020)'s standards from the U.S.). For example, HEIs should develop approval processes for the programmes they offer which evaluate their overall objectives, intended learning outcomes and their adherence to the standards/frameworks set by the relevant accrediting body (e.g. the Framework for Qualifications of the European Higher Education Area). Such standards should give attention to the qualifications, competences and professional development (PD) of staff, the student-centredness of programmes, and the learning environments, resources and technologies. However, establishing internationally transparent and comparable QA policies for EMI is challenging. First, EMI is not a uniform phenomenon, instead, there are competing definitions and considerable variety in its implementation (Macaro, 2018). There is a growing body of research which indicates that this variety is due, in part, to differing goals for implementing EMI, and insufficiently clear guidelines for those tasked with achieving those goals (see Hou et al., 2013; Nguyen et al., 2017). Second, the impact of changing the medium of instruction can be substantial both at the societal and classroom levels. For society at large, the introduction of EMI may be seen as another example of language hegemony where the use of English marginalises the local language (Al-Issa, 2017) such that it leads to domain loss in key academic areas and a loss of cultural richness in academic work (Stelma & Fay, 2019). Thus, careful consideration must be given to the impact of EMI on programmes offered in local languages. In the classroom, local contexts differ considerably in a number of ways, for example, the variety of language proficiency levels of enrolled students (Hellekjaer, 2010), decreased student participation (Airey & Linder, 2006), the amount of time and resources required for planning EMI instruction (Yamamoto & Ishikura, 2018), the language proficiency levels of academic staff (Dimova & Kling, 2018), and in institutions where EMI is a key plank as an internationalisation policy, the degree of diversity of students' L1s and educational backgrounds (Macaro, 2018). Each of these potential differences calls into question whether a one-size-fits-all approach to QA is possible or even desirable. The complexity of EMI provision points to the need for approaches to QA that take account of the needs and constraints of local contexts (Altbach et al., 2019).

4 The Turkish Context: Domestic and International Political Complexities, Economic Goals, HE, EMI and Quality

Founded in 1923 after the fall of the Ottoman Empire, Turkey is a relatively young republic. In its short history, modern Turkey has experienced major political and economic instability, three consecutive military coups (1961, 1971, 1980), and a failed coup attempt in 2015, all of which had direct and indirect impacts on the academic sphere (Aslan, 2018; Göktürk et al., 2018). Demographically, the population of Turkey is 84.42 million (World Bank Country Profile, 2020), nearly 40% of which is in the 0–24 age group (Central Intelligence Agency, 2020). Geopolitically, modern Turkey has historically had strategic alliances with the West and more recently with the East (Üstün, 2012). Economically, Turkey is one of the top 20 economies in the world, with the aim of becoming one of the world’s top 10 economies by 2023, the centenary of the foundation of Turkish Republic. In short, Turkey, is a geographically, economically and demographically significant country (Friedman, 2010), which cannot isolate itself from the impact of global and regional trends such as globalisation and internationalisation on academia. The current government has shown awareness of the importance of creating world-class universities to support its ambitious goals. In a keynote speech, Davut Kavranoglu, Deputy Minister of Industry, Science and Technology (at the time), said:

We are fully aware that we can’t become one of the top ten economies in the world without a world-class university system and without world-class scientists and engineers.... We have to have smarter machines, smarter schools, smarter universities, a smarter economy and smarter companies. (West et al., 2015, p. 35)

The minister’s message echoes comments made in a report for the Centre for Economics and Policy Studies at a time when Turkey ranked 17th among world economies. Lehmann (2011) suggested that Turkey has a number of lessons to learn from other growing economies if it is to improve its “... weaknesses, specifically in education, science and knowledge” (p.13). Bearing this background in mind, we will describe the complex HE context in more detail, with reference to matters of quality, internationalisation and English proficiency.

Turkish HE is regulated by an all-encompassing central authority, the Council of Higher Education (Yükseköğretim Kurulu-YÖK), which was founded in 1981 following the military coup in 1980. Turkey’s signing of the Bologna Declaration¹ created a push factor for a focus on the sustainable development of its HE sector

¹ The Bologna Declaration is a regional treaty initially signed by 29 countries in 1999 to build the European Higher Education Area (EHEA). The declaration aims to create coherence and comparability and promote collaboration among European countries in the field of higher education (European Commission, n.d.) and “... to increase Europe’s global competitiveness in the knowledge-based economy.” (EHEA). The European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) was developed with the aim of increasing participation in higher education and providing students with mutually recognised degrees. Turkey has incorporated ECTS into its HE sector since its signatory commitment in 2001.

(Katayama et al., 2018) and helped Turkish HE align with "...European university standards in terms of student credit transfer and exchange issues ..." (Göktürk et al., 2018, p. 568). The agreement also commits member countries to fostering increased mobility of students and academics and quality assurance of education. To encourage mobility, universities needed a strategy regarding the language of instruction to enable students to pursue degrees without being obliged to learn the local language of the respective countries. The most common response has been to offer programmes in English (Wächter & Maiworm, 2014). However, changing the language of instruction has created new challenges for teaching and learning (e.g. Kamaşak et al., 2021). In Turkey, HEIs have found it difficult to respond to the new and diverse needs of students studying through EMI because YÖK's centralised rigidity has led to uniformity across HEIs and a lack of institutional autonomy (Küçükcan & Gür, 2010 cited in Çetinsaya, 2014). Salmi (2009: 28) argues that autonomy is essential to creating a world class university as it enables flexibility when managing resources, and releases universities from "...cumbersome bureaucracies and externally imposed standards ..." enabling them to respond "... to the demands of a rapidly changing global market" (p. 28). Arguably, this lack of institutional autonomy may be one of the reasons why there is only one Turkish university that is in the global top 500, Koç University is 451st (QS Ranking, 2020). According to Çetinsaya (2014), who was the president of YÖK from 2011 to 2014, in order for Turkey to reach its ambitious economic and societal goals and internationalisation objectives, the country needs to develop QA systems that are harmonious with modern global higher education and avoid bureaucracy which overburdens academics.

According to the statistical data provided in the YÖK (2020) database, currently there are 208 state and foundation HEIs in Turkey accommodating 3.777.114 students, 154.446 of whom are international students (the total number of students is 7.740.502 when the Open University and distance education students are included, nearly 10 percent of the whole population of the country according to latest available data from 2018 to 2019 academic year). This is almost a fourfold increase in the number of HEIs over a period of 25 years. Emil (2018) expresses concerns that the rapid growth in the number of students and HEIs in Turkey has inevitably affected the quality of education. Çetinsaya's (2014) review of developments in the Turkish HE context from 1984 to 2014 concluded that Turkey needs to strategically re-evaluate and restructure its HE system with quality-focused policies which focus on three areas: to transition from quantity to quality, to improve the quality of academic human capital, and to focus on internationalisation.

Since these comments were made, Turkey has experienced considerable political, social and cultural turbulence due to a "... coup attempt, refugee crisis and terrorist attacks from neighbouring countries, and the following political conflicts around these issues with the United States and Europe" (Göktürk et al., 2018, p. 566). These developments have created further challenges and changes to emerging strategies in the Turkish HE system which have shifted the focus of the internationalization and quality movements that were accelerated when Turkey became a signatory to the Bologna Declaration. While the Turkish government continues to support the development of relevant policies for internationalisation, changes to the

governance structure have further centralised the HE structure (Emil, 2018) in a country that already seriously limited the autonomy of individual HEIs to establish systems to support international students' academic and social needs.

The preceding section depicts a Turkish HE context that is demographically vibrant with the number of HEIs mushrooming. However, it also highlights an educational system where much needs to be done to ensure that quality is maintained and enhanced. Successful growth of a knowledge-based economy correlates with the productivity of knowledge-intensive industries such as finance, communication, social services, which depends on highly-educated and highly-skilled human capital (OECD, 2001) who are able to innovate, communicate and collaborate in international contexts through the use of English (EF, 2019).

When it comes to English proficiency, Turkey is behind its competitors. Despite a 1997 legislative mandate that English be taught as the compulsory foreign language from grade 4 to grade 12, the final year of secondary education, in public schools (Kırkgöz, 2009), students generally only achieve Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) A1+ after approximately 1000 h of English tuition. A 2013 critical review by the British Council (BC) and TEPAV (Türkiye Ekonomi Politikaları Araştırma Vakfı – The Economic Policy Research Foundation of Turkey) (Özen et al., 2013) suggested that raising the English proficiency levels of the population needed to be a priority for Turkey in order to build a knowledge-based economy. Nevertheless, English proficiency in Turkey appears to be getting worse. In 2013, Turkey was ranked 41st out of 60 countries on English First's English Proficiency Index with English proficiency categorised as low. In 2019, Turkey's ranking had fallen to 71st out of 100 countries with English proficiency categorised as very low (EF, 2019).

Not suprisingly, most Turkish high school graduates' level of English proficiency is far from the level needed to function effectively in English speaking contexts (West et al., 2015). In 1996, all HEIs offering courses in EMI were required to establish 1-year preparatory year programmes (PYP) for incoming students whose English proficiency level is not adequate, and this was extended to Turkish Medium Universities in 2001 (West et al., 2015). Nearly 80% of the students who pass university entrance exams end up in preparatory year programmes (PYP) due to their poor English language skills (O'Dwyer & Atlı, 2018). PYPs are charged with preparing students to participate in EMI programmes although they struggle to achieve this task because of unclear objectives (Coşkun, 2013), lack of specificity in addressing the needs of academic programmes (Dearden et al., 2016), and numerous other issues including trying to teach academic skills to students with low English proficiency in a limited period of time (O'Dwyer & Atlı, 2018). There are plenty of reports that corroborate these critiques of PYPs including the BC/TEPAV report (West et al., 2015) on the state of English in HE in Turkey. The report enumerates a range of problems with the English provision in PYPs, including misaligned curricula (e.g. general English rather than English for academic purposes), poor quality assessments, lack of teacher appraisal schemes, and lack of continuous professional development (CPD) (see chapter “[Academic English Language Policies and Practices](#)

of English-Medium Instruction Universities in Turkey from Policy Actors' Eyes” for similar criticisms on PYP).

Staub (2019) links the need for QA of language programmes in HEIs with the growing general interest in QA of HE. Focusing specifically on the Turkish context, Staub refers to the lack of competences of English language teachers working in HEIs for teaching English for Academic Purposes, and content specialists' lack of pedagogical skills and/or interests in dealing with the students' academic literacy needs as revealed in the BC and TEPAV's (West et al., 2015) report. Following the publication of this report, the BC and Council on HE collaboratively planned a developmental review process of language programmes (Staub, 2019). Some institutions voluntarily implement external QA schemes such as the US-based Commission on English Language Programme Accreditation (CEA), the European-based Evaluation and Accreditation of Quality in Language Services (EAQUALS) and Pearson Assured Qualifications (2020). Another voluntary initiative is the local language education evaluation and accreditation committee, Dil Eğitim Programları Değerlendirme ve Akreditasyon Derneği (DEDAK). Although the formal recognition is still the remit of the Turkish Higher Education Quality Council (YOKAK), the QA arm of YÖK, DEDAK could serve as a complement to these international schemes by addressing the specific needs and constraints of the local context and developing a local cadre of QA and accreditation specialists.

While the efforts of a handful of mainly private institutions to improve the quality of language programmes are commendable and may have some impact on language teaching in some PYP programmes, this scheme does not address the wider issue of QA of EMI. Addressing quality in EMI calls for a larger paradigm shift which includes curriculum planning in the content areas and PD for academic subject specialists. In other words, the Turkish HE system does not yet have a formal process to specifically evaluate the quality of academic programmes that are taught in English.

In summary, the information provided thus far regarding the Turkish context indicates the following:

- Turkey has a significant number of domestic and a growing number of international HE students,
- Turkey has ambitious economic goals, which cannot be achieved without well-educated and skilful citizens who are able to compete in the knowledge-based economy,
- Turkey does not have any universities that are placed within the world's top 400 universities even though there are nearly 208 HEIs,
- The English language proficiency level of the majority of HE students is below the level needed to meet academic literacy expectations in EMI settings,
- The Turkish Council of HE (YÖK) dominates the whole academic system ensuring uniformity and creating barriers against diversity and flexibility which are both essential characteristics of world class universities.

Turkey has a long and successful history of implementing EMI dating back to mid-1950's (Kırkgöz, 2009) when there were a handful of (mainly state-funded) prestigious/elite HE providers. Despite this background, the Turkish EMI context

has been challenged by recent developments such as the high volume of university students arriving with varied educational backgrounds, the increasing number of institutions, and other demands imposed by top-down policies such as the need to adapt institutional practices in accordance with the Bologna Declaration. All these raise issues related to maintaining and enhancing quality.

While challenges can seem troubling, they offer opportunities to review and reflect on existing policies and practice. We believe that because the challenges are common in many countries, it is important to review good practice from beyond Turkey to gain insights for quality enhancement in Turkey. In the next section, we will focus on institutional language policies, policies and practices that better support the everyday academic literacy needs of students, and PD for all academics.

5 Developing and Sustaining a Language Policy That Is Fit for Purpose

Institutional language policies are increasingly common across Europe. For example, the League of European Research Universities (LERU) recognises that language skills are fundamental to academic education and scholarly publication at HEIs and thus, actively promotes the development of customised institutional language policies, which provide clear expectations about the academic and administrative use of national and foreign languages (Kortmann, 2019). On paper, developing an institutional language policy and ensuring the quality of EMI are already policy requirements of YÖK. Yet, how these policies are regulated and their effectiveness in each context needs to be examined to enable Turkish HEIs to address many of the issues raised during a series of symposia on the topic of ‘Using English as the medium instruction in higher education institutions’,² including the need for pre- and in-service PD for certification of lecturers in EMI, improving the efficacy of PYP programmes and extending language development for students into their degree programmes (see chapter “[English-Medium Instruction in Northern Cyprus: Problems, Possibilities, and Prospects](#)” for further details on these symposia). Kortmann (2019) points out that the development and implementation of language policies requires addressing challenges related not only to teaching and research activities, but also securing the financial and human resources needed to ensure the

²A series of symposia entitled ‘Using English as the medium instruction in higher education institutions: A holistic approach’ were initiated by Mustafa Akincioglu to discuss EMI issues in Turkish HEIs. They were held in Istanbul (June 19, 2018), in Izmir (October 19, 2018), in Famagusta (November 9, 2018) and in Ankara (April 19, 2019) and attended by a wide range of stakeholders from over 100 institutions, including rectors, vice rectors, deans, professors, lecturers, English language department heads, language and EAP specialists as well as representatives from the business world, existing students, graduates and administrators and K-12 teachers. The outcomes of the symposiums can be reached from the websites of the host universities ([Kadir Has University](#), [Izmir University of Economics](#), [Eastern Mediterranean University](#)).

sustainability of the policy. Sustainability begins with clearly indicating who is responsible for developing and enacting the policy. Kortmann (2019) recommends a collaborative approach involving a range of stakeholders across the institution that would include the involvement of university senior management and staff from language centres, linguistic departments and any departments offering EMI programmes or classes. A comprehensive discussion of language policy is beyond the scope of this chapter (see Lauridsen, 2013; Gregersen, 2018). Instead, for the Turkish context, we will focus on the importance of linking language policies to a clearly defined purpose and taking account of the practical constraints of existing levels of English language proficiency.

The first step in assuring the quality of EMI provision is that each institution must be clear about its purpose(s) for offering it. EMI can serve a number of purposes such as increasing institutional reputation, increasing national and international competitiveness and upskilling students. A common overarching goal of internationalisation of a programme or institution is to ensure that academic staff and graduates can compete in the international marketplace of ideas, research and labour (Hu, 2019). Once the purpose is clear, it is important to ensure that the conditions are in place at the institutional and programme levels to fulfil that purpose. EMI promises access to a wider range of research and instructional materials, support for the mobility of academic staff and students and graduates who have disciplinary content knowledge and literacy in English. This conception of EMI assumes that academic staff come prepared with the necessary English language proficiency to teach through English and students have the necessary proficiency to benefit from this instruction. As pointed out earlier in the chapter, this is not necessarily the case in Turkey (West et al., 2015). Efforts to address Turkey's "English deficit" (Koru & Åkesson, 2011) as measured by EF's English Proficiency Index have not met with much success. Therefore, it is worth universities considering whether EMI is the best approach for developing the necessary levels of English language proficiency of its staff and students to meet the country's internationalisation goals. From an instructional perspective, we suggest that universities could set any of the following as language-related graduate learning outcomes to support Turkey's aim to become a top ten economy:

Graduates of Turkish universities:

- are proficient in a second language to CEFR B2 level
- are capable of using English for occupational purposes at B2 level
- have achieved monolingual (English) disciplinary literacy in their degree subject
- have achieved bilingual (English and Turkish) disciplinary literacy in their degree subject
- have achieved bilingual (English and Turkish) disciplinary literacy and general and occupational English proficiency at B2 level.

From a QA perspective, an effective EMI programme is likely to require significantly more investment in terms of financial and human resources than offering a diet of high quality English for Specific Academic and Occupational Purposes courses, because early EMI courses will need to be heavily scaffolded to ensure that content learning can occur and that students' language repertoire is continually

developed to enable them to become progressively more independent users of English as they move through their degrees. With respect to mixed medium EMI and Turkish-medium instruction (TMI) undergraduate programmes, the BC/TEPAV report (West et al., 2015) concluded that existing programmes tend to elicit many of the worst aspects of EMI. Therefore, it strongly recommended that they be phased out as quickly as possible and replaced with parallel EMI/TMI programmes. However, offering fully parallel programmes would also be very costly and given that Turkish universities already face shortages of appropriately qualified teaching staff (Çetinsaya, 2014 cited in BC/TEPAV, 2015) difficult to achieve. Instead, well-designed mixed EMI/TMI programmes could mitigate issues arising from pure EMI such as domain loss in Turkish, and content loss due to less content being covered or learned due to insufficient lecturer and/or student English proficiency. They would also support the development of ‘bilingual disciplinary literacy’ (Karakaş, 2019). Airey (2015) defines disciplinary literacy as “the ability to appropriately participate in the communicative practices of a discipline...[in] three sites: the academy, the workplace and society” (p. 172). Research shows that “conceptual knowledge developed in one language helps to make input in the other language comprehensible” (Cummins, 2000, p. 39). Therefore, a well-designed mixed EMI/TMI programme would ensure that delivery of content and a focus on disciplinary literacy practices in one language would complement learning of the same in the other language. To ensure the quality of whichever approach is adopted (EMI only, or mixed EMI/TMI) would require establishing explicit learning outcomes for content and either mono- or bilingual disciplinary literacy and reforming university structures to develop communication channels between EMI, TMI, and academic language and literacy specialists at the levels of programme conceptualisation, course and lesson planning, and delivery and assessment to ensure that those learning outcomes are met. An effective language policy would also clearly lay out the necessary language levels and training programmes needed for all staff involved in teaching on such programmes as well as for associated administrative staff. Universities would also need to set clear English language entry requirements for students on these programmes and agreed-upon means of verifying those levels.

If the goal is to maintain and enhance quality in Turkish HEIs, it is important to remember that a language policy is simply a piece of paper unless supported with well designed plans to develop the academic literacy of students and provide appropriate staff development.

6 A Multi-pronged Approach to Developing Student Academic Language and Literacy

A context-specific advantage for EMI in Turkey is the allocation of a year-long compulsory pre-sessional English proficiency course for students who could not pass the proficiency exams prior to starting their studies in their discipline. The usual format of the PYP is to offer 20–25-h modular courses in 8-week blocks for



Fig. 1 ELP development continuum. (Arkoudis et al., 2012, p. 13)

students at different levels of English proficiency. However, the PYP model can equally be a weakness if it implies that the majority of the work on language development will have been taken care of by language teachers prior to students entering their degree programmes. What is needed is recognition by all university stakeholders of the changing nature of language use across the student lifecycle. Arkoudis, Baik and Richardson (2012) illustrate this with their multi-dimensional model of an English language development (ELD) continuum (see Fig. 1). This Australian model moves beyond thinking in terms of minimum entry requirements for academic study to consideration of the emergence of different language development needs as students move through their courses of study.

PYPs have been shown to be ineffective in meeting the goals set out for them (West et al., 2015). We suggest that one solution would be for PYPs to move away from their current focus on topping up the general English proficiency that previous schooling has failed to achieve towards a focus on teaching communicative skills that connect students with their future academic communities. PYPs have an important role to play in giving students a sense of what is involved in studying at university and kick starting the process of developing the academic literacy needed for success on their degrees. This can be achieved by combining two well-established approaches to language development. The first, content-based instruction “provides rich opportunities for L2 acquisition by providing the input learners need, creating opportunities for negotiation of meaning about meaningful content and pushes students to develop appropriate and accurate output” (Brinton & Snow, 2017, p. 4). The second, genre-based pedagogy, unlocks disciplinary content knowledge by showing how texts are structured and highlighting the language used to communicate disciplinary ideas and information (Derewianka & Jones, 2016). Both approaches have a long history of supporting L1 and L2 students at all levels of study in making connections between every day and academic uses of language (Fang & Schleppergrell, 2008; Dreyfus et al., 2016). When used together they support students in making the transition from *learning English* to *using English to learn* new content in their subject areas.

Looking to the UAE, Tezcan-Unal et al. (2019a) describe this type of curricular change from general English objectives to general academic literacy objectives in a similar foundational English programme at an EMI university with students with a similar low-level of English proficiency. The authors explain that the success of the 3-year change process was due to it being research-informed and collegial in nature. It also had the full support of leadership, the appropriate allocation of resources, and internal and external professional development of the staff that changed mental models of and assumptions about teaching.

We further suggest that the effectiveness of PYPs could be improved by establishing or strengthening the links between the PYPs and degree programmes in the university. Currently, the link between the PYP and the university is viewed as a 1 + 4 arrangement in most cases. This orientation to the PYP distances students, staff and learning from the mainstream activity of the university with the result that the bridging function of PYPs between secondary school and university comes up short of the target. We suggest that viewing students' time at university as a 5-year academic and linguistic journey provides an opportunity for content specialists and language specialists to work in partnership to move students along the English language proficiency continuum. Content specialists and language specialists could work together to:

- map the language and skills needed to meet the requirements of lectures, seminars, labs, course readings and assessments at each level of degree programmes, making them more explicit for themselves and students;
- use the results of these mappings to review programme curricula and assessments with consideration of the language and literacy demands at each stage of the programme and the expected level of students' language and literacies at each of those stages;
- develop learning outcomes for different aspects of disciplinary literacy;
- tailor courses and programmes to support the learning of both content and disciplinary literacy, taking account of both current needs and developmental needs for the next stage in the programme;
- ensure that language focused learning occurs across the 5 year journey through the use of a mix of team teaching, subject specific adjunct EAP courses, general EAP courses and shared planning;
- bring disciplinary content into the PYP year with lectures or seminars delivered by content specialists.

A key advantage of such collaboration is that students are more likely to take language development work seriously if they can see that subject lecturers pay attention to language (Donohue & Erling, 2012). Such interaction would also provide PYP teachers and subject lecturers with an enhanced understanding of the language needs and language levels of students at each stage of their journey. Thus, even where PYP buildings are detached from the main campus, the learning activities of PYP students would be explicitly attached to their degree programmes.

In order for this approach to succeed, the roles of both PYP English teachers and subject lecturers need to be redefined. English teachers need to become academic

literacy specialists and subject lecturers need to become EMI specialists. For this to occur, on-going PD is required which aims to increase the quality of learners' attainment of programme learning outcomes in Turkish HEIs.

7 Quality Enhancement Through Professional Development

The rapid growth in the number of HEIs and university students in Turkey and the increased use of EMI has created a perfect storm by bringing together issues related to teaching groups of domestic students who historically may not have had access to HE (widening participation) and requiring a significant proportion of those students to engage with HE through a second language in which they have a low level of proficiency. Similar challenges related to increasing EMI, and internationalisation have exercised HE policy makers and practitioners across Europe. The most far-reaching outcome is a recognition of the need to rebalance how teaching and learning is valued in HE institutions.

A key feature of higher education is that academics have traditionally tended to associate PD more strongly with the development of disciplinary knowledge and practices and less strongly with the development of pedagogic knowledge and skill (Gossman et al., 2009). Many academics, despite their advanced degrees, are pedagogically underprepared and need support and training (Beaumont, 2020). A strong focus on teaching and learning (T&L) in HE is relatively new. In the Netherlands, for example, university teaching qualifications were first introduced in the 1990s and a national framework was developed in 2006 (VSNU, 2018). The UK introduced a similar framework in 2006, the UK Professional Standards for University Teachers (AdvancedHE, 2011), and in Ireland, The National Forum for the Enhancement of Teaching and Learning was launched in 2012 (Henard, 2017). These programmes build on notions from Shulman (1986) that academics should not only develop deep knowledge of the content of their disciplines, but they should also be able to demonstrate pedagogical content knowledge (PCK). PCK is the skill of combining content and pedagogy in meaningful ways to support student learning. PCK becomes even more challenging for lecturers in mass HE systems because students arrive in their classrooms having developed conceptions of knowledge and expectations of teaching and learning based on increasingly diverse prior educational experiences. Changing the medium of instruction from the local language to English further increases diversity in another important way. The classroom becomes a multilingual space with diverse first languages (Björkman, 2016) and variability in student and staff proficiencies in the language of instruction. To manage the effect of this diversity in teaching and learning, curricula and classroom pedagogy should take account of the impact of learning culture and language on achieving disciplinary learning outcomes.

Thus, it is not surprising that the introduction of EMI has led to expressions of concern from many academics about their ability to teach through the medium of English (see Werther et al., 2014). Similar concerns about lecturers were recently

echoed in Turkey in the aforementioned series of symposia on the topic of ‘Using English as the medium instruction in higher education institutions’. Those participants also emphasised the need for PD. However, given the multi-faceted nature of internationalised EMI classrooms, it can sometimes be difficult to disentangle the “E” from the “I” in EMI. In the Turkish context, this is evidenced by the conflicting findings of studies investigating the English language proficiency of lecturers and the content learning outcomes for EMI students. It appears that even when lecturers report no language related difficulties when teaching in English (Arkin & Osam, 2015; Karakaş, 2014), students in EMI programmes may perform less well than their counterparts in TMI programmes (Kırkgöz, 2014, 2018). This indicates that successful implementation of EMI depends on more than high levels of English proficiency amongst EMI lecturers and that a lack of appropriate PD could pose a threat to quality.

O’Dowd’s (2018) recent survey of current training and accreditation practices in 70 European universities shows that the greatest focus is placed on developing English language skills with less than half of universities providing a component focused on bilingual teaching methodology. A study by Macaro et al. (2019) which analysed the perspectives of 463 practising EMI lecturers from a variety of countries on their desire for certification and PD for EMI found that nearly two-thirds had had no pre-service or in-service PD related to EMI. Given the recency of the T&L initiatives listed above, it is highly likely that many university lecturers will have had no pedagogically focused PD at all. Thus, while there is clearly a need to develop the language skills of EMI lecturers, developing a programme of PD for EMI in the Turkish context offers the opportunity to bring together good practice from the established frameworks and qualifications listed above and projects specifically focused on EMI and EAP to strike the right balance between the English language development needs of PYP and EMI lecturers and their pedagogical content knowledge needs.

Probably the most important opportunity afforded by the introduction of EMI into Turkish HE relates to the search for what some refer to as “EMI pedagogy” (Macaro et al., 2019). Across Europe and Asia, this search has led to the opening of classroom doors to researchers who have begun to document the effects of EMI on student and lecturer behaviours (see Airey & Linder, 2006; Duran & Sert, 2019; Hu & Li, 2017). Their findings have led to a recognition that a change to the medium of instruction is likely to require changes in pedagogy (TAEC, 2019) and this is likely to require PD. Addressing these concerns about pedagogy for EMI provides opportunities for broader discussions of language policy and pedagogy in HE.

Jewells and Albon (2012) report on their experiences of teaching students from the Middle East. One outcome of their iterative action research projects was a three-component model for effective teaching that included:

- (i) common good teaching practices,
- (ii) good teaching practices for L2 students, and
- (iii) good teaching for students from a specific cultural background.

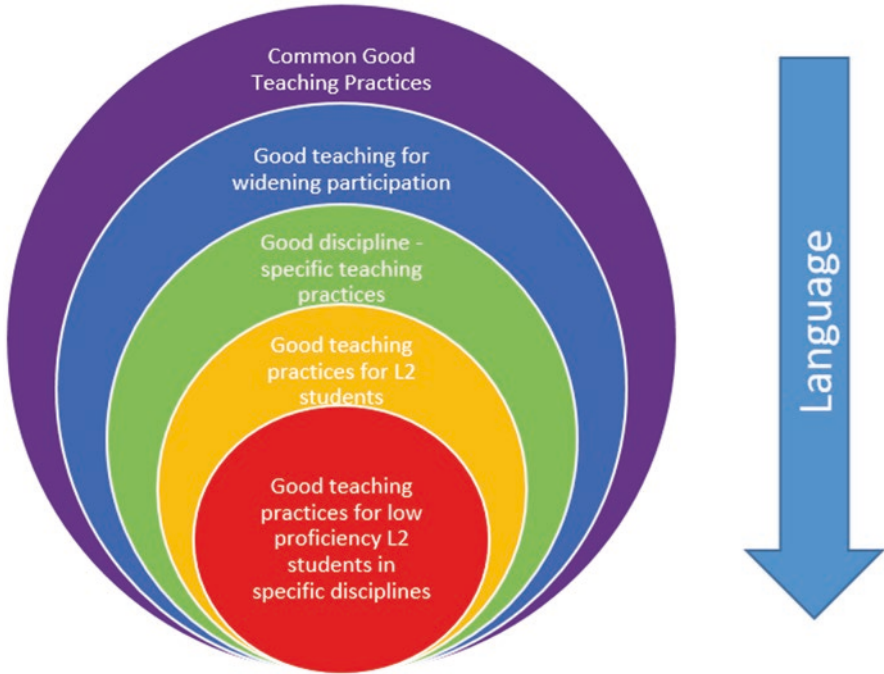


Fig. 2 Embedded five-component model for effective teaching. (Adapted from Jewells & Albon, 2012)

We have modified their model to meet the needs EMI lecturers in the Turkish context (see Fig. 2):

- (iv) good teaching practices for widening participation students,
- (v) good teaching practices for specific disciplinary content,
- (vi) good teaching for low proficiency L2 students in specific disciplines.

The additional levels specifically address the rapid growth in the number of university age students and the diversity that brings to the classroom, recognise that the content of different disciplines will require specific teaching practices, and that L2 students with low levels of proficiency will require additional support to those with higher levels.

Language runs alongside the model to make explicit the role that language use plays in realising good teaching at every level and the importance of developing language awareness for teaching even for proficient users.

We are aware that the number of levels in the model may be quite off-putting, especially given many lecturers lack of experience with pedagogical PD. Therefore, it is important to emphasise that the enhancing one's pedagogic skills is an iterative process of development and reflection over time (Farrell, 2020). The starting point in the model and the amount of learning needed will vary in different contexts and for individual lecturers. For example, the UK Professional Standards for University

Teachers (HEA, 2014) have three levels (Associate Fellow, Fellow, and Senior Fellow) that lecturers work through over the course of their careers.

The model may appear equally daunting for those responsible for creating PD programmes. Again, if we look to Europe, we can see that the search for a pedagogy of EMI has benefited from a number of EU funded projects that have produced freely available PD materials specifically for lecturers teaching in internationally, interculturally, and linguistically diverse classrooms. The TAEC Project developed a handbook "... to raise awareness about the teaching approaches, language uses, and intercultural communication" in EMI contexts (TAEC, 2020, p.5). The Educational Quality at Universities for Inclusive International Programmes (EQUiIP, n.d.) Project developed a complete programme of PD modules and an international competence profile for both lecturing staff and educational developers. In the UK, the BALEAP EAP Teacher Competencies (BALEAP, 2008) and accreditation scheme provides a framework covering academic practices, students, and course delivery and related professional practice descriptors. The competencies address the necessary development needed to transform a general English teacher into an academic literacy specialist.

A key strength of these projects is that they are collaborative partnerships, which demonstrate the value of sharing knowledge, experience, and expertise across institutions. In the Turkish context, institutions that do not have dedicated centres for teaching and learning, or whose teaching and learning centres are not backed up with well-defined institutional language policies, would benefit from entering into similar partnerships at the regional or national level to pool knowledge and experience. They can begin by using ideas from international projects such as TAEC and EQUiIP, but work together to localise the content to specific programmes of study and/or institutions. A wider benefit to quality assurance in Turkish HEIs is that actions taken to develop a programme of professional development for EMI lecturers have the potential to stimulate interest in PD across the wider university and foster an institution-wide teaching and learning culture.

8 Conclusions

We have looked to Europe and the wider world for good practice in EMI with the aim of enhancing and assuring the quality of EMI provision in Turkey. Our reflections show that even in countries where EMI is widespread, the development of policies and practices to meet the challenges of EMI tend to be ad hoc (Airey et al., 2017), and that the spectre of language proficiency looms large over EMI even though language development may not be an intended outcome of such programmes. Our recommendations aim to address the challenges facing students and lecturers on EMI programmes by calling for clear and carefully devised policies, practices and professional development to support the development of disciplinary content knowledge and literacy and enhance the quality of Turkish higher education.

References

- AdvancedHE. (2011). The UK professional standards framework for teaching and supporting learning in higher education. https://s3.eu-west-2.amazonaws.com/assets.creode.advancehe-documentmanager/documents/advance-he/UKPSF%20large%20print_1570613686.pdf. Accessed October 29, 2021.
- Airey, J. (2015). From stimulated recall to disciplinary literacy: Summarizing ten years of research into teaching and learning in English. In S. Dimova, A. Hultgren, & C. Jensen (Eds.), *English-medium instruction in European higher education* (Language and social life 4) (pp. 151–176). De Gruyter Mouton.
- Airey, J., & Linder, C. (2006). Language and the experience of learning university physics in Sweden. *European Journal of Physics*, 27(3), 553–560.
- Airey, J., Lauridsen, K. M., Räsänen, A., Salö L., & Schwach, V. (2017). The expansion of English-medium instruction in the Nordic countries: *Can top-down university language policies encourage bottom-up disciplinary literacy goals?* *Higher Education*, 73(4), 561–576. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-015-9950-2>
- Al-Issa, A. (2017). English as a medium of instruction and the endangerment of Arabic literacy: The case of the United Arab Emirates. *Arab World English Journal (AWEJ)*, 8(3), 3–17. <https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3053550>
- Altbach, P. G., Reisberg, L., & Rumbley, L. E. (2019). *Trends in global higher education: Tracking an academic revolution*. UNESCO Publishing.
- Arkin, E., & Osam, N. (2015). English-medium higher education: A case study in a Turkish university context. In S. Dimova, A. Hultgren, & C. Jensen (Eds.), *English-medium instruction in European higher education* (Language and social life 4) (pp. 177–199). De Gruyter Mouton.
- Arkoudis, S., Baik, C., & Richardson, S. (2012). *English language in higher education: From entry to exit*. ACER.
- Aslan, M. (2018). The debate on English-medium instruction and globalisation in the Turkish context: A sociopolitical perspective. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 39(7), 602–616. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2017.1417413>
- BALEAP. (2008). *The competency framework for teachers of English for academic purposes*. Retrieved from <https://www.baleap.org/resources>
- Baumont, J. (2020). Cross-disciplinary professional development at community colleges. *Community College Journal of Research and Practice*, 44(2), 99–116.
- Björkman, B. (2016). English-medium instruction and English as the lingua franca in higher education in central and northern Europe. In P. Marie-Luise & R. Osimk-Dale (Eds.), *English as a lingua franca: Perspective and prospects* (pp. 57–68). De Gruyter Mouton.
- Brennan, J., & Shah, T. (2000). Quality assessment and institutional change: Experiences from 14 countries. *Higher Education*, 40, 331–349. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1004159425182>
- Brinton, D. M., & Snow, M. A. (2017). The evolving architecture of content-based instruction. In M. A. Snow & D. M. Brinton (Eds.), *The content-based classroom: New perspectives on integrating language and content* (pp. 2–20). University of Michigan.
- Central Intelligence Agency. (2020, May 31). *The world factbook*. Turkey. Age Structure. <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/tu.html>
- Çetinsaya, G. (2014). *Büyüme, kalite, uluslararasılaşma: Türkiye yükseköğretimi için bir yol haritası*. Yükseköğretim Kurulu Yayın No 2014/2. Anadolu University. Retrieved from <https://www.yok.gov.tr/Documents/Yayinlar/Yayinlarimiz/buyume-kalite-uluslararasılaşma-türkiye-yuksekoğretim-icin-bir-yol-haritası.pdf>
- Coşkun, A. (2013). An investigation of the effectiveness of the modular general English language teaching preparatory program at a Turkish university. *South African Journal of Education*, 33(3), 1–18. <https://doi.org/10.15700/201503070754>
- Cummins, J. (2000). *Language, power and pedagogy: Bilingual children in the crossfire*. Multilingual Matters.

- Dearden, J. (2014). *English as a medium of instruction-a growing global phenomenon*. British Council.
- Dearden, J., Akıncıoğlu, M., & Macaro, E. (2016). English medium instruction in universities: A collaborative experiment in Turkey. *Studies in English Language Teaching*, 4(1), 51–76. <https://doi.org/10.22158/selt.v4n1p51>
- Derewianka, B., & Jones, P. (2016). *Teaching language in context* (2nd ed.). Oxford University Press.
- Dil Eğitim Programları Değerlendirme ve Akreditasyon Derneği (DEDAK). Retrieved from <https://www.dedak.org/>
- Dimova, S., & Kling, J. (2018). Assessing English-medium instruction lecturer language proficiency across disciplines. *TESOL Quarterly*, 52(3), 634–656.
- Donohue, J., & Erling, E. (2012). Investigating the relationship between the use of English for academic purposes and academic attainment. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 11, 210–219.
- Dreyfus, S., Humphrey, S., Mahboob, A., & Martin, J. (2016). *Genre pedagogy in higher education: The SLATE project*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Duran, D., & Sert, O. (2019). Preference organization in English as medium of instruction classroom in a Turkish higher education setting. *Linguistics and Education*, 49, 72–85. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2018.12.006>
- Eaton, J. S. (2011). U.S. accreditation: Meeting the challenges of accountability and student achievement. *Evaluation in Higher Education*, 5(1), 1–20.
- Educational First. (2019). *EF English Proficiency Index*. Retrieved from <https://www.ef.com/wwen/epi#>
- Educational Quality at Universities for inclusive international Programmes (EQUiIP). Retrieved from <https://equiip.eu/>
- Emil, S. (2018). Can world-class universities really exist in Turkey: A question of autonomy and academic freedom. In M. Rabossi, K. M. Joshi, & S. Paivandi (Eds.), *In pursuit of world-class universities: A global experience* (pp. 239–269). Studera Press.
- European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ENQA). (2015). *Standards and guidelines for quality assurance in the European higher education area*. Retrieved from <https://enqa.eu/index.php/home/esg/>
- European Commission. (n. d.). *The Bologna Process. Towards the European Higher Education Area*. Retrieved from education/policies/educ/bologna/bologna_en.html>.
- Evaluation and Accreditation of Quality in Language Services (EAQUALS). (2020). Retrieved from <https://www.eaquals.org/>
- Fang, Z., & Schleppergrell, M. (2008). *Reading in secondary content areas: A language-based pedagogy*. University of Michigan Press.
- Farrell, T. (2020). Professional development through reflective practice for English-medium instruction (EMI) teachers. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 23(3), 277–286. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.1612840>
- Friedman, G. (2010). *The next 100 years: A forecast for the 21st century*. Anchor.
- Göktürk, S., Kaymaz, O. S., & Bozoğlu, O. (2018). Experimenting with internationalisation in troubled times: The critical case of Turkish higher education. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 40(6), 566–582. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1360080X.2018.1530418>
- Gossman, P., Haigh, N., & Jiao, X. (2009). *The status of the scholarship of teaching and learning (SoTL) in New Zealand universities: Three institutional case studies*. Final report to the Ministry of Education and Ako Aotearoa: The National Centre of Tertiary Teaching Excellence. Retrieved from <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/>
- Gregersen, F. (2018). *More parallel, please!: Best practice of parallel language use at Nordic universities: 11 recommendations*. Nordic Council of Ministers. <https://doi.org/10.6027/TN2018-523>
- HEA. (2014). *The higher education academy UK professional standards for university teachers*.

- Hellekjær, G. O. (2010). Lecture comprehension in English-medium higher education. *HERMES-Journal of Language and Communication in Business*, 45, 11–34. <https://doi.org/10.7146/hjle.v23i45.97343>
- Henard, F. (2017). *Review of the national forum for the enhancement of teaching and learning*. Learning Avenue. Retrieved from <https://hea.ie/policy/policy-development/teaching-and-learning/>
- Hou, A. Y. C., Morse, R., Chiang, C. L., & Chen, H. J. (2013). Challenges to quality of English medium instruction degree programs in Taiwanese universities and the role of local accreditors: A perspective of non-English-speaking Asian country. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, 14(3), 359–370. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12564-013-9267-8>
<https://hea.ie/policy/policy-development/teaching-and-learning/>
- Hu, G. (2019). English-medium instruction in higher education: Lessons from China. *Journal of Asia TEFL*, 16(1), 1. <https://doi.org/10.18823/asiatefl.2019.16.1.1.1>
- Hu, G., & Li, X. (2017). Asking and answering questions in English-medium instruction classrooms: What is the cognitive and syntactic complexity level? In J. Zhao & L. Q. Dixon (Eds.), *English medium instruction in Chinese universities: Perspectives, discourse and evaluation* (pp. 184–203). Routledge.
- IIE. (2019). *Project atlas*. Retrieved from <https://www.iie.org/en/Research-and-Insights/Project-Atlas/Explore-Data>
- Jenkins, J. (2013). *English as a Lingua Franca in international university: The politics of academic English language policy*. Routledge.
- Jewels, T., & Albon, R. (2012). “We don’t teach English, we teach in English”: Teaching non-native English speaking university students. *Learning and Teaching in Higher Education: Gulf Perspectives*, 9(1). <https://ithe.zu.ac.ae>
- Kamaşak, R., Şahan, K., & Rose, H. (2021). Academic language-related challenges at an English-medium university. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 49(100945), 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2020.100945>
- Karakaş, A. (2014). Lecturers’ perceptions of their English abilities and language use in English-medium universities. *International Journal on New Trends in Education and Their Implications*, 5(2), 114–125.
- Karakaş, A. (2019). A critical look at the phenomenon of ‘A mixed-up use of Turkish and English’ in English-medium universities in Turkey. *Journal of Higher Education and Science*, 9(2), 205–215.
- Katayama, J., Örnektekin, S., & Demir, S. S. (2018). Policy into practice on sustainable development related teaching in higher education in Turkey. *Environmental Education Research*, 24(7), 1017–1030. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13504622.2017.1360843>
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2009). Students’ and lecturers’ perceptions of the effectiveness of foreign language instruction in an English-medium university in Turkey. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 14(1), 81–93. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13562510802602640>
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2014). Students’ perceptions of English language versus Turkish language used as the medium of instruction in Turkey. *International Periodical for the Languages, Literature and History of Turkey*, 9(12), 443–459.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2018). Confronting similar challenges?: Exploring students’ experiences of studying engineering at a Turkish university: Turkish versus English-language medium of instruction. *Rassegna Italiana di Linguistica Applicata*, 2–3, 145–160.
- Kortmann, B. (2019). *Language policies at the LERU member institutions*. Retrieved from <https://www.leru.org/files/Publications/Language-Policies-at-LERU-member-institutions-Full-Paper.pdf>
- Koru, S., & Åkesson, J. (2011). *Turkey’s English deficit*. TEPAV.
- Küçükcan, T., & Gür, B. S. (2010). *Türkiye’de yükseköğretim: karşılaştırmalı bir analiz*. SETA, Siyaset, Ekonomi ve Toplum Araştırmaları Vakfı.

- Lauridsen, K. (CEL-ELC Working Group). (2013). *Higher education language policy*. European Language Council/Conseil Européen des Langues. Retrieved from https://celelc.org/activities/Working_groups/Concluded-Working-Groups/Univeristy_Language_Policy/index.html
- Lehmann, J. P. (2011). *Turkey's 2023 economic goal in global perspective*. Center for Economics and Foreign Policy Studies-Edam. Retrieved from <https://edam.org.tr/wp-content/uploads/2011/06/Lehmann-June-2011.pdf>
- Macaro, E. (2018). *English medium instruction*. Oxford University Press.
- Macaro, E., Akıncıoğlu, M., & Han, S. (2019). English medium instruction in higher education: Teacher perspectives on professional development and certification. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 30(1), 144–157. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ijal.12272>
- Marginson, S. (2010). Higher education in the global knowledge economy. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 2(5), 6962–6980. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2010.05.049>
- Middle States Commission of Higher Education. (2020). *Standards for accreditation and requirements of affiliation*. Retrieved from <https://www.msche.org/standards/>
- Nguyen, H. T., Walkinshaw, I., & Pham, H. H. (2017). EMI programs in a Vietnamese university: Language, pedagogy and policy issues. In B. Fenton-Smith, P. Humphreys, & I. Walkinshaw (Eds.), *English medium instruction in higher education in Asia-Pacific* (pp. 37–52). Springer.
- O'Dowd, R. (2018). The training and accreditation of teachers for English medium instruction: An overview of practice European universities. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 21(1), 1–11. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2018.1491945>
- O'Dwyer, J., & Atli, H. H. (2018). ESP/EAP in university programs in a non-target language community—issues and challenges. In Y. Kirkgöz & K. Dikilitaş (Eds.), *Key issues in English for specific purposes in higher education* (pp. 291–304). Springer.
- OECD. (2001). *Knowledge, work organization and economic growth*. DEELSA/ELSA 2. OECD.
- Özen, E. F., Alpaslan, İ. B., Çağlı, A., Özdoğan, İ., Sancak, M., Dizman, A. O., & Vale, D. (2013). *Turkey national needs assessment of state school English language teaching*. British Council & TEPAV, ArkaikArt Media Design, Ankara, Turkey.
- Pearson Assured Qualifications. (2020). Retrieved from <https://qualifications.pearson.com/en/qualifications/pearson-assured-english.html>
- Pecorari, D., & Malmström, H. (2018). At the crossroads of TESOL and English-medium instruction. *TESOL Quarterly*, 52(3), 497–515. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.470>
- QS World Universities Ranking. (2020). *Turkey*. Retrieved from <https://www.topuniversities.com/university-rankings/world-university-rankings/2020>
- Retrieved from <https://www.advance-he.ac.uk/knowledge-hub/uk-professional-standards-framework-ukpsf>
- Salmi, J. (2009). *The challenge of establishing world class universities*. The World Bank. <https://doi.org/10.1596/978-0-8213-7865-6>
- Shulman, L. (1986). Those who understand: Knowledge growth in teaching. *Educational Researcher*, 15(2), 4–14.
- Singh, M. (2010). Quality assurance in higher education: Which pasts to build on, what futures to contemplate? *Quality in Higher Education*, 16(2), 189–194. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1353832.2.2010.485735>
- Staub, D. (2019). The increasing need for quality assurance and accreditation in foreign language. In D. Staub (Ed.), *Quality assurance and accreditation in foreign language education* (pp. 1–5). Springer.
- Staub, D., & Kirkgöz, Y. (2019). Standards assessment in English language teacher education. *Novitas-ROYAL (Research on Youth and Language)*, 13(1), 47–61.
- Stelma, J., & Fay, R. (2019). An ecological perspective for critical action in applied linguistics. In A. Kostoulas (Ed.), *Challenging boundaries in language education: Second language learning and teaching* (pp. 51–69). Springer.
- TAEC EMI Handbook. (2019). *TAEC Erasmus+ project (2017–2020)*. Retrieved from <http://cip.ku.dk/english/projects-and-collaborations/taec/>

- TAEC. (2020). Transnational Alignment of English Competences for University Lectures (TAEC). Retrieved from [file:///Users/z9685/Downloads/taec_handbook_feb_2020_noedit%20\(5\).pdf](file:///Users/z9685/Downloads/taec_handbook_feb_2020_noedit%20(5).pdf)
- Tezcan-Ünal, B., Jones, W., & Littlewood, S. (2019a). Curriculum review: Analysis through a learning organization. *Innovative Higher Education*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10755-019-09472-y>
- Tezcan-Ünal, B., Winston, K., & Qualter, A. (2019b). Learning-oriented quality assurance in higher education institutions. *Quality in Higher Education*, 24(3), 221–237. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13538322.2018.1558504>
- The Commission on English Language Program Accreditation (CEA). Retrieved from <https://cea-accredit.org/>
- The World Bank. Data. Country Profile, Turkey, population. <https://data.worldbank.org/country/turkey?view=chart>
- Üstün, Ç. (2012). Analysis of Turkey's relations with the EU and the US in the light of 2011 Arab Revolts. *Études helléniques/Hellenic Studies*, 20(1), 51–68.
- Van Vught, F. A., & Westerheijden, D. F. (1994). Towards a general model of quality assessment in higher education. *Higher Education*, 28, 355–337. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01383722>
- VSNU. (2018). *University teaching qualifications*. Retrieved from https://www.vsnul.nl/en_GB/teacher-quality.html
- Wächter, B., & Maiworm, F. (2014). *English-taught programmes in European higher education: The state of play in 2014*. ACA Papers on International Cooperation in Education, Lemmens.
- Werther, C., Denver, L., Jensen, C., & Mees, I. M. (2014). Using English as a medium of instruction at university level in Denmark: The lecturer's perspective. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 35(5), 443–462. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2013.868901>
- West, R., Güven, A., Parry, J., Ergenekon, T., Aşık, G., Aydın, İ., & Başışoş, S. (2015). *The state of English in higher education in Turkey*. TEPAV and British Council. https://www.britishcouncil.org.tr/sites/default/files/he_baseline_study_book_web_-_son.pdf
- Yamamoto, B. A., & Ishikura, Y. (2018). A pebble that creates great waves? Global 30 classes and internationalization of the student body. In A. Bradford & H. Brown (Eds.), *English-medium instruction in Japanese higher education: Policy, challenges and outcomes* (pp. 71–87). Multilingual Matters.
- Yükseköğretim Kurulu Başkanlığı (YÖK). (2020). *Turkish Higher Education Council*. İstatistikler. <https://istatistik.yok.gov.tr/>

Internationalization, Mobility and English-Medium Instruction in the Context of Turkish Higher Education



Tuğba Elif Toprak Yıldız

Abstract Within the last decades, the European higher education system has witnessed transformative processes that have increasingly concentrated on internationalization. Specifically, pressures that stem from the competitiveness in the global academic market may have caused higher education institutions to adopt internationalization practices not only to attract more skilled students but also to improve their reputation. The literature on internationalization has inextricably linked internationalization to greater student mobility and increased use of English as the medium of instruction (EMI) while the possible linguistic outcome of internationalization has been Englishization. Like their international counterparts, Turkish higher education institutions have been engaging with internationalization in response to the increasing competition in the global market and the Bologna Process. Consequently, the number of students participating in mobility programs such as Erasmus+, the number of international students enrolled in Turkish universities, and the number of EMI programs have increased. As such, the chapter discusses the possible links between internationalization and EMI in Turkish higher education based on Turkey's latest statistics on the incoming/outward university student mobility, the data on the number/origin of international students attending Turkish universities, and the number of existing EMI programs. These fundamental issues are discussed by considering foreign language policies prevalent in the Turkish higher education system and EMI's potential, which is assumed to foster the internationalization and render study programs more accessible and attractive to international students.

Keywords Internationalization · Foreign language policy · English-medium instruction (EMI) · Student mobility

T. E. Toprak Yıldız (✉)
Izmir Democracy University, İzmir, Turkey

© The Author(s), under exclusive license to Springer Nature
Switzerland AG 2022

Y. Kirkgöz, A. Karakaş (eds.), *English as the Medium of Instruction in Turkish Higher Education*, Multilingual Education 40,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-88597-7_4

1 Introduction

Although previously labeled as a fuzzy term (Kehm & Teichler, 2007), internationalization has become a buzzword within the last decades. In the higher education context, the term has been defined as the process of incorporating an international and intercultural dimension into the goal, functions and delivery of education, research and service practices (Knight, 2004). Higher education institutions all around the world have adopted various internationalization policies and engaged with activities to meet the demands of the competitive global academic market, increase their visibility and prestige, and attract better-skilled students and scholars. In particular, internationalization has been a key driving force behind the spread of EMI since the English language has often been regarded as a symbol of internationalization (Galloway, 2020). Consequently, there has been an exponential growth in the number of EMI programs while regional growth in EMI has been quite substantial especially in Europe (Wächter & Maiworm, 2008, 2014), Asia (Fenton-Smith et al., 2017), and some parts of the Middle East (McMullen, 2014).

Turkey has also been one of the countries in which a considerable growth in the number of EMI programs has been documented over the years (Arik & Arik, 2014; Karakaş & Bayyurt, 2019; Kırkgöz, 2009; Macaro & Akıncioğlu, 2018). An increasing number of Turkish higher education institutions have adopted EMI in order to compete in the global education market, grow their international reputation, increase their institutional rankings, and meet the demands of the workplace. In the relevant literature, the implementation of EMI has been closely linked to a higher rate of international students and staff, increasing student and staff mobility, and internationalization of study programs (Galloway, 2020). In particular, student mobility is significant in that, perhaps, it could be one of the strongest indicators and obvious forms of internationalization (Altbach, 2002; Galloway, 2020). As such, the present chapter aims to discuss the possible links between internationalization and EMI in the Turkish higher education context based on Turkey's latest statistics on student mobility, the number of international students attending Turkish universities, and existing EMI programs.

The chapter consists of six installments and is structured as follows. The first installment deals with the concept of internationalization in the context of higher education while the second installment focuses on the links between internationalization and student mobility. The third installment concentrates on the relationship between internationalization and EMI whereas the fourth installment addresses these three issues altogether and takes a closer look at the links between internationalization, mobility and EMI in the Turkish higher education context. The fifth installment provides a brief background and current implementation of EMI in the Turkish context along with its impact on internationalization while the sixth installment presents a set of deductions and relevant practical considerations.

2 Internationalization and Higher Education

A significant number of higher education institutions all around the globe strive to increase their visibility, gain prestige at home and abroad, and climb the international ranking charts mainly to attract better-skilled students and scholars (Hazelkorn, 2012; Llurda et al., 2014). To illustrate, whereas international outlook constitutes approximately 8% of the performance indicators proposed by the Times Higher Education World University Rankings (The Times Higher Education, 2020), according to the QS World University Rankings (2020), the share of internationalization is around 10% of the total ranking score.

Given one of the most significant indicators and outcomes of increasing the quality of higher education is the notion of internationalization, governments, policy, and decision-makers in the higher education institutions pay specific attention to developing schemes that might boost internationalization. Even though internationalization does not have a strict and fixed definition and the scope of existing definitions has exhibited variation across different contexts to a considerable extent (Knight, 2004), it is clear that internationalization involves policies, implementations, and services that bring an international dimension to activities taking place at a given higher education institution (Knight, 1994). Broadly speaking, internationalization can be defined as the process of adopting an international, intercultural, and global approach while designing and delivering education, conducting research activities, and providing service functions in the higher education context (Knight, 2004).

To be more specific, launching and participating in student and faculty member exchange programs, supporting international collaborative research and development projects, promoting intercultural education, and extra-curricular activities are expected to contribute to the internationalization process positively (Knight & de Wit, 1995). For instance, Back et al. (1997) conducted a study to examine both the internationalization process within the Australian higher education context and higher education institutions' relevant practices. The dimensions that Back et al. (1997) considered while conducting their examinations were (i) the presence of international study programs, (ii) internationalization of instruction, (iii) internationalization of research efforts and projects, and (iv) adoption of organizational strategies that facilitate internationalization. In a similar vein, Hughes (2008) listed pivotal factors that could boost internationalization as student mobility, faculty, and staff mobility, and finally, offshore delivery. According to Knight (1997), in terms of curricula implementation, several practical strategies could facilitate the internationalization of higher education institutions such as launching international study programs at graduate and undergraduate levels, maintaining these exchange programs, and offering foreign language teaching programs.

Other strategies, such as facilitating and supporting international research, publication, and projects, can also be implemented from a research-based perspective. However, internationalization efforts cannot be confined solely to teaching and research. Carrying out extra-curricular activities, delivering additional services,

such as distance and online education options, providing off-shore instruction, and establishing community-based partnerships would also contribute positively to the internationalization process. Hence, it is evident that the internationalization of higher education institutions depends mainly on the presence of international study programs, international research projects, student/staff exchange opportunities, foreign language development programs, and extra-curricular activity opportunities that promote international and intercultural relations. Put differently, internationalization in higher education requires the integration of global, international, and intercultural elements with education, along with research practices (Santiago et al., 2008). An effective route to reach this end and one of the most significant internationalization indicators has been promoting student mobility through exchange programs.

3 Internationalization and Student Mobility

Student mobility does not only function as one of the most critical indicators for the internationalization of higher education institutions but also provides host countries with several advantages (Parey & Waldinger, 2010). According to the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2004), these advantages can be classified into four main categories that could be listed as (i) growth in mutual understanding, (ii) migration of skilled labor, (iii) increasing income, and (iv) capacity building. Especially in contexts where the aging population is a case, if international students opt for staying permanently in the host country, attracting skilled international students can help eliminate the undesirable effects of the aging population on the economy and stimulate innovation and production (OECD, 2016). In other words, attracting highly-skilled international students, which is called the academic-gate approach, has become a vital route to improve existing social capital in regions with knowledge-based economies (Abella, 2006; Kuptsch & Pang, 2006).

Although these advantages might not be visible in the short run, financial outcomes of the mobility could be strikingly evident even within a short time. For instance, a thematic report prepared by the Australian Productivity Commission (2015) demonstrated that international educational services' contribution to the Australian economy was approximately \$17 (billion) in 2014. However, considering existing practices, it could be inferred that countries participating in exchange programs mostly focus on not only the economic benefits of mobility practices but also on cultural social benefits, such as growth in mutual understanding, building a shared culture, transparency, and comparability (OECD, 2018).

Historically, the cornerstone of mobility in higher education has been the Bologna Declaration, signed by the representatives of 29 European countries in June 1999. As a consequence of this initiative, the European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS), a standard tool used in the European Higher Education area to render national courses and programs more comparable internationally, was introduced (European Commission, 2015). Thanks to the ECTS

scheme, students can visit higher education institutions across different countries and have their academic studies and qualifications recognized. The adoption of the ECTS has supported the exchange programs, such as Erasmus and Nordplus Higher Education Program. In particular, the Erasmus (European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students) program was launched in 1987 to facilitate and boost cultural, social, and academic exchanges between European institutions and students. The program was combined with the European Union's other programs for education and training (e.g., Leonardo da Vinci, Comenius, Grundtvig) under the banner of Erasmus+ in 2014.

The Bologna Declaration (1999) has not only helped establish a more unified and transparent European higher education system and but also supported the notion of internationalization of higher education across the continent. Furthermore, it has helped restructure the existing educational systems and programs in line with European countries' economic, social, cultural, and linguistic needs. Within the last two decades, higher education institutions seem to treat internationalization as an opportunity to become a key player in the global education market, boost their prestige and reputation, and gain financial benefits by attracting skilled international students (Garrett & Gallego Balsa, 2014). On the other hand, from a student-point-of-view, participating in exchange programs for mobility purposes could be an excellent opportunity for receiving a quality education, honing essential skills that ensure higher returns both in education and the labor market, and improving linguistic and intercultural skills (OECD, 2016, 2018). Likewise, the European Higher Education Area has regarded student mobility as an effective means to help students acquire critical skills and competencies, mainly foreign language skills and intercultural competence. Thus, it is not a coincidence that the number of international students participating in tertiary education programs has grown in number, from two million in 1999 to five million in 2016 (OECD, 2018).

4 Links Between Internationalization and English-Medium Instruction

Although originally not intended, the Bologna Process (1999) has considerably shaped language policies implemented in the European higher education system through an urge for internationalization. Internationalization policies and practices seem to have exerted a significant impact on the linguistic landscape of European higher education institutions. The notion of multilingualism has been receiving increasing attention over the years; however, quite ironically, EMI has also gained continuing popularity throughout the continent (Kuteeva, 2014). EMI can be defined as the use of the English language to teach content other than English itself in countries where English is not the majority language (Macaro, 2018). Especially within the last decade, the use of EMI has grown exponentially (Dearden, 2014; Macaro et al., 2018). Within the post-Bologna period, this popularity has grown so massive

that internationalization has become a synonym for Englishization (i.e., a phenomenon referring to the effect of English over other languages) and EMI (Kirkpatrick, 2011; Phillipson, 2009). Nevertheless, higher education institutions' policy-related reactions to Englishization have varied to some extent. According to Risager (2012), these policies can be classified into three categories: A monolingual – English only policy; a bilingual – English along with the national language policy; and a trilingual – English and the national and the regional language policy.

In particular, higher education institutions in Europe have taken various approaches to initiate and adopt these language policies at both undergraduate and graduate levels. While an increasing number of institutions have opted for EMI, many institutions have made minimal or fundamental changes to their existing programs. In the latter case, the most common solution has been increasing the number of courses offered in English and/or adding variety to the existing programs (Smit & Dafauz, 2012). It is safe to posit that such changes to increase the weight of English in study programs might influence exchange programs' efficiency and increase the attractiveness of study programs since exchange students would have more course alternatives to select when they study abroad. Thus, we may safely assume that EMI-oriented higher education institutions would be more advantageous in terms of internationalization and mobility than their monolingual counterparts.

The links between EMI and internationalization was also echoed by Coleman (2006), who maintained that EMI courses at higher education institutions improve students' chances in participating in exchange programs, in addition to providing them with opportunities to attain a privileged status in society and compete in the job market. In a similar vein, Galloway (2020) asserted that EMI has been closely related to increased recruitment of international students and staff, transnational education, and increased cultural learning opportunities. Considering these advantages, it would be no surprise that the number of higher education institutions that provide EMI programs and courses has continued to increase over the years. Even though the increase has been the most obvious in northern Europe, especially in the Nordic countries (i.e., Sweden, Finland, Norway, and Denmark), the number of EMI higher education institutions in the German and Dutch contexts has also tripled over the last decade (Wächter & Maiworm, 2008, 2014). A similar growth pattern can also be observed in Asian countries, where an increasing number of higher education institutions have been implementing EMI (Fenton-Smith et al., 2017). To illustrate, while the number of EMI programs in South Korea is estimated to be over 9000 (Byun et al., 2010), the number of higher education institutions that provide full degree EMI programs is reported to be around 90 in Taiwan (Yang, 2015).

Besides serving as the medium of instruction in a significant number of English as foreign language (EFL) settings, English has also assumed the role of being the lingua franca, i.e., the global language, and the language of international research and academia (Ha, 2013; Seidlhofer, 2011). Apart from the reasons mentioned above, the spread and popularity of EMI in higher education institutions might have to do with increased staff, student mobility, increased international study and research programs, and students' desire to attend these programs. To illustrate,

although the Erasmus program was launched to enhance students' educational and cultural experiences in the European zone, it is evident that it also has contributed positively to the status of English as the lingua franca throughout Europe. This inference can be drawn from the marked and steady increase in the number of students that have visited English-speaking countries or countries which offer EMI in the last two decades (Cots et al., 2014; Mackiewicz, 2001). Considering that English has become the standard language for communication among countries, institutions, and individuals, obviously, the spread of English will continue to gain increasing momentum.

5 Internationalization, Mobility, and EMI in the Turkish Context

After elaborating on issues of interest in the current chapter one by one and discussing the links between these issues from a broader perspective, we now turn our lenses to the internationalization process, mobility practices, and their possible links to EMI in the Turkish context. Based on the Turkish Council of Higher Education's most recent figures, as of 2019, the Turkish higher education system features 129 state-funded and 74 private universities, with more than 7.5 million students at the tertiary level (<https://istatistik.yok.gov.tr/>). These numbers indicate that the Turkish higher education system is the largest one in the European region. In line with the steady increase in the number of Turkish students enrolled in higher education institutions, the number of international students attending Turkish universities has been rising (see Table 1).

Based on the figures demonstrated in Table 1, it would be safe to infer that the Turkish higher education system has grown more international over the years, and there is a steady increase in the number of international students. Table 2 demonstrates the most recent distribution of international students in the Turkish higher education system regarding the students' home countries.

Table 1 Number of international students in the Turkish tertiary system (2013–2019)

Academic year	N of international students
2013–2014	48,169
2014–2015	72,020
2015–2016	87,717
2016–2017	107,947
2017–2018	125,030
2018–2019	154,446

Note: Frequencies have been calculated based on the data available on the Turkish Higher Education Information Management System <https://istatistik.yok.gov.tr/>

Table 2 Distribution of international students across home countries (2018–2019)

Country	N of students	Country	N of students	Country	N of students	Country	N of students
Syria	27,034	USA	661	Burkina Faso	192	Eritrea	63
Azerbaijan	19,383	Netherlands	650	UK	192	Norway	56
Turkmenistan	17,571	Tajikistan	649	Burundi	190	Sri Lanka	56
Iraq	7608	Ukraine	629	Congo	181	Japan	55
Iran	7154	Algeria	588	Switzerland	174	Belarus	50
Afghanistan	6804	Bangladesh	585	The Gambia	169	Haiti	42
Germany	4378	Cameroon	583	Rwanda	167	Gabon	40
Somalia	3764	Djibouti	535	Senegal	167	Qatar	39
Yemen	3076	Ethiopia	507	Canada	161	Hungary	37
Bulgaria	3010	Austria	496	Comoros	161	Nepal	36
Egypt	2910	Guinea	495	Romania	151	Vietnam	36
Greece	2713	Lebanon	466	Belgium	149	Cambodia	35
Jordan	2643	Kenya	464	Congo	146	Brazil	33
Palestine	2483	Bosnia-Herzegovina	430	Philippines	145	Slovakia	33
China	2257	S. Arabia	416	Guinea-Bissau	137	Bahrain	31
Kazakhstan	2191	Tunisia	396	Italy	119	Finland	26
Pakistan	2115	Mali	387	Benin	115	C. Taiwan	25
Kyrgyzstan	1937	Ghana	379	Malawi	115	Angola	24
Libya	1756	Tanzania	377	Madagascar	100	Lithuania	24
Nigeria	1562	Moldova	371	Zimbabwe	100	Mexico	23
Russian F.	1407	S. African R.	362	Colombia	92	Venezuela	23
Kosovo	1322	France	356	Myanmar	92	UAE	21
Indonesia	1218	Uganda	293	C. African R.	92	Singapore	21
Albania	1148	India	250	Liberia	91	Kuwait	19
Uzbekistan	1075	Mauritania	247	Australia	82	Mauritius	19
Morocco	1071	Thailand	225	Denmark	78	Croatia	17
Chad	989	Niger	219	Poland	77	Portugal	14
N. Cyprus	888	Montenegro	218	Togo	75	OTHER	947
Macedonia	883	Malaysia	216	Sierra Leone	73	TOTAL	154,446
Serbia	795	Korea	213	Spain	72		
Sudan	735	Israel	197	Mozambique	71		
Georgia	710	Zambia	195	Sweden	69		
Mongolia	700	Côte d'Ivoire	194	S. Sudan	67		

Note: Frequencies have been calculated based on the data available on the Turkish Higher Education Information Management System <https://istatistik.yok.gov.tr/>

As shown in Table 2, while the total number of international students attending Turkish universities is reported to be 154.446 (based on 2018–2019 statistics), Turkish universities attract international students from 126 countries/regions. Syrian

students constitute the largest group of international students, most probably due to ongoing conflicts and civil war in the neighboring country. It can be concluded that a vast number of international students choosing Turkey as a study destination are from neighboring countries (e.g., Iraq, Iran), Turkic countries (e.g., Turkmenistan, Azerbaijan, and Kazakhstan), countries in which a significant number of Turkish origin individuals reside (e.g., Germany, Bulgaria), the Middle East countries (Egypt, Jordan, Palestine) and African countries (e.g., Somalia, Yemen). Moreover, the figures clearly show a wide diversity in sending countries – from Indonesia to Thailand, Mexico, and Spain. Although the number of students from these countries is apparently limited when compared to the countries topping the list, considering the diversity on the list and the increase in the number of incoming international students, it would be safe to posit that the Turkish higher education system has become more internationalized within the last decade.

Another significant indicator for internationalization in the higher education context is the extent of participation in the mobility/exchange programs, which can be directly measured through the number of inbound/outbound students engaging with mobility practices. Outbound mobility expresses the number of students from a given country studying abroad, while inbound mobility refers to the number of students from abroad studying in a given country. These figures are highly crucial in appraising the extent of internationalization in a specific country. Table 3 below shows the figures for each mobility type in the European countries under the 2017 Erasmus+ mobility call for study purposes.

The figures undoubtedly show that Turkey leaves many countries on the list behind in terms of the total number of outbound students, yet falls behind Germany, Spain, France, and Italy, where the number of outbound students is almost three times larger than in Turkey. Nevertheless, taking merely the total number of outbound students might be misleading since countries differ considerably in the total number of students and higher education institutions. To illustrate, considering that the number of students enrolled in German universities in 2019–2020 is around 2.9 million while this number is more than 2.6 million in France, 1.6 million in Spain, and 1.7 million students in Italy (Source, <https://www.statista.com/>), the ratio of outbound students for Turkey, which is home to 7.5 million university students, appears to be relatively low. The situation seems to be less promising when the number of inbound students is taken into account. The number of inbound students, i.e., students from abroad studying in a given country, is reported to be 2007 in Turkey while this number is 21678 in Germany, 21,691 in France, 20,625 in Italy, and 18,389 in the United Kingdom.

Relevant literature cites student mobility determinants as financial factors, personal characteristics, distance between home and host countries, language, climate, and network (Barrioluengo & Flisi, 2017; Findlay et al., 2006). Of these determinants, language is regarded to be a massive barrier to international student mobility. Having a common language between the home and host countries might strongly affect students' decisions to study abroad (Beine et al., 2014). In most international academic settings, English has been the common language of international research and academia. Consequently, even though international students do not know the

Table 3 Higher education student mobility under Erasmus+ 2017

Country	Outbound student mobility	Inbound student mobility
Turkey	13,834	2007
Austria	4902	5393
Belgium	6705	6574
Bulgaria	1144	928
Croatia	1354	1785
Cyprus	302	625
Czechia	5467	8252
Denmark	2779	4318
Estonia	699	1430
Finland	4589	7392
France	30,408	21,691
Germany	33,104	21,678
Greece	3457	2630
Hungary	2922	4629
Iceland	208	531
Ireland	2545	4963
Italy	29,527	20,625
Latvia	1034	1456
Liechtenstein	34	32
Lithuania	2385	2530
Luxembourg	478	135
Malta	284	425
Netherlands	9862	9990
Norway	2337	5826
Poland	10,006	14,421
Portugal	7057	11,698
Romania	3882	2591
Spain	31,090	34,775
Sweden	3457	8134
United Kingdom	9540	18,389

Source: Statistical Annex Erasmus+ Annual Report 2018, European Commission

host country's language, they would be able to function in international academic settings through the English language. At this point, the availability of EMI study programs in potential host countries could increase these countries' attractiveness for international students. Considering the low ratio of inbound student mobility in the Turkish higher education when compared to other participating countries, it is possible to speculate whether a lack of a sufficient number of EMI programs in Turkey might have to do with this outcome.

6 English-Medium Instruction and Prospects for Internationalization in the Turkish Higher Education Context

EMI has been growing in popularity in many expanding circle countries over the years (Wächter & Maiworm, 2008, 2014). Consequently, the number of higher education institutions that provide EMI programs is on the rise even in countries where English functions as a foreign language learned at schools (e.g., Italy, Greece, and China) (Doiz et al., 2014). While the English language was introduced into the Turkish education system during the Tanzimat Period, the second half of the eighteenth century when the Ottoman Empire was still extant (Kırkgöz, 2007), the origins of EMI in the Turkish context date back to the late nineteenth century (Karakaş & Bayyurt, 2019). Although in the earlier periods of the Republican Era languages, such as French and German, played a more significant role, with the changing political and cultural conjunctures, English has become not only the most studied foreign language but also the most popular means of education after Turkish, at all educational levels from kindergarten to higher education (Büyükkantarcioglu, 2004; Doğançay-Aktuna, 1998; Kırkgöz, 2009).

Historically, Karakaş and Bayyurt (2019) distinguish between two types of EMI institutions, namely first-generation and new-generation EMI universities. While the first-generation EMI institutions were founded before the turn of the twenty-first century (e.g., Robert College), new generation EMI universities were established after the turn of the twenty-first century. In the Turkish higher education, the implementation of EMI has taken two forms (i) the use of English as the only medium of instruction to teach academic subjects other than English, and (ii) the use of English as the partial medium of instruction (Karakaş, 2019). The full EMI version has mainly been adopted in the first-generation EMI institutions. Even though EMI has often been criticized for affecting the quality of content learning negatively (Kırkgöz, 2014, 2018), these new generation EMI universities have been founded as a response to the race of internationalization, and they specifically aim to play an active role in the competitive international market and appeal to international students. Although the exact number of EMI programs may differ year by year, Table 4

Table 4 The number of EMI programs in the Turkish tertiary system/2020

Main area	Total N of study programs	N of EMI study programs	Share of the EMI programs in the total N of each main area
Verbal	1902	190	10%
Quantitative	4565	1309	29%
Equal weight	3542	888	25%
Language arts	608	363	60%
Total	10,617	2750	26%

Note: Frequencies have been calculated based on the data available on YOK ATLAS digital platform, <https://yokatlas.yok.gov.tr/>

shows the number of EMI programs in the Turkish higher education system in 2020 based on four broad areas (i.e., verbal, quantitative, equal-weight, and language arts) specified in the Turkish education system.

In the Turkish education system, while study programs such as sociology, geography, history, and archeology are placed under the umbrella of verbal areas, programs such as engineering, medicine, dentistry, and physics are classified into the quantitative area. On the other hand, law, business, economy, and international relations programs are placed under the banner of equal-weight areas. Finally, linguistics, literature, and language teaching programs are placed under the umbrella of language arts. Previous scholarly efforts examining EMI's status in the Turkish higher education system revealed that while the exact number of EMI programs was not known, EMI programs at the undergraduate level constituted around 20% of all undergraduate courses (Arik & Arik, 2014; Karakaş, 2019). The figures obtained from the Higher Education Council's YOKATLAS, a digital platform on which information concerning available programs is presented, reveal that 190 programs out of 1902 verbal area programs, 1309 programs out of 4565 quantitative programs, 888 programs out of 3542 equal weight programs and 363 out of 608 language arts programs are offered through EMI. When these figures are transformed into percentages, the EMI programs' shares in the total number of programs of each main area would be 10% for verbal, 29% for quantitative, 25% for equal weight, 60% for language arts areas. On average, 26% of existing programs at the undergraduate level are offered through EMI. This finding confirms earlier studies' predictions, which postulated that EMI programs at the undergraduate level constituted around 20% of all undergraduate courses (e.g., Arik & Arik, 2014; Karakaş, 2019). Given that there is now statistical evidence which suggests that the Turkish higher education is attracting more international students over the years and the number of EMI programs at Turkish universities is approaching 30%, the relatively low ratios related to inbound/outbound exchange students in the context of Erasmus + program is surprising. Considering the new generation of Turkish EMI universities have been founded as a response to the top-down and bottom-up pressures of internationalization in the hopes of attracting more international students and compete in the global market, it seems highly crucial that Turkish universities need to also become more competitive in the European region where the race is tough.

7 Deductions and Practical Considerations

Internationalization has been a matter of utmost significance for higher education institutions worldwide, which strive to increase their prestige and visibility in the global education market (Llurda et al., 2014). Another key driver for the internationalization efforts has been the desire to attract better-skilled students and researchers that would contribute significantly to the development of higher education institutions and the human capital of the host countries. Governments and policymakers in the higher education sector have been investing major efforts and sources into

developing schemes and programs that can help institutions grow more internationalized and function in a competitive global market – as in the case of the highly influential Bologna Declaration (1999) and subsequent efforts such as the ECTS. One strand of these schemes has mainly concentrated on student mobility, one of the most critical internationalization indicators. Student mobility can take several forms such as visiting the host country as an exchange student for a limited time, between 3 and 12 months, as in the case of Erasmus+ higher education student exchange scheme, or for the whole undergraduate education period, as in the case of government-funded Turkey Scholarships program.

It has been shown in the relevant literature that student mobility is affected considerably by a set of contextual and individual factors including financial situation, personal characteristics, distance between home and host countries, language, climate, and network (e.g., Barrioluengo & Flisi, 2017; Findlay et al., 2006). Since language has been viewed as a massive barrier to or facilitator of international student mobility that affects students' study destination choices (Beine et al., 2014), many higher education institutions have launched EMI study programs and English language teaching programs to render their existing programs more attractive to international students and improve their own students' mobility capacity. This reaction is entirely plausible, taking the fact that English has assumed the role of the lingua franca of international communication for decades (Kırkgöz, 2009). This same reaction can also be observed in the Turkish higher education context, where the number of EMI programs and EMI universities has flourished in particular within the last decade, as a response to internationalization requirements. At present, the ratio of EMI programs to the Turkish higher education system's overall programs is 26%. This number is expected to increase due to the popularity and relative advantages of EMI programs in internationalization, job prospects, and personal growth.

Especially the new generation EMI universities in Turkey have been established to compete in the global market, attract more international students and cater to the linguistic needs of both domestic and international students (Karakaş & Bayyurt, 2019). The number of international students pursuing a degree in Turkey clearly indicates that Turkish universities have begun to attract more international students from various sending countries. A substantial portion of these students comes from neighboring countries or countries with historical and cultural ties with Turkey. Nevertheless, these sending countries' geographical spectrum seems to be quite comprehensive, and the increase in the number of incoming students appears to be steady. Another significant indicator for student mobility and internationalization that would be entirely meaningful in the EMI context is the short-term student mobility practices, often in academic exchange programs such as Erasmus +. Considering the low ratio of inbound/outbound student mobility in the Turkish higher education when compared to other participating countries, initially, it might be possible to speculate that this outcome might have to do with the lack of EMI programs available in the Turkish context. Nevertheless, the latest figures clearly demonstrate that the number of available EMI programs is quite considerable in Turkey.

In this case, it can be argued that the issue might be about the structuring of existing programs rather than the quantity. Although the number of EMI programs has increased with great acceleration, it is difficult to say that the number of programs increases evenly or shows a regular distribution in all universities across the country. To be more specific, most EMI programs are either available in large public universities that have a significant number of study programs and are located in metropolitan cities or private universities, which have more of a boutique-style with increased internationalization opportunities. Hence, the concentration of EMI programs in specific universities and student quota restrictions applied per program within the Erasmus+ program may negatively affect the number of students who can benefit from mobility activities.

As a solution to this situation, various measures can be taken to ensure that both international inbound students and domestic outbound students would obtain maximum benefit from the mobility programs and increase the existing exchange programs' effectiveness. First of all, the number of faculty members that have English language competence and pedagogical competence should be adequate to launch and implement EMI programs (Macaro, 2019). Content lecturers' lack of English language and pedagogical competence could be one of the biggest obstacles to the spread and effective maintenance of EMI programs in the Turkish context. Considering that especially international students would prefer programs offering EMI, in cases where there is not an adequate number of faculty members to launch an EMI program, a feasible solution could be university-based course repository systems. By using such pool-based systems, international students would choose suitable courses in line with their studies and interest without sticking to a specific program.

Another crucial issue is that, in most cases, student mobility can be viewed solely as an academic activity in which students aim to extend their knowledge-base and hone existing skills in an international setting. On the other hand, mobility, which is one of the pillars of internationalization, cannot be confined to only learning, teaching, and research endeavors. Student mobility also needs to contribute positively to students' intercultural and personal growth. Thus, developing extra-curricular activities such as arranging international and intercultural gatherings, forming international student clubs, and offering incoming and outbound students with orientation activities are also highly significant.

Carrying out extra-curricular activities, delivering additional services such as distance and online education options, off-shore instruction, and community-based partnerships would positively contribute to the internationalization process. Hence, it would be safe to claim that internationalization of higher education institutions depends mostly on the presence of international study programs, international research projects, availability of student/staff exchange opportunities, and extra-curricular activity opportunities that promote international and intercultural relationships.

Finally, in order to foster internationalization at a given higher education institution, regardless EMI is implemented or not, authorities and policymakers can define explicit and consistent language policies, adjust faculty member hiring policies in

line with these clearly defined language policies, and provide faculty members and students with in-service training programs to improve participants' academic English and intercultural skills.

References

- Abella, M. (2006). Global competition for skilled workers and consequences. In C. Kuptsch & E. Pang (Eds.), *Competing for global talent* (pp. 11–32). ILO.
- Altbach, P. G. (2002). Knowledge and education as international commodities. *International Higher Education*, 28, 2–5.
- Arik, B. T., & Arik, E. (2014). The role and status of English in Turkish higher education. *English Today*, 30(4), 5–10.
- Australian Productivity Commission. (2015). *International Education Services, Productivity Commission research paper*. Canberra.
- Back, K., Davis, D., & Olsen, A. (1997). Strategies for internationalisation of higher education in Australia. In J. Knight & H. de Wit (Eds.), *Internationalisation of higher education in Asia Pacific countries* (pp. 33–46). The EAIE.
- Barrioluengo, M. S., & Flisi, S. (2017). *Student mobility in tertiary education: Institutional factors and regional attractiveness*. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union.
- Beine, M., Romain, N., & Ragot, L. (2014). Determinants of the international mobility of students. *Economics of Education Review*, 41, 40–54.
- Bologna Declaration. (1999). *The European higher education area*. Joint declaration of the European ministers of education convened in Bologna at the 19th of June 1999.
- Büyükkantarcioglu, N. (2004). A sociolinguistic analysis of the present dimensions of English as a foreign language in Turkey. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*, 165, 33–58.
- Byun, K., Chu, H., Kim, M., Park, I., Kim, S., & Jung, J. (2010). English-medium teaching in Korean higher education: Policy debates and reality. *Higher Education*, 62(4), 431–449.
- Coleman, J. A. (2006). English-medium teaching in European higher education. *Language Teaching*, 39(1), 1–14.
- Cots, J. M., Llorca, E., & Garrett, P. (2014). Language policies and practices in the internationalisation of higher education on the European margins: An introduction. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 35(4), 311–317.
- Dearden, J. (2014). *English as a medium of instruction – A growing global phenomenon*. British Council.
- Doğançay-Aktuna, S. (1998). The spread of English in Turkey and its current sociolinguistic profile. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 19(1), 24–39.
- Doiz, A., Lasagabaster, D., & Sierra, J. M. (2014). Language friction and multilingual policies in higher education: The stakeholders' view. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 35(4), 345–360.
- European Commission. (2015). *ECTS users' guide*. Publications Office of the European Commission.
- Fenton-Smith, B., Humphreys, P., & Walkinshaw, I. (2017). *English medium instruction in higher education in Asia-Pacific*. Springer.
- Findlay, A., King, R., Stam, A., & Ruiz-Gelices, E. (2006). The changing geographies of UK students studying and working abroad. *European Urban and Regional Studies*, 13(4), 291–318.
- Galloway, N. (2020). *English in higher education – English medium Part 1: Literature review*. British Council.
- Garrett, P., & Gallego Balsà, L. (2014). International universities and implications of internationalisation for minority languages: Views from university students in Catalonia and Wales. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 35(4), 361–375.

- Ha, P. L. (2013). Issues surrounding English, the internationalisation of higher education and national cultural identity in Asia: A focus on Japan. *Critical Studies in Education*, 54(2), 160–175.
- Hazelkorn, E. (2012). European “transparency instruments”: Driving the modernisation of European higher education. In A. Curaj, P. Scott, L. Vlăsceanu, & L. Wilson (Eds.), *European higher education at the crossroads: Between the Bologna Process and national reforms* (pp. 339–360). Springer.
- Hughes, R. (2008). Internationalisation of higher education and language policy: Questions of quality and equity. *Higher Education Management and Policy*, 20(1), 102–119.
- Karakaş, A. (2019). A critical look at the phenomenon of ‘a mixed-up use of Turkish and English’ in English-medium instruction universities in Turkey. *Journal of Higher Education and Science*, 9(2), 205–215.
- Karakaş, A., & Bayyurt, Y. (2019). The scope of linguistic diversity in the language policies, practices, and linguistic landscape of a Turkish EMI university. In J. Jenkins & A. Mauranen (Eds.), *Linguistic diversity on the EMI Campus* (pp. 96–122). Routledge.
- Kehm, B. M., & Teichler, U. (2007). Research on internationalization in higher education. *Journal of Studies in Higher Education*, 11, 260–273.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2007). English language teaching in Turkey: Policy changes and their implementations. *RELC Journal*, 38(2), 216–228.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2009). Globalization and English language policy in Turkey. *Educational Policy*, 23(5), 663–684.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2014). Students’ perceptions of English language versus Turkish language used as the medium of instruction in higher education in Turkey. *Turkish Studies*, 9(12), 443–459.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2018). Confronting similar challenges?: Exploring students’ experiences of studying engineering at a Turkish university: Turkish versus English-language medium of instruction. *Rassegna Italiana di Linguistica Applicata*, 2–3, 145–160.
- Kirkpatrick, A. (2011). *Internationalisation or Englishization? Medium of instruction in today’s universities*. Centre for Governance and Citizenship Working Paper Series 2011/003. Hong Kong Institute of Education.
- Knight, J. (1994). *Internationalization: Elements and checkpoints*. CBIE Research No. 7. Canadian Bureau for International Education (CBIE)/Bureau canadien de l’éducation internationale (BCEI).
- Knight, J. (1997). Internationalisation of higher education: A conceptual framework. In J. Knight & H. De Wit (Eds.), *Internationalisation of higher education in Asia Pacific countries* (pp. 5–19). EAIE.
- Knight, J. (2004). Internationalization remodeled: Definition, approaches, and rationales. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 8(1), 5–31.
- Knight, J., & De Wit, H. (1995). Strategies for internationalisation of higher education: Historical and conceptual perspectives. In H. de Wit (Ed.), *Strategies for internationalisation of higher education: A comparative study of Australia, Canada, Europe and the United States of America* (pp. 5–32). EAIE.
- Kuptsch, C., & Pang, E. (2006). *Competing for global talent*. ILO.
- Kuteeva, M. (2014). The parallel language use of Swedish and English: The question of ‘nativeness’ in university policies and practices. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 35(4), 332–344.
- Llurda, E., Cots, J. M., & Armengol, L. (2014). Views on multilingualism and internationalisation in higher education: Administrative staff in the spotlight. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 35(4), 376–391.
- Macaro, E. (2018). *English medium instruction: Content and language in policy and practice*. Oxford University Press.
- Macaro, E. (2019). Exploring the role of language in English medium instruction. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 23(3), 263–276.

- Macaro, E., & Akincioglu, M. (2018). Turkish university students' perceptions about English Medium Instruction: exploring year group, gender and university type as variables. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 39(3), 256–270.
- Macaro, E., Curle, S., Pun, J., An, J., & Dearden, J. (2018). A systematic review of English medium instruction in higher education. *Language Teaching*, 51(1), 36–76.
- Mackiewicz, W. (2001). Universities need a language lesson. *Guardian Weekly*, 21–27 June, 1.
- McMullen, G. (2014). The value and attributes of an effective preparatory English program: Perceptions of Saudi university students. *English Language Teaching*, 7(7), 131–140.
- OECD. (2004). *Internationalisation and trade in higher education: Opportunities and challenges*. OECD Publishing.
- OECD. (2016). *OECD science, technology and innovation outlook 2016*. OECD Publishing.
- OECD. (2018). *Education at a glance 2018: OECD indicators*. OECD Publishing.
- Parey, M., & Waldinger, F. (2010). Studying abroad and the effect on international labour market mobility: Evidence from the introduction of Erasmus. *The Economic Journal*, 121, 194–222.
- Phillipson, R. (2009). English in higher education: Panacea or pandemic? *ANGLES on the English-Speaking World*, 9, 29–57.
- Risager, K. (2012). Language hierarchies at the international university. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*, 216, 11–130.
- Santiago, P., Tremblay, K., Basri, E., & Arnal, E. (2008). *Tertiary education for the knowledge society: Special features equity, innovation, labour market, internationalisation*. OECD.
- Seidlhofer, B. (2011). *Understanding English as a lingua franca*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Smit, U., & Dafouz, E. (2012). Integrating content and language in higher education: An introduction to English-medium policies, conceptual issues and research practices across Europe. *AILA Review*, 25(1), 1–12.
- The QS World University Rankings. (2020, September 14). <https://www.topuniversities.com/qs-world-university-rankings/methodology>
- The Times Higher Education. (2020, September 14). <https://www.timeshighereducation.com/world-university-rankings/world-university-rankings-2020-methodology>
- Wächter, B., & Maiworm, F. (2008). *English-taught programmes in European higher education. The picture in 2007*. Lemmens.
- Wächter, B., & Maiworm, F. (2014). *English-taught programmes in European higher education: The state of play in 2014*. Lemmens.
- Yang, W. (2015). Content and language integrated learning next in Asia: Evidence of learners' achievement in CLIL education from a Taiwan tertiary degree programme. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 18(4), 361–382.

Stakeholder Perspectives on the Use of English-Medium Instruction (EMI) in Turkish Universities



Tijen Akşit and Alev Sezin Kahvecioğlu

Abstract Today internalization of education has resulted in an almost exclusive dominance of the use of English as a medium of instruction (EMI) in many tertiary educational institutions across the globe. EMI is defined as using English in the teaching of academic subjects in contexts where the mother tongue is not English. A growing body of research exists on the debate regarding the need for EMI. While some studies establish the benefits, some others reveal the threats it constitutes. These inconclusive results call for more in-depth research on the subject, especially in terms of exploring immediate stakeholder perspectives. This survey study was conducted with students, content professors (CPs) and English language instructors (ELIs) of 25 EMI universities in Turkey, and data were collected from 349 participants exploring their perceptions regarding the use of EMI in tertiary education. The study also investigated whether student perceptions change according to their demographic variables including but not limited to gender and disciplines studied. In a similar fashion whether the perceptions of professors and language instructors are shaped by their demographic variables, was also investigated. The quantitative data were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics, while the qualitative data were analyzed via content analysis.

Keywords English medium instruction (EMI) · Stakeholder perspective · Internalization

T. Akşit (✉)
İhsan Doğramacı Bilkent University, Ankara, Turkey
e-mail: aksit@bilkent.edu.tr

A. S. Kahvecioğlu
TOBB University, Ankara, Turkey
e-mail: acirak@etu.edu.tr

© The Author(s), under exclusive license to Springer Nature
Switzerland AG 2022

Y. Kirkgöz, A. Karakaş (eds.), *English as the Medium of Instruction in Turkish Higher Education*, Multilingual Education 40,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-88597-7_5

1 Introduction

Internalization of higher education paved the way for a growing number of higher education institutions (HEIs) to opt for using EMI for the last few decades in countries where English is not the primary language of communication. There are various historical and economic reasons for this phenomenon (Phillipson, 2003; Coleman, 2006; Kılıçkaya, 2006; Doiz et al., 2011; Karakaş, 2016; Macaro & Akıncioğlu, 2018). The underlying motives include but are not limited to these institutions' attempt to keep up with competitors in the ever-growing market of higher education sector by attracting better students from all around the world and giving their graduates a leverage in the fierce competition at the international job market. They hope to make their names known in the international arena through various means, for example the university rankings (Dearden, 2016). All this has resulted in English becoming an omnipresent language as the medium of education, especially in Europe (Brumfit, 2004; Jensen & Thogersen, 2011).

As to the Turkish context, few pioneer Turkish EMI universities founded in the 1950s were followed by other EMI universities in the 1980s, especially after the Higher Education Act of 1984. Finally, in the last couple of decades, after the Bologna process started in 2001, the number has grown significantly faster with the increase of the foundation universities, many of which are EMI institutions (Kırkgöz, 2007, 2009, 2016; Başıbek et al., 2014; Karakaş & Bayyurt, 2019). Following the global trend, this unstoppable increase in the number of EMI universities in Turkey in the last few decades (Selvi, 2014; Macaro et al., 2016; Turhan & Kırkgöz, 2018; Özer, 2020) was attributed to many factors including the global competition of high-quality education standards, creating better access to academic texts and encouraging globally acclaimed research, and creating possibilities of employment for their students after graduation in a global business environment (Kılıçkaya, 2006; West et al., 2015).

To many EMI is necessary, others question its possible effects on the culture, technological development and language of local context, or emphasize the burden it creates for students (Coleman, 2006; Ellili-Cherif & Alkhateeb, 2015). Relevant EMI literature shows stakeholder perspectives regarding attitudes towards and perceptions of EMI in HEIs (Macaro et al., 2018). Studies conducted in Denmark (Jensen & Thogersen, 2011), and in Northern Cyprus (Osam et al., 2019) exemplify this trend. The former claims that most instructors in a large Scandinavian university have a positive attitude towards EMI and they generally find their English level to be sufficient. Some instructors were also identified reporting concerns like EMI requiring more preparation, classes being less interactive, expression of ideas being more difficult, and teaching becoming more demanding (Jensen & Thogersen, 2011). Osam et al. (2019) report low student motivation in freshman year increasing in the following years as students learn how to cope with EMI challenges. Low student motivation is reported as causing problems for student understanding of some courses as desired. Sollaway's (2016) study conducted with female students in the UAE, found out that students acknowledge the need for good English

language skills to survive in a globalized world but that they also raise concerns regarding the challenge their low level of English brings to their learning, and the possible threat wide use of English poses to local Arabic language.

Studies conducted in Turkey also present some conflicting results regarding stakeholders' perception of EMI. For instance, Kılıçkaya (2006) found that Turkish professors prefer using Turkish as a medium of instruction while acknowledging that resources and student class participation related issues would not be solved regardless of the language of instruction. The study, however, concludes that students would benefit better if the instruction was in Turkish. According to Atik (2010) students admit having difficulty in learning in the content courses, which might be due to students' poor language skills even by the end of their English language preparatory year education if they start their university as zero beginners (Kerestecioğlu & Bayyurt, 2018).

Likewise, Karakaş (2016), who studied student and lecturer perspectives in three well established EMI universities, found that both groups believe EMI makes their university a more prestigious one as it internationalizes the institution. While this study found no influence of professors' field of discipline on their perspective, engineering students were found to attribute more importance to communication rather than linguistic accuracy in their speaking compared to students studying other disciplines. As to writing though, within the light of their institutional policies, both groups have native like academic English proficiency expectations from students. Another study was conducted by Aslan (2016) in six EMI universities with students, lecturers and graduates. The study found students to have the most positive attitude towards EMI, however, all stakeholders unanimously acknowledge the need for EMI due to English being an asset for their social and economic lives. Nevertheless, all groups also agree that good student and lecturer proficiency in English is a prerequisite. In a different study, Yıldız et al. (2017) studied EMI students' needs and challenges. Understanding technical terms, and low language proficiency of students and professors are the most prominent challenges pronounced. A need for a more production-oriented curriculum in the English language preparatory program focusing on speaking and writing skills came out as the major need. It was also observed that the challenges reported by students showed differences across such variables as the academic discipline, L1 background, prior EMI experience and the kind of exam taken to satisfy the university language proficiency criteria (Kamaşak et al., 2021).

Macaro and Akıncıoğlu's (2018) study illustrates positive student views and motivation. Students choose EMI programs to improve their English. They also believe that studying through EMI is beneficial for their professional life. Another study conducted by Kerestecioğlu and Bayyurt (2018) found negative attitudes of content professors towards EMI. Most of participating professors had been teaching in an EMI setting for less than 5 years and none attended any support programs regarding how to teach in English. According to a more recent study conducted with students of an established EMI university, students' views again divide into two contrary camps. The ones who support EMI believe that language of instruction needs to be English mainly due to international employment opportunities and easy

access to wide range of resources. The ones who have concerns think EMI hinders deep comprehension of subject matter. Gender was found to play a significant role in determining student attitude towards EMI, female students having a more positive stance (Çağatay, 2019).

More recently, Ekoç (2020) explored student views. Results show positive student views about getting ready for work life where English is a prerequisite and accessing wider range of resources. The negative views are mostly about students' linguistic challenges and professors' low English language proficiency resulting in ineffective courses. Some other studies conducted in engineering education also yielded contradicting results. Kerestecioğlu and Bayyurt (2018) study revealed that conducting a lesson using English or Turkish completely has no effect on the success rate of students. These results contradict with Kırkgöz (2014, 2018) study which was also conducted with engineering students and found that EMI students' detailed acquisition of content knowledge is largely ineffective unlike the case in Turkish medium instruction (TMI) contexts. Turhan and Kırkgöz (2018), reporting the results of their mixed method study which explored engineering students' and their professors' motivation towards EMI, assert that students being in their first, second, third, or fourth year does not have a significant role defining their motivation. While positive student motivation towards EMI is mostly instrumental, like how EMI helps accessing the global world and improves one's language, professors' motivation depends on various reasons. On a negative note, students believe EMI does not facilitate their subject area learning mainly due to their comprehension difficulties.

2 Problem and Purpose

The line of research that investigates stakeholder views of EMI proposes some agreed conclusions about some benefits of EMI, such as accessibility to wider range of resources and better job prospects in a globalized world, and some concerns regarding the issues that stem from low English language proficiency. However, especially the results of well-studied student and content professor perspectives still present some contradicting results and therefore are inconclusive (Macaro, 2018). As established above, the case in the Turkish context is no different and there is a need to study the stakeholder perspectives further to contribute to the local literature.

In addition, the results of the British Council and TEPAV's (West et al., 2015) baseline study which analyzed the state of English in Turkish tertiary education propose that not to sacrifice quality education in universities until Turkish secondary schools produce graduates with better level of English, no new EMI universities should be founded and that EMI programs should be at the graduate rather than undergraduate level. This rather bold assertion needs to be challenged by learning more about the context through the lenses of main stakeholders from as wide range

of universities as possible. Furthermore, as Macaro (2018) highlights English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers play an important role in EMI contexts. However, their role has been underrated, and their attitude and perspective towards EMI have mostly been neglected in the relevant literature.

The main purpose of this study, therefore, was to investigate the perceptions of the main stakeholders, namely undergraduate students, content professors and language instructors of EMI universities in Turkey regarding their attitude towards EMI. Whether there was a difference among their perceptions and whether their demographics have an impact on their orientation were also explored.

3 Methodology

3.1 Research Design

This embedded mixed method study relied on both quantitative and qualitative data collected via ‘concurrent procedures.’ Both types of data were collected simultaneously using Likert scale and open-ended survey questions respectively. Yet the qualitative data was rather “secondary to augment or provide additional sources of information not provided by” the Likert scale survey questions (Creswell, 2014).

3.2 Participants

The participating universities were identified via purposeful sampling. The universe of the study were all EMI universities in Turkey. During the course of this study Turkey housed 206 HEIs (YÖK, 2018). According to the national Measuring, Selection and Placement Center’s (ÖSYM) 2018 university selection guidebook, there were only eight universities in Turkey that used EMI completely in all of their faculties and 17 universities mostly used EMI except for one or two TMI faculties. To define the scope of the study, universities with a limit of maximum two TMI faculties were decided for inclusion in the study, which led to 25 universities sampled, hereby referred as “EMI universities” for the sake of practicality. The main stakeholders, namely undergraduate students, CPs and ELIs teaching in the English language preparatory schools of these universities were the targeted participants of the study. Consequently, data were simultaneously collected from 220 undergraduate students, 83 CPs, 46 ELIs from these universities. Yet for ethical reasons, the surveys had a box that they could select if they did not want their data to be used. 15 students, two CPs and one ELI prohibited the use of their data. Table 1 below presents the numbers and percentages of the usable participant data according to city and university type.

Table 1 Participant cities and university types

City	Ankara		Istanbul		Other	
	Foundation	Public	Foundation	Public	Foundation	Public
Sts (N = 205)	155 (75.7%)	18 (8.7%)	15 (7.3%)	15 (7.3%)	1 (0.5%)	1 (0.5%)
ELIs (N = 45)	27 (60%)	5 (11.1%)	13 (28.9%)	–	–	–
CPs (N = 81)	38 (46.9%)	9 (11.1%)	20 (24.7%)	–	14 (17.3%)	–

Table 2 Distribution of students and CPs according to their academic disciplines

Discipline	Students (N = 205)		CPs (N = 81)	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Engineering	85	41.5	16	19.9
Social and Administrative Sciences	68	33.1	32	39.5
Education	10	4.9	4	4.9
Natural Sciences	16	7.8	4	4.9
Art	12	5.9	3	3.7
Medical Sciences	–	–	7	8.6
Other	14	6.8	15	18.5
Total	205	100.0	81	100.0

Table 3 Academic ranks of CPs

Academic rank	<i>n</i>	%
Instructor	17	21.0
Assistant Professor	26	32.1
Associate Professor	17	21.0
Professor	21	25.9
Total	81	100.0

Majority of the students (78%) were in the first 2 years of their studies and 60% ($n = 123$) had studied in their university's English language preparatory program (Table 2) above lists students' and CPs' academic disciplines.

The distribution of the CPs' academic ranks was almost equal across levels (Table 3).

Additionally, 59.3% of the CPs and 55.6% of the ELIs had more than 10 years of teaching experience in an EMI context. All ELIs ranked their perceived English language proficiency as *good* or *very good* across all language skills, namely reading, listening, writing and speaking. It was the same for CPs except for 2.7% choosing average for listening and 4% for speaking. The majority of students opted for good or very good for each skill as well (Reading 94%, Listening 89%, Writing 75%, and Speaking 65%).

Table 4 Survey information

	Background questions	Part 1	Part 2
		1st scale	2nd scale
		General attitude towards EMI	EMI teaching/learning experience
Students	<i>Closed items</i>	<i>5points Likert items/1open item</i>	<i>5points Likert items/1open item</i>
CPs	<i>Closed items</i>	<i>5points Likert items/1open item</i>	<i>5points Likert items/1open item</i>
ELIs	<i>Closed items</i>	<i>5points Likert items/1open item</i>	x

3.3 Instrumentation

Surveys were used as the data collection tool to ask questions to “large groups of a population... about a topic” (Sarıs & Gallhofer, 2014, p. 4). To collect participants’ general point of view, questions asking for their opinions, beliefs, preferences and attitudes were asked (Aldridge & Levine, 2001).

The survey previously used by Atik (2010) to explore university students’ perceptions of EMI was adopted. Three versions of the survey were created for different stakeholder groups. The reliability checks were conducted using Cronbach’s alpha coefficients and all coefficients (between 0.50 and 0.90) were of an acceptable range according to Taber (2017). Table 4 provides more information regarding the parts, scales and type of questions in the surveys.

Each version had two parts. Part 1 had background questions from gender to academic discipline, to perceived English language proficiency asked to all stakeholders. Part 2 had two scales for students and CPs and one scale for ELIs. The second scale about the EMI experience was omitted in the ELIs’ survey as they do not teach such courses.

General attitude towards EMI scale had three sub-scales in all versions, namely *attitude towards EMI*, *reasons to favor* and *reasons not to favor EMI*. The second scale was about *EMI teaching and learning experiences* of students and CPs, with two sub-scales, *EMI influence on subject learning* and *EMI influence on language improvement*. The same questions were asked from professor’s and students’ perspective in their respective surveys, i.e. “Students have difficulty asking questions in English” in the CP survey reads “I have difficulty asking questions in English” in the student one.

3.4 Data Analysis

The quantitative data were analyzed using descriptive statistics, one-way ANOVA, and independent samples t-tests to investigate the perceptions of the stakeholders, and the differences across groups and sub-groups. Firstly, descriptive statistics were used to reveal perceptions about each sub-scale, and the means of sub-scales and frequencies of answers to individual questions were taken into account. The means of the sub-scales for each group was evaluated by taking the test value as 3. Variances and sample sizes were not equal, and there was no normality. Mean differences of participant groups were analyzed accordingly. Lastly, mean difference between participant groups and sub-scales were analyzed. This provided the answers regarding whether perceptions of the three groups differ significantly.

Qualitative data gathered from the open-ended questions were analyzed using content analysis. This was done by categorizing and coding the responses, which were then grouped in themes as suggested by Dey (2005). Open ended questions produced responses ranging from one or two words to full paragraphs. As a response to the first open ended question “*Please add below if you have any other opinions about EMI*” in total 38 responses were gathered, 14 from students, 15 from CPs and 9 from ELIs. Since it was rather a general question, the answers to the first question was further categorized as having a positive, negative or a neutral approach towards EMI. The second and third open-ended questions asked students and CPs about the positive and negative aspects of EMI. Under positive aspects, there were 140 responses, 91 from students and 49 from CPs. For the negatives, 129 responses came, 80 from students and 49 from CPs.

4 Results

4.1 Stakeholder General Attitude Towards EMI

Students, CPs and ELIs all have a rather positive attitude towards adopting English as a medium of instruction at tertiary level educational institutions. As illustrated in Table 5 the combined mean scores of the items under ‘Attitude towards EMI’ sub-scale for each stakeholder group are all over 3 out of 5, students’ having the most positive attitude ($M = 4.49$, $SD = 0.66$) and the CPs the least positive one ($M = 3.92$, $SD = 1.16$).

Table 5 Perceptions regarding *Attitude towards EMI*

Sub-scale	Participant group	<i>n</i>	M	SD
Attitude	Student	205	4.49	0.66
	CPs	81	3.92	1.16
	ELIs	45	4.29	0.98
	Total	331	4.32	0.88

Table 6 Items for *Attitude towards EMI*

Item	Totally agreeing/agreeing (%)		
	Sts	CPs	ELIs
I find instruction in English beneficial	88.8	69.2	82.2
Instruction in English is necessary in universities	81.0	60.4	71.2
Numerical courses in universities should be conducted in English	65.8	49.4	42.2
Verbal courses in universities should be conducted in English	60.5	55.5	71.1
Instruction in English should be abolished in all universities	2.5	10.1	8.9

Table 7 Perceptions regarding *Reasons to Favor EMI*

Sub-scale	Participant group	<i>n</i>	M	SD
Reasons to favor EMI	Sts	205	4.10	0.75
	CPs	81	3.76	0.93
	ELIs	45	4.12	0.89
	Total	331	4.02	0.83

Responses to individual items (Table 6) under this sub-scale show that all stakeholders find instruction in English beneficial and all groups reject the idea of abolishing instruction in English in all universities. Overall, they believe EMI is more appropriate in the verbal courses.

As to the *Stakeholders' Reasons to Favor EMI*, again all stakeholders have an agreement in terms of having many reasons for adopting EMI. ELIs and students favor EMI a bit more than CPs (Table 7).

Analysis of the stakeholder responses to individual items (Table 8) under this sub-scale show that the majority of stakeholders have positive views for reasons to favor EMI. Great majority believe that *instruction in English improves students' English because it creates an area of use for language*. As to *EMI's contribution to students' cognitive development* while great majority of ELIs (80%) support the view, only around half of CPs (51.9%) think so.

Some of the stakeholder responses to the open-ended question about their attitude towards EMI support the results above and bring some new perspectives. The comments below by CPs support EMI:

"Turkish terminology in science and technology is not necessary and are not used even if created and therefore EMI cannot be blamed for this"

"I think staying in national boundaries will limit the development of science and technology. I find the use of romance words more logical."

"EMI is a must, whether we like it or not. Because worldwide communication of science is in English, we cannot avoid it."

"Chances of being accepted by universities abroad for graduate studies are obviously higher ...if the student is a graduate of an EMI university."

As presented in Table 9, all stakeholders also have *Reasons not to Favor EMI* with similar mean scores of around 3.5 for each group.

Table 8 Items for *Reasons to favor EMI*

Item	Totally agreeing/ agreeing (%)		
	Sts	CPs	ELIs
Instruction in English contributes to students' cognitive development	68.8	51.9	80.0
Studying in an institution that teaches in English will make a person earn respect in the community	71.7	60.5	71.1
Instruction in English contributes to the introduction of the culture of the target language (e.g. English)	60.5	55.6	75.5
Instruction in English improves students' English because it creates an area of use for the language	87.8	76.5	82.2

Table 9 Perceptions regarding *Reasons not to Favor EMI*

Sub-scale	Participant group	n	M	SD
Reasons not to favor EMI	Student	205	3.51	0.99
	CPs	81	3.25	1.14
	ELIs	45	3.58	0.80
	Total	331	3.46	1.01

Table 10 Items for *Reasons not to Favor EMI*

Item	Totally agreeing/ agreeing (%)		
	Sts	CPs	ELIs
Instruction in English affects students' success in content lessons negatively	16.1	49.3	24.5
Instruction in English affects the effectiveness of numerical and verbal lessons negatively	20.9	29.6	20.0
Instruction in English limits creativity	26.3	35.8	17.8
Instruction in English affects the production of Turkish words in the areas of science and technology negatively	47.8	66.7	26.7

When individual items under this sub-scale are reviewed more closely, compared to the previous sub-scale, fewer people have reasons for not supporting EMI (Table 10).

Almost half of CPs have more strong views for not supporting, believing that *instruction in English affects students' success in content lessons negatively*. 66.7% of CPs also believe that *instruction in English affects the production of Turkish words in the areas of science and technology negatively*. Around half of the students (47.8%) also support this view.

Most of the CPs' negative comments to the open-ended question were about language issues:

"It is very difficult to understand EMI lessons"

"... the difficulty English terminology creates in understanding Turkish sources."

"English level of many academicians are not sufficient enough to teach in English. This eventually affects understanding of students."

Table 11 Results of Welch ANOVA

sub-scale	df ₁	df ₂	F
Attitude towards EMI	2	91.08	8.89*
Reasons to favor EMI	2	99.53	4.45*
Reasons not to favor EMI	2	113.92	2.06

*p < 0.05

“When native speakers of Turkish are together, discussing academic subjects in English affects the depth of the conversation negatively”

Students refer to their language preparation and the place of English in society:

“Education in English can be very difficult for people whose English is not good. There should be a better education in prep school, or these students should be tolerated in the lessons.”

“English affects the Turkish language as it is seen as an indicator of status”

For instance, a student says

“I think English leads to corruption due to society’s perspective, glorifying English and seeing it as an indicator of status rather than a means of communication.”

From one ELIs’ perspective EMI is

“...a complete fantasy, especially in a national context like Turkey.”

There are some ELIs sharing the following view:

“Students mistakenly believe that they can succeed in an EMI program with an intermediate level of English and therefore not take prep program classes seriously.”

In order to measure whether there was a significant difference among perceptions of participating groups regarding their general attitude towards EMI Welch ANOVA was used. The results are presented in Table 11.

As can be seen in Table 11, regarding the attitude towards EMI, there is a statistically significant difference among three groups (p = 0.00). In order to see where the mean difference was, Games-Howell post-hoc test was conducted. There is a mean difference between CPs and students (p = 0.00) results. Regarding the *reasons to favor EMI*, the Welch ANOVA showed that there was also a statistically significant difference here (p = 0.01), and the post-hoc test showed that it was once more between students and CPs. On the other hand, no significant mean difference was found among stakeholder perceptions (p = 0.13) about *the reasons not to favor EMI*.

5 Stakeholder Perceptions Regarding EMI Experience

Overall, both students and CPs show positive views regarding their EMI experiences (Table 12). Compared to CPs (M = 3.14; SD = 0.96), students thought more positively about how *EMI influences their learning of subjects* (M = 4.27; SD = 1.01). The same pattern is observed regarding their views about how *EMI influences English language improvement*. Students show a slightly higher level of positivity

Table 12 Perceptions regarding *EMI experience*

Sub-scale	Group	<i>n</i>	Mean	SD
Influence of EMI on subject learning	Student	205	4.27	1.01
	CPs	81	3.14	0.96
Influence of EMI on language improvement	Student	205	4.36	0.72
	CPs	81	4.10	1.04

Table 13 Items for *EMI influence on subject learning*

Item	Totally agreeing/ agreeing (%)	
	Sts	CPs
The lessons' being English affects the success of students in lessons positively	38.1	24.6
When the lesson is taught in English, students have difficulty grasping the subject	17.1*	55.6
Students ask the CP to translate the subjects that are taught in English into Turkish	10.2*	40.7
Students have difficulty asking questions in English	27.3*	66.6
Students have difficulty answering the oral questions asked in English	25.4*	62.9
Students have difficulty answering the written questions asked in English	5.4*	46.9
When the CP replies questions in English, students have difficulty understanding their reply	4.4*	33.3
Students do not have difficulty making an English summary of a lesson the CP taught in English	65.8	37
Students have difficulty understanding the English resource materials the CP uses in lessons	8.8*	37
Learning the terms both in English and Turkish brings an extra burden to students	25.9	24.6
Lessons' being in English makes it difficult for students to remember newly learned terms and concepts	14.2	30.8
The lessons' being in English leads students to learning by memorization	14.7	29.7
Students can only learn the concepts in lessons in Turkish	3.4	7.4
The exams' being held in English affects the success of students negatively	12.2	33.4

($M = 4.36$; $SD = 0.72$) compared to CPs ($M = 4.1$; $SD = 1.04$). However, it is worth noting that both groups are highly positive overall with means higher than 4.0.

Analysis of the stakeholder responses to individual items (Table 13) about *EMI influence on subject learning* strikingly show that in almost half of the items students and CPs have different perspectives, CPs believing more in the negative influence.

In items with an asterisk (*), while almost half or in some cases more than half of CPs raise concerns, worried student numbers in these items range between 4.4% and 27.3%. Groups show similar views for other items.

Lastly, unlike the comparison of student and CPs views in the above sub-scale, analysis of their responses to individual items (Table 14) about *influence of EMI on*

Table 14 Items for *EMI influence on language improvement*

Item	Totally agreeing/ agreeing (%)	
	Sts	CPs
The lessons' being taught in English improves students' Listening skills in English	90.3	79
The lessons' being taught in English improves students' Reading and comprehension skills in English	89.8	81.5
The lessons' being taught in English improves students' Writing skills in English	75.1	72.8
The lessons' being taught in English improves students' Speaking skills in English	70.8	64.2
The lessons' being taught in English prevents students from improving their Turkish	11.7	16

Table 15 Mean difference between students and CPs for sub-scales 4 & 5

Sub-scale	F	Sig	t.	df	p
Influence of EMI on subject learning	0.48	0.49	8.8	154.69	0.00
Influence of EMI on language improvement	7.11	0.00	2.32	284	0.04

language improvement show quite an agreement. Both groups gave highly positive responses with 70–90% agreement to almost all items. Especially the first two items which support the idea that EMI improves students' receptive language skills attracted almost more than 80% agreement from both groups.

An independent samples t-test was conducted to observe the difference between students' and CPs' responses regarding the *influence of EMI on subject learning* and *language improvement* (Table 15).

The results show that there is a statistically significant difference between how students and professors view both *EMI influence on students' learning subjects* ($p = 0.00$) and *EMI influence on language improvement* ($p = 0.04$).

This difference between students' and CPs' perspectives is also evident in the responses given to the open-ended questions which sought participant views regarding the *positive and negative aspects of teaching and learning in an EMI context*. The distribution of themes in these comments are listed in Table 16.

Similar to the trend discussed above, both students and CPs have a lot to say about the relationship between EMI and English language under both positive and negative aspects. According to both groups, *English is both an advantage and a drawback of EMI*. The positive comments are like below:

"... being able to practice English..."

"If a student's English develops, their understanding of the concept also develops." "Given the right conditions it is likely to be positive for students for example accessing to contemporary materials, facilitating cultural exchange etc. etc."

Negatives are listed as below:

"Students are unable to give feedback and communicate in class. They understand less"

Table 16 Theme distribution for positive and negative aspects of EMI

Themes	Positive aspects		Negative aspects	
	Sts	CPs	Sts	CPs
English language	42	21	40	22
Reaching sources	32	17	4	0
Lesson effectiveness	0	3	41	20
Academic development	16	5	2	3
Personal reasons	11	10	4	4
Globalization	9	7	1	1
Employment opportunity	15	7	3	3
Social effect	2	1	1	1

“Students try to understand the language first before being able to focus on the concept or the course itself”

“Due to their low level of English, students are reluctant to speak in lessons”

“I do not feel genuine when instructing in a different language than my native one.”

“I cannot talk about the local concepts...philosophy, jokes... as I wish in a foreign language.”

Another theme which mostly attracted negative comments from both groups was *EMI lesson effectiveness*. For CPs, it was the most frequently mentioned theme among all, and it was mostly attributed to students’ low level of English.

“It is not my problem that students’ have low level of English which results in poor lesson effectiveness.”

“I am interested in teaching my field, not furthering or assessing my students’ use of English”.

“There are some insufficiencies with the lecturers too. They are not proficient in English as well.”

“English level of many academicians are not sufficient to teach in English. This eventually affects understanding of the students”.

“If the instructor’s English is not sufficient, the course material may not be understood properly”.

It is interesting that students did not mention lesson effectiveness at all as a positive aspect of EMI but many comments came under negatives:

“I have difficulty in focusing during the lesson”

“It creates a barrier in understanding the subjects. Even if a person’s language skills are high, even if they get used to using a foreign language, because some concepts are shaped in the mother tongue, it can be difficult to connect the newly learned information with these concepts”.

“...not understanding the main point of the lessons, memorizing...”.

“CPs with a low level of English affect the course and our understanding even more negatively.”

Many students and CPs agree that English should be taught more effectively before undergraduate education so that EMI courses can reach their utmost effectiveness.

Another theme which attracted positive comments from both groups was *reaching sources and academic development*.

“English is the language for science and technology”.
“EMI creates an environment where the students can have access to all academic resource”.
“...mostly, scientific papers are in English”.
“if they know English well, [students] can research more from international resources”.
“Science and technology are developed in English, so it is easier to follow the developments”.

Students also gave many *personal reasons* talking about the positive aspects of EMI.

“...being able to think in a different language”,
“cognitive development”
“having a wider perspective of my area and the world”.

6 Influence of Demographics on EMI Perceptions

In order to explore whether participants’ demographic characteristics shape their perceptions, the data coming from Part 1 of the survey were used. However, not all demographic variables sought attracted the minimum number of cases to draw healthy conclusions. Therefore, only the variables which had enough ($N = 26$) sample group numbers were used to run the analysis. None of the ELI variables met this condition so they were excluded in the analyses.

To run the analysis, the participants were categorized into two sample groups, and independent samples t-test was used to analyze whether there was a significant mean difference between varying demographic groups. The demographic variables that were analyzed and the participant numbers can be seen in Table 17 for students and Table 18 for CPs.

Table 17 Student independent variables, sample groups and participant numbers

Independent variable	Sample groups	<i>n</i>
Gender	Female	116
	Male	89
University type	Foundation	171
	Public	34
University location	Ankara	173
	İstanbul	30
Semester	1st – 3rd Semester	104
	4th – 12th+ Semester	101
Discipline	Engineering & Natural Sciences	99
	Social Sciences, Art, & Education	88
Preparatory school attendance	Yes	123
	No	82
Speaking other foreign languages	Yes	33
	No	172
Living abroad	Yes	46
	No	155

Table 18 CP independent variables, sample groups and participant numbers

Independent variable	Sample groups	<i>n</i>
Gender	Female	41
	Male	39
Discipline	Engineering, Medicinal Studies & Natural Sciences	26
	Social Sciences, Art, & Education	39
EMI teaching duration	Less than 10 years	33
	More than 10 years	48
Speaking other foreign languages	Yes	32
	No	49

Normality checks were done using SPSS, and results showed that they deviated from normality. Nevertheless, the analysis was done because non-normality is acceptable since independent samples t-test is robust to non-normality when each sample is above 25 (SPSS, 2020).

As to the *gender*, female students (Mean = 4.13, SD = 1.06) and male students (M = 4.44, SD = .92) have significantly different mean scores about *EMI's influence on learning subjects*, $t(203) = 2.20$, $p(0.029)$. Students who study in a *technical* (Mean = 4.42, SD = .98) department and the ones in a *non-technical department* (Mean = 4.10, SD = 1.05) also have statistically significant difference in their views regarding *EMI influence on learning subjects*, $t(185) = 2.06$, $p(.041)$.

When it comes to the *location of the university*, students living in Ankara (Mean = 4.55, SD = .861) and the ones in Istanbul (Mean = 4.20, SD = .87) have significantly different mean scores, $t(203) = 2.03$, $p(0.043)$ about their *attitude towards EMI*.

Students' attending or not *attending English preparatory school, speaking other foreign languages or having lived abroad* do not show any significant difference in their perception of EMI according to scales included in this study. The demographic variables that were analyzed and the participant numbers for each CP groups are given in Table 18.

Results of the *t-tests* suggest that CPs' perceptions of EMI do not differ according to *their years of experience in an EMI setting* and whether they *speak another language or not*. However, *male* (Mean = 2.91, SD = .89) and *female* (Mean = 3.33, SD = .98) CPs were found to have significantly different perceptions, $t(78) = 2.02$, $p(.046)$ regarding *EMI influence on subject learning*. It was also found that whether CPs teach in a *technical* (Mean = 3.54, SD = 1.36) or a *non-technical* (Mean = 4.19, SD = .92) *department* yields different mean scores for CPs' *attitude towards EMI*, $t(63) = 2.31$, $p(.024)$.

7 Conclusion and Discussion

Many of the conclusions drawn from this study confirm the findings of similar studies conducted earlier. However, some conclusions contradict with previous results. This study concludes that all participating stakeholders, namely undergraduate students, CPs and ELIs of EMI contexts have an *overall positive perception towards EMI* (Jensen & Thogersen, 2011), the *most positive one belonging to students* (Macaro & Akıncioğlu, 2018) and the *least to CPs* (Kerestecioğlu & Bayyurt, 2018).

All groups agree that *EMI is the necessity of the today's globalized world* (Sollaway, 2016). They also believe that *EMI increases the status of their universities* (Karakaş, 2016), *helps improve students' English* (Macaro & Akıncioğlu, 2018; Turhan & Kırkgöz, 2018), *increases graduates' job prospects* (Çağatay, 2019), *prepares them for future work life* (Macaro & Akıncioğlu, 2018; Ekoç 2020), and as English is the language of science and technology, *it eases access to wide range of academic sources* (Çağatay, 2019; Ekoç 2020).

On the other hand, all stakeholders share some *concerns* revolving around issues regarding *poor English language proficiencies* (Yıldız et al., 2017; Ekoç, 2020) which *hinder students' subject area learning* (Atik, 2010; Kırkgöz, 2014; Turhan & Kırkgöz, 2018; Çağatay, 2019) in a foreign language. CPs raise their concerns most strongly about this issue while students had the least. Although self-reported English language proficiencies are very high for both groups (Jensen & Thogersen, 2011), there are members of either group having concerns regarding each other's language proficiencies (Ekoç, 2020). There are also CPs who believe that some of their colleagues' language skills are not good enough. Both of these groups attribute the poor student language to unsuccessful English language preparatory program curriculum which does not emphasize productive skills as desired (Yıldız et al., 2017; see also chapter “[Academic English Language Policies and Practices of English-Medium Instruction Universities in Turkey from Policy Actors' Eyes](#)” for similar findings). Students self-reported language skills confirm this, as well. Some ELIs, on the other hand, think that students do not take their preparatory program courses seriously with the misbelief that intermediate level English is enough to study in an EMI context.

This study concludes that students' *gender* (Çağatay, 2019) and being a *technical or non-technical discipline student* play a role in shaping students' perception regarding the EMI influence on subject learning. Females using a greater variety of language learning strategies and more effectively than males (Erhman & Oxford, 1990; Nyikos, 1990, Oxford, 1995, Sheorey, 1999) and non-technical departments requiring relatively less language skills might explain these results. Another conclusion of the study is that students studying in a university in Istanbul and Ankara had significantly different attitudes towards EMI instruction. Variables which were found not shaping student perceptions are *attending English preparatory school*, *speaking other foreign language(s)* and *having lived abroad*.

Another conclusion of the study is that CPs' *years of teaching experience in an EMI university*, and their *speaking another foreign language(s)* do not play a role in shaping their perceptions. CPs' *gender* however plays a role in their perceptions as

to *EMI influence on subject learning and their teaching in a technical or non-technical department on their attitude towards EMI*.

Unlike some previous works, this study concludes that overall stakeholder perceptions suggest that having EMI at tertiary level has a lot of merits and should not be abolished (West et al., 2015). Even the strongest concern raised in this study, the negative influence of EMI on subject learning is not as strong as it was in Kılıçkaya (2006), Kırkgöz (2014) and Turhan and Kırkgöz (2018).

One of the practical implications of this study is that the stakeholder perceptions explored recommend ways to deal with the biggest challenge of EMI, the poor student language proficiency, by improving English preparatory schools' curriculum to focus more on the productive language skills, namely speaking and writing. Turkish Higher Education Quality Council's (2020) *English preparatory schools external evaluation program* which was recently developed for and piloted in EMI universities in Turkey with the hope of increasing the quality and standards in these schools could be another way of guiding these schools in improving their curriculum to better prepare the students for their EMI studies.

It is worth mentioning that the study had some limitations. The aspects of EMI studied in this study are limited to the ones covered in the survey used. Another limitation was that the results are subject to the fact that all data came via the same data collection tool. More varied data collection procedures, i.e. interviews, would have increased the strength of the conclusions drawn. One of the goals of the study was to include ELI's perceptions in the exploration of main stakeholder perspectives. However, the relatively limited number of ELIs participating in the study limited the depth of this analysis both in qualitative and quantitative sense. Additionally, triangulation of data collected from stakeholders could have been further supplemented via classroom observations to confirm some of the results obtained from the quantitative and qualitative data that came directly from the stakeholders. However, due to practical reasons this was not realized.

Further research that would overcome these limitations are highly recommended to bring further insight into stakeholder perceptions regarding the use of EMI in Turkish higher education institutions. Additionally, exploring some additional groups of stakeholders (i.e. administrators, parents, employers, and graduate school professors) perspectives would make this line of research even stronger.

References

- Aldridge, A., & Levine, K. (2001). *Surveying the social world: Principles and practice in survey research* (pp. 5–14). Open University Press.
- Aslan, M. (2016). *A sociological and political analysis of English as a medium of instruction in Turkish higher education*. Unpublished PhD dissertation. Western Sydney University, Australia.
- Atik, E. (2010). *Perceptions of students towards English medium instruction at tertiary level: The case of a Turkish university*. Master's thesis. Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Turkey. Retrieved from <https://tez.yok.gov.tr/>

- Başıbek, N., Dolmacı, M., Cengiz, B. C., Bür, B., Dilek, Y., & Kara, B. (2014). Lecturers' perceptions of English medium instruction at engineering departments of higher education: A study on partial English medium instruction at some state universities in Turkey. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 116(2014), 1819–1825. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.01.477>
- Brumfit, C. (2004). Language and higher education: Two current challenges. *Arts and Humanities in Higher Education*, 3(2), 163–173.
- Çağatay, S. (2019). The pros and cons of English-medium instruction in higher education in an EFL context. *Journal of Foreign Language Education and Technology*, 4(2), 28–63.
- Coleman, J. A. (2006). English-medium teaching in European higher education. *Language Teaching*, 39(1), 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S026144480600320X>
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Educational research: Planning, conducting and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (4th ed.). Pearson.
- Dearden, J. (2016). *English as a medium of instruction: A growing global phenomenon*. British Council. <https://doi.org/10.13140/RG.2.2.12079.94888>
- Dey, I. (2005). *Qualitative data analysis: A user friendly guide for social scientists*. Routledge.
- Doiz, A., Lasagabaster, D., & Sierra, J. M. (2011). Internationalisation, multilingualism and English-medium instruction. *World Englishes*, 30(3), 345–359. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-971X.2011.01718.x>
- Ehrman, M. E., & Oxford, R. (1990). Adult language learning styles and strategies in an intensive training setting. *The Modern Language Journal*, 74, 311–327.
- Ekoç, A. (2020). EMI from the perspectives of students at a technical university in Turkey. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 44(2), 231–243.
- Ellili-Cherif, M., & Alkhateeb, H. (2015). College students' attitude toward the medium of instruction: Arabic versus English dilemma. *Universal Journal of Educational Research*, 3(3), 207–213. <https://doi.org/10.13189/ujer.2015.030306>
- Jensen, C., & Thogersen, J. (2011). Danish university lecturers' attitudes towards English as the medium of instruction. *Iberica*, 22(2011), 13–34. Retrieved from <https://www.redalyc.org/html/2870/287023888002/>
- Kamaşak, R., Şahan, K., & Rose, H. (2021). Academic language-related challenges at an English-medium university. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 49(100945), 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2020.100945>
- Karakaş, A. (2016). *Turkish lecturers' and students' perception of English in English-medium instruction universities*. Unpublished PhD thesis. University of Southampton, United Kingdom.
- Karakaş, A., & Bayyurt, Y. (2019). The scope of linguistic diversity in the language policies, practices, and linguistic landscape of a Turkish EMI university. In J. Jenkins & A. Mauranen (Eds.), *Linguistic diversity on the EMI campus: Insider accounts of the use of English and other languages in universities within Asia, Australasia, and Europe* (pp. 96–122). Routledge.
- Kerestecioğlu, F., & Bayyurt, Y. (2018). *Üniversitelerde İngilizcenin eğitim dili olarak kullanımı: Bütüncül bir yaklaşım: Sonuç Raporu*. Symposium conducted at the meeting of Kadir Has University, İstanbul. Retrieved from http://emi.metu.edu.tr/en/system/files/sempozyum_raporu.pdf
- Kılıçkaya, F. (2006). Instructors' attitudes towards English-medium instruction in Turkey. *Humanising Language Teaching Online Journal*, 8(6). Online submission. Retrieved from <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED570169.pdf>
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2007). English language teaching in Turkey: Policy changes and their implementation. *Regional Language Centre Journal*, 38(2), 216–228.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2009). Globalization and English language policy in Turkey. *Educational Policy*, 20(10), 1–11. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0895904808316319>
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2014). Student perceptions of English language versus Turkish language used as the medium of instruction in higher education in Turkey. *International Periodical for the Languages, Literature and History of Turkish or Turkic*, 9(12), 443–459.

- Kırkgöz, Y. (2018). Confronting similar challenges?: Exploring students' experiences of studying engineering at a Turkish university: Turkish versus English-language medium of instruction. *Rassegna Italiana di Linguistica Applicata*, 2–3, 145–160.
- Macaro, E. (2018). *English medium instruction*. Oxford University Press.
- Macaro, E., & Akıncioğlu, M. (2018). Turkish university students' perceptions about English medium instruction: Exploring year group, gender and university type as variables. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 39(3), 256–270. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2017.1367398>
- Macaro, E., Akıncioğlu, M., & Dearden, J. (2016). English medium instruction in universities: A collaborative experiment in Turkey. *Studies in English Language Teaching*, 4(1). Retrieved from https://ora.ox.ac.uk/objects/uuid:8fa796bb-bb1d-4aab-826e-8135c12386e3/download_file?file_format=pdf&safe_filename=470-1048-1-PB.pdf&type_of_work=Journal+article
- Macaro, E., Curle, S., Pun, J., An, J., & Dearden, J. (2018). A systematic review of English medium instruction in higher education. *Language Teaching*, 51(1), 36–76.
- Nyikos, M. (1990). Gender related differences in adult language learning: Socialization and memory factors. *Modern Language Journal*, 74(3), 273–287.
- Osam, Ü. V., Arkin, İ. E., & Selvi, A. F. (2019). *Üniversitelerde İngilizcenin eğitim dili olarak kullanımı: Bütüncül bir yaklaşım – III: Sonuç Raporu*. Symposium conducted at the meeting of the Eastern Mediterranean University, Gazimağusa. Retrieved from <https://emi-sempozyum.emu.edu.tr/PublishingImages/DAU%20EMI%20SEMPOZYUM%20RAPORU.pdf>
- Oxford, R. (1995). Gender differences in language learning styles: What do they mean? In M. Reid (Ed.), *Learning styles in the ESL/EFL classroom*. Heinle and Heinle.
- Özer, O. (2020). English medium instruction at tertiary level in Turkey: A study of academic needs and perceptions. *Journal of Higher Education and Science*, 10(1), 88–95.
- Phillipson, R. (2003). *English-only Europe? Challenging language policy*. Routledge.
- Saris, W. E., & Gallhofer, I. N. (2014). *Design, evaluation, and analysis of questionnaires for survey research*. Wiley.
- Selvi, A. F. (2014). The medium-of-instruction debate in Turkey: Oscillating between national ideas and bilingual ideals. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 15(2), 133–152. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14664208.2014.898357>
- Sherorey, R. (1999). An examination of language learning strategy use in the setting of an indigenized variety of English. *System*, 27, 173–190.
- Sollaway, A. J. (2016). *English medium instruction in higher education in the United Arab Emirates: The perspectives of students*. Unpublished PhD dissertation. The University of Exeter, United Kingdom.
- SPSS. (2020). *SPSS independent samples T-Test tutorial*. Retrieved October 1, 2020, from SPSS Tutorials website <https://www.spss-tutorials.com/spss-independent-samples-t-test/>
- Taber, K. S. (2017). The use of Cronbach's alpha when developing and reporting research instruments in science education. *Research in Science Education*, 48(6), 1273–1296. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11165-016-9602-2>
- Turhan, B., & Kırkgöz, Y. (2018). Motivation of engineering students and lecturers toward English medium instruction in Turkey. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 14(1), 261–277.
- Turkish Higher Education Quality Council. (2020). *English prep schools external evaluation pilot program*. Retrieved October 1, 2020, from THEQC website <https://yokak.gov.tr/degerlendirme-sureci/ingilizce-hazirlik-okullari-degerlendirme-pilot-programi>
- West, R., Güven, A., Parry, J., Ergenekon, T., Aşık, G., Aydın, İ., & Başışoş, S. (2015). *The state of English in higher education in Turkey*. TEPAV and British Council. https://www.britishcouncil.org.tr/sites/default/files/he_baseline_study_book_web_-_son.pdf
- Yıldız, M., Soruç, A., & Griffiths, C. (2017). Challenges and needs of students in the EMI classroom. *Konin Language Studies*, 5(4), 387–402.
- YÖK. (2018). *Üniversitelerimiz*. Retrieved from Yükseköğretim Kurulu <http://www.yok.gov.tr/web/guest/universitelerimiz>

Part II
Focus on Teaching Through English
Medium Instruction (EMI)

Multi-level EMI Policy Implementation in Turkey's Higher Education: Navigating Ideological Tensions



Ufuk Keleş and Bedrettin Yazan

Abstract In this study, we explored a faculty member's (Sema's) EMI beliefs, thoughts, and practices. Methodologically, we utilized narrative inquiry procedures and conceptually, we relied on multilevel (micro, meso, and macro) models of language policy and planning to examine what language (learning) ideologies the faculty member held and how those ideologies interacted with the ways in which she asserted her agency and enacted her personalized EMI policies in her classes at a university in Turkey. Our findings show that Sema's current micro-level EMI teaching practices are mostly informed by her previous experiences rather than meso- and macro-level English-only policies. Her EMI teaching beliefs oscillate between what she sees "ideal" and what she encounters "in reality" which leads to some ideological tension for her. At the core of her EMI practice, there lies the fact that delivering content knowledge well was as imperative as lecturing in English. Therefore, she attends to each student's needs case by case instead of following pre-conceived language ideologies and institutional policies that enforce English-only instruction. In the light of these findings, we propose that more studies are needed to explore what university lecturers actually do in their EMI classes rather than focusing on what they think about the EMI policies and practices in their institutions. As our study implies, the actual implementation of EMI policies varies across individual lectures, courses, programs, needs, and university contexts.

Keywords Micro-level language policies · Professional identity · Agency · Ideological tensions · Narrative inquiry · EMI practices · Turkish higher education

U. Keleş (✉)
Bahçeşehir University, Istanbul, Turkey
e-mail: ufuk.keles@ou.bau.edu.tr

B. Yazan (✉)
University of Texas, San Antonio, TX, USA
e-mail: bedrettin.yazan@utsa.edu

© The Author(s), under exclusive license to Springer Nature
Switzerland AG 2022

Y. Kirkgöz, A. Karakaş (eds.), *English as the Medium of Instruction in Turkish Higher Education*, Multilingual Education 40,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-88597-7_6

1 EMI in Turkey

Globalization and the accompanying neoliberal economic ideologies have made a considerable impact on worldwide second language policies, which have shaped the educational spaces around the world. As the language of globalization, English has become “in a singularly powerful sense, the ‘global language’ of commerce, trade, culture, and research in the contemporary world” (Reagan & Schreffler, 2005, p. 116). In this context, English is the international language of access to academia and research knowledge (Doğançay-Aktuna & Kızıltepe, 2005) and holds the prestige of being the *de facto* lingua franca in the “knowledge economy” of the twenty-first century (Coleman, 2006, p. 5). As a consequence, there is a world-wide surge for adapting English as a medium of instruction (EMI) in higher education, which recent language planning and policy literature has started exploring (e.g., Dearden, 2015; Piller & Cho, 2013; Selvi, 2014; Wächter & Maiworm, 2014).

Since 1980s, with the increasing internationalization in higher education, there has been substantial rise in EMI institutions worldwide (Kırkgöz & Dikilitaş, 2018). Likewise, Turkey’s higher education has evolved exponentially in the last two decades with the increase in the number of universities that offer EMI to prepare their students for the global workforce (Kırkgöz, 2019). However, this increase has received public and scholarly responses highlighting the potential detriments of EMI in Turkey’s higher education institutions (see Kırkgöz, 2007; Selvi, 2014; Sert, 2008). One dominant argument maintains that Turkish, the national official language, was being neglected in the production of scientific knowledge and growth of new generation of scientists; that is, scientists in Turkey would stop producing scientific knowledge in Turkish language. The other argument has been about the logistical concerns regarding the planning and implementation of EMI (Karaş, 2019) and postulated that there were not adequate number of well-trained faculty who could teach via EMI in the new universities and programs. Collaborating with Ministry of National Education (MNE) and Council of Higher Education, Turkey’s government launched “5 Yılda 5000 Öğrenci Projesi” [5000 Students in 5 years Project] in 2006 to supply the demand for faculty with the EMI skills (MNE, 2016). According to this project, Turkish government has provided scholarships to fund future faculty’s graduate studies at universities abroad; mainly in English-speaking countries, such as USA, UK, and Canada. As a response to the internationalization of higher education worldwide, this enterprise is part of Turkey’s national policies to prevent lagging behind the economic globalization.

2 Opportunities and Challenges: EMI in Higher Education in Turkey

Multiple studies have documented the recent EMI policies in Turkey’s higher education system (see Karaş, 2018; Kırkgöz, 2019) and the challenges and opportunities of EMI implementation (Ekoç, 2018; Kılıçkaya, 2006; Sert, 2008).

These studies can be categorized in three groups depending on their focal population. The first group is made up of studies that center on university students to understand how they view, criticize, and navigate EMI policies at their universities. The second group of studies scrutinize instructors' perspectives regarding the EMI policies and practices at their work place. The third group, relatively fewer in number, examines and compares both the students and instructors' attitudes towards and perceptions of EMI policies and practices at their institutions.

2.1 University Students' Views of and Attitudes Towards EMI

Since they are at the receiving end of the implementation of EMI in higher education institutions, university students are directly affected by the micro-, meso-, and macro-level EMI policies and practices at their school. Hence, their perceptions of and attitudes towards EMI require close scrutiny. To address this need, a number of studies have focused on their beliefs, thoughts, and emotions by collecting data via *questionnaires* (Ekoç, 2018; Karakas, 2017; Soruç et al., 2018), *open-ended questionnaires* (İşpınar Akçayoğlu et al., 2019; Yıldız et al., 2017), *open-ended written interviews* (Eser & Dikilitaş, 2017) or a *combination of sequentially gathered data* as in Kırkgöz's (2014, 2018) studies, in which a *questionnaire*, *follow-up interviews* with students, and *document analysis* were utilized. These studies yielded mixed results. On the whole, students who received EMI were content with receiving EMI-based education because it improved their overall English proficiency, which they believed would in return play a significant role in their future professional life. Yet, they mentioned several challenges stemming from their low language proficiency levels and their insufficient technical/academic vocabulary knowledge. They found these problems difficult to overcome since they received little or no additional language support from their universities once they passed the required English proficiency tests. Also, they said their instructors had limited English proficiency.

2.2 University Instructors' Views of and Attitudes Towards EMI

University instructors serves as a conduit in the implementation of EMI at universities. They oftentimes find themselves struggling to appropriate their micro-level EMI practices to address their students' needs while at the same time complying with the meso- and macro-level EMI policies as defined by their institutions and the Turkey's Council of Higher Education. In this context, some studies have examined instructors' beliefs and thoughts regarding their institutions' EMI policies and practices. These studies employed data collection tools such as *electronically collected questionnaires* (Karakas, 2014; Kılıçkaya, 2006), *open-ended questionnaires* (Özer, 2020), and 15–25-min long single *interviews* with lecturers

(Karakaş, 2016). The findings of these studies showed both overlapping and contradicting results. On one hand, Kılıçkaya (2006) and Karakaş's (2016) studies found that instructors from Turkey favored the idea of using Turkish in their EMI courses. On the other hand, Özer's (2020) study revealed that lecturers tended to be more in favor of than against EMI policies at their institutions. This finding corroborates Karakaş's (2014) earlier study, in which Turkish-speaking lecturers who reported self-confidence in delivering their EMI courses highlighted the importance of English in their students' academic and later professional life.

2.3 A Broader Lens into EMI Policies and Practices

Instead of exploring the perspectives and attitudes of university students or instructors separately, other studies have investigated students and instructors' views about EMI contemporaneously (e.g., Cankaya, 2017; Kır & Akyüz, 2020; Sert, 2008; Şahan, 2020; Turhan & Kırkgöz, 2018). Of these studies, Cankaya's (2017) study is a systematic review focusing on the challenges and language related difficulties in EMI contexts. These difficulties were mostly about communicating content between the instructors and students during the lectures due to both parties' limited English proficiency. In her empirical piece, Sert (2008) took a mixed methods approach and collected data from *questionnaires* (administered to both instructors and students) and *follow-up interviews* with 25 instructors. The findings revealed that EMI lessons appeared to be ineffective as the lecturers often failed to attract students' attention while lecturing them. Also designed as a mixed methods research, Turhan and Kırkgöz's (2018) study utilized a questionnaire and *focus group interviews* to collect data from students along with *individual interviews* with lecturers. Then, they analyzed the data comparing students' and lecturers' responses. The findings demonstrated that EMI courses were teacher-centered, which inhibited students' active participation in the classroom. Exploring EMI perceptions of faculty members and students, Kır and Akyüz (2020) collected data from students' responses to a *questionnaire* along with one-time *individual interviews* with students (10 min) and their professors (10–30 min). The findings of their mixed methods study revealed that there was a discrepancy between the students and faculty members' perceptions of students' English proficiency. While the students had a positive view about their language skills, the lecturers stated that students, in deed, lacked the expected proficiency level. In her qualitatively-oriented study, Şahan (2020) employed a combination of data sources including classroom observations, *semi-structured interviews* with lecturers, and *focus group discussions* with students. The findings showed that both the lecturers and students benefited from their Turkish language proficiency by code-switching between Turkish and English. This finding, according to the author, implied that both the lecturers and students prioritized communicative efficiency over adherence to English-only policies of the institution.

3 Our Study

Although there has been an ongoing academic conversation about EMI in Turkey's universities, the existing studies focus on what students and faculty members *think* about EMI policies and practices in their institutions. However, what university lecturers *actually do* in their EMI classes still needs more scrutiny because the actual implementation of EMI policies varies across individual lectures, courses, programs, and university contexts. We, therefore, believe that as the main instructional agents, lecturers' stories should be heard from their own voice in order to understand how they appropriate meso- and macro-level EMI policies in their micro-level instructional practices.

To contribute to the EMI scholarship in Turkey, unlike a great majority of the aforementioned studies, we take a qualitative approach in our study and employ narrative inquiry as our methodological choice. We explore a university lecturer's (Sema, a pseudonym as all the other proper names hereafter) EMI beliefs, thoughts, and practices. We scrutinize Sema's strategic decisions in her micro-level implementation of EMI, which is a combination of compliance with, resistance to, and negotiation with meso- and macro-level EMI policies. Our data derives from five in-depth interviews with one participant, who received EMI education as a student and who currently teaches EMI courses at Secondville University in Turkey.

In this chapter, we focus on Sema's story that narrates her experiences of learning English as a new language, attending an EMI institution, and teaching at an EMI institution. We intend to make sense of the challenges and complexities of micro-level implementation of EMI in Turkey's university context through Sema's experiences with EMI in her educational trajectory and professional life. Methodologically, we utilize narrative inquiry procedures (Barkhuizen et al., 2013) and conceptually, we rely on multilayered models of language policy and planning (Liddicoat & Baldauf, 2008; Ricento & Hornberger, 1996) to examine what language (learning) ideologies Sema holds and how those ideologies interact with the ways in which she asserts her agency and enacts the EMI policies in her classes at an EMI university in Turkey. To that end, our study is guided by two research questions:

1. How has Sema experienced EMI policies in Turkey learning English, studying in EMI programs, and currently teaching in an EMI university?
2. How do her experiences interact with multi-level language-in-education policies in Turkey?

4 Methodology

Our study explores Sema's past EMI experiences first as a high school, and next as a university student along with her current EMI experiences as a faculty member. More specifically, we scrutinize how Sema's micro level EMI instructional practices were influenced by meso level English language policies of her university and

macro level EMI policies in Turkey. We further examine how she asserts and exercises agency in her instructional policies as against or in compliance with the meso and macro level EMI policies. To that end, we use narrative inquiry (Barkhuizen et al., 2013) as the basis of our data analysis. Barkhuizen et al. (2013) define narrative analysis as “research in which storytelling is used as a means of analyzing data and presenting findings” (p. 3). In this strand of qualitative inquiry, researchers turn non-narrative data into stories as a way of expressing their interpretation of the data collected from different sources. In our study, we mainly use interview data as the basis of our analysis to narrativize Sema’s experiences as a learning English, studying an EMI program, and teaching at an EMI program. To support our narrative, we also examine relevant online documents including vision and mission statements of the universities with whom Sema has been affiliated over the years. Doing so has also prevented us from “fall[ing] into the trap of treating narratives as factual accounts” of Sema’s experiences (Barkhuizen et al., 2013, p. 5).

4.1 Sema’s Short Biography

Sema was born and raised in a small province (Guneytown) of a southern city in Turkey. Guneytown is a popular destination for summer vacations for international tourists typically from Germany, Russia, the Netherlands, Israel, and Egypt. Sema started learning English before she proceeded to the sixth grade at an Anatolian high school (a prestigious public school accepting enrollment via centralized national entrance exam), which offered two-semester long intensive preparatory English program. Upon completing this program, she received 100% EMI instruction for her science and mathematics subjects along with her English courses until the tenth grade.

Starting from the seventh grade, Sema worked at an aqua park as a shop assistant on her summer holidays. There, she served international tourists communicating with them in English. Over time, she developed her speaking skills. She continued to work in Guneytown in summers even after she moved to Istanbul to study at Firstville University, a well-established state university with 100% EMI programs.

Sema studied English for another year at the one-year-long intensive preparatory English program as she could not pass the English proficiency test she took right after her enrollment into Firstville University. After completing her undergraduate studies in less than 5 years, she pursued a master’s degree in Psychology, which was offered as a 100% Turkish medium of instruction (TMI) program by Secondville University. Then, she pursued a 100% EMI PhD in Business Administration at the same university, where she was hired as a faculty member upon graduating from this program in 2017. Since then, she has been working at Secondville University teaching both undergraduate and graduate courses in EMI as well as graduate courses in TMI.

4.2 Data Collection and Analysis

The data in this study were derived primarily from five in-depth interviews with Sema. Before interviewing her, we formulated open-ended questions that focused on the topics in Table 1. Both of us reviewed these questions individually and discussed potential revisions. We made sure these questions would help us engage in productive conversations with Sema, so that she would share her EMI experiences as a student and a faculty member in a detailed way.

Per Sema's request, Ufuk conducted interviews in Turkish. Since Sema and Ufuk were close friends, the interviews were mostly in an informal and conversational tone. They often code switched and code meshed using both Turkish and English during the interviews. At the time of data collection, Ufuk resided in the United States, while Sema was in Istanbul, Turkey. Therefore, the interviews were conducted via an online meeting application, which also automatically recorded all of the interview sessions. Once each interview was completed, Ufuk wrote a two- or three-page long reflective field notes which constituted his initial analysis and helped prepare for the upcoming interviews.

We carried out data collection and analysis concurrently. That is, we transcribed, translated into English, and thematically coded each interview before conducting the next interview. This process helped us formulate additional questions to ask in the upcoming interview sessions. Meanwhile, as secondary data, we also examined the mission and vision statements of Council of Higher Education, Firstville University, and Secondville University along with its Business School, which are available on their official websites.

After all the interviews were completed, we reviewed our initial codes and Ufuk's reflective field notes in a second round. Informed by narrative inquiry (Barkhuizen et al., 2013), our narrative analysis approach helped us create a narrative account of Sema's past EMI experiences as a student and current EMI experiences as a faculty member at a private university. Since we were mainly concerned about how Sema verbalized her experiences (De Fina & Georgakopoulou, 2012), we constructed our narrative using as many direct quotes from Sema's interviews as possible.

Once we constructed Sema's story based on her interviews, we shared it with her for member checking to confirm our narrative and interpretation with her (Denzin & Lincoln, 2017). After she read the manuscript, Ufuk and Sema had an online meeting to discuss her concerns and her comments. Overall, she confirmed our interpretations but suggested minor changes. Attending to her feedback, we revised our findings and results sections of the paper.

Table 1 Interviewing procedure

	Date	Interview topic	Length
Interview#1	May 07, 2020	English language learning history	00.51.33
Interview#2	May 20, 2020	EMI and TMI experiences as a university student	00.58.54
Interview#3	June 05, 2020	The use of English and Turkish in academic life	01.02.21
Interview#4	June 11, 2020	EMI and TMI experiences with students	01.03.26
Interview#5	July 02, 2020	Beliefs about EMI in Turkey and in the world	01.00.37

5 Conceptual Framework

Faculty members who serve at EMI programs are significant agents in the implementation of language planning and policy because they are the ultimate decision makers that shape the EMI classroom instruction. Therefore, conceptually our study drew upon the Language planning and policy (LPP) scholarship which acknowledges and theorizes the role and agency of practitioners involved in enacting the policy (Liddicoat & Baldauf, 2008; Ricento & Hornberger, 1996). Situated within the economic and social structures of the nation-state societies, the processes, or layers of LPP are usually referred to as macro (national), meso (institutional), and micro (interpersonal) levels, and these processes are ideologically-laden and “permeate and interact with each other in multiple and complex ways as they enact various types, approaches, and goals of LPP” (Ricento & Hornberger, 1996, p. 419). We acknowledge that EMI policies and practices are an important component of LPP. Therefore, a comprehensive examination of EMI policies in Turkey requires a multi-level approach that includes instructors’ agentic roles in implementing national and institutional policies.

At the macro level, state legislators, sometimes in collaboration with non-profit organizations or with support from supranational organizations, initiate the policy process and negotiate the related laws in the political process. States are the most powerful entity in enforcing macro policies since they “levy taxes, regulate commerce, protect the national interest, and ... regulate behavior through laws, edicts, executive orders” (Ricento & Hornberger, 1996, p. 415) and mandate certain language practices within the national borders. They are also usually the biggest funding and evaluating body in LPP. Macro level policy plans make requirements and offer recommendations in a rather broad fashion but do not delineate every detail in the implementation of the policy.

At the meso level, institutions are not only subject to and responsible for implementing the state-level LPP decisions, but also could be active agents in developing new policies within their realm. Ricento and Hornberger (1996) define institutions as “relatively permanent socially constituted systems by which and through which individuals and communities gain identity, transmit cultural values, and attend to primary social needs” (p. 415). Their agency resides in their power to make meso level decisions by interpreting and implementing the macro policies in their communities, and this level is where policy interpretation meets institutional ideologies.

Lastly, at the micro level, individuals engage in practicing agency and developing “a language policy and plan to utilise and develop their language resources; one that is not directly the result of some larger macro policy, but is a response to their own needs, their own ‘language problems’” (Liddicoat & Baldauf, 2008, p. 26). Because individuals’ agency is involved in this level, micro language planning is also ideologically negotiated. Therefore, information about lecturers’ beliefs, thoughts, and practices of EMI is of paramount importance to understand how macro and meso level language planning and policies are enacted, appropriated or resisted in the field.

In the following, we briefly discuss macro level English language policies focusing on higher education in Turkey. Then, we describe Secondville University's meso level EMI policies with a scrutiny of its official vision and mission statements as publicized on its website. Finally, we narrate Sema's story of learning English, her EMI experiences as a university student, and her EMI practices as a faculty member at Secondville University.

5.1 National English Language Policies: Macro Level

In the nineteenth century, the Ottoman Empire started reforming its state and cultural institutions by emulating the modernization movement in the European countries. When the Republic of Turkey was founded in 1923 following the collapse of the Empire, Mustafa Kemal Atatürk's reforms and policies were all geared towards establishing Turkey as a modern, western, and secular nation-state. This westernization movement accelerated in the Post-World War II era with Turkey's memberships of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development in 1948, the European Council in 1949, and the North Atlantic Treaty Organization in 1952. In this period, Turkey's close relationships with the Western world, particularly with the US, resulted in the spread of English as one of the popular foreign languages taught at schools in Turkey (Doğançay-Aktuna, 1998).

Turkey's international relationships with the US and European countries tightened in 1980s. English became the dominant foreign language in Turkey's national educational system due to the "political, economic, and commercial relations with the West, along with the introduction of the parameters of the liberal economy and the opportunities provided for free enterprise [which] significantly encouraged and promoted Western identity in Turkey" (Atay & Ece, 2009, p. 23). Likewise, Turkey's higher education institutions followed a similar pattern. Since the existing public universities (i.e. Bogaziçi University and Middle East Technical University) fell short to meet the increased demand for EMI in the last quarter of the twentieth century, the government issued the Higher Education Law in 1983, which allowed private universities to open, and provide EMI to their students. Following this law, Bilkent University was founded in 1984 as the first private foundation university with support from the government to offer 100% EMI in Turkey. Since then, the number of universities offering EMI programs has increased, especially after the 2000s as a result of Turkey's national policies to cooperate with the European Union and the broader Western world in various domains (Karakas, 2018). Today, the number of universities in Turkey with both undergraduate and graduate EMI programs continues to rise as the Council of Higher Education also supports EMI policies (Kırkgöz, 2008). Founded in Istanbul, the most bustling metropolitan city of Turkey, in 1998, Secondville University is one of the private EMI universities which has grown and become popular in a short time.

5.2 *Secondville University's English Language Policies: Meso Level*

Although among the relatively newly founded higher education institutions, Secondville University is one of the most preferred private universities in Turkey with campuses in Germany, Canada, the US, Georgia, Cyprus, Vietnam, and Ukraine as part of its global network. According to Başıbek et al. (2014), the administrations of new private universities in Turkey are willing to offer EMI since they see it as a “tool which makes their university an elite one” (p. 1824). They follow the footsteps of more established and prominent universities in Turkey in their English language policies and practices (Keles et al., 2020). Likewise, Secondville University offers 100% EMI in almost all of the undergraduate and most of the graduate programs. Its vision statement reveals that the university’s main goal is “to be an internationally renowned research university.” In tune with this vision, one of the missions of Secondville University is to “raise critical and creative entrepreneurs who are able to undertake innovative projects to improve the prosperity and happiness of the people in our country and in the world.” Along with these official statements, “the university administration “has a goal for the 2023 educational year to be among the top 500 universities worldwide in Times Higher Education rankings,” (Interview#3) as Sema noted in our interviews. She also pointed out that the university has an “internationalization goal that affects the number of international students” admitted to the university programs (Interview#5).

Currently, 9.3% of the student population is international according to the university’s website. The university embraces its international students by organizing an International Day when “students wear their traditional garments, bring food from their cultures, and entertain themselves in a fair-like atmosphere” (Interview#4). In line with its inclusivity policy, Sema’s department organizes seminars in English to enable international students to learn about international and domestic business life.

As much as willing to serve the needs of incoming international students, Secondville University offers international experiences to its students from Turkey through a number of initiatives and partnerships. First, its students are given the choice to study abroad on its campuses in different parts of the world. Second, as part of its participation in Erasmus+ exchange program, students may complete a semester of their studies in European universities. Third, as Sema says, “students are encouraged to complete their compulsory internships abroad” (Interview#4). For those who cannot afford to study abroad, the university offers a one-year-long intensive English program. Also, all of the students are required to take an academic English writing course in their first year. According to Sema, “such practices derive from [the institutional] policy – that is, equipping students with the language tools to do their job efficiently” (Interview#1). She followed up with her interpretation of this institutional goal by indexing her institutional identity with the use of first person plural pronoun: “I mean, we want to graduate students as good engineers with high English proficiency levels” (Interview#1).

6 Findings: Sema's Personal EMI Story

6.1 *High School: Learning English to Communicate and 'Not-So-Pleasant' EMI Experiences*

Sema started learning English in 1991, after the fifth grade in Guneytown Anatolian high school, which is located in Guneytown, a touristic province of a southern city on the Mediterranean coast. In tune with the national foreign language policies, Anatolian high schools were designed to increase the number of English speaking citizens of Turkey. They targeted higher achieving students whose families could not afford private school tuition (Doğançay-Aktuna & Kızıltepe, 2005). To that end, these schools accepted students based on their scores in the standardized Anatolian high school entrance exam administered by Ölçme, Seçme ve Yerleştirme Merkezi [Measuring, Selection and Placement Center]. Compared to other public schools, Anatolian high schools had a prestigious status as they provided two-semester long intensive English classes (Kırkgöz, 2008).

Like their peers going to private high schools, students graduating from Anatolian high schools acquired a higher level of English proficiency than other public schools as they are exposed to English instruction much longer (Kırkgöz, 2007). Being an Anatolian high school student, Sema received intensive English education 25 h a week for two semesters before she moved on to sixth grade. She developed her English language skills as she continued to take 8 h of English. Also, she received EMI in other school subjects except for Turkish literacy, Geography, and History until the ninth grade.

When reflecting on her high school years, Sema said, "Some of my [English] teachers were really good; some were not that good. There were those who had solid grammar knowledge, and there were those who didn't. Some were good at pronunciation; some were not" (Interview#1). Unlike in other school subjects at her school, her English teachers created an interactive learning environment. She remembered that,

Our English education was better than other school subjects. It was, err, more different. In other lessons, our teachers taught us in more conventional ways – like write on the board or read from the book. We were all bored but [in English lessons,] we acted out the texts in our textbooks as if in a play. We used to sing English songs, too. Now I see that it was a revolutionary thing considering the traditional Turkish educational system. (Interview#4)

Although she was in a sizeable classroom with about 32 peers, her teachers' 'gamification' of their teaching made her language learning enjoyable in the classroom.

Sema also benefited from living in a touristic town. From the seventh grade on, she worked as a shop assistant at a clothes store annexed to the town's only aqua park on her summer holidays. There, she practiced her English speaking skills with tourists coming from other countries, such as Germany, France, Israel, Holland, and Egypt. "German and Dutch tourists' English was very good – Egyptians, too" she commented, "talking to people from different parts of the world improves not only

your comprehension but also your pronunciation. When you mispronounce a word, you learn to say it better until they understand what you are saying. Also, they correct your mistakes in a friendly manner” (Interview#1). Owing to her interactions with tourists, she developed her communicative skills, as she was exposed to different English varieties talking to English speakers from around the world.

Practicing English in summers helped her retain what she learned in English classes. Although she was one of the top achieving students in English classes, she oftentimes felt overwhelmed by learning content knowledge in other school subjects via EMI. She put forward two reasons for that. First, she had difficulty in understanding math and science. Having to learn these school subjects in English made it even more challenging for her, “since there were so many terminological words and concepts, I spent most of my time memorizing them in English. There was little time left to understand them” (Interview#1). Second, she asserted that “my math and science teachers did not speak English well. After all, they learned to do so later in their life. They did not know how to teach in English” (Interview#1). Such beliefs about her teachers’ inability to deliver EMI solidified when she saw that her math and science grades increased substantially after receiving these subjects in Turkish from the ninth grade onwards.

Overall, Sema learned English in an interactive environment despite being in a sizeable class (~35 to 45 students). That she worked in summers allowed her to improve her English speaking skills to a great extent. It also helped her build self-confidence since she noticed that English was a tool for communication rather than a school subject. Nevertheless, although she was among the high achieving students in English classes, she had difficulty in understanding other school subjects delivered in EMI. She had to memorize subject-specific vocabulary at home, which left her little time to focusing on understanding the content.

6.2 University Life: Sema’s EMI and TMI Experiences as a Student

After graduating from high school, Sema earned a place at the university entrance exam to study Guidance and Psychological Counseling at Firstville University, a state university in Istanbul, Turkey. With a vision to “[s]trengthen the culture of science, research, creativity, and innovation to become one of the leading research universities in the world,” one of the missions of Firstville University is to “educate individuals [...] who are rooted in the local and open to the global, and who can, with their self-confidence and scholarly, social and cultural foundations, successfully take on leadership positions anywhere in the world.” As one of the most well-established higher education institutions in Turkey, Firstville University offers 100% EMI to its students, which aligns with its vision and mission statements. The university’s EMI policy is in line with the national foreign language education policies in Turkey that have been influenced first by the country’s westernization ideals

(Atay & Ece, 2009) and later by the impact of globalization on Turkey's higher education (Kırkgöz, 2008). Today, EMI at universities in Turkey is a sign of prestige both for university administrators, faculty members, students and their families (Keles et al., 2020). Likewise, Firstville University is one of the "elite universities" in Turkey (Başbek et al., 2014). Sema reflected on the reverberation of the English language policies at her alma mater as,

[t]he professors almost never spoke Turkish in the class – maybe in case practices in the form of role plays. Perhaps, it was the institutional policy – don't know, but I don't think faculty members were forced into [the English-only policy]. Their English proficiency was remarkable. Except for one, all of our professors had a PhD degree from a US university. They all had English [medium of instruction] backgrounds. (Interview#1)

Since the English-only policy was implemented campus-wide, students were expected to have a certain academic English level. Therefore, Sema had to study at the one-year intensive English program because she did not pass the writing section of the proficiency test, which measured students' academic reading, writing, and listening skills in English. Reflecting on the test, she noted, "I was good at speaking English unlike many other students at [Firstville] but I wasn't prepared to write academic papers" (Interview#1). During the program, her English teachers offered her some essay writing tips that she refused to use since she "wanted to express her opinions in a rather sophisticated way in a euphuistic style than using simple templates" (Interview#1). However, she failed to do so due to her limited lexical knowledge and rhetorical skills. To improve her writing, she crammed for building her academic vocabulary knowledge.

While pursuing her undergraduate degree, her academic performance was "neither the best nor the worst – just in the middle," but she participated in the classroom discussions more actively than her classmates (Interview#1). She "had more self-confidence to speak English in the class" because she "practiced [her] English while working in Guneytown in summers. Once you talk to foreigners, you realize that English is not a school subject only. It is only a tool – a tool for communication" (Interview#1). Although she initially had difficulty in "finding the right terminology," she never refrained from "expressing opinion if [she] thought it was important" (Interview#2). Unlike Sema, most of her peers in her cohort were afraid of making mistakes, and openly told her that they did not want to speak English in class. On one occasion, as she narrated,

An American expert came from the US while working on a voluntary project in my junior – or senior – year. Everybody was asked to introduce themselves one after the other. One of my peers rushed out saying that she had an errand to take care of. She had this fear- I mean, the fear of speaking. Despite her high GPA. (Interview#1)

Among peers who were reluctant to speak English, Sema performed well in her departmental courses. However, she experienced hardships in other courses she had to take, such as Sociology and Mathematics. Due to a departmental mistake, she had to take an advanced Sociology course in her first year with senior students double majoring in Sociology and Philosophy. Since she was familiar neither with the content nor with the discipline-specific language, she found it difficult to follow the lessons. To receive a passing grade, she had to focus her studies on terminology and

concepts. “When you don’t know what that term refers to, it is impossible to understand the lecture,” she reflected on her experiences, “terminology is central to learning” (Interview#1). Sema experienced a similar problem while taking a Mathematics course as part of her program of study. Together with her lack of terminological knowledge, her low-level mathematical skills made it almost impossible to pass the course.

The importance of terminology resurfaced, this time in Turkish academic discourse, while Sema was taking a Psychology course in her master’s degree, whose medium of instruction was Turkish. She calls it “one of the mistakes of my life” as she “didn’t know any of the Turkish meaning of the concepts” (Interview#3). Similarly, she had difficulty in writing an article in Turkish while she was pursuing her PhD. She remembers this experience as,

Turkish academic literature is full of translated English terms or they are just ‘made up.’ That is superficial. I can’t tell you how staggering it was. I could have written it faster and more easily in English. I had to pause writing very often because I had to find the right words in Turkish. Those I found felt like- I mean, they didn’t fit. (Interview#1)

Having received EMI education at Firstville, Sema’s Turkish academic discourse did not develop at the same pace. She had to find the ‘right’ words. She experienced similar issues with terminology while translating her dissertation’s abstract in Turkish. “I couldn’t translate it since I didn’t know the Turkish meanings. I used Google translation. It was good – very good indeed. I finished the abstract with few corrections,” she laughed, “Google knows Turkish better than I do” (Interview#3). Although Turkish was her first language, she was able to write the abstract in English but needed assistance to translate it into Turkish, which stemmed from her lack of discipline-specific lexical knowledge in Turkish. Such experiences led her to believe that academic discourse required specific vocabulary to be able to express herself well both in Turkish and English.

In brief, Sema’s self-confidence and prior practical experiences brought her success in her departmental courses at Firstville University and later in her PhD studies in Secondville University. Unlike most of her peers who refrained from speaking English, she actively participated in classroom discussions. However, her lack of terminological knowledge in other courses obstructed her performance. Experiencing similar problems in TMI courses she took for her master’s degree, she started believing that acquiring academic discourse required extensive terminology to express her opinions both verbally and textually.

6.3 Professional and Academic Life: Sema’s EMI Practices as a Faculty Member

After Sema completed her master’s degree in 2008, she started working at Secondville University as an instructor of Human Resources at the School of Engineering. Meanwhile, she pursued her PhD in the same school, and graduated in 2017. Then, she started working as an assistant professor. Since then, she has been

teaching EMI courses at undergraduate and TMI and EMI courses at master's level. She has so far published her research in national and international venues both in Turkish and in English.

Sema's in-class EMI practices in the School of Engineering at Secondville University are influenced by a combination of various factors on macro, meso, and micro levels. National educational policies and globalization movements in international business are the macro level and supranational factors. The meso level factors are the institutional *de jure* and *de facto* policies which attempt to regulate the EMI instruction in the university programs. The micro level factors include heterogeneous student population, students' future prospects, in-class student interaction and participation, Sema's and her students' beliefs and thoughts about EMI, along with their previous English learner and user backgrounds. Sema reported that she attends to these factors critically and strategically to serve for her students' interests bests. That is, she tries to balance her students' professional development with their English proficiency levels. Against this backdrop, she negotiates with and often-times resists to the university's EMI policies.

6.3.1 Sema's Beliefs and Thoughts About Her EMI Practices

On the whole, Sema's EMI beliefs oscillate between what she sees "ideal" and what she encounters "in reality" which leads to some ideological tension for her. She states:

It is a gray area. I believe in EMI given that English is the language of the world. [...] For constant self-development, you must learn English – to follow the trends in your field. On the other hand, I have doubts – whether [students] must be forced into it. [...] My job is to raise engineers – not to teach them English. When grading their exam papers and assignments, I pay attention to whether they understood the topic regardless of English. In fact, they did but they wrote the answer in Turkish. They get a zero. If it is comprehension, well they have it. You feel confused – that's a dilemma. (Interview#5)

Although she agrees that her students need high levels of English proficiency to compete in the global workforce, Sema thinks her main responsibility is to improve her students' engineering skills. She does not feel responsible for developing her students' English proficiency. Yet, the challenges her students experience with EMI creates a barrier preventing her from achieving her instructional goals.

Wrestling with the search for balance between top-down policies and her beliefs, thoughts, and emotions in teaching EMI, Sema has developed a three-pronged framework guiding her pedagogy in her EMI practices: inclusivity, equity, and patience. She explains these principles as:

By inclusivity, I mean making sure that all students are on the same page when I lecture them. Equity means giving them equal opportunities to express their opinions – equal right to speak. Patience is about my approach to them. I should give them some time to be able to speak freely. It took me years to not complete their sentences. (Interview#4)

Sema's instructional practices are informed by these three criteria as the guiding principles.

For her, Turkish plays an important role in achieving inclusivity. To start with, she greets the students and asks about their life in Turkish. She finds this strategy important to connect with students as she notes,

I do the warm-up in Turkish starting with a *Merhaba!* [Hello!] because – by the way international students also know such things. Starting with *Merhaba* and continuing with *Nasılsınız bugün?* [How are you today?] is crucial for me to grasp students' attention and maintain their concentration. After this round, I do this in English, too. Like- How are you? How was your weekend? (Interview#3)

Doing so, she builds rapport with students. Also, it helps transition into the topic of the day smoothly. During the lessons, she pays close attention to encouraging the students to actively participate. She gives her students as much time as they need to finish their statements instead of completing their sentences for them. "While talking, he stops. You realize that he can't remember a word in English. He cannot wrap up what he has been saying. I try not to complete his words. If you interfere, you may lose the student" (Interview#4). Also, she thinks that "My interference also means that I am making their life easy by finishing what they started. Later in their professional life, no one will complete their sentences" (Interview#4). Instead of helping the students to conclude what they are saying, Sema allows them to switch to Turkish as she thinks self-expression is as important as English fluency.

When asked whether she foregrounds either content or language knowledge, she confers that "both the content and English proficiency are important," and "you cannot insist on one and overlook the other" (Interview#5) to maintain students' active participation. "But," she continues, "I apply a different strategy for each student. If I shut them down just because they can't speak English, I may lose a student forever. If I let them speak Turkish, they can't acquire the necessary communication skills" (Interview#5). To hold a balance between content and delivery, Sema tries to get to know her students closely. She approaches every student in different ways. She believes that it is part of her job although the university's policies are rather standard in English-only instruction.

Sema is cognizant that there is an inevitable variance in the micro-level implementation of the EMI policies in the classroom instruction. She explains the EMI implementation in Secondville University course by using a 'pizza' metaphor:

The EMI education at the university is like a pizza. Its system is built on the strong foundation. Official documents are written and circulated through either only in English or in two languages – Turkish and English. This means that it has a 'crust,' but on it there are many different ingredients in different colors. Well, there are the good ones – like tasty mozzarella, but there are also the bad ones – like smashed tomatoes. Is this pizza delicious? Well, you can make it 'yummy' by altering the toppings. The crust will hold. (Interview#2)

This 'pizza' metaphor reveals that Sema thinks Secondville University's infrastructure (crust) is ready to provide high quality EMI to its students. The problem is, the students (the toppings) differ in their English proficiency and content knowledge (taste), which define the quality of education (the taste of the pizza). In her

observation, the students with high English proficiency (the mozzarella) add to the overall performance of the university (the flavor of the pizza), but the students with low English proficiency (smashed tomatoes) do not. Sema further explains the 'pizza' metaphor in relation to its economic value by adding that

Plus, pizza is a bought and sold dish. It is not like homemade dishes. We are a foundation university, but we are also a private university. We sell education as a service. This wasn't what I had in mind when likened it to a pizza. Well, yeah! Our students are actually our clients, and they need to be served good pizza. (Interview#2)

In this metaphor, Sema points to the university's role in the neoliberal economic system. In this market-driven academic environment, Sema assigns students a dual role. She groups the current students as good (mozzarella cheese) or bad (smashed tomatoes). She asserts that the existing students' satisfaction with their education is an important factor in increasing future students' potential to 'buy' the same services. Therefore, she aims to improve and maintain her current students' satisfaction regardless of their educational and linguistic background. For her, the university must provide its students with the best service possible since they pay for their education there. This 'service' includes offering EMI programs regardless of the students' readiness for EMI education.

6.3.2 Mozzarella Cheese and Smashed Tomatoes: Students' English Proficiency Levels

Sema's department has a diversity of student demographics both culturally and linguistically. Although the majority of her students are from Turkey, a considerable number of her students are internationals coming mostly from Middle East and North Africa. Sema notes,

We have students from Arab countries. In the last two – three years, the number of North African students have been on the rise. They are from Nigeria – or neighboring countries. We don't have many students from Europe – only Turkish immigrants in Germany. (Interview#1)

Sema notes that the increase of international students at Secondville University aligns with the educational policies of the government enacted via HEC's recent decision to boost the international student quota at universities. She says, "[Secondville] University received the 'Top 500 Service Exporter Grand Award' twice – in 2017 and 2018," and adds, "The International Office worked hard for it. They participate in international education fairs abroad. They collaborate with Turkish consulates" (Interview#3). Sema finds the internationalization policies of the university beneficial as the presence of the international students has positive influence on her classroom practice. "Sometimes, I can't find the right word. I ask the students what it was. I can't use its Turkish and move on. There are international students, too. If it is a key word, I tell the students to google its English. Then, I rephrase the statement using the English word for everyone," she laughs, "then, I say, you see! You can still communicate with limited vocabulary!" (Interview#4). Sema notes that her international students' English levels vary. While "Nigerian

students' English is way better than me. After all, it is an official language there. I use them as a dictionary. Others have different levels – like my Turkish students. Some have good, some have poor English” (Interview#4). When simply labeling her students' English proficiency as good or poor, Sema actually emphasizes the difference between her students' language proficiency levels. She says, “The students have a serious issue with English. If they have not graduated from established high schools – like Robert, Galatasaray, Daruşşafaka, and İstek – they start university with poor English” (Interview#2). For her, ‘poor’ English means that the students' proficiency levels do not suffice to pursue their EMI studies even though they have somehow passed their proficiency test after participating in a two-semester intensive English program at English Preparatory (Prep) School. Sema asserts,

There is a problem in transitioning from the Prep School into the department. They don't come to the class with an adequate English level. I don't know what the underlying reason is. Is it that students are disinterested; that two semesters not enough to learn English; that the Prep School's teaching methods are inefficient; that teacher quality is low? Maybe all – maybe something else. Whatever the reason, it is certain that there is a problem – a problem everybody at school is aware of. (Interview#2)

Acknowledging this flaw, Sema resists the university's 100% EMI policy and exercises agency by using the students' Turkish knowledge in her classes very often. She says, “Although I have to lecture them in English, learning outcomes are equally important as well. If they will understand the concept better, I explain it in Turkish for two minutes once in a while. I also let them speak Turkish with their peers in group discussions” (Interview#5). Looking back in her high school years, Sema witnessed first-hand how demanding EMI would be particularly for low-achieving students and that EMI would result in additional problems in students' understanding of the content. She highlights:

It adds to the comprehension difficulties. If a student is confused, she can't grapple with the concepts. They are there to learn about the content, not English. Learning a subject is not an easy task. I always ask my students whether they have a question before I continue to talk about another topic. I sometimes do that in Turkish especially when I think that the subject isn't easy to grasp. (Interview#5)

Based on the difficulties she faced in her Math and Science classes in middle school, Sema believes that EMI might be an obstacle for learning. “It may be as simple as not knowing the meaning of the concept in Turkish,” she adds, “or it may be an issue of lack of background knowledge” (Interview#5). To not leave any students behind, she wants to make sure that students understand an initial concept before going into more complex ones. For her, “using Turkish is the last resort” but she doesn't hesitate providing Turkish explanations if she sees that her “students are overwhelmed by the abstract terminology” (Interview#3). While doing so, she apologizes to her international students noting that “This is important, my friends. I need to make sure that everyone understands” (Interview#4). Similarly, if an international student tells her that they did not understand, she first rephrases what she has said in a more simplified fashion. “If he is still confused,” Sema maintains, “I ask others – is there someone who can explain their friend what I just said? Then, that

student explains it in their first language. If I don't do this, I may leave him behind" (Interview#4). Also, Sema encourages the international students to use their home languages in group discussions to help them grasp the topic of instruction.

When asked whether the students are content with the use of different languages, Sema agrees that "some Turkish students are disturbed when hearing Arabic language because they have heightened nationalistic views, but I tell my Turkish students that I let them speak Turkish despite the university's English-only policy. So, their international friends have the same right to use their native languages" (Interview#4). In order to reduce the tension between domestic and international students, Sema subscribes to the idea of fostering collaboration between Turkish and international students although Turkish students are usually reluctant to do so due to their English levels. "Turkish students do not develop close relationships with them since they refrain from talking– or cannot talk to [internationals] in English. They are not willing to do assignments or conduct projects with them, either" (Interview#4). However, Sema disagrees with the Turkish students' reluctance to collaborate with international students since she thinks they are afraid of making mistakes due to their low self-confidence as she observes, "It is not their language competence. Some of them prefer to remain quiet although their academic English is good. I see that from their papers" (Interview#5). She tries to improve their self-confidence by giving herself as an example,

Even if you think your English isn't good, try to speak English in the class. Your colleagues at work will not be as understanding as your classmates. Here, you are with friends. They have the same problem, too. You may make mistakes – yes. I make mistakes as you see. There are a lot of words that I mispronounce. Make the mistakes here so that you make fewer mistakes in your work life. Here is a place to practice your English, too. (Interview#4)

The reason why Sema encourages her students to speak English does not derive from the university's EMI policies. She reminds them what an important role their English proficiency will play in their future careers. She feels content to see that some students take her advice and deliberately group up with international students in classroom discussions. Sema comments on these students' changed attitudes, "With internationals in the group, they speak English. I stay away from these groups to avoid any additional anxiety. They get more comfortable when they realize that their international friends make mistakes, too" (Interview#5).

Although Sema encourages her domestic students to speak English during the lesson, she does "not want to disregard the ones with serious language problems," she remarks, "I tell them to visit me after the class or in my office hour" (Interview#3). Outside the class, Sema insists on speaking Turkish to her students although it violates the university's English-only policy. "They visit me for a reason," she asserts, "that they want to learn from me. In the class, they don't always catch up – for obvious reasons" (Interview#3). Sema summarizes her lecture in Turkish to her students when they visit her in her office. She defends her use of Turkish in these one-to-one mini lectures by pointing out that "if a student comes over and tells you that she didn't understand the lesson in English, you explain it briefly in Turkish" but warns the students saying that "you need to know the English meaning of this, this, and

that – the key words – because you will likely need them in the exam” (Interview#3). Another reason why Sema prefers to speak to her students in Turkish outside the classroom is that it feels more natural. She reflects, “When they come over- I mean, you are in Turkey. Turkish is your first language as well as theirs. Why speak English when there is no one else around?” (Interview#5). On the whole, Sema’s EMI practices are mostly informed by her perceived students’ needs. Therefore, she does what she thinks is the right thing to do rather than worrying about the university’s English-only policies. She insists that the students must work hard to understand the content in English because she believes that they need to develop their English not only for their education but also for their future professional life.

7 Discussion and Conclusion

In this chapter, as Benson (2014) noted, “the significance of narrative studies is [...] that they lead us to look at issues in different ways or open up new avenues of inquiry” (164), we narrated Sema’s story of EMI as a professor at a university in three sections. First, we focused on her high school years when she learned English at school and practiced her language skills outside of the class working at a clothes shop. Second, we presented her EMI along with her TMI experiences in her university years when she realized that academic English required extensive terminology development. Lastly, we discussed her EMI practices in accordance with how she navigates through meso and macro level English language policies particularly at her workplace and broadly in Turkey.

Our findings corroborate previous studies documenting the challenges both instructors and students experience in their EMI learning and teaching practices. These challenges include students’ difficulty in (a) understanding specific disciplinary knowledge (Kırkgöz, 2014) and general concepts (Kırkgöz, 2005); (b) articulating and communication their opinions (Kılıçkaya, 2006), which lowers their confidence in participating actively in classroom discussions (Gökmenoğlu & Gelmez-Burakgazi, 2013), and (c) expressing their ideas during exams (Sert, 2008). In order to alleviate these challenges, Sema utilizes her students’ first language knowledge to some extent. For instance, she occasionally allows for first language (L1) when her students are unable to utter sentences in English in order not to inhibit their active participation or when she believes the provision of L1 equivalent significantly affects students’ comprehension of the topic. However, she keeps this strategy at minimal levels as she believes that her students will have to rely on their English speaking skills in their professional life. Her strategic choice of using L1 derives from her own beliefs rather than the influence of meso- and macro-level language policies. She tries to create a balance between content knowledge and use of English.

The challenges instructors live through in their classrooms include difficulty in (a) finding culturally rich course materials (Gökmenoğlu & Gelmez-Burakgazi, 2013), (b) drawing students’ attention to the content (Sert, 2008), (c)

communicating the course contents in effective ways (Sert, 2008). During the interviews, Sema stated similar concerns although she did not have any problems with finding course materials in English. In order to attract students' attention, Sema spoke Turkish at the very beginning of the classroom to warm up the students. Since both Sema and majority of her students are aware of her national and linguistic identity, she finds it artificial to ask how the students are in English. Although such a practice goes against the university's 100% English policy, she avoids English in her non-academic talks to build rapport with her students.

Existing scholarship has yielded conflicting results regarding instructors' attitudes towards EMI. The participating instructors stated opposition to EMI in Karakaş (2016) and Kılıçkaya's (2006) studies, whereas those participating in another study by Karakaş (2014) were in favor of EMI. Sema frames the EMI's role in her teaching not as a matter of personal worldview but rather as a pragmatic understanding of the neoliberal global market whose lingua franca is English. Although Sema accepts that TMI may enhance student learning, she is well aware that her students will have to demonstrate her knowledge and expertise in English once they step into business world. Her own experiences are in line with her beliefs which have been largely shaped by the ideologies of English being the language of global economy. That is, had she not acquired English proficiency, Sema would not have found her present job. Although she thinks she often makes grammatical mistakes and agrees that she does not have "the perfect pronunciation" (Interview #3), she trusts her communicative skills in English. Aligned with the findings of Şahan's (2020) study, Sema prioritizes her students' communicative efficiency rather than adhering to English-only policies of Secondville University.

Our narrative analysis has showed that Sema's EMI practices as a faculty member are influenced by two combined factors. One factor was her English language history and EMI experiences as a student. Her personal experiences in learning and using English in her high school years led her to believe that English was a tool for communication instead of a school subject. Her EMI experiences as a university student strengthened her emphasis on the key role terminological knowledge played in academic English. Her current EMI practices are mostly informed by her previous experiences rather than Secondville University's English-only policies. Reflecting on the difficulties she particularly had with academic vocabulary, she oftentimes emphasized the importance of English terminology in her classes. Also, when she thought that English created barriers instead of scaffolding students' comprehension, she utilized their first language to make sure that all the students understood the topic of discussion.

One factor that affected Sema's EMI practices is the meso level EMI policies at Secondville University and the macro level EMI policies in Turkey. However, instead of accepting such policies without questioning them, she asserted agency when negotiating with, navigating through, and resisting to these meso and macro level EMI policies through critical decisions. Her current EMI practices as a faculty member may, thereby, be considered as a critical incorporation of her micro-level (bottom-up) beliefs, thoughts, and emotions with her appropriation of top-down EMI policies on meso and macro levels. Overall, having witnessed the benefits and

challenges of EMI and TMI as a student, she has developed a personal EMI style. Instead of seeing the incorporation of Turkish language in her EMI practices as “Tarzanish”¹ (Karakaş, 2019, p. 205), she uses it strategically as a shared linguistic repertoire with her students whose first language is also Turkish, in order to address their academic and professional needs.

Our findings contribute to the earlier studies on EMI in Turkey’s higher education institutions with a qualitative analysis of a lecturer’s experiences. Situating Sema in the micro level of the LPP, our study provides a narrative account of Sema’s in-class practices, which involves enactment of and resistance to the meso level English-only EMI policies. In this account, we see how Sema asserted her agency as a micro level LPP actor who was actually revising and redeveloping the language policy and plan for her own classroom practices. Her agency was a response to the ideological tensions she experienced in her EMI teaching. One particular ideological tension particularly pertained to her professional identity as an EMI university professor. She negotiated her professional identity in situations when she was concerned about her students’ use of English, especially when grading papers or exams: “My job is to raise engineers – not to teach them English” (Interview#5). As she had students whose ‘poor’ English proficiency inhibited their learning of the engineering content, she had instances when she felt as though she needed to teach her students English language skills more than the academic content.

One tension she had to navigate concerned her use of Turkish, the home language of a majority of her students. This tension became more intense especially after the universities in Turkey started recruiting an ever-increasing number of students from Middle East and Africa. As Sema’s university framed itself as a global institution which has multiple campuses in other countries outside Turkey, it marketed its EMI programs to attract more international students. However, this increase in the number of students whose home language was not Turkish impacted the practices of EMI professors who tended to use Turkish strategically in their EMI teaching. This was the case in Sema’s classes. She had incidents in which she would normally switch to Turkish to overcome the language issues when her Turkish-speaking students did not comprehend the content. As a teacher who was committed to her students’ success with the principles of “inclusivity, equity, and patience”, such instances caused some tension for Sema. To mitigate this tension, she implemented a practical solution. That is, she asked the students who came from similar linguistic backgrounds to help each other when there were unclear points to be further explained. Additionally, she allowed her international students to use their home language to negotiate and discuss the content. Both strategies were examples of her agency in which she flexed the English-only policy or created her own policy in EMI teaching. In this sense, Sema’s personalized micro-level medium of instruction policy shows that L1 use is a matter of strategic choices rather than taking an ‘either/or’ stance as in Karakaş’s (2016) study, in which the participating lecturers

¹Tarzanish is the mixed use of Turkish and English, which refers to underdeveloped foreign/second language skills of the speakers. It largely denotes the undesired outcomes of EMI in schools in Turkey.

take opposing stances as the proponents or opponents of using Turkish as an L1 in their EMI teaching. Instead of taking a side, Sema is cognizant of the merits and drawbacks of using Turkish in her EMI classrooms. Instead of either embracing or rejecting Secondville's EMI policies fully, she holds a pragmatic approach in her instruction. At the core of her EMI practice, there lies the fact that delivering content knowledge well was as imperative as lecturing in English. Therefore, she attends to each student's needs case by case.

Another tension which she was still grappling with actually emerges from a wider xenophobic ideology that is connected to the nationalistic tendencies in Turkey. Sema had some students who reported being bothered by the Arabic speakers speaking in their home language in the classes. Sema thought this reaction was related to these Turkish-speaking students' nationalistic views and she needed to deal with this tension in her classes. She explained if Turkish speakers were allowed to use their home language, then Arabic speakers should be, as well since neither is a 'legitimate' medium of instruction in her courses. Additionally, she encouraged Turkish-speakers to interact more with the international students in English, but most of the time, the former were reluctant, which Sema attributed to their lack of confidence in their English language proficiency. We believe that this kind of tension is an interesting example of how broader socio-historical discourses in nation-state context tend to impact EMI implementations in higher education. Given that the number of international students is briskly increasing in universities in Turkey, we believe EMI scholarship may benefit from studies that scrutinize in- and out-of-class interaction among students from Turkey with their international peers in EMI universities.

One more aspect of EMI in higher education to which Sema's case directed our attention was the transition between EMI and TMI. Sema's reception of EMI education in undergraduate, TMI in master's, and again EMI in her doctoral studies could be a common situation and experience in a lot of EMI higher education contexts which to our knowledge the research literature has not addressed much yet. In the future, more qualitative studies might explore the relationship between lecturers' socio-linguistic and educational backgrounds and their ongoing EMI teaching beliefs, thoughts, and practices with a deeper focus.

Our narrative study demonstrates that Sema's challenges (e.g., having to google translate her abstract from English to Turkish) when making these transitions were reflective of the potential issues that hindered student's content learning and discipline-specific language development. Sema needed to consciously work on her discipline-specific Turkish language development as she started her Master's program. She was strategic about coping with such challenges, but had to spend more time switching from EMI to TMI than her peers who started the same discipline with TMI education.

In conclusion, Sema's case demonstrated that EMI professors are actively engaged actors of LPP in their classes and assert agency to strategically make decisions and take actions in teaching EMI. The tensions we discussed above point out how such professors' work involve identity work navigating ideological tensions. Perhaps future research could explore with more micro focus on the classroom

interactions to locate these tensions in situ in EMI teaching settings. We believe that examining tensions in EMI contexts not only helps us better understand the implementation of LPP, but also opens up opportunities and direct our attention to the necessity to better understand how EMI professors learn to teach EMI, and grow by constructing their professional identity.

References

- Atay, D., & Ece, A. (2009). Multiple identities as reflected in English-language education: The Turkish perspective. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education*, 8(1), 21–34. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15348450802619961>
- Barkhuizen, G., Benson, P., & Chik, A. (2013). *Narrative inquiry in language teaching and learning research*. Routledge.
- Başıbek, N., Dolmacı, M., Cengiz, B. C., Bür, B., Dilek, Y., & Kara, B. (2014). Lecturers' perceptions of English medium instruction at engineering departments of higher education: A study on partial English medium instruction at some state universities in Turkey. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 116, 1819–1825.
- Benson, P. (2014). Narrative inquiry in applied linguistics research. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 34, 154–170. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000099>
- Cankaya, P. (2017). Challenges in English medium of instruction from the teachers and students' eyes. *International Journal of Languages' Education and Teaching*, 5(4), 830–839.
- Coleman, J. A. (2006). English-medium teaching in European higher education. *Language Teaching*, 39(1), 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S026144480600320X>
- De Fina, A., & Georgakopoulou, A. (2012). *Analyzing narrative: Discourse and sociolinguistics perspectives*. Cambridge University Press.
- Dearden, J. (2015). *English as a medium of instruction: A growing phenomenon*. British Council.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2017). *The SAGE handbook of qualitative research* (5th ed.). SAGE.
- Doğançay-Aktuna, S. (1998). The spread of English in Turkey and its current sociolinguistic profile. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 19(1), 24–39. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434639808666340>
- Doğançay-Aktuna, S., & Kızıltepe, Z. (2005). English in Turkey. *World Englishes*, 24(2), 253–265. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-971X.2005.00408.x>
- Ekoç, A. (2018). English medium instruction (EMI) from the perspectives of students at a technical university in Turkey. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 44(2), 231–243. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0309877X.2018.1527025>
- Eser, O., & Dikilitaş, K. (2017). Learners' perceptions of translation in English as the medium of instruction (EMI) at university level. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 8(8), 124–129.
- Gökmenoğlu, T., & Gelmez-Burakgazi, S. (2013). Designing English-medium classroom management course for non-natives. *Turkish Online Journal of Qualitative Inquiry*, 4(3), 17–33.
- İşpınar Akçayoğlu, D., Özer, Ö., & Efeoğlu, İ. E. (2019). English-medium instruction in a state university and students' English self-efficacy beliefs. *Cumhuriyet International Journal of Education*, 8(3), 651–669. <https://doi.org/10.30703/cije.522904>
- Karakaş, A. (2014). Lecturers' perceptions of their English abilities and language use in English-medium universities. *International Journal on New Trends in Education and Their Implications*, 5(2), 114–125.
- Karakaş, A. (2016). Turkish lecturers' views on the place of mother tongue in the teaching of content courses through English medium. *Asian Englishes*, 18(3), 242–257. <https://doi.org/10.1080/013488678.2016.1229831>

- Karakaş, A. (2017). The forgotten voices in higher education: Students' satisfaction with English-medium instruction. *Journal of English as an International Language*, 12(1), 1–14.
- Karakaş, A. (2018). Visible language-covert policy: An investigation of language policy documents at EMI universities in Turkey. *International Online Journal of Education and Teaching*, 5(4), 788–807.
- Karakaş, A. (2019). A critical look at the phenomenon of 'a mixed-up use of Turkish and English' in English-medium instruction universities in Turkey. *Journal of Higher Education and Science*, 9(2), 205–215. <https://doi.org/10.5961/jhes.2019.322>
- Keleş, U., Yazan, B., & Giles, A. (2020). Turkish-English bilingual content in the virtual linguistic landscape of a university in Turkey: Exclusive de facto language policies. *International Multilingual Research Journal*, 14(1), 1–19. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19313152.2019.1611341>
- Kılıçkaya, F. (2006). Instructors' attitudes towards English-medium instruction in Turkey. *Humanising Language Teaching*, 8(6), 1–16.
- Kır, E., & Akyüz, A. (2020). An exploration of perceptions of faculty members and students: The effects of English-medium instruction on language ability. In M. L. Carrió-Pastor (Ed.), *Internationalising learning in higher education: The challenges of English as a medium of instruction*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2005). English language teaching in Turkey: Challenges for the 21st century. In G. Braine (Ed.), *Teaching English to the world: History, curriculum and practice* (pp. 159–175). Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2007). English language teaching in Turkey: Policy changes and their implementations. *Regional Language Centre Journal*, 38(2), 216–228. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688207079696>
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2008). Globalization and English language policy in Turkey. *Educational Policy*, 23(5), 663–684. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0895904808316319>
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2014). Students' perceptions of English language versus Turkish language used as the medium of instruction in higher education in Turkey. *Turkish Studies*, 9(12), 443–459.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2018). Confronting similar challenges?: Exploring students' experiences of studying engineering at a Turkish university: Turkish versus English-language medium of instruction. *Rassegna Italiana di Linguistica Applicata*, 2–3, 145–160.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2019). Investigating the growth of English-medium higher education in Turkey and the Middle East region. In D. Staub (Ed.), *Quality assurance and accreditation in foreign language education: Global issues, models, and best practices from the Middle East and Turkey* (pp. 9–19). Springer.
- Kırkgöz, Y., & Dikilitaş, K. (Eds.). (2018). *Key issues in English for specific purposes in higher education*. Springer.
- Liddicoat, A. J., & Baldauf, R. B. (2008). Language planning in local contexts: Agents, contexts and interactions. In A. J. Liddicoat & R. B. Baldauf (Eds.), *Language planning in local contexts* (pp. 3–17). Multilingual Matters.
- MNE [Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı]. (2016). *Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı yurt dışı lisansüstü öğrenim bursu programı* [Ministry of National Education's program for graduate studies abroad]. https://yryegm.meb.gov.tr/meb_ays_dosyalar/2016_10/21031209ylsytanitimkitapci.pdf
- Özer, Ö. (2020). Lecturers' experiences with English-medium instruction in a state university in Turkey: Practices and challenges. *Issues in Educational Research*, 30(2), 612–634.
- Piller, I., & Cho, J. (2013). Neoliberalism as language policy. *Language in Society*, 42(1), 23–44. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0047404512000887>
- Reagan, T., & Schreffler, S. (2005). Higher education language policy and the challenge of linguistic imperialism: A Turkish case study. In M. Y. Lin & P. W. Martin (Eds.), *Decolonisation, globalisation: Language-in-education policy and practice* (pp. 115–130). Multilingual Matters.
- Ricento, T. K., & Hornberger, N. H. (1996). Unpeeling the onion: Language planning and policy and the ELT professional. *TESOL Quarterly*, 30(3), 401–427. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3587691>
- Şahan, K. (2020). ELF interactions in English-medium engineering classrooms. *ELT Journal* (early preview). <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccaa033>

- Selvi, A. F. (2014). The medium-of-instruction debate in Turkey: Oscillating between national ideas and bilingual ideals. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 15(2), 133–152. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14664208.2014.898357>
- Sert, N. (2008). The language of instruction dilemma in the Turkish context. *System*, 36(2), 156–171. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2007.11.006>
- Soruç, A., Dinler, A., & Griffiths, C. (2018). Listening comprehension strategies of EMI students in Turkey. In Y. Kırkgöz & K. Dikilitaş (Eds.), *Key issues in English for specific purposes in higher education*. Springer.
- Turhan, B., & Kırkgöz, Y. (2018). Motivation of engineering students and lecturers toward English medium instruction at tertiary level in Turkey. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 14(1), 261.
- Wächter, B., & Maiworm, F. (2014). *English-taught programmes in European higher education: The state of play in 2014*. Lemmens.
- Yıldız, M., Soruc, A., & Griffiths, C. (2017). Challenges and needs of students in the EMI (English as a medium of instruction) classroom. *Konin Language Studies*, 5(4), 387–402. <https://doi.org/10.30438/ksj.2017.5.4.1>

Turkish Undergraduates' Perspectives on EMI: A Framework Induced Analysis of Policies and Processes



Erkan Arkin and Kenan Dikilitaş

Abstract There has been an exponential growth of English-medium instruction (EMI) programmes in Turkish higher education in the past 20 years, and accordingly there has been an increasing number of studies investigating university students' points of view of EMI as well as their expectations and experiences in the process. However, only limited research to date has investigated the extent to which institutional EMI policies are perceived and enacted. To address this gap, we examined how a group of EMI university undergraduates conceptualise EMI, in terms of its perceived advantages and disadvantages, and to what extent students' conceptualisations are addressed and covered by institutional policies. Drawing on a set of qualitative data from a Turkish university context, and based on the analyses using the ROAD-MAPPING framework (Dafouz E, Smit U, *Appl Linguist* 37:397–415, 2016) we found that although EMI is perceived to contribute to the development of English language proficiency, a number of factors appeared to constrain the students' efforts to learn through EMI due to the lack of clear EMI management policies. We offer several curricular and pedagogical implications from the students' lens to the EMI universities.

Keywords English-medium Instruction (EMI) · Higher Education (HE) · Views of English · Language policy · Language management

E. Arkin (✉)
Eastern Mediterranean University, Mersin, Turkey
e-mail: erkan.arkin@emu.edu.tr

K. Dikilitaş
University of Stavanger, Stavanger, Norway

© The Author(s), under exclusive license to Springer Nature
Switzerland AG 2022

Y. Kirkgöz, A. Karakaş (eds.), *English as the Medium of Instruction in Turkish Higher Education*, Multilingual Education 40,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-88597-7_7

1 Introduction

EMI is a growing global phenomenon in most of the non-Anglophone countries with an exponential increase (Dearden, 2014), including the most of higher education sector in Turkey with approximately two-third of the universities offering all or some of their programmes in the medium of English (Dearden et al., 2016). There are several reasons for universities adopting EMI in the Turkish context which include attracting international students and teaching staff to increase their academic prestige and international outlook, offering competitive advantage for graduates on the job market, benefitting from relevant up-to-date teaching and research materials published in English (West et al., 2015; Coşkun, 2013; Kirkgöz, 2005; Sert, 2008; Turhan & Kirkgöz, 2018).

Regarding the Turkish context, the total immersion in English, i.e. education in the medium of another language other than Turkish, is not a common practice before university except for a few elite private schools offering some school subjects in English. Although this situation seems to have changed in recent years, with especially more and more private secondary schools offering most subjects in English (Dearden, 2014), English is still largely taught as a foreign language at most primary and secondary levels of education. While this is the case in most of the pre-university education contexts, there is a sudden shift to EMI at the university level. As a result, the case of EMI has long been an issue of dispute in the Turkish context with discussions focusing on the potential negative effects of such a sudden shift in the medium of education, such as difficulty for students to follow and comprehend disciplinary content in a foreign language, i.e. English. Indeed, such concerns seem plausible when Cummins' (2000) *Interdependence Theory* is considered, which argues that for a better academic performance in a target language, learners first need a firm academic background in their native language, and then they would need at least 6 years to catch up with the academic performance of native speakers in that language. What is more, Cummins goes on to argue that unless these conditions are met, academic performance in the target language lags behind that of in the mother tongue, while the mother tongue is negatively affected by the learning process in the target language. In other words, late immersion in another instructional language (as is the case in the Turkish context) is associated with potential problems such as limited performance and reduced attainment of disciplinary knowledge (Cummins, 2000; Dalton-Puffer, 2007). Against this backdrop, although the rising role and status of English has been observed and acknowledged in Turkey as a requirement for better-paying jobs and for academic advancement (Doğançay-Aktuna, 2005), there have also been opposing views and arguments against the widespread intrusion of English into Turkish education system, as revealed in heated discussions and dispute over the issue (see, for example, Karakaş, 2013; Kilimci, 1998; Yediyıldız, 2003).

1.1 Research into EMI in Turkish Higher Education

In the light of the above discussions, earlier research conducted on EMI in the Turkish higher education context largely focused on views and perceptions of EMI students and academics. The common findings gathered from these research studies, most of which investigated the perceptions and attitudes, are while EMI may have positive advantages for university students to develop their English language competence and gain access to better academic and professional career prospects, it is largely perceived to have disadvantages for and potential negative effects on attainment of disciplinary content and accomplishing disciplinary requirements (Atik, 2010; Kılıçkaya, 2006; Kırkgöz, 2005, 2018; Sert, 2008).

The more recent research can be reviewed under two broad categories: the first category is small-scale research into perceptions of EMI students and academics at different public and private university settings, and the second is large-scale research into perceptions as well as policies at national/institutional level. Within the first category, one of the most researched topics is possible factors affecting EMI perceptions and processes. One common factor under investigation is whether students and content instructors perceive provision of English offered in English Prep and support programmes as sufficient for preparing students for their academic studies. The findings reveal that these programs are largely perceived, both by EMI students and academics, to be lacking to provide students with the academic English skills necessary for effective functioning in their EMI learning practices (İnan et al., 2012; Karakaş, 2017; Kırkgöz, 2009).

Another factor addressed by a few other research studies is the strategies reportedly used by students in coping with EMI disciplinary learning. Kırkgöz (2016) investigated perceptions of students at a state university regarding the effectiveness of their approach to learning disciplinary content in their EMI programmes. Findings from the data collected through a survey with a group of university students and follow-up interviews yield that students reported experiencing surface learning in their first years of study and a mixture of surface and deeper learning of disciplinary content towards the end of their undergraduate study after learning to apply a combination of study strategies including collaborative learning with peers, discussing, synthesizing and co-constructing disciplinary knowledge. In a later study, Soruç and Griffiths (2018) examined the difficulties EMI students reportedly experience, such as limited English language skills to comprehend the lecture content fully, as well as strategies they employ to address their difficulties, including asking questions during lectures, using a dictionary, translating disciplinary terms into L1, and so on.

One of the large-scale research projects under the second category, i.e. research investigating the case of EMI nationwide, was the one conducted by British Council Turkey in partnership with TEPAV (Economic Policy Research Foundation of Turkey) and published in 2015 (West et al., 2015). Based on the findings from a comprehensive survey of university officials, staff and students at 38 universities across 15 cities, the report (West et al., 2015) accentuates three major findings

undermining a smooth running of EMI. These findings are listed as follows: (i) students enter EMI programs with low English proficiency and prep school programs fail to fully address the academic English needs of students required for a successful start to their departmental studies; (ii) many English language teachers, those responsible for providing departmental language support lack sufficient training necessary to develop needs-based and discipline-specific English support materials and activities; and (iii) most EMI academics seem unaware or uncaring about students' language problems and leave the EMI learning responsibility to students and language teachers. The report calls for policy changes and revisions at national and institutional levels for a more effective addressing of the above issues. In another large-scale study based on open-ended survey of opinions of around a thousand university students from 18 state and private universities across Turkey, Macaro and Akıncıoğlu (2018) report findings revealing significant differences in student perceptions based on a number of variables, such as year of study and type of university. While, on the whole, the participating students appeared to agree with such motivations for studying through EMI as English language improvement and opportunities for studying and/or working abroad, year two students reported less positive attitudes towards EMI, appearing to be more realistic in their perceptions of the impact of EMI on their English language proficiency. And private university students reported more positively than those in public universities, expressing greater levels of satisfaction with provision and lecturer competence on their EMI programmes (see Karakaş, 2017 for similar findings).

Considering a number of key issues brought out in recent research on EMI student perceptions, such as the mismatch between expectations and realities in provision of effective English support, and following the call from the British Council report (West et al., 2015) for a systematic evaluation of universities' EMI policies and processes, we present in this chapter the findings from a study which set out to explore through the lens of a group of university students' perceptions whether similar issues and problems also apply to the context of the study and whether the conclusions and arguments on the contributing reasons can be validated. For a more comprehensive understanding of the EMI perceptions of students and the possible reasons leading to these conceptualizations, we utilized a theoretical framework, ROAD-MAPPING (Dafouz & Smit, 2016), which has yet to be reported in any previous research in the Turkish context. We believe that such a fresh approach to the analysis of data using a number of key factors and dimensions in the framework, details of which are given in the following section, is significant to showcase the need for a framework-based approach so as to achieve a thorough understanding of the EMI phenomenon and the potential impact of a set of diverse yet interconnected factors on the effectiveness of English-medium education planning and practices. Dafouz and Smit (2016) choose to use the term EME (English-medium education) instead of EMI "because of the particular role that English plays both as an academic language of teaching and learning" (p. 399). We will continue using the term EMI with no implication of focussing solely on instruction and excluding learning.

1.2 *The ROAD-MAPPING Framework*

The name ROAD-MAPPING is an acronym for the theoretical framework proposed by Dafouz and Smit (2016), made up of the six core dimensions which are suggested for use for “a holistic and dynamic means of analysing the dimensions operating in ... English medium educational settings” (Baker & Hüttner, 2017) and which would “allow researchers to understand how ... EME realities ... are affected by forces operating at global and local levels simultaneously” (Dafouz & Smit, 2020, p. 40). These dimensions are (1) Roles of English (RO); (2) Academic Disciplines (AD); (3) (language) Management (M); (4) Agents (A); (5) Practices and Processes (PP); and (6) Internationalization and Glocalization (ING).

The first of these dimensions is Roles of English (RO) and it entails a range of ways English is used in, for example as a subject, a skill to improve in English for Academic or Specific Purposes classes, or as a means of teaching and learning in EMI contexts, as well as a tool for academic and professional interaction and communication purposes (Dafouz & Smit, 2016). The second dimension, Academic Disciplines (AD), refers to the different curricular objectives and educational practices different academic disciplines require, as well as the responsibilities and challenges each of these disciplines place on “the stakeholders involved (teachers, students and researchers)” (Smit & Dafouz-Milne, 2017). The third dimension, (language) Management (M), refers to the official language policy statements dictating the choice of what languages to use for instructional and communicational purposes and also includes administrative decisions on medium(s) of instruction and assessment, as well as language support (Dafouz & Smit, 2020). The fourth dimension, Agents (A) comprises all the stakeholders involved in EMI, both as individuals (e.g. students, teachers) and as collective entities (e.g. faculty, rectorate) involved in the administrative and instructional processes. The fifth dimension, Practices and Processes (PP) entails the teaching and learning activities, such as the instructional efforts of teachers or learning efforts of students, constructing EMI realities and providing a valuable tool for investigation and understanding of teacher and learner activities. The final dimension, Internationalization and Glocalization (ING), refers to the universities' policies and efforts to gain and maintain international standards, e.g. equipping students with the required qualifications for the international job market, while at the same time addressing the needs and interests of local settings, e.g. also equipping the students with necessary language/communicational skills required for the local business settings.

Based on the theories of sociolinguistics, language ecology and planning, and social practices as discourses, the ROAD-MAPPING framework is proposed as an analytical tool to provide a strong grounding for a holistic and detailed investigation and understanding of the dynamic nature and complexities of EMI contexts, by providing dimensional analyses at the levels of not only institutional policies but also EMI classroom realities and processes. Instead of fragmentary and disconnected analysis and interpretations of findings from student views, for instance, the

framework-based analysis would help researchers better understand the impact of individual or interlacing factors affecting such perceptions, providing a handful of analytical lenses to zoom in or out on related dimensions (Dafouz & Smit, 2020).

2 Methodology

2.1 Context

The study took place at an EMI university in the Turkish context. Although being a high profile international university with students from many different countries (mostly from the Middle East, Africa and Turkic states in the former Soviet Union), the majority of students at the context of the study, a semi-private EMI university located in the north of Cyprus, come from a Turkish speaking first language (L1) background (from Turkey and North Cyprus) where English is taught as a foreign language at primary and secondary education. The university is regarded as semi-private because the cost of education for Turkish Cypriot students are largely covered by the government, while international students (including those from Turkey) pay fees in full. In order to start their departmental studies, students have to pass an in-house English proficiency test with a minimum score that is equivalent to IELTS Band 5.5. Those who cannot pass the proficiency attend a 1-year intensive English program at the English Preparatory School (EPS). Completing 1 year of general English study at the EPS, students take the proficiency exam again, but they have the right to go to their departments, regardless of the score they receive from the exam; those with lower scores take academic English support courses during their first year of study in their major. While there are some native-speakers of English, the majority of the EMI academics are non-native speakers of English and most are Turkish native speakers.

Considering the case of EMI, similar issues and problems reported in other Turkish university contexts have also been voiced at the university where the present study took place. The common observation, including that of one of the authors in this study who has been working at the university for over 20 years, is that many Turkish-speaking students fail to succeed in coping with the requirements of EMI courses, with weaknesses such as expressing themselves in academic speaking and writing. The English proficiency tests students have to pass in order to start their English-medium academic courses, and which are expected to foretell students' academic success, fail to be an effective predictor (Gürtaş, 2004). For many Turkish speaking students, it is problematic to handle and perform the spoken and written requirements of their disciplinary learning in EMI classrooms. Such issues and problems were also reflected in a report published in 2007 by the Institutional Review Programme of the European University Association, reviewing the case of EMI at the university. The report (EUA Evaluation Report, 2007) refers to the issue in the section of the reappraisal of its identity, and goes on to say that,

The university must also reflect further on its professors and students who complained that the knowledge of English as a teaching language was often insufficient, especially when students arrived from Turkey with very little understanding of the medium. In a year of preparatory courses, it proves difficult to bring that knowledge up to an academic level, especially when the students live daily in a Turkish-speaking environment. As a result, professors complain that 4-year curricula are often completed in 6 to 7 years, thus reducing the “efficiency” and increasing the cost of teaching at EMU when compared to other institutions. Can EMU select better-trained students as far as English is concerned – a problem that does not apply to the Asian or African students who arrive in Famagusta with a higher fluency? Or should it move to English taught to empower students with the knowledge of terms that are used in the particular discipline of their interest? Or should it turn the preparatory year into a kind of open to all kinds of general subjects that would help students open to a much wider understanding of their place in society? Or should remedial teaching be offered on a regular basis in order to help all students achieve expected results? Or might Turkish be used in remedial courses when specific learning outcomes need to be reached? (p. 20)

2.2 Research Questions

In response to the concerns raised in the report and in order to understand the width and depth of the issue, an exploratory case study looked into the process of EMI disciplinary learning via classroom observations and stimulated recall interviews (Arkin & Osam, 2015). Data for the present study come from the initial phase of the above study which collected data on students' perceptions through a survey. The two research questions this study sought answers to were as follows:

1. How do Turkish undergraduate students conceptualise EMI, in terms of its perceived advantages?
2. What are the perceived disadvantages and how are these related to factors at the level of EMI planning and management?

2.3 Data Collection and Analysis

The survey used in this study included a questionnaire of perceptions, adapted from Tarhan (2003), administered to a randomly selected sample of undergraduate students ($n = 175$) and follow-up interviews ($n = 10$) to have a grasp of their views and perceptions regarding advantages and disadvantages of studying at an EMI programme.

The sample for the questionnaire represented five major disciplines: Engineering, Business and Economics, Communication, Arts and Sciences, and Tourism. Of the participating students, 130 were from Turkey, (44 female, 86 male) and 45 were from North Cyprus (26 female, 19 male). The sample is believed to represent the student population of the university, for about two-third of the undergraduate student population is from Turkey, and one-third is from North Cyprus and other

countries. Majority of the participants were at their second year of undergraduate study (39%), followed by third year (37%), fourth (21%) and first (3%). The reason for selecting participants mostly from second and third years of study was that they would have more exposure to and experience of EMI than first years, and that they would still be in the process of experiencing the potential struggle and disadvantages. In terms of the discipline areas, half of the participants (52%) were from the Sciences programmes (41%- Engineering, 11%- Maths), and the other half (48%) were from the Social Sciences (26%- Business Administration, 13%- Communication, 9%- Tourism). The target group selected for individual follow-up interviews were ten students from the Business Management program under the faculty of Business and Economics, as the program was one of the Social Sciences disciplines where the potential problems with the process of EMI would be expected to occur more frequently.

For the purpose of this study, only the written responses to the open-ended sections of the questionnaire were used for analysis. A qualitative content analysis method was opted for the analysis of the data. Coding was conducted by the two authors in two cycles. In the first cycle, in-vivo coding (Saldana, 2016) was used to identify the advantages and disadvantages given for EMI by the respondents. In the second cycle, a focussed coding was applied to identify emergent themes which were then collated and grouped under the top-down codes based on the ROADMAPPING framework. The main dimensions under focus were RO, AD and M, so the emerging themes under these codes were evaluated in terms of their relation to these dimensions and in relation to other interlacing dimensions, i.e. A, PP, and ING. Evidence from the interviews was also examined to build justification for the established themes for added validity (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

3 Findings

The two-open ended items in the questionnaire asked students to respond in writing the advantages and disadvantages of studying at an EMI programme. 106 out of 175 participants responded to the first item (advantages), and 108 out of 175 participants answered the second (disadvantages). Based on the advantages listed an emerging theme was identified under the RO code, i.e. improved English and the privileges this might offer. The major themes that came in sight out of the responses given for the disadvantages were also identified under the AD, M, and PP codes. The details are presented below and will be analysed in detail, with supporting evidence from interviews as and when necessary.

3.1 Perceived Advantages: Roles of English

Zooming in on Roles of English (RO), in relation to internationalization and globalization (ING) the student responses reflect a number of well-established roles and functions of English in the Turkish context, such as the potential advantages a high level of English language competence would provide in terms of access to better academic/professional career prospects and to study or work abroad opportunities (Doğançay-Aktuna, 2005; Macaro & Akincioglu, 2018).

Table 1 below presents the perceived advantages in terms of the frequency of each advantage repeatedly stated in the 106 written responses. Improved English competence seems to be the major advantage EMI provides as perceived by students, repeatedly articulated in 85 of the 106 written responses, followed by an improved prospect of employability (mentioned in 35 of the responses), improved communication skills (cited 20 times), access to academic resources in English, and an improved prospect of an academic career (each cited 10 times).

The interpretation of these would be the expectation that studying at an EMI program would help students develop their English language competences, including (academic/professional) communication skills, which would also yield access to more resources in English and in turn to better academic and professional career prospects. The findings are in line with the previous research, both in the Turkish context (Ekoç, 2020; Karakaş, 2016a; Kırkgöz, 2005; Macaro & Akincioglu, 2018; Sert, 2008; Turhan & Kırkgöz, 2018) and in similar contexts (Belhiah & Elhami, 2014; Ghorbani & Alavi, 2014; Goodman, 2014) showing that English is perceived to function as key to open doors to better academic advancement and job opportunities, which would seem to be the driving force behind the demand for students' preferring EMI over other forms of education, for EMI seems to be perceived as the shortcut to access the above privileges.

In response to the first research question and considering the role of English within EMI, as a tool or target, we might conclude from the mixed responses that it seems to have a dual role, although majority of the respondents seem to expect their English language competences to develop through the process of EMI, implying an interpretation that in the context of the study, English seems to be perceived more as a target than a tool. In other words, the responses tend to highlight the role of English as a subject, a target expected to be achieved, rather than a tool which might be expected to provide conditions for attainment of disciplinary knowledge. Such an

Table 1 Advantages given for EMI

Advantage	Number of responses mentioning this item (N = 106)
Improved English	85
Better employment	35
Improved communication skills	20
Access to academic resources	10
Academic career opportunities	10

interpretation might seem plausible as other studies in similar contexts draw parallel conclusions, with the argument that students from the contexts similar to the Turkish setting tend to display similar perceptions of the role of English in EMI (Baker & Huttner, 2017).

The RO dimension, with its intertwined relation to *internationalization* in the ING dimension of the ROADMAPPING framework, and the potential realisations of these two dimensions as perceived in the minds of university students can be observed in the context of this study, as is the prevailing case with English in most of EMI university contexts. This is an undeniable fact, documented time and again in the literature, in the Turkish context and elsewhere. However, the relationship of RO with other dimensions in the framework, and the impact of the factors promoting or inhibiting effective realisation of these conceptualisations in EMI processes have not been very well documented. Thus, the findings in the following section are examined through a few other key dimensions in the framework with an aim to observe what factors are at play and are likely to be contributing to the disadvantages/challenges as perceived by students in the context of the study.

3.2 Perceived Disadvantages: EMI Planning and Management

The second research question addressed the perceived disadvantages of EMI and possible underlying factors at the level of management policies and classroom processes. For this part of analysis, we shifted our focus on two specific ROADMAPPING dimensions: *academic disciplines (AD)* and planning of English provision across academic disciplines, and then (*language*) *management (M)* issues in terms of language policies versus classroom realities and in relation to *practices and processes (PP)*.

One of the five other dimensions, interlacing with Roles of English (RO) is *Academic Disciplines (AD)*. It is argued that one of the most challenging phases of university education is to acquire the academic skills necessary for a successful adaptation to disciplinary requirements (Dafouz & Smit, 2016) and these requirements might be different across disciplines. For this reason, it is crucial for curriculum planners to be aware of the challenges these requirements pose on EMI students (Smit & Dafouz-Milne, 2017) and plan their English support programs accordingly. The focus of our analysis of the perceived EMI disadvantages starts with this perspective. We first looked at the written responses (108 out of 175 participants) to the open-ended item regarding the disadvantages the participating students perceived in their EMI learning endeavour. Table 2 below presents the most commonly uttered disadvantages repeatedly occurring in the responding students' written answers, all of which being either directly related to or implied as a result of limited English language proficiency.

The most commonly cited disadvantage in the respondents' answers to the open-ended item was the limited comprehension of course content (repeatedly occurring in 60 of the 108 written responses). The second most cited disadvantage was surface

Table 2 Disadvantages given for EMI

Disadvantage	Number of responses mentioning this item (N = 108)
Limited comprehension	60
Surface learning	26
Poor exam performance	20
Limited participation	15
Added study time	11

learning of disciplinary material (cited in 26 responses), followed by poor exam performance (mentioned in 20 responses), limited participation in lectures (in 15 responses) and added study time (in 11 responses). It seems the biggest challenge is limited comprehension of disciplinary material, which leads to surface learning and as a result to poor exam performance and lower grades. Limited participation in lectures and added study time to cover the assigned content are also mentioned in the answers. The perceived causes leading to the above problems were identified both in written responses and interviews as emerging themes under the AD, M and PP codes and are discussed below.

English Requirements for Academic Disciplines

As for the reasons for these problems, our analysis found that one cause that has been repeatedly mentioned in students' responses was that the Prep Year Program (PYP) failed to address their disciplinary English needs. The same issue was also raised in the interviews:

S1: That's what we're all saying, talking amongst ourselves, PYP has got nothing to do with disciplinary English. Our (content) instructors also say the same thing, departmental English is completely different (from what we learn at PYP). For example, we learned "good" as its everyday English meaning; and I later found out at my department that it actually meant "produce". We've had to learn all such things during our studies, looking up every word, doubling our study time. I put that down in my written response in the questionnaire, too. We're still struggling with it (not having the required disciplinary English competence).

S2: My expectation (from PYP) was this, I was going to learn disciplinary English (necessary) for my department. But what I found was 'I can, you can, what can you do ...' so, we received English language education that was not relevant to our department. I wasn't expecting I would be able to pass the PYP in one semester, thinking it would be challenging and demanding, that I would have to learn high level academic and disciplinary English. But that was not the case.

S4: Actually, when I passed the prep school and started department, I saw that English in the department is completely different from the prep school there were some kind of scientific terminologies about business. I didn't know them (the terms), then I learned them, it takes time. But I failed in my first semester, failed many lectures, it was hard to get (used to it).

S6: Departmental English and English we learned at Prep School are very different. I was expecting to learn English for our disciplinary fields but I saw that the terminology is so different. And I had difficulty, to be frank, the first year was difficult ... my CGPA was very low.

S7: I was thinking that since they knew about our departments and what discipline specific English skills we will need to have, I was expecting PYP would prepare us accordingly, providing the discipline specific vocabulary and skills. But we learned things like present and future tenses at PYP, which has got nothing to do with what we'd need at our disciplinary studies.

The issue of PYPs and/or academic English support programs failing to equip students with the necessary academic literacies required for successful handling of their disciplinary studies is also one of the common findings in earlier research (Karakaş, 2017; Kırkgöz, 2009; see also chapter “[Academic English Language Policies and Practices of English-Medium Instruction Universities in Turkey from Policy Actors’ Eyes](#)” for similar findings). This problem is also specifically addressed in British Council’s report (West et al., 2015), with the argument that the curricula of most prep school programs are not in relevance with requirements of disciplinary programs and fail to fully address students’ discipline-specific academic needs. Based on the evidence from earlier and more recent research, it may seem plausible to argue that effective curricular planning in terms of needs-based language support is still a serious problem to be addressed in most EMI university settings. In the context of this study, and in many others, the similar findings may well be considered as one of the serious problems at the level of institutional planning, overlooking the need for a more careful addressing of English needs and requirements of academic disciplines.

EMI Management: Role of EMI Academics

Another cause repeatedly mentioned in written responses and student interviews for limited comprehension of lectures was the English used by lecturers; some of the students mentioned that an important reason for failing to follow the lecture content was their instructors’ high level of English- too advanced for them to follow, in some cases it was the lecturer’s use of English, e.g., accent and enunciation, causing comprehension problems.

S2: Some lecturers, non-Turkish speaking ones for example, tend to speak faster, have heavier accents and are more difficult to follow. Our instructor (of the observed lectures) knows about our English level and adjusts his level of speech while lecturing, but some others do not seem to notice or care ...

S4: I find it difficult to understand the accent of some foreign (non-Turkish speaking) instructors. They also use more complex English, with phrasal verbs and idioms, which make it difficult for us to understand what they say.

S6: Some instructors use a much more complex English, and speak fast. Some just read out from the slides and do not give any examples, I mean they do not provide any explanations or clarifications on what they have said.

Some students complained that it was the non-interactive, monotonous mode of delivery, which causes problems:

S3: Frankly, I think some instructors lack the necessary skills for effective lecturing; you know gestures are important in effective lecture delivery, or like making jokes and giving examples. These instructors just present the lecture content in a monotonous way, without any gestures or any interaction, just reading out from the slides and eventually students stop listening ...

S8: There are some instructors, head down and with a monotonous tone, they give their lectures in this way, I mean no eye-contact, no questions-answers, and no interaction with students. With such a lecturing style, it is not possible to keep students' attention and interest in the lecture.

S9: Some instructors, for example, they speak so fast and deliver their lectures so fast, not in a way that we can follow and comprehend, or using an advanced level of English. And there are some instructors who speak in a monotonous way, their tone of voice is so tedious and we cannot follow their lectures.

Similar issues were also reported in the report by British Council/TEPAV (West et al., 2015), which states that "EMI academics do not generally accommodate students' language difficulties and regard EMI learning as the students' responsibility." (p. 16), an interpretation we can also make as similar complaints are reverberated in student responses:

S1: Our instructor of this course simplifies his English, uses simpler terms and even explains in Turkish here and then. But not all instructors are tolerant or understanding; some instructors speak so fast, others just say 'I give my lecture and it's up to you to deal with it; it's not my responsibility if you understand it or not'.

S3: Some of our instructors are like they are lecturing at a university in America; it is impossible to understand their lecture with our limited English. They do not let us ask our questions or respond to their questions in Turkish; they utter one word: 'English please!'

S7: Some instructors, they tell us, like 'you are in your third year or fourth year in your study. I cannot speak with a low-level English, I cannot simplify everything for you; you have to improve your English and understand what I'm saying'.

A consideration of the problem from the dimension of (*language*) *Management* might help us evaluate the issue as seemingly the absence of institutional management policies on the role of EMI academics regarding whether it is within their role and responsibility to cater for the linguistic needs of their students. Indeed, the university administration in the context of the present study has yet to deal with the issue effectively, since no managerial decisions or declarations to date have been made nor any actions have been taken. Yet, the need for awareness raising and training of EMI academics to teach more effectively have been voiced in the literature

(Dearden, 2014; Dearden, et al., 2016; Farrell, 2020; Macaro et al., 2019, 2020), underlining the need for EMI academics to undertake a dual role and responsibility in the EMI classroom, addressing language needs of their students and providing the necessary language support, such as accommodating their level of English, slowing down their rate of speech, providing visual aids and glossaries for discipline-specific terms, using clear discourse markers, and so on. Such awareness and improvement through EMI training might help EMI academics deal with the language issues in EMI, which would help improve students' disciplinary learning. While EMI academic training programmes have been in place and running in most European universities (O'Dowd, 2018), absence of such reports in the Turkish context implies the urgency for policies at the national and institutional levels.

EMI Management: Policies Versus Processes

While sometimes problems related to language management occur due do absence of clear policies and managerial decisions, as in the case of absence of official policies on EMI academic training, sometimes it might turn out that managerial decisions are “largely ignored or replaced by what relevant agents believe to be appropriate” (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p. 496) in their actual instructional practices and processes, an issue also reported in studies from other contexts (Hu & Lei, 2014; Kim & Tatar, 2018; Rahman et al., 2020) with findings revealing that the English-only policy in EMI programmes tend to be largely abandoned due to students' linguistic challenges. The findings in our study also revealed that although the university has English-only language policy in all EMI programs, apparently the actual classroom practices and processes seem to differ across EMI programs. While lecturers in some EMI programs are much stricter on the matter and stick to English-only policy in the classroom, others provide Turkish summaries of content for Turkish speaking students at the end of lectures and some accept questions in Turkish in and after class. The following response is evidence of how practical applications and processes show variation amongst programs, i.e. some programs provide remedial tutorials and summary sessions in Turkish; an initiative apparently taken by some individual EMI academics having seen the need for such a practice.

S3: There is this Business Law course, a very hard course with its complex legal English and all. Many students have difficulty understanding the content in this course. So what the instructor did was he assigned an assistant who gives a Turkish summary after every lecture for the Turkish-speaking students so that they can understand the lecture content.

We believe this issue is an important one and needs to be addressed at the management level. That is, in such cases, university authorities need to make their policies clear on the choice and use of instructional language. Providing remedial teaching and permitting the use of L1 under certain conditions seem plausible as it may support those struggling with comprehending lecture content (Karakaş, 2016b).

But this should be made into a managerial decision and made public to ensure standard practice in all programs.

An even more serious issue is to do with the standard practice regarding assessment and testing, an essential issue in assessing and evaluating students' EMI performances. It seems from the findings that due to the absence of a clear policy on EMI assessment procedures, students report their observation of different practices regarding how their instructors approach assessing their lecture and exam performances in different ways.

S1: Some instructors are not helping at all in the exams. We write our answers in simple English, in our own words, which is something our instructor in this course encourages. He says 'explain in your own words, give your own examples. I would tolerate and accept that'. But we cannot do this in some other courses, I mean you respond to exam questions in your own words but then the instructor does not accept your answer as s/he was expecting an answer written as in the book or in good English as shown/explained in the lecture. We're always in a dilemma when it comes to the exams, we have to study for the exams depending on the different expectations of different instructors.

S7: Regarding the exams, some instructors say, 'I do not want you to answer the exam question and explain or describe your answer in simple English; I expect you to answer using the words/terms I explained/used in my lectures.'

S8: They (lecturers giving a non-interactive and monotonous lectures) complain that the students cannot answer their questions; they should ask themselves if it is the students' fault or their fault. That student could not answer your question, this student could not answer your question, and no one in the class could answer your question! So whose fault is that? Some instructors are like that, not thinking about the consequences of their (lecturing) behaviour.

The issue S8 raises may as well be interpreted as an important indication of how lecture methodologies could be closely associated with expectations in assessment. While, on the one hand, the lecturer S1 refers to encourages answers in students' own words and in simple English as s/he does the same in lecturing (using simple English, giving examples), others choose to be more strict and expect what was presented in the lecture since they may not have set the floor for discussion of personal examples or assessed students' level of English and their capabilities because there was no interaction in the lecture in the first place. However, regardless of the individual methodological differences, the assessment procedures need to be carefully planned at the management level, whether to tolerate language errors and value meaning over form. The absence of such clear policies seem to be putting students at a disadvantage and leave them with the personal decisions of their instructors. In fact, the need for a careful consideration of the assessment of non-native uses of English and restructuring assessment criteria so as not to disadvantage EMI students must be on the agenda of education planners to reflect students' performances just and adequately (Jenkins & Leung, 2016). Proposing such curricular revisions and redefinition of EMI academics, (Airey et al., 2017) highlight

that EMI academics should also have the responsibility as language teachers since their job is to introduce students to the discourse of their chosen discipline, claiming that EMI academics should be responsible for describing skills that are cultivated and detail how these skills are developed and assessed regarding the role of assessment.

4 Conclusion

In this chapter we have presented the findings from a study looking at the way a group of Turkish university undergraduates conceptualise EMI, in terms of its advantages and disadvantages as perceived during their departmental studies. Referring to ROAD-MAPPING (Dafouz & Smit, 2016) as a conceptual framework for analysis, the study investigated EMI policies and processes through the lens of one of the key stakeholders who, based on their actual experiences, form views and conceptualisations regarding the success of EMI policies and processes. We believe that applying the framework supported our analysis and interpretation of findings as it helped us to reach a holistic understanding regarding the factors and dimensions impacting and shaping Turkish EMI undergraduates' views, experiences and practices in the EMI classroom. For the purpose and scope of this study, we particularly focused on Roles of English (RO), i.e. how the students perceived the different roles of English within EMI, a tool to access and acquire disciplinary knowledge or a target to attain by the end of their EMI studies. We also applied a few other analytical lenses, namely Academic Disciplines (AD), (language) Management (M), and Practices and Processes (PP), to understand potential reasons behind the reported disadvantages of EMI. Overall, our findings suggest that most of the students in this study perceive EMI as a shortcut to developing their English competence, which they believe would provide better access to academic advancement and better-paid job opportunities. However, our findings also reveal a number of factors which appeared to limit the students' efforts to learn through EMI due to the lack of clear EMI management policies.

One finding pertaining to EMI planning and management policies is the need for careful planning of English provision required for academic disciplines. Our analysis found that mismatch regarding provision of English support across academic disciplines is also an issue in the context of the study like in other similar contexts. A second finding also confirmed another common problem inhibiting the effective provision of EMI in many university contexts, that is, the absence of clear definition of the role of EMI academics and of provision of EMI academic training to improve the quality of EMI. A third finding referred to how absence of clear language management policies and the resulting non-standard practices in EMI assessment may cause distress and discomfort for students.

In this chapter we also discussed how a framework-induced approach to data may help with the analysis and interpretation of findings from an array of individual yet interrelated perspectives. Our reason for applying ROAD-MAPPING

dimensions in our data analysis was to showcase the strength of the framework providing a more comprehensive analysis of contextual EMI realities and also the necessity of applying the framework for effective EMI planning. Our argument and propounding such a conceptual approach seems plausible when EMI problems are still observed to largely exist in most Turkish higher education contexts. For the context of this study, and in other Turkish EMI university contexts, one of the most urgent issues is language management policies which encompass curricular revisions and effective planning in addressing students' disciplinary literacy needs in order to succeed in their departmental studies. Another important issue as part of the effective language management policies is redefining the role of EMI academics in helping students deal with language-related problems and also attain discipline specific literacy. We would suggest that further research is needed to investigate and report on the planning, implementation and evaluation of EMI management practices including revision and reconstruction of curricula of academic disciplines with particular focus on EAP and ESP goals, as well as of EMI academic training programmes.

References

- Airey, J., Lauridsen, K. M., Rasanen, E., Salo, L., & Schwach, V. (2017). The expansion of English-medium instruction in the Nordic countries: Can top-down university language policies encourage bottom-up disciplinary. *Higher Education*, 73, 561–576. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-015-9950-2>
- Arkin, E., & Osam, N. (2015). English-medium higher education: A case study in a Turkish university context. In A. Slobodanka, K. Hultgren, & C. Jensen (Eds.), *English-medium instruction in European higher education* (pp. 177–199). Mouton De Gruyter.
- Atik, E. (2010). *Perceptions of students towards English medium instruction at tertiary level: The case of a Turkish private university*. Unpublished MA thesis. Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Turkey.
- Avrupa Üniversiteler Birliği [European University Association]. (2007). *Doğu Akdeniz Üniversitesi Değerlendirme Raporu* [Eastern Mediterranean University Evaluation Report]. EMU Printing House.
- Baker, W., & Hüttner, J. (2017). English and more: A multisite study of roles and conceptualisations of language in English medium multilingual universities from Europe to Asia. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 38(6), 501–516. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2016.1207183>
- Belhiah, H., & Elhami, M. (2014). English as a medium of instruction in the Gulf: When students and teachers speak. *Language Policy*, 14(1), 3–23. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10993-014-9336-9>
- Coşkun, A. (2013). An investigation of the effectiveness of the modular general English language teaching preparatory program at a Turkish university. *South African Journal of Education*, 33(3), 1–18. <https://doi.org/10.15700/201503070754>
- Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2018). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (5th ed.). Sage.
- Cummins, J. (2000). *Language, power and pedagogy: Bilingual children in the crossfire*. Multilingual Matters.

- Dafouz, E., & Smit, U. (2016). Towards a dynamic conceptual framework for English-medium education in multilingual university settings. *Applied Linguistics*, 37(3), 397–415. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amu034>
- Dafouz, E., & Smit, U. (2020). *ROAD MAPPING English medium education in the internationalised university*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Dalton-Puffer, C. (2007). *Discourse in content and language integrated learning (CLIL) classrooms*. John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Dearden, J. (2014). *English as a medium of instruction – A growing global phenomenon: Phase 1*. Going Global 2014, Interim Report. Department of Education, University of Oxford. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0013191610140107>.
- Dearden, J., Akincioglu, M., & Macaro, E. (2016). *EMI in Turkish Universities: Collaborative planning and student voices*. <http://www.education.ox.ac.uk/crdemi-oxford/>
- Doğançay-Aktuna, S. (2005). English in Turkey. *World Englishes*, 24(2), 253–265. <https://doi.org/10.1111/weng.12488>
- Ekoç, A. (2020). English Medium Instruction (EMI) from the perspectives of students at a technical university in Turkey. *Journal of Further and Higher Education* 44(2) 231–243. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0309877X.2018.1527025>
- Farrell, T. S. C. (2020). Professional development through reflective practice for English-medium instruction (EMI) teachers. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 23(3), 277–286. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2019.1612840>
- Ghorbani, M. R., & Alavi, S. Z. (2014). Feasibility of adopting English-medium instruction at Iranian universities. *Current Issues in Education*, 17(1), 1–17.
- Goodman, B. A. (2014). Implementing English as a medium of instruction in a Ukrainian University: Challenges, adjustments, and opportunities. *International Journal of Pedagogies and Learning*, 9(2), 130–141. <https://doi.org/10.1080/18334105.2014.11082026>
- Gürtaş, N. (2004). *English proficiency test and prediction of academic achievement*. Unpublished MA Thesis. Eastern Mediterranean University. North Cyprus.
- Hu, G., & Lei, J. (2014). English-medium instruction in Chinese higher education: A case study. *Higher Education*, 67(5), 551–567. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-013-9661-5>
- Inan, B., Yuksel, D., & Gurkan, S. (2012). Expectations of department lecturers and/or professors from prep school education and preparatory English language lessons. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 46(1972), 3164–3171. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.06.030>
- Jenkins, J., & Leung, C. (2016). Assessing English as a lingua franca. In E. Shohamy, I. G. Or, & S. May (Eds.), *Language testing and assessment*. *Encyclopedia of language and education* (3rd ed., pp. 1–15). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-02326-7_1
- Karakaş, A. (2013). The expansion of the English language across Turkey: Threat or opportunity? *Mediterranean Journal of Humanities*, 3(2), 159–171.
- Karakaş, A. (2016a). *Turkish lecturers' and students' perceptions of English in English-medium instruction universities*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Southampton.
- Karakaş, A. (2016b). Turkish lecturers' views on the place of mother tongue in the teaching of content courses through English medium. *Asian Englishes*, 18(3), 242–257. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13488678.2016.1229831>
- Karakaş, A. (2017). The forgotten voices in higher education: Students' satisfaction with English-medium instruction. *Journal of English as an International Language*, 12(1), 1–14.
- Kılıçkaya, F. (2006). Instructors' attitudes towards English-medium instruction in Turkey. *Humanizing Language Teaching*, 8(6), 1–16.
- Kilimci, A. (Ed.) (1998). *Anadilinde çocuk olmak: Yabancı dilde eğitim [Being a child in native tongue: Education in a foreign language]*. Papirüs Yayınevi.
- Kim, J., & Tatar, B. (2018). A case study of international instructors' experiences of English-medium instruction policy in a Korean university. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 19(4), 401–415. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14664208.2018.1468958>
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2005). Motivation and student perception of studying in an English-medium university. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 1(1), 101–122.

- Kırkgöz, Y. (2009). Students' and lecturers' perceptions of the effectiveness of foreign language instruction in an English-medium university in Turkey. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 14(1), 81–93. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13562510802602640>
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2016). Students' approaches to learning in an English-medium higher education. *The Journal of Language Learning and Teaching*, 3(2), 30–39.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2018). Confronting similar challenges?: Exploring students' experiences of studying engineering at a Turkish university: Turkish versus English-language medium of instruction. *Rassegna Italiana di Linguistica Applicata*, 2–3, 145–160.
- Macaro, E., & Akincioglu, M. (2018). Turkish university students' perceptions about English medium instruction: Exploring year group, gender and university type as variables. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 39(3), 256–270. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2017.1367398>
- Macaro, E., Jimenez-Muñoz, A., & Lasagabaster, D. (2019). The importance of certification of English medium instruction teachers in higher education in Spain. *Porta Linguarum*, 2019(32), 103–118.
- Macaro, E., Akincioglu, M., & Han, S. (2020). English medium instruction in higher education: Teacher perspectives on professional development and certification. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 30(1), 144–157. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ijal.12272>
- O'Dowd, R. (2018). The training and accreditation of teachers for English medium instruction: An overview of practice in European universities. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 21(5), 553–563. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2018.1491945>
- Rahman, M. M., Singh, M. K. M., Johan, M., & Ahmed, Z. (2020). English medium instruction ideology, management and practices: A case study of Bangladeshi Private University. *English Teaching and Learning*, 44(1), 61–79. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s42321-019-00036-z>
- Saldana, J. (2016). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers*. Sage.
- Sert, N. (2008). The language of instruction dilemma in the Turkish context. *System*, 36(2), 156–171. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2007.11.006>
- Smit, U., & Dafouz, E. (2017). A sociolinguistic examination of the multifaceted roles of English in English- medium education in multilingual university settings. In A. Llinares & T. Morton (Eds.), *Applied linguistics perspectives on CLIL* (pp. 287–306). John Benjamins.
- Soruç, A., & Griffiths, C. (2018). English as a medium of instruction: Students' strategies. *ELT Journal*, 72(1), 38–48. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccx017>
- Tarhan, Ş. (2003). *Perceptions of students, teachers and parents regarding English medium instruction at secondary education*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Turkey.
- Turhan, B., & Kırkgöz, Y. (2018). Motivation of engineering students and lecturers toward English medium instruction at tertiary level in Turkey. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 14(1), 261–277.
- West, R., Güven, A., Parry, J., Ergenekon, T., Aşık, G., Aydın, İ., & Başlıhoş, S. (2015). *The state of English in higher education in Turkey*. TEPAV and British Council. https://www.britishcouncil.org.tr/sites/default/files/he_baseline_study_book_web_-_son.pdf
- Yediyıldız, B. (Ed.) (2003). *Dil, kültür ve çağdaşlaşma [Language, culture and civilisation]*. Hacettepe Üniversitesi Atatürk İlkeleri ve İnkılap Tarihi Enstitüsü.

Content and Language in EMI Assessment Practices: Challenges and Beliefs at an Engineering Faculty in Turkey



Kari Sahan and Özgür Şahan

Abstract With recent trends toward the internationalization of higher education, the number of English-medium programs at higher education institutions around the world has grown rapidly. Research on English-medium instruction (EMI) has examined stakeholders' attitudes, classroom interaction, students' achievement in content subjects, and teachers' and students' levels of English proficiency. However, what is missing from this growing body of work is research addressing issues of assessment in EMI contexts, where students' English proficiency is not explicitly measured but inevitably plays a role in the assessment process, as students are required to interpret and respond to assessment tasks in English. In this chapter, we attempt to address this research gap by examining the relationship between content and language in EMI assessment practices. The chapter begins with a theoretical discussion conceptualizing the role of language in EMI assessment, addressing issues of content knowledge, academic literacy, and the explicit and implicit linguistic demands of assessment tasks. The chapter then provides an overview of existing empirical research on EMI assessment. Employing a qualitative research method, data were collected through interviews and focus group discussions with university lecturers and students at an engineering faculty in Turkey to explore how lecturers and students perceive the role of language in EMI assessment and describe their own assessment practices. The findings shed light on how students use the resources available in their linguistic repertoires to make sense of assessment tasks and how teachers approach students' responses to assessment tasks with consideration for students' language proficiency and preference. The findings have implications for EMI teachers' pedagogical practices as well as for EMI teacher training courses.

K. Sahan
University of Oxford, Oxford, UK
e-mail: kari.sahan@education.ox.ac.uk

Ö. Şahan (✉)
Yozgat Bozok University, Yozgat, Turkey
e-mail: ozgur.sahan@yobu.edu.tr

© The Author(s), under exclusive license to Springer Nature
Switzerland AG 2022

Y. Kirkgöz, A. Karakaş (eds.), *English as the Medium of Instruction in Turkish Higher Education*, Multilingual Education 40,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-88597-7_8

Keywords English-medium instruction (EMI) · Higher education · EMI assessment

1 Introduction

With the internationalization of higher education, English-medium instruction (EMI) has become a common form of education worldwide. Research on EMI has examined classroom interaction (Pun & Macaro, 2019), stakeholders' attitudes (Dearden & Macaro, 2016), and content learning outcomes (Rose et al., 2019). Despite this growth in research, assessment in EMI has remained under researched (Lo & Fung, 2018). In EMI content classes, where students are tasked with learning academic subject material through an L2, students' English proficiency is generally not explicitly measured through assessment tasks. Nonetheless, student proficiency may inevitably play a role in the assessment process, since students are required to interpret and respond to assessment tasks in English. As such, students' ability to understand and respond to exam questions in English may influence academic outcomes. Given the complex dynamics between language and content learning in EMI contexts, research is needed to provide a deeper understanding of EMI assessment challenges and strategies to overcome those challenges in order to address issues of fairness and equality in education.

This chapter takes a step in addressing the research gap by examining the relationship between content and language in EMI assessment practices. The chapter begins with a theoretical discussion conceptualizing the role of language in EMI assessment. Here, we discuss language and content learning in EMI settings, and we provide an overview of the existing empirical research on EMI assessment, noting that few studies have been conducted in this area. The chapter then reports on a study conducted at an engineering faculty at a university in Turkey. Through focus groups and interviews, the study investigated assessment practices and teachers' and students' perceptions of language-related challenges and coping strategies in EMI assessment.

2 The Role of Language in EMI

EMI is commonly defined as '[the] use of the English language to teach academic subjects (other than English itself) in countries or jurisdictions where the first language (L1) of the majority of the populations is not English' (Macaro, 2018, p. 19). Accordingly, the primary aim of EMI programs is typically considered content learning of academic subject material. Notably, Macaro's (2018) definition does not explicitly include language learning as an outcome of EMI, a feature which distinguishes EMI programs from other forms of English education such as Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), which has more explicit language learning

outcomes. Whereas English is typically considered a tool through which academic teaching occurs in EMI contexts, CLIL is “a dual focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of content and language” (Coyle et al., 2010, p.1).

Although Macaro’s (2018) commonly-cited definition of EMI does not include language learning as an explicit aim, other researchers have defined EMI more broadly to encompass language learning. For example, Taguchi (2014) considers language development to be an essential component of EMI in his definition of EMI programs as “curricula using English as a medium of instruction for basic and advanced courses to improve students’ academic English proficiency” (p. 89). Even in contexts where EMI does not include explicit language learning outcomes, the development of students’ English proficiency is often considered an implicit benefit of EMI (Chapple, 2015). This has led researchers to conclude that “a widely purported benefit of EMI is that it kills two birds with one stone; in other words, students simultaneously acquire both English and content knowledge” (Rose et al., 2019, p. 2). Students in EMI courses may be presumed to improve their language proficiency because EMI “expose[s] students to large quantities of the target language” (Macaro et al., 2018b, p. 1). However, the assumption that English is best or more easily learned through maximum exposure to the language remains debated (see Rose & Galloway, 2019).

3 Language and Content Learning in EMI

Despite perceptions that language learning is an expected or implicit benefit of EMI programs, research has found that language teaching rarely occurs in EMI content classes (Airey, 2012; Block & Moncada-Comas, 2019). A study conducted with EMI content teachers at a university in Sweden found that teachers do not consider themselves language teachers (Airey, 2012), even though they lecture in their and their students’ L2. Studies in other contexts have reported similar findings (e.g. Moncada-Comas & Block, 2019, in Spain). Empirical evidence has also suggested that focus-on-form instruction rarely occurs in EMI classes (Costa, 2012).

Moreover, the evidence with respect to language development through EMI programs is mixed, with some studies suggesting modest language learning gains (Yang, 2015; Rogier, 2012) and others suggesting that EMI does not improve students’ English proficiency (Bozdoğan & Karlıdağ, 2013; Hu & Lei, 2014). A recent systematic review of EMI research concluded that there was insufficient evidence to determine the effectiveness of EMI for English language learning, since relatively few studies have examined English development through empirical measures (Macaro et al., 2018a).

Other studies have sought to examine content learning in EMI programs, particularly with respect to students’ English proficiency as a predictor of academic success (Rose et al., 2019; Xie & Curle, 2020; see also Hu & Lei, 2014, for a qualitative study). The study conducted in Japan by Rose et al. (2019) found that English

language proficiency and academic English skill, measured according to students' TOEIC exam scores and end-of-term grades for an ESP course respectively, were statistically significant predictors of success in EMI academic content courses. Similarly, Xie and Curle (2020) found that English proficiency was a predictor of academic success among EMI business students in China. Relevant to the current study, these studies suggest that students' English proficiency levels are positively correlated with their academic achievement in EMI courses. However, the studies are limited to business students in China and Japan, and further research is needed to understand the nature of this relationship in different contexts and academic fields.

While research on language and content learning in EMI has provided inconclusive evidence concerning the benefits of EMI, an overwhelming body of research seems to suggest that students experience language-related challenges in EMI programs (Galloway & Ruegg, 2020; Hu & Lei, 2014; Jiang et al., 2019). The language-related difficulties reportedly experienced by EMI students include asking and answering questions (Sert, 2008), understanding lectures in English (Hellekjær, 2010), and understanding discipline-specific vocabulary (Evans & Green, 2007; Kırkgöz, 2009; see chapter “[Turkish Undergraduates' Perspectives on EMI: A Framework Induced Analysis of Policies and Processes](#)” for similar difficulties). Other studies have found that EMI lecturers simplify content to improve student comprehension in lectures (Beckett & Li, 2012; Sert, 2008) and that EMI results in lower levels of classroom interaction compared to contexts in which the L1 is used as the medium of instruction (Lo & Macaro, 2012; Pun & Macaro, 2019; Sahan, 2020). These studies have highlighted the challenges that students face learning in EMI classrooms. However, less empirical evidence is available concerning the challenges students face in EMI assessment contexts.

4 Assessment in EMI

The role of language in EMI assessment remains an under-researched area. Few studies have investigated assessment practices in EMI contexts, although more empirical research exist with respect to assessment in secondary school CLIL contexts, perhaps due to CLIL's more explicit focus on the dual aims of content and language learning. Moreover, to our knowledge, there are no studies investigating language and assessment in EMI content classes at Turkish universities. As noted earlier in this chapter, EMI teachers often do not consider themselves as language teachers (Airey, 2012; Block & Moncada-Comas, 2019). As such, assessing students' learning of field knowledge in an L2 might raise validity and reliability issues (Lo & Lin, 2014), since students might be able to express their knowledge better in their L1 than L2 (Gablasova, 2014). Therefore, assessment in the L2 “may bear the risk of not accurately reflecting (and indeed very likely underestimating) students' actual knowledge in content subjects” (Lo & Fung, 2018, p. 3).

Lo and Fung (2018) conducted a study to examine the interplay of cognitive and linguistic demands in CLIL assessment by analyzing nearly 5000 questions used in various forms of secondary school assessment in Hong Kong. The findings revealed that students' academic performance in CLIL assessment decreased as the linguistic demand of the assessment task increased. However, the study's focus on textual analysis ignores the perspectives of students and teachers. In other words, while Lo and Fung (2018) underscore the complexity of assessment in CLIL/EMI contexts, the study does not provide insight into how teachers and students cope with challenges stemming from the use of English as an assessment language. Moreover, the study was conducted in a secondary school CLIL context, and its implications for university-level EMI assessment remain unclear.

Also conducted in the secondary school context, Shaw and Imam (2013) evaluated the linguistic demands of a high-stakes English-medium assessment for secondary school students. The researchers found that students needed sufficient academic English skills in order to succeed in English-medium assessment and that higher proficiency provided an advantage "to develop arguments needed for higher grades" (p 452). However, Shaw and Imam concluded that students' low grades stemmed from a lack of knowledge in the subject course rather than language-related problems. These results indicated a complex relationship between language skills and content knowledge in CLIL/EMI assessment.

While the research highlighted above has suggested that higher language proficiency helps students to reflect their actual field knowledge in assessment, it remains unknown how these findings might translate to university-level EMI contexts, which typically do not include language learning aims. A study conducted by Kao and Tsou (2017) investigated EMI teachers' assessment practices in Taiwanese universities through survey results and interviews, and the findings revealed that EMI teachers mostly employ summative assessment tools such as written final examinations, term projects, and in-class quizzes to evaluate students' content learning. In order to assist learners in coping with language-related challenges, teachers reported various practices including codeswitching, use of visual aids, and peer collaboration in EMI assessment. Other research examining assessment issues at EMI universities has found that teachers are less likely to assess students' higher-order cognitive abilities in English than in L1 assessment tasks (Li & Wu, 2018). In the Turkish context, Kirkgoz (2013) explored how an EAP curriculum could be designed to address the academic writing needs of EMI economics students through a needs assessment which included evaluating exam prompts in EMI content class. To our knowledge, this is the only study which has attempted to address the complex issue of language in EMI assessment in the Turkish higher education context. The current study attempts to contribute to this limited body of research by examining Turkish EMI engineering teachers' and students' perceptions of the role of language in EMI assessment and the strategies that they use to overcome language-related challenges in assessment. In doing so, it addresses a research gap by exploring issues of language and assessment in EMI programs in Turkish higher education.

5 EMI in the Turkish Context

EMI in Turkey dates back to the Ottoman period with the founding of Robert College in 1863 by American missionaries. Kırkgöz (2007) has suggested that the introduction of EMI was connected with efforts to westernize the Ottoman education system. In Republican times, EMI was offered at secondary schools known as Anatolian high schools (*Anadolu liseleri*) starting in 1955 and introduced at the university level in 1956 with the founding of Middle East Technical University. Although the system of EMI in Anatolian high schools was abolished in 2006 (Kırkgöz, 2007; Selvi, 2014), the number of universities offering EMI programs in Turkey has increased over the last two decades (Karakaş & Bayyurt, 2019; Kırkgöz, 2014), in line with the expansion of the higher education sector.

Despite its long history, EMI in Turkey has been criticized by scholars who argue that it “exacerbates socioeconomic inequalities in the country” (Selvi, 2014, p. 143) and threatens Turkish language and culture (Büyükkantarcioglu, 2004). Other researchers have argued that EMI in Turkey leads to reduced comprehension of content material (e.g. Kırkgöz, 2014, 2018; Sert, 2008), in part due to students’ low levels of English proficiency (Kırkgöz, 2009).

In order to address issues of English proficiency, language support is provided to EMI students in Turkey through the preparatory year model (see Macaro, 2018, for discussion of EMI models of language support), which requires students who do not meet their universities’ prerequisite levels of English proficiency to complete a 1-year, intensive English program. Although the English preparatory program (EPP) aims to improve students’ language skills to prepare them for EMI classes, research on EMI in Turkey has suggested that students often enter EMI departments with limited English proficiency (Ekoç, 2020; Kırkgöz, 2009). To contextualize the reported language challenges experienced by EMI students in Turkey, it would be helpful to understand the structure of the EPP at many universities: the EPP is typically a unit separate from EMI departments, and follows a curriculum focused on general English skills. The focus on general English occurs in part because (1) teacher resources are often not sufficient to meet discipline-specific English language needs, (2) students are not placed in groups based on their academic disciplines, and (3) it is difficult to find and integrate discipline specific materials into the program. Furthermore, there is a lack of communication and collaboration between EPP and EMI departments regarding students’ specific language needs for their departmental studies (Şahan et al., 2016).

6 Research Questions

This study addresses the following research questions:

1. How do teachers and students perceive the role of language in EMI assessment?
2. What language-related challenges do teachers and students perceive in EMI assessment?
3. How do teachers and students resolve issues related to language in the assessment of disciplinary knowledge in EMI classrooms?

7 Methodology

Because research has yet to examine language and assessment in EMI programs in the Turkish higher education context, this study was designed as an exploratory study to investigate the issue. As such, this research is a small qualitative case study conducted with teachers and students in a single higher education institution in Turkey. Specifically, the case study investigates an engineering faculty at a state university. The teacher and student participants came from engineering departments where the medium of instruction was 30% English and 70% Turkish, according to the policies of the university. Teachers who were delivering EMI engineering courses and students who were enrolled in EMI engineering departments at the case university were invited to participate in the study, and those who responded positively to the research invitation were included. In accordance with research ethical considerations, participants were informed as to what the research aimed to investigate, how the data they provided might be used, measures taken related to the storage of data and security, and anonymity of participants and the institution. Five content teachers, who were all males, and 14 students (11 males and 3 females) from three EMI engineering departments volunteered to participate in the study.

Data were collected through semi-structured interviews with the teachers and focus group (FG) discussions with students. In line with the exploratory nature of the study, focus groups were conducted to gather rich, in-depth data from students. Semi-structured interviews were deemed a more appropriate method of data collection for teachers, given teachers' busy schedules and the sensitivity of assessment practices, which teachers may have been reluctant to discuss in front of colleagues. The interviewed teachers (T1, T2, T3, T4, and T5) had differing teaching experiences and came from diverse professional backgrounds. All the teachers had varying degrees of teaching experiences in both EMI and Turkish-medium (TMI) subject courses. Table 1 summarizes demographic information for the five participant teachers.

Table 1 Teachers' demographic information

Teacher	Department	Teaching experience in English	Teaching experience in Turkish	Country where PhD was obtained
T1	X Engineering	15 years	6 years	USA
T2	X Engineering	7 years	30 years	Turkey
T3	Z Engineering	10 years	3 years	Turkey
T4	Y Engineering	3 years	3 years	UK
T5	Z Engineering	4 years	7 years	Turkey

The FG discussions with students were conducted in three groups (FG1, FG2, and FG3) based on their departments (X, Y, and Z engineering). To further protect the anonymity of participants in such a small-scale study, we decided not to identify students' and teachers' specific engineering sub-fields or the department courses, since there are a limited number of universities in Turkey with this combination of undergraduate EMI engineering programs.

The composition of the FGs was as follows:

FG1: There were six students (S1–S6) from X engineering department. They were all male and fourth-year students.

FG2: There were four students (S7–S10) from Y engineering department. While three students were males, one student was female. Three were third-year students whereas one student was in the fourth year of study.

FG3: There were four students (S11–S14) from Z engineering department and the gender distribution was equal in this group. One participant was a fourth-year student; one student was in his first year of departmental study; and two students were in their third year of study.

The interviews and FG discussions were carried out in the participants' L1 (Turkish) so that the respondents could express themselves comfortably and give detailed answers. The sessions lasted from 17 to 50 min and were voice-recorded and transcribed using *NVivo* 12. The answers that respondents provided during interviews and FG discussions were examined through inductive qualitative content analysis (Selvi, 2020) in order to arrive at categorical themes. The data analysis process included three phases. Firstly, one of the authors read the transcripts and coded data thematically through a process of open coding. Secondly, the second author coded three transcripts using the preliminary codes developed by the first author in order to assess fit and appropriateness of the initial coding scheme. Disagreements between coders were resolved through a follow-up discussion at this stage, and a final coding scheme was agreed upon by the two researchers. Thirdly, the analysis of the transcribed data was completed using the final coding scheme. In line with the procedures of inductive qualitative content analysis, the development of the coding frame was data-driven, but no changes were made to the coding scheme during the main analysis (Selvi, 2020).

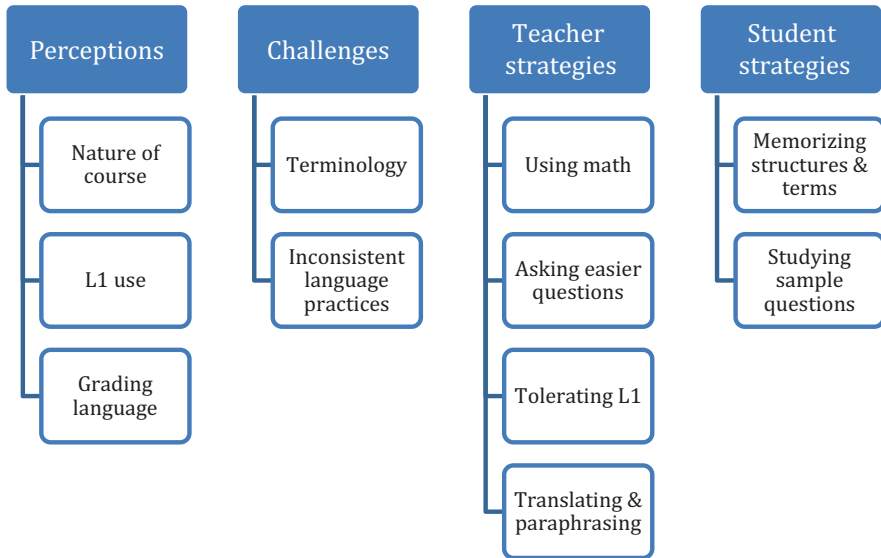


Fig. 1 Major themes from analysis

8 Findings

The findings are presented according to the research questions. Figure 1 illustrates the major themes that emerged from the analysis.

8.1 RQ1: How Do Teachers and Students Perceive the Role of Language in EMI Assessment?

Although participants’ reported that several assessment tools were used to evaluate students’ performance in the engineering departments, students and teachers reported open-ended questions as the most commonly used question type to assess students’ academic performance informal examinations such as midterms and final exams. Nonetheless, as the students started their internships¹ towards their final year of study, some teachers tended to opt for projects over exams as assessment tools, in which students first conducted research experiments and then reported their findings. Regardless of how students were evaluated, English was expected to be used as the official assessment language. However, teachers and students’ perceptions of

¹Engineering students at this university were required to complete an internship with a local company as part of their degree requirements. The internships generally lasted one academic term, and students received academic credit toward their degree as part of the internship requirement.

the role of language in EMI assessment were found to vary due to several factors including teachers' policy implementation, course content, and question type.

Firstly, teachers and students distinguished courses offered in engineering departments in terms of course content and how they were assessed. In this sense, the participants grouped the courses in two categories: math-based and theoretical/conceptual courses. The participants described math-based courses as those in which mathematical language (e.g. numbers, formulas, equations, etc.) was used in the delivery of disciplinary knowledge and the assessment of students' achievement while linguistic explanations (e.g. words, terms, conceptual definitions, etc.) played a more dominant role in the latter type of courses. In math-based courses, both teachers and students reported that English was not an issue for students while answering the questions because "*the language used in our courses is indeed mathematics*" and "*we use math in the delivery of mechanics courses... and I don't have language-related challenges*" (T1). As such, "*even if students' English is weak, they don't necessarily have difficulty in the exams because they use four operations, math language*" (T5). The following excerpt from a student FG illustrates how students perceived the role of mathematical language in EMI exams:

Excerpt 1

Using English in math-based course assessments is not an issue at all in that we say "derivative" instead of "*türev*" or we say "we took integration" instead of "*integral aldık*" and the remaining part is just playing with the numbers.... In the exams of theoretical courses, you need to know technical terms, I mean, terminology, and we need to take notes in the lectures to be able to write accordingly on the exam papers. Actually, that is why such courses are more difficult in English in that if they were Turkish courses, it would be easy to process and reflect our knowledge on the exam paper but when it is English, you need to know the terms very well. (S4)

As S4 summarizes, students perceived a difference in the role that language played in EMI assessment depending on whether they considered the course to be math-based or theoretical. While S4 perceived terminology to be a potential challenge in theoretical classes, he did not perceive the translation of terminology between English and Turkish in math-based courses to be as challenging.

Although teachers and students agreed that English played less of a role in the assessment of math-based courses, they disagreed on whether L1 use was acceptable in EMI assessment and on the extent to which language was assessed in EMI examinations. The following three interview excerpts demonstrate the range of teachers' perceptions of L1 use in EMI assessment:

Excerpt 2

If students are using Turkish in the exams, it generally means that they have not studied well for the exams. Indeed, language proficiency and disciplinary knowledge are somewhat correlated. When students are not very interested in a lesson, they fail to learn the subject in English and inevitably, they tend to use Turkish in the exams. When students respond to the question in Turkish, their answers are rarely correct. What do I do in such cases? If the question values 10 points, I only award 2–3 points. I mean, I am trying to grade the content a little and not all the teachers would do this favor. (T3)

Excerpt 3

T5: I do not push students to write in English. It is their preference to use Turkish or English. When they write in English, if I understand what they are trying to say, I mean, let us say they write the formulas with ‘this is this’ and ‘that is that’ kind of sentences, it is enough for me. I am not a language teacher and these kids will be engineers.

Excerpt 4

T4: If they [write in Turkish on the exams], they get zero. I can show you the exam papers. For example, if students write even a single word in Turkish in response to case study questions, they get zero. I talk about this with students at the very beginning though.... I check students’ English. I cut off points when they make grammar mistakes but if some part of the answer is Turkish, students just fail. I believe that this is a fair policy but I have no idea what others are doing in the department.

As can be understood from the three teachers’ responses, the role of language—both L1 and L2—in EMI assessment differs depending on teachers’ perspectives on evaluating students’ academic performance in EMI courses. T3, T4, and T5 disagree on whether, or to what extent, L1 use is acceptable on EMI exams. For example, T3 (Excerpt 2) seems to expect students to use only English on exam papers but tolerates Turkish to a certain extent. However, he deducts points when the answer is given in Turkish even if the response is fully correct. T4 (Excerpt 4), on the other hand, enforces a strict English-only policy in his assessment practices. Students fail when they use even one word in Turkish, and he grades language including grammar on exam papers. However, T5 (Excerpt 3) does not have a preference in terms of language use and allows students to respond to questions in L1.

In addition to highlighting differing beliefs concerning L1 use, these comments also highlight varying assessment practices in terms of grading content and language. While T5 (Excerpt 3) asserted that he was “*not a language teacher*,” T4 (Excerpt 4) reported deducting points for bad grammar. Despite T3’s (Excerpt 2) belief that “*language proficiency and disciplinary knowledge are somewhat correlated*,” the teachers in this study generally reported that effective English use on an exam did not necessarily affect their evaluation of the content of a student’s response. On the contrary, students consider high English proficiency to be an advantage for academic success. This belief that English proficiency improved exams scores is illustrated in the following excerpts:

Excerpt 5

Well, because I trust my English, I feel comfortable in the exams, in which we are expected to respond to case questions that require interpretation of the given information. In such cases, I can write a full-page answer to a single question comfortably thanks to my English. My peers who are not proficient in English have difficulty even in the exams of easy lessons. They cannot express themselves in English, I mean. (S1)

Excerpt 6

I am very positive that I pass the exams with my English proficiency. I do not study for EMI exams; I only write complex and long sentences on EMI exams, deceive teachers, and pass the exams. Teachers look at my paper, compare it with other students’ papers, and give high grades to my English. (S7)

Excerpt 7

Some teachers care about our English proficiency and, for example, when I give lengthy and indirect answers to the questions using complex sentences, I tend to get higher grades than those who give direct and correct answers. I mean, teachers pay attention to good English use on the exams. (S4)

Although language was not an explicit learning outcome in their EMI courses, students believed that language was graded by some teachers. As such, this situation might result in unfair assessment for students if they are evaluated on their English proficiency but not explicitly taught English in the course. Moreover, the students appeared to associate ‘good’ English skills with ‘complex and long sentences’ (S7) or ‘lengthy and indirect answers’ (S4). In these examples, students described their language proficiency not in terms of coherence but in terms of length. Nonetheless, these responses suggest a disconnect between what teachers say they do and what students think teachers do in terms of evaluating language in EMI assessment.

These findings suggest that teachers and students perceive the role of English in EMI differently depending on the nature of the course and support the findings of previous studies, which have suggested that EMI content teachers rejected a language teacher identity (Airey, 2012; Block & Moncada-Comas, 2019). However, teachers were also found to vary in their approaches to the role of language in EMI assessment (Karakaş, 2016).

8.2 *RQ2: What Language-Related Challenges Do Teachers and Students Perceive in EMI Assessment?*

When students were asked about the language-related challenges that they experienced in EMI assessment, they reported that a lack of terminological knowledge was the most salient language-related issue (Evans & Green, 2007; Kırkgöz, 2009). Students also reported that teachers were inconsistent with their language preferences between lectures and exams.

One reason why students identified technical terminology as a challenge in EMI assessment appears to relate to the structure of EPPs, which typically cover general English skills in their curriculum as opposed to English for Specific or Academic Purposes (ESP or EAP). Two students drew attention to the challenge of learning English terminology in engineering classrooms as in the following excerpts:

Excerpt 8

I completed the English preparatory program with a very high score. My average score was something like 90. Therefore, when I started the department, I was confident about my English. However, I realized that I did not know any terms in engineering. For example, I learned the term ‘strength of materials’ at the department for the first time. When you [literally] translate it into Turkish, it would be something like *maddenin gücü* or *maddenin dayanıklılığı*, but the actual [Turkish] term is *mukavemet*. We learned many terms in the department courses and we did not learn these things in the preparatory program. (S3)

Excerpt 9

We are receiving engineering education to which we had not been exposed in our primary or secondary education. Even before we successfully learn and understand the engineering terms in Turkish, we try to learn them in English... We learn *mukavemet* [strength of materials] in English but we actually do not know what it means in Turkish. Therefore, I believe that we will have many problems in the future. (S6)

As can be seen from student responses, terminology was perceived as a challenge for successful content learning. Despite the high-quality English education that students reported receiving through the university's EPP, the lack of ESP in the curriculum seems to have created language-related challenges for students in engineering departments. Like students, teachers in this study also reported that knowledge of technical terminology was a challenge on exams. The following excerpts illustrate the role of English terminology in communicating disciplinary knowledge, according to the content teachers:

Excerpt 10

Even if the language is really bad, I can assess whether a student knows the topic. Let us say English use is very poor, there is no correct grammar in the answer. If I see the terms somewhere in the answers, I say OK, this student knows the topic but could not express it in English. (T2)

Excerpt 11

When students do not understand the exam questions, it is mostly because of the lack of vocabulary knowledge. For example, we use a book in the course and I prepare the questions using literature words covered in the book. [In the exams] students complain about not seeing the words in the question beforehand... It shows these students do not study at all. (T4)

As reported by the content teachers, knowing technical terminology in English and being able to use it on the exams was important for successful content learning.

Another challenge reported by students was teachers' inconsistent language preferences in the lectures and examinations. Although English was the official instructional and assessment language, students reported problems understanding and answering exam questions in English because some of their teachers lectured in Turkish. For example, one student reported, "*I did not know the meaning of a word [in English] on the exam because the teacher lectured in Turkish... and I asked him but he said I should know what it means*" (S12). One teacher reported that he "*allows students to speak Turkish in the classroom when they have trouble expressing themselves in English... [but] not in the exams as they are official documents*" (T1). As such, these situations might result in issues of fairness in EMI assessment, as students should be tested on what they learn and how they learn it. In EMI contexts, this logic would include testing students in the language(s) in which they are taught. Such inconsistent enactments of language-related policies in EMI departments might affect the reliability and validity of the assessment practices in EMI departments.

In sum, these findings suggest that students experience language-related challenges understanding and using technical vocabulary on exams, and they support the findings with respect to RQ1 that teachers vary in their approaches language-related issues in EMI assessment, discussed further in the next section.

8.3 RQ3: How Do Teachers and Students Resolve Issues Related to Language in the Assessment of Disciplinary Knowledge in EMI Classrooms?

Both teachers and students reported various strategies to resolve language-related issues in the assessment of EMI engineering disciplinary knowledge. To begin with, student and teacher responses to the interview questions revealed that teachers employed strategies that include asking easier questions and using mathematics and Turkish to deal with language issues on exams. First, one student reported that, “*English exam questions are easier [than Turkish exam questions] because it is more difficult for us to understand and answer English questions compared to native speakers [of English]*” (S9). In other words, this student believed that teachers simplified exam questions in English in order to cope with students’ limited proficiency.

A similar idea was expressed by another student: “*the courses are less efficient in English and questions are easier on English exams since the content delivered [in EMI courses] is not as difficult as the content in Turkish classes*” (S7). Teachers reported that they asked math-based questions, which they did not necessarily perceive as easier. However, their rationale for asking more math-based questions on English assessments compared to Turkish assessments echoes students’ statements regarding language challenges. Teachers stated that they preferred to ask math-based questions because:

1. students’ had low English proficiency: “*students’ English proficiency is no longer good enough to answer definition or description questions*” (T1)
2. math-based questions were easier to assess: “*academics in the field of engineering prefer asking math-based questions because they do not want to deal with English and students’ proficiency level is low*” (T4).

As evident by T4’s statement, the use of math-based questions was perceived to alleviate not only issues concerning students’ English proficiency but also issues concerning assessment of students’ responses in English. Although both teachers and students perceived language-related challenges in EMI assessment, a subtle difference was found in how they perceived teachers to overcome this problem: students perceived teachers to ask easier questions, while teachers reported asking math-based questions to overcome low student L2 proficiency.

Moreover, two teachers reported L1 use as a strategy to overcome language challenges in EMI assessment. As part of EMI policy, exams should be administered in

English. However, these teachers allowed students to respond to exam questions either in Turkish or in English, whichever was convenient for the students, as in the following excerpts:

Excerpt 12

I am okay with students' using Turkish in the exams to some extent. I mean I allow them to respond to the questions when they need to. Nonetheless, some students who strive to write in English in the exams do a really bad job mostly. (T2)

Excerpt 13

Students passed or failed my course through a term project and only one student submitted her report in English. Actually, I do not care whether students use Turkish or English in the exams or in other term papers. I am not a language teacher and they will be engineers, so I prioritize content over language. (T5)

As can be seen from these excerpts, some teachers perceived English as a pedagogical tool rather than a learning outcome. As such, these teachers allowed students to use Turkish in exams and other assessment tasks, since they were primarily concerned with students' content knowledge. However, as discussed with respect to RQ1 and RQ2, not all teachers allowed Turkish on exams.

The final strategy that some teachers reported using was to translate or paraphrase exam questions. For example, one teacher reported that he "*explains the exam instructions in Turkish as this generation has trouble following instructions*" (T3). Two teachers reported that they "*translate the terms into Turkish*" (T1 and T2), "*especially if they are advanced words*" (T1). Alternatively, when students had trouble understanding exam questions, some teachers reported that they "*paraphrase the EMI exam questions*" (S2) in English to make sure students understood what was asked.

In order to deal with language-related challenges, some students reported that they "*memorized the engineering terms before the exams*" (S4). Moreover, one student stated, "*we have a lot of conceptual courses and we need to memorize the notes in English before the exams, but we would not do so if they were Turkish*" (S8). In the same vein, one student reported memorizing terminology and lecture notes as a study strategy:

Excerpt 14

We have a lot of lecture notes... Translating them into Turkish and studying for the exams from Turkish notes and then translating them back to English and memorizing English terms is becoming a great burden for us. Instead, we sometimes just memorize the definitions in English before the exams rather than try to understand them. When we see one word related to that definition in the question, we just write down what we have memorized. (S7)

As evident from students' responses, when language was perceived to be a challenge on the exams, students reported memorizing course content and definitions instead of trying to learn concepts and terms. In other words, the enforcement of an English-only policy in exam situations might decrease the quality of learning, as students in this study seemed to prioritize passing their exams over understanding course content. Another strategy used by students to deal with language in the

exams was to study sample exam questions. For example, “*when you search the terms ‘questions strength of materials course,’ I come across 40–50 questions asked in different universities and our teachers generally select questions from these*” (S4). Although the strategy reported by S4 with respect to sample questions could also be used by students in TMI courses, this student reported using this strategy as way to cope with language-related challenge in EMI assessment.

9 Discussion and Conclusion

The findings of this study have revealed that the role of language in EMI course assessment varied according to course type and teachers’ individual language practices. While discussing the role of language in EMI assessment, it is important to understand how CLIL and EMI differ from each other in terms of the role of language. Language is explicitly articulated as a learning outcome along with content in CLIL contexts while it is often considered a tool to teach disciplinary knowledge in EMI settings (Macaro, 2018). In this sense, EMI teachers do not typically think of themselves as language teachers (Airey, 2012; Block & Moncada-Comas, 2019). Of the five teachers who participated in this study, none reported practices related to focus-on-form instruction or language teaching in class; nor did students report such practices in focus groups. Moreover, T5 stated twice during interviews that he was not a language teacher, indicating that he did not feel responsible for evaluating students’ English use on exams. These findings suggest that a ‘CLIL-ised’ model of EMI (Block & Moncada-Comas, 2019) is not implemented at the case university, since language learning outcomes do not appear assessed in course evaluations. While these findings support those of previous studies (Airey, 2012; Block & Moncada-Comas, 2019; Moncada-Comas & Block, 2019), this study also found that one teacher (T4) graded and corrected students’ English on exams, which challenges previous findings in the literature and suggests that EMI content teachers hold different views regarding the role of language and language teaching in EMI courses.

The findings of this study suggest issues of fairness in EMI assessment, given the variation in reported practices across teachers’ classrooms. In this study, teachers differed in their perspectives on the acceptability of L1 use in EMI assessment and their approaches to grading students’ English on exams. In order to address these problems of fairness, clear policies are needed with respect to EMI assessment practices. These policies can be determined at either the institutional or departmental level, but they must be clearly communicated with teachers and students in order to ensure consistency in EMI assessment.

In addition to raising issues of fairness, these findings also echo debates concerning the definition of EMI, specifically whether language learning is an (explicit or implicit) objective of EMI programs. Based on the findings of this small-scale qualitative study, teachers appear to differ in whether they perceived the scope of EMI assessment to include students’ language skills. Moreover, teachers and students differed in their perceptions of how language proficiency affected exam success,

with students reporting that higher English proficiency resulted in better exam scores regardless of content knowledge. This finding corroborates previous studies, which have found a correlation between students' English proficiency and academic success (Rose et al., 2019; Shaw & Imam, 2013; Xie & Curle, 2020). If higher English proficiency leads to better exam scores in EMI assessment, then EMI curricula should be revised to include ongoing ESP support courses in parallel to students' content classes (Jiang, et al., 2019), to ensure that lower proficiency students are not at a disadvantage because of their language skills. EAP or ESP courses offered in parallel with EMI classes could provide students with the linguistic support needed for deeper content understanding, provided that EAP/ESP courses are tailored to meet the specific language needs of EMI students. In this Turkish context, this would require additional English support classes after the EPP and a shift toward more discipline-specific EAP/ESP course, rather than a general English curriculum. Language teachers should collaborate with content lecturers in order to understand students' discipline-specific English language needs in EMI assessment (Kirkgöz, 2013).

Teachers and students in this study perceived that math-based courses were less linguistically demanding than conceptual courses, although more research is needed to validate this claim. We are using the categories of 'math-based' and 'conceptual' EMI classes because this was a dichotomy drawn by our participants. However, the notion of 'math-based' or 'conceptual' classes have not been operationalized for EMI research, and these categories should be problematized. Moreover, participants reported that conceptual courses were more difficult due to the use of technical terminology. Other studies have also reported that students have difficulty understanding technical terms (Evans & Green, 2007; Kirkgöz, 2009). However, Macaro (2020) has argued that technical terminology is an undertheorized concept in EMI research and that a deep understanding of a concept requires more than an understanding of its definition. In other words, in applied science subjects like engineering, an understanding of a mathematical equation may not necessarily indicate deep, conceptual understanding of its corresponding abstract notion and real-world application. The assumption that math reduces the linguistic burden of engineering content without sacrificing conceptual knowledge requires further interrogation: certainly, to apply mathematical equations to complex engineering problems, a student must grasp the conceptual nuances of both theory and terminology. Moreover, research is needed to ensure that a preference for math-based questions does not sacrifice the cognitive demands of assessment in English.

In terms of the coping strategies reported to overcome linguistic challenges in EMI assessment, students perceived that they were given less cognitively demanding questions in English compared to exams in L1 as suggested by Li and Wu (2018). However, assessing students with easier questions might negatively affect content learning outcomes compared to TMI courses. In the Turkish context, where engineering programs are offered in full EMI, partial EMI, and TMI, differences in assessment standards due to language could affect the quality of learning outcomes. As stated above, universities and departments should take action by crafting and communicating clear EMI assessment policies in order to prevent from unfair

assessment practices, which might stem from inconsistent approaches towards language use in EMI assessment.

In addition, some teachers reported flexibility in allowing students to respond to questions in Turkish and preferred to ask math-based questions. These findings overlap with the findings of Kao and Tsou's study (2017), which reported using L1 and visual aids as coping strategies for language-related challenges. However, the findings of this study suggest that teachers' decisions might be made on an ad hoc basis rather than the result of well-considered pedagogy (Macaro, 2020). As such, professional development opportunities with a focus on the role of language in EMI assessment should be offered to content lecturers in order to support teaching and assessment practices. This could be achieved by providing TESOL training on content lecturers' professional development courses or as a qualification for EMI teachers. Finally, with respect to the strategies that students used to overcome language challenges in EMI assessment, memorization might lead to reduced learning outcomes. EMI students who rely on memorization to overcome language challenges might pass their exams but not fully understand content. This, in turn, could have detrimental effects on their professional lives.

Due to its small sample size and qualitative approach, the generalizability of this study is limited. This study examined one academic discipline (engineering) at one university. More research is needed to examine how its findings might relate to other contexts. In particular, research is needed to evaluate the relevance of these findings for other disciplines, especially social sciences and humanities. Moreover, due to ethical consideration, we did not have access to students' exam papers in order to investigate language use on exams, particularly in comparison to the self-reported practices presented in this study.

References

- Airey, J. (2012). I don't teach language. The linguistic attitudes of physics lecturers in Sweden. *AILA Review*, 25(25), 64–79. <https://doi.org/10.1075/aila.25.05air>
- Beckett, G., & Li, F. (2012). Content-based English education in China: Students' experiences and perspectives. *Journal of Contemporary Issues in Education*, 7(1), 47–63. <https://doi.org/10.20355/C5B59J>
- Block, D., & Moncada-Comas, B. (2019). English-medium instruction in higher education and the ELT gaze: STEM lecturers' self-positioning as NOT English language teachers. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2019.1689917>
- Bozdoğan, D., & Karlıdağ, B. (2013). A case of CLIL practice in the Turkish context: Lending an ear to students. *Asian EFL Journal*, 15(4), 89–110.
- Buyukkantarcioglu, N. (2004). A sociolinguistic analysis of the present dimensions of English as a foreign language in Turkey. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*, 2004(165), 33–58.
- Chapple, J. (2015). Teaching in English is not necessarily the teaching of English. *International Education Studies*, 8(3), 1–13. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ies.v8n3p1>
- Costa, F. (2012). Focus on form in ICLHE lectures in Italy: Evidence from English-medium science lectures by native speakers of Italian. *AILA Review*, 25, 30–47. <https://doi.org/10.1075/aila.25.03cos>

- Coyle, D., Hood, P., & Marsh, D. (2010). *Content and language integrated learning*. Cambridge University Press.
- Dearden, J., & Macaro, E. (2016). Higher education teachers' attitudes towards English medium instruction: A three-country comparison. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 6(3), 455–486. <https://doi.org/10.14746/sllt.2016.6.3.5>
- Ekoç, A. (2020). English medium instruction (EMI) from the perspectives of students at a technical university in Turkey. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 44(2), 231–243. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0309877X.2018.1527025>
- Evans, S., & Green, C. (2007). Why EAP is necessary: A survey of Hong Kong tertiary students. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 6(1), 3–17. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2006.11.005>
- Gablasova, D. (2014). Issues in the assessment of bilingually educated students: Expressing subject knowledge through L1 and L2. *The Language Learning Journal*, 42(2), 151–164. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09571736.2014.891396>
- Galloway, N., & Ruegg, R. (2020). The provision of student support on English medium instruction programmes in Japan and China. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 45, 100846. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2020.100846>
- Hellekjær, G. (2010). Lecture comprehension in English-medium higher education. *HERMES—Journal of Language and Communication in Business*, 23(45), 11–34. <https://doi.org/10.7146/hjle.v23i45.97343>
- Hu, G., & Lei, J. (2014). English-medium instruction in Chinese higher education: A case study. *Higher Education*, 67(5), 551–567. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-013-9661-5>
- Jiang, L., Zhang, L. J., & May, S. (2019). Implementing English medium instruction (EMI) in China: Teachers' practices and perceptions, and students' learning motivation and needs. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 22(2), 107–119. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2016.1231166>
- Kao, Y.-T., & Tsou, W. (2017). EMI course assessment: A survey study of the issues. In S.-M. Kao & W. Tsou (Eds.), *English as a medium of instruction in higher education* (pp. 183–205). Springer.
- Karakaş, A. (2016). *Turkish lecturers' and students' perception of English in English-medium instruction universities*. Unpublished PhD thesis. University of Southampton, UK.
- Karakaş, A., & Bayyurt, Y. (2019). The scope of linguistic diversity in the language policies, practices, and linguistic landscape of a Turkish EMI university. In J. Jenkins & A. Mauranen (Eds.), *Linguistic diversity on the EMI campus* (pp. 96–122). Routledge.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2007). English language teaching in Turkey: Policy changes and their implementations. *RELJ Journal*, 38(2), 216–228. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688207079696>
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2009). Students' and lecturers' perceptions of the effectiveness of foreign language instruction in an English-medium university in Turkey. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 14(1), 81–93. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13562510802602640>
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2013). The design and evaluation of the effectiveness of an EAP writing course in higher education: Collaboration between a language expert and subject specialists in a blended learning study. In L. R. Smith (Ed.), *Higher education: Recent trends, emerging issues and future outlook* (pp. 227–245). Nova.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2014). Students' perceptions of English language versus Turkish language used as the medium of instruction in higher education in Turkey. *Turkish Studies*, 9(12), 443–459.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2018). Confronting similar challenges?: Exploring students' experiences of studying engineering at a Turkish university: Turkish versus English-language medium of instruction. *Rassegna Italiana di Linguistica Applicata*, 2–3, 145–160.
- Li, N., & Wu, J. (2018). Exploring assessment for learning practices in the EMI classroom in the context of Taiwanese higher education. *Language Education & Assessment*, 1(1), 28–44. <https://doi.org/10.29140/lea.v1n1.46>
- Lo, Y. Y., & Fung, D. (2018). Assessments in CLIL: The interplay between cognitive and linguistic demands and their progression in secondary education. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 23(10), 1192–1210. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2018.1436519>

- Lo, Y. Y., & Lin, A. (2014). Designing assessment tasks with language awareness: Balancing cognitive and linguistic demands. *Assessment and Learning*, 3(3), 97–119.
- Lo, Y. Y., & Macaro, E. (2012). The medium of instruction and classroom interaction: Evidence from Hong Kong secondary schools. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 15(1), 29–52. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2011.588307>
- Macaro, E. (2018). *English medium instruction: Content and language in policy and practice*. Oxford University Press.
- Macaro, E. (2020). Exploring the role of language in English medium instruction. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 23(3), 263–276. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2019.1620678>
- Macaro, E., Curle, S., Pun, J., An, J., & Dearden, J. (2018a). A systematic review of English medium instruction in higher education. *Language Teaching*, 51(1), 36–76. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444817000350>
- Macaro, E., Tian, L., & Chu, L. (2018b). First and second language use in English medium instruction contexts. *Language Teaching Research*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168818783231>
- Moncada-Comas, B., & Block, D. (2019). CLIL-ised EMI in practice: Issues arising. *The Language Learning Journal*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09571736.2019.1660704>
- Pun, J., & Macaro, E. (2019). The effect of first and second language use on question types in English medium instruction science classrooms in Hong Kong. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 22(1), 64–77. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2018.1510368>
- Rogier, D. (2012). *The effects of English-medium instruction on language proficiency of students enrolled in higher education in the UAE*. Doctoral dissertation, University of Exeter. University of Exeter Research Repository. <https://ore.exeter.ac.uk/repository/handle/10036/4482>
- Rose, H., & Galloway, N. (2019). *Global Englishes for language teaching*. Cambridge University Press.
- Rose, H., Curle, S., Aizawa, I., & Thompson, G. (2019). What drives success in English medium taught courses? The interplay between language proficiency, academic skills, and motivation. *Studies in Higher Education*, 1–13. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2019.1590690>
- Sahan, K. (2020). *Variations of English-medium instruction: Comparing policy and practice in Turkish higher education*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Oxford, UK.
- Şahan, Ö., Çoban, M., & Topkaya, E. (2016). A language needs analysis of engineering undergraduate students at a technical university: A Turkish case. *English for Specific Purposes World*, 51(17), 1–33.
- Selvi, A. F. (2014). The medium-of-instruction debate in Turkey: Oscillating between national ideas and bilingual ideals. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 15(2), 133–152. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14664208.2014.898357>
- Selvi, A. F. (2020). Qualitative content analysis. In J. McKinley & H. Rose (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of research methods in applied linguistics* (pp. 440–452). Routledge.
- Sert, N. (2008). The language of instruction dilemma in the Turkish context. *System*, 36(2), 156–171. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2007.11.006>
- Shaw, S., & Imam, H. (2013). Assessment of international students through the medium of English: Ensuring validity and fairness in content-based examinations. *Language Assessment Quarterly*, 10(4), 452–475. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15434303.2013.866117>
- Taguchi, N. (2014). English-medium education in the global society. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 52(2), 89–98. <https://doi.org/10.1515/iral-2014-0004>
- Xie, W., & Curle, S. (2020). Success in English medium instruction in China: Significant indicators and implications. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2019.1703898>
- Yang, W. (2015). Content and language integrated learning next in Asia: Evidence of learners' achievement in CLIL education from a Taiwan tertiary degree programme. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 18(4), 361–382. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2014.904840>

A Closer Look at the Doctoral Writing Practices in an English-Medium Instruction University in Turkey



Merve Bozbıyık and Hacer Hande Uysal

Abstract As the international language of science, English has been utilized as the primary language in academic writing, including dissertations and scholarly articles across the world (e.g., Philipson R, *World Engl* 27(2):250–267, 2008; Tardy C, *J Engl Acad Purp* 3(3):247–269, 2004). The increasing dominance of English within academic communities results in establishing the universities having English as the medium of instruction. Thus, graduate students in these universities faced requirements of producing their academic essays, theses, and articles in English. However, developing such English writing skills has become a significant challenge for these students, especially in non-English speaking countries, such as Turkey. Nevertheless, the academic writing learning experiences of the nonnative graduate students and their relationships with their supervisors still seem *terra incognita* in English-medium universities in EFL context, including Turkey (e.g., Flowerdew J, *J Second Lang Writ* 8(3):243–263, 1999; Uysal HH, *Emerg Writ Res Middle East-North Afr Reg* 41, 2017). In this regard, this study aimed to explore the writing practices of doctoral students and supervision procedures of supervisors. For this purpose, online semi-structured interviews are conducted with eight different participants including four doctoral students, four supervisors. Using the Constant Comparison Method, the findings of this study have revealed the nature of the supervisors' writing support practices and students' learning processes, their satisfaction or dissatisfaction with feedback provided and received, and the reasons behind these procedures during the English academic writing process. The analytic findings of this study will contribute to the academic writing in English-medium education research field.

M. Bozbıyık (✉)
Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Turkey
e-mail: merveboz@metu.edu.tr

H. H. Uysal
Hacettepe University, Ankara, Turkey
e-mail: handeuysal@hacettepe.edu.tr

© The Author(s), under exclusive license to Springer Nature
Switzerland AG 2022

Y. Kirkgöz, A. Karakaş (eds.), *English as the Medium of Instruction in Turkish Higher Education*, Multilingual Education 40,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-88597-7_9

Keywords Academic writing · Doctoral writing process · English medium instruction · Dissertation writing

1 Introduction

A growing number of studies have recently pointed out the increasing dominance of English as a medium in the dissemination of academic and scientific knowledge in the world (e.g., Curry & Lillis, 2004; Flowerdew, 1999, 2000; Lillis & Curry, 2010). Therefore, English has recently been described not only as a lingua franca of international communication in many areas, such as business and trade but also as a “lingua academica” (Phillipson, 2008) of international academic communication. As the widely accepted language of academia across the world, English has become a prestigious language preferred over native languages in the scientific and academic domain in many non-English speaking countries, including Turkey (e.g., Bradford, 2013; Braine, 2005; Curry & Lillis, 2004; Kırkgöz, 2005a, b, 2018; Uysal, 2014; Uzuner, 2008). Therefore, to prepare the future generations to take part and compete in the global academic and scientific communities, English has also been utilized as the medium of instruction in many universities through government-initiated language policies in Turkey.

In these English-medium instruction (EMI) universities, especially at the graduate level, students are required to produce complex classroom projects, theses and dissertations, and scholarly articles in English as part of their education. Even though their supervisors suppose that students start their doctoral education as proficient writers in English (Caffarella & Barnett, 2000), most students learn how to write academically during the dissertation writing process (Dong, 1998). While writing academic papers or dissertations, they also learn about their particular disciplinary research traditions and characteristics of the global academic community (Brause, 2012). Therefore, this scholarly writing process is often a complex and painful task for most doctoral students, and they need support from different resources, such as supervisors, formal courses, well-written advice books, peers, or academic writing centers.

Especially supervisors play an important role in enabling doctoral students to become competent authors and independent researchers. For this purpose, they support their doctoral students in line with the approach that identified academic writing as both social and individual practice (Kamler & Thomson, 2006). However, it is not known whether graduate students, particularly doctoral students have any problems in scholarly writing in English and whether the current writing education or support practices in the EMI universities are adequate to prepare students to write and publish, and accordingly be able to effectively communicate their ideas and become visible in the international academic communities. In addition, we still know a little about supervisor support practices and opinions of doctoral students and supervisors about the feedback provided or received. Considering these issues, this study aimed to explore the doctoral writing experiences of the students and supervisors with particular focus on supervisor support practices, their satisfaction,

and dissatisfaction with feedback provided and received, and the reasons behind the feedback providing/revising procedures in an EMI university in Turkey. In order to do that, online semi-structured interviews were conducted with four doctoral students and four supervisors. In the interviews, questions were asked to the participants regarding attitudes towards doctoral writing procedures in English and individual/peer review and learning/teaching practices and relations between students and their supervisors. Video recordings of these interviews were transcribed and analyzed using the Constant Comparison Method. This chapter reports findings based on themes and categories that emerged from both supervisors' and doctoral students' opinions about supervisor support practices, their satisfaction, and dissatisfaction with the feedback provided and received during the scholarly writing process. The analytic findings of this study are expected to contribute to the fields of academic writing and EMI research.

2 Literature Review

2.1 *English-Medium Instruction*

In recent years, globalization and policies of internationalization have led universities across the world to adopt EMI in the planning of academic communications in local and global contexts (e.g., Bradford, 2013). In this regard, English has also become the medium of instruction to teach academic subjects in countries where people are not native speakers of English (Macaro et al., 2017), which has received increasing attention in various social contexts (e.g., Costa et al., 2012; Lasagabaster, 2015). For example, Wächter and Maiworm (2014) revealed that 2637 higher education institutions around the world provided 8089 programs taught entirely in English. Such universities often enjoy various advantages of EMI policies, such as having an appeal for international students or offering better English instruction for international communication (Muthanna & Miao, 2015). On the other hand, it is indicated that EMI can be threatening for native languages and also lead to the creation of an elite class (e.g., Kırkgöz, 2005a, b). From both perspectives, recent research has investigated EMI policies of these universities with a particular focus on teacher and student beliefs about EMI (e.g., Earls, 2016) and professional development of EMI teachers (e.g., Guarda & Helm, 2016).

As for the Turkish context, especially with the impact of the Bologna process (Arik & Arik, 2014), EMI policy has been followed by 208 public universities with 8328 undergraduate programs (<http://www.studyinturkey.gov.tr>). In this regard, EMI universities and their programs have been closely examined through various research foci, including enhancing sources for EMI programs (e.g., Kırkgöz, 2009a, b, 2016; West et al., 2015), learners' language skill development, and content learning capabilities in these programs (e.g., Karakaş, 2016, 2017), instructor's views of EMI (Karakaş, 2014; Kılıçkaya, 2006) or efficiency of teachers' delivery of courses in English (e.g., Ekoç, 2018). In addition, a few researchers (e.g., Duran & Sert, 2019; Şahan, 2020) have closely examined the pedagogical practices of higher

education classrooms and revealed interactional dynamics of co-constructed conversations between the teacher and students in EMI universities in Turkey.

In brief, researchers have explored educational practices in general, and participants' perceptions of EMI at mostly undergraduate levels. However, students' and supervisors' experiences during the doctoral education process, particularly with regard to academic writing in EMI universities, have not been examined in Turkey. In this regard, the present study attempts to explore students' and supervisors' viewpoints and stated practices with a particular focus on the English academic writing process during doctoral education.

2.2 Doctoral Writing Process at Graduate Level

Scholarly writing refers to academic writing, including dissertations and journal articles of doctoral students (Caffarella & Barnett, 2000). The quality of these publications plays a significant role in evaluating individual academic performance and increasing opportunities for promotion and various kinds of professional dialogue, such as receiving competitive research funding (Kamler, 2008). For this reason, doctoral students need to become familiar with the academic discourse structures or patterns in English and the expectations of the disciplinary and academic communities to be able to successfully write and organize their academic texts and to meet the needs of the global academic community.

Doctoral students face difficulty, especially in finding appropriate content to write about, organizing the comprehensive content around a proper structure (Bitchener & Baştürkmen, 2006), and discuss research findings analytically and logically (Dong, 1998) during the scholarly writing process. Even though their supervisors think that they enter graduate programs with proficient writing skills, doctoral students often lack academic writing skills as universities do not have enough facilities and educational opportunities for scientific academic writing, especially in advanced genres (Uysal, 2014, 2017). Academic writing is not an easy skill, but it requires a long time and wide-ranging training to produce effective academic texts and publications. In this regard, a variety of guiding strategies, such as analyzing sample texts as a writer, has been suggested to solve doctoral students' academic writing problems (Kamler & Thomson, 2006). Through these practices, doctoral writers can be familiar with the writing conventions of the academic community, and they also can improve a suitable voice in their scholarly publications (Cotterall, 2011). In addition, feedback provided by their supervisors has a positive impact on fostering writing skills of doctoral candidates, increasing their motivation, facilitate self-confidence, decrease isolation, and build well-developed networks (e.g., Ferguson, 2009). This interaction is provided through written and/or verbal feedback in forms of written comments and/or face-to-face interactions (e.g., Race, 2005). Such feedback encounters can create 'new habits of mind' (Spigelman, 1999) that enables doctoral students to produce and improve scholarly publications (Aitchison et al., 2012).

Academic writing skills enable students to complete their doctoral degrees and produce scholarly publications (Odena & Burgess, 2017) in their fields to be accepted for good positions in the global job market. Qualified publications also enhance not only students' professional careers but also their universities' reputations (Can & Walker, 2011). In this sense, doctoral students mostly try to experience practices of textual writing and improve their academic texts through a variety of writing help strategies such as using advice books (e.g., Kamler & Thomson, 2008), participating in a writing support group (e.g., Aitchison, 2003), or visiting writing centers. To illustrate, it is known that such strategies allow the doctoral candidates to reach useful tips and tricks through advice books (Oliver, 2004), or to build and improve membership in a new writers' community in writing groups (Aitchison, 2003). However, there are not any in-depth studies based on doctoral students' and their supervisors' preferences or practices during their academic writing processes.

In recent years, there has been an increasing interest in the doctoral writing process with a particular focus on writing help, including self-help, peer review, and supervisor support to promote academic publications, re/making of academic identities as well as improving research work (e.g., Aitchison & Lee, 2006; Kamler, 2008). These studies have been mostly conducted with either supervisors or doctoral students using diverse methodologies such as semi-structured in-depth interviews (e.g., Odena & Burgess, 2017) or article/dissertation compilations (e.g., Dong, 1998). Some of these studies have emphasized that supervisor feedback plays a significant role in improving the quality of this process, thereby identifying effective and ineffective writing practices (e.g., Cotterall, 2011, 2013). During this process, supervisors inform their students about what they should do, review and edit their texts, and talk about their papers collaboratively (González-Ocampo & Castelló, 2018). However, supervisors often do not prefer to provide feedback about basic linguistic errors to their students by stating that they are not English language instructors (e.g., Aitchison et al., 2012). However, while providing support, advisors need to be involved more in the article/dissertation writing process through more individual-oriented supportive feedback both on content and writing (e.g., Dong, 1998; Odena & Burgess, 2017).

The universities having English as the medium of instruction also reported the lack of scholarly writing skills of their students as a problem within different academic communities (e.g., Aitchison & Lee, 2006). The students in these EMI universities have difficulties in understanding and creating written texts, and some researchers (e.g., Perez & Ramiro, 2015) suggested that a new methodology should be adopted to identify these students' problems about their writing skills, and develop their writing competence in English within their own discipline. In the Turkish context, little attention has been paid to explore a common conceptualization of EMI universities with a particular emphasis upon the academic writing practices (e.g., Uysal, 2014, 2017). In this regard, the current study sets out to explore the nature of supervisors' support practices from both sides (supervisors and doctoral students), participants' satisfaction and dissatisfaction with the feedback provided and received, and the reasons behind these practices during the doctoral writing process. For these purposes, the following research questions are

determined to elicit responses from both supervisor and doctoral student participants comparatively:

1. How do the supervisors back up their doctoral students during the English academic writing process?/How are the doctoral students supported by their supervisors?
2. To what extent are supervisors and doctoral students satisfied or dissatisfied with the communication with their students/supervisors and the supervision practices during this process? What are the reasons behind their satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the current supervision practices during the academic writing process?

3 Methodology

3.1 *Participants and Research Context*

The database of this study consists of semi-structured online interviews employed to grasp stakeholders' personal experiences with regards to their doctoral writing learning and teaching processes and to provide some useful explanations for these processes through qualitative data (Krathwohl, 1997). As a multiple case study, the investigators conducted eight 45–50-min Zoom meetings with eight different participants from two different groups individually during June 2020 COVID-19 pandemic. The researchers selected all the participants considering the diversification of their research fields and their experiences about academic writing in the particular EMI university. In other words, these participants are studying and working in different departments, and they are actively taking part in scholarly writing teaching and learning procedures through both articles and dissertations. These multiple cases enable the researchers to reach rich and detailed descriptions of the doctoral writing process and to establish transferability of the findings by providing meaningful comparisons of supervisors' and doctoral students' responses (Guba & Lincoln, 1982; Wu, 2020).

The first group of the participants included four doctoral supervisors working at an EMI state university in Ankara, Turkey. They came from four different disciplines, including business administration, educational sciences, engineering, and sociology. All these doctoral supervisors completed at least one phase of their graduate educations abroad for various purposes, such as doctoral research or Ph.D. education, which is a prerequisite for working at this EMI university. All of the doctoral supervisors have published more than 15 international academic papers written in English, and they mostly preferred to write them individually. Table 1 shows other additional information about these doctoral supervisors.

The second group of participants was four doctoral students. In the Turkish doctoral education system, students firstly receive graduate courses in 2 years as part of their doctoral program. Later, they are expected to pass a comprehensive exam, assessing their achievement in their doctoral courses, and start writing their dissertations. They defend their dissertation after they collect and analyze the data and

Table 1 Additional information about the doctoral supervisors

	AYL	ESR	GUL	MAH
Age	48	49	54	39
Affiliation	Assoc. Prof. Dr.	Assoc. Prof.	Prof. Dr.	Assoc. Prof. Dr.
Discipline	Sociology	Administration	Education	Engineering
Numbers of supervising graduate thesis	18	52 (in different countries)	26	16
Year of academic teaching experience	18	14	25	8
Abroad experiences	PhD	Working as lecturer Doctoral research	Doctoral research	PhD

Table 2 Additional information about the doctoral students

	ECE	DER	CER	AYT
Age	29	29	29	34
Affiliation	Research assistant	No work	Research assistant	Research assistant
Doctoral position	Dissertation writing	Dissertation writing	Recently graduated	Recently graduated
Year of PhD education	5 (in process)	5 (in process)	6 (completed)	6 (completed)
Abroad experiences	Erasmus (BA)	Dual diploma program (Ph.D.)	Erasmus (BA)	PhD-research

complete their dissertation approximately within 2 years. In this sense, while two of the doctoral students had completed their Ph.D., the other two were at the dissertation writing stage at the same EMI university in Ankara, Turkey. These doctoral students were also from different disciplines, including psychology, educational sciences, engineering, and industrial design. In addition, these students stated that they had learnt English in real terms right after they became university students at this EMI university. They have also been abroad for educational purposes, including Erasmus programs during their undergraduate education, Dual Diploma Programs, and Ph.D. research. Moreover, all of the doctoral students have published different English academic texts with their supervisors as joint papers, unlike supervisor participants. Table 2 also illustrates some demographic information about the second group participants.

For the ethical considerations, all the participants were informed about the purpose and scope of this study, and they gave their informed written consent. Official permission was also granted from the ethics committee of the focal EMI university. All names used in the present study are pseudonyms. Following this, semi-structured interviews were carried out with each participant online. The interviews with both the supervisors and the doctoral students were based on a two-part interview schedule. In the first part, the participants were asked about their learning experiences in English academic writing. In the second part, they were asked about supervisor

support practices about English academic writing during their academic writing process to compare answers of both groups for confirmatory purposes.

3.2 Research Method: Constant Comparison Method

The current study carried out qualitative research methodology, and the research findings reported in the following section were dependent upon the main principles of qualitative analysis. A qualitative methodology was chosen because it is suitable to look for participants' reactions and viewpoints about their experiences on a specific phenomenon (e.g., Caffarella & Barnett, 2000). Hence, the Constant Comparison Method (CCM) is adopted to explore the social learning and teaching procedures behind the doctoral writing processes. Due to the exploratory nature of the study CCM was chosen because it aims at capturing and analyzing emerging themes by comparing with other participants' previous statements and regrouping with similar themes rather than attempting to validate a predetermined phenomenon (Miles & Huberman, 1994). In other words, CCM provides a data-led approach for analysis through emerging themes and patterns (Boeije, 2002). Therefore, conceptual categories of the particular phenomenon are verified on the base of similarities and differences (Wang & Li, 2011). In this study, each response of the participants was constantly compared within their participant groups. It means that doctoral students' and supervisors' statements were analyzed separately. Then the themes and the related categories emerged from the data were identified regarding these expressions, and finally, the codes were determined according to the participants' references to these categories. Thus, such a qualitative analysis of the multiple cases aimed to reveal a more detailed description of the doctoral writing process experienced by the participants in the Turkish EMI context.

In order to identify all English academic writing-related practices and expressions, the researchers watched and listened to the video recordings of the semi-structured interviews repeatedly and transcribed every online session through basic conventions, including pauses, overlaps, or nonverbal utterances (Richards, 2003). Following this, during the iterative analytical process, the investigators identified the emerged categories and codings from the transcripts of video files within the scope of CCM (Glaser, 1965). Then, these periodic and analytic categories pointed out the participants' opinions based on English academic writing and doctoral supervision. In brief, this study mainly investigated the participants' viewpoints about the doctoral supervising and writing practices and compared the doctoral students' viewpoints with the supervisors' ones. In this regard, the current study emphasized on the particular themes, including supervisor support practices, supervisors' and students' satisfaction and dissatisfaction with feedback provided and received, and the reasons behind these procedures, and suggestions about future supervising practices.

4 Findings and Analysis

In this section, we will share the findings based on both focal supervisors' and students' responses to the questions that are related to supervisors' writing support practices, and participants' learning processes, satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the feedback, and the reasons behind these procedures. In the following subsections, emerging themes and their categories will be represented for two groups of the participants separately. Also, it is essential to remember that these students and supervisors have not worked together regarding English academic writing.

4.1 Supervisor Support Practices

In line with the focus of this study, the doctoral students were asked about varying support mechanisms provided to them by their supervisors. Table 3 below shows six different categories that emerged from the doctoral students' responses to the question 'How do/did your supervisors support you during article or dissertation writing process?'

Three of the students responded to this question by referring to detailed supervisor feedback received regarding English academic writing except for DER. Thus, this is the most frequently referred category with regards to supervisor support practices. They stated that their supervisors provided comprehensive feedback on time. The following excerpt is representative of this category:

Excerpt 1 CER: *My supervisor backed me up a lot (.) If I explain it in detail, she provided feedback on time (.) in ea:ch step without postponing.*

Two of the doctoral students (ECE and AYT) also expressed that their supervisors advised a reference book to assist them in learning the principles of English academic writing while two of them (ECE and CER) mentioned that their supervisors provided explanations and instructions about writing a dissertation part by part. Furthermore, as seen in the following excerpt (Excerpt 2), ECE stated that her

Table 3 Sub-categories of supervisor support practices stated by the doctoral students

Main theme: Ways of supervisor support practices stated by the doctoral students					
	ECE	DER	CER	AYT	TOTAL
Providing detailed feedback	+		+	+	3
Suggesting a reference book	+			+	2
Explaining how to write a dissertation part by part	+		+		2
Suggesting/sending previously published articles of some prestigious journals/authors	+		+		2
Organizing thesis meetings regularly		+			1
Directing students to check papers through Turnitin		+		+	2

supervisor directed her to read previously published articles from the prestigious international journals in her field.

Excerpt 2 *ECE: For example, when we were writing our first article, we shared chapters (.) well, she said: In order to write the methodology, you should look at the journals, e::r the methodology part of the published articles in these journals. Well, neither more nor less! Accordingly, take some notes for yourself, outline, and write.*

In addition, one doctoral student (DER) referred to ‘organizing meetings regularly,’ because her supervisor preferred to give his supervising support through face-to-face conferences. Moreover, in the Turkish doctoral education system, students need to take a report from Turnitin that is an Internet-based plagiarism detection program. This report demonstrates similarities with the existing resources in the literature. Thus, paraphrasing and expressing your viewpoints with your own words play a significant role in decreasing the similarity ratio. In this sense, two of the doctoral students (DER and AYT) mentioned that their supervisors directed them to check their papers using Turnitin because it is both obligatory before submitting dissertations. The following quote is an indicator for this category:

Excerpt 3 *DER: I forgot its name, we need to take a citation report, (.) e::r it's about where you cited (-) Turnitin huh Turnitin it's obligatory well. We need to look at Turnitin.*

In sum, six different categories were explored in terms of doctoral students’ viewpoints about the support mechanisms offered by their supervisors. While ‘Providing detailed feedback’ is the most frequently referred category in terms of their responses, ‘Organizing meetings regularly’ is the least mentioned category under the current theme.

The interviewer asked the focal supervisors about the ways they support their doctoral students during the English academic writing process. Table 4 below illustrates eight categories that emerged from the supervisors from four different disciplines (two of them from Social Sciences, two of them from Physical Sciences). As seen in the codes of these categories, all the supervisor participants were aligned with only one category, and they mostly verbalized different supervisory practices demonstrated by one or two codes.

In line with the doctoral students’ emerged categories, all the supervisors stated that they gave detailed feedback chapter by chapter, and one of the supervisors (AYL) also added that she read through and revised all the parts of the dissertation at the final phase. The following quote demonstrates both categories expressed by one supervisor. In addition, Excerpt 4 shows that the supervisor shared the responsibility of writing articles/dissertations with her students, thereby using ‘we’ and its varying versions.

Excerpt 4 *AYL: Generally (-) I read an article or dissertation chapter by chapter, give feedback, go back and reread it. And then I read all the text from the beginning. So, I don't lose my commands on a text. I regard it as ‘we, our research, ou- our writing process, and then our effort.’ So, I check the writing like this from the beginning.*

Table 4 Sub-categories of supervisor support practices stated by the supervisors

Main theme: Ways of supervisor support practices stated by the supervisors					
	AYL	ESR	GUL	MAH	TOTAL
Providing detailed feedback chapter by chapter	+	+	+	+	4
Revising all the chapters at the end of the process	+				1
Giving a lecture about critical reading and writing		+		+	2
Suggesting/sending previously published articles of some prestigious journals/authors		+	+		2
Directing students to check papers on Turnitin			+	+	2
Directing students to other people for proof-check		+		+	2
Directing students to the academic writing center			+		1
Suggesting them to establish a structural framework				+	1

Two of the second group participants (ESR and MAH) also mentioned that they gave a lecture to their students based on English academic reading and writing principles, and they shared important points with their students. Supervisors' statements also justified that they mostly sent previously published articles from prestigious journals/ authors to their doctoral students as sample texts. They also referred to using Turnitin for checking students' English academic papers. Furthermore, two supervisors (ESR and MAH) stated that they directed their doctoral students to receive help from other people, such as peers or writing center tutors. They highlighted that fundamental issues based on English academic writing need to be corrected before they read the papers as supervisors. This type of supervisor support is captured in one of the supervisor's voice below:

***Excerpt 5** MAH: well, some of my doctoral students are writing very well now, and so my expectations are above a certain level. At least while I am guiding my students (-), I tell them: 'You should read your papers to each other, then you should send it to me after it is above a certain level. Well, I don't want to correct very basic English mistakes or incoherency problems on your dissertations or articles (.) I decided that this is a process in which students need to solve by themselves. e:r when I spend time on them, my nerves are shot.*

Finally, two supervisors (GUL and MAH) maintained that they directed their students to receive help from the academic writing center to establish a structural writing framework. In sum, eight different categories have emerged from the focal supervisors' responses, and it is indicated that providing detailed feedback is the most frequently referred category.

In brief, the responses of the participants who were working/studying at a state EMI university revealed that providing detailed feedback is the most significant component of the academic writing process. Furthermore, two groups of the participants produced similar responses on the categories, which were 'suggesting/sending previously published articles from the prestigious journals/ authors' and 'directing students to check papers on Turnitin.' Therefore, these supervisory support types were common practices regarding the English academic writing process in the Turkish EMI setting.

4.2 *Reasons for Satisfaction with Doctoral Writing Interaction*

As a follow-up question, both the doctoral students and supervisors were asked about their satisfaction level regarding supervisory support practices about English academic writing and its reasons. Table 5 shows the main theme, and two different categories for the participants' satisfaction level emerged from their responses. Three participants considered that they were satisfied with their communication with their supervisors, and only DER did not utter her satisfaction.

As seen in the table above, two different participants linked their satisfaction to detailed and constructive feedback provided by their supervisors during the English academic writing procedure. Excerpt 1 is the representative instance of this category in the preceding subsection. In addition, one of the participants (ECE) mentioned that she and her supervisor had similar writing or language styles and she learnt a lot about writing from her supervisor (see Excerpt 6).

Excerpt 6 *ECE: well, I think that one of the biggest chances in my life is my supervisor. e::r we have never had any problem so far. .hh, and on the contrary, we think we are very similar to each other at some points. e:r I learnt many things about writing from her, well our language style is very similar while writing something.*

Table 6 below also illuminates the identified main theme, and the two different categories and two codes emerged from the focal supervisors' responses about their satisfaction and its reasons. In terms of their statements, three of the participants were satisfied with the communication with their doctoral students; one of them (GUL) did not share her opinion about her level of satisfaction and its reason.

Two of the participants (AYL and ESR) stated that their doctoral students mostly had enough ability/knowledge of English academic writing. To illustrate, Excerpt 7 below demonstrates that students are more comfortable about sharing their opinions because they are practicing English writing during their education process. She also produced a general statement (our students, they) while sharing her opinions, since she referred to all the students studying at the EMI university.

Table 5 Reasons for doctoral students' satisfaction about the communication with their supervisors

Main theme: The reasons for satisfaction about the communication with their supervisors					
	ECE	DER	CER	AYT	TOTAL
Having similar styles/language usage with the supervisor while writing an academic paper	+				1
Providing detailed and constructive feedback			+	+	2

Table 6 Reasons for doctoral supervisors' satisfaction about the communication with their doctoral students

Main theme: The reasons for satisfaction about the communication with their doctoral students					
	AYL	ESR	GUL	MAH	TOTAL
Having the ability/knowledge of English academic writing	+	+			2
Dramatically improving student writing styles between different drafts/articles				+	1

Excerpt 7 *AYL: well (-), for example (.) for our students, they express themselves more comfortably because of their English writing practices at the university. Of course, their academic language is English.*

In addition, MAH established a link between his satisfaction and students' development with writing practices. As indicated in Excerpt 8, MAH stated that his students improved their academic writing between drafts during the writing process due to his feedback.

Excerpt 8 *MAH: e::r well it seems good, but I saw that my feedback provided to the badly written article was useful when I compared it to the published version of the same article or with the same student's second article. Well, I realized that students actually benefit from such feedback to improve themselves even if they don't have any face-to-face writing education.*

In sum, when we viewed the participants' statements and varying emerged categories, it is shown that six of the eight participants were satisfied with the communication during English academic writing procedure because of various individual reasons.

4.3 Reasons for Dissatisfaction with Doctoral Writing Interaction

In addition to the satisfaction question, all the participants were asked about any challenges faced during this process and any dissatisfaction they experienced, and they explained their arguments with their reasons. Table 7 illustrates that two participants of the first group participant were discontent about some points, while the other two students (ECE and AYT) never had negative criticism about English academic writing procedure.

DER stated that her supervisor was not involved much in her doctoral writing process, and he did not read all the chapters on time. From this statement, one category 'Having difficulties in reading chapters of the dissertations on time' was emerged as a reason for dissatisfaction. Excerpt 9 is representative of this category below since DER shared negative criticisms about checking the chapters on time right after she shared positive comments on organized meetings for English doctoral writing. DER also shared her positive opinions, mentioning supervisors' busy program as a response to the interviewer's follow-up question.

Table 7 Reasons for doctoral students' dissatisfaction about the communication with their supervisors

Main theme: The reasons for dissatisfaction about the communication with their supervisors					
	ECE	DER	CER	AYT	TOTAL
Having difficulties in reading chapters of the dissertations on time		+			1
Having expectations for writing many articles		+			1
No organizing meetings, spontaneous works			+		1

Excerpt 9 DER: *e::r now as I said beforewe had lots of meetings, wrote reports very often, and he had control over every step. However, he didn't read all the chapters of my dissertation. he:h I had a problem like this. One year later, we wrote an article from my dissertation together. When he looked at my dissertation again, he realized some problems and said, 'why did we write here like this?', I wish we could fix it'. And when we did this, I had already defended my dissertation; actually, I am dissatisfied with this part. It seems to me that supervisors were not adequately involved in this process.*

INT: *in your opinion, what can be the reasons for this? [not being involved in this process*

DER: *[well, I guess they don't have enough time because they have many students that are writing dissertation simultaneously. Sometimes it is necessary to understand them, it is boring for people to read 200-pages dissertations constantly.*

The same student also stated that supervisors have more expectations about writing many articles during this process, which may create pressure on doctoral students.

Excerpt 10 DER: *e::r well each supervisor encourages you to write more articles hu:h they want us to write a lot of articles honestly.*

Furthermore, another participant (CER) expressed that her supervisor was not working in an organized way while explaining the reason for her dissatisfaction.

The interviewer also elicited the supervisors' opinions about their dissatisfaction with students' writing and emerged four different categories based on the reasons for their dissatisfaction. As seen in Table 8, three of the supervisors were dissatisfied because of different reasons, but MAH did not express any negative statements about the doctoral writing process.

Two of the supervisors (AYL and GUL) expressed that they realized that the doctoral students did not know how to write a review of the literature during the procedure. In the following excerpt, this category can be seen in AYL's statement. She also added that it could result from other factors such as not teaching how to do it in any of the courses at the graduate level.

Excerpt 11 AYL: *well generally, of course, it changes from person to person but I realized that students cannot review the literature, well they simply can't. One of the reasons that they cannot write a review because they mostly review the literature*

Table 8 Reasons for supervisors' dissatisfaction about the communication with their doctoral students

Main theme: The reasons for dissatisfaction about the communication with their doctoral students					
	AYL	ESR	GUL	MAH	TOTAL
Insufficient effort for reviewing the literature appropriately	+		+		2
Not having an immediate benefit from the degree		+	+		2
Not having a writing habit		+	+		2
Writing like speaking in a daily language			+		1

from Turkish resources rather than English ones. Specifically, I don't have any problems with it. Well, because I think it is not their own choice. Also, if we don't explain how to review literature in a research method course or a graduate seminar in any programs, e::r how can they do it? You know what I mean. When these students come to me, you think like this: 'But do I have to teach you how to review literature?' Well, this is a critical dilemma.

Some supervisors also mentioned that doctoral students sometimes are unwilling to write a dissertation or do research, especially when they do not have an immediate benefit from the degree. The following excerpt is indicative of this category:

Excerpt 12 *GUL: well, especially students have a lack of motivation at the graduate level. I mean, if students are working at a place except for the university e:r they often underestimate this process.*

Two supervisors also maintained that doctoral students do not write regularly as a reason for their dissatisfaction. Finally, one of the supervisors emphasized that they are writing as if they were speaking in the daily language.

Excerpt 13 *GUL: I don't know well it is not like writing but rather like speaking in the daily language. Let alone, there is neither tense nor grammar. So, I suffer while reading them.*

In sum, the supervisors provided four different reasons for their dissatisfaction with communication with the doctoral students during the English academic writing process. When we closely examine both doctoral students' and supervisors' statements, it is clear that they had similar responses for dissatisfaction, such as working spontaneously and in an unplanned manner rather than a regular and organized working style. It is also seen that other responses varied regarding students' and supervisors' individual viewpoints.

4.4 Suggestions to Doctoral Supervisors

During these semi-structured interviews, only the doctoral students were asked about their suggestions to supervisors if they had an opportunity for changing negative points during this procedure. Table 9 demonstrates four categories that emerged from their expectations.

Table 9 Doctoral students' suggestions to supervisors

Main theme: Suggestions to supervisors					
	ECE	DER	CER	AYT	TOTAL
Demands for writing more articles with supervisors	+				1
Reading the sections of dissertations on time		+			1
Providing more detailed feedback to doctoral students		+			1

One of the students (ECE) expressed her need for writing more articles with her supervisor as a suggestion for gaining better writing skills. However, this category was stated as a reason for the dissatisfaction by another doctoral student (see Table 7, DER). Another participant stated that supervisors should spend more time while giving feedback. The following excerpt is an example of this category.

Excerpt 14 DER: *well, I think supervisors need to spend more time for providing feedback to students by reading parts. Well, we can do something surely. Well, I honestly see these parts incomplete for both my friends and me.*

4.5 Final Additions About English Doctoral Writing

At the end of these interviews, the interviewer asked all the participants about whether they have any final comments about the English academic writing process. Tables 10 and 11 shows the emerged categories based on both doctoral students' and supervisors' statements, respectively.

One of the doctoral students (ECE) emphasized that academic writing centers contribute to English doctoral writing procedures, thereby stating the necessity of reaching foreign instructors in this process (see Excerpt 15 below). Also, two students mentioned the need for an official research writing course (see Excerpt 16 below):

Excerpt 15 ECE: *e:r I think academic writing centers can be very beneficial by the way. I think if academic writing centers are founded, some foreigner instructors should be appointed, because learning a language from a native speaker is very different. I wish there were such opportunities.*

Table 10 Doctoral students' final additions about English doctoral writing

Main theme: Final additions about English doctoral writing					
	ECE	DER	CER	AYT	TOTAL
Establishing effective practices in the Academic Writing Center	+				1
Providing a research writing course	+	+			2
The necessity for increasing motivation			+		1
The necessity for reading more articles				+	1
The necessity for increasing contact with supervisors				+	1

Table 11 Supervisors' final additions about English doctoral writing

Main theme: Final additions about English doctoral writing					
	AYL	ESR	GUL	MAH	TOTAL
Developing content of BA Academic Writing Courses		+			1
Providing Research Writing Course	+		+		2

Excerpt 16 *DER: no: I don't know, maybe an official education can be provided at the university. Well it can be a course that is related to academic writing. Well think it needs to be a must course nods her head.*

Three categories also emerged from the doctoral students' statements, and they expressed that students should increase their motivation about writing English academic papers, read more articles as writing models, and ask every question in their minds to their supervisors. Thus, they mostly shared suggestions for the doctoral education system and other doctoral students with these final points.

The same question was asked to the supervisors, and three doctoral supervisors answered this question, whereas one of them preferred not to add something as a final comment (see Table 11). One of the supervisors (ESR) expressed that there are some academic writing courses at the undergraduate level of the focal EMI university, and their contents need to be enriched to teach students how to do some tasks such as using references or citations (see Excerpt 17).

Excerpt 17 *ESR: well, in my opinion, it should be developed at the undergraduate level, and I really wonder about this: What is taught at academic writing courses in our university? I really wonder about it, because it seems like how to give reference is not taught in those courses, is it? Well, a student does not know giving a reference or making a citation.*

Similar to the doctoral students, two of the supervisors (AYL and GUL) also put a particular focus on the necessity of an academic writing course. Excerpt 18 is indicative for this category:

Excerpt 18 *GUL: well, writing English academic paper, e:r making publications, writing a report are very, very important. It is not only for writing a thesis or article. e::r we have a research method course, statistics course. Maybe a third course needs to be added; well it should be a required course about academic writing.*

In sum, all the categories and instances of the participants' statements demonstrated that English doctoral writing should be taught before doctoral students start writing their dissertations or articles within undergraduate or graduate programs. Some of the participants have taken an academic writing course during some phases of their education. Still, all of them emphasized the provision of a more advanced course for all the doctoral students in the graduate programs. These courses with well-informed pedagogies are needed for improving academic writing at the graduate programs in EMI universities. Overall, all the preceding findings indicated that doctoral supervisors provided various types of supporting opportunities for their students at this focal EMI university in Turkey. In general, both supervisors and students were satisfied, but there were also some challenges and dissatisfactions with these practices. The participants provided some advice and final additions to develop the English academic writing process.

5 Discussion and Conclusion

Considering the research questions, the present study explored supervisors' writing support practices and participants' learning processes, satisfaction or dissatisfaction with feedback provided and received, and the reasons behind these procedures, suggestions, and final additions to the English academic writing process. In this regard, all the responses were elicited from both the focal supervisors and the doctoral students considering English scholarly writing, which refers to the production of doctoral dissertations and article publications (Caffarella & Barnett, 2000) in the EMI university in Turkey.

It was found that the doctoral students in this study enjoy various ways of writing help practices like using advice books or visiting academic writing centers to improve their writing competence during the scholarly writing process. However, the role of supervisor support practices plays a significant role in the writing development of doctoral students (e.g., Odena & Burgess, 2017). In line with the analytic findings of the previous studies, both doctoral students and supervisors reported that giving detailed feedback helps doctoral students to develop their arguments while writing their dissertations or journal publications (Can & Walker, 2011). While giving such comprehensive feedback to the students' written texts, the supervisors preferred to use the pronoun 'we' and its varying versions that display their collaborative effort (see Excerpt 4). This aligns with Kamler's (2008) findings and Bolker's (1998) suggestions that doctoral supervisors need to use a positive tone of voice rather than critical and directive ones while sharing their comments with their students. Therefore, doctoral supervisors need to use such statements in a positive tone to share the responsibility with their students and to raise doctoral students' motivation and writing performance in the doctoral writing process.

Another important finding expressed by both groups of the participants was that the doctoral supervisors directed their students to read the previously published articles or dissertations as samples, to check their papers against plagiarism using Turnitin, to receive from academic writing centers. Therefore, unlike Kamler's (2008) results, this study indicated that the supervisors helped their students to prepare their submissions through adequate support, and directed them to received support from other people (peers) regarding very basic English mistakes or incoherency problems on their dissertations or articles (see Excerpt 5). Similarly, the finding of this study is consistent with Aitchison et al.'s (2012) findings. In their study, the supervisors also mentioned that providing feedback about basic English skills was not their job, and they did not want to check such language-related issues within the supervising procedure. In brief, supervisors indicate that students should learn the basic rules of the English language before starting to work with their supervisors. It is also accepted that they have English requirements before this process, especially in EMI universities. Thus, acceptance rules for EMI graduate programs should be elevated or reformative solutions should be offered to the students in terms to make up for the lack of their English language knowledge.

The findings also highlighted that the students linked their satisfaction to their supervisors' detailed and constructive feedback (e.g., Cotterall, 2011) as well as

having similar writing styles with their supervisors. On the other hand, one of the supervisors explained her satisfaction, thereby referring to the students' English writing practices because these students receive their education in English as a language of instruction in the EMI university (see Excerpt 7). Therefore, in contrast to Caffarella and Barnett's (2000) findings, these doctoral students were proficient authors because they had experiences in English writing at the focal EMI university. This result indicates that EMI universities provide plenty of English writing opportunities to their students. In this sense, all the higher education programs should allow their students to practice English writing more for increasing the quality and quantity of academic writing. Additionally, the findings revealed that one of the supervisors was satisfied with his students' writing development between drafts. Similar to Aitchison et al. (2012)'s results, his feedback stimulated their improvements during the English academic writing procedure based on writing, giving feedback, and rewriting. Thus, further research should be conducted to investigate the impact of feedback provision within this developmental process through longitudinal studies.

Regarding the reasons for their dissatisfaction with this process, one of the doctoral students criticized her supervisor about inappropriate and late feedback due to their busy schedules, and she also emphasized the necessity for detailed feedback on time during this process as a suggestion to the doctoral supervisors (Dong, 1998). Moreover, the same doctoral student was discontent about her supervisor's increasing expectations about producing many journal publications. In contrast to this reason for her dissatisfaction, another student (ECE) (see Table 9) demanded raising numbers of the joint publications with her supervisors, since doctoral students want to have both high-quality and great quantities of their publications (Aitchison, 2009). Therefore, these results indicated that such dis/satisfaction issues and the reasons behind them could change from person to person. In addition, the supervisor participants complained about their students' irregular writing practices, insufficient efforts for reviewing the literature, unwillingness about writing dissertations because of their jobs, and writing like speaking in a daily language (e.g., Alter & Adkins, 2006; Can & Walker, 2011). Thus, other researchers need to carry out more diverse studies to explore individual differences and dissatisfaction reasons based on the doctoral writing process.

In the current study, both the doctoral students and supervisors added final comments considering the English academic writing process. Providing a research writing course at doctoral level was the most frequently referred category regarding final suggestions of both groups. As earlier studies have already revealed (e.g., Brause, 2012; Cotterall, 2013), a research writing course is often not compulsory for doctoral education, and students have to develop their writing through individual efforts. However, such required doctoral courses could enable the students to improve their understandings and practices in their disciplines. Furthermore, one of the supervisors criticized the inadequate content of the Advanced Writing and Research Skills course, which is an undergraduate course in some programs in the EMI university. Uysal (2014) also highlighted that students had limited opportunities to practice different writing genres and receive feedback from their instructors or peers in the academic writing courses because of varying issues, such as

insufficient lesson hours. Therefore, classroom hours of these courses should be increased, and systematic and diversified writing practices should be integrated into both undergraduate and graduate level academic writing courses at EMI universities.

In conclusion, the findings of this study provide implications for academic writing in the EMI research field. However, the current study was conducted with merely eight different participants working/studying at one focal EMI university in Turkey. Thus, the results of the present study cannot be generalized to the scholarly writing process within other doctoral programs in EMI universities. Further studies, particularly longitudinal ones, need to be carried out to reach more comprehensive findings by observing graduate student-supervisor interactions within the doctoral writing process at different cultural and disciplinary contexts in EMI universities, especially in Turkey. Therefore, understanding such an academic writing process can improve the quality and quantity of doctoral students' dissertations and journal publications as well as the relationship between supervisors and students.

References

- Aitchison, C. (2003). Thesis writing circles. *Hong Kong Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 8(2), 97–115.
- Aitchison, C. (2009). Writing groups for doctoral education. *Studies in Higher Education*, 34(8), 905–916.
- Aitchison, C., & Lee, A. (2006). Research writing: Problems and pedagogies. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 11(3), 265–278.
- Aitchison, C., Catterall, J., Ross, P., & Burgin, S. (2012). 'Tough love and tears': Learning doctoral writing in the sciences. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 31(4), 435–447.
- Alter, C., & Adkins, C. (2006). Assessing student writing proficiency in graduate schools of social work. *Journal of Social Work Education*, 42(2), 337–354.
- Arik, B. T., & Arik, E. (2014). The role and status of English in Turkish higher education. *English Today*, 30(4), 5–10.
- Bitchener, J., & Baştürkmen, H. (2006). Perceptions of the difficulties of postgraduate L2 thesis students writing the discussion section. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 5(1), 4–18.
- Boeije, H. (2002). A purposeful approach to the constant comparative method in the analysis of qualitative interviews. *Quality and Quantity*, 36(4), 391–409.
- Bolker, J. (Ed.). (1998). *The Writer's home companion: Anthology of the world's best writing advice, from Keats to Kunitz*. Henry Holt.
- Bradford, A. (2013). English-medium degree programs in Japanese universities: Learning from the European experience. *Asian Education and Development Studies*, 2(3), 225–240.
- Braine, G. (2005). The challenge of academic publishing: A Hong Kong perspective. *TESOL Quarterly*, 39(4), 707–716.
- Brause, R. S. (2012). *Writing your doctoral dissertation: Invisible rules for success*. Routledge.
- Caffarella, R. S., & Barnett, B. G. (2000). Teaching doctoral students to become scholarly writers: The importance of giving and receiving critiques. *Studies in Higher Education*, 25(1), 39–52.
- Can, G., & Walker, A. (2011). A model for doctoral students' perceptions and attitudes toward written feedback for academic writing. *Research in Higher Education*, 52(5), 508–536.
- Costa, F., Coleman, J. A., & Bialystok, E. (2012). A survey of English-medium instruction in Italian higher education. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 16(1), 3–19.

- Cotterall, S. (2011). Doctoral students writing: where's the pedagogy? *Teaching in Higher Education*, 16(4), 413–425.
- Cotterall, S. (2013). More than just a brain: Emotions and the doctoral experience. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 32(2), 174–187.
- Curry, M. J., & Lillis, T. (2004). Multilingual scholars and imperative to publish in English: Negotiating interests, demands, and rewards. *TESOL Quarterly*, 38(4), 663–688.
- Dong, Y. R. (1998). Non-native graduate students' thesis/dissertation writing in science: Self-reports by students and their advisors from two US institutions. *English for Specific Purposes*, 17(4), 369–390.
- Duran, D., & Sert, O. (2019). Preference organization in English as a medium of instruction classrooms in a Turkish higher education setting. *Linguistics and Education*, 49, 72–85.
- Earls, C. W. (2016). *Evolving agendas in European English-medium higher education: Interculturality, multilingualism and language policy*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Ekoç, A. (2018). English medium instruction (EMI) from the perspectives of students at a technical university in Turkey. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 44(2), 231–243. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0309877X.2018.1527025>
- Ferguson, T. (2009). The 'write' skills and more: A thesis writing group for doctoral students. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education*, 33(2), 285–297.
- Flowerdew, J. (1999). Problems in writing for scholarly publication in English: The case of Hong Kong. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 8(3), 243–263.
- Flowerdew, J. (2000). Discourse community, legitimate peripheral participation, and the nonnative English-speaking scholar. *TESOL Quarterly*, 34(1), 127–150.
- Glaser, B. G. (1965). The constant comparative method of qualitative analysis. *Social Problems*, 12, 436–445.
- González-Ocampo, G., & Castelló, M. (2018). Writing in doctoral programs: Examining supervisors' perspectives. *Higher Education*, 76(3), 387–401.
- Guarda, M., & Helm, F. (2016). 'I have discovered new teaching pathways': The link between language shift and teaching practice. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 20(7), 897–913.
- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1982). Epistemological and methodological bases of naturalistic inquiry. *Educational Communication and Technology Journal*, 30, 233–252.
- Kamler, B. (2008). Rethinking doctoral publication practices: Writing from and beyond the thesis. *Studies in Higher Education*, 33(3), 283–294.
- Kamler, B., & Thomson, P. (2006). *Helping doctoral students write: Pedagogies for supervision*. Routledge.
- Kamler, B., & Thomson, P. (2008). The failure of dissertation advice books: Toward alternative pedagogies for doctoral writing. *Educational Researcher*, 37(8), 507–514.
- Karakaş, A. (2016). *Turkish lecturers' and students' perceptions of English in English-medium instruction Universities* (Unpublished PhD thesis). University of Southampton, Southampton, UK.
- Karakaş, A. (2014). Lecturers' perceptions of their English abilities and language use in English-medium universities. *International Journal on New Trends in Education and Their Implications*, 5(2), 114–125.
- Karakaş, A. (2017). The forgotten voices in higher education: Students' satisfaction with English-medium instruction. *Journal of English as an International Language*, 12(1), 1–14.
- Kılıçkaya, F. (2006). Instructors' attitudes towards English-medium instruction in Turkey. *Humanizing Language Teaching*, 8(6), 1–16.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2005a). Motivation and student perception of studying in an English-medium university. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 1(1), 101–122.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2009a). Students' and lecturers' perceptions of the effectiveness of foreign language instruction in an English-medium university in Turkey. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 14(1), 81–93. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13562510802602640>
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2005b). Motivation and student perception of studying in an English-medium university. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 1(1).

- Kırkgöz, Y. (2009b). Students' and lecturers' perceptions of the effectiveness of foreign language instruction in an English-medium university in Turkey. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 14(1), 81–93.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2018). Confronting similar challenges?: Exploring students' experiences of studying engineering at a Turkish university: Turkish versus English-language medium of instruction. *Rassegna Italiana di Linguistica Applicata*, 2-3, 145–160.
- Krathwohl, D. (1997). *Methods of educational and social science research: An integrated approach* (2nd ed.). Longman.
- Lasagabaster, D. (2015). Multilingual language policy: Is it becoming a misnomer at university level. In S. Dimova, A. K. Hultgren, & C. Jensen (Eds.), *English-medium instruction in European higher education* (pp. 115–134). De Gruyter Mouton.
- Lillis, T., & Curry, J. M. (2010). *Academic writing in a global context*. Routledge.
- Macaro, E., Curle, S., Pun, J., An, J., & Dearden, J. (2017). A systematic review of English medium instruction in higher education. *Language Teaching*, 51(1), 36–76.
- Miles, M., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative Data Analysis* (2nd ed.). SAGE.
- Muthanna, A., & Miao, P. (2015). Chinese students; attitudes towards the use of English-medium instruction into the curriculum courses: A case study of a national key university in Beijing. *Journal of Education and Training Studies*, 3(5), 59–69.
- Odena, O., & Burgess, H. (2017). How doctoral students and graduates describe facilitating experiences and strategies for their thesis writing learning process: A qualitative approach. *Studies in Higher Education*, 42(3), 572–590.
- Oliver, P. (2004). *Writing your thesis*. Sage.
- Phillipson, R. (2008). Lingua franca or lingua frankensteinia? English in European integration and globalization. *World Englishes*, 27(2), 250–267.
- Race, P. (2005). *Making learning happen. A guide for post-compulsory education*. SAGE.
- Perez, M. D. M. S., & Ramiro, M. S. S. (2015). Writing professional genres in a second language: Results from a Spanish university CLIL context. *American Journal of Educational Research*, 3(5), 576–580.
- Richards, K. (2003). *Qualitative inquiry in TESOL*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Spigelman, C. (1999). Habits of mind: Historical configurations of textual ownership in peer writing groups. *College Composition and Communication*, 49(2), 234–255.
- Şahan, K. (2020). ELF interactions in English-medium engineering classrooms. *ELT Journal*.
- Tardy, C. (2004). The role of English in scientific communication: Lingua franca or tyrannosaurus rex? *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 3(3), 247–269.
- Uysal, H. H. (2014). English language spread in academia: Macro-level state policies and micro-level practices of scholarly publication in Turkey. *Language Problems and Language Planning*, 38(3), 265–291.
- Uysal, H. H. (2017). Global spread of English in academia and its effects on writing instruction in Turkish universities. *Emerging Writing Research from The Middle East-North Africa Region*, 41.
- Uzuner, S. (2008). Multilingual scholars' participation in core/global academic communities: A literature review. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 7, 250–263.
- Wächter, B., & Maiworm, F. (2014). *English-taught programmes in European higher education: The state of play in 2014*. Lemmens Medien GmbH.
- Wang, T., & Li, L. Y. (2011). 'Tell me what to do' vs. 'guide me through it': Feedback experiences of international doctoral students. *Active Learning in Higher Education*, 12(2), 101–112.
- West, R., Güven, A., Parry, J., Ergenekon, T., Aşık, G., Aydın, İ., & Başışoş, S. (2015). *The state of English in higher education in Turkey*. TEPAV and British Council. https://www.britishcouncil.org/tr/sites/default/files/he_baseline_study_book_web_-_son.pdf
- Wu, Z. (2020). Tracing EFL writers' digital literacy practices in asynchronous communication: A multiple-case study. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 50, 100754.

Training Language Teachers for English-Medium Instruction (EMI) Contexts Through the Use of Augmented Reality



Tuncer Can and Alex Rey

Abstract In recent years, technology has had a disruptive impact on education, as it has in Augmented Reality (AR). AR has brought about many innovations and opportunities in teaching methods as it helps students experience the subjects that are not possible to visualize in class books or exemplify the complex processes and terminologies. In line with this, AR is an environment that consists of virtual and digital objects that are added because of empirical reasons along with real ones. Through AR the intended message or information is visualised with audio and visual methods as well as with 3D objects. With AR it is possible to have concurrent displays on the real environment and the visual objects using special software. The literature on English-medium instruction (EMI) also indicates that the learners' interest towards EMI has also been increasing and not only at universities but also in secondary education. Thus, one area of particular interest will be how AR can be used to provide prospective EMI teachers the skills they need to succeed in the classroom. This chapter illustrates how AR could be incorporated into EMI language teacher training to prepare them for EMI. This chapter also aims at adding up to the body of international literature by bringing examples from Turkish higher education context. The study presents research and studies that examine the effects of AR technologies in foreign language teaching and teacher training in Turkey. The study will be carried out by examining the studies involving AR in foreign language teaching in Turkey.

Keywords English-medium instruction (EMI) · Language teachers · Augmented Reality (AR) · Teacher training

T. Can (✉) · A. Rey
Istanbul University-Cerrahpaşa, Istanbul, Turkey
e-mail: tcan@iuc.edu.tr

© The Author(s), under exclusive license to Springer Nature
Switzerland AG 2022

Y. Kirkgöz, A. Karakaş (eds.), *English as the Medium of Instruction in Turkish
Higher Education*, Multilingual Education 40,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-88597-7_10

1 Introduction

Globalisation has led to the increased trend of incorporating higher education with foreign language instruction. Whilst the trend has leaned heavily towards a focus on EMI, there have also been moves towards incorporating other languages, depending on the course and the specific context of the instruction. EMI continues to be problematic and there are suggestions that the overall approach to using EMI could be better implemented. The focus on EMI has been the result of a range of factors, but the main push is to increase a nation's given competitiveness at the global level. With English being the dominant language of the world, with many, if not most, academic areas of study publishing in English, coursebooks and textbooks being offered in English, it is imperative that the institutes, whose aim is to produce world leading academics and graduates who can compete at the global, find ways to maximize student potential. These objectives are not only at the institute level, but also at national government levels where there is an increased demand in having world ready graduates who can add to the systems and fields that are becoming increasingly global. At the point between schooling and work lies higher education, and often the final step of language learning as undergraduates before students can continue into the competitive markets.

In recent years, AR has had a disruptive impact on online services and education as well. In basic terms, AR use transforms the real environment reflected on the screen by adding digital elements to that environment. The literature on the use of AR in education suggests that the number of papers and research increased by 62.8% in the last years (Martin et al., 2011). These numbers indicate that AR technologies are becoming more and more crucial and that they will command more space in education in the following years. Lately, AR has been implemented across industries to prepare individuals for their respective professions, examples include mechanic and engineering use of tools like welders, AR based interactions between managers and employees to prepare workers for various forms of communication and development skills within the business industry. What is clear is that academic interest in AR grows, the possibilities will also grow. Thus, we explore the potential of AR for language learning and teacher training aiming EMI contexts.

2 EMI in Global Contexts

Despite the global push towards the internationalisation of education big questions remain. At the basic level; is it appropriate to have courses delivered through EMI? How much of a course should be offered in EMI? How will students benefit from EMI? Are those responsible for delivering education using EMI well placed to do so effectively? At a higher level the questions expand to include; How does the EMI approach impact on the culture of learning within a particular context, at the global and local scale? What are the potential cultural challenges to using EMI? Answering

these questions requires insight into the education history of a particular context and an appreciation of the relationship between past policy making, present conditions and future ambitions and a firm understanding of how best to approach the implementation of a programme delivered through EMI, particularly in order to reap the myriad benefits that EMI education can provide (Dimova et al., 2015).

Although this chapter aims at discussing the role of EMI in the Turkish context, there are a number of useful studies in a range of wider global contexts that can be drawn from to inform best practice in the implementation of EMI programmes in Turkey. In this section, we will look closely at what the experiences have been in a range of global education contexts, identifying the issues that arose, the challenges faced and considering how they may relate to the Turkish context. In many cases the move towards EMI has been part of a wider Governmental effort to promote bilingualism through policy making affecting education and has been greatly implemented across the world in many contexts from the primary school level to university level. There is an important interrelationship between the implementation of EMI at these various levels, particularly when it is part of long-standing generational policy. As will be seen in the contexts discussed in this section, one of the biggest obstacles to effective EMI practice is students' previous experiences with language learning, which is directly related to previous education policies within these particular contexts. The move towards effective EMI systems being implemented requires long term planning and a focus on the long-term outcomes that will require patience on the side of all stakeholders. What is also important to note is that just as learners will be impacted in that language learning ability, so too will educators who are also products of the previous education policies, meaning there is a constant cycle of the need to develop capable educators and students who are able to deal with the demands of shifting towards an EMI based system. EMI can allow those who may be less efficient in one language, but otherwise highly efficient in English to flourish within a specific education context of their choice.

One of the benefits of using EMI as a method of language learning is that the combined use of the content matter and the target language appears to yield better results when compared to traditional methods of language education (Lei & Hu, 2014). This has also been true for cases where other languages have been used as the main language of instruction. Dupuy (2000) examined the use of content-based instruction through French as a possible strategy to support and ease the transition of students learning French from the beginner to advanced level, and as a method of developing student interest in the content that was being delivered through the language of instruction. Dupuy found that having a content-based approach delivered through a foreign language can be effective in helping language learners make gains in their development and that they develop, at a fast pace, content related and relevant language. She does, however, note that, in order to have maximum impact, there are a number of things that must be considered. It is not enough to just decide to implement a foreign language delivered course without considering the specific context of the learning that will occur. It must be carefully planned and be appropriate for both the learners and those delivering the content. The content being taught must be relevant to the interests of the students to maximize their attending to the

content taught and should be widely supported through the provision of authentic materials, relevant to the content and the language, readily available. Dupuy stresses that students must also be cognitively, linguistically and emotionally prepared to deal with academic content being delivered through a language which is not their mother tongue. In turn, those responsible for delivering language must create environments which encourage students to want to explore and not be focused overly on aspects of language education like error correction to create an anxiety free environment.

For most, English language education starts at the primary school level. This early stage experience can also set the tone for the future of an individual's language learning experience, as the conditions and methods through which they learn, and are exposed to shape learners' relationship to the language and the approaches to learning. This in turn has a direct impact on their preparedness for EMI based programmes at the higher education level. In Ghana, where EMI is common from the early stages of education (primary four to junior high school) a mismatch has been identified between the theory and the practice of the use of EMI (Owu-Ewie & Eshun, 2015). Owu-Ewie and Eshun (2015) found that, whilst in theory education in Ghana is bilingual (English and various Ghanain languages), there are problems with actual implementation. They cite problems with policy being observed and enforced leading to teachers feeling comfortable not to teach in English as and when expected. Teaching practices further compound the issue as translation, code-switching and the use of safe-talk undermines the language development of the learners. Whilst, it may be expected that younger children may require the security of the L1 in their education, for a country hoping to employ EMI in the long term it is imperative that early stage education puts the systems in place that will lead to effective English language proficiency. In the context of Owu-Ewie & Eshun, the young learners in that study will perhaps go on to university level education, where they will encounter academic EMI content and will be faced with challenges to their learning beyond course content as a result of not having the required proficiency in language. In turn, this will also impact on their ability to join the global market force and the preparedness to enter into their professional lives.

In the Chinese context, there have been similar issues identified. In a study into the effectiveness of EMI in improving undergraduate students' English competence, Lei and Hu (2014) found that EMI was not any more significant in improving student proficiency overall, however, when blended with a programme focused on developing students' skills at the same time, particularly listening and speaking the results were more favourable. This is logical as it may be expected that those two skills are the least well developed in the students' previous language learning experiences, despite being important skills to have at the higher education academic level, similar to the situation in Ghana discussed above. Overall, Lei and Hu are not overly optimistic about the potential for EMI to improve students' competencies in language, although they did note that the study was limited in that it was based on only 1 year's worth of data. Furthermore, they raise the need for deeper research into the overall quality of courses and their implementation. The approach to implementation at all levels can make or break the effectiveness of a potential EMI

system and there is a range of things to consider when considering the implementation of an EMI system.

Building on the Chinese context, Hu (2019) considered the rationale behind the spread of EMI courses in universities in China, specifically considering four case studies and their implications for EMI. Drawing from the findings of the empirical research used in the study Hu outlines several lessons that should be used to inform EMI policy. Hu clearly states that a move towards EMI should be done based on empirical research, rather than assuming the benefits and advantages. There needs to be an evidence-based marriage between policy and what happens on the ground in order for it to be effective. Furthermore, there is a need for both the students and the lecturers to be linguistically able to deliver and receive EMI education. Lecturers should not just be able to deliver the content, but also to be able to effectively challenge and be an active part of the learning process through the medium of instruction. On the other hand, students who are not prepared to deal with content delivered through EMI will be unable to develop the skills required for deeper learning and critical thinking. Hu also highlights the need in the Chinese context to raise students' overall language ability and to focus on developing language ability prior to students' arrival in higher education. Hu also recommends that teachers teaching in EMI are able to cross the threshold of disciplinary teaching and language teaching, in order to be effective EMI teachers.

Bradford (2016) discussed factors affecting the implementation of EMI in higher education in Japan. In this context she found that there were four particular challenges to developing an EMI system; linguistic, cultural, administrative and management and, institutional. She identified that institutes with little to no experience in delivering education in foreign languages struggled the most and that in order for any EMI programme to be delivered effectively then it requires all stakeholders to be on board. Bradford also highlights that it is useful to look at how previous experiences within a particular context can provide an insight into how effectively or easily a new system may be applied, in this particular context Japan had previously found it difficult to develop a deeper information technology based system in the 1990s and the challenges that were experienced then provided useful guidelines for what to expect (and also remedy) what may occur when moving to an EMI based system.

In the context of Northern Cyprus, Arkin (2013) explored the impact of EMI on undergraduate students at a university. This case in Northern Cyprus, despite being in a different local context, can provide some useful insight for the Turkish perspective given the cultural and historical relationships between those of the two nations. Arkin found that undergraduates were generally positive about the need for their education to be conducted in English, as it would be necessary in their later academic and professional lives, however, they did feel that the challenges of learning a specific discipline through English was made a greater challenge as a result of having limited language skills prior to undertaking their undergraduate degree. Through exploration of classroom practices, such as a slower rate of speech, Arkin also identified that students still had problems following and understanding content in lectures. Arkin's findings relate similarly to the challenges discussed by Lei and

Hu (2014) and Arkin proposes a move away from pure EMI towards a content and language integrated learning (CLIL) approach, as discussed previously in the study by Dupuy (2000) and clarify the need to make sure that content related language education concurrent to general language development is required.

In a similar study, this time in the Gulf region, Belhiah and Elhami (2015) found that the effectiveness of EMI in Arabian/Persian Gulf region is severely lacking in its effectiveness. In a large-scale study of 500 students and 100 teachers across 6 universities in the cities of Abu Dhabi, Dubai, Al Ain, Sharjah, Ajman and Ras Al Khaimah, Belhiah and Elhami found that previous language ability was one of the greatest obstacles to students learning particular subject matter. They made recommendations for the implementation of dual-language programmes, using both English and Arabic in order to promote student learning and bilingual skills. They also discuss the need for a bilingual approach that helps students to develop their mastery of English, whilst also preserving their national and indigenous identity.

3 EMI in Turkey

As is the case in many countries around the world, Turkey is shifting towards a more global outlook in terms of its approach to education. Turkey's Education Vision 2023 (Ministry of National Education, 2018) outlines the country's goals and aims to tackle some of the shortcomings that have plagued the Turkish education system for decades, despite the great strides Turkish education has taken in the past years (Schleicher, 2018). Amongst the myriad objectives that the Vision 2023 report outlines there are two areas that are of particular interest for the purposes of this discussion, the first of which being the focus on increasing the quality of foreign language education within Turkey. The document outlines three primary goals;

- Goal 1: Foreign language will be customized nationwide according to school levels and types;
- Goal 2: with the use of new sources, students will be able to experience the English-speaking world;
- Goal 3: Teacher proficiencies and qualifications will be improved in foreign language education.

These three primary goals are deeply entwined in the discussion of this chapter on EMI and the use of technology to promote teacher proficiency. As has been discussed in the case of China, it is clear that Turkey is looking to create more worldly graduates, able to compete and work within global settings. Özer (2016) discussed the internationalisation of Turkey's education system and identified that there has been an overall increase in the presence of both international members of staff and students in institutions in Turkey. This increase in the presence of non-Turkish citizens in the Turkish education system has also come with a steady increase in the number of courses offered in other languages, primarily English. The promotion of EMI in Turkey creates opportunities for greater competitiveness and proficiency of both Turkish people and the nation as Turkey works towards becoming both a

significant global player and regional leader in education. Understanding the current trends in EMI in this context are key to understanding how the use of EMI can be used to promote teacher training through EMI and augmented reality.

A study in 2006 by Kılıçkaya found that lecturers were generally negative in their feelings towards teaching using EMI. In a study of 100 lectures at universities in Ankara it was found that there was an overall preference for Turkish to be used as the language of education, although they had reservations over this, as well. One of the concerns of the lecturers surveyed related to the translation of technical vocabulary and the use of English affecting student comprehension. As a result, they were of the opinion that Turkish was a more effective language of education. This study, some 14 years old now, gave some indication as to the future of EMI and its implementation in Turkey. Kılıçkaya made the following recommendations regarding the implementation of EMI; decisions to undertake a policy of EMI requires involvement of all stakeholders, lecturers, learners and government; that English taught courses are not compulsory, but rather optional, as a result of poor English language standards at the high school level; and that the implementation of EMI policies is done carefully, and not just for the sake of it. What is clear when considering the dimensions of education in Turkey now when compared to 2006 there is clearly an acceptance of the need to increase English language ability at the high school level to help students be better prepared for higher education in EMI. The recommendations that were set out by Kılıçkaya seem, at least in theory, to be considered in Turkey's vision 2023 document, as mentioned above.

In a later study by Başibek et al. (2014), there unfortunately appears to be an overlap between the issues raised by Kılıçkaya and the findings of the present study. Başibek et al. (2014), investigated the perceptions of lectures involved in delivering EMI courses in state universities in Turkey. They surveyed 63 educators, with a range of roles and titles, primarily involved in education in Engineering departments and found that they had favourable views towards adopting English as a medium of instruction, as well as favourable views regarding its effectiveness in raising learners' success, believing that EMI can lead to better opportunities for their students post education. However, Başibek et al. noted that the educators surveyed did have some reservations regarding the overall English language proficiency of their students, stating that this was a barrier towards fully embracing EMI. The objectives set out by the Vision 2023 document, aimed at raising Turkish students' language abilities prior to reaching higher education should help alleviate these concerns for systems aiming to integrate EMI in their education. Finally, making a note of the clear advantages of EMI, Başibek et al. do, as was mentioned earlier, identify a need for lecturers to be supported in their own language abilities in order to be effective teachers through EMI and note that a combination of greater government support for lecturers teaching in a foreign language will make the overall transition towards greater internationalisation of education in Turkey smoother. Despite a greater overall opinion of EMI from lecturers, concerns over students' ability to comprehend higher level content, as put forward by Kılıçkaya (2006), still remain.

Another point of view on the concerns regarding EMI in Turkey though is put forward by Karakaş (2016) who posits that EMI lecturers that they interviewed are largely supportive of integration of Turkish into classes to varying degrees and of even letting their students use their mother tongue for some purposes. This is in line with Dafouz's (2018) findings who makes the recommendation that teacher trainer programmes do not take an English as a foreign language approach to English language education, but encourage trainee teachers to feel confidence as an owner of the language, creating a stronger sense of agency. Not only this, but trainee teachers are empowered by possessing strong linguistic capital (English and their L1, at least), thus creating confident teachers who are sure of their language proficiency, bilingual ability, academic identity and being part of the global collective of specialist English language users. On the other hand, in a more recent study, Karakaş (2018) finds that although English is overtly defined as the official language of the institutions in three EMI universities in Turkey, the kind of English they are in favour of is considerably covert by only implying the academic English as appropriate and recognized standard (native) English. He even views this complication of use of English by exploring the phenomenon of Tarzanish (mixed version of Turkish and English) in general and its use in EMI in Turkey (Karakaş, 2019). Kırkgöz and Dikilitaş (2018) have observed that English as Specific Purposes (ESP) found its place in the foreign language learning in EMI contexts in Turkey, although teachers' own incompetence of language skills and the lack of materials for specific contexts has created a gap between application and quality assurance of those programmes. Turhan and Kırkgöz (2018) also sought to bring forward the motivation of engineering students towards EMI and found out that only first year students were slightly more motivated instrumentally and lecturers' motivations towards EMI were springing depending on numerous reasons.

Thus, to avoid the potential pitfalls experienced by other countries in its implementation of EMI, Turkey will need to prioritize several factors to make it effective; focus on developing language skills to help achieve proficiency; combine EMI with continued general language education; ensure that quality of education provided is of a high standard (in line with the objectives of vision 2023) and to balance the language education provided at school level and within higher education. It will also be imperative that those providing EMI instruction are proficient in both English and the means through which EMI is delivered (i.e. technology and augmented reality, which will be discussed later). It is imperative that all the stakeholders in delivering EMI (and receiving it) believe in its value and effectiveness in order for it to be effective. Leading the way in assisting with these goals and objectives are language teachers and those responsible for preparing the next generation of English teachers in Turkey. Turkey has a large number of English teachers from the local population, non-native speakers and teachers from English speaking countries. These players will be key to implementing both the objectives of the vision 2023 document and also in assisting students in Turkey to reach their language learning goals.

These changes in Turkey's approaches to education come at the same time as the global fourth era of industry – dubbed industry 4.0; the technological industrial

revolution. Technological changes have a huge impact on societies and the way they function and Turkey has been steadily embracing these technological changes which will impact on all facets of Turkish society (Özliü, 2017; Ministry of National Education, 2018). It is clear that Turkey's future, including its sphere of education is tied to technology and as such, the approaches to language education and teacher training will be tied to education related technology. In an ideal world student enrolled in a programme to become English language teachers, they will have the required proficiency of English prior to starting the course, but the reality is in Turkey that students often enter courses with a range of English levels and abilities. Exploration into how those students' proficiency in English can be increased through the use of technology and EMI will provide an important insight into the future of education in Turkey.

4 Training Language Teachers with Augmented Reality for EMI Contexts in Turkey

Integral to this study is the discussion of EMI in teacher education programmes in higher education specifically in light of the previously discussed issues related to expectations of EMI teachers and their competencies (Dupuy, 2000; Block & Moncada-Comas, 2019; Hu, 2019; Macaro et al., 2019). Indeed, as we will see later, there appears at times a contradictory relationship between the teacher education programmes that are increasingly focused on teacher English proficiency, rather than the pedagogical practices that are needed to make them more effective EMI teachers (Dafouz, 2018). It is imperative that there is a recognition between these two facets of EMI education; teacher language proficiency as well as pedagogical competency. Effective EMI systems must depend on the two working in harmony with one another, as has been discussed in the previous examples in this chapter. How, then, can EMI instruction in teacher education programmes be well designed in order to unite these two aspects of teacher training?

In the modern and globalized world, it is imperative that future teachers are well prepared in terms of their language and digital proficiency. Teacher training can help prepare future teachers in this respect. Included within this digital literacy is the need to be aware and capable in using modern forms of education related technology, in terms of both hardware and software, including AR. AR is the use of technology to superimpose a computer-generated image over the real world. This might include, for example, a device, such as a mobile phone with a camera to interact with a real-world object, like a table, which, when seen through the camera comes to life with the presence of computer-generated animals which are seen to be standing on top of the table. The education potential for AR is vast and its use as both a tool for learners and teachers has great appeal, and has been introduced in a range of contexts from early learning in primary schools, to the use of AR generated welding training to using AR to train managers to deal with issues that may arise in

the workplace. The increased use of AR has, likewise, resulted in augmented reality increasingly being the focus of study within the last decade.

Studies into AR in education generally looked at the affordances and challenges of the AR technologies (Bacca et al., 2014). However, there is a need for studies that look into the potential of AR in actual learning which could be provided by AR enhanced materials. These type of studies are conducted in the context of AR applications on reading (Billinghurst et al., 2001), the relation between AR and language education with a group of young learners aged between 10–11 (Küçük et al., 2014), as well as science education (Kerawalla et al., 2006), vocational education (Albayrak & Altıntaş, 2017), and the use of AR games have positive impacts on learning and language learning (Koutramanos et al., 2015; Dudeney & Hockly, 2012). To Chen and Tsai (2012), who researched how basic library skills could be given to students by using AR technology, AR applications can be associated with cognitive information processing theory, where the information through a video or a 3D object might be transferred to short term memory and by practice eventually to long term memory.

AR in education has been studied in regard to various factors such as motivation, retention, academic success, learning environment, interaction, and collaboration and it has been shown that the use of AR and AR technologies in education help students concentrate more than teaching through more traditional systems (Kaleci et al., 2016; Karacan, 2019). İbili & Şahin (2013) have looked at how AR technology could be used for geometry instruction, thus they posit that educationally effective AR materials have the potential to provide an opportunity to develop cognitive and affective learning. Radu (2012), in a comparative review of the educational impacts of AR, provides a set of the positive learning effects of AR in learning and states that AR integrated lessons impact positively on learning by; increasing comprehension of the subject matter, aiding retention, motivating learners and developing cooperation. Similarly, Bacca et al. (2014), who reviewed current trends in AR in education, identified that most of the studies in their review reveal the fact that AR technologies are used to stimulate the learners, clarify subjects and augment data. Both of these studies go some distance in indicating the benefit to education and training that effective integration of AR can provide.

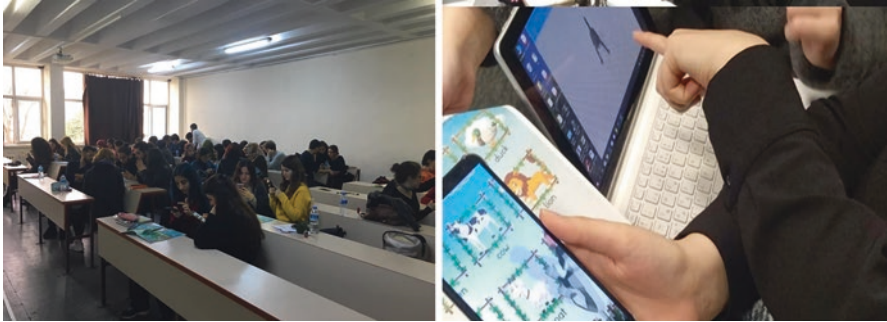
In the context of the role of AR in language learning, Solak and Çakır (2015) provide information that activities enriched with AR technologies have positive effects on students' academic achievement as the AR enhanced learning has a role in retaining information in the long-term memory. Among other benefits of using AR in education are that AR provides interactivity in learning where students obtain the information by experiencing and making sense on their own and this makes learning more memorable compared to the traditional method where the students are exposed to the learning target directly (Billinghurst & Dunser, 2012). Boonbrahm et al. (2015) showed that AR assisted materials for primary school students in English language classes have the potential to increase motivation as in their study they observed that participants enjoyed and showed eagerness to take part in the learning process. Wang (2017) concluded that as AR supported materials helped intermediate-level Chinese language learners most as these materials enabled them to have a better 'content control, article structure and wording'. Çakır et al. (2015)

used AR technologies in their study to teach English vocabulary and the results of their study with 60 undergraduate students showed that the experimental group benefited from the AR materials as they achieved higher achievement scores and showed an increase in their motivation. This observable benefit of AR can also be built on by Küçük (2015) who concluded that students who were exposed to AR enhanced materials displayed a higher academic achievement, less cognitive load and favorable perception towards the learning material. AR visualizes the content, thus AR enables students to make meaningful associations between the content and the real environment that eventually eases the process of vocabulary learning and retention (Doğan, 2016; Santos et al., 2016; Solak & Çakır, 2015). There is a clear interactional potential between the use of AR in English learning contexts, and the previous discussion on the role of EMI, skills development and language learning through the use of AR can be explored in more detail here.

In the discussion of EMI it was made clear that EMI can be used effectively when it looks at the development of skills, and it is this skills development which can make an EMI system successful or not. Similarly, Karacan (2019) posits that AR technology has been utilized for language skills such as speaking, listening, writing, and reading; however, Karacan states that these studies are extremely scarce and believes that there needs to be more focus on the use of AR in the development of skills. Karacan foresees that as language teachers improve themselves to be more digitally competent, the number of AR studies, AR-enhanced activities, lesson content, and language learning applications will definitely go higher, as will the understanding between the relationship between EMI and AR in teacher training contexts.

In language learning, which focuses on skills development, there is an overlap with EMI as the skills being taught are transferable and are being taught through English, rather solely being English language skills relevant to English language proficiency. In her study, Pozharina (2019) looked into the effects of using AR in academic writing skills oriented EFL teaching. In her study with 70 students who studied towards English proficiency, she found that academic writing lessons were much more captivating, tasks with AR were appealing, satisfying, enjoyable and attention gathering, in addition her students reported a positive learning attitude towards EFL writing. From their study where they employed AR tasks for writing skill, Yılmaz and Göktaş (2017) induced students to write better, longer and more creative texts. Wang (2017) reported that when AR is employed to develop writing, it enhanced better content control, article structure, and wording. On the other hand, Bahadır (2019) reports that although her primary school students were observed to enjoy the treatment with AR, it was seen that the AR tools had no significant effects on the success of the students apart from being a tool that differentiate the teaching process (Picture 1).

As is seen above, the research on the use of AR for language learning has been diverse but not extensive, but there is clearly an important relationship between the development of English language skills as well as training. Trainee teachers, who do not have English as a mother language, but will be using it to learn about education through EMI and later to teach through it will come face to face with the use of AR. However, unfortunately, the lack of extensive research related to using AR



Picture 1 Pre-service language teachers get training on AR and materials design

applications to train language teachers for EMI context both in general and specific in Turkey is sorely lacking. One of the reasons for this is that educational AR has had problems spreading, primarily because of teachers not being able to develop solid content (Sanna & Manuri, 2016). There are a handful of AR platforms, which are also closed-systems and not flexible, like Blippar, Aurasma HP Reveal, Augment, ZAPWorks, UniteAR, HOLO, and Layar where teachers can augment their materials and create content easily. However, the question is how these teachers can align the students' needs in learning with those limited AR platforms. It is vital for pre-service and in-service language teachers to learn how to create AR experiences and how to develop their own applications to provide motivation, attention, better learning environments, higher academic success and content retention in their students (Karacan, 2019). Thus, training on AR for both groups is inevitable specially to attract students in the EMI contexts by transforming the traditional and static coursebooks into multimedia designed ones.

Chen and Yen (2013) pinpointed the effectiveness of AR-enhanced English materials on students' achievement. This could be aligned with the vision of training language teachers with AR technology for EMI contexts as well. Küçük et al. (2014) found that secondary school students were very content with learning English using AR-enhanced materials and they reported to have low anxiety and high user intention for the future. Yeni (2018) undertook such a study with in-service language teachers where she prepared a training on twenty-first century skills and while training the teachers on digital literacy she introduced AR and the trainees produced AR enhanced materials. The teachers reported motivation and an increase in their students' motivation in their classes. This exemplifies how training EMI teachers with AR technology could impact the practice within the classroom. Karacan (2019) on the other hand, prepared training on AR enhanced materials design at two different universities in Turkey to train pre-service language teachers. He concluded that there has been an increase in pre-service English teachers' attitudes, perceived usefulness and self-efficacy beliefs regarding the adoption of AR in their future classes. The 141 pre-service language teachers reported that AR technology was attention-grabbing, different, useful, visualizing content, more



Picture 2 Teacher teaching English with AR

attractive, creative, interactive, authentic, exciting, meaningful, motivating, fun, boosting self-confidence and curiosity and increasing self-efficacy.

There is an exciting potential ahead for the greater intermarrying between EMI and AR in teacher training, both globally and within Turkey. The potential for effective EMI systems, which draw on the global experiences of EMI and streamlined to focus on the development of key skills to being linked to the greater use of AR within the classroom can help to maximize pre-service teachers’ language proficiency, language ability, academic performance, and expose them to technological advances and systems that they will need to use as in-service teachers. In Turkey, the Istanbul branch of the Ministry of National Education is also providing some training in technology integration to language teachers but it is also far from being satisfactory and around 50 language teachers are accepted to the Language Academy. As is obvious from the examples of training language teachers with AR for EMI contexts in Turkey, there is still a great distance to cover to bring together the requirements of technology integration and language proficiency. There is clearly a need for more study into the use of AR in education in terms of teacher training, and there is a need for greater development of education context related AR software that can be used to present an enriching learning experience for pre-service trainee teachers. However, if the field of education can utilize the experiences of other fields of learning, like vocational training and combine it effectively designed EMI courses then the use of AR in teacher training can produce capable teachers who will be well placed to lead the way in language education in Turkey and beyond (Picture 2).

5 Conclusion

Looking deeper at the foundations of EMI systems in place, Dafouz (2018) discusses the need for collaboration between all stakeholders involved in teacher education programmes. Dafouz outlines three main points of focus; EMI teacher education programmes should be fully integrated into the institutional structures of

higher education institutes and be married closely to continued professional development; there should be a meaningful relationship between developing trainee teachers' English proficiency and also their pedagogical competency, specifically in the fields that they teach; the systems in place should be aware of the continued impact that EMI has on trainee teachers' identities and self-image. These discussions are particularly important in the discussion of EMI used in the Turkish context. English should be seen more than something that is 'done in the classroom', possession of English competency and ability should be an integral part of the teacher's identity as an education professional.

This is particularly important for those teachers who will go on to become language teachers themselves. They should not see themselves as individuals who possess pedagogical knowledge and are able to teach English, but as competent owners of a language that is theirs as they are part of the global collective of English language users. In that respect it is important that the advice of Dafouz is followed closely, and that EMI systems in the Turkish context look to create English language teachers who are confident and intrinsically motivated to view EMI as an important and significant part of their construction of identity, particularly beyond being an English teacher, but also in terms of who they are. These prospective English teachers will then enter the field as key players, of particular importance to Turkey's ambitions laid out in its vision for 2023; more competent and confident language teachers will lead to more effective language learning environments, informed by important pedagogical practices and English competencies, which will in turn lead to better prepared learners of English going on to their areas of study that will be taught through EMI. In this search for equipping pre-service and in-service language English teachers with the contemporary approaches like using AR for language teaching and learning, teacher education programmes need to allow more space for such technologies. As Radu (2012) and Bacca et al. (2014) suggest AR technology could be employed as it enhances and stimulates learning.

Block and Moncada-Comas (2019) tried to explain the relationship between English proficiency and pedagogical knowledge by interviewing three STEM teachers who teach their respective fields in English. In their study they interviewed teachers to understand where they position themselves in their roles as teachers of English, through their disciplines. They found that teachers made it very clear that they did not feel attached to an identity of being an English language teacher, attaching themselves to their identities as academics in their disciplines. As was previously suggested AR could be used thus in science education as well as vocational education to train teachers with language proficiency and instructional awareness (Kerawalla et al., 2006; Albayrak & Altıntaş, 2017). In doing so the instructors would be well placed pedagogically to be able to deal with language issues that arise, even if it is against their perceived role of being a lecturer of a particular subject. Whilst it would be unfair to expect specialists in their field to be actively teaching English as a foreign language, this is again a good example of how EMI policy is bound to overall approaches to education, institutional support and teacher practices.

References

- Albayrak, M., & Altıntaş, V. (2017). Artırılmış Gerçeklik Teknolojisinin Veritabanı Dersinde Kullanımı. *Istanbul Journal of Innovation in Education*, 3(1), 13–23.
- Arkın, I. E. (2013). *English-medium instruction in higher education: A case study in a Turkish university context* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Eastern Mediterranean University.
- Bacca, J. L., Baldiris, N. S. M., Fabregat, R., & Graf, S. (2014). Augmented reality trends in education: A systematic review of research and applications. *Journal of Educational Technology and Society*, 17(4), 133–149.
- Bahadır, D. (2019). *Using web 3.0 technologies for teaching English to the primary level students: A study on augmented reality* (Master thesis). Istanbul University, Istanbul.
- Balhiyah, H., & Elhami, M. (2015). English as a medium of instruction in the Gulf: When students and teachers speak. *Language Policy*, 14(3), 3–23.
- Başıbek, N., Dolmacı, M., Cengiz, B. C., Bur, B., Dilek, Y., & Kara, B. (2014). Lecturers' perceptions of English medium instruction at engineering departments of higher education: A study on partial English medium instruction at some state universities in Turkey. *Procedia – Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 116, 1819–1825.
- Billinghurst, M., & Duenser, A. (2012). Augmented reality in the classroom. *Computer*, 45, 56–63.
- Billinghurst, M., Kato, H., & Poupyrev, I. (2001). *MagicBook: Transitioning between reality and virtuality*. Paper presented at CHI'01 extended abstracts on Human factors in computing systems, Seattle, Washington. <https://doi.org/10.1145/634086.634087>
- Block, D., & Moncada-Comas, B. (2019). English-medium instruction in higher education and the ELT gaze: STEM lecturers' self-positioning as NOT English language teachers. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 1–17. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2019.1689917>
- Boonbrahm, S., Kaewrat, C., & Boonbrahm, P. (2015). Using augmented reality Technology in Assisting English Learning for primary school students. In P. Zaphiris & A. Ioannou (Eds.), *Learning and collaboration technologies. LCT 2015. Lecture notes in computer science* (Vol. 9192). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-20609-7_3
- Bradford, A. (2016). Toward a typology of implementation challenges facing English-medium instruction in higher education: Evidence from Japan. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 20(4), 339–356. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315316647165>
- Çakır, R., Solak, E., & Tan, S. S. (2015). Artırılmış Gerçeklik Teknolojisi ile Kelime Öğretiminin Öğrenci Performansına Etkisi. *Gazi Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi*, 1(1), 45–58.
- Chen, C. M., & Tsai, Y. N. (2012). Interactive augmented reality system for enhancing library instruction in elementary schools. *Computers & Education*, 59(2), 638–652.
- Chen, I., & Yen, J. (2013). Hypertext annotation: Effects of presentation formats and learner proficiency on reading comprehension and vocabulary learning in foreign languages. *Computers & Education*, 63, 416–423. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2013.01.005>
- Dafouz, E. (2018). English-medium instruction and teacher education programmes in higher education: Ideological forces and imagined identities at work. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 21(5), 540–552. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2018.1487926>
- Dimova, S., Hultgren, A. K., & Jensen, C. (2015). English-medium instruction in European higher education: Review and future research. In S. Dimova, A. K. Hultgren, & C. Jensen (Eds.), *English-medium instruction in European higher education. Language and social life* (pp. 317–324). De Gruyter Mouton.
- Doğan, Ö. (2016). *The effectiveness of augmented reality supported materials on vocabulary learning and retention* (Doctoral dissertation), İzzet Baysal University, Bolu, Turkey.
- Dudeney, G., & Hockly, N. (2012). ICT in ELT: How did we get here and where are we going? *ELT Journal*, 66(4), 533–542. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccs050>
- Dupuy, B. (2000). Content-based instruction: Can it help ease the transition from beginning to advanced foreign language classes. *Foreign Language Annals*, 33(2), 205–223.

- Hu, G. (2019). English-medium instruction in higher education: Lessons from China. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, 16(1), 1–11.
- İbili, E., & Şahin, S. (2013). Artırılmış gerçeklik ile interaktif 3d geometri kitabı yazılımın tasarımı ve geliştirilmesi: ARGE3D. *Afyon Kocatepe Üniversitesi Fen ve Mühendislik Bilimleri Dergisi*, 13(1), 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.5578/fmbd.6213>
- Kaleci, D., Demirel, T. & Akkuş, İ. (2016). *Örnek Bir Artırılmış Gerçeklik Uygulaması Tasarımı*. Paper presented at Akademik Bilişim Konferansı, Aydın, Turkey, 30 January–5 February 2016.
- Karacan, C. G. (2019). *Exploring factors that predict pre-service English teachers' intentions to use augmented reality using decomposed theory of planned behavior* (Master thesis). Bahçeşehir University, Istanbul, Turkey.
- Karakaş, A. (2016). Turkish lecturers' views on the place of mother tongue in the teaching of content courses through English medium. *Asian Englishes*, 18(3), 242–257. <https://doi.org/10.1080/013488678.2016.1229831>
- Karakaş, A. (2018). Visible language-covert policy: An investigation of language policy documents at EMI universities in Turkey. *International Online Journal of Education and Teaching*, 5(4), 788–807. <https://iojet.org/index.php/IOJET/article/view/436>
- Karakaş, A. (2019). A critical look at the phenomenon of 'a mixed-up use of Turkish and English' in English-medium instruction universities in Turkey. *Journal of Higher Education and Science*, 9(2), 205–215. <https://doi.org/10.5961/jhes.2019.32>
- Kerawalla, L., Luckin, R., Seljeflot, S., & Woolard, A. (2006, December). "Making it real": Exploring the potential of augmented reality for teaching primary school science. *Virtual Reality*, 10(3–4), 163–174.
- Kılıçkaya, F. (2006). Instructors' attitudes towards English-medium instruction in Turkey. *Humanising Language Teaching*, 8(6), 1–16.
- Kırkgöz, Y., & Dikilitaş, K. (2018). Recent developments in ESP/EAP/EMI contexts. In *Key issues in English for specific purposes in higher education* (pp. 1–10). Springer.
- Koutromanos, G., Sofos, A., & Avraamidou, L. (2015). The use of augmented reality games in education: A review of the literature. *Educational Media International*, 52(4), 253–271.
- Küçük, S. (2015). *Effects of learning anatomy via mobile augmented reality on medical students' academic achievement, cognitive load, and views toward implementation* (Doctoral dissertation). Atatürk University, Erzurum, Turkey.
- Küçük, S., Yılmaz, R. M., & Göktaş, Y. (2014). Augmented reality for learning English: Achievement, attitude and cognitive load levels of students. *Education & Science/Eğitim ve Bilim*, 39(176), 393–404.
- Lei, J., & Hu, G. (2014). Is English-medium instruction effective in improving Chinese undergraduate students' English competence? *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 52(2), 99–126.
- Macaro, E., Hultgren, A. K., Kirkpatrick, A., & Lasagabaster, D. (2019). English medium instruction: Global views and countries in focus: Introduction to the symposium held at the Department of Education, University of Oxford on Wednesday 4 November 2015. *Language Teaching*, 52(2), 231–248.
- Martin, S., Diaz, G., Sancristobal, E., Gil, R., Castro, M., & Peire, J. (2011). New technology trends in education: Seven years of forecast and convergence. *Computer and Education*, 57(3), 1893–1906.
- Ministry of National Education. (2018). *Turkey's education vision 2023 report*. URL: http://planipolis.iiep.unesco.org/sites/planipolis/files/ressources/turkey_education_vision_2023.pdf
- Owu-Ewie, C., & Eshun, E. S. (2015). The use of English as a medium of instruction at the upper basic level (primary four to junior high school) in Ghana: From theory to practice. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 6(3), 72–82.
- Özer, M. (2016). The internationalization of higher education in Turkey: Realities, motivations and opportunities. *Insight Turkey*, 18(4), 53–63.
- Özlu, F. (2017). The advent of Turkey's industry 4.0. *Turkish Policy Quarterly*, 16(2), 29–38.

- Pozharina, G. (2019). *The effects of using mobile augmented reality integrated materials on students' motivation and attitude level in EFL academic writing* (Master thesis). İstanbul Aydin University, İstanbul.
- Radu, I. (2012). *Why should my students use AR? A comparative review of the educational impacts of augmented-reality*. Proceedings of 2012 IEEE International Symposium on Mixed and Augmented Reality (ISMAR). Atlanta, the USA, 5–8 November 2012. <https://doi.org/10.1109/ISMAR.2012.6402590>
- Sanna, A., & Manuri, F. (2016). A survey on applications of augmented reality. *Advances in Computer Science: An International Journal*, 5(1), 18–27.
- Santos, M. E., Lübke, A. I., Taketomi, T., Yamamoto, G., Rodrigo, M. M., Sandor, C., & Kato, H. (2016). Augmented reality as multimedia: The case for situated vocabulary learning. *Research and Practice in Technology Enhanced Learning*, 11(1), 1–23. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s41039-016-0028-2>
- Schleicher, A. (2018). Educating Turkey's students for their future, not our past. *Turkish Policy Quarterly*, 16(4), 39–44.
- Solak, E., & Cakir, R. (2015). Investigating the role of augmented reality technology in the language classroom. *Croatian Journal of Education*, 18(4), 1067–1085.
- Turhan, B., & Kırkgöz, Y. (2018). Motivation of engineering students and lecturers toward English medium instruction at tertiary level in Turkey. *Dil ve Dilbilimi Çalışmaları Dergisi*, 14(1), 261–277.
- Wang, Y. (2017). Exploring the effectiveness of integrating augmented reality-based materials to support writing activities. *Computers & Education*, 113, 162–176. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2017.04.013>
- Yeni, G. (2018). *The effect of 21st century skills training on foreign language teachers' perceptions regarding their educational technology and materials development competencies* (Master thesis). İstanbul University, İstanbul, Turkey.
- Yılmaz, R. M., & Göktaş, Y. (2017). Using augmented reality technology in storytelling activities: Examining elementary students' narrative skill and creativity. *Virtual Reality*, 21(2), 75–89.

Part III
Focus on Learning Through English
Medium Instruction

Questioning the Metacognitive Reading Strategies in an English-Medium Instruction (EMI) Setting



Mustafa Çoban and Salim Razi

Abstract English-medium instruction (EMI) has already been an inseparable component of numerous tertiary education systems across the globe. As a receptive skill, reading is considered to be the main input source in EMI contexts. Given the gap between departmental studies and intensive English programs, the complexity of reading texts in EMI courses can place a burden on university students, especially for those who cannot employ effective reading strategies. Therefore, this mixed method study aims to investigate the metacognitive reading strategies used by students at a technical university in Turkey where EMI is implemented in engineering departments. To triangulate the quantitative data retrieved from a scale called Metacognitive Reading Strategies Questionnaire (MRSQ), a focus group interview session was conducted with six participants. For data analysis, NVivo 12 Pro and Amazon AWS Transcribe were used. The quantitative results showed that the participants tended to use analytic strategies (determining the meaning of critical words, visualizing descriptions and drawing on self-knowledge) more than pragmatic ones (re-reading for better comprehension and making notes to help them remember). However, the qualitative results revealed that the interviewed participants favored pragmatic strategies: they made notes, underlined critical information, translated and used margins for notetaking. In addition, the participants highlighted the importance of guidance by their EMI instructors as regards the use of strategies. The pedagogical implications of this study encourage the implementation of both analytic and pragmatic reading strategies in EMI settings and highlight the importance of PD (Professional Development) activities to train subject teachers in implementing strategies in their courses.

M. Çoban (✉)
Bursa Technical University, Bursa, Turkey
e-mail: mustafa.coban@btu.edu.tr

S. Razi
Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Çanakkale, Turkey
e-mail: salimrazi@comu.edu.tr

© The Author(s), under exclusive license to Springer Nature
Switzerland AG 2022

Y. Kirkgöz, A. Karakaş (eds.), *English as the Medium of Instruction in Turkish Higher Education*, Multilingual Education 40,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-88597-7_11

Keywords Analytic strategies · English-Medium Instruction (EMI) · Metacognitive reading strategies · Pragmatic strategies · Tertiary education

1 Introduction

Globalization, together with all its instruments and international higher education systems, means that countries are closely intertwined. Even if this close relationship opens up opportunities to universities, it poses some challenges and threats to nearly all aspects of tertiary education systems (Altbach, 2004). Given such complexities, it would be useful to take the interface between macro- and micro-level language policies into consideration. While a certain governing body such as authorities or policymakers that arrange language policies refer to macro-level aspects, parties inside an educational ecosystem like instructors, school members and administrators form micro-level language policy actors (Johnson, 2013). Providing the impetus for global tertiary education systems, EMI stands out as an extensive research area from macro to micro levels (Dearden, 2015). The field of second language acquisition, offering many insights into EMI research, signifies the collaboration between subject teachers and language teachers. However, this collaboration is not always easily constructed since there are several gaps among stakeholders, particularly in terms of micro levels (Macaro, 2019). Therefore, it is essential to conduct research as to how and to what extent EMI learners learn or progress in an EMI context (Coşgun & Hasırcı, 2017). However, several studies conducted in the Turkish context (e.g. Arkin, 2013; Başıbek et al., 2014; Ekoç, 2020; Karakaş, 2014, 2016, 2017; Kılıçkaya, 2006; Kırkgöz, 2014, 2018; Somer, 2001; Ölçü & Eröz-Tuğa, 2013) opted to focus on the attitudes of lecturers and students towards EMI programs at tertiary level in Turkey. Unlike those studies, instead of giving more attention to research of attitudes and perceptions, some researchers, again in the Turkish context (e.g. Macaro & Akıncioğlu, 2018; Macaro et al., 2016), have conducted large-scale studies including more variables such as gender, year of study, student academic achievement and the type of university. Similarly, investigating the micro aspects of EMI rather than examining only the views of stakeholders might yield more comprehensive and pedagogical implications (Dafouz & Camacho-Miñano, 2016).

Considering the overwhelming number of learners in higher education institutions who are non-native speakers of English, metacognitive reading strategy instruction can play a crucial role in compensating for the drawbacks stemming from the nature of EMI programs. Investigating less-researched areas like metacognitive strategies in EMI contexts can help EMI students learn to learn and become more active readers. In fact, very few studies have touched upon micro issues in EMI classes. Given that limited studies have been carried out on academic L2 reading in the EMI context, it is crucial to draw implications for EMI language teachers, EMI policy makers, course book writers and, in particular, EMI teachers at faculties.

As this short summary of the relevant literature indicates, it is necessary to design studies that focus on areas such as the four skills, teacher-student interaction, course materials and assessment tools in order to address the gaps in EMI classrooms. Given that the internalization of academic programs has naturally necessitated the use of course materials and packages in the English language, L2 academic reading offers varied research areas such as types of academic reading strategies, EMI reading course materials, and metacognitive awareness (Jiang et al., 2019; Li & Munby, 1996; Li & Ruan, 2015; Malmström et al., 2017; Nergis, 2013; Ping, 2007).

This study aims to investigate what metacognitive reading strategies EMI students generally use in an engineering class at a technical university and what the students think about these strategies. This study addressed the following research questions:

1. What metacognitive reading strategies do the participants use?
2. What are the participants' opinions toward metacognitive reading strategies in an EMI context?

2 Previous Studies

In recent years, the popularity of EMI programs in Turkey and the global context has increased. As for the Turkish context, there are numerous studies that sought answers to different stakeholders' such as lecturers and students' attitudes and views on EMI programs (Başibek et al. 2014; Ekoç 2020; Kılıçkaya, 2006; Kırkgöz, 2009, 2013, 2014; Karakaş, 2014, 2016, 2017; Ölçü & Eröz, 2013; Somer, 2001). The trend of researching attitudes and opinions of EMI stakeholders in a global context shows similarities with the Turkish one (Byun et al., 2011; Doiz et al., 2011; Floris, 2014; Hu & Lei, 2014). Focusing on the commonalities of these studies, we can argue that the majority of stakeholders expressed serious concerns, particularly regarding the acquisition of content knowledge rather than the instruction of language. Although these studies seemed to address the general viewpoint towards EMI programs, they held back from touching upon specific points, such as academic reading, metacognitive strategies and EMI course materials. Even if such studies provide an overall picture of these programs, it is necessary to shed light on other, more important aspects within EMI contexts.

Academic L2 reading has been regarded as one of the main components of any program at higher education institutions as reading still appears to be the most crucial means of gathering information. Considering the demands of EMI programs, academic reading can often be burdensome when learners are trying to acquire subject knowledge. This means that EMI students have to cope with a great number of academic texts and need to be equipped with certain metacognitive strategies. Undoubtedly, the type of strategies that learners use or avoid has attracted researchers for a long time. Two prominent researchers, Rubin (1975) and Stern (1975), aimed to identify the strategies of successful learners long time ago. Their studies

encouraged others to also reveal the characteristics of unsuccessful learners (e.g. Hosenfeld, 1976, 1977). For instance, Li and Munby (1996) investigated the preferences of metacognitive strategies in academic L2 reading. Using an in-depth qualitative research design, this study revealed that university students consciously utilized different metacognitive strategies such as translating, using background knowledge and underlining topic sentences in order to make their L2 academic reading journey more comprehensible and meaningful. In another study, investigating academic reading, Nergis (2013) compared the effectiveness of three components: the depth of vocabulary knowledge, metacognitive strategies, and syntactic awareness. Forty-five students from an English language teaching program in an EMI university in Turkey contributed to the research. In this particular study, the researcher found that while the depth of vocabulary knowledge did not have a strong impact on the success of better academic reading comprehension, syntactic awareness and metacognitive strategies proved to be effective and powerful. In addition, Razi (2008) conducted an extensive study investigating the effect of different foreign language backgrounds on metacognitive reading strategies. In this study, the participants ($n = 205$) favored 'determining meaning of critical words', 'drawing on knowledge' and 're-reading for better comprehension' as the most frequently-used metacognitive reading strategies.

Given the volume of English texts published for university students, Iwai (2011) emphasizes the necessity of saving EFL and ESL learners from being passive readers with the aid of explicit metacognitive reading strategy instruction. While teaching these strategies explicitly, instructors are advised to vary their techniques by using methods such as modeling, illustrations, coloring and clustering ideas. Thanks to these techniques and approaches, creating independent readers who can easily adapt themselves to metacognitive reading strategies will be a big step forward in any program. In another study conducted by Karbalaei (2010), the researcher explored the implementation of metacognitive strategies in similar contexts (96 Iranians and 93 Indians); the results showed that EFL and ESL students paid a certain level of attention towards strategies. While EFL learners relied on problem-solving strategies such as utilizing reference sources and trying to focus on reading, ESL learners opted to use strategies aimed at better understanding the text, like resolving conflicting information and underlining information. Stressing the importance of creating 'active readers', this study recommends the inclusion of metacognitive reading strategies in the curriculum of universities in order to boost the academic success of learners.

In a case study, Nash-Ditzel (2010) also signifies the possibility of college success thanks to metacognitive reading strategies. However, the researcher warns that this success will not be beneficial unless the instructors give feedback and provide ongoing assessment and modeling. Similar to the findings of previous studies, Aghaie and Zhang (2012) explored the relationship between explicit metacognitive reading strategy instruction and the success of self-regulated learners at university level. Since internalization of these metacognitive strategies does not occur either easily or in a short period, it is important that instructors are aware of a repertoire of different metacognitive reading strategies (Lawrence, 2007; Singhal, 2001). In

addition to this, systematic and ongoing instruction of metacognitive strategies is a must in order to enhance self-learning (Çubukcu, 2008; Pintrich, 2002). To summarize, the degree of success in adopting these strategies depends on teachers' consistency and readiness.

Given the complexity of metacognitive strategies, professional development support seems to be useful and necessary for the implementation of a proper educational program. Without providing adequate professional support and lesson tools regarding metacognitive strategies, it would not be fair to expect EMI subject teachers to use and model metacognitive reading strategies in their classrooms. Although the research area of professional development for EMI teachers is in its infancy, there are some studies that promote the establishment of professional support for EMI programs. For instance, Macaro et al. (2016) revealed that an active and effective cooperation channel between preparatory program teachers and EMI subject teachers would yield fruitful results in terms of subject knowledge acquisition as well as novel approaches for collaborative professional development activities. Using a bottom-up approach, Farrell (2020) signified the importance of reflective practice and supported the view that ongoing professional development with experience and reflection can boost the performance of EMI teachers. Similarly, researching the relationship between professional development (PD) and EMI certification, Macaro and Han (2020) revealed that EMI teachers in China found certification and PD activities necessary and useful. However, according to the implications of this study, the challenges resulting from the complex nature of EMI program requirements and the lack of macro policies in Chinese higher education need to be solved in order to establish EMI certification and a PD system in the Chinese context. Macaro et al. (2020) also carried out a study investigating the attitudes of EMI teachers from varying countries ($n = 463$) towards PD and certification in EMI contexts. The study revealed that most EMI teachers are trying to cope with the program without receiving any PD support and those teachers reported that they are keen on certification and PD activities. Although EMI programs have received more attention than any other academic programs, the availability of PD activities and certification is less than the expected level.

Another crucial point in academic knowledge development is called disciplinary literacy that promotes dynamic and active reading-writing approaches while building content knowledge rather than simply reading and writing activities (Airey, 2011). Given the increasing number of EMI programs in Swedish higher education context, there have been attempts to seek solutions to the problems that students face while acquiring disciplinary knowledge. For instance, Airey and Linder (2006) conducted a qualitative study in order to explore the instructors' lecturing in English and Swedish and the learning experience of undergraduate physics students in those languages. The results of this study have pedagogical implications for instructors such as allowing students to ask and answer questions before lessons, using visual aids for clarification and assigning them pre-reading tasks and providing lecture notes. In another study, collecting data from the undergraduate biology students from both a major university in Sweden and in Britain, Shaw and McMillion (2008)

investigated the differences of reading skills between advanced L2 learners and equivalent native speaker of English university students. This study showed that when advanced L2 users were given adequate time, they were as successful as the British participants in coping with EMI Biology reading materials and course books. More specifically, disciplinary literacy research illustrates the necessity of utilizing novel approaches so that EMI students can interact with subject matter texts and materials effectively.

3 Methodology

In this study, a mixed-method research design was utilized in order to gain a broader perspective on metacognitive strategy use. As to showing the importance of using both qualitative and quantitative data, Dörnyei (2007) states that “mixed methods research has a unique potential to produce evidence for the validity of research outcomes through the convergence and corroboration of the findings” (p. 45). Given the type of mixed-method research design, convergent parallel design was utilized. The quantitative and qualitative data were collected independently and separately. However, the findings retrieved from both data set were discussed and evaluated collaboratively (Creswell, 2011).

3.1 Setting and Participants

This study was conducted at a technical state university in Turkey where EMI is implemented in most of the engineering departments. A total of 41 university students ($n_{\text{male}} = 32$, $n_{\text{female}} = 9$) from the mechanical engineering department contributed to the study. The participants were all young adults (average age 21) and were selected according to convenience sampling. All participants were native speakers of Turkish. As regards their proficiency level in English, the participants had to complete an English preparatory program successfully (at least B2 level) before they started their EMI program. Taking into account research ethics, all the participants were informed about the study and it was clearly explained to them that participation would not affect their grades. They all agreed to take part in the study and signed the consent form.

3.2 Data Collection Instruments and Procedure

The quantitative data for this study were collected using the Metacognitive Reading Strategies Questionnaire (MRSQ) prepared by Taraban et al. (2004). This scale consists of two main sections: analytic strategies (16 statements) and pragmatic

strategies (6 statements). The qualitative data were collected via a focus group interview session.

The data collection procedure was divided into two stages. In the first stage, the participants were asked to rate strategy use under five sections based on a Likert-type scale with anchors arranged from never to always (1: never, 2: rarely, 3: sometimes, 4: often, 5: always). In the second stage, a focus group interview session was conducted with six volunteer participants.

3.3 Data Analysis

The data obtained from the MRSQ questionnaire were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS 25) employing descriptive statistics. The mean scores were calculated, and the findings were listed in a descending order on the tables below. To analyze the responses from the focus group interview, thematic content analysis based on common and recurring themes was utilized. NVivo 12 Pro and Amazon AWS Transcribe were used in order to facilitate qualitative data analysis process. In doing so, inductive coding approach was adopted and utilized in order to seek recurring patterns in raw data set. Inter-rater reliability was carried out with the participation of an independent researcher that coded 10% of the data. Following this, Cohen's κ was used to ensure consistency between the researcher and independent researcher. The interrater reliability for the researchers was found to be $\kappa = .88$ with $p < .001$, which revealed an almost perfect agreement.

4 Findings

Research Question 1: What metacognitive reading strategies do the participants use?

Table 1 below shows the most frequently used metacognitive strategies by the participants, according to the MRSQ survey.

As for the distribution of items in the questionnaire, the first 16 statements are the analytic strategies section and the rest of the 6 statements are pragmatic strategies. As Table 1 illustrates, item S12 (determining meaning of critical words), item S22 (re-reading for better comprehension), item S15 (visualizing descriptions), item S3 (drawing on knowledge) and item S16 (noting how hard or easy a text is to read) were considered to be employed by the participants. This result indicates that the participants opted to use analytic strategies rather than pragmatic ones. While the most-frequently used analytical strategies referred to crucial words, visuals and the level of text difficulty, only one pragmatic strategy was used among the preferred strategies.

Table 1 Overall descriptive statistics of Metacognitive Reading Strategies Questionnaire (MRSQ) items (N = 41)

	<i>Min.</i>	<i>Max.</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
S12 determine meaning of critical words	1	5	4.20	1.01
S22 re-read for better comprehension	2	5	4.17	0.89
S15 visualize descriptions	1	5	4.10	0.97
S3 draw on own knowledge	1	5	4.05	0.97
S16 note how hard or easy a text is to read	2	5	4.02	0.99
S7 distinguish new and existing info	1	5	3.95	0.95
S14 exploit personal strengths	1	5	3.93	1.10
S8 infer meaning	1	5	3.80	0.93
S2 anticipate how to use own knowledge	2	5	3.80	0.81
S1 evaluate understanding	1	5	3.76	0.86
S4 reconsider and revise background info	2	5	3.76	0.77
S17 make notes to remember important info	1	5	3.54	1.31
S18 underline and highlight important info	1	5	3.51	1.31
S9 evaluate goals	1	5	3.46	1.08
S21 read more than once to remember more	1	5	3.39	0.95
S10 search out info relevant to goals	1	5	3.37	0.97
S11 anticipate next info	1	5	3.22	1.13
S6 consider interpretations	1	5	3.20	0.87
S5 reconsider and revise prior questions	1	5	3.20	1.01
S19 use margins for notes	1	5	3.17	1.41
S20 underline to remember better	1	5	2.93	1.25
S13 check understanding of current info	1	5	2.78	0.96

Research Question 2: What are the participants' opinions toward metacognitive reading strategies in an EMI context?

The focus group interview was carried out with 6 participants to investigate their views on the use and aspects of metacognitive reading strategies in an EMI context. The participants were represented with letters to ensure the confidentiality of participants. Table 2 provides information on the themes derived from the qualitative data analysis.

As can be seen in Table 2, a total number of 4 major themes have been revealed: strategy preferences by students, previous experience on strategy training, EMI course books and materials evaluation and finally the use of strategies by subject teachers. It is clear from major theme 1 that pragmatic strategies were relatively salient and useful for the students. As for major theme 2, the students mostly reported the inadequacy of strategy instruction and signified the importance of this instruction or training before university education starts. The next theme gave invaluable insights into the expectation of EMI course books and materials from a student perspective. The last theme referred to the necessity of professional development activities.

Table 3 compares the results obtained from the questionnaire with focus group interview data. While the results from the questionnaire showed that the participants

Table 2 Major and minor themes retrieved from the thematic content analysis

Major themes	Minor themes
Metacognitive reading strategies preferences by the students (Theme 1)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pragmatic strategies • Strategies for remedial attempts
Previous metacognitive reading strategy experience (Theme 2)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lacking an extensive training on metacognitive reading strategies • The inadequacy of reading strategy instruction given at English preparatory program • The advantages of learning metacognitive reading strategies at an early period
EMI course book and material evaluation (Theme 3)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The content of the course books • The design and layout the course books • The difficulty level of EMI course books • The importance of offering tailor-made course materials by subject teachers
The use of metacognitive reading strategies by subject teachers (Theme 4)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The necessity of professional development

Table 3 Comparison of data from questionnaire versus interview findings indicating students' top priorities

Questionnaire	Interview
Determining meaning of words critical to the meaning of the text	Making notes when reading
Re-reading for better comprehension	Focusing on the main idea in the text
Visualizing descriptions to better understand the text	Underlining critical information
Drawing on knowledge of the topic to help me understand what I am reading.	Referring to a dictionary for unknown words
Noting how hard or easy a text is to read	Summarizing the information in the text
	Translating the key information in the text

seemed to under-use pragmatic strategies: 'making notes to remember (S17)', 'underlining and highlighting important info (S18)', 'using margins for notes (S19)' and 'underlining to remember' (S20)', the interview results revealed that the participants tend to use strategies such as 'making notes', 'underlining critical information' and 'summarizing information'. Another difference between the questionnaire and interview results was that the participants reported strategies (e.g. translating key information, using a dictionary) that may help them comprehend texts in a practical way (see Theme 1). Such differences could be due to participants' unawareness of the strategies they employ (Noda, 2003). It is clear that pragmatic strategies were more salient according to the findings of the interviews.

In addition to the aforementioned difference between quantitative and qualitative data, the evaluation of EMI course materials, the timing of metacognitive strategy instruction and professional development activities for subject teachers were major points. In order to highlight these features, some of the salient ideas are presented below:

- Subject knowledge from a Turkish course book is better than an EMI equivalent (see Theme 3).
- There is excessive jargon and terminology in EMI course books. In fact, they are too detailed (see Theme 3).
- Some EMI course books have a summary section at the end of each chapter, which makes it easier to understand the concepts and key information (see Theme 3).
- When EMI course books support the texts with visuals, graphics and pictures, we do not need to spend time looking up unknown words (see Theme 3).
- The margin notes and underlined sections in EMI course books are useful (see Theme 3).
- It would be too late to receive metacognitive reading strategy instruction at university level, so it is better to learn at high school or even before that (see Theme 2).
- Reading strategies instruction given in a preparatory program might not always be relevant to the EMI reading context (see Theme 2).
- EMI subject teachers need to attend professional development training courses in order to use and model metacognitive strategies properly (see Theme 4).

The participants reported that EMI course books and course materials should be tailored-made as regards their content and design. In addition, they believed that if subject teachers could guide learners while, before and after reading EMI materials, they would minimize the problems that they encounter due to the nature of the EMI program. For instance, one of the participants reported how an EMI subject teacher facilitated the use of the course book:

For example, one of our faculty teachers gives us 10 or 15-page lecture notes that **summarize the critical information** in the course. This equates to the summary of a 500-page book. Everybody knows the difficulty of thermodynamics course books. Also, he **supports these notes with visuals, graphics and margin notes**. He is the king for all of us! (Student B)

The participants were asked in what ways they would improve course books as to metacognitive reading strategies if they were the author of EMI course books (see Theme 3):

For example, I would **highlight the most important points** in the text **with red or a similar color**. You just want to read and understand the most important parts. This is basic human behavior, you know. (Student C)

What I would do if I were an author? I would **add margin notes for important formulas, use different coloring**, whatever is more important, etc. These notes would be useful, especially for terms that are not available in Turkish. I also would **add guiding letters** and with the help of this the student could find it conveniently rather than go and look for important information in 100-200 pages. You are an EMI student and you have 1000 pages of a thermodynamics book in your hand – I am always lost in it, so I would **add summarizing chapters and a guide or signs for formulas**. (Student D)

I would design a course book with texts that are **easy to read and follow**. I believe that EMI course book writers add so many pages explaining in too much detail. Learning subject knowledge is extra difficult in English, so EMI course books should eliminate this drawback. (Student A)

In short, as a result of the interviews with participants, the practicality of EMI course materials need to be boosted by providing margin notes, coloring of important sections, and summary and terminology sections, which all seem to be a remedy for the academic reading-based problems in their classes. Additionally, the participants gave EMI course designers and course book writers an inside perspective on EMI course books. Finally, they signified two points regarding metacognitive reading strategy training and instruction: the necessity of strategy training for subject teachers and strategy instruction for learners at an early age (i.e. before university level). Of course, it would be naïve to expect young learners to practice metacognitive strategies at a very early age (see Flavell, 1999; Kuhn, 2000).

5 Discussion

This study aimed to reveal what metacognitive reading strategies EMI students generally use in an engineering class at a technical university and their views on aspects of metacognitive reading strategy use in an EMI context. The findings indicated that the metacognitive strategies that EMI students mostly use address one issue: to understand a text better and better. Similar to the findings of Li and Munby (1996), Nergis (2013) and Razi (2008), the participants relied on a combination of different strategies such as extracting key words from the text, re-reading for better comprehension, and translating or summarizing the critical sections in order to deepen their understanding of knowledge within their discipline. As with Razi's (2008) study investigating the use of metacognitive reading strategies, the participants tended to use analytic strategies more and pragmatic strategies less. This finding shows similarity with the questionnaire results of this study. However, during the interview, the students reported that they favor pragmatic strategies (see Theme 1). Since there is a scarcity of research on metacognitive reading strategies in EMI contexts, studies from EFL and ESL contexts have been reviewed (Aghaie & Zhang, 2012; Çubukcu, 2008; Karbalaei, 2010; Lawrence, 2007; Nash-Ditzel, 2010; Pintrich, 2002; Singhal, 2001). These studies revealed that it takes time and a systematic approach to internalize metacognitive reading strategies. Similarly, believing that metacognitive reading strategy instruction should be given before the university education starts, the students signified the importance of enough period of time for acquiring the analytic and pragmatic strategies (see Theme 2). In other words, learning how to learn does not happen at once. Despite the contextual difference, the findings of these studies might offer this insight into the use of metacognitive reading strategies in EMI programs.

Having mentioned that there is not very much research on metacognitive reading strategies in EMI contexts, we have reviewed studies from EFL and ESL contexts. However, there are some disciplinary literacy studies that have implications for reading skills in EMI contexts (Airey, 2011; Airey & Linder, 2006; Shaw & McMillion, 2008). According to the findings of the study by Airey and Linder (2006), assigning reading texts before the actual lessons contribute to the quality of comprehending EMI subjects. In another study, Shaw and McMillion (2008) signified that giving adequate time before and while reading EMI texts boosted students' comprehension performance. Additionally, Airey (2011) mentioned that 'multi-modal approaches' are necessary for better acquisition of subject knowledge. The findings from the qualitative data of this study (see Themes) show parallelism with the aforementioned studies. In fact, adopting a novel and comprehensive approach rather than classical academic reading approaches will certainly build up EMI students' comprehension skills in their programs.

Another significant finding retrieved from the qualitative data points to the need of PD and training for EMI teachers. Similar to the findings suggested by Macaro et al. (2020) and Macaro and Han (2020), it can be postulated that an ongoing PD cycle should be set up and include competencies that enable EMI subject teachers to use and model metacognitive reading strategies. In fact, the participants here reported that the EMI subject teachers could and should guide them in using metacognitive reading strategies to their advantage (see Theme 4).

As for the dichotomy between the quantitative and qualitative findings, the participants favored analytic strategies in the questionnaire results while they prioritized more the use of pragmatic strategies (making notes, using margins, underlining key information, etc.) in their interview results. This discrepancy shows that the participants might be utilizing a combination of analytic and pragmatic strategies. Thus, training programs that promote the consciousness-raising activities of these strategies should be taken into consideration. In addition to this, systematic and ongoing metacognitive reading strategy instruction can help learners internalize the strategies.

6 Conclusion

This study investigated the metacognitive reading strategies that the participants generally used and their views toward metacognitive reading strategy use in the program. The results indicate that the participants tended to rely on analytical strategies rather than pragmatic ones. However, the results from interviews showed that the participants mostly use pragmatic strategies in combination with analytical ones. Additionally, the qualitative data suggested that EMI course books and materials should be designed more practically in order to support metacognitive reading strategy use. The qualitative results further indicated that EMI subject teachers need to be supported with training and PD activities for better metacognitive strategy instruction.

The findings of this study provide pedagogical implications for academic reading in EMI contexts. Firstly, EMI students should be equipped with knowledge of both analytic and pragmatic reading strategies in order to gain a deeper understanding of the disciplinary knowledge. Secondly, EMI teachers should be supported with PD activities, by means of which they can promote the use of metacognitive reading strategies. Furthermore, given the importance of course materials, EMI course book writers and EMI subject teachers should collaborate on the content, design and methodology of these materials. Since this study is context-bound, the generalizability of the findings might be limited. As such, further studies could collect data from various EMI stakeholders, institutions and departments in order to investigate the use of metacognitive reading strategies in detail.

References

- Aghaie, R., & Zhang, L. J. (2012). Effects of explicit instruction in cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies on Iranian EFL students' reading performance and strategy transfer. *Instructional Science*, 40(6), 1063–1081.
- Airey, J. (2011). The disciplinary literacy discussion matrix: A heuristic tool for initiating collaboration in higher education. *Across the Disciplines*, 8(3). <http://wac.colostate.edu/atd/clil/airey.cfm>
- Airey, J., & Linder, C. (2006). Language and the experience of learning university physics in Sweden. *European Journal of Physics*, 27, 553–560.
- Altbach, P. G. (2004). Globalisation and the university: Myths and realities in an unequal world. *Tertiary Education & Management*, 10(1), 3–25.
- Arkin, İ. E. (2013). *English-medium instruction in higher education: A case study in a Turkish university context*. Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Eastern Mediterranean University (EMU).
- Başıbek, N., Dolmacı, M., Cengiz, B. C., Bür, B., Dilek, Y., & Kara, B. (2014). Lecturers' perceptions of English medium instruction at engineering departments of higher education: A study on partial English medium instruction at some state universities in Turkey. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 116, 1819–1825.
- Byun, K., Chu, H., Kim, M., Park, I., Kim, S., & Jung, J. (2011). English-medium teaching in Korean higher education: Policy debates and reality. *Higher Education*, 62(4), 431–449.
- Coşgun, G., & Hasırcı, B. (2017). The impact of English medium instruction (EMI) on students' language abilities. *International Journal of Curriculum and Instruction*, 9, 11–20.
- Cresswell, J. W. (2011). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (4th ed.). PHI Learning Private.
- Çubukcu, F. (2008). How to enhance reading comprehension through metacognitive strategies. *The Journal of International Social Research*, 1&2, 83–93.
- Dafouz, E., & Camacho-Miñano, M. M. (2016). Exploring the impact of English-medium instruction on university student academic achievement: The case of accounting. *English for Specific Purposes*, 44, 57–67.
- Dearden, J. (2015). *English as a medium of instruction-a growing global phenomenon*. British Council. Retrieved from https://www.britishcouncil.org/sites/default/files/e484_emi_cover_option_3_final_web.pdf
- Doiz, A., Lasagabaster, D., & Sierra, J. M. (2011). Internationalisation, multilingualism and English-medium instruction. *World Englishes*, 30(3), 345–359.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics: Quantitative, qualitative and mixed methodologies*. Oxford University Press.

- Ekoc, A. (2020). English medium instruction (EMI) from the perspectives of students at a technical university in Turkey. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 44(2), 231–243.
- Farrell, T. S. (2020). Professional development through reflective practice for English-medium instruction (EMI) teachers. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 23(3), 277–286.
- Flavell, J. H. (1999). Cognitive development: Children's knowledge about the mind. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 50, 21–45.
- Floris, F. D. (2014). Learning subject matter through English as the medium of instruction: Students' and teachers' perspectives. *Asian Englishes*, 16(1), 47–59.
- Hosenfeld, C. (1976). Learning about learning: Discovering our students' strategies. *Foreign Language Annals*, 9, 117–129.
- Hosenfeld, C. (1977). A preliminary investigation of the reading strategies of successful and non-successful second language learners. *System*, 5, 110–123.
- Hu, G., & Lei, J. (2014). English-medium instruction in Chinese higher education: A case study. *Higher Education*, 67(5), 551–567.
- Iwai, Y. (2011). The effects of metacognitive reading strategies: Pedagogical implications for EFL/ESL teachers. *The Reading Matrix*, 11(2), 150–159.
- Jiang, L., Zhang, L. J., & May, S. (2019). Implementing English-medium instruction (EMI) in China: Teachers' practices and perceptions, and students' learning motivation and needs. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 22(2), 107–119.
- Johnson, D. C. (2013). *Language policy*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Karakaş, A. (2014). Lecturers' perceptions of their English abilities and language use in English-medium universities. *International Journal on New Trends in Education and Their Implications*, 5(2), 114–125.
- Karakaş, A. (2016). Turkish lecturers' views on the place of mother tongue in the teaching of content courses through English medium. *Asian Englishes*, 18(3), 1–16.
- Karakaş, A. (2017). The forgotten voices in higher education: Students' satisfaction with English-medium instruction. *The Journal of English as an International Language*, 12(1), 1–14.
- Karbalaei, A. (2010). A comparison of the metacognitive reading strategies used by EFL and ESL readers. *The Reading Matrix*, 10(2), 165–180.
- Kılıçkaya, F. (2006). Instructors' attitudes towards English-medium instruction in Turkey. *Humanising Language Teaching*, 8(6), 1–16.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2009). Students' and lecturers' perceptions of the effectiveness of foreign language instruction in an English-medium university in Turkey. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 14(1), 81–93.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2013). Students' approaches to learning in an English-medium higher education. *The Journal of Language Teaching and Learning*, 2, 30–39.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2014). Students' perceptions of English language versus Turkish language used as the medium of instruction in higher education in Turkey. *Turkish Studies*, 9(12), 443–459.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2018). Confronting similar challenges?: Exploring students' experiences of studying engineering at a Turkish university: Turkish versus English-language medium of instruction. *Rassegna Italiana di Linguistica Applicata*, 2-3, 145–160.
- Kuhn, D. (2000). Metacognitive development. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 9(5), 178–181.
- Lawrence, L. J. (2007). Cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies revisited: Implications for instruction. *The Reading Matrix*, 7(3), 55–71.
- Li, C., & Ruan, Z. (2015). Changes in beliefs about language learning among Chinese EAP learners in an EMI context in Mainland China: A socio-cultural perspective. *System*, 55, 43–52.
- Li, S., & Munby, H. (1996). Metacognitive strategies in second language academic reading: A qualitative investigation. *English for Specific Purposes*, 15(3), 199–216.
- Macaro, E. (2019). Exploring the role of language in English medium instruction. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 23(3), 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2019.1620678>

- Macaro, E., & Akincioglu, M. (2018). Turkish university students' perceptions about English medium instruction: Exploring year group, gender and university type as variables. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 39(3), 256–270. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2017.1367398>
- Macaro, E., Akincioglu, M., & Dearden, J. (2016). English medium instruction in universities: A collaborative experiment in Turkey. *Studies in English Language Teaching*, 4(1), 51–76. <https://doi.org/10.22158/selt.v4n1p51>
- Macaro, E., Akincioglu, M., & Han, S. (2020). English medium instruction in higher education: Teacher perspectives on professional development and certification. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 30(1), 144–157.
- Macaro, E., & Han, S. (2020). English medium instruction in China's higher education: Teachers' perspectives of competencies, certification and professional development. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 41(3), 219–231.
- Malmström, H., Mežek, Š., Pecorari, D., Shaw, P., & Irvine, A. (2017). Engaging with terminology in the multilingual classroom: Teachers' practices for bridging the gap between L1 lectures and English reading. *Classroom Discourse*, 8(1), 3–18.
- Nash-Ditzel, S. (2010). Metacognitive reading strategies can improve self-regulation. *Journal of College Reading and Learning*, 40(2), 45–63.
- Nergis, A. (2013). Exploring the factors that affect reading comprehension of EAP learners. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 12(1), 1–9.
- Noda, M. (2003). Evaluation in reading. In H. Nara & M. Noda (Eds.), *Acts of reading: Exploring connections in pedagogy of Japanese* (pp. 197–222). University of Hawai'i Press.
- Ölçü, Z., & Eröz, T. B. (2013). Attitudes of university faculty towards English medium instruction in Turkey. *Çankaya University Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 10(2), 185–200.
- Ping, D. N. F. (2007). Medium and learning in Chinese and English in Hong Kong classrooms. *Language Policy*, 6(1), 163–183.
- Pintrich, P. R. (2002). The role of metacognitive knowledge in learning, teaching, and assessing. *Theory Into Practice*, 41(4), 219–225.
- Razi, S. (2008). The impact of learning multiple foreign languages on using metacognitive reading strategies. *The Reading Matrix*, 8, 117–138.
- Rubin, J. (1975). What the “good language learner” can teach us. *TESOL Quarterly*, 9(1), 41–51.
- Shaw, P., & McMillion, A. (2008). Proficiency effects and compensation in advanced second-language reading. *Nordic Journal of English Studies*, 7(3), 123–143.
- Singhal, M. (2001). Reading proficiency, reading strategies, metacognitive awareness and L2 readers. *The Reading Matrix*, 1(1), 1–10.
- Somer, S. (2001). *The role of English-medium instruction in engineering and architecture courses at Anadolu University*. Unpublished master's thesis, Bilkent University, Ankara, Turkey.
- Stern, H. H. (1975). What can we learn from the good language learner? *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 34, 304–318.
- Taraban, R., Kerr, M., & Rynearson, K. (2004). Analytic and pragmatic factors in college students' metacognitive reading strategies. *Reading Psychology*, 25(2), 67–81.

Exploring the Functions of *Okay* as a Discourse Marker in an English-Medium Instruction Class



Erdem Akbaş and Betül Bal-Gezegin

Abstract The discourse marker *okay* has multi-functions within classroom discourse paving the way for interpersonal communication and creating dialogic space. Considering the importance of teaching through English-medium instruction (EMI) in the Turkish context, the purpose of this study is to explore the use and functions of *okay* by a lecturer at an EMI university in Turkey. To this end, using corpus linguistics and conversation analysis methodologies, we investigated a relatively small specialized corpus of lectures in the field of mathematics offered at undergraduate level. The analyses of *okay* in the corpus resulted in a range of key findings with respect to the particular uses of the device in an EMI lecture. The talk of the lecturer constituting the body of the course involved highly frequent use of *okay* in an engaging and meaningful manner to achieve educational and interactional goals in the class. To illustrate, the findings suggest that the lecturer employed *okay* to attract students' attention to the announcement of an upcoming significant point. In addition to this unique function, we found that *okay* was used just before providing a translation of an unknown word/concept in the target language. With detailed excerpts focusing on the marker *okay* from our dataset, we also discuss the ways in which the lecturer promotes and manages his teaching and the classroom. The study contributes to the growing body of research on the use of DMs (particularly in teacher talk) and shows how a dialogic space can be created by the deployment of *okay* in EMI classrooms.

Keywords Higher education context (HEC) · English-medium instruction (EMI) · Discourse marker · Okay · Corpus linguistics (CL) · Conversation analysis (CA)

E. Akbaş (✉)
Erciyes University, Kayseri, Turkey
e-mail: erdemakbas@erciyes.edu.tr

B. Bal-Gezegin
Ondokuz Mayıs University, Samsun, Turkey
e-mail: betul.balgezegin@omu.edu.tr

© The Author(s), under exclusive license to Springer Nature
Switzerland AG 2022

Y. Kirkgöz, A. Karakaş (eds.), *English as the Medium of Instruction in Turkish Higher Education*, Multilingual Education 40,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-88597-7_12

233

1 Introduction

Influenced by the processes of internationalization, higher education (HE hereafter) contexts across the world have undergone various changes ranging from the methods used in the classroom and the types of material to implementing different mediums of instruction. In particular, non-English HE contexts seem to favor implementing English-medium instruction (EMI hereafter) to catch a more global trend as a consequence of the status of English within the academic world. In line with this, some of the universities and particular programs in Turkey, a country in the expanding circle, have opted for establishing EMI policies.

Although EMI classes in general might end up with predominant teacher-inform exchanges due in part to learner resistance as a constraining force (Huang, 2018) in the classroom or the preferred teaching style of a lecturer, it is still highly possible to construct a dialogic space signaled via discourse markers (DMs hereafter) to sustain the floor for interaction and serve as a cue to achieving educational and interactional purposes. Focusing on the deployment of *okay*, our analyses with corpus evidence closely investigated the distinctive pragmatic functions and interactional achievements of this marker in tertiary level classroom discourse in an EMI context and we discuss the extent to which such a marker could be a significant resource in managing classroom practices and achieving educational goals.

2 Background

2.1 *English as a Medium of Instruction*

English, with its global *lingua franca* status today, has without doubt influenced education at all its levels (Kırkgöz, 2009). Tertiary education, namely HE, has witnessed a shift towards using English as a medium of instruction in many countries where English is not the official language but the language of the courses in HE. EMI can be briefly described as “the use of the English language to teach academic subjects (other than English itself) in countries or jurisdictions where the first language of the majority of the population is not English” (Macaro et al., 2018, p. 37). EMI in this article can be described as “the use of English in the offer of university degree programs in higher education instead of the domestic language of the country in question” (Karakaş, 2015, p. 1).

There are several reasons why EMI has become a rapidly growing, highly debated and emerging phenomenon in many HE contexts. Some of these can be listed as academic internationalization, globalization, mobility, employability, ease of teaching materials and sources, and international exchanges (Coleman, 2006). When we look at the reasons why English has gone beyond being a compulsory course to “a must for most of the jobs in urban Turkey” (Doğançay-Aktuna, 1998,

p. 33), we see the career opportunities which competency in English provides. Since it is believed to provide HE institutions with opportunities to offer instructional contexts for students with different L1 backgrounds, EMI has an increasing attraction and potential for educational purposes in Turkey. Although the number of HE institutions with full EMI programs is limited in Turkey, there are a number of top-ranked universities which have adopted EMI dating back to the 1950s (for example, the Middle East Technical University which was the first EMI institution, Boğaziçi University, Bilkent University, Bahçeşehir University and Ted University). In addition to these universities which provide full EMI in all of their degree programs, there are also universities which offer partial EMI programs.

Previous studies on EMI in HE have been mostly descriptive and have focused on teacher and/or student beliefs about EMI (for example, Chapple, 2015; Earls, 2016; Karakaş, 2016a, b; Kılıçkaya, 2006; Kırkgöz, 2014, 2018). Yet, discourse and micro-analytic studies with a bottom-up, closer context-sensitive and multi-modal analysis of what actually happens in EMI contexts regarding the classroom interactions seem to be lacking. In this light, the current study explores the interactional functions of a particular DM, *okay*, known to be one of the most frequently used DMs in the literature, employed by a lecturer in an EMI undergraduate course.

2.2 *Okay as a Discourse Marker*

DMs, which can be described as the “oil which helps us perform the complex task of spontaneous speech production and interaction smoothly and efficiently” (Crystal, 1988, p. 48) play a vital role in all conversational settings including educational contexts. The significance of their presence in teaching has been extensively explored in a number of previous studies. An academic lecture is one of these discourses in which DMs are used with different functions (for example, Flowerdew & Tarouza, 1995; Levin & Gray, 1983; Pillet-Shore, 2003; Schleef, 2005, 2008) to enhance shaping the interaction and provide potential learning opportunities by signaling the following functions. The use of markers can *initiate a turn of speech* (Schiffrin, 1987), *provide an evaluation* (for example, González & DeJarnette, 2012), *check confirmation* (Liao, 2009), *provide elaboration* (Levin & Gray, 1983; Schleef, 2008), *shift topic* (Beach, 1993), *make decisions* (Condon, 1986) and *add to the discourse* (Martin & Rose, 2007) to name only a few.

Hardman (2020) argued that the dominant talk by teachers in the classroom could create a less interactive teaching/learning environment, leading to a less dialogic teaching. Nevertheless, some classes, regardless of the level of the students, could remain predominantly teacher-centered (such as mathematics) since the aim of the class is more focused on lecturing than on providing learners with opportunities to interact with the content and with other participants in the classroom to construct knowledge on a given topic. In accordance with this, by helping learners get

more comprehensible input and ease their learning, DMs can have a more prominent role in teaching, particularly in EMI contexts in which teachers and students are second/foreign language speakers of the institutionally-assigned medium of instruction. Studies have shown that the absence of DMs such as ‘so’, ‘right’, ‘well’ and ‘okay’ obstructs learning and makes comprehension difficult (Chaudron & Richards, 1986; Flowerdew & Tarouza, 1995; Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1988; Olsen & Huckin, 1990).

Fuller (2003) suggested that it is worth investigating how DMs are used in instructional/academic settings with a range of educational purposes to contribute to classroom interaction since lectures are primarily considered to be a monologic type of discourse. Filipi and Wales (2003) found that *okay* can have a number of functions in different contexts. This multi-functionality is widely accepted as a noteworthy feature of this particular DM (Aijmer, 2002; Brinton, 1996; Svartvik, 1980). Schleef (2005) stated that *okay* as a DM makes the understanding of a discourse more transparent and listed its four major uses as (1) a *transition marker* (indicating movement to another topic/point), (2) a *confirmation check* (asking for confirmation of a previous statement to be sure that it has been understood), (3) a *progression check* (checking whether the audience is following the discourse) and (4) a *back-channel signal* (providing feedback). Although a number of studies have been conducted in different educational settings, to the best of our knowledge the EMI context still needs to be investigated for the deployment of particular DMs in order to understand how they function in EMI teachers’ practices and provide opportunities for interaction in the classroom.

2.3 University Lecture

As an instructional context, an academic course is an example of an educational setting where there is naturally occurring language. University lectures, which are the target genre/research site of this study, are considered as the main teaching activity in HE by which larger groups of students are provided with loaded content on specific topics by a lecturer in a certain amount of time. Schleef (2005) argued that lectures are different from non-instructional conversations since they are informationally loaded, mostly monologic and more structured than everyday conversations. Recent corpus-based studies have shown that although lectures are more monologic due to their generic nature, they still have similar features to informal conversations. The use of DMs is one of these shared characteristics of academic lectures (see, Schleef, 2008), but the number of studies carried out on the use DMs in lectures is quite limited (Fagan, 2012, though).

In his study focusing on the use of the DMs *okay*, *right* and *now* in the academic context, Schleef (2008) analysed 24 lectures and found that teaching styles, the content of the lecture and the way of delivering the content were significant factors

affecting the use of DMs. In a similar context, Levin and Gray (1983) investigated ten lecturers' use of *okay* in a graduate seminar and identified five main functions of it as: canonical, introductory, elaboration, conclusion and hesitation. They also observed that along with other factors, the tasks and teachers' activities (looking at pre-prepared notes, following a sequence) were determinants of the frequency and functions of *okay* usage. More recently, Looney et al. (2017) analysed the interpersonal and intra-personal functions of *okay* used by teaching assistants (TAs) in mathematics courses and found that *okay* in self-directed talk was a powerful linguistic resource used not only as a transition marker, but also as an indicator of TAs' thinking to themselves by verbalizing their thought processes and initiating self-repair sequences in the courses observed.

When EMI is taken into consideration, the number of studies is limited. Even so, previous studies have shown that teachers in EMI lectures need to use language with linguistic devices so that content learning can occur and students can absorb the new content with ease and in a less challenging atmosphere (for example, Maxwell-Reid, 2020). Drawing upon this, the purpose of the present study is to shed light on the deployment of a particular DM, *okay*, in an EMI teacher's practices at the HE level in order to further our understanding of how the use of *okay* could help shape the teaching and interaction.

3 Methodology

In this study, we combined CL and CA which is referred to as CLCA approach by O'Keeffe and Walsh (2012). CL was used as a "methodological tool" and a "complementary approach" (O'Keeffe & Walsh, 2012, p. 143) to strengthen our analyses and allowed us to see the target DM from a quantitative perspective in its linguistic contexts rapidly. CA, on the other hand, helped to go deeper, have a narrower, closer and microscopic analysis of discourse where *okay* as a DM appeared. CL provided us with the required information on frequency of *okay* in our specialized corpora for this study as well as comparisons with reference corpora. Without CL, it would not have been possible to argue that *okay* was a highly frequent discourse marker in these mathematics courses analyzed especially when compared to similar spoken corpora.

Similarly, without CA perspective, we could not have reached a depth understanding of interactions with *okay*. In other words, we were not only interested in where this particular DM appears in the data but were also more inclined to investigate interactional resources in the co-text ranging from gazes to gestures accompanying the talk in order to understand the phenomenon under examination. Thus, the merging of CL and CA is found to be beneficial particularly for spoken data since this combination gives us both the "bigger picture" and the "close-up" perspective (O'Keeffe & Walsh, 2012, p. 165).

3.1 *Corpus and Context of the Study*

The data of our study was a total of 92 min of two classes of a Geometry-I course offered at the Middle East Technical University (METU), an EMI university in Turkey. EMI policy is fully adopted across all departments and degree programs at this university, which could attract national and international students. The teacher and the students were mostly non-native speakers of English (including a small number of possible foreign students on Erasmus exchange programs), thus English is treated as a foreign language in this context. The content of the courses analyzed was Geometry offered to students in an undergraduate program in the Mathematics department. The videotaped lessons were from the same context, the same classroom and the same university lecturer. The recordings were shot from a specifically chosen angle of the classroom, allowing us to see only the materials on the board, the lecturer and his movements across the chalkboard, but not the faces of the students in the classroom. The dataset belonged to GISAM (Audio-Visual Systems Research and Production Center) at METU, which collects lectures from the university and makes them accessible through an online video-sharing platform. For the purpose of the study and for ethical considerations, the dataset was obtained and analyzed with the permission of GISAM.

The specialized academic spoken corpus included a total word-count of approximately 12,000 words. Compared with the sizes of other academic spoken corpora (such as ELFA and BASE), this specialized EMI corpus is relatively small. Nevertheless, since we were able to investigate our transcribed and annotated spoken data using CL and CA methodologies, we believe that “a different landscape of possibilities opens up in areas beyond texts to areas of use (especially issues of pragmatics, interaction and discourse)” (Walsh et al., 2011, p. 327). In addition, by using a qualitative approach, we were interested in exploring contextually detailed language use. It therefore appears that the size of our corpus was sufficient for carrying out the analysis on the features and the functions of the target DM.

The nature of our data can be described as quite teacher-oriented since there are large amounts of monologic speech in which the teacher also oriented to and interacted with the students from time to time. In other words, there is an overwhelming number and amount of turns for knowledge transmission by the lecturer in his teaching. This type of classroom discourse is classified as “managerial mode” by Walsh (2006, p. 64). Mode is described as the relationship between the pedagogic goals and teacher’s language use in the classroom based on these goals (McCarthy & Walsh, 2003). Each mode (“managerial mode, classroom context mode, skills and systems mode, and materials mode”) has its distinctive interactional features shaped by the instructional goals (Walsh, 2011, p. 111). In managerial mode, which matches with the mode in our data as well, the goal is to transmit information to the students which leads to teacher dominance in the classroom. Therefore, our data comprises of single, extended and informative teacher talk in the form of

instruction, lecturing, explanation, description and drawing of geometrical shapes on the board. Cancino and Díaz (2020) put forward that the presence of discourse markers such as *okay* and *now* are frequently observed in the managerial mode. McCarten (2007) also stated that in the managerial mode, teachers benefit from discourse markers such as *all right/okay*, *so*, *let's start*, *let's move on* to organize their talk in class. With this in mind, we were interested in how the teacher sustained his discourse with the help of a frequently used DM, *okay*.

3.2 Data Analysis

Following the interaction analysis cycle proposed by Girgin et al. (2020), the analysis procedure began with multiple repeated viewings of the lectures in order to become fully familiar with the dataset and the identification of the phenomenon. After the identification of all instances of *okay* in our corpus through AntConc 3.5.8 (Anthony, 2019) and key-ness analysis by taking the British National Corpus (BNC-Spoken) and British Academic Spoken English (BASE) as reference corpora, we performed manual and detailed transcriptions of the target videos paying particular attention to various micro details (such as pauses) and embodied actions (such as gestures). Then, a more context-sensitive analysis at discourse level was undertaken in order to reach all the multi-functions of *okay* and with a more qualitative approach, all instances checked were classified according to their pragmatic functions in the classroom discourse. The raw transcriptions and all of the identified functions of the target *okay* were double-checked in a cyclical manner by the researchers for reliability purposes. It should be stated that our analyses excluded cases of 'free-standing' *okays* simply marking *acknowledgement* and *agreement* with "what [the] prior speaker's utterance was taken to be projecting" (Beach, 1993, p. 329) since we focused on the self-directed talk of the lecturer, not particularly requiring the inclusion of another participant in the turns.

Since previous work on *okay* as a DM has already documented that the act is overwhelmingly used for *confirmation checks* or *checking students' understanding* of the already-produced/presented content by the teacher in the classroom (Liao, 2009; Schlee, 2005), we focused on other prevalent functions at discourse level significant to our analysis than on cases for confirmation or comprehension checks. After locating and deciding on the functions, we also adopted a micro-analytical perspective exploring gazes, gestures and non-verbal resources for embodied actions occurring 'simultaneously during talk or in moments when there is an absence of talk' (Hirvonen & Tiitula, 2018, p. 161). A detailed annotation and analysis of such instances was performed based on our purposeful adaptation of transcription conventions/codes in conversational analysis recommended by Jefferson (2004) for particular elements to study the interaction in the classroom discourse

and by Mondada (2019) for embodied actions (*see Appendix*). The reason why we relied on adapting symbols and conventions from two different conventions was linked to Girgin et al.'s (2020) argument that for the sake of the validity and reliability of the data analysis, the transcriptions should be as detailed as possible in terms of not only the verbal but also non-verbal resources ranging from gazes and gestures to body movements. To exemplify, in the analysis of the embodied actions with the help of conventions taken from Mondada (2019) the transcriptions of the actions were detailed regarding the multi-modality to enable us to determine the target phenomena and maintain the validity and reliability of the analysis which we carried out.

4 Findings

Through the corpus analysis of our dataset, we identified a total number of 179 *okay* in 92 minutes across the corpus, averaging almost two instances per minute or 15.93 instances per 1000 words. It is noteworthy to state that the word *okay* in the corpus stands out to be the first content word (thirteenth in general after frequent function words such as *the* ($f = 584$) and *a* ($f = 364$) in the data) out of 1167 word types, signaling that the deployment of *okay* was highly significant and functional in the discourse of the lecturer. Therefore, *okay* in the corpus of our study could be considered to be one of the 'keywords' which is significantly more frequent than others in the texts as defined by Scott and Tribble (2006).

In order to show how significant the frequency of *okay* is in our specialized corpus, we also relied on two corpora (the BNC-Spoken and BASE-Lectures in Mathematics) and established the key-ness of *okay* using log-likelihood calculations as shown in Table 1. The results show that the normalized frequency of *okay* in our corpus (15.93 instances per 1000 words) was significantly higher than in a general spoken reference corpus (1.12 instances per 1000 words in BNC-Spoken),

Table 1 Comparison of *okay* in the corpus with the BNC and BASE corpora as reference corpora

<i>Corpus</i>	<i>Size</i>	<i>Okay</i>	<i>Normalized Frequency (per 1000 words)</i>	<i>LL (+ refers to overuse in our corpus relative to the reference corpora)</i>
Corpus of the study	11,237	179	15.93	NA
BNC (Spoken)	9,963,663	11,162	1.12	+615.06
BASE (Lectures)	1,354,984	3427	2.53	+351.19
BASE (Lectures in Mathematics)	23,978	21	0.88	+290.70

an academic spoken corpus based on lectures (2.53 instances per 1000 words in BASE-Lectures), and a part of the BASE corpus from lectures in Mathematics (0.88 per 1000 words in BASE-Lectures in Mathematics).

The analyses of our data yielded five particular functions of *okay*. The first function, *okay as a word-search filler*, showcases the use of *okay* when the lecturer tries to retrieve/find the relevant word/concept in target language while lecturing. The second function, *okay as an indicator of an upcoming significant point*, occurs when the lecturer underscores the announcement of a point to which the students need to pay attention. The third function we identified in the data is *okay as granting access to an unknown word/concept*; in particular, the lecturer clearly utilizes the discourse marker *okay* to indicate that he inserts the code gloss of the word in the form of a direct translation. The fourth function is *okay as an indicator of producing visual text* which documents the use of *okay* overlapping and lasting with the action of drawing a shape on the board. The last function, *okay as an indicator of opening/pre-closing a teacher-inform exchange* is observed when the lecturer initiates and finishes a relatively longer turn to inform the students about a course-related topic in the lecture. The following sections give detailed analyses of unique cases of *okay* in the self-directed talk of lecturer combined with a micro analysis of the occurrences, which will enable us to see the interplay between the utterance *okay* and non-verbal resources such as gestures and pauses.

4.1 *Okay as a Word-Search Filler*

One of the key findings from the analysis of our specialized corpus is related to a case of *okay* in which the lecturer displays a momentary hesitation in order to select the correct word to continue presenting his point. We demonstrate how the lecturer sustains the flow of his turn with *okay* to signal that he attempts to retrieve a particular word/concept or perhaps checking the appropriateness of the word in the context of his argument. In addition, since *okay* is synchronized with embodied actions (circling the hand and the chalk), we can also discuss the presence of non-verbal resources signaling hesitation.

Excerpt 1 below is taken from the first class of the lecturer in which he has already embarked on detailing the theorem attributed to Thales known to have applied deductive reasoning to mathematics. Building upon two straight lines which intersect, he elaborates on what Thales observed based on the ratios. Before moving on to another observation which Thales made, the lecturer starts forecasting that he will specifically talk about these ratios later by orienting to chalkboard.

Excerpt 1

```

1  LEC      %there is something which I wish to say in a minute
   lec      %orients to chalkboard-->l.5
2  &about these& ratios
   lec      &points -----&
3  #@↑a:nd also also he: observes that @ ε(0.5) the:
   lec      @embodies a thinking gesture----->@
   lec      εcircles his chalk-->
fig      #Fig.1

```

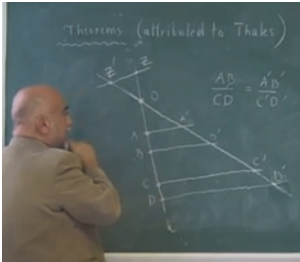


Fig.1

```

4  →      #>okay<ε(.)
   lec      ----->ε
fig      #Fig.2

```

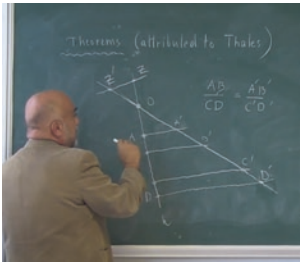


Fig.2

```

5  er: the: % about the distance (.) from the origin
   lec      ---->%
6  let's say for instance (0.4) oa (0.6) to ob (0.5)
7  the ratio oa to ob (0.4) ↑is of course the same as
8  >oa prime to ob prime<

```

The excerpt opens with the lecturer’s announcement about his agenda with regard to ratios on the board in lines 1, 2. Following this, the lecturer moves on to

the next observation of Thales he has initially intended to convey before the announcement. Then, in order to let the students orient to the point at which he is to talk about another observation of Thales, the lecturer draws their attention and says \uparrow a:nd also also he observes that. Until that moment and after line 5, all the pauses in the transcription relate to the times when the teacher is also engaged with drawing or writing on the chalkboard. However, the pause immediately after ‘that’ and the stronger pronunciation of the determiner ‘the’ (as in /ði:/ rather than /ðə/ as its weaker form) suggest that he gets back to retrieving the observation made by Thales and selecting the right words/concepts about it after initiating the utterance in line 3 with a higher volume with his orientation to the chalkboard. The co-text of *okay* in line 4 is preceded and synchronized by embodied actions (a thinking gesture as in Fig. 1; a circling motion of his hand and the chalk as in Fig. 2) or followed by speech perturbations (er: the: the) signaling his hesitation about what he is about to set out. The rapidly produced token of *okay* in line 4 could therefore perform the function of a filler for a noun that has not yet been recalled, which is likely to be ‘distance’ produced as the head in the noun phrase ‘the distance’. After being able to present his point, the pace of the talk gets back into its regular flow in lines 7, 8 and the lecturer highlights a critical argument signaled by a higher pitch and stressed words in \uparrow is of course the same as >oa prime to ob prime<.

4.2 *Okay as an Indicator of an Upcoming Significant Point*

With the stretch of discourse presented in Excerpt 2 from the beginning of the lecture in our dataset, we shall discuss the way in which the lecturer promotes and manages a critical point signaled by *okay*.

Prior to the use of *okay*, the lecturer shares one of the key points concerning the perpendicular bisectors in line with the basic features of the classical triangle. After revealing that the perpendicular bisector is in fact exactly the set of points which are equidistant to the two extreme points of the line segment, the lecturer applies this to a triangle by orienting to the right chalkboard so as to illustrate it.

Excerpt 2

```

1  LEC      now %let's apply #this to the triangle%
   lec      % orients to chalkboard ------%
2          • (0.5) if you take a triangle well I shall be
          •draws a shape----->1.4
3  →       (0.4) oka:y
4          (.) here is another• ± (0.6) #one of my (.) pet aversions:::
   lec      ---->•
   lec      ±turns and orients to whole class----->1.11
   fig      #Fig.3

```



Fig.3

```

5          +# (1.8)                                     +
   lec      +checks students' understanding of what he said+
   fig      #Fig.4

```



Fig.4

```

6          er: my dislikes_::: my one of my strong dislikes:::
7          (0.8) about (0.8) habits_::: which you have brought (1.1) to us
8          (0.9) from the cramming schools (0.8)
9          $↑do not# (1.1) do not ever (0.4) draw an equilateral triangle$
   lec      $furrows and raises eyebrows ----->§
   fig      #Fig.5

```



Fig.5

```

10         if I- when I ask you something about triangles (0.4)
11         Δtry to #make your triangles as generic as possible Δ (0.3) ±
   lec      Δ stands with open arms -----Δ
   lec      ---->±

```

Not only does the lecturer use the first lecture to introduce the basic theorems, notions and features in geometry, he also touches on issues with regard to how students taking ‘his class’ should practice geometry. In line with this, he suddenly moves on to a more general issue about the way the triangles should be drawn in his class. With the exchange of *okay* in line 9, the lecturer explicitly announces a critical and personal point functioning as a warning that the students are practically expected to pay attention in his own class. In order to stress the significance of his point, he draws his students’ attention to the keywords reflecting his positioning towards not producing generic triangles by stretching the last sounds in the following phrases in lines 4, 6 and 7: *pet aversions:::, my dislikes:::, strong dislikes::: and habits:::*. Owing to the extra attentive trait of the lecturer about geometrical shapes, he noticeably invites students to leave their earlier habits and practices behind (as in about (0.8) *habits::: which you have brought (1.1) to us (0.9) from the cramming schools*). This warning-like case can be considered to occur right on time in the first class in terms of showing how important it is to draw a generic triangle for the lecturer with non-coincident and non-parallel lines in geometry.

The exchange of *okay* in the excerpt is an example to a straight digression from the topic of the turn functioning as demanding extra attention from students to the prospective critical point. It might therefore preface a demand for a reaction from the participants to the forthcoming discourse and serves as a cue that the teacher is opening up a dialogic space for announcing an issue of great importance.

4.3 *Okay as Granting Access to an Unknown Word/Concept*

Through the analysis of Excerpt 3 below, we demonstrate how the lecturer sustains the flow of his argument again by granting access to his students for an unknown word by means of verbal and embodied resources.

Excerpt 3

1 LEC now well ¶it's it's really sitting right in front of us¶
 ¶changes his chalk-----¶
 2 because you see because you see the distance (0.5) two three sa-
 3 two three vertices Ω that's oa ob and oc Ω they're ;all equal
 lec Ω shows with his finger -----Ω
 4 >so it means that< #±if you if you take your compass;
 lec ±turns and orients to whole class----->1.7
 fig #Fig.6

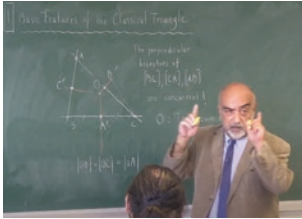


Fig.6

5 → okay
 6 #β >your< pergel (0.7) β ±a:nd if you if you apply the point
 lec β uses hand gesture -----β
 lec --->±
 fig #Fig.7

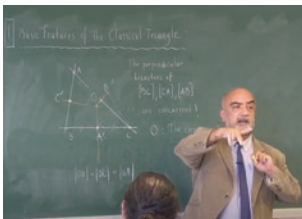


Fig.7

7 to the point &a and if you take the writing point&
 lec &points to chalkboard -----&
 8 %to the point a and if you draw a circle ●then it will actually
 lec %orients to chalkboard ----->1.11
 lec ●draws a shape----->1.10
 9 it will actually go through c: and b: and a:
 10 so in fact it means that whenever you have got a ●triangle
 lec ---->●
 11 then% ±you have got ↑a CIRCLE >you've got a circle<
 lec ---->%
 lec ±turns and orients to whole class ---->>

The sequence begins right after the lecturer moves on to the basic features of the classical triangle and illustrates his notations on the board with the help of a generic triangle (ABC) by referring to Euclidean geometry. To do this, the lecturer reveals that the perpendicular bisector of the line segment AB needs to go through O (lines 2–3), which is already equidistant from all three sides and an intersection for the perpendicular bisectors of BC and AC on the chalkboard. He holds the floor to show that the perpendicular bisectors (C, B and A Primes) can allow the students to understand something very simple (lines 1–4).

However, for the sake of letting them visualize that the perpendicular bisectors could be united, which results in a circle (as evidenced in line 11), the lecturer turns to the students (Fig. 6) and asks them to hypothetically take their ‘compass’ and place it at the circumcenter of the triangle by saying >if you take your compass† < okay >your< pergel (0.7) a:nd if you if you apply the point to the point A. Since the lecturer assumes that it could be their first time of hearing some of these terms in English, he first turns and orients himself to his students (line 5) while making his point clear; then he uses the word ‘compass’ (Fig. 6). At this point, the use of *okay* in line 6 serves as a code gloss as it is followed by the Turkish translation of ‘compass’ (>your< pergel) in line 7 with an embodied action. This exchange could help the students understand a particular technical term to prevent any potential failure in the L2 communication. The lecturer even connects what he states in Turkish with his hand movement functioning as a non-verbal translation of the item (see Fig. 7) and clearly pinpoints that the audience will need guidance in interpreting the meaning. The pragmatic function of *okay* in the segment as a promptly mediated marker for elaboration contributes to the classroom interaction and engages the students with the teacher’s message. We can therefore speak of a potential construction of a dialogic space with the participants in the classroom discourse.

4.4 *Okay as an Indicator of Producing Visual Text*

In the following Excerpt (4), we demonstrate how the lecturer utters his ‘okay’ while producing a visual text, projecting that the drawing is in progress. The lecturer particularly indicates that the drawing on the board has started and is about to be completed with the deployment of this specific marker. With a synchronized attempt of verbal utterance (*okay*) and embodied action (drawing a missing line on the board) in his discourse, the lecturer engages with the board before moving on to explain it to the students. This function might indicate that the use of *okay* while being engaged in producing a visual text is peculiar to the nature of the course, which requires lecturing via drawings on the board and explanations of these visuals drawn.

Excerpt 4 comes from the second class of Geometry I in the same week. The lecturer shows that A tilde is the midpoint between H and H prime. In order to prove this, the lecturer elaborates on it by saying you see (.) if you look at this triangle c and drawing a line from point C towards H (Fig. 8) by taking his time for a perfect draw with nine-second-long drawing (line 2).

Excerpt 4

1 LEC you see (.) if you look at this triangle ● c
 lec ●draws a shape-->
 2 (9.0) ●
 lec -->●
 3 i so please notice @that# (0.8) @
 lec @rechecks the drawing@
 fig #Fig.8

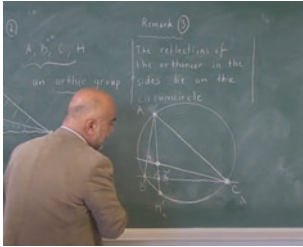


Fig.8

4 → #●oka:y
 lec ●draws a shape---->
 fig #Fig.9

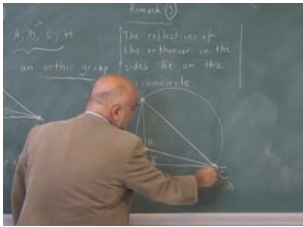


Fig.9

5 so: (3.0) ●
 lec ---->●
 6 ¶the angle one and the angle two¶
 lec ¶P goes back to what he was about to tell-----¶
 7 (0.6) @↑these are the angles!@
 lec @rechecks the drawing -----@
 8 Ξ°okay >that's that's very ba:d< that's very badly drawn°
 lec Ξ Erases and redraws by mumbling --->l.11
 9 let me (0.5) >oh I mean< of course i- i am- i can't make perfect
 10 pictures but you know i think i should (1.2) at least strive to
 11 make some reasonable approximation Ξ ψ°okay there it is<#ψ
 lec --->Ξ
 lec ψ announces shape is ready-----ψ
 12 lec >°okay°< so (0.3) ¶the angle one and two are equal¶
 ¶P goes back to what he was about to tell-----¶

Nevertheless, when he gives prominence to what he intends to achieve with a high tone and stress (\uparrow so please notice that), he finds that the line from point C towards H Prime, which could illustrate that the triangles are simply equal, is not drawn. After realizing the missing line, in line 4, the lecturer utters *okay* by interacting with the visual text and starts to draw the missing line before coming to his point (line 6). By synchronizing his utterance of *okay* in line 4 and his drawing (Fig. 9), the lecturer gains time to complete the missing line in a relatively shorter time compared with the line drawn from point C towards H in line 2. With his extra attentive trait about his board and his own shapes on the board, he notices his mistake about his line and interrupts himself (line 8). Accepting that the line is not as straight as he had imagined, he simply goes back to erasing and re-drawing it by mumbling about his unsuccessful attempt and criticizes himself. When he has reassured himself that the line is now well-drawn, he revisits his initial point, which started in line 5, to tell the class that the angles one and two are equal.

Overall, with the exchange of *okay* functioning as a self-directed talk in line 4, the lecturer prefaces his missing line on the shape implying that he needs a little bit more time to make it ready for him to prove his argument. From an interactional point of view, before the moments of his *okay*, the lecturer also orients to his students' expectations of a complete shape as the teaching material and accepts that he needs to draw it correctly.

4.5 *Okay as an Indicator of Opening/Pre-closing a Teacher-Inform Exchange*

Excerpt 5 is a segment taken from towards the end of the second lecture in the Geometry I module when the lecturer introduces the last remark (Remark 4) about the triangle. This example provides an interaction with four acts of *okay* when the lecturer either opens or closes a teacher-inform exchange explicitly, which could be treated as a pattern in this interaction.

Building upon the previous remark and spending more than 5 min (between 20:36 and 25:51), the lecturer shows how a 90-degree right angle subtended by the diameter at any point on the circumference occurs based on the observation of Thales. In line with the parallel lines on the board (HJ and BC) in a previously drawn shape, the lecturer suddenly moves on to simply prove again that the arcs (shown in Fig. 10) between parallel lines should be the same. Prior to the sequence, the lecturer attracts students' attention to make sure that they are following him and he orients to the drawing as well as explaining what he aims to convey.

Excerpt 5

1 LEC I mean (0.6) •take a circle• (0.3)
 lec •draws a shape-----•
 2 •and draw two parallel lines• (4.4) >you see< these pieces
 lec •draws a shape-----•
 3 (2.3) will be the same (1.0) I mean •THIS will be the same as #this
 lec •draws a shape---->
 4 this will be the same as this&•
 lec --->&
 lec ---->•
 5 → ± (0.2) °okay°;# ±
 lec ±turns and orients to whole class±
 fig #Fig.10

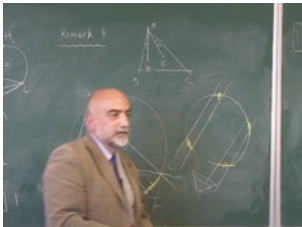


Fig. 10

6 (0.6) that's that's that's rather obvious
 7 + (4.6) +
 lec + Checks students' understanding of what he said +
 8 → okay
 9 so by the way there are zillion ways of &seeing this &
 lec &points to chalkboard-&
 10 (1.0) think about it you will definitely find a solution
 11 (0.5) quite peculiarly your own >okay< so that's that's a problem
 12 with millions of solutions &this is just (0.6) this is just
 lec & points to chalkboard--->
 13 that ;I wish to sort of refer to& (.) refer to this thing (0.3)
 lec --->&
 14 → (0.3) °okay°;†
 15 they somehow belong together ☺ GOOD ☺
 lec ☺ uses an arm-up and down gesture-☺
 16 (0.7) now ☺ (1.5) ☺
 ☺ checks his notes -☺
 17 → ☺ okay
 lec ☺ Walks to the other side of chalkboard--->
 18 so: (0.3) I have I ☺ have presented you
 lec --->☺
 19 (0.3) i have presented you (0.8)
 20 TWO remarkable points about the triangle

The exchange of *okay* in line 5 preceded by a short pause synchronized with the turn of the teacher to his students and uttered relatively silently but with a rising intonation appears to perform an explicit closure of the teacher-inform exchange related to the proof of the arcs. Even though he attempts to close the exchange, the lecturer makes an additional comment on the definiteness of his point following a short pause in line 6. Since he has illustrated his remark 4 and even consolidated it with another example (lines 1–6), he gives a relatively longer pause (4.6) in order that the students can absorb the point. Following this pause, the lecturer basically utters *okay* and opens up another teacher-inform exchange (Raine, 2010), an extended turn of a teacher to inform students, in his lecture (lines 6–15). Leading to a pattern in his interaction, this exchange is closed in exactly the same way as in line 5 by the deployment of *okay* with a rising intonation preceded by a short pause and followed by an additional comment. The closure becomes obvious when the arm-up and down gesture in line 15 is followed by his orientation to his desk and notes with a slightly longer pause (1.5) there to indicate that he has finished. Subsequent to checking his notes, the lecturer realizes that he has touched upon all of the remarks and that it is time for initiating a summary (evidenced in lines 18–20) of what he has done so far in the lecture. He therefore initiates another teacher-inform exchange signaled by *okay* as in line 17 followed by *so*: (0.3) I have I have presented you to sum up the remarkable points by walking to the other side of the board.

The detailed analyses based on the stretch of the discourse above illustrate how the lecturer manages specific classroom practices with respect to opening and closing a teacher-inform exchange by the deployment of *okay*.

5 Concluding Remarks

The findings of the current study contribute to the growing body of research on the use of DMs (particularly in teacher talk) and show how a dialogic space can be created by the deployment of *okay* in EMI classrooms. One of the significant findings to emerge from this corpus study is that *okay* is a highly frequent marker in the talk of an EMI lecturer (15.93 instances per 1000 words). This is especially significant when we consider the reference corpora since they exhibit relatively infrequent occurrences of the same marker. The micro-analyses also revealed that *okay* has context-specific functions other than the common functions identified in previous studies, such as confirmation by the speaker (Condon, 1986), an agreement marker (Heisler, 1996), an interactive marker (Vincent, 1992), a transition marker, a modal question tag, a progression check question tag, and a backchannel signal (Schleef, 2005). The analyses of *okay* in the corpus resulted in a range of key findings with respect to the particular uses in the EMI geometry course. We identified and presented five context-specific functions: *Okay* as (1) *a word search filler*, (2) *an indicator of an upcoming significant point*, (3) *an indicator of granting access to an unknown word/concept*, (4) *an indicator of producing visual text*, and (5) *an*

indicator of opening/pre-closing a teacher-inform exchange. Through the lens of the conversation analysis, we found some multi-modal resources preceding the act of okay (embodied thinking gesture, *see Excerpt 1*), following the act of okay (using hand gesture, *see Excerpt 3*) and overlapping with the act of okay (circling the chalk, *see Excerpt 1*; drawing a shape on the board, *see Excerpt 4*; turning and orienting to whole class, *see Excerpt 5*) in our dataset.

Schleef (2008) stated that the preferred style of a teacher in lecturing shapes the type of language used. A detailed corpus and micro-analysis of the instances of *okay* have indicated that even though the lectures in our specialized corpus could be regarded as teacher-based, monologic, one-way and loaded classes, there are still a high number of a specific uses of the DM *okay*, indicating that the teacher constructed an interaction with the students and the visual text in his discourse. In other words, this might suggest that the teacher in this EMI setting attempted to create a dialogic atmosphere by using *okay* as a pragmatic resource. There might be several reasons behind this frequent use of *okay*. First, the content of the course required using the board frequently for drawing geometrical shapes and information was delivered mainly by the teacher himself as the sole source in the course. His talk therefore constituting the body of the course and included pauses, transitions, explanations, decision makings, corrections, warnings and announcements which all yielded frequent use of *okay* in an engaging and meaningful manner. In addition, we found a very specific function of *okay* embodied with the hand movements of the lecturer, which can be due in part to the EMI context since the language spoken was not the first language of the lecturer. In this specific case, in order to support the comprehension of his students, the lecturer signaled by *okay* that he granted access to the students for a potentially unknown word (compass) in English synchronized with and followed by explicit hand movements. This particular finding simply paves the way for our understanding of how a DM can enhance the flow of a lecture by creating a dialogic space. We also argue that the pedagogical practices through the act of *okay* which the lecturer followed in his class influenced the medium of instruction and the plan of what to talk about, which could be seen as a support to facilitate students' comprehension. In line with this, by turning classroom discourse and interaction into "a powerful pedagogical tool" (Hardman, 2016, p. 12), teachers could benefit from strategic uses of teacher talk in an EMI context in order to prosper their educational goals in HE.

Although the study was limited to two EMI classes, it nevertheless has a promising potential for future studies on the use and impact of DMs in academic settings, in lectures in particular. The findings show that the teacher relied on the pragmatic use of *okay* to solve moments when he could be stuck (as in Excerpt 1), to raise attention, and to manage the use of the board for drawing visuals. This could essentially be the style of an EMI lecturer to manage and promote interaction even in monologic, content-loaded and teacher-based geometry lectures. Teachers are occupied not only with delivering loaded content but also making efforts to create a dialogic space with the students, and deal both with the content and the language as the medium of instruction. Despite its limitations, however, it should be noted that

this study is the first attempt to identify the functions of a specific DM in EMI academic lectures in Turkey.

Acknowledgement We would like to thank METU GISAM for allowing to us to use the video recordings for research purposes. In addition, we are grateful to Roger Witts for proofreading our work.

Appendix: The Adaptation of Jeffersons' (2004) Transcription Symbols and Mondada's (2019) Conventions for Multimodal Transcription

Symbol	Function	Example
(0.0)	Numbers in parentheses indicate elapsed time by tenths of seconds.	Excerpt 4, Line 2
(.)	A dot in parentheses indicates a brief interval (\pm a tenth of a second) within or between utterances.	Excerpt 1, Line 5 Excerpt 2, Line 4
<u>Word</u>	Underscoring indicates some form of stress, via pitch and/or amplitude. A short underscore indicates lighter stress than does a long underscore.	Excerpt 4, Line 9 Excerpt 3, Line 11
Word:	Colons indicate prolongation of the immediately prior sound. The longer the colon row, the longer the prolongation.	Excerpt 2, Line 6 Excerpt 4, Line 8
↑↓	Arrows indicate shifts into especially high or low pitch.	Excerpt 1, Line 3 Excerpt 2, Line 9 Excerpt 3, Line 11
WORD	Upper case indicates especially loud sounds relative to the surrounding talk.	Excerpt 5, Line 15
°word°	Degree signs bracketing an utterance or utterance-part indicates that the sounds are softer than the surrounding talk.	Excerpt 5, Line 6
–	A dash indicates a cut-off.	Excerpt 4, Line 9
> <	Right/left carats bracketing an utterance or utterance-part indicate that the bracketed material is speeded up, compared to the surrounding talk	Excerpt 1, Line 8 Excerpt 5, Line 11
♣♣ ¥¥ §§	Descriptions of embodied actions are delimited between two identical symbols (one symbol per participant and per type of action) that are synchronized with correspondent stretches of talk or time indications.	Excerpt 1, Line 3 Excerpt 1, Line 2 Excerpt 2, Line 11
♣---> ---->♣	The action described continues across subsequent lines-until the same symbol is reached.	Excerpt 1, Line 1 Excerpt 1, Line 5
ric	Participant doing the embodied action is identified in small caps in the margin.	Excerpt 4, Line 3
fig #	The exact moment at which a screen shot has been taken is indicated with a sign (#) showing its position within the turn/a time measure.	Excerpt 2, Line 5

Symbols for embodied actions in our analysis

Lec refers to Lecturer

Symbol	Participant	Embodied action
@	Lec	Embodies a thinking gesture
£	Lec	Circles his chalk
&	Lec	Points to chalkboard
%	Lec	Orients to chalkboard
±	Lec	Turns and orients to whole class
●	Lec	Draws a shape
§	Lec	Furrows and raises eyebrows
Δ	Lec	Stands with open arms
+	Lec	Checks students' understanding of what he said
⋈	Lec	Walks to the other side of chalkboard
⊖	Lec	Changes his chalk
Ω	Lec	Shows with his finger
β	Lec	Uses hand gesture
®	Lec	Rechecks the drawing
¶	Lec	Goes back to what he was about to tell
≡	Lec	Erases and redraws by mumbling
Ψ	Lec	Announces shape is ready
⊕	Lec	Uses an arm-up and down gesture
⋈	Lec	Checks his notes

References

- Aijmer, K. (2002). *English discourse particles*. John Benjamins.
- Anthony, L. (2019). *AntConc* (Version 3.5.8) [Computer Software]. Waseda University. Available from <https://www.laurenceanthony.net/software>
- Beach, W. A. (1993). Transitional regularities for 'casual' "okay" usages. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 19, 325–352.
- Brinton, L. J. (1996). *Pragmatic markers in English: Grammaticalization and discourse functions*. Mouton de Gruyter.
- Cancino, M., & Díaz, G. (2020). Exploring the code-switching behaviours of Chilean EFL high school teachers: A function-focused approach. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, 22(2), 115–130.
- Chapple, J. (2015). Teaching in English is not necessarily the teaching of English. *International Education Studies*, 8(3), 1–13.
- Chaudron, C., & Richards, J. C. (1986). The effect of discourse markers on the comprehension of lectures. *Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 7(2), 113–127.
- Coleman, J. A. (2006). English-medium teaching in European higher education. *Language Teaching*, 39(1), 1–14.
- Condon, S. L. (1986). The discourse functions of OK. *Semiotica*, 60, 73–101.
- Crystal, D. (1988). Another look at, well, you know. *English Today*, 13, 47–59.
- Doğançay-Aktuna, S. (1998). The spread of English in Turkey and its current sociolinguistic profile. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 19, 24–39.

- Earls, C. W. (2016). When English just is not enough: "Multilingualism with English" in contemporary European higher education. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 26(3), 329–347.
- Fagan, D. S. (2012). 'Okay' as a multifunctional resource for giving feedback in classrooms. *Language & Information Society*, 16, 9–41.
- Filipi, A., & Wales, R. (2003). Differential uses of okay, right, and alright, and their function in signaling perspective shift or maintenance in a map task. *Semiotica*, 147(1), 429–455.
- Flowerdew, J., & Tarouza, S. (1995). The effect of discourse markers on second language lecture comprehension. *Journal of Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 17(4), 435–458.
- Fuller, J. (2003). Discourse marker use across speech contexts: A comparison of native and nonnative speaker performance. *Multilingua*, 22, 185–208.
- Girgin, U., Acar, Y., Akbaş, E., Yavuz, E., Altan, A. E., Boran, M., Ölçü Dinçer, Z., Lafci Tor, D., & Morali, G. (2020). Conversation analysis methodology: Validity, reliability, and ethical issues in data collection and analysis procedures. *Hacettepe University Journal of Education*. Advance online publication. <https://doi.org/10.16986/HUJE.2020063458>
- González, G., & DeJarnette, A. F. (2012). Agency in a geometry review lesson: A linguistic view on teacher and student division of labor. *Linguistics and Education*, 23(2), 182–199.
- Hardman, J. (2016). Opening-up classroom discourse to promote and enhance active, collaborative and cognitively-engaging student learning experiences. In C. Gorla, O. Speicher, & S. Stollhans (Eds.), *Innovative language teaching and learning at university: Enhancing participation and collaboration* (pp. 5–16). Research-publishing.net. <https://doi.org/10.14705/rpnet.2016.000400>
- Hardman, J. (2020). Developing the repertoire of teacher and student talk in whole-class primary English teaching: Lessons from England. *Australian Journal of Language and Literacy*, 43(1), 68–82.
- Heisler, T. (1996). OK—a dynamic discourse marker in Montreal French. In J. Arnold (Ed.), *Sociolinguistic variation: Data, theory and analysis* (pp. 293–312). Cal. CSLI.
- Hirvonen, M., & Tiitula, L. (2018). How are translations created? Using multimodal conversation analysis to study a team translation process. *Linguistica Antverpiensia, New Series: Themes in Translation Studies*, 17, 157–173.
- Huang, Y. (2018). Learner resistance to English-medium instruction practices: A qualitative case study. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 23(4), 435–449.
- Jefferson, G. (2004). Glossary of transcript symbols with an introduction. In G. H. Lerner (Ed.), *Conversation analysis: Studies from the first generation* (pp. 13–34). John Benjamins.
- Karakaş, A. (2015). English medium instruction. *Key Concepts in Intercultural Dialogue*, 66. Retrieved from <http://centerforinterculturaldialogue.org/publications/>
- Karakaş, A. (2016a). *Turkish Lecturers' and Students' Perceptions of English in English-medium Instruction Universities*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Southampton, UK.
- Karakaş, A. (2016b). Turkish lecturers' views on the place of mother tongue in the teaching of content courses through English medium. *Asian Englishes*, 18(3), 242–257. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13488678.2016.1229831>
- Kılıçkaya, F. (2006). Instructors' attitudes towards English-medium instruction in Turkey. *Humanising Language Teaching*, 8(6), 1–16.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2009). Globalization and English language policy in Turkey. *Educational Policy*, 23(5), 663–684.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2014). Students' perceptions of English language versus Turkish language used as the medium of instruction in higher education in Turkey. *Turkish Studies*, 9(12), 443–459.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2018). Confronting similar challenges?: Exploring students' experiences of studying engineering at a Turkish university: Turkish versus English-language medium of instruction. *Rassegna Italiana di Linguistica Applicata*, 2-3, 145–160.
- Levin, H., & Gray, D. (1983). The lecturer's ok. *American Speech*, 58, 195–200.
- Liao, S. (2009). Variation in the use of discourse markers by Chinese teaching assistants in the US. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 41, 1313–1328.

- Looney, S. D., Jia, D., & Kimura, D. (2017). Self-directed okay in mathematics lectures. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 107, 46–59.
- Macaro, E., Curle, S., Pun, J., An, J., & Dearden, J. (2018). A systematic review of English medium instruction in higher education. *Language Teaching*, 51(1), 36–76.
- Martin, J. R., & Rose, D. (2007). *Working with discourse: Meaning beyond the clause* (2nd ed.). Continuum.
- Maxwell-Reid, C. (2020). Classroom discourse in bilingual secondary science: Language as medium or language as dialectic? *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 23(4), 499–512.
- McCarten, J. (2007). *Teaching vocabulary: Lessons from the corpus, lessons from the classroom*. Cambridge University Press.
- McCarthy, M., & Walsh, S. (2003). Discourse. In D. Nunan (Ed.), *Practical English language teaching* (pp. 173–195). McGraw-Hill.
- Mondada, L. (2019). *Conventions for multimodal transcription*. Retrieved from https://344cc026-c96f-49aa-b4bc-071b454d3061.filesusr.com/ugd/ba0dbb_986ddd4993a04a57acf20ea06e2b9a34.pdf
- Nattinger, J., & DeCarrico, J. (1988). Lexical phrases for the comprehension of academic lectures. *English for Specific Purposes*, 7, 91–102.
- O’Keeffe, A., & Walsh, S. (2012). Applying corpus linguistics and conversation analysis in the investigation of small group teaching in higher education. *Corpus Linguistics and Linguistic Theory*, 8(1), 159–181.
- Olsen, L., & Huckin, T. (1990). Point-driven understanding in engineering lecture comprehension. *English for Specific Purposes*, 9, 33–47.
- Pillet-Shore, D. (2003). Doing “okay”: On the multiple metrics of assessment. *Research on Language and Social Interaction*, 36, 285–319.
- Raine, P. (2010). *An application of the Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) method of discourse analysis*. Retrieved December 2020, from <https://www.birmingham.ac.uk/documents/college-artslaw/cels/essays/csdp/rainesinc-coul.pdf>
- Scott, M., & Tribble, C. (2006). *Textual patterns*. John Benjamins.
- Schiffrin, D. (1987). *Discourse markers*. Cambridge University Press.
- Schleef, E. (2005). Gender, power, discipline, and context: On the sociolinguistic variation of okay, right, like, and you know in English academic discourse. *Texas Linguistic Forum*, 48, 177–186.
- Schleef, E. (2008). The “lecturer’s OK” revisited: Changing discourse conventions and the influence of academic division. *American Speech*, 83(1), 62–84.
- Svartvik, J. (1980). Well in conversation. In S. Greenbaum, G. Leech, & J. Svartvik (Eds.), *Studies in English linguistics for Randolph quirk* (pp. 167–177). Longman.
- Vincent, D. (1992). The sociolinguistics of exemplification in spoken French in Montreal. *Language Variation and Change*, 4, 137–162.
- Walsh, S. (2006). *Investigating classroom discourse*. Routledge.
- Walsh, S. (2011). *Exploring classroom discourse: Language in action*. Routledge.
- Walsh, S., Morton, T., & O’Keeffe, A. (2011). Analysing university spoken interaction: A CL/CA approach. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, 16(3), 325–345.

Why Student Retention Matters for Turkish EMI Universities?



Donald F. Staub

Abstract Students entering English-medium Instruction (EMI) universities and programs must demonstrate English language proficiency before proceeding to their academic program. Approximately 20% of incoming students are able to pass a proficiency exam and begin academic studies straight away. This leaves a significant percentage of students needing to successfully complete an intensive language program before progressing to their academic departments. The majority of these students require 1 year (or more) to achieve this goal. Because of the rigorous demands of the intensive language program, all such students are at risk for not completing the program and leaving the university. There are distinct sub-populations within the language program that have an even higher propensity for attrition. For those who leave, there may be immense psychological, social, and financial ramifications. Likewise for the institution – failing to retain students may have significant implications for finances and reputation. EMI universities and intensive language programs may establish student retention initiatives to minimize attrition. This chapter makes the case for such initiatives, briefly exploring student retention, then through the lens of vulnerable sub-populations, explores best-practices that may strengthen retention in the intensive language program, while having a long-term impact on the students and the institution.

Keywords Student retention · Student attrition · English-medium instruction · Intensive English program

1 The Challenge of Student Retention

Student retention and student attrition are opposing sides of the same coin, with radically different outcomes, depending on which side the coin lands. Student retention suggests that a student remains at an institution until graduation. An earned

D. F. Staub (✉)
Izmir University of Economics, Izmir, Turkey

© The Author(s), under exclusive license to Springer Nature
Switzerland AG 2022

Y. Kirkgöz, A. Karakaş (eds.), *English as the Medium of Instruction in Turkish Higher Education*, Multilingual Education 40,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-88597-7_13

257

diploma or certificate opens the door to a vast landscape of economic, professional, and self-fulfilling possibilities. Conversely, attrition amounts to a student making a conscious choice to leave a higher education institution. Departure comes in different degrees. There is departure from the initial program in which a student is enrolled, with a student making a lateral transfer to a different program within the same institution. There is departure from the institution in which a student is enrolled (i.e., transfer to another institution¹). There is the most dramatic form whereby a student leaves the higher education system completely. Any of these choices has repercussions for all stakeholders; the latter imparting the most severe and long-lasting outcomes (i.e., financial and emotional) on the individual and his or her family. For these reasons, it is the social and economic² responsibility of the higher education institution to maintain a keen focus on student retention.

Turkey, similar to many other emerging economies, has experienced remarkable growth in its higher education sector over the last two or three decades. Since 1990, nearly 175 public and private universities have opened their doors. On one hand, this is certainly a welcome development in equity through increased access to higher education. Since the 2013–2014 academic year, new undergraduate enrollments at Turkish universities have increased by 19% (Higher Education Information Management System, 2020). The unfortunate reality is that a tight bottleneck remains when it comes to gaining admittance to a 4-year higher education institution. The rigorous university entrance exam and its point system for placements is the gatekeeper to tertiary education, and specific institutions and programs in particular. Therefore, the high school experience in Turkey – especially junior and senior years – becomes an exhausting period characterized by a student's sole commitment to achieving a university entrance exam score that meets family expectations. This reality is integral to the issue of retention in the form of two costs. The first being that in order to achieve the goal of university admission, families are required to dedicate considerable money and time, as well as emotions. This may ramp up in high school, but for many families, the investment in *education* – cynics may argue that it is more an investment in test preparation given that education itself is a public good – begins as early as primary school, with young children spending weekends in test-prep courses, and the support of a so-called shadow economy in private tutoring (e.g., Ristow, 2019; Schneider & Enste, 2013).

A second, and arguably greater cost, is the diminished opportunity to develop the non-cognitive skills that will help students succeed in higher education and beyond. Ironically, the singular focus on the cognitively demanding university entrance exam comes at a critical period when adolescents should also be developing the non-cognitive abilities that have been linked to college, career, and lifelong success; e.g. self-management, relationship skills, and responsible decision making (Dymnicki et al., 2013) and self-regulated learning, self-efficacy, coping and

¹ Under the rubric of transfer student there are sub-classifications such as reverse transfer (Townsend & Dever, 1999) and double-dipping and swirling (McCormick, 2003).

² For revenue-generating institutions, it is also an internal financial responsibility.

resilience (Rosen et al., 2010). The end result is that students may gain access to a university, but they arrive on campus lacking the tools to effectively adapt to the new environment, as well as to succeed over the long term at the school and in their careers. In the end, the cost of achieving the very goal that students and their families have had their eyes on for years (i.e. university entrance) may indeed pose a threat to the much larger outcome of persistence to graduation.

1.1 Student Retention

Historically, the origins of student retention research focused on the individual student, rather than the relationship between the student and the institution. Spady's groundbreaking work in the early 1970s (1970, 1971) was the first to look at attrition and retention as an interaction between the student and the collegiate environment. Spady's research on attrition (1970), represented a shift from a psychological perspective (i.e., the individual) to one that saw the academic and social systems of the university as important frameworks through which "the dropout process must be examined" (p. 64). Tinto subsequently building on Spady's foundation, introduced his Student Integration Model (1975), where he saw that retention relied on the student's integration into the collegial environment, particularly within the first year. The Student Integration Model would undergo numerous iterations, driven by the work of Cabrera et al. (1992), Pascarella and Terenzini (1979), and Tinto himself (1988). In the resulting Institutional Departure Model (1993), Tinto argued that students progress through critical stages on the way to either integration or separation. One of the stages being that of separation, where the student needs to distance him or herself from previous social contexts such as family and high school where values, norms, and behaviors are markedly different from the college environment. The degree to which that separation occurs impacts a student's academic and social integration, and ultimately persistence. Subsequently, Bean's Student Attrition Model (1980) drew parallels between employee and student retention, viewing the organization as playing a more significant role in retention than postulated in Tinto's model.

The study of student persistence at the university has been most notably attributed to Tinto (1975) whose interactionist theory (Braxton et al., 2004) has shaped the way that researchers and practitioners have looked for solutions to the persistent challenge of student retention. Tinto was, as he put it, attempting to explain rather than merely describe student departure from higher education institutions. In doing so, he posited social and academic *integration* – which he emphasizes as more essential to persistence than mere interaction – as the broad underlying phenomena impacting student retention. Assuming that external conditions remain stable (e.g., no family or employment issues), a student elects to stay or leave depending on interactions within the school (e.g. faculty, peers) that lead to, or impede, academic and social integration. Academic integration is seen as a combination of actual academic performance, or "meeting certain explicit standards of the academic system"

(i.e. earning grades), as well as intellectual development, or the individual's identification with the norms of the academic system (Tinto, 1975, p. 104). Social integration occurs primarily through informal peer group associations, semi-formal extracurricular activities, and interaction with faculty and administrative personnel within the college (p. 107). This sense of belonging, or "fit" – academically and socially – with an institution may help a student to determine whether to stay or leave.

It should be acknowledged that student retention theories and models have by and large emerged from traditional higher education environments in the U.S., such as 4-year residential universities. This is understandable, given that completion rates in U.S. higher education have perennially been viewed as a threat to the national economy as well as to individual well-being. Although widespread recognition and examination of the problem gained traction some 50 years ago, even today the National Center for Education Statistics reports that approximately 60% of 4-year-college students in the U.S. reach graduation within 6 years. The situation is considerably more dire at 2-year colleges, with an average of 33% of students attaining their education goal (Hussar et al., 2020).

Turning specifically to Turkey, the issue of student retention and success in higher education is slowly drawing attention. This may be due in part to a historical focus on access rather than student success (Aypay et al., 2012). One can also speculate that the reason for this is that, as the saying goes, what gets measured gets done, and in this case, retention does not get measured.³ This seems to be the case in Turkey where persistence is seen as an "invisible problem" (p. 99). This is a bit ironic, given that student retention should be a key performance indicator at any educational institution. The researchers further posit that it remains unnoticed at public institutions because of limited competition and accountability. Conversely, at private universities, it should arguably be of major concern as considerable sums are invested to recruit students, and any student who leaves before graduation is revenue lost (not to mention the other losses incurred by the individual and institution).

2 The Challenge of Retention in EMI

There is little doubt that EMI continues its unabated growth globally (Bjarnason et al., 2009), and that private institutions are a larger slice of the EMI pie than state institutions (i.e., 91% vs. 78%) (Dearden, 2014). In part, this can be framed as an access issue, with private institutions serving an important and demand-absorbing function (Levy, 2008, 2016). However, as the number of private institutions increases

³As an academician and administrator who was Director of Student Retention for 5 years at a higher education institution in the U.S., it is quite clear to me that there is a sharp distinction between awareness of student retention in the U.S. and Turkey, and just how much it is measured and done (cf. *The Journal of College Student Retention*, the Annual Conference on the First Year Experience, or the NACADA Annual Conference).

within a country, so does competition – this is particularly the case in Turkey (Mızıkacı, 2011). Which gets to why effective recruitment *and* retention of students is crucial.

Student recruitment efforts require substantial institutional expenditures (e.g., hiring of staff, marketing costs). In contrast, retention initiatives designed to manage student enrollment are estimated to be 3–5 times more cost-effective than recruitment efforts, i.e., it takes 3–5 times as much money to recruit a new student than it does to retain an already enrolled student (Bean & Hossler, 1990; Cuseo, 2010; Noel et al., 1985). The Noel Levitz (n.d.) student success and retention consulting firm in the U.S. has long promoted its Return on Investment Estimator as a means for higher education institutions to examine this question themselves.

Research that directly examines student retention in the EMI context is rather narrow. Perhaps due in part to research on the broader field of EMI itself being relatively new but rapidly growing (Macaro et al., 2018, p. 45). A small body of literature exists around the challenge of EMI in Nursing education (e.g., Carter & Xu, 2007; Klisch, 2000; Smith & Demjanenko, 2011). The team of Evans and Morrison examined challenges in EMI in Hong Kong (2011a, b, c, 2012). Their research focused primarily on the student experience as it relates to the linguistic difficulties encountered in this context. While student persistence is directly identified in one study (2011b), it is not presented as a “major concern” (p. 200) as the “vast majority” of students successfully complete their programs. More recently, Aljohani (2014) directly examined student retention in the ESL context, concluding that organizational factors such as “rules and administrative system” and the attitude of the administrative staff were influential in student departure. The point to be highlighted here is that there remains limited research on the intersection of student retention and the EMI context.

Specifically, in the EMI literature there is a dance around the theme of retention, generally framed as “challenges.” However, there is virtually no mention of retention, attrition, or persistence across works that discuss challenges in EMI. Rather, the implication is that attrition is an indirect outcome. In their meta-analysis on EMI research, Macaro et al. (2018) examined 83 studies on EMI in higher education. While they did find affirmation of the EMI approach – in Turkey, Başıbek et al. (2014) concluded that EMI brought academic and career-oriented benefits – a number of studies reported downsides to EMI, most notably the “language proficiency” [the researchers point out a clear lack of consistency in defining this term (p. 52)] of both students and instructors. Again in Turkey, Kırkgöz (2014) found a “cause for concern” (p. 452) in that students struggled with English language learning, leading to memorization, rather than internalization of content for exams (see also Kırkgöz, 2018). Overall, while the meta-analysis revealed that lecturers were “deeply concerned about their students’ inability to survive, or better still thrive, when taught through English” (Macaro et al., 2018, p. 52), this most likely refers to linguistic and content-related challenges. That is, while instructors may be inherently concerned about student persistence, they did not go so far as to explicitly identify it as an outcome of the inability to survive. The authors do edge closer to the issue of retention through a proposed future research question about challenges that students

face as they transition from high school to higher education. To this point, they ask, “Is there a gradual progression in student competence to thrive in an EMI environment or is it a sudden shock with permanently negative consequences?” (p. 67).

What is noteworthy is that while only very few researchers have drawn a direct line between EMI and student retention (e.g., Ahmadi, 2017; Aljohani, 2014), a number have pointed to policy in EMI and its link with challenges. Coleman (2006) saw the inexorable spread across Europe of English as a *lingua franca* being driven by academia, and policy makers playing a role in the expansion of the language’s prevalence globally – what he referred to as the Microsoft effect: “Once a medium obtains a dominant market share, it becomes less and less practical to opt for another medium, and the dominance is thus enhanced” (p. 4). Coleman (citing Smith, 2004) observed that one “predictable problem” (p. 6) associated with this phenomenon of widespread English-medium teaching was students struggling linguistically and experiencing both a loss of confidence and a failure to adapt among local students. Gulf Coast countries “unwilling learners” were left out of the policy development process, leading to negative attitudes towards EFL: “The more bitter the students, the more challenges in student retention” (Ahmadi, 2017, p. 14). Likewise, Başibek and colleagues found that despite students’ desire to learn academic content in their mother tongue, “authorities at universities” were intransigent toward a policy shift away from EMI as it may negatively impact enrollments or “they may lose their ‘tool’ which makes their university an ‘elite one’” (2014, p. 1824). Bradford (2016) in proposing her three-category framework of EMI challenges – linguistic, cultural, and structural – echoes this point, raising the concern that enthusiasm for EMI “leads to unrealistic expectations regarding positive outcomes and a less than vigorous deliberation of the implementation processes and potential unintended consequences involved” (p. 340).

Regardless of how the issue is framed, the challenge of student retention is arguably very real among EMI institutions in Turkey. Perhaps the most obvious portal through which to view and examine student retention and attrition is any EMI university’s intensive English program (IEP), known generally in Turkey as the Preparatory (Prep) program. In any EMI school, this is the point of entry for some 80% of all newly matriculated students; a smaller percentage have the language skills to proceed directly into their academic programs. These *service* programs (i.e., non-credit), are intensive in that students may spend up to 30 h per week in a focused language program that is designed to raise the student to a CEFR B1 or B2 level (depending on the university’s determined exit level) within a specified time – such programs may range in length from nine to 12 months, with a second year available for those who cannot reach the exit level in the first year.

The reason why the Prep program becomes an ideal observatory and laboratory for student retention is primarily because it is situated in the critical first year of a student’s university experience. Whether a student is transitioning directly from high school to their university academic program, or they are required to spend a year in an intensive language program, any student is a candidate for dropping out during the crucial, yet tumultuous first year at the university. In the U.S., the import of this time period is perhaps best illustrated through the existence and success of

the 40-year-old National Resource Center for the First Year Experience, housed at the University of South Carolina. The case may somewhat easily be made that students in Prep programs are particularly vulnerable, not only because it is their first year of university, but also due to the extremely stressful (i.e. high-stakes) nature of the Prep program.

While all university academic programs, and the courses within their given curricula, may be considered difficult and rigorous, there are very few that are defined by high-stakes, *do-or-die* scenarios that may very well shape the rest of a student's life. Programs such as law and those in the health sciences may fall into this category, albeit, it may be argued that it is not the same in that bar and board exams follow a program and not precede. The Prep program, in contrast, is defined by its binomial nature (i.e., pass and proceed, or fail and depart; sink or swim) and its conceptual name: Intensive. This means that in order to succeed, a student must commit to long hours each week of seat-time (often longer than regular academic programs), along with equal amounts of time and energy dedicated to after-class studies.

Students must adapt to this new lifestyle on day-one of their university life. Further, regulations set by the Turkish Council on Higher Education state that a student must achieve the university's established language proficiency level (e.g. CEFR B2) within a 2-year period, or the student cannot enroll in the English medium program for which they enrolled at the school in the first place. To add one more layer to the stress sandwich, students at private universities in Turkey – most of which are EMI – are most likely paying tuition for these non-credit programs. This brings the family and its financial situation into the picture, placing added duress on the student who, theoretically, should have Krashen's low affective filter in order to effectively focus on language learning. Finally, under this extra blanket of pressure, students, like any other new university students, are struggling to find their way in this new, and perhaps incredibly foreign environment. A counter-productive, vicious cycle is never far away from Prep students. In brief, focusing on student retention in an EMI institution is essential at any level – first year or last. However, it is the first-year Prep student who is most vulnerable and warrants the most attention and resources.

2.1 The Most Vulnerable

In reality, all students arriving for the first time on any university campus are at risk of dropping out. Newly matriculated students are at-risk students because they are in a novel and quite possibly foreign environment (even if they are still in their home country). Students are, perhaps for the first time in their lives, separated for an extended period from family, friends, and the social structures that they have been swimming in since they were children. They may be thrust into a small dorm room with someone whom they have never met before, and possibly from a different culture – internationally or domestically. They may also find themselves immersed in

an academic and organizational context that it is completely unique to their frame of reference. Further, they may be a so-called *first-generation* student, meaning that neither parent has post-secondary education, significantly handicapping (Pascarella et al., 2004, p. 275), such students and placing them at higher risk of departure from a tertiary education (e.g., Ishitani, 2006, p. 880). In Turkey, what may exacerbate these factors is that while access to higher education continuously increases in Turkey, students are increasingly heading off to the university lacking the critical non-cognitive skills (e.g., perseverance or grit, self-control, social skills, and so on) that actually facilitate academic and career success, not to mention personal well-being (Staub, 2017). This is due in large part to the arduous, long-term process that students endure to prepare for the university entrance exam. During high school – particularly junior and senior years – students become singular in focus, dramatically curtailing, if not completely avoiding the types of social and extracurricular activities that develop and strengthen non-cognitive skills.

Even still, there are admittedly more vulnerable sub-populations found within the Prep program at the EMI university. Most notably are the absolute beginners, the second year or repeat students, and so-called vertical transfer students. Absolute beginners are at greatest risk in terms of sheer numbers; they may comprise 40% or more of a new cohort of students; this group may literally number in the hundreds. According to the secondary schools English language education curriculum (MEB, 2020) “learners are expected to graduate from high school with a minimum CEFR B2+ and/or beyond level of English language proficiency depending on whether students had preparatory class English education or not” (p. 7). And yet, a study of Turkish state school English language education, conducted by the British Council and the Economic Policy Research Foundation of Turkey (TEPAV), found that more than 95% of students in Government schools across Turkey cannot speak or respond to normal, or slowly-spoken English at the end of Grade 10; an estimated minimum of 920 class-hours delivered over 7 school years (Özen et al., 2013, p. 56).

This naturally creates two major challenges for incoming language learners and Prep programs. The first being that despite the substantial number of hours of English language education the students were exposed to in secondary school, a significant percentage of them appear to have acquired very little or no language (a far cry from B2+). The second complicating factor is related to the first in that following hundreds of hours of language education with little to show for it, students question themselves and their own ability to learn a language (within 12 months), resulting in diminished motivation to study in a Prep program. This population largely sees the road to a B1 or B2 as demoralizing and, to some degree, too long to travel. They liken it to a race where the slowest runners must start from the back of the pack. The aforementioned British Council report acknowledges that most students who come to the 4-year IEP at the beginner level (e.g. CEFR⁴ A1) have a tendency to lose motivation and become mired in the IEP. Prep programs are therefore tasked with ensuring linguistic progress, while keeping students motivated

⁴Common European Framework of Reference for Languages.

enough to keep their end goal in sight. It should be kept in mind that many of these students lack the non-cognitive skills (e.g., time management, collaborative learning) that would be of great benefit during this challenging year. These factors all add up to an extremely vulnerable population.

At the other end of the academic year lie the repeat, or support students. These are students who have simply not had the wherewithal to successfully complete the Prep program in a single year. By and large, they represent the 20-or-so-percent of last year's beginners who were not able to successfully cross the finish line within 12 months. Indeed, to the point that many beginners see the road as too long, many repeat students are those who immediately stopped coming to class – either mentally or physically. When they come to the second year of the Prep program, they may not realize it, but they are at a significant disadvantage. To begin, their time to successful completion of the Prep program is now compressed, increasing the pressure to learn the language that they had so much difficulty with last year. Further, depending on the philosophy of the Prep program, they are sometimes integrated into classes with newly matriculated students, but some schools are not in favor of this approach, seeing repeat students as a threat to the motivation of the new students. More likely, they are placed in repeat or support classes so that they can be presented with a unique curriculum that more closely resembles a test-prep course than a traditional Prep language class. After a year of virtually no progress – linguistically or academically – this population has low morale, low motivation, and high rates of attrition.

A third vulnerable sub-population found in the Prep program is the vertical transfer student, who transfers from a 2-year vocational school to a university; in contrast to the horizontal transfer student who is moving from university to university. In Turkey, structural changes enacted by the centralized governing body the Council of Higher Education have resulted in significantly greater numbers of vocational students passing the associated exam for transfer students and taking an important step toward the goal of earning a university diploma. This also means that it is not an insignificantly small group of students each year. Greater access to higher education for this population is certainly a positive development. However, transferring has also proven to be a double-edged sword (Bahr et al., 2013; Chrystal et al., 2013; Laanan et al., 2010; Townsend, & Wilson, 2009; Wolf-Wendel et al., 2009).

The score the student earns on the transfer exam determines the university where she or he may continue their studies. This often means that students are more likely to gain eligibility to transfer to one of Turkey's 100-plus private universities. That is, to study in an EMI program, which most probably means starting off in a Prep program. The transfer student examination and placement system does not run in parallel with the university exam and matriculation system; there is an approximate two-month gap between the two. This translates into transfer students – who most likely have not studied the English language for 2 years – entering a university and its Prep program 1 or 2 months behind new students. Disadvantages abound. Transfer students are not socialized to the university and their peers at the same time and in the same manner as the newcomers, this sets them back socially. When they arrive, they may be integrated into an existing section in the Prep program, where

they may be ignored or marginalized due their age and the fact that social networks have already been established. Further, these students are one or 2 months behind in an extremely intensive program. This linguistic lag also places them at considerable risk. In sum, these factors make vertical transfer students an especially vulnerable population.

3 Responding to the Challenge of Student Retention in EMI

The first step in addressing student attrition is for the EMI university – which generally means the Prep program – to acknowledge that it warrants attention. This is often the most difficult step because higher education institutions, particularly private ones, are reluctant to admit to “flaws” such as student departure. Or, at least admit that students may be departing for reasons that are under the control of the university. If the university genuinely wants to improve its retention rate, then there must be an admission that students are hindered by deficiencies that the institution itself can do something about. What must follow is the establishment of systems and structures to quantify, qualify, and respond to barriers that impede student success. An additional, essential step in this process is involvement in the broader discourse around student retention in EMI institutions, leading to sharing of best practices and collaborative projects. The progression from acknowledgement to action to collaboration requires a great deal of commitment and effort, but the end result is that the Prep program, and further the university, becomes more student-centered and focused on success and retention.

3.1 Leadership

Leadership is paramount in the student retention endeavor. Those who are responsible for the success of the program and institution must be willing to acknowledge that student departure is a critical issue. While in general this would refer to the rector, such responsibility is more likely to fall in the lap of the Prep program leadership, as it is an issue that manifests itself most prominently here. In either case, it requires at least one person with a voice in the organization who sees the need to, at least, explore the issue. This leader can understand the threats to both individual and institution when a student departs, and this leader has the capacity to ask for data, pull together a committee, even assign resources to the effort. It is the ideal landscape for Distributed Leadership (e.g., Spillane et al., 2001, 2004), which views leadership not as the actions of an individual, rather the distribution of a vision across an organization, that in turn becomes the actions of a dedicated group of individuals working in collaboration. Retention initiatives certainly require the vision and support of an individual leader, but to be broad-based and effective, a concerted effort is mandatory.

3.2 *Data*

As we have mentioned before: What gets measured gets done. Data plays many roles in the retention endeavor. Baseline data unveils an attrition problem. For Retention, it is a very simple equation: The number of enrollees in any given fall semester minus the number of program completers – after 2 years in the case of a Prep program. This data should be examined over at least three 2-year cycles; the more the better to reveal actual trends. However, this is only a symptom, describing the big picture; it provides very little in the way of explanation. Thus, the next step is to begin gathering, disaggregating, and analyzing data that pinpoints at-risk sub-populations. This may be demographic data (e.g. parental educational background; type of high school attended; high school GPA) or it may be attitudinal or behavioral self-reported data [e.g., Work engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2002); Time management (Britton & Tesser, 1991); Self-efficacy (Sherer, et al., 1982)]. There is also performance and behavioral data, such as assessments, homework, attendance, participation in extra-curricular activities, as well as instructor input on in-class behavior and attitudes. These various forms of data, collected systematically over time, help provide a more distinct profile of at-risk students. The data may not provide a definitive explanation as to why students choose to leave the institution, but it may reveal patterns in attitudes, backgrounds, and behaviors that can inform the development of action plans.

3.3 *Structure*

Back to leadership. There is too much relevant data to be gathered and analyzed, and too many actions to be taken by any one individual simply as a hobby. Retention requires structure, which comprises two key components. There is the human resource side of the equation. At the least, a retention initiative requires a committee that will meet on a regular basis to analyze data, discuss findings, propose solutions, and devise action plans; and perhaps enact those plans. Ideally, an individual is tasked with the responsibility of serving as a *Student Success Advisor*, or some other aptly named title that suggests to both students and other stakeholders that student success is the focus. Conversely, the purpose of a so-called *Retention Specialist* may not be immediately apparent, leading to either confusion or indifference among stakeholders. The point to be underlined here is that such an individual must be student-centered not only in title, but in personal philosophy and action, as well. This individual should be adept at data analysis and critical thinking, while also exhibiting a facility for developing a healthy rapport with students. Although there may be initiatives directed toward sub-populations, this individual will still expend considerable time having one-on-one conversations with students who come on the radar.

Likewise, a data miner is a plus. This may be one and the same with the student success advisor, although such diamonds in the rough are a rarity. The Prep program, if large enough, may have an individual dedicated to data aggregation, disaggregation, and analysis. If not, the success advisor would be well-served to develop a healthy rapport with the university's data analyst. The success advisor and the data miner do not nullify the Retention Committee – which helps analyze data, devise action plans, keeps the issue of retention front-and-center, and perhaps most importantly, under the framework of distributed leadership, serve as ambassadors for the Student Success unit. The essential point here being that effective student retention requires a team-based approach so that vulnerable students can be identified and action plans implemented. There are far too many at-risk students in any higher education institution for a single individual to address.

The action side of the structure equation becomes the research-based activities that address the needs identified by the data. The most prevalent activities, and perhaps the most sensible as a starting point for retention initiatives are: Early Alert Program, First Year Experience, Mentoring program.

Early Alert One of the major causes of student departure is what is generally called *Fit*; that is, a student's feeling that she or he does or not belong in the institution, for academic or social reasons. The very first days of school have a major impact on this feeling. Most new university students find this new experience quite overwhelming – they are coping with social separation from family and friends, thrust into an unknown social environment, and at the same time forced to adapt to completely new academic structure. Although there is a long school year ahead, it is quite possible that students “drop out” either physically or emotionally within this very short timeframe. It is also during this window that the Early Alert System (EAS) becomes a critical tool to decrease student attrition. Based on indicators that appear among individual students in the first days of a school year or semester – that instructors and staff are trained to identify – a system of assistance is enacted to offer support and increase the likelihood of the student remaining in the institution.

There are a number of early-warning indicators that students may evidence in the first days of a semester. These may appear as small, and rather harmless, but if not addressed immediately, they may scale up to larger issues. Examples may be absent from class or late for class, fatigue in class, no course text or materials, alcohol on breath, and so on. Instructors report such behaviors to the Student Success Advisor. The advisor will take the initiative to contact the student in order to determine the reason why the student has exhibited the reported behavior. The next step is for the advisor to assist the student in finding a solution, such as ensuring that the student brings materials to class, guiding the student to a counselor if necessary, pairing the student with a mentor. The primary goal of the Early Alert program is to ensure that early indicators of distress receive a rapid response and that students are aware that someone within the institution is concerned about them and wants them to succeed.

The First Year Experience In order to gain access to a tertiary institution, students must commit the larger part of their high school years to preparing for the university entrance exam. This singular dedication to the cognitively demanding exam comes at a critical time period when adolescents should also be developing the non-cognitive abilities that have been linked to college, career, and lifelong success; e.g. self-management, relationship skills, and responsible decision making (Dymnicki et al., 2013) and self-regulated learning, self-efficacy, coping and resilience (Rosen et al., 2010). The end result is that students may gain access to a university, but they arrive on campus lacking the skills to effectively adapt to the new environment, as well as to succeed over the long term at the school. Thus, for a substantial majority of newly matriculating private higher education students, they not only lack the non-cognitive skills and abilities to transition to a university, they are placed under the added weight of becoming academically proficient in a foreign language in 1 year's time.

Rather than simply relying on a short-term orientation program in the first days of the school year – when a student may still be disoriented in the new environment – the First Year Experience is a long-term program that helps students become academically and socially acclimated. They may attend workshops and seminars that introduce them to the campus, to learn study skills, establish social and academic relationships, lead a healthy lifestyle, effectively manage their time, and so on. There may also be a seminar component where students attend lectures provided by faculty members, with the intent of gaining exposure to a seminar experience. The benefits of first year experience programs and seminars are well-documented (e.g. Perzmadian & Credé, 2016; Schmidt & Graziano, 2016), and Prep programs should strongly consider these as a critical piece of the curriculum.

Mentoring Mentoring may come in two forms. There are programs where students mentor students, and those where faculty mentor students. The student-to-student programs are advantageous in that they are closer in age to each other, and there is a greater chance of the students being able to better understand each other's perspective. The student-mentor, particularly if the mentee is in the Prep program, has been in those shoes before, and can understand the feelings and questions that the mentee may express. The challenges with student-to-student programs are that mentors must be selected carefully and well-trained in providing accurate and appropriate information, as well as in acting confidentially and ethically. Teachers-as-mentors, while also requiring the same level of training, come with a different set of benefits because of their maturity levels, their better understanding of the university systems that are hindering the mentee, their ability to put the mentee in contact with other individuals who may provide support, and their knowledge of the content in the language program. Mentoring programs are proven beneficial, but they are labor-intensive, requiring and administration by a dedicated individual, which circles us back to the need for a Student Success Advisor to strengthen the retention initiative.

4 Conclusion

Student retention in any university is a complex phenomenon, with many variables impacting the relationship between the student and the institution. This is all the more complicated in the context of EMI, and in country such as Turkey with its numerous gate-keeping, high-stakes exams adding pressure to the lives of students of all ages. This chapter has focused on the first year of the EMI. For somewhere around 80% of all newly matriculated students in EMI institutions, the first year is dedicated to learning English in an intensive language program. It is arguably at this point that the greatest number of students are at risk of dropping out, particularly the absolute beginners, the transfer students, and those who are required to study in the Prep program for a second year. The answers to this sophisticated phenomenon are not easy to come by, yet data collection and analysis are a good place to begin defining the right questions. Further, leadership recognition of the issues around retention, along with the dedication of resources to establish a structure to address the identified barriers to success are positive steps in the right direction.

At this point in the larger field of EMI in Turkey, the issue of retention remains, as was noted earlier, and invisible challenge. For reasons that cannot easily be explained, in a higher education sector where access is highly coveted, then completion should, one would think, gain equal import. Likewise, approximately half of Turkey's 200 higher education institutions rely on student tuition for revenue. It would also appear that there would be a national spotlight on this issue. Currently, the number of universities that have made student retention a priority are few, including Bahçeşehir University and Bilgi University in Istanbul, Yıldırım Beyazıt University in Ankara, and Izmir University of Economics in Izmir. It would be a great advance if the Turkish Council of Higher Education and international accrediting bodies were to turn their attention to this important issue.

References

- Ahmadi, Q. S. (2017). Unwelcome? English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) in the Arabian Gulf. *English Language Teaching*, 10(8), 11–17.
- Aljohani, O. (2014). *Student attrition in higher education: an exploratory study of factors influencing student retention at a tertiary English language centre in Saudi Arabia*. Retrieved from <https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/32228279.pdf>
- Aypay, A., Çekiç, O., & Boyacı, A. (2012). Student retention in higher education in Turkey: A qualitative study. *Journal of College Student Retention: Research, Theory & Practice*, 14(1), 91–116.
- Bahr, P. R., Toth, C., Thirolf, K., & Massé, J. C. (2013). A review and critique of the literature on community college students' transition processes and outcomes in four-year institutions. In *Higher education: Handbook of theory and research* (pp. 459–511). Springer.
- Başıbek, N., Dolmacı, M., Cengiz, B. C., Bür, B., Dilek, Y., & Kara, B. (2014). Lecturers' perceptions of English medium instruction at engineering departments of higher education: A study on partial English medium instruction at some state universities in Turkey. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 116, 1819–1825.

- Bean, J. (1980). Dropouts and turnover: The synthesis and test of a causal model of student attrition. *Research in Higher Education, 12*(2), 155–187.
- Bean, J., & Hossler, D. (1990). *The strategic management of college enrollments*. Jossey-Bass.
- Bradford, A. (2016). Toward a typology of implementation challenges facing English-medium instruction in higher education: Evidence from Japan. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 20*(4), 339–356.
- Braxton, J. M., Hirschy, A. S., Yorke, M., & Longden, B. (2004). Reconceptualizing antecedents of social integration in student departure. *Retention and Student Success in Higher Education, 89–102*.
- Bjarnason, S., Cheng, K. M., Fielden, J., Lemaitre, M. J., Levy, D., & Varghese, N. V. (2009). *A new dynamic: Private higher education*. UNESCO.
- Özen, E. F., Alpaslan, İ. B., Çağlı, A., Özdoğan, İ., Sancak, M., Dizman, A. O., ... Vale, D. (2013). Turkey national needs assessment of state school English language teaching. *British Council & TEPAV, ArkaikArt Media Design, Ankara, Turkey*.
- Britton, B. K., & Tesser, A. (1991). Effects of time-management practices on college grades. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 83*(3), 405.
- Cabrera, A. F., Castaneda, M. B., Nora, A., & Hengstler, D. (1992). The convergence between two theories of college persistence. *The Journal of Higher Education, 63*(2), 143–164.
- Carter, K., & Xu, Y. (2007). Addressing the hidden dimension in nursing education: Promoting cultural competence. *Nurse Educator, 32*(4), 149–153.
- Chrystal, L. L., Gansemer-Topf, A., & Laanan, F. S. (2013). Assessing students' transition from community college to a four-year institution. *Journal of Assessment and Institutional Effectiveness, 3*(1), 1–18.
- Coleman, J. A. (2006). English-medium teaching in European higher education. *Language Teaching, 39*(1), 1–14.
- Cuseo, J. (2010). Fiscal benefits of student retention and first-year retention initiatives. *Ohio University, 7*(6), 10. Retrieved from <http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.626.2988&rep=rep1&type=pdf>
- Dearden, J. (2014). *English as a medium of instruction a growing global phenomenon* (pp. 1–34). British Council. Retrieved from http://www.britishcouncil.org/sites/britishcouncil.uk2/files/e484_emi_-_cover_option_3_final_web.pdf
- Dymnicki, A., Sambolt, M., & Kidron, Y. (2013). *Improving college and career readiness by incorporating social and emotional learning*. College and Career Readiness and Success Center. Retrieved from <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED555695.pdf>
- Evans, S., & Morrison, B. (2011a). The first term at university: Implications for EAP. *ELT Journal, 65*(4), 387–397.
- Evans, S., & Morrison, B. (2011b). Meeting the challenges of English-medium higher education: The first-year experience in Hong Kong. *English for Specific Purposes, 30*(3), 198–208.
- Evans, S., & Morrison, B. (2011c). The student experience of English-medium higher education in Hong Kong. *Language and Education, 25*(2), 147–162.
- Evans, S., & Morrison, B. (2012). Learning and using English at university: Lessons from a longitudinal study in Hong Kong. *The Journal of Asia TEFL, 9*(2), 21–47.
- Higher Education Information Management System. (2020). Retrieved from <https://istatistik.yok.gov.tr/>
- Hussar, B., Zhang, J., Hein, S., Wang, K., Roberts, A., Cui, J., Smith, M., Bullock Mann, F., Barmer, A., & Dilig, R. (2020). *The condition of education 2020* (NCES 2020-144). U.S. Department of Education. National Center for Education Statistics. Retrieved from <https://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch/pubsinfo.asp?pubid=2020144>
- Ishitani, T. T. (2006). Studying attrition and degree completion behavior among first-generation college students in the United States. *The Journal of Higher Education, 77*(5), 861–885.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2014). Students' perceptions of English language versus Turkish language used as the medium of instruction in higher education in Turkey. *Turkish Studies, 9*(12), 443–459.

- Kırkgöz, Y. (2018). Confronting similar challenges?: Exploring students' experiences of studying engineering at a Turkish university: Turkish versus English-language medium of instruction. *Rassegna Italiana di Linguistica Applicata*, 2-3, 145–160.
- Klisch, M. L. (2000). Retention strategies for ESL nursing students. *Journal of Multicultural Nursing & Health*, 6(1), 21.
- Laanan, F. S., Starobin, S. S., & Eggleston, L. E. (2010). Adjustment of community college students at a four-year university: Role and relevance of transfer student capital for student retention. *Journal of College Student Retention: Research, Theory & Practice*, 12(2), 175–209. <https://doi.org/10.2190/CS.12.2.d>
- Levy, D. C. (2008). Private higher education: Patterns and trends. *International Higher Education*, 50.
- Levy, D. C. (2016). The relative importance of private higher education in Europe. PROPHE working paper no.21. *Program for Research on Private Higher Education*. Retrieved from <http://www.prophe.org/en/working-papers/the-relative-importance-of-private-higher-education-in-europe/>
- Macaro, E., Curle, S., Pun, J., An, J., & Dearden, J. (2018). A systematic review of English medium instruction in higher education. *Language Teaching*, 51(1), 36–76.
- McCormick, A. C. (2003). Swirling and Double-Dipping: New Patterns of Student Attendance and Their Implications for Higher Education. *New Directions for Higher Education*, 121, 13–24.
- MEB. (2020). *T.C. Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı Ortaöğretim İngilizce Dersi 9, 10, 11, 12 Sınıflar Öğretim Programı*. Retrieved from <http://mufredat.meb.gov.tr/ProgramDetay.aspx?PID=342>
- Mızıkacı, F. (2011). Isomorphic and diverse features of Turkish private higher education. PROPHE working paper series. WP No. 18. *Program for Research on Private Higher Education*. Retrieved from <http://www.prophe.org/en/working-papers/isomorphic-and-diverse-features-of-turkish-private-higher-education/>
- Noel-Levitz. (n.d.). *Return on investment estimator*. Retrieved from <https://www.ruffalonl.com/wp-content/uploads/pdf/ReturnonInvestmentEstimator.pdf>
- Noel, L., Levitz, R., & Saluri, D. (1985). Increasing student retention: New challenges and potential. *Increasing student retention*, 1–27.
- Pascarella, E. T., & Terenzini, P. T. (1979). Interaction effects in Spady and Tinto's conceptual models of college attrition. *Sociology of Education*, 197–210.
- Pascarella, E. T., Pierson, C. T., Wolniak, G. C., & Terenzini, P. T. (2004). First-generation college students: Additional evidence on college experiences and outcomes. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 75(3), 249–284.
- Permazdian, V., & Credé, M. (2016). Do first-year seminars improve college grades and retention? A quantitative review of their overall effectiveness and an examination of moderators of effectiveness. *Review of Educational Research*, 86(1), 277–316.
- Ristow, B. (2019). Mobilizing resistance against the shadow economies of global private tutoring. In N. Juergensmeyer II & Seis (Eds.), *Neoliberalism and academic repression* (pp. 107–122). Brill.
- Rosen, J. A., Glennie, E. J., Dalton, B. W., Lennon, J. M., & Bozick, R. N. (2010). *Noncognitive skills in the classroom: New perspectives on educational research*. RTI International.
- Schaufeli, W. B., Martinez, I. M., Pinto, A. M., Salanova, M., & Bakker, A. B. (2002). Burnout and engagement in university students: A cross-national study. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 33(5), 464–481.
- Schneider, F., & Enste, D. H. (2013). *The shadow economy: An international survey*. Cambridge University Press.
- Schmidt, L., & Graziano, J. (Eds.). (2016). *Building synergy for high-impact educational initiatives: First-year seminars and learning communities*. University of South Carolina, National Resource Center for The First-Year Experience & Students in Transition.
- Sherer, M., Maddux, J. E., Mercandante, B., Prentice-Dunn, S., Jacobs, B., & Rogers, R. W. (1982). The self-efficacy scale: Construction and validation. *Psychological Reports*, 51(2), 663–671.

- Smith, K. (2004). Studying in an additional language: What is gained, what is lost and what is assessed? In R. Wilkinson (Ed.), *Integrating content and language: Meeting the challenge of a multilingual higher education*. Universitaire Pers.
- Smith, C., & Demjanenko, T. (2011). *Solving the international student retention puzzle*. University of Windsor.
- Staub, D. F. (2017). University education in developing economies: Access, competition, and neglect. In *Building for a sustainable future in our schools* (pp. 193–209). Springer.
- Spady, W. G. (1970). Dropouts from higher education: An interdisciplinary review and synthesis. *Interchange*, 1(1), 64–85.
- Spady, W. G. (1971). Dropouts from higher education: Toward an empirical model. *Interchange*, 2(3), 38–62.
- Spillane, J. P., Halverson, R., & Diamond, J. B. (2001, April). Investigating school leadership practice: A distributed perspective. *Research News and Comment*, 23–28.
- Spillane, J. P., Halverson, R., & Diamond, J. B. (2004). Distributed leadership: Toward a theory of school leadership practice. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 36(1), 3–34.
- Tinto, V. (1975). Dropout from higher education: A theoretical synthesis of recent research. *Review of Educational Research*, 45, 89–125.
- Tinto, V. (1988). Stages of student departure: Reflections on the longitudinal character of student leaving. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 59(4), 438–455.
- Tinto, V. (1993). *Leaving college: Rethinking the causes and cures of student attrition* (2nd ed.). University of Chicago Press.
- Townsend, B. K., & Dever, J. T. (1999). What do we know about reverse transfer students? *New Directions for Community Colleges*, 106, 5–14.
- Townsend, B. K., & Wilson, K. B. (2009). The academic and social integration of persisting community college transfer students. *Journal of College Student Retention*, 10, 405–423.
- Wolf-Wendel, L., Ward, K., & Kinzie, J. (2009). A tangled web of terms: The overlap and unique contribution of involvement, engagement, and integration to understanding college student success. *Journal of College Student Development*, 50, 407–428.

Part IV
Directions for English-Medium
Instruction in Turkey

The EMI Quality Management Program: A Novel Solution Model



Mustafa Akıncioğlu

Abstract English Medium Instruction (EMI) is a rapidly trending phenomenon especially in the context of Higher Education (HE) globally. A historical milestone in this trend may be 1995 when Maastricht University first used the concept of EMI for some of their academic programs. Despite attracting increasing levels of attention from the inter/national HE stakeholders, EMI has also brought a number of challenges and problems to the EMI HE institutions and to their stakeholders (namely policy makers, managers, teachers, students and alumni, parents, and the business world) which remained unresolved if not fossilised over time. The first part of this chapter presents how a progressivist and constructivist vision of education, more specifically the concept of learning, has gradually fed into academic research and then a series of EMI Universities Symposia in the HE contexts of Turkey and Northern Cyprus Turkish Republic. This chapter then presents a tangible and comprehensive solution model for international HE institutions, in the form of the EMI Quality Management Program (EMI QMP) that is inspired by the research findings and the symposia results.

Keywords EMI · EMI policy · EMI quality · EMI university symposium · Institutionalisation · Holistic approach

1 Introduction

Macaro and Akıncioğlu (2017, p. 1) define English-medium instruction (EMI) as the use of English (for example sole use, partial use, code switching and so on) to teach academic subjects (other than English itself) in countries or jurisdictions where the first language of the majority of the population is not English. Since 1995

M. Akıncioğlu (✉)
Associate Researcher, University of Oxford, Oxford, UK
e-mail: mustafa.akincioglu@tafanova.com

© The Author(s), under exclusive license to Springer Nature
Switzerland AG 2022

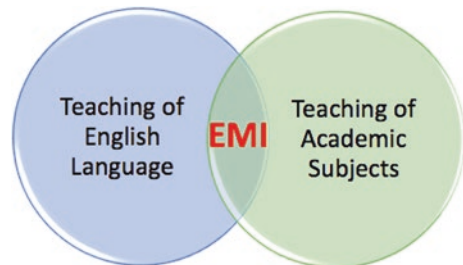
Y. Kirkgöz, A. Karakaş (eds.), *English as the Medium of Instruction in Turkish
Higher Education*, Multilingual Education 40,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-88597-7_14

277

when Maastricht University first used the concept of EMI in order to promote some of their academic programs, the phenomenon of EMI has been trending in the international Higher Education (HE) context. To date, the concept of internationalization of HE has emerged as one of the strongest motivations behind this trend (Galloway & Rose, 2015) with a focus on gaining access to global mobility (Graddol, 2006), rendering the EMI university more prestigious, attracting more foreign students (O'Dowd, 2015) due to changing demographics and national cuts in HE investment, the ongoing competition between state and private sector universities and the status of English in the domain of academic research and publication (Coleman, 2006; Macaro et al., 2017) However, this relatively new and trending phenomenon of EMI has created more challenges than opportunities and has remained severely under-researched. It was contextually timely when EMI Oxford Centre for Research and Development (later in 2017 it become EMI Oxford Research Group¹) was founded at Oxford University Department of Education in 2013 with a particular research interest on EMI at tertiary level. Today, it is widely agreed that more research-based data on EMI is needed so that EMI HE institutional stakeholders (namely policy makers, managers, teachers, students and parents) can make informed decisions about, for example, academic program designs, teacher recruitment and so on.

Today, the overall international EMI HE panorama clearly shows that switching to *lingua franca* and thereby opening the doors for global opportunities such as internationalisation, prestige, mobility and faster access to global web of science are not as straightforward as they are strategically targeted by the HE policy makers. Indeed, Teaching of Second/Foreign Languages and Teaching of Academic Subjects are already well-established areas with quality standards. However, when these two areas intersect in the context of EMI HE (Fig. 1), the transition has proven to be more problematic and that often has been tied to, as argued by Macaro et al. (2016), on-going issues such as the level of language readiness of EMI students and teachers, the effectiveness level of English Preparatory Year Programs (PYP) and so on. Moreover, this chapter argues strongly that this problematic transition is exacerbated since the strategic decision behind is not translated into a solid EMI policy, hence cannot be institutionalized. Undoubtedly, any high-level strategic decision,

Fig. 1 EMI HE context



¹ <http://www.emi.network/about-emi-oxford.html>

such as shifting the instructional language from L1 to EMI, must be institutionalised so that the vision and strategy behind can be internalised by all stakeholders. Otherwise manifestly, most of the relevant decisions and practices (such as varying from EMI program design to support for professional development, from effective course delivery to evaluation of learning outcome and so on) can severely lack harmony, synergy and efficacy.

This chapter will provide an account of how a more critical perspective on the key topics and issues of EMI could be translated into a tangible solution model hence action in the EMI context of Turkish HE and beyond. Firstly, examples of how field research could be approached from more critical angles particularly with a greater focus on the learning outcome in the EMI HE context of Turkey will be provided. Secondly, another example of how a critical approach to EMI HE institutions in Turkey and Northern Cyprus, by keeping the results from academic field research in mind, could actively involve all the stakeholders in solution-oriented workshop discussions on the issues around EMI. Finally, a tangible and comprehensive solution model that is essentially designed for the EMI HE institutions in Turkey and Northern Cyprus with the international EMI HE context in mind will be presented. It may be noteworthy to point out here that this solution model, the EMI QMP, is inspired by both academic field research findings and the results gained from the EMI Universities Symposia held in Turkey and Northern Cyprus Turkish Republic between 2018 and 2019.

2 A Critical Stance Towards the Ongoing Issues Around EMI

As a B.Ed. in English Language Teaching (ELT) degree holder teacher, I have taught and worked within various national and international contexts. After completing Cambridge University DELTA and an MLitt in ELT, I have gained a more critical eye and a research interest in how decisions are made in various contexts of education and to what extent these decisions may have an impact on the learning outcomes. These research interests guided my (ongoing) PhD research as well as my role as an Associate Researcher at University of Oxford.

Within the discourse of this chapter the term ‘critical’ is used as it is conceptualised by the Critical Social Theory of the Frankfurt School and related scholars, i.e. Theodor W. Adorno, Max Horkheimer, Erich Fromm, Herbert Marcuse and more recently Jürgen Habermas (1972, 1984) etc. Briefly, the Critical Social Theory,² which was initially based on Structuralism and later Post-Structuralism, proposed that investigation into the structures and interactions of a ‘system’ could bring about understanding of the system as a whole. In other words, as argued by the post-structuralist social philosophers, such as Habermas (1972) and Foucault

²This philosophical stance influenced various fields, e.g. Marxist economy, Saussureian language studies, Freudian psychology and so on.

(1972), a system cannot entirely be understood by simply studying its static and pre-positioned structures. The views shared on HE institutions in this chapter hence are fundamentally guided by this critical stance. Through the lenses of this critical view it is also argued that HE institutions should be considered as multi-layered (i.e. policy making, program execution, content delivery etc.) and multi-dimensional (namely micro, meso and macro levels including such as educational, social, economic dimensions and so on) institutions that also require to be taken into consideration individually within their local contexts and as members of a wider international EMI HE institutional network.

Essentially, with a focus on education, Dewey's (1938) and his followers Progressivist views on education guide the views shared in this chapter on the educational contexts. From a more particular perspective over the concept of learning, Vygotsky's (1978, 1986) constructivist views on the concept of learning that is encapsulated in his Socio-Cultural Theory of Learning inspires the views that are shared in this chapter in keeping a greater focus on the concept of learning outcome. In other words, from a Deweyan perspective I believe that education should aim to unlock the potential of the individual while empowering them for being part of the advancement of their society hence humanity. To do so, from a Vygotskian perspective, I also believe that knowledge should be constructed as a result of a multi-layered process necessarily including social interaction/s, rather than being imparted. This definition also encapsulates the concept of learning outcome that is referred to by this chapter and the EMI QMP.

These core stances also guided my contribution to the design of the research project, among others, on teacher collaboration within EMI HE context (see Macaro et al., 2016). In this research project, as the research team we sought the answers to the following research questions: (1) How does collaboration in planning evolve between a PYP teacher and an EMI teacher? and (2) What factors make collaboration successful or less successful? The body of research shows that the speed and lack of preparation for EMI in HE contexts not only ignores effective new pedagogical methods for promoting English (as opposed to EFL), but also disregards the efficacy level of the learning output of the academic subject programs being delivered by means of English (Macaro et al., 2016). To provide a more particular focus on both, we have agreed to design and make use of a Collaborative Lesson Planning Tool (CPT) and a survey of Self Estimation of Comprehension. Briefly, CPT aimed to provide a framework for collaboration for the teacher participants (namely English Teacher and Academic Subject Teacher) while the survey of Self Estimation of Comprehension focused on the learning outcome from a student's angle.

3 A Holistic Approach to EMI Universities: EMI Universities Symposia

As an EMI field researcher since 2014, I argue strongly that the decision for a HE institution to shift the language of academic subject delivery from the First language (L1) to English (EMI) is a strategic one, therefore it needs to be treated as such

within all the educational and managerial processes involved. I also strongly argue that one of the best ways to assess the value of such a strategic decision made in the context of HE is to observe and measure the (direct and/or indirect) impact of this decision on the learning output. From a more comprehensive perspective over the EMI HE institution, I propose a greater focus on the institutionalisation of the strategic decision to implement EMI, which should also be internalised by all institutional stakeholders.

With these above core views in mind, organising a series of EMI universities symposia in Turkey was proposed to the policy makers of a group of EMI universities in 2018. The initial focus of this proposed symposia was to address the below four issues that were/are commonly observed in the international EMI HE context.

1. Frequently, language programs (i.e. PYP) are held accountable for the prolonging EMI related issues in the academic subject departments where the means of instruction is English. The argument is that if students complete the language program with the ‘right’ level of language proficiency, the teaching and learning at the academic subject departments could be at a higher standard (see Macaro & Akıncıoğlu, 2017; Macaro et al., 2017; McMullen, 2014 for detailed discussion).
2. The institutional decisions that are made by the policy makers to implement EMI at academic subject departments mostly do not have a strategic layer because this decision is generally treated as one of the straightforward shifts from one option to another. Consequently, the policy maker level decision of implementing EMI mostly (if not all) remains to be not institutionalised hence not internalised by the institutional stakeholders.
3. It is commonly observed that personal experiences, such as learning English as a second language, living abroad especially in English-speaking countries and so on, guide the decisions that are made pertaining to the implementation of EMI to a great extent. In other words, personal beliefs and experiences around learning and studying through English commonly form the opinions that ultimately guide the institutional decisions made around EMI. However, although somewhat lacking, there is a body of field research on EMI especially at tertiary level (i.e. for the Spanish HE context see Aguilar & Muñoz, 2014; for the Swedish HE context see Airey, 2011; for the Iraqi context see Borg, 2016 and so on) which could guide more informed decisions.
4. Research shows that one of the motivations for implementing EMI is that EMI HE institutions are generally perceived as more prestigious and of higher quality (see Dearden, 2015; Macaro & Akıncıoğlu, 2017 for more detailed discussions). However, the concept of *quality of EMI* is highly problematic. There are neither defined standards for EMI nor established Quality Assurance protocols to follow (see chapter “Reflections on English-medium Instruction in Turkish Higher Education Institutions, Educational Quality and Insights from International Experience” for discussion on Quality Assurance in EMI).

In addition to the above listed commonly observed issues around EMI within international HE contexts, a number of suggestions were also made on a possible organisational model for these proposed symposia in order to be able avoid some

commonly observed pitfalls in such organisations that aim to bring together multiple stakeholders from a large population³ of universities. Firstly, an EMI university symposium should aim to involve all the EMI university stakeholders (namely policy makers, managers, EMI lecturers, language support program managers and English teachers, current students and alumni, representatives from the business world) including government institutions that have in/direct connections with EMI universities. Interestingly, this particular approach was also found its reflection in the title of these academic events as ‘EMI Universities Symposium: A Holistic Approach’.

Secondly, in order to highlight the collective and collaborative nature of these academic events, when/if possible, one government and one private university should form the organisation committee. By employing this particular approach, the aim was to ensure that the ownership of the symposium could not be claimed by any university. Resultantly, the universities that hosted the symposium only defined themselves as the host institutions. Also, the organisation committees were formed by the participation of multiple stakeholders of EMI universities (namely Vice Rector, Deputy Dean, EMI Lecturer/Teacher, PYP Manager and PYP Teacher) in order to avoid leading to a misperception that the symposium is owned and organised by a particular Department such as Department of Education, School of Foreign Languages and so on. Another important suggestion about the organisation committees was that it should be chaired by a representative from the university management.

Thirdly, participation in the symposium should be free of charge to facilitate a high level of participation. In order to ensure that constructive discussions among different stakeholders could be facilitated, the workshop groups should be formed by ensuring the involvement of multiple stakeholders. Also, the language of the symposia should be the local language (Turkish) in order to eliminate the affective filter effect of the use second language (English) in expressing personal opinions during the workshop discussions.

Lastly, the organisational model of the symposia should be progressive by means of which the decisions for the next symposium could be collectively made during the symposia by the participants. Also, this progressive model required the organisation committees to share their experiences and suggestions with the next organisation committees.

4 Summary the Symposia Events

Briefly, four symposia were held between June 2018 and April 2019. Two symposia were at regional scale and two were at National scale. Overall, more than 100 universities and more than 800 participants come together around the workshop tables for detailed discussions.

³In 2018 there were more than 210 universities (both state and private universities) in Turkey 130+ of whom offering at least one academic program through EMI (source www.yok.gov.tr).

The first symposium was held in Istanbul in **June 2018**. The organisation committee was formed by Boğaziçi University and Kadir Has University, and the event was hosted by Kadir Has University.⁴ This first symposium was a regional one that aimed to involve universities from Istanbul city and the wider Marmara region.

The second symposium was organized and hosted by İzmir University of Economics⁵ in **October 2018**. A brief presentation on the background of EMI globally and locally was followed by two panels and one workshop.

The third symposium⁶ was organised by Eastern Mediterranean University and Middle East Technical University (METU) Northern Cyprus Turkish Republic Campus, and the event was hosted by Eastern Mediterranean University⁷ in **November 2018**. This symposium was at a national scale involving EMI university only from Northern Cyprus Turkish Republic. The opening speech was made by Mr. Cemal Gürsel Özyiğit, the Minister of Education and Culture of the Northern Cyprus Turkish Republic.

The fourth and the last symposium was titled as ‘The National Symposium: A Holistic Approach to EMI Universities’ was organised and hosted by METU⁸ in Ankara in **April 2019**. The reports of the symposia are available at the symposia websites with the exclusion of the final symposium whose report was not ready by the date this chapter was written.

5 Summary of the Symposia Results

The emerging themes from the discussions held in the four symposia could be briefed under four topics. Firstly, the transition between K-12 and university needs to be re-examined⁹ with a particular focus on EMI. In the educational context of Turkey, for example, after around 1650 hours of English exposure during K-12 years, around 60% of the students come to university PYPs with CEFR-A 0/1 level of English. Secondly, there needs to be more effective collaboration models in place at

⁴The program, the video recording of the opening presentation and the panel, and the symposium result report are available in the symposium website <https://www.khas.edu.tr/tr/haberler/universitelerde-ingilizcenin-egitim-dili-olarak-kullanimi-butuncul-bir-yaklasim>

⁵The program, the video recording of the opening presentation and the panel, and the symposium result report are available in the symposium website <http://www.ieu.edu.tr/butuncul-bir-yaklasim/>

⁶In Chapter 2 Ali Fuad Selvi provides a detailed account on the Northern Cyprus EMI Universities Symposium which is part of the series of symposia called A Holistic Approach to EMI Universities.

⁷The program, the video recording of the opening presentation and the panel, and the symposium result report are available in the symposium website <https://emi-sempozyum.emu.edu.tr/tr>

⁸The program, the video recording of the opening presentation and the panel, and the symposium result report are available in the symposium website <http://emi.metu.edu.tr/tr>

⁹One of the outcomes of the results of these symposia is that upon my proposal SEV Üsküdar American College, Istanbul, with my active participation, organised and helped a conference titled Closing the Gap: EMI K12-University Conference 15 February 2020 (see <https://sites.google.com/my.uaa.k12.tr/sevpdday2020/ana-sayfa>).

universities to link PYP and EMI academic subject departments. Thirdly, recruitment of EMI lecturers/teachers have been problematic for various reasons such as their required English language proficiency levels do not ensure quality lecture delivery in international classes and so on (see Chapter 2 “[English-Medium Instruction in Northern Cyprus: Problems, Possibilities, and Prospects](#)” for further details about recruitment policies). Also, Continuous Professional Development (CPD) support for both PYP teachers and EMI teachers on EMI emerges as another crucial topic. Fourthly, the last but not the least, HE institutions do not have solid EMI Policies in place although most of them have instructional language related policy documents and regulations. Also, quality and Quality Assurance of EMI emerge to be problematic areas since there are not solid definitions and processes available in the field literature on these particular topics.

6 Final Remarks on EMI Universities Symposia: A Holistic Approach

Within a space of 10 months between June 2018 and April 2019, four symposia (two regional and two national level) managed to bring together more than 100 EMI universities and more than 800 multiple stakeholders to actively participate in the workshop discussions about ongoing issues around EMI at tertiary level. Organisation committees worked on voluntary basis and participants did not gain any academic credit. The organisation model that was suggested to bring together multiple stakeholders proved to be highly effective displaying a good example of how well a ‘Holistic Approach to EMI Universities’ could work. In fact, this successful result is also in line with Kırkgöz’s (2007) findings from a longitudinal project that employed a holistic approach to the renewal of PYP curriculum in the context of a Turkish university. In Kırkgöz’s (2007) study, multiple stakeholders (namely administrator, teachers, students from PYP and EMI academic subject departments) were brought together over the course of 2 years in a curriculum renewal project that yielded positive results in terms of curriculum development, positive impact on the perceptions of participants, and successful collaboration at intra-departmental and inter-departmental levels. In light of these, it could be argued that by re-visiting the collaboration models with an aim to re-position the EMI HE stakeholders around the workshop tables could provide a platform for more solution-oriented discussions.

Finally, the systematic review of literature shows that the definition of EMI is also problematic (Macaro et al., 2017). Perhaps, we may need a fresh perspective over the definition of EMI with a greater focus on *I* (Instruction) rather than *E* (English). By doing so, we may have a wider focus on the learning outcome in the contexts of EMI HE.

7 EMI Quality Management Program: A Novel Solution Model for HE Institutions

7.1 Background

As a field researcher of EMI since 2014, the fact that there were hardly any quality standards for the implementation of EMI at HE institutions was one of the first things that struck me during the field research of the projects that I was part of. I also realised that there were not (and still are not) dedicated EMI Policy documents in place albeit there are Institutional Language Policies a few of which have references to the implementation of EMI i.e. by University of Freiburg. Surely, there were (and still are) plenty of regulations available pertaining to the topic of EMI such as student recruitment, EMI lecturer recruitment and so on. However, regulations are by no means policy documents or quality standards, and they should not be treated as such.

For the sake of brevity, this chapter will neither expand a discussion around the historical context of the implementation of EMI nor provide an in-depth argument on the particular topics of policy and quality in the contexts of HE. However, in the following paragraphs, firstly, a brief account of the concepts of policy and quality will be provided by means of which a binding reference between the critical stance that has been employed by this chapter towards education and the concepts of policy and quality that are used in the design of the EMI QMP will be postulated. Then, a novel solution model for HE institutions, the EMI QMP, will be presented with references to how academic research findings and EMI University Symposia results are translated into a quality management program with a focus on institutionalisation, quality, sustainability and learning outcome.

7.2 Policy

The concept of policy is commonly used to refer to governments' or institutions' practices of laws, regulations, procedures, incentives and so on. Although an in-depth account on the concept of policy will not be presented in this chapter, it is important to briefly clarify how the concept of language policy is construed. Bernard Spolsky's definition of the concept of language policy is adopted by this chapter. Spolsky (2004) defines the concept of language policy as consisting of language practices, language beliefs, and language management. In his seminal book, Spolsky (2004) provides not only a strong argument that language policies are inevitably political in nature but also provides examples that language is not just a means of communication, but also a form of political and cultural ideology. Earlier in this chapter it has been highlighted that the decision of shifting the instructional language from L1 to EMI is construed as a strategic one with long term impacts on all stakeholders. Therefore, the concept of EMI policy, as a type of language policy, is

also strongly argued by this chapter to have a critical dimension¹⁰ with references to language ideology, power and dominance (for more detailed discussion see for example Wright, 2004; Phillipson, 1992).

Another noteworthy point about the concept of policy could be the cycles of policy which essentially determine the fundamental approach to policy making hence policy protocols. Although there are various approaches to policy cycles in the field literature and practices (such as five stages cycle by Anderson (2014), seven stages cycle by Lasswell (1971, 2015) and so on), in the design of the EMI QMP an eight stage policy cycle¹¹ that is proposed by Althaus et al. (2007) is adopted due to its heuristic and iterative nature with a greater focus on progress rather than diagnosis. (For more detailed discussions on the concept of policy, see Kirkpatrick & Liddicoat, 2019; Tollefson & Perez-Milans, 2018; Spolsky, 2012.)

7.3 *Quality*

The concept of quality is still rather elusive although it has been with us more than millennia. In other words, it is indeed a challenging task to pin down an overarching definition hence description for the concept of quality. In his seminal book Garvin (1988) points out the elusive nature of the concept of quality and argues that if quality is to assume a strategic role, we need to have a shared and agreed definition of it in order to avoid ambiguity and confusion. Garvin (1988, p. 39) also proposes five principal approaches to defining quality which are transcendent, product based, user based, manufacturing based, and value based. (For more in-depth discussions on the concept of quality see Crosby, 1979; Feigenbaum, 1991; Juran & Godfrey, 1998; Deming, 2000; Ellis & Hogard, 2018.)

Another noteworthy point to highlight here could be the concept of quality cycles. Due to the space restrictions, this chapter will not expand on this matter. Briefly, it can be argued that the Deming Cycle is one of the most widely-used quality cycles in various field practices, which is plan, do, check, act. In the design of the EMI QMP, in addition to having references to the Deming Cycle, Juran's Quality Trilogy (namely quality planning, quality control, and quality improvement) is also employed to a great extent. One of the main reasons behind this design approach is that, as Juran and Godfrey (1998) argue, the concept of quality develops around the sub-concepts of fitness for use and fitness for purpose while taking into consideration that multiple stakeholders employ varying degrees of roles during the quality processes. In the design of the EMI QMP, this approach played a crucial role as, by design of the EMI QMP, universities are not construed as social service providers.

¹⁰The author delivered a presentation titled "Call for a Critical EMI" at ELF-11 Conference held between 07–09 May 2018 by King's College, London, UK.

¹¹The eight stages policy cycle by Althaus et al. (2007): (1) Issue identification (2) Policy analysis (3) Consultation (4) Policy instrument development (5) Building coordination and coalitions (6) Program Design (7) Policy Implementation (8) Policy Evaluation.

Therefore, in the context of HE, quality should be constructed with strong references to the educational visions of institutions and of their stakeholders rather than on the basis of customer satisfaction and/or else.

8 Remarks on Policy and Quality with Reference to EMI at HE Contexts

Relevant field literature and field practices show that dedicated and robust EMI policy is somewhat lacking in the inter/national HE contexts. As mentioned earlier, University of Freiburg appears to be one university that has EMI policy which is in fact part of their Institutional Language Policy. This chapter strongly argues that there is indeed an urgency for dedicated EMI policies to be in place in HE contexts. EMI policies could play a vital role in translating the national/institutional strategies and visions on EMI into dynamic procedures that could then be institutionalised while being internalised by all institutional stakeholders.

It can also be argued that there is neither a definition nor a solid and widely shared set of quality standards on EMI. This chapter by no means intends to prescribe the concept of quality for HE institutions. Rather, it is strongly argued that the quality concept of EMI is best to be constructed by the policy makers of HE. It would then be expected that there could shortly be a wide range of institutional quality standards all of which facilitate the development of inter/national quality benchmarks of EMI. However, this chapter primarily argues that a critical perspective is also crucial so that overarching philosophies of and visions on education, hence society, could be effectively translated into robust and dynamic EMI policies and quality protocols. Consequently, the EMI QMP is designed as a solution model including these critical arguments into its design consideration with a particular stance towards the concepts of EMI Policy and EMI Quality both of which play pivotal roles in institutionalization, sustainability and focusing on learning outcome.

9 Institutional Language Policy (ILP): A Report by LERU

Previous paragraphs presented an account on the concepts of high-level strategic decisions, policy and quality in the context of HE with a focus on EMI. Interestingly, the League of European Research Universities (LERU) published a report on Institutional Language Policy (ILP) in November 2019 (Kortmann, 2019) based on the results from a research project carried out within 17 LERU member universities between 2017 and 2018 to find out about the Institutional Language Policies and how effective they were in terms of academic subject delivery. LERU's Report on ILP (Kortmann, 2019) is interesting in various aspects, the first of which is that the decision made between Teaching of English and Teaching through English is described as a strategic one. During the research study, the strategic choice on the instructional language (L1 vs English) was investigated with the member

universities with a focus on its role within classroom language use, academic discursive use and general language use.

Another interesting point is that this research project provided a closer look at the institutional leadership in terms of its overall goals and strategies regarding opting for the implementation of EMI. The research findings reveal that “[t]here is no dearth of language policy documents in European Higher Education ... Language policy documents almost always go hand in hand with the process of making universities more international” (Kortmann, 2019, p. 7). This research study also had a close look at whether EMI related policies are institutionalised, internalised by the stakeholders and EMI quality control and enhancement processes are in place.

Thirdly, LERU’s research study closely scrutinized the institutional internal processes with a view that defining and assigning responsibilities and competence areas required for the medium- and long-term implementation of Institutional Language Policy are equally important (Kortmann, 2019, pp. 4, 34). In this report, these internal processes were recommended to be participatory, sustainable with transparent communication and mild non-enforcing through incentivising. Also, within the recommendations of this report, the implementation processes of EMI Policy are suggested to have the highest level of leadership i.e. Pro-Vice Chancellor etc., defined budgets, defined responsibilities, competencies and milestones and clear and effective communication for the involvement of all stakeholders.

In summary, LERU’s 2019 ILP Report (Kortmann, 2019) is interesting for various reasons most important of which is that LERU defines the decision to implement EMI at their member universities as a strategic one. By keeping this strategic decision at the core then LERU lists a number of recommendations, briefly, to institutionalize this strategic decision by ensuring the internalization of it while keeping the concept of quality and sustainability in mind, all of which have already been pointed out and addressed by the EMI QMP since its early creation in 2016.

10 The EMI QMP

In 2016, I designed a framework for EMI Universities based on my view that the decision of implementing EMI is indeed a strategic one. By means of this strategic decision the HE institutions and their stakeholders have been compelled to re-visit their conventional practices, for example teaching and learning in their L1 and so on, in order to make sure that this shift in the instructional language in fact serves its strategically determined purposes. This framework of EMI excellence suggested an algorithm through which the strategic decision of EMI could be translated into a dedicated EMI policy document then into the relevant protocols.

In 2019, through the use of the results from the series of the EMI Universities Symposia: A Holistic Approach, this framework for EMI excellence was updated into a Quality Management Program (QMP) for EMI HE institutions globally (see Appendix 1). The EMI QMP¹² primarily aims to assist EMI HE Institutions in

¹²Also available on www.tafanova.com/emi-quality-program/

developing academic instructional settings where English could be most effectively used as a medium for academic instruction. To do so, the EMI QMP aims to ensure that the strategic decision of the implementation of EMI is institutionalized with a focus on quality, sustainability and learning outcome.

The strategic decision to implement EMI requires a shift from L1 to English. The EMI QMP perceives this shift as a challenging and formidable one during which the processes of institutionalisation, quality and research need to be given equal consideration. Firstly, the implementation of EMI should be considered as a strategic decision, and thus be institutionalized. For this purpose, EMI policy documents should be created, and the institutional EMI strategy should be internalised by all stakeholders. Secondly, in line with the EMI Policy of the institution, a concept of EMI Quality should be constructed. For this purpose, the concept of EMI Quality should be defined, and pertinent quality protocols (namely quality control, quality enhancement, and institutional performance) should be designed and executed. Thirdly, EMI policies and related protocols should be determined in light of academic field research findings.

The EMI QMP also considers this shift from L1 to English as a long-term journey of institutionalization that must be initiated and maintained within the specific contexts of the HE institutions. Essentially, this shift entails a change at institutional level which should be effectively managed. It is important to highlight the fact that the concept of *Resistance to Change* is also anticipated thus planned to be managed as part of an effective and sustainable institutionalization process by taking the internal dynamics of the institutional context into account. In order to effectively manage this change process five stages are recommended (Fig. 2).

In this proposed change management model, firstly, the change is introduced to all stakeholders during the Registering the change stage. With a holistic approach to HE institutions, this stage is followed by actively and gradually involving all stakeholders in the Taking the ownership of the change stage. In the Managing the change stage, the change processes are executed while keeping all stakeholders involved. During the fourth stage of Institutionalising the change, the new practices presented by the program are ensured to be integral parts of the institutional processes and development. Finally, in the fifth stage of Continuous development, sustainability of the practices that are introduced by the program is ensured through creating internal capacities for development.

Fig. 2 The EMI QMP change management model



As presented earlier, the EMI QMP is designed to reflect the heuristic and iterative nature (as proposed by Althaus et al., 2007) of the policies to be written on EMI. It is anticipated that, although this may vary considerably depending on the unique context and needs of an institution, it may take an average of 2 years to complete the fifth stage (Continuous improvement) where the iterative nature of the EMI policy protocols guide the process of continuous development mostly through the assistance of internal capacities created during the program. In other words, the fifth stage also indicates a level of internal capacity for institutional autonomy in order to maintain the cycles of the EMI policy protocols with a minimum requirement for external guidance and support. Figure 3 presents a sample road map for the implementation of the EMI QMP with an external assistance provided by a solution partner, TAFE NOVA¹³ (for details see Appendix 1).

Finally, through the effective execution of this change management model, the EMI QMP ultimately aims to lead the institution to attain five core outcomes. Firstly, institutional leadership sets vision and strategy for implementing EMI. Secondly, dynamic EMI Policies¹⁴ and relevant policy protocols are created while institutional competencies for effective implementation of EMI determined. Thirdly, EMI Quality concept is created in line with Institutional EMI strategy. Fourthly, as part of the institutionalisation and internalisation processes, the certification of competencies of managers, teachers and support staff is overseen mainly by the internal capacity that is planned to be created during the EMI QMP.

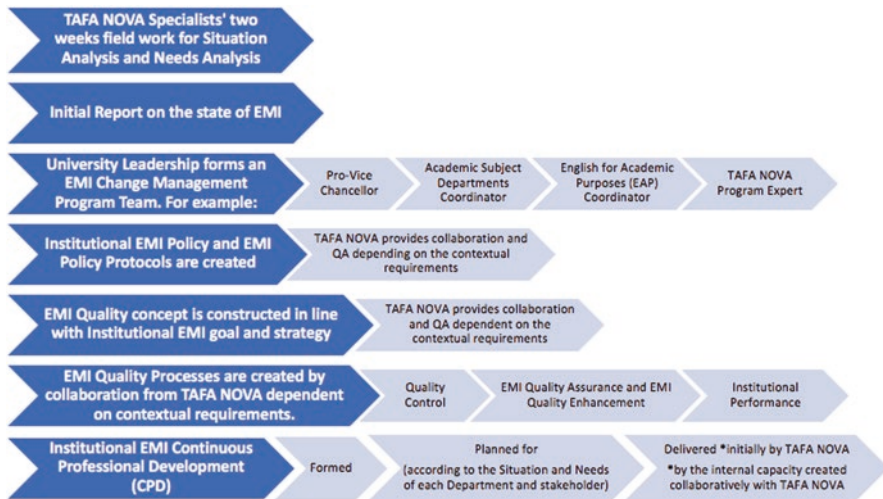


Fig. 3 The road map for the EMI QMP

¹³TAFE NOVA is an ODTÜ Teknokent start-up who provides solution partnership services pertaining the EMI QMP.

¹⁴Dynamic EMI Policy is a copyright concept proposed by the EMI QMP. Briefly, it defines the progressive and dynamic nature of EMI related Policy document that is essentially inclusive and participatory.

11 Conclusion and Recommendations

This Chapter, briefly, has presented how a progressivist and constructivist stance toward education and academic research could be translated into research project designs, symposium design with a holistic approach and finally into a solution model with a focus on institutionalisation, quality, learning outcome and sustainability.

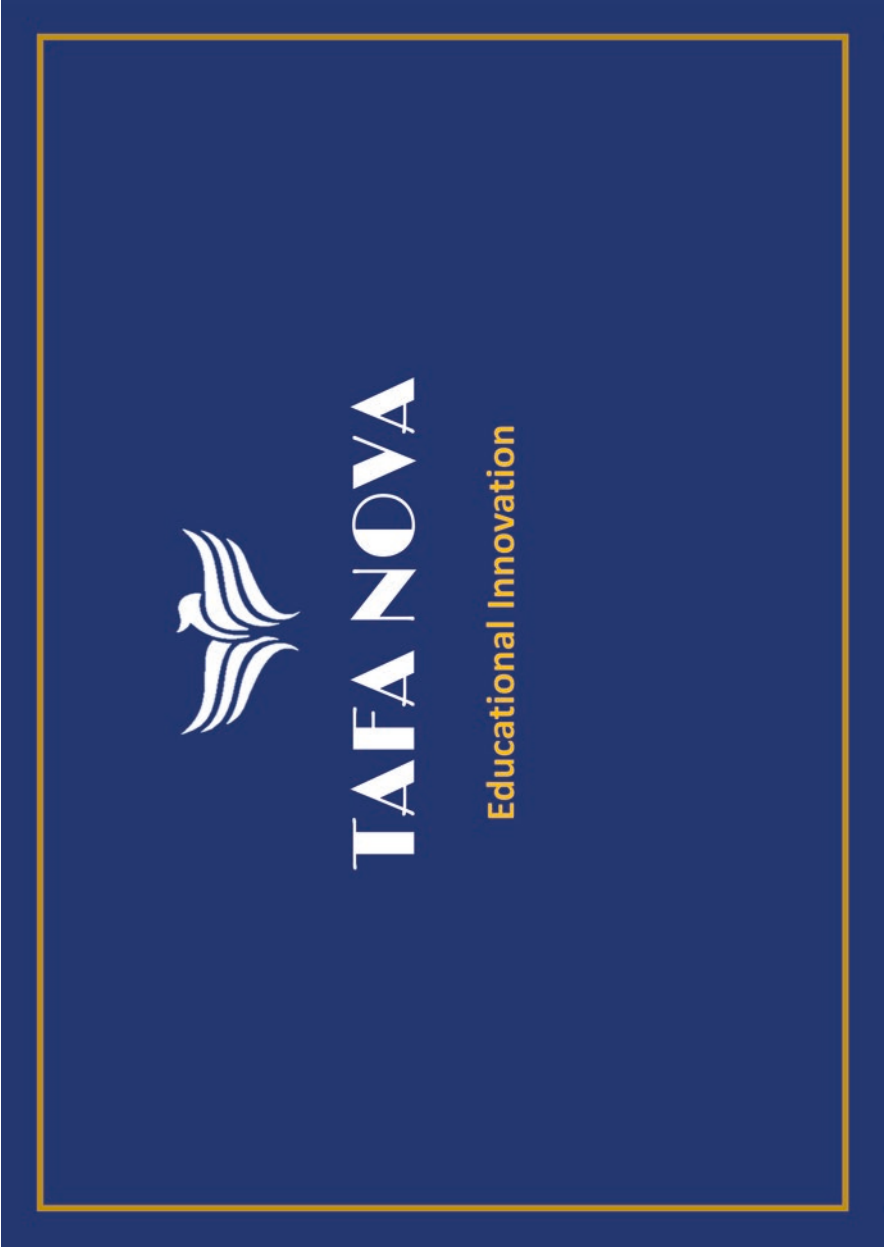
Institutionalisation, especially within educational contexts, is a long term project spread over years if not decades. Thus, the EMI QMP is anticipated to complete the fifth stage of Continuous Development by the end of minimum 2 years when the HE institutions gain autonomy to continue the process of institutionalisation and development more independently. It may be worthwhile to highlight that the EMI QMP primarily aims to construct internal capacity within HE institutions so that they can continue their unique experience of change and development over the years. Also, the EMI QMP aims to create a network of EMI HE institutions locally and internationally so that the members of this network can continue to learn from each other's experiences.

With regards to the ownership of this proposed long-term journey of institutional innovation, the EMI QMP, as a solution model, requires being owned and executed all the way through by the institutional leadership. This point is of utmost importance as no other source of authority could ensure the smooth execution and development in such a high-level institutional innovation model.

As earlier mentioned, LERU 2019 ILP Report (Kortmann, 2019) is still one of the strongest reference points for the principles of the EMI QMP presented as a solution model by this Chapter. It is no surprise that LERU is indeed an organisation of research universities that provided a holistic approach to the EMI HE institutions through the lenses of strategic leadership during the research project. Through email exchanges started in March 2020, I have been in contact with the General-Secretary of LERU, Prof. Dr. Kurt Deketelaere, who showed interest in the vision and principles of the EMI QMP offering his assistance so that the program could be presented to the relevant LERU departments as well as the member universities (due to the conditions caused by the COVID19 pandemic this proposed collaboration had to be postponed to a later date).

Finally, I would like to call for research into the execution of the EMI QMP in various contexts and time frames. The need for in-depth data on EMI is still on the table. As new perspectives on institutionalisation, quality, learning outcome and sustainability are offered, there could be a plethora of opportunities for research projects particularly on learning outcomes and sustainability in the contexts of HE. In line with this direction, the University of Bath has become the first university to form an academic collaboration with the EMI QMP provider, TAFA NOVA, and a research project has already started (by the time of writing of this chapter) on the initial analysis of the perceived EMI Policy and EMI Quality by the EMI QMP participant university's stakeholders.

Appendix



**A Unique Focus on
ACADEMIC INSTRUCTIONAL LANGUAGE**

At TAFA NOVA we believe in the advancement of humanity. Encapsulating this vision, we promote progressivist mindset in educational contexts through offering multi-disciplinary solution models for Educational Policy Developers and Decision-Makers.

TAFA NOVA has a unique focus on 'academic instructional language' that is primarily concerned with the quality of English Medium Instruction (EMI) in higher education contexts where English is not the First Language.



The Concept of EMI Quality

Implementing EMI is a **STRATEGIC** decision. This decision should be **INSTITUTIONALISED** with a holistic approach to EMI university EMI Policy and EMI Quality Assurance protocols Institutional EMI Competencies & Certification Focus on Sustainability, Quality and Learning Outcome.

The EMI Quality Management Program©

- Dynamic EMI Policy©
- EMI Quality©
- EMI Institutional Competencies© and Certification of EMI Manager Competences©
- EMI Lecturer Competences©
- EMI University Support Staff Competences©
- TEQUMAS International EMI University Accreditation©

Robust international reference for the Quality of EMI.



Verified Institutional Competencies

- ✓ Dynamic EMI Policy©
- ✓ EMI Quality Assurance©

Certified Institutional Competencies

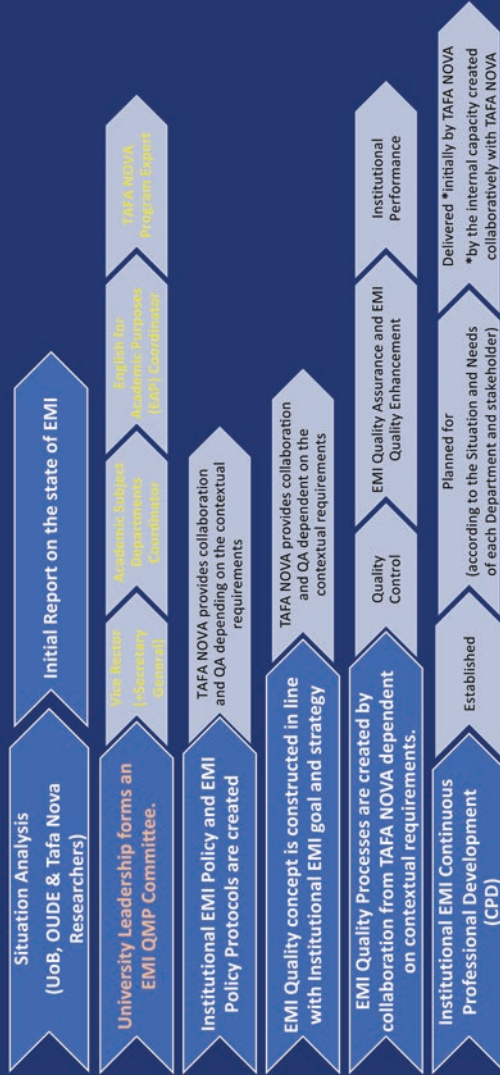
- ✓ EMI Manager Competencies©
- ✓ EMI Lecturer Competencies©

- ✓ Students' Learning Quality Boosts
- ✓ EMI Lecturers & Managers Certified
- ✓ EMI University Accredited
- ✓ Internationalization & Network
- ✓ Research & Publication





EMI QMP ROAD MAP



SENIOR ADVISORS

-  **Emeritus Prof. Ernesto Macaro**
University of Oxford
-  **Assoc. Prof. Heath Rose**
University of Oxford
-  **Emeritus Prof. Neil Mercer**
University of Cambridge
-  **Prof. Dr. Atilla Eriş**
Frm. Member of Exec Board / YÖK
Turkey
-  **Dr. Darla Deardeoff**
The President of AIEA
-  **Dr. Heinz Ulrich Schmidt**
Frm. Director General of HE
Germany

OFFICIAL ACADEMIC PARTNER



EMI QMP Creator



Mustafa Akincioglu PhD (Cand)
Associate Researcher
University of Oxford



✉ mustafa.akincioglu@tafanova.com
mustafaisnow@gmail.com

References

- Aguilar, M., & Muñoz, C. (2014). The effect of proficiency on CLIL benefits in engineering students in Spain. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 24(1), 1–18.
- Airey, J. (2011). Talking about teaching in English: Swedish university lecturers' experiences of changing teaching language. *Iberica*, 22, 35–54.
- Althaus, C., Bridgman, P., & Davis, G. (2007). *The Australian policy handbook* (4th ed.). Allen & Unwin.
- Anderson, J. E. (2014). *Public policy making: An introduction* (8th ed.). Cengage Learning.
- Borg, S. (2016). English medium instruction in Iraqi Kurdistan. British Council. Retrieved from <http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/english-medium-instruction-iraqi-kurdistanperspectives-lecturers-state-universities>
- Coleman, J. A. (2006). English-medium teaching in European higher education. *Language Teaching*, 39(1), 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.1017/s026144480600320x>
- Crosby, P. B. (1979). *Quality is free: The art of making quality certain* (6th ed.). McGraw-Hill.
- Dearden, J. (2015). *English as a medium of instruction—A growing global phenomenon*. British Council. Retrieved from https://www.britishcouncil.org/sites/default/files/e484_emi_cover_option_3_final_web.pdf
- Deming, W. E. (2000). *Out of the crisis*. The MIT Press.
- Dewey, J. (1938). *Experience and education*. Delta Publishing.
- Ellis, R., & Hogard, E. (Eds.). (2018). *Handbook of quality Assurance for University Teaching* (1st ed.). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315187518>
- Feigenbaum, A. V. (1991). *Total quality control*. McGraw Hill.
- Foucault, M. (1972). *The archaeology of knowledge and discourse on language* (S. Smith, Trans.). Pantheon Books.
- Galloway, N., & Rose, H. (2015). *Introducing global Englishes*. Routledge.
- Garvin, D. A. (1988). *Managing quality: The strategic and competitive edge* (6th ed.). Free Press.
- Graddol, D. (2006). *English next*. British Council.
- Habermas, J. (1972). *Knowledge and human interests* (J. J. Shapiro, Trans.). Beacon Press.
- Habermas, J. (1984). *The theory of communicative action* (Vol. 1) (T. McCarthy, Trans.). Beacon Press.
- Juran, J. M., & Godfrey, A. B. (1998). *Juran's quality handbook*. McGraw Hill.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2007). Innovation as a curriculum renewal process in a Turkish university. In A. Rice (Ed.), *Revitalizing an established program for adult learners* (pp. 135–158). Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL).
- Kirkpatrick, A., & Liddicoat, A. J. (Eds.). (2019). *The Routledge international handbook of language education policy in Asia*. Routledge.
- Kortmann, B. (2019). *Language Policies at the LERU member institutions* (Briefing Paper No 4). Retrieved from <https://www.leru.org/publications/language-policies-at-leru-member-institutions>
- Lasswell, D. H. (1971). *A pre-view of policy sciences*. Elsevier.
- Lasswell, D. H. (2015). *The decision process: Seven categories of functional analysis* (K. Ronet, & T. Porter, Eds.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Macaro, E., & Akıncioğlu, M. (2017). Turkish university students' perceptions about English medium instruction: Exploring year group, gender and university type as variables. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2017.1367398>
- Macaro, E., Akıncioğlu, M., & Dearden, J. (2016). English medium instruction in universities: A collaborative experiment in Turkey. *Studies in English Language Teaching*, 4(1), 51–76.
- Macaro, E., Curle, S., Pun, H., An, J., & Dearden, J. (2017). A systematic review of English medium instruction in higher education. *Language Teaching*, 51(1), 36–76.
- McMullen, G. (2014). The value and attributes of an effective preparatory English program: Perceptions of Saudi university students. *English Language Teaching*, 7, 131–140.

- O'Dowd, R. (2015). *The training and accreditation of teachers for English Medium Instruction: A survey of European universities*. Retrieved July, 2015, from http://sgroup.be/sites/default/files/EMI%20Survey_Report_ODowd.pdf
- Phillipson, R. (1992). *Linguistic imperialism*. Oxford University Press.
- Spolsky, B. (2004). *Language policy*. Cambridge University Press.
- Spolsky, B. (Ed.). (2012). *The Cambridge handbook of language policy*. Cambridge University Press.
- Tollefson, J. W., & Perez-Milans, M. (Eds.). (2018). *The Oxford handbook of language policy and planning*. Oxford University Press.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes* (M. Cole, Trans.). Harvard University Press.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1986). *Thought and language* (A. Kozulin, Ed.). The MIT Press.
- Wright, S. (2004). *Language policy and language planning: From nationalism to globalisation*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Review and Final Thoughts: The Future of English-Medium Instruction in Turkey



Yasemin Kirkgöz and Ali Karakaş

Abstract This chapter brings together and highlights the critical perspectives raised in the previous chapters and seeks to provide an insight into the future of EMI research in the Turkish higher education context. Reference is also made to how awareness can be raised about the strategies and tools needed to improve EMI at the tertiary level in Turkey, particularly in relation to the fact that the implementation of EMI is increasingly widespread, giving rise to new issues which have remained beyond the scope of the current volume. By raising the issues likely to surround EMI in the future, we aim to offer a window for researchers and practitioners from Turkey and other parts of the world to see different aspects of EMI, such as curriculum design, lesson planning, discourse features, as well as teacher-student classroom interaction. We also attempt to identify those issues and challenges that may be involved in EMI literature in relation to such concepts as central linguistics, pedagogy, sociolinguistics, socio-culture, in addition to language policy and planning.

Keywords Innovations in EMI pedagogy · New approaches to EMI · Teacher training · Linguistic landscape

Y. Kirkgöz
Çukurova University, Adana, Turkey
e-mail: ykirkgoz@cu.edu.tr

A. Karakaş (✉)
Burdur Mehmet Akif Ersoy University, Burdur, Turkey
e-mail: akarakas@mehmetakif.edu.tr

© The Author(s), under exclusive license to Springer Nature
Switzerland AG 2022

Y. Kirkgöz, A. Karakaş (eds.), *English as the Medium of Instruction in Turkish Higher Education*, Multilingual Education 40,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-88597-7_15

1 Introduction

This book project emerged from the need to provide a detailed account of the status of EMI in Turkish higher education, through the lenses of researchers who have previously undertaken EMI research as well as those who have brought their own research expertise into EMI settings. We hope that the chapters in the volume have provided insights into some of the issues and discussions related with EMI in Turkish higher education and higher education in similar contexts. However, we are also aware that despite the various aspects of EMI explored throughout this volume, several issues remain to be addressed in greater detail. In this final chapter of the volume, it is these issues to which we will turn our attention, such as methodological orientations and novel areas of study.

2 Review of the Volume and Future Directions for Future Research

The literature indicates that since the outset of this area of exploration (e.g. Vinke, 1995; Vinke et al., 1998; Wilkinson, 2005), research on EMI has largely benefited from a variety of research designs and methodological approaches with survey questionnaires and interviews being the most preferred tools of data collection. Further, EMI research has widely drawn on data collected from content teachers and students in non-language-major programs (e.g. Engineering), as well as EAP teachers in language support programs with respect to their attitudes and perceptions towards policy and practice. The chapters in this volume are no exception in this regard (see chapters “[Academic English Language Policies and Practices of English-Medium Instruction \(EMI\) Universities in Turkey from Policy Actors’ Eyes](#)”, “[Stakeholder Perspectives on the Use of English-Medium Instruction \(EMI\) in Turkish Universities](#)”, “[Turkish Undergraduates’ Perspectives on EMI: A Framework Induced Analysis of Policies and Processes](#)” and “[Content and Language in EMI Assessment Practices: Challenges and Beliefs at an Engineering Faculty in Turkey](#)”). Apart from attitudinal and perceptual studies, our contributors ventured into areas that are still relatively under-researched in the EMI literature. Adopting slightly different methodological approaches and research designs, some contributors focused on uncharted issues, such as content teachers’ identity negotiation and agency assertion in the act of EMI policy implementation unveiled through narrative interviews (see chapter “[Multi-Level EMI Policy Implementation in Turkey’s Higher Education: Navigating Ideological Tensions](#)”), assessment practices in EMI classrooms exposed by interviews and focus groups (see chapter “[Content and Language in EMI Assessment Practices: Challenges and Beliefs at an Engineering Faculty in Turkey](#)”), academic writing practices of EMI postgraduate students and supervisor support practices explored via interviews (see chapter “[A Closer Look at the Doctoral Writing Practices in an English-Medium Instruction University in Turkey](#)”).

Among the several lesser-known issues surrounding EMI are reading practices of EMI students. Although reading comprehension is shown to be among the major difficulties EMI students often face in lecture comprehension (Chou, 2016; Tran et al., 2020), previous research seems to have taken issue with listening comprehension more than reading comprehension (e.g. Evans & Morrison, 2011; Kırkgöz, 2013; Soruç et al., 2018). Thus, relatively little is known about how EMI students grapple with reading comprehension in EMI classes. One effective way of dealing with reading comprehension problems is to develop and employ strategies, such as the metacognitive reading strategies that EMI students employ in their endeavor to cope with cognitively demanding reading comprehension tasks. This issue has also been addressed in this volume in detail from the perspectives of engineering students at a technical university (see chapter “[Questioning the Metacognitive Reading Strategies in an English-Medium Instruction \(EMI\) Setting](#)”).

Another area of EMI research which still awaits more scholarly attention is the exploration of classroom interaction. In this sense, teacher-student interactions emerge as an important linguistic source from which lessons can be taken for better implementation of EMI classes. Recent research has taken into account this gap and explored various dimensions of teacher-student interactions, such as teacher questions and student talk in EMI classrooms (Genç, 2020) and discourse strategies used by content teachers to enhance student comprehension and overcome potential linguistic difficulties (Ege, 2020). This volume features a chapter on a specific discourse marker, i.e. *Okay*, utilized by a math professor in his classroom interactions for a wide range of functions (see chapter “[Exploring the Functions of *Okay* as a Discourse Marker in an English-Medium Instruction Class](#)”). It is our firm belief that the field of EMI in and beyond Turkey would benefit from “more in-depth ethnographic and observational studies to improve our knowledge about the complexity of teaching and learning practices” (Dimova et al., 2015, p. 318). Thus, future studies should make greater use of corpus linguistics and conversation analysis in the investigation of the ways in which EMI is enacted in the classrooms since such studies are highly likely to yield insights into effective teaching pedagogy and teacher training. In this respect, we expect more research to be channeled into classroom dynamics in EMI, such as the enactment of multilingual nature of EMI classrooms (e.g. translanguaging, see a recent volume on this by Paulsrud et al., 2021) and interactional skills on the part of content teachers and students in EMI classroom practices (e.g. Tsou, 2017).

While previous studies have highlighted the need and urgency for training academic staff in terms of linguistic proficiency and teaching methodologies (Ball & Lindsay, 2013; Cloke, 2017; Tatzl, 2011) and the importance of collaboration between content teachers and language specialists (e.g. Kırkgöz 2006; Macaro et al., 2016), the number of studies on these research topics are limited as far as the extant research is concerned. Recently, a full book-length treatment of teacher training for EMI has made its way to EMI literature in the European context (see the volume edited by Sánchez-Pérez, 2020). This volume features a chapter on teacher training for a rather less-researched group among EMI stakeholders, i.e. EMI teacher educators and English language teachers teaching through English to teach

English (see chapter “[Training Language Teachers for English-Medium Instruction \(EMI\) Contexts Through the Use of Augmented Reality](#)”). As far as we know, doctoral research on EMI teacher training in the Turkish context is already in the pipeline (Birgün, [forthcoming](#)). We believe that teacher training would be a fruitful area for further work on EMI in Turkey because, to the best of our knowledge, most EMI teachers are left to teach their subject content in a foreign language with little or no training, which, as shown in the preceding chapters, negatively influences their teaching performance and student learning outcomes.

Aside from empirical studies, EMI literature abounds in opinion pieces and critical reviews on a number of relevant constructs, including the notion of ‘E’ of EMI, the use of English as a lingua franca (ELF) in EMI settings, the multilingual nature of EMI classrooms as well as the use of other languages in the form of ‘translanguaging’ alongside English in EMI settings (e.g. Jenkins, [2019](#), [2020](#); Kirkpatrick, [2014](#); Küçük, [2018](#)) and conceptual differences between EMI and similar approaches; e.g. Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), Content-based Instruction and English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and bilingual education (e.g. Aguilar, [2017](#); Airey, [2016](#)). In this volume, there are critical reviews and opinion pieces on more specific notions, such as activities and components of internationalization equated with Englishization and EMI in particular (Kirkpatrick, [2014](#)). One of these components is quality assurance and enhancing teaching and learning in EMI (see chapters “[Reflections on English-Medium Instruction in Turkish Higher Education Institutions, Educational Quality and Insights from International Experience](#)” and “[The EMI Quality Management Program a Novel Solution Model](#)”). Another is the nexus between student mobility, internationalization and the growth of EMI programs in Turkish higher education in light of recent language policies and planning (see chapter “[Internationalization, Mobility and English-Medium Instruction in the Context of Turkish Higher Education](#)”). Additionally, being among the one of major outputs of internationalization goals, student retention has not seemed to receive enough attention as a potential research topic in EMI as yet (Dimova, [2020](#)). Rather, there has been an invested interest in student recruitment and academic staff hiring policies (Jenkins & Wingate, [2015](#); Karakaş, [2018](#); Wächter & Maiworm [2014](#)). Thus, there has been no detailed discussion of student retention in EMI, particularly concerning the pre-faculty EAP support programs where students receive intensive English classes prior to their transfer to disciplinary programs. This area of research is among the gaps addressed in this volume, as well, with special attention paid to how the inherent yet invisible challenge of student retention in EMI can be resolved through tangible action plans (see chapter “[Why Student Retention Matters for Turkish EMI Universities?](#)”).

We should also note that since the release of the first edited volume on EMI by Doiz, Lasagabaster and Sierra ([2013](#)), a great deal of EMI research has been conducted in relation to European countries with book-length studies into various aspects of EMI as well as numerous journal articles and reports (e.g. Dafouz, [2020](#); Dimova et al., [2015](#); Earls, [2016](#)). Research interest has also spread across many other countries, including East Asian and Southeast Asian countries as well as Latin

American and East and South African contexts (e.g. Bradford & Brown, 2017; Bowles & Murphy, 2020; Murata, 2018; Toh, 2016). Specifically looking at Turkey, the bulk of EMI research has been carried out on the mainland, while there is a dearth of information available when it comes to the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus despite being home to 25 universities and two colleges that offer degrees below bachelor's, most of which are private foundation institutions with EMI (e.g. Arkin, 2013; Arkin & Osam, 2015). Seeing Northern Cyprus as a less-researched national context, several researchers have initiated research on EMI and organized EMI-related academic events in this very specific context (e.g. Pehlivan, 2018; Vancı Osam et al., 2019). We have not remained indifferent to this emerging EMI context in this volume, either (see chapters “English-Medium Instruction in Northern Cyprus: Problems, Possibilities, and Prospects” and “Turkish Undergraduates’ Perspectives on EMI: A Framework Induced Analysis of Policies and Processes”). We also believe that the ground is fertile for conducting further EMI research in other Turkic countries to further our existing knowledge concerning policies and practices around EMI, particularly by researchers who know or are familiar with these contexts, such as Kazakhstan (e.g. Seitzhanova et al., 2015; Zenkova & Khamitova, 2018), Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, and Uzbekistan (e.g. Liddicoat, 2019).

Policy research has taken shape in the EMI literature for a while in both Turkish context (see chapter “Academic English Language Policies and Practices of English-Medium Instruction (EMI) Universities in Turkey from Policy Actors’ Eyes”) and elsewhere (e.g. Jenkins, 2014) with a focus on what academic English norms are considered appropriate and relevant for classroom practices as well as the language ideologies that lie behind shaping those norms. One of the cutting-edge research areas in EMI policy research is the phenomenon of ‘linguistic landscaping’. Recently, Turkish researchers have addressed this aspect of EMI policy by exploring a long-established EMI institutions’ linguistic landscape from divergent viewpoints (e.g. Karakaş & Bayyurt, 2019). Apart from the investigation of the physical linguistic landscape, a particular area of interest appears to be the virtual linguistic landscape of EMI universities that is exhibited through their websites in different languages (e.g. Keleş et al., 2019). The existing body of research suggests that there is limited representation of languages other than English in the linguistic landscape of EMI universities and that a discrepancy exists as to the website content given in English and other languages. We thus believe that this emerging field of policy research, i.e. physical and virtual linguistic landscape, remains to be elucidated with more research through case studies from individual universities and studies across multiple sites. It is through such research that one can primarily determine the extent to which EMI institutions can actualize their claim to being ‘international’ in the truest sense by displaying languages other than English and the language of the home country in their physical linguistic landscapes, and secondly by what information is (un)available and (in)accessible, (in)consistent, or (in)comprehensible as well as the extent to which the content is aligned in different languages in their website content constituting their virtual landscapes.

3 Final Remarks

Overall, it has become evident from this volume and the existing literature on EMI that much research, so far, has been concerned with teaching and learning in EMI from the perspectives of various stakeholders with survey questionnaires and interviews being the largely preferred methodologies in their research designs. We believe that it is now time to delve into further issues surrounding the field of EMI that still await to be addressed in depth with new methodologies. Thus, the scope and methods employed in the EMI research warrants expansion with a particular focus on EMI teacher training, student retention and attrition, quality assurance, classroom dynamics/interactions, translanguaging, physical and virtual landscaping, under-researched EMI programs and contexts, narrative, ethnographic and longitudinal studies. Given the fact that EMI lies at the crossroad of several intertwined disciplines such as applied linguistics, sociolinguistics, teacher education, language policy and language ideology, among others, more “input is needed from all these disciplines if we are to gain a comprehensive understanding of the causes and consequences of EMI” at the level of policy and practice from different angles in Turkish universities (Dimova et al., 2015, p. 321). Last but not least, although the primary focus of this volume is the EMI situation in Turkey, we argue that the chapters certainly resonate with other similar contexts, such as Europe and elsewhere, where English is increasingly used as the working language of instruction in different capacities. For this reason, we consider that the findings and discussions in the volume, as well as the research gaps identified throughout, may open up new avenues of research in the field for interested language researchers from both Turkey and other contexts.

References

- Aguilar, M. (2017). Engineering lecturers' views on CLIL and EMI. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 20(6), 722–735.
- Airey, J. (2016). EAP, EMI or CLIL? In K. Hyland & P. Shaw (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of English for academic purposes* (pp. 71–83). Routledge.
- Arkin, E., & Osam, N. (2015). English-medium higher education. A case study in a Turkish university context. In S. Dimova, A. K. Hultgren, & C. Jensen (Eds.), *English-medium instruction in European higher education* (pp. 177–200). Mouton.
- Arkin, I. E. (2013). *English-medium instruction in higher education: A case study in a Turkish university context* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Eastern Mediterranean University, Famagusta, North Cyprus.
- Ball, B., & Lindsay, D. (2013). Language demands and support for English medium instruction in tertiary education: Learning from a specific context. In A. Doiz., D. Lasagabaster & J. M. Sierra (Eds.), *English-medium instruction at universities: Global challenges* (pp. 44–61). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Birgün, M. (forthcoming). *Proposing an EMI teacher professional development program in Turkish higher education context* (Unpublished doctoral thesis). Çukurova University, Adana.
- Bowles, H., & Murphy, A. C. (2020). *English-medium instruction and the internationalization of universities*. Palgrave Macmillan.

- Bradford, A., & Brown, H. (Eds.). (2017). *English-medium instruction in Japanese higher education: Policy, challenges and outcomes*. Multilingual Matters.
- Chou, I. C. (2016). Helping students learn in EMI courses using reciprocal teaching: A case study of a Taiwan University. *Asian Education Studies*, 1(2), 37.
- Cloke, S. (2017). The teacher trainer. In K. Ackerley, M. Guarda, & F. Helm (Eds.), *Sharing perspectives on English-medium instruction* (pp. 149–153). Peter Lang AG.
- Dafouz, E. (2020). Undergraduate student academic writing in English-medium higher education: Explorations through the ROAD-MAPPING lens. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 46, 100888. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2020.100888>
- Dimova, S. (2020). English language requirements for enrolment in EMI programs in higher education: A European case. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 47, 1–13. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2020.100896>
- Dimova, S., Hultgren, A. K., & Jensen, C. (2015). English-medium instruction in European higher education: Review and future research. In S. Dimova, A. K. Hultgren, & C. Jensen (Eds.), *English-medium instruction in European higher education. Language and social life* (pp. 317–324). De Gruyter Mouton.
- Doiz, D. L., & Sierra, J. M. (Eds.). (2013). *English-medium instruction at universities: Global challenges*. Multilingual Matters.
- Earls, C. W. (2016). *Evolving agendas in European English-medium higher education: Interculturality, multilingualism and language policy*. Palgrave.
- Ege, F. (2020). *Analysing teacher discourse strategies in English-medium instruction: A corpus-based study in Turkish higher education* (Unpublished master's thesis). Kocaeli, Kocaeli University.
- Evans, S., & Morrison, B. (2011). Meeting challenges of English-medium higher education: The first-year experience in Hong Kong. *English for Specific Purposes*, 30, 198–208.
- Genç, E. (2020). *Teacher questions and student talk in English Medium Instruction classrooms in a Turkish higher education setting* (Unpublished master's thesis). Kocaeli, Kocaeli University.
- Jenkins, J. (2014). *English as a Lingua Franca in the International University*. London: Routledge.
- Jenkins, J. (2019). English medium instruction in higher education: The role of ELF. In X. Gao (Ed.), *Second handbook of English language teaching* (pp. 1–18). Springer.
- Jenkins, J. (2020). Red herrings and the case of language in UK higher education. *Nordic Journal of English Studies*, 19(3), 59–67.
- Jenkins, J., & Wingate, U. (2015). Staff and students' perceptions of English language policies and practices in 'international' universities: A case study from the UK. *Higher Education Review*, 47(2), 47–73.
- Karakaş, A., & Bayyurt, Y. (2019). The scope of linguistic diversity in the language policies, practices and linguistic landscape of a Turkish EMI University. In J. Jenkins & A. Mauranen (Eds.), *Linguistic diversity on the EMI campus: Insider accounts of the use of English and other languages in ten universities within Asia, Australasia and Europe* (pp. 96–122). Routledge.
- Karakaş, A. (2018). Visible language-covert policy: An investigation of language policy documents at EMI universities in Turkey. *International Online Journal of Education and Teaching (IOJET)*, 5(4), 788–807.
- Keleş, U., Yazan, B., & Giles, A. (2019). Turkish-English bilingual content in the virtual linguistic landscape of a university in Turkey: Exclusive de facto language policies. *International Multilingual Research Journal*, 14(1), 1–19.
- Kirkpatrick, A. (2014). The language(s) of HE: EMI and/or multilingualism. *The Asian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 1(1), 4–15.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2006). Innovation as a curriculum renewal process in a Turkish university. In A. Rice (Ed.), *Revitalizing an established program* (pp. 135–160). TESOL Publications.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2013). Students' approaches to learning in an English-medium higher education. *The Journal of Language Teaching and Learning*, 2, 30–39.
- Küçük, C. (2018). *Investigating translanguaging as a teaching and learning practice in an English medium higher education context in Turkey*. Unpublished Master thesis, University of Çukurova, Adana, Turkey.

- Liddicoat, A. J. (2019). Language-in-education policy in the Central Asian republics of Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, and Uzbekistan. In A. Kirkpatrick & A. J. Liddicoat (Eds.), *The Routledge international handbook of language education policy in Asia* (pp. 452–470). Routledge.
- Macaro, E., Akincioglu, M., & Dearden, J. (2016). English medium instruction in universities: A collaborative experiment in Turkey. *Studies in English Language Teaching*, 4(1), 51–76.
- Murata, K. (Ed.). (2018). *English –medium instruction from an English as a lingua franca perspective: Exploring the higher education context*. Routledge.
- Paulsrud, B. A., Tian, Z., & Toth, J. (Eds.). (2021). *English-medium instruction and translanguaging*. Multilingual Matters.
- Pehlivan, A. (2018). Medium of instruction policies: Turkish Cypriots and their reflections on instructional technologies. *EURASIA Journal of Mathematics, Science and Technology Education*, 14(5), 1683–1693. <https://doi.org/10.29333/ejmste/85107>
- Sánchez-Pérez, M. (Ed.). (2020). *Teacher training for English-medium instruction in higher education* (1st ed.). IGI Global.
- Seitzhanova, A., Plokhikh, R., Baiburiev, R., & Tsaregorodtseva, A. (2015). English as the medium of instruction: Modern tendency of education in Kazakhstan. *Perspectives of Innovations, Economics and Business*, 15(3), 113–117.
- Soruç, A., Dinler, A., & Griffiths, C. (2018). Listening comprehension strategies of EMI students in Turkey. In *Key issues in English for specific purposes in higher education* (pp. 265–287). Springer.
- Tatzl, D. (2011). English-medium masters' programmes at an Austrian university of applied sciences: Attitudes, experiences and challenges. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 10(4), 252–270. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2011.08.003>
- Toh, G. (2016). *English as medium of instruction in Japanese higher education: Presumption, mirage or bluff?* Palgrave Macmillan.
- Tran, N. T., Tran, T. B. T., & Bien, T. T. M. (2020). An exploration of the factors hindering students' lesson comprehension in EMI classes. *International Journal of Language and Literary Studies*, 2(3), 29–42.
- Tsou, W. (2017). Interactional skills in engineering education. In W. Tsou & S. Kao (Eds.), *English as a medium of instruction in higher education: Implementations and classroom practices in Taiwan* (pp. 79–93). Springer.
- Vancı Osam, Ü., Arkin, İ. E., & Selvi, A. F. (2019). *Üniversitelerde İngilizcenin eğitim dili olarak kullanımı: Bütüncül bir yaklaşım-iii. Sonuç raporu* [English medium instruction at institutions of higher education: A holistic approach-III. Final report]. Retrieved from <https://emisempozyum.emu.edu.tr/tr/PublishingImages/DAU%20EMI%20SEMPOZYUM%20RAPORU.pdf>
- Vinke, A. A., Snippe, J., & Jochems, W. (1998). English medium content courses in non-English higher education: A study of lecturer experiences and teaching behaviours. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 3, 383–394.
- Vinke, D. (1995). *English as the medium of instruction in Dutch engineering education*. Delft University Press.
- Wächter, B., & Maiworm, F. (Eds.). (2014). *English-taught programmes in European higher education. The state of play in 2014. ACA papers on international cooperation in education*. Lemmens.
- Wilkinson, R. (2005). *The impact of language on teaching content: Views from the content teacher*. Paper presented at the Bi- and Multilingual Universities Conference, Helsinki, Finland. Retrieved from <http://www.palmenia.helsinki.fi/congress/bilingual2005/presentations/wilkinson.pdf>
- Zenkova, T., & Khamitova, G. (2018). English Medium-instruction as a Way to Internationalization of Higher Education in Kazakhstan: An Opinion Survey in the innovative university of Eurasia. *e-TEALS*, 8(1), 126–158.