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University of Southampton

Faculty of Humanities

Exploring Policies, Practices and Orientations towards English as a Medium of Instruction in Chinese Higher Education

By Lanxi Hu

Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

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ABSTRACT

FACULTY OF HUMANITIES

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

**EXPLORING POLICIES, PRACTICES AND ORIENTATIONS TOWARDS
ENGLISH AS A MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION IN CHINESE HIGHER
EDUCATION**

By Lanxi Hu

This study examines subject teachers' orientations and implementation of English as a medium of instruction in Chinese universities, against a background of the internationalisation of higher education. The study also explores the way in which English as a medium of instruction policies are actualized in teaching practices. The study is informed by English as a lingua franca perspective on English communication, language policy theory and English as a lingua franca in academic settings.

This study draws on data retrieved through questionnaires, interviews and classroom observations. 106 questionnaires were collected, 14 interviews were conducted and 15 hours of classroom observations were analysed.

The findings of the study suggest the majority of teachers favour English as a medium of instruction, while at the same time pointing out concerns regarding the teaching quality, and ambivalent language policy, as well as some perceptions towards attachment to native English ideology. The participants have ambivalent orientations towards English use; on the one hand, exhibited native-like competency was still considered as important for many teachers. On the other hand, the responses of the participants revealed their belief in the need to communicate effectively rather than aiming at native speaker competency in practice. In addition, both questionnaire and interview findings reveal that the English language policy in China is still based on native speaker English, but that teachers and students are using ELF in practice. The classroom observations suggest that some teachers adopted ELF orientated

approach in their practices. The data analysis confirmed the existence of a gap between policy as stated and the implementation of the policy.

The findings of this study can contribute to ELF, EMI, and language policy research. It is argued that the ELF concept should expand to include interlocutors from the same language cultural background. It is suggested that English policy and ELT in China should take account of the students' future needs and the global use of English. Thus, the traditional native-normative approach to English language should be questioned. The findings also raise questions as to how English as a medium of instruction in China could be implemented effectively.

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DECLARATION OF AUTHORSHIP

I, LANXI HU

declare that this thesis and the work presented in it are my own and has been generated by me as the result of my own original research.

EXPLORING POLICIES, PRACTICES AND ORIENTATIONS TOWARDS ENGLISH AS A MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION IN CHINESE HIGHER EDUCATION

I confirm that:

1. This work was done wholly or mainly while in candidature for a research degree at this University;
2. Where any part of this thesis has previously been submitted for a degree or any other qualification at this University or any other institution, this has been clearly stated;
3. Where I have consulted the published work of others, this is always clearly attributed;
4. Where I have quoted from the work of others, the source is always given. With the exception of such quotations, this thesis is entirely my own work;
5. I have acknowledged all main sources of help;
6. Where the thesis is based on work done by myself jointly with others, I have made clear exactly what was done by others and what I have contributed myself;
7. None of this work has been published before submission.
8. Parts of this work have been published as:

Hu, L. (Forthcoming). Content teachers' perceptions towards EMI in Chinese universities. In L. Lopriore & E. Grazzi (Eds.), *Intercultural Communication: new perspectives from ELF*. ELF 6 conference proceeding.

Signed:

Date:

ABBREVIATIONS USED

CECR	College English Curriculum Requirements
CET 4	College English Test Band 4
CET 6	College English Test Band 6
EAP	English for academic purposes
EFL	English as a foreign language
EIL	English as an international language
ELFA	English as a lingua franca in academic settings
ELF	English as a lingua franca
ELT	English language teaching
EMI	English as a medium of instruction
ENL	English as a native language
ESL	English as a second language
ESP	English for specific purposes
HE	Higher education
ICA	Intercultural awareness
L1	First language
L2	Second language
MoE	Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China
NES	Native English speaker
NNES	Non-native English speaker
WTO	World Trade Organization

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 English use in global higher education

English is by far the most important global language among people with different national and language backgrounds (Crystal, 2003). The status of English has changed over the last 30 years. It is a well-known fact that the number of non-native English speakers (henceforth NNESs) has outnumbered the native English speakers (henceforth NESs). This might reflect the fact that more and more NNESs need to use English in various domains. Thus, many Global Englishes scholars are questioning the application of British and American norms in language teaching in the Outer and Expanding Circle countries (e.g. Graddol, 2006; Jenkins, 2007; Seidlhofer, 2006). They argue that English varieties used in the post-colonial countries and other Expanding countries should have equal status with English used in the Inner Circle countries. The spread of English as a Lingua Franca (henceforth ELF) and the findings of the ELF research have helped people to perceive how English is used by NNESs in different countries around the world (e.g. Jenkins, 2000, 2007, 2014; Mauranen, 2012; Seidlhofer, 2001, 2010).

An increasing number of universities have adopted various strategies to aim for internationalisation. Students' mobility is obviously the most visible activity which indicates the process of internationalisation of higher education (henceforth HE) (Ferguson, 2007; Van Damme, 2001). According to the OECD (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development) report (2011: 318), in 2009, 3.7 million tertiary students were enrolled in a university outside of their home country. Countries, such as the UK, USA, Australia and Canada, received nearly 50% of international students in international HE. This suggests that a large number of students who come from different first language backgrounds are studying in HE institutes in English speaking countries. Moreover, some universities in these countries are setting up campuses away from their main campus, when they see a potential market overseas. For example, the University of Nottingham has set up a branch campus in Ningbo, China. These branch campuses normally claim to

replicate what is on offer at the home campus. The impact of the internationalisation on HE is also manifested in non-native English speaking countries. The institutions in these countries are also offering courses partly or entirely in English. In such contexts, English is an additional language for the majority of the lecturers and students. For example, in Japan, the “Global 30” project was established in order to require selected Japanese universities to teach some subjects in English and to recruit more international students. In Sweden, English as a medium of instruction (henceforth EMI) is well established. About 65% of the postgraduate programmes there are conducted in English (Kuteeva, 2014). Educational mobility demands that English is used for communication purposes in the globalising world. The increasing use of English by these NNEs in Anglophone countries, Anglophone branch universities or other Expanding Circle countries has suggested that more and more NNEs are using English to achieve their HE target around the world. Thus, HE is an important domain which offers a good place to explore how English is used.

1.2. Rationale and the aims of the study

There are several reasons why I am conducting this study. Firstly, my experience of MA study in Britain has greatly stimulated my interest in exploring this research area. I chose to study the Global Englishes courses as one of my MA modules. I started to notice English use in international contexts and realised the fact that a number of NNEs are using ELF. At the same time, having socialized with people from different linguacultural backgrounds during my postgraduate study, I gradually became aware that I had been surrounded by ELF settings and realised the multi-functional role of English. This brought me to reflect on my English learning and teaching in China where students are exposed to native English norms in school curricula. The lack of exposure to NNEs made communication difficult when I first arrived in Britain. I began to reflect on my previous learning procedures and question the English teaching syllabus. I find that some of the learning outcomes do not help students in international communication. In addition, I think they are not even attainable for the majority of English learners in China.

Secondly, I investigated Chinese English learners' attitudes towards native and non-native English accents for my MA dissertation. My dissertation findings indicate that the majority of respondents have little awareness of non-native English accents. They still remain uninformed about the global use of English. But some respondents who have used English in international contexts realise the usefulness of listening to non-native English. However, the English curricula in China do not cover it. It appears Chinese students only need to use English to communicate with NESs. Recently, although that some researchers have discussed the implications of global English in China (e.g. Deterding, 2010; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Wang, 2013; Wen, 2012), the widespread notion of conforming to native English still prevails in China. The limited literature seems to be insufficient to develop the Chinese people's awareness and to challenge the current English language teaching (henceforth ELT) practices.

Thirdly, EMI has recently become increasingly popular in a growing number of leading Chinese universities. EMI has been associated with these universities' aim of becoming 'world-class universities'. In 2010, the Ministry of Education (henceforth MoE) issued the *'Outline of China's National Plan for Medium and Long-term Education Reform and Development (2010-2020)*. This education plan sets the target of attracting more than 500,000 international students to study in Chinese universities in 2020. This implies that Chinese universities are aiming to recruit more international students to study in China. Universities are required to implement more EMI courses or degree programmes that will attract both international students and Chinese students. With this background, the use of English is very likely to increase in academic settings in China. It is very likely that students in the EMI programs are more diverse than those on other courses. However, EMI in Chinese universities has not been thoroughly studied so far. Although a steadily growing body of works on the use of EMI have been published recently (e.g. Meng, 2011; Peng, 2007; Yuan and Yu, 2005; Zhao, 2012), the majority of these works are conceptual pieces which focus on the writers' experiences. They are not based on empirical research. As He (2011:93) argues, these articles are "general introductions to EMI programs or expression of personal views" and are very short. Thus, it is worthwhile to investigate how teachers perceive use of English and how EMI is implemented in Chinese universities. In addition, though EMI research has been studied from the ELF perspective in other countries, there has so far been a lack of research linking

the two (Björkman, 2013; Jenkins, 2014; Smit, 2010). The selection of a research site in China was also motivated by this.

Fourthly, EMI policy is crucial in determining how EMI will be implemented and how students will be recruited. However, with regard to English language requirements, there is no uniform requirement. This study aims to examine how subject teachers consider these overt or covert requirements. However, the literature reveals that it is not adequate to look at declared policy documents only. This is because there are always differences between the policy as stated and the policy as it actually works at the practical level (Shohamy, 2006; Spolsky, 2004, 2009). As Spolsky (2004:222) points out “the real language policy of a community is more likely to be found in its practices than in its management”. Policy normally reflects policy makers’ positions, but in educational settings it is the teachers who implement these policies.

Based on EMI empirical studies from Europe and East Asia, sometimes subject teachers do switch from English to the local language in the classroom. Although many terms are often used to describe people who switch between languages, such as code-switching, code-mixing, first language use, translanguaging (e.g. Creese & Blackledge, 2010) and code-choice (e.g. Levine, 2011), there is no agreement on the exact term which to describe people who switch between languages. In this thesis, I will use the term code-switching to refer to subject teachers who switch between Chinese and English in EMI classrooms.

Fifthly, having read some literature on my topic, many concepts, such as variety, speech communities and competence are being discussed and challenged. The status of English is changing and the internationalisation has become a primary concern in HE. I am wondering if such changes are having impact on Chinese HE. Furthermore, when I started my PhD, my supervisor, Professor Jennifer Jenkins was writing her book ‘*English as a Lingua Franca in the international university: the politics of academic English language policy*’. Her book explores the implications for what kinds of English are appropriate for ELF use in global HE. During our supervisions we discussed many issues relating to English language use and users in global HE. Our discussions have provided me with useful inspiration for the focus of this study.

Therefore, all this has made me decide on exploring subject teachers' orientations and practices to English language use in EMI. My study is teacher-focused. This is because subject teachers are the important practitioners in language policy implementation. They are required to implement language policies but they also have their own conceptualisation of EMI and English. Sometimes they adapt the language policies according to other factors, such as students' level, teaching time, textbooks. As Brown (2010: 298) points out, "teachers simultaneously reproduce and challenge existing language ideologies...". Similarly, Carless (1999: 375) observes, "teachers are the individuals who implement, adapt, reject, or ignore curriculum innovation". Thus, teachers' orientations and implementation might reveal interesting findings. They are the people who implement the teaching and are well informed by the realities of the teaching situation. However, previous empirical literature tells us little about subject teacher's orientation to EMI practices and policies in China. Thus, my research will help to fill the gap. What I want to achieve in my research is to provide empirical evidence of how English is used in EMI in Chinese universities. The current study aims to raise some awareness among educators, researchers, and practitioners that native English is not the only way that students should conform and that their communication strategies such as code-switching and negotiation of meanings, are very necessary skills which promote mutual understanding. The results of this study will also inform educators, researchers, and practitioners so that they are able to consider an approach which is appropriate to EMI education. The results are also expected to bring some suggestions for improving the implementation of EMI in China.

1.3 Research questions

Based on the discussion above, the following research questions are listed for the purposes of the present study:

RQ1: How do the subject teachers in Chinese HE perceive EMI policies and practices?

a. What are the subject teachers' orientations towards EMI and English use in Chinese universities?

- b. What are the subject teachers' orientations towards their own and other subject teachers' English? How do subject teachers evaluate their students' English?
- c. What are the subject teachers' orientations towards their universities' EMI policies and practices?

RQ2: What actually happens in EMI classrooms?

- a. How is EMI implemented in the classrooms and how much Chinese and English were the teachers using?
- b. To what extent do subject teachers use NES norms to assess students' English during the instruction? Are they tolerant of student's non-native English use in practice?

1.4 The structure of the thesis

This thesis consists of nine chapters. Chapter two, three and four comprise the literature review. Chapter two describes the theories of English use in the globalized world. It also covers some empirical ELF(A) studies to demonstrate how NNESs fulfil their communication purposes. The chapter discusses why ELF is the most relevant theoretical framework to study English use. In addition, a discussion of English and ELF in Chinese HE will be presented. Chapter three reviews the relevant literature concerning the internationalisation of HE. It includes a review of the EMI studies which have been conducted in European and East Asia HE. After that, relevant research of EMI studies in China will be presented. Gaps in previous research are also identified. Chapter four is about academic English language policies and practices. This chapter first introduces the basic concept of language policy in the literature. It also discusses why Sposky's conceptualization of language policy is used in this study. Additionally, it also explores how EMI policy documents, College English teaching syllabus and English language tests could reflect the de facto practices and the major literature related to language policy in Chinese higher education. Chapter five describes the methodology. It first explains the reasons for choosing the mixed method approach. Then it introduces the participants, materials and research procedure of this study. The justification of each research method will be discussed in this chapter. Chapter six begins with questionnaire data analysis

methods. Then it includes a detailed account and discussion of the findings from the questionnaire. Chapter seven first explains the interview data analysis methods. Then it analyses and discusses results in order to understand how content teachers perceive the English language and language policies. Chapter eight presents and analyses the classroom observations. The findings reflect how teacher participants carry out their instruction through the use of English/Chinese. The results of this chapter are also discussed in relation to the questionnaires and interview findings. With reference to the research questions, the last chapter discusses the key study findings, evaluates the implementation of EMI, and also provides pedagogical implications for EMI and ELT in general. Chapter nine discusses the conclusions and implications of the study and also presents the limitations of this study and some possible areas for future research.

Chapter 2: Global Englishes and ELF

2.1 Introduction

The focus of this study was formulated against the background of English use in the globalised world and a growing interest for learning and using English in Chinese HE. Therefore, this chapter will first explore how English language has been conceptualized in the context of globalisation and explain the terms which have been used to describe Global Englishes. Then the ELF empirical studies conducted in both general settings and academic settings will be discussed to demonstrate how ELF speakers achieve their communication purposes in practice. The research findings of English as a lingua franca in academic settings (ELFA) will also be discussed in relation to Chinese contexts. This chapter will introduce approaches to studying academic English and explain why ELFA could become the primary approach used in global HE. After this, follows a discussion on English use in Chinese HE and an exploration of why ELF is relevant to China.

2.2 English as an Lingua Franca

In the related literature, a few terms have been used to describe the use of English in the international context, including English as an international language (henceforth EIL), World Englishes (henceforth WE), ELF and Global Englishes (henceforth GE). There are two reasons for explaining these terms. Firstly, due to the increasing use of English around the world, there seems to be a certain confusion surrounding these terms. Secondly, those terms serve as the fundamental concept in this thesis. In order to explore how subject teachers perceive English language and EMI policies in China, it is useful to adopt a theoretical framework which truly reflects the current use of English in a global context. Thus a very brief explanation will be provided to evaluate the most suitable theoretical framework for the present research.

2.2.1 English as an international language

EIL is the term which is used to describe people who use English as the common language in international communication. EIL has been widely used in the literature (e.g. Holliday, 2005; Llorca, 2004; Matsuda, 2003; McKay, 2002; Sharifian, 2009). McKay (2002:12) describes EIL as follows, “English is used both in a global sense for international communication between countries and in a local sense as a language of wider communication within multilingual societies”. Some ELF scholars believe EIL and ELF refer to the same phenomenon, but they indicate that the term ELF is more appropriate than EIL (e.g. Jenkins, 2006a, 2007; Seidlhofer, 2004). They argue that the word ‘international’ is misleading. This is because the term International English is sometimes used as an shorthand for EIL. As Seidlhofer (2004: 210) points out, “it (International English) suggests that there is one clearly distinguishable, codified, and unitary variety called International English, which is certainly not the case”. Moreover, Jenkins (2006a:160) believes that the term ‘international’ English is a fuzzy term which is often used to refer to native English varieties. Very few researchers (e.g. Trudgill and Hannah, 2002) refer to international English as native English varieties and non-native varieties, but they do not include English use in the Expanding Circle countries. Thus, the ambiguity and limitations of EIL seem to make it an inappropriate term to describe English use in the contemporary world. It seems that the latest term to be associated with English is the shift of the usage of EIL to ELF in the emerging literatures.

2.2.2 World Englishes

Another popular approach used in the literature is WE. It is an important paradigm which has resulted in the shift from English to many Englishes (Kirkpatrick, 2007: 28). Within the WE framework, Kachru’s (1985) Three Circles of English is considered more influential as it highlights that different English varieties exist in the World and the model shows how Kachru conceives of the global role of English. Kachru’s Three Circles legitimize the English varieties in the Outer circle countries and accept the plural form of Englishes. However, his ‘Circles’ has been criticized by scholars working in the field of Global Englishes. They have pointed out the limitations with this model (see e.g. Bruthiaux, 2003; Graddol, 2006; Jenkins, 2009;

Kirkpatrick, 2007; for a critique). A common criticism of WE is that it has been less concerned with the use of English in the Expanding Circle (e.g. Bolton, 2004; Jenkins et al, 2011; Seidlhofer, 2009). They argue that although WE include all the three Circles of English varieties, WE scholars have placed their major emphasis on English in the Outer Circle countries and have ignore the function of English used in the Expanding Circle countries. Apart from the WE perspectives, English use in Expanding Circle countries cannot be seen as legitimate forms. For example, Kachru (2005) claims that English use in the Expanding Circle countries needs to refer to Outer Circle countries' English as the reference point. Jenkins et al. (2011: 284) argues "World Englishes research has always been, and remains, interested primarily in the study of 'bounded' varieties of English". In summary, though the WE paradigm maintains the legitimacy of English in Outer Circle countries, WE seem to neglect the fact that the numbers of people learning and using English in Expanding Circle countries are now bigger than the combined populations of the Anglophone countries and the post-colonial regions. Considering the above discussions, the WE approach does not reflect effectively current English use in the globalised world. In particular, increasing numbers of Chinese are learning and using English for various purposes.

Despite the problems and criticism, WE research still has relevance to the study of English use in the Outer Circles. Kachru's Circles are widely known in literature and also provide a useful reference point for describing English use in the global context (Bruthiaux, 2003). Thus this term will still be used in this thesis. This is because Kachru's three Circle terms have gained wide acceptance in the literature. His terms economically distinguish the English used in different contexts in the world.

2.2.3. English as a Lingua Franca

ELF has been defined by ELF scholars who indicate a new conceptual paradigm of English in the world (e.g. Firth, 1996; House, 2003; Jenkins, 2000; Mauranen, 2003; Seidlhofer, 2011). However, some ELF scholars, such as Firth (1996) and House (1999), considered ELF users as unsuccessful English users and exclude NESs from the ELF definition, while the majority of ELF scholars do not exclude NESs from their ELF definition and see ELF users as competent English speakers. For example,

Jenkins (2014:1) points out, ELF refers to “the world’s most extensive contemporary use of English, in essence, English when it is used as a content language between people from different first languages”. Seidlhofer (2011:7) puts forwards a functional definition of ELF, she says “any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option”.

From the two definitions above, ELF’s main emphasis is on the communication between speakers from a different linguacultural background in the world, for whom there seems to be no reason to defer to the native English norm. ELF is not a variety of English, but “a variable way of using it: English that functions as a lingua franca” (Seidlhofer (2011:77). ELF is about language in use. The two definitions do not exclude NESs from ELF contexts. However, it is crucial to note that NESs are not the authority on English in ELF settings. They are the minority in ELF contexts and “are less likely to constitute the linguistic reference norm” (Seidlhofer, 2011:7). Both NESs and NNESs have equal rights in using the English language to achieve their communicative objectives. They all need to make adjustments to their local English varieties and to acquire the ability to communicate in ELF contexts (Jenkins, 2011). Thus, in the ELF context, English competence should be assessed as to whether the speaker can fulfil communication objectives rather than conform to native English speaker norms.

Effective communications are highlighted in ELF settings. This would indicate that ELF speakers who come from different linguacultural backgrounds are making the efforts to achieve mutual understanding through various means. On some occasions, ELF speaker’s use of English is considered as the innovative use of English. Such interactions reveal fluidity and flexibility. However, in many Expanding countries, English is still taught based on the NES (mainly British or American) norms from the perspectives of a foreign language. Here an explanation is needed to see how ELF differs from EFL (see Jenkins 2006b for further discussion on ELF and EFL). In order to define ELF, Jenkins (2006b) provides a useful explanation to distinguish ELF and EFL as two different phenomena. In the ELF settings, NNESs are seen as competent multilingual language users. Non-native English varieties are not evaluated according to native English standards. By contrast, the ultimate teaching

goal of EFL is to help English learners conform to native English norms and to achieve the NESs' competence. Moreover, from the ELF perspective, non-native English varieties are seen as different rather than deficient. NNESs are not considered incompetent in the ELF context. ELF approaches regard communication strategies, such as repetition and codes-switching, as a useful way that ELF users adopt, for example, to signal solidarity with multilingual interlocutors (Cogo, 2009), whereas EFL sees these strategies as evidence of gaps in knowledge.

Seidlhofer (2011) also proposes similar distinctions between EFL and ELF. Her distinction is to some extent in accordance with Jenkins's (2006) distinction. Drawing on Brutt-Griffler's (2002) notion of macroacquisition in post-colonial settings, Seidlhofer (2011: 19) argues that we should extend the notion of macroacquisition to ELF. Seidlhofer (2011: 18) argues that EFL focuses on where the English speakers come from, and what cultural associations are bound up with it. From EFL perspective, all the English learners are required to follow the pre-existing norms. And the learners' objective is to integrate into the NES community. Learners are encouraged to imitate what native English speakers do. By contrast, from the ELF perspective NNESs regard themselves as competent English users if they fulfil communication tasks.

Seidlhofer (2011) observes that the ELF approach requires people to reconceptualise language variety, speech community and the concept of competence. This is because the traditional terms such as 'language variety', 'speech community' and 'competence' indicate the notion of stability. They are not applicable in ELF settings. In terms of competence, traditional competence refers to "an ideal speaker-listener in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows his language perfectly..." (Chomsky, 1963: 3) is irrelevant in ELF contexts (cited in Seidlhofer, 2011: 89). The conventional notion of 'variety' has been criticised as it is attached to a fixed language or culture (Seidlhofer, 2011). ELF communication contains speakers who come from diverse linguacultural backgrounds and their language use varies in different communication contexts. They are not using one type of English but they are negotiating their meanings. What is more, instead of using speech communities, 'communities of practice' has been adopted by many ELF scholars to describe

English use in ELF settings (e.g. Kalocsai, 2014; Mauranen, 2012; Seidlhofer, 2009). As discussed earlier, ELF is a new paradigm which demonstrates new ways of looking at English in the world. ELF scholars argue that ELF users do not constitute a speech community as it is conventionally conceived of in the sociolinguistics literature (Seidlhofer, 2011; Mauranen, 2012). As Mauranen (2012:23) points out, “the traditional notions of language or speech community are somewhat unhelpful for setting descriptive parameters for ELF as a social phenomenon”. Mauranen (2012:57) also notes ELF users benefit a lot when they communicate with each other in a multicultural environment. This is because both the speakers’ and learners’ English competence is no longer considered merely language learners trying to conform to native English norms. The communication norms arise in real interaction to achieve intelligibility. Mauranen (2012:57) argues both the speakers and the hearers need the “processing time for both (for example hesitating, repeating, and pausing), assist in mutual comprehension (for example, explicitness, approximation), and help achieve positive social goals (for example, repetition, co-construction)”. These communicative practices help them to communicate. Thus, the communicative practices taking place in the ELF context should not be seen as being disadvantaged. The ELF users are using the communication strategies skilfully to fulfil their communication needs and purpose.

In fact, NESs are bilingual or multilingual are often seen as an advantage. They attempt to use multilingual resources to achieve their communication purposes. As Seidlhofer (2011: 112) points out, ELF users have “the resources of other languages available to them’ and “make use of them as active elements in their linguistic repertoire”. Similarly, Cook (1999: 185) believes NNEs should be seen as “multicompetence language users” rather than low-proficiency speakers. He also uses the word “multicompetence” to emphasize the strength of having knowledge of two or more languages. NNEs come from different cultural background; they might have more tolerance towards different English varieties. Studies of NNEs of English have revealed that NNEs are sometimes easier to understand than NESs (e.g. Adolphs, 2005; Hülmbauer, 2009). For example, Hülmbauer (2009) put forward the idea of “shared non-nativeness”, which indicates NNEs seem to understand unconventional linguistic forms much easier than NESs. In other word,

most ELF users are mostly bi-or plurilingual and their “shared non-nativeness” skills facilitate communication on some occasions.

Based on the above discussions, ELF is a useful theoretical approach which includes both NNEs and NESs participating in international communication with equal status. Furthermore, I believe that the concept of ELF will avoid the ambiguity of EIL, second language speakers and foreign language speakers. The ELF paradigm offers an alternative view to re-examine the traditional views of English language use. The present study draws on the concept of ELF. There are two reasons to adapt ELF as my theoretical framework. Firstly, English is more widely used between speakers with different first languages and the primary focus of ELF study is on NNEs. In ELF contexts, ELF users are making efforts to use their linguistic resources to achieve mutual intelligibility. Secondly, the notion of ELF has been studied in relation to the HE domain, where English is increasingly used as a lingua Franca. The findings of ELFA studies provide useful resources for studying EMI in China. Thus ELFA will be further explained in section 2.5 and 2.6 to argue why ELFA is of relevance to the users in Expanding Circle countries and its relevance to English users in Chinese HE. But it is also important to note the complexity of ELF (Baird et al. 2014). ELF is very dynamic and we should see it as fluid. More ELF related studies are needed to better understand the field.

2.2.4 Global Englishes

The term ‘Global Englishes’ has been recently used in the literature (e.g. Murata & Jenkins, 2009; Pennycook, 2007). It is different from the term ‘Global English’. The latter favours NS norms and sets the target of achieving native-like English. The plural form of Global Englishes indicates the plurilinguistic nature of WE, EIL and ELF. For example, Murata & Jenkins (2009:5) believe the term global Englishes ‘encompasses both centrifugal and centripetal natures of WE, EIL or ELF simultaneously.’ Therefore, in this thesis, I will see global Englishes as a comprehensive term which combines WE, EIL and ELF. The following part will briefly discuss some previous ELF empirical studies. Those studies are not aiming to describe ELF as a distinct variety, but they are trying to indicate how ELF speakers

use their multilingual resources to achieve communication in practice. The following part will briefly review some studies which were carried out in general ELF settings.

2.3 Empirical ELF studies

In order to study how ELF users use language in ELF settings, a number of studies have been carried out to explore the linguistic forms of ELF communication in various settings at a range of linguistic levels, such as phonology, lexicogrammar, culture and pragmatics (e.g. Baker, 2009; Breiteneder, 2009; Cogo & Dewey, 2006; Kirkpatrick, 2011; Jenkins, 2000; Mauranen, 2006a, b; Pitzel, 2009; Seidlhofer, 2004). These findings are very influential and useful to conceptualize ELF. This is because the findings indicate that ELF users apply English in natural contexts differently to NESs and explain the reasons and function of the non-conformity use of English.

Jenkins's (2000) study explores the English phonology in Lingua Franca communication. She demonstrates that for NNES's certain English pronunciation features contributed significant to intelligibility in ELF contexts, while some NES features do the opposite. This implies that the non-conformity use of certain pronunciation features causes no problems of understanding. In line with this, she proposed a Lingua Franca Core and identifies those features of English pronunciation that are important for international intelligibility (see Jenkins, 2000 for a more detail discussions). In addition, Jenkins (2000) is the first scholar to study accommodation in ELF. ELF interlocutors tend to solve the problems by adopting accommodation strategies to achieve their speaking objectives. Her findings showed how ELF speakers accommodate their pronunciation to make their speech more intelligible to their addressees. After that, more and more scholars are interested in finding out what accommodation strategies are adopted in practice (e.g. Cogo, 2009; Mauranen, 2006b; Kaur, 2009). Mauranen (2006b) investigates how ELF speakers prevent misunderstanding by using clarification and self-repairs. Cogo's (2009) study identifies that ELF users are using repetition and code-switching to adapt to the communication situation. Kaur (2009) finds out the participants in the study repeat or paraphrase the previous utterance when the utterance is not well understood.

There is also some evidence that NNEs are more skilled accommodators than NESs. Researchers who studied English users' accommodation strategies have found that NNEs are better at accommodating their English than NESs (e.g. Sweeney and Zhu, 2010). Participants (NESs) in their study were found not to be good at accommodating their English towards NNEs in business communication. Sweeney and Zhu (2010) argue that some NESs may lack the communication strategies.

The most salient features of ELF are found at the level of lexicogrammar (Seidlhofer, 2004). Most of the initial empirical studies into ELF lexicogrammar were through the Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English (VOICE). Seidlhofer's (2004) study provides a list of preliminary lexicogrammatical features among ELF interactions (see Seidlhofer, 2004: 220). After Seidlhofer's 2004 article, scholars have started to explore these listed features in detail (e.g. Breiteneder, 2009; Cogo & Dewey, 2006, 2012; Erling and Bartlett, 2006; Hülmbauer, 2009; Kirkpatrick, 2011). Subsequent scholars have supported Seidlhofer's findings on ELF features. This suggests that those features identified by ELF scholars are not randomly selected; they are used widely by ELF speakers. Among these studies, Kirkpatrick (2011) lists some examples of the non-standard features of ASEAN ELF. His study is more relevant to the Chinese context. For example, he points out some linguistic features of ASEAN ELF are similar to those features of VOICE. The following extracts show some examples,

1. the flexible use of definite and indefinite articles, e.g. I know when we touch money issue it can be very controversial.
2. absence of plural marking on nouns and measurement. e.g. One three time or four time a year (and note the use of non-standard-s on years)
3. morpheme-final consonant cluster deletion. e.g. I check the placard
4. non-making of past tense forms, e.g. I couldn't see, that's why I just sit and take a rest.
5. Use of prepositions in different contexts, e. g. and the second purpose is to seek for a discussion
6. copula absence or deletion, e.g. once this blueprint adopted.

(Kirkpatrick, 2011: 217)

The language forms that are listed by Kirkpatrick are invaluable in studying ELF interaction in Asian countries. ELF speakers who come from the same region have their own ways of using English, and their English use might be "shared by people

with whom they are interacting” (Kirkpatrick, 2011: 220). However, it is important to point out that identifying those ‘features’ does not mean those scholars are trying to codify a variety of English. ELF scholars are not comparing the features with NESs but trying to understand the language practice in ELF.

Code-switching, one of the important accommodation strategies in ELF communication has also been studied (e.g. Cogo, 2009; Klimpfinger, 2009). Unlike the traditional view which sees code-switching as an approach which helps to complement learners’ English competence, code-switching has been perceived as a useful accommodation strategy to achieve the communicative purposes. Five functions of code-switching have been identified. First, code-switching gives the ELF users the chance to draw upon their multilingual recourses. Second, it is used to ensure understanding in contexts where speakers are from different linguisticultural background. Third, ELF users use code-switching to signal culture and solidarity. Fourth, ELF users use code-switching to seek for help. Fifth, code-switching is used to introduce another idea. In addition, Cogo (2009) identifies how ELF users try to switch to their first languages and their interlocutor’s language to help mutual understanding. They showed an innovative way of using English in ELF contexts based on their multilingual background. Sometimes ELF users even switch to languages which are neither the speakers’ nor interlocutors’ first language. In fact code-switching has also been identified as a common practice in the EMI courses, where teachers use both English and the local language (this point will be discussed in section 3.5.2).

Though empirical studies have identified that ELF speakers are using different accommodation strategies in practice, most ELT practitioners have made no effort to inform their students of these strategies. They still assumed that students’ future interlocutors would be speaking standard English and they never need to accommodate their language. As a result, this may lead to NNEs encounter some difficulties when they communicate with other ELF users. To summarize, the empirical ELF studies in general settings have showed how ELF speakers use English to successfully achieve their communication aims. ELF speakers are good at using their pragmatic strategies to accommodate effectively to the interlocutors. Their pragmatic strategies facilitate communication. As Kalocsai (2014: 52) points

out, “ELF has been defined as language in use among bi- or multilinguals whose primary concern is to reach intelligibility in the only shared language available to them”. This suggests that the ELF paradigm highlights the speakers’ ability to use pragmatic strategies to reach intelligibility rather than to conform to native English norms. Given the fact that large numbers of NNEs are using English in HE around the world, academia has been identified as one of the domains in which to study ELF users’ English use (Mauranen, 2003). ELFA is an empirical branch of ELF theory. In the following section, I will discuss some empirical studies in ELFA.

2.4 ELF in Academic Settings

With the extensive use of English in the academic setting, Mauranen and her teams have launched the spoken ELFA corpus and the written academic ELF (WrELFA) corpus. Both spoken and written ELFA corpus offer scholars the opportunity to study how ELF users speak and write in academic contexts. Consistent with the aims of my study, studies of the spoken ELFA corpus also provide me with some ideas on spoken academic English in HE.

English users in HE settings are very likely to encounter different English varieties and will need to negotiate meanings. In such settings, Mauranen (2012: 68) argues, “the dominance of the ENL model is likely to diminish, because the determinants of language use lose their connections to a national basis”. This is because ELF has emerged in practice, but the prevailing academic English policies in the international HE are still based on native English norms. The use of ELF is often seen as a problem to be solved. Even in some universities which do not have any written language policy, it is very common to find the de facto language practices, for example, most of the teaching materials are NES norm based. Universities in the Expanding Circle countries only recruit foreign language teachers who mainly come from English speaking countries. Some researchers believe it is unreasonable for those international universities to reinforce the use of the NES model without considering the new role of English language (e.g. Ammon 2007; Jenkins 2011, 2014; Mauranen, 2012). They have also questioned the English language policy in those institutions who claim themselves to be ‘international universities’. For

example, Jenkins (2014) argues that many universities around the world who claim to be international universities are actually national in terms of English teaching. This is because English policy is still considered to be based on native English norms in those so called ‘international’ universities where an increasing number of multi-national students are studying.

Similarly to the general ELF empirical studies, some corpus-based ELFA research demonstrated certain patterns of ELFA use (e.g. Björkman, 2013; Pilkinton-Pihko; 2010; Ranta, 2006). Their findings generally suggest that academic staff and students are using ELF for communication and their non-conformity use of English can be equally effective to express their ideas. Some of the findings are in accordance with earlier general ELF empirical studies, which indicate ELFA users share similar linguistics features with general ELF users to successfully fulfil communications. It is important to point out that most of the empirical ELFA studies were conducted in the European context, but a few studies were found in East Asian countries. This is not surprising, because EMI is a newly emerged education form in East Asian countries, where the medium of instruction is often the students’ first language, in those settings. Thus, in the next section, I will discuss the spoken academic research which was conducted in European contexts.

Repetition is a strategy which is frequently used by NNEs who are using English in academic settings (e.g. Mauranen, 2006b; Björkman, 2011). Mauranen (2006b) finds that university students frequently communicate with others through repetitions. Similarly, Björkman’s (2011) finding also indicates that students studying Engineering through English use repetition to make themselves understood. Besides, Mauranen (2006b) also lists other useful communications strategies, such as raising specific questions, repetition of problematic items to signal misunderstanding, using confirmation checks and engaging interactive repairs to prevent misunderstanding. In ELFA, these strategies are considered to be effective ways of dealing with non-understanding and achieving mutual intelligibility.

Björkman (2012) investigates students’ use of questioning in HE academic setting. She listed three types of questions: syntax with specific reference to word order, utterance-final rising question intonation and the interrogative adverb/pronoun (in

Wh-questions only). The findings suggest ELF users in her study often adopt rising question intonation as a useful way to achieve communicative effectiveness. Her participants did not follow the NESs' intonation, but they made themselves understood by adopting their innovative use of question intonation.

ELFA users tend to frequently use the progressive aspect (e.g. Björkman 2008; Ranta, 2006). Ranta (2006) studies the ELF speakers' extended use of progressive aspect based on the ELFA corpus. She finds that ELF speakers use the progressive aspect much more often than the NESs. She also identifies three types of non-traditional use of progressive aspect in ELF communication. Ranta concludes that ELF users' use of progressive aspect caused no obvious misunderstandings in interactions. She believes the participants are making an innovative use of language to help successful communication. Similarly, Björkman's (2008) study shows that her participants employ the progressive aspect to communicate as well.

Metsä-Ketelä's (2006) finds this phrase '*more or less*' is used more often by speakers in ELF academic contexts. She also indicates that "the vast majority of the occurrences of '*more or less*' in academic lingua franca English fall into the broad category of hedging" (p. 130). She indicates the expression has three functions in lingua franca discourse: minimising, comparing similarities and approximating quantities. In addition, she compares the frequency of expression '*more or less*' with the MICASE corpus (a corpus of native English). She finds that '*more or less*' is more frequently used in the ELFA corpus than the MICASE corpus. In particular, the minimising function of '*more or less*' is more frequently used in ELFA than MICASE corpus. However, Metsä-Ketelä argues that the use of '*more or less*' with different functions does not cause misunderstanding in the ELF communication.

Mauranen (2009) draws on the ELFA corpus to study the recurrent patterning which ELF users utilized to co-construct successful communication. She identifies that some patterns range from short to longer patterns, and those longer patterns are variable and different from native English norms, for example, the expression '*in my point of view*' not only demonstrates the creative adaptations of ELF speakers, but also denotes a new function that of signalling divergence of opinion. In addition, Mauranen argues that the deviant uses of the patterns are systematically used in ELF

contexts and this should not be seen as random errors but might indicate the creativeness of ELF users.

Other recent studies have shown subject teachers do not adhere to native English norms in EMI. For example, Pilkinton-Pihko (2010) investigates ELF lecturers' self-perceptions of their language use and ability to communicate in English as well as the language ideologies which guide their self-perceptions. The author adopts a phenomenographic approach to investigate three participants. In her study, the phenomenography approach refers to investigating participant's statements of experiences of their own language learning and perceptions of language use, while lecturing subject-specific content. Her study also identifies three types of language ideologies: standard language ideology, standard English native speaker language ideology, and English as 'other'. What is interesting to find is that none of the lecturers adhere strictly to standard language ideology or to NS language ideology in practice.

To summarize, the above section has reviewed some ELFA studies. These studies were listed to offer an overview of how ELF users use or perceive English in European academic settings. Especially, studies show the strategies which ELFA users employ frequently. It can be suggested that on the basis of those empirical studies, that the nature of English language proficiency in ELF(A) setting is different from the conventional approach to English language. Grammatical 'correctness' is not the only criterion to communicate ideas in ELFA. The great effort which ELF users put forward to prevent misunderstanding, such as repetition, using confirmation checks and engaging interactive repairer to prevent misunderstanding. Pragmatic competence is considered as crucial in such settings (Björkman, 2012).

These empirical studies were not simply describing the fixed ELFA patterns, but explaining what was intelligible in academic settings where English is the major common language. The listed features are not universal in all the academic settings but some of the features may reflect English use in academic settings in China. There are overlapping features which emerge from the general ELF and ELFA research but these findings are not mutually exclusive. In order to argue for ELFA as the appropriate paradigm to study English use in academic English, the major

approaches to academic English/EAP will be briefly presented in the following section.

2.5 ELFA approach to Academic English

Due to the widespread use of the English in HE settings around the world, the demand for English courses related to academic English is increasing both in English speaking countries and worldwide. Institutions in Anglophone countries normally provide pre-sessional or in-sessional Academic English courses for international students. Recently, some institutions in Expanding Circles countries have also offered Academic English courses associated with the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP). EAP is often perceived as a branch of ESP (Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001). There exists a lack of agreement on the most effective approach to teaching academic English. Therefore, there are many ways of approaching academic English; each way of categorization depends on the position of the scholar (e.g. general approach, specific approach, genre approach, Academic Literacies, Critical EAP and ELFA).

The majority of the theoretical approaches to EAP (except ELFA) are based on native English norms (Jenkins, 2014, Mauranen, 2012). The increasing use of academic English by NNESs has been ignored by the majority of EAP scholars. Among the different approaches to academic English, Jenkins (2014) categorizes the major academic English approaches into three groupings: “Conforming approaches”, “Challenging approaches” and “ELFA approaches”. Unlike other approaches which only took a rather static view towards academic English, Jenkins categorizes the various approaches and indicates her unique perspectives on academic English. Her framework is the most up-to-date and coherent category in the literature. Her categorization offers a new perspective to studying English in the international HE, where ELF users are using English for “a wider international audience” (Jenkins, 2014:42). Therefore, I adopt Jenkins’ EAP categorization in this thesis (See Jenkins, 2014). The following paragraph will briefly review and evaluate her framework.

According to Jenkins (2014), the Conforming approaches include the Traditional EAP, Corpus Studies and EAP/Genre. The notion of the ‘conforming’ means NNESs

students have to “conform by default to native academic English (p. 50)”. This is because the Conforming approaches into EAP has been guided by the native English norms. Jenkins also divides the conforming approaches into what she sees as stronger and weaker versions. In her stronger version, which she refers to as “traditional EAP”, which NNEs are normally required to learn the academic English norms specific to NES academic English. It seems that norms and standards are their primary focus in such approach. Jenkins criticises the notion that EAP teachers are expected to help students to acquire the standard English and to “focus on idealized native academic norms, and not to question whether these norms are the most appropriate globally (p. 50)”. The weaker end of the conforming approach includes EAP/Genre approaches and corpus studies. The concept of ‘genre’ has influenced greatly the study of academic English since 1990 (e.g. Swales, 1990; Hyland, 2003). Genre based approaches focus on the structure and the discourse features of the texts, as well as the context and the target readers (Hyland, 2003). Based on the EAP/Genre approaches, teachers first need to help students understand a contextual framework for writing and also let the students become familiar with the different text structure/ types (Hyland, 2003). EAP/ Genre informed approaches have helped students understand the explicit knowledge of the genres. Jenkins believes that those approaches still make no attempt to question the existing approach that NNEs need to conform to native English norm completely. Turning to the Corpus studies, the genre approach has also contributed to the EAP corpus, such as the Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English (MICASE), and the International Corpus of learner English (ICLE). On the one hand, the corpus gives people the chance to analyse how discourse differs in various academic disciplines and genres. On the other hand, EAP teachers are still required to compare the NESs’s English with NNEs. They still consider NNEs’ English as a problem to be solved. Jenkins argues that Genre approaches “do not seem to see any contradictions in expecting NNEs to develop these identities through the medium of native English norms and forms”.

Jenkins’ Challenging approaches comprise Critical EAP, Contrastive Rhetoric and academic literacies. Jenkins believes that although these approaches challenge the Conforming approaches, these approaches have a different focus. For example, Academic Literacies Approach has been identified as an important perspective in

studying academic English recently (e.g. Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002; Tribble, 2009). But it is believed that the discourse of Academic Literacies focuses more on the home students in the UK (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002: 4). This suggests Academic Literacies have not been concerned with ELF users. Jenkins (2014) believes Critical EAP approaches and ELFA share similar perspectives. In particular, both of the two approaches question the need to follow the expectations and norms formulated by the university. However, in practice students have less right to contribute to the curriculum designing. Thus, critical EAP scholars may impose their own goals upon their students.

Given the diverse current theoretical approaches to Academic English, I think ELF and ELFA (already discussed in detail in the last section) demonstrate a helpful paradigm to study the implication in relation to internationalisation of the English language. The previous section 2.3.3 has pointed out the dynamic nature of ELF (A). The ELFA approach to academic English might be seen as a suitable way to study EMI in international universities. Similarly, the previous literature identified the ongoing nature of globalisation and internationalisation. In this respect, ELFA fits in with a view of globalisation and internationalisation. Though the number of studies which take an ELFA approach is smaller than the other conventional Academic English approaches, ELFA has generally been adopted as a relatively new approach to studying English used in EMI (e.g. Björkman, 2013; Jenkins, 2014; Pilkinton-Pihko, 2010; Mauranen, 2012; Smit, 2010b). The next section will briefly review the research findings mentioned above and discuss English and ELF in Chinese universities.

2.6 English and ELF in higher education in China

Chinese English speakers are in the Expanding Circle of English use. Chinese students have to learn English (as a foreign language) throughout all the educational stages. Before they enter university, most of the students have usually received at least nine years of formal English language courses. When students enrol in university, they are required to study College English for at least two years. In China, EAP has not been widely taught in the universities, though EAP has been recently emphasized in research conferences and papers in China (e.g. Cai, 2012a; Cai,

2012b). The approach to EAP is still based on the Conforming approaches. Like ELT in China, EAP courses are still informed by the General EAP approach and EAP/Genre approach. The primary focus of EAP is on accuracy and correctness. Most Chinese researchers still adopt the term 'EFL' to describe the English use in China. Compared to these terms (e.g. EIL, Global Englishes), ELF is not a frequently used term in the research literature in China. Despite the fact that the College teaching curriculum highlights the function of English as an international language, only the literal meaning of the term 'global language' has been understood. The underlying discourse of English as a global language has not been noticed and the implications of the change of English status have not been widely discussed in China.

Three terms are often used to describe English use by Chinese people, Chinglish, Chinese English, and China English (Hu, 2004; Eaves, 2011). However, Chinglish and Chinese English are often associated with negative evaluations from the SLA perspectives. Recently, China English has been the subject of a growing body of research (e.g. Bolton, 2003; Chen and Hu, 2006; Eaves, 2011; Hu, 2004; He and Li, 2009; Kirkpatrick and Xu, 2002). But those studies are based on the WE paradigm. They try to describe China English as a fixed variety of English. Eaves (2011: 65) claims that China English is "a developing variety in Kachru's Expanding Circle". The primary limitations of those studies lie in the fact that they do not address the legitimacy of Chinese speaker's English in intercultural communication. Some think Chinese interference influences the Chinese people's use of English. However, it is important to point out that the 'Chinese interference' is just one of the reasons for non-conformity with native English varieties. Other reasons which account for this might be the individual speaker's preferences, innovation and the specific contexts.

However, from the ELF perspectives, China English or Chinese English can be seen as languages use by a specific similect (Mauranen 2012) of Chinese ELF users. According to Mauranen (2012: 29), ELF speakers are exposed to L2 lects¹ and regional dialects". On one hand, the L2 lects contain features of the L1 of the

¹ Mauranen (2012:29) first uses the word 'lects' and 'similects'

speaker, but people who come from the same L1 background could understand each other. On the other hand, she distinguishes between L2 lects and regional dialects. As she notes, “unlike dialects, which arise in communities of speakers talking to each other, L2 lects result from the parallel L1 influence on their speakers” (P. 29). Thus, Mauranen calls these L2 lects ‘similects’. She further explains that similects “remain forever first-generation hybrids: each generation’s, each speaker’s idiolect is a new hybrid” (p.29). From this point of view, Chinese people do not use fixed English to talk with each other. They are using English to speak to people who come from other linguistic backgrounds and to accommodate their languages. For example, they might need to introduce the Chinese culture to other ELF speakers. Thus, the ‘similects’ are not developing among Chinese people but between Chinese and other L2 English users. Jenkins (2014) also discusses the similects and notes that the term “Japanese ELF” or “Chinese ELF” (P.29) can be used in this sense.

Turning to the use of ‘Chinese ELF’ or ‘China English’, no clear approval of China English has been put forward by language policy. ‘Chinese ELF’ or ‘China English’ is still in the stage of implying improper use. Many people still have very negative attitudes towards these terms. For example, Hu (2004) conducted a research project which investigates 1251 Chinese students’ awareness of China English and World English. Only 2.2% of students preferred China English. Though Hu identified this global use of English and question and the need for English in China to conform to any the existing standard varieties, students still showed a willingness to learn British/American English. Though a few studies (e.g. Hu, 2005; Kirkpatrick and Xu, 2002) argue that China English should have its role, how to integrate ‘Chinese’ ELF or ‘China English’ into the curriculum remains a question to be discussed.

Since 2010, there have been emerging studies which consider the implication of the ELF approach to ELT in China (e.g., Deterding, 2010; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Wang, 2013; Wen, 2012; Zheng, 2013, 2014). Among the very few publications on ELF in relation to China, Deterding (2010) analyzed 13 Chinese students’ English recordings based on the Lingua Franca Core. His study considers the implications of the proposals for ELF-based pronunciation teaching in China and argues that ELF-based teaching is attainable for most Chinese learners, while native speaker targets are ‘demotivating’. He also notes that ELF-based teaching should never be seen as ‘a

cut-down target or ‘soft’ option’, because it provides learners more attainable targets, it also involves more work, for example, developing accommodation skills.

Deterding also discusses the potential effects of ELF-based teaching of Chinese English learners. He suggests ELF-based pronunciation teaching as “practical, achievable and fun” (P.12).

Wen (2012: 373) proposes a pedagogical framework for an ELF-informed approach to the teaching of English in China. According to her framework, English language can be analysed and taught linguistically, culturally and pragmatically. Moreover, Wen suggests that pedagogical decisions should be based on what is to be taught and what the learners are expected to achieve. Wen highlights that “the basic idea here is what is expected of learners, is not that they should replicate what is taught, but use it as a means for developing effective communicative strategies related to their own cultural reality”. Thus, she calls for ELT to reflect the communication purpose for the students and to prioritise a locally sensitive ELT approach. Her study is very influential, as she emphasises the need for the ELT in China to help students’ develop communication strategies.

Wang (2013) studies Chinese university students and professionals’ perceptions of non-conformity to English native language norms. She adopted the ELF as her theoretical framework and sees her participants as legitimate ELF speakers. Her finding demonstrates that Chinese English users have “exonormative and endnormative orientations to English (P.278)”. On the one hand, participants consider English as “a fixed entity” and believe native English could bring social advantage to them, on the other hand, their reaction demonstrates “acknowledgement of the communicative function of English that diverges from the norms of ENL and their concern for their cultural identity” (p.255). Finally, She argues that the English used by Chinese people for international communication is legitimate and labeled it as “CHELF (Chinese speakers’ English as a Lingua Franca) to describe their English use. She also highlights the need to call for a change from monolithic English to pluralistic English in ELT in China.

Zheng’s (2013) study explores the relevance of ELF to ELT practices by examining Chinese learners’ English learning from L2 motivational perspectives. Her findings

reveal that participants “tended to construct the Ought-to and Ideal L2 self around native-speaker norms under the influence of the deeply ingrained native English model in the ELT classroom and the global spread of native English cultural products” (P.341). However, the participants find that it is hard to achieve the native-like English targets and may thus have no further motivation to learn English. Her study calls for a re-evaluation of the dominant native-speaker norm in China. She also provides some suggestions on how to relate ELF to English language teaching in the tertiary context, such as raising ELF awareness and creating ELF-using experiences.

In addition, some studies adopted the notion of ELF to describe communication between Chinese teachers and international students in Mandarin classes. For example, Wang (in press: 1-2) investigate native Chinese teachers’ beliefs about ELF. She notes that those Mandarin teachers use “ELF to assist the teaching of Chinese language, to introduce Chinese culture and to communicate with students who come from many different countries”. Though her study did not have direct relevance to my research, her study at least indicates that there has been diverse use of English among different English users in China and that some scholars realise the value of ELF in Chinese education contexts.

Last year the 7th International Conference ELT in China held a forum to discuss the implications of ELF to China. This was the first conference which had considered ELF in China. Although the speakers in that forum still have very conservative attitudes towards ELF, the forum has inspired the ELT practitioners to think about ELF in China and reflect their existing belief. The four presenters in the forum are all well aware of English use in global settings, but they expressed their concerns regarding the pedagogical implications of ELF and some said that ELF cannot be fully integrated into Chinese HE. One of the speakers, criticizes ELF and claims that empirical ELF studies (e.g. a Lingua Franca Core) are trying to identify the ELF features. However, ELF research is not about trying to codifying a variety of English. These empirical studies are describing how ELF speakers use English in practice and how they use pragmatic skills to make themselves understood. Emphasizing pragmatic skills have been highlighted in those ELF studies which explored the English forms used in ELF communication. It appears that the notion of

ELF has not been fully understood and misconceptions still exist in China. More empirical studies are needed to help practitioners understand the notion of ELF and then to let them think over if ELF is relevant to their classrooms.

In summary, the findings of these studies indicate that some Chinese scholars are starting to understand the global role of English. They are also reflecting on the ELT in China. So far, ELF influences have been very limited and the most English teaching in China is still based on Inner-Circle norms. The above literature has shown that some researchers have advocated ELF-informed teaching, but the future influence of ELF on ELT in China is still unknown. In addition, there is not much information on how EMI practitioners perceive the use of English, to teach the content subjects, and how they perceive English language in relation to the changing status of English around the world. The expansion of EMI in Chinese universities is likely to continue in the future. This brings me to question what type of English should be used in Chinese universities and to what extent does ELF fit into the Chinese HE.

2.7 Summary and conclusion

In this chapter the ELF and ELFA were reviewed to show how English is currently being used around the world. It also discussed why the notion of ELF is more relevant in expanding circle countries. The spread of ELF and findings of the ELF research enable people to argue that native speakers' competence may no longer be relevant as a model in those Expanding Circle countries. Based on findings from the literature of ELFA, NNEs in academic settings use forms which are different from native English speakers. Those forms have different functions in communication. This supports ELF scholars' notion that non-native English speakers' unconformity to native English norms should not be seen as a deficit, but differently, and also emphasizes the importance of intelligibility. In addition, it also discusses why ELFA could be seen as the most updated and relevant approach to studying English use in academic settings. Turning to HE in China, very limited studies have discussed ELF with reference to the implication for ELT in China. There seems to be no study which has linked EMI with ELF. The next chapter will discuss the implications of ELF in relation to the globalization of English, particularly in HE settings.

Chapter 3: Internationalisation and English in Higher Education

3.1 Introduction

The word ‘internationalisation’ has become a buzzword since nearly all universities set the goal of internationalising their institutions. Academic mobility increases the use of English in HE. As discussed in Chapter one, English plays an important role in global HE. A large number of papers on the internationalisation of HE have been published, but very few have explored the implications of internationalisation on the English language. The following section will review the literature regarding the internationalisation of HE. Remaining sections will then review the EMI studies which have been conducted in Europe, East Asia and China.

3.2 Globalization and the internationalisation of higher education

The term ‘globalization’ and ‘internationalisation’ are often intertwined in global education. But each term can denote different senses and can be sometimes difficult to define. Although some scholars are trying to distinguish the two terms, there is no consensus regarding the definitions and the meanings. Altbach (2006: 123) defines globalization as “the broad economic, technological, and scientific trends that directly affect higher education and are largely inevitable in the contemporary world”. While he refers to internationalisation as “specific policies and programs undertaken by governments, academic systems and institutions, and even individual departments to support students or faculty exchanges, encourage collaborative research overseas, set up joint teaching programs in other countries or a myriad of other initiatives”. Another scholar, Teichler (2004:7) states that “globalisation is often associated with competition and marketsteering, trans-national education, and finally with commercial knowledge-transfer”. The term internationalisation “is often discussed in relation to physical mobility, academic cooperation and academic knowledge transfer as well as international education”. The definitions above may indicate globalisation is an ongoing process and denote the sense of interconnectedness. Almost all institutions have to respond to the influences of globalisation and are facing competition for students, knowledge and research. By contrast, internationalisation is offering choices for the universities. As Altbach

(2006: 123) observes, “internationalisation accommodates a significant degree of autonomy and initiative”. This suggests HE institutions could take the initiative to decide whether to implement internationalisation strategies or not. But obviously, policy makers often perceive the internationalisation as a good sign for the development of the universities. Most of the institutions worldwide have set out the internationalisation agenda.

Based on the literature, it is noteworthy that there is no single reason to explain why many universities are actively aiming for internationalisation (Altbach and Knight, 2007; Maringe and Foskett, 2010). Some universities want to recruit fee-paying international students to increase the income. Some consider the internationalisation could help their domestic students to increase their cultural understanding and competitiveness in the globalised job market. Other universities see that internationalisation offer new ways to collaborate with other institutions and to exchange knowledge, research and resources. Generally, the economic aspects are more likely to be perceived as the primary reasons for implementing the EMI and to increase the recruitment of students all over the world (Wilkinson, 2013).

Similarly, there are no uniform ways to internationalise HE. Scholars from different social-cultural backgrounds may perceive the internationalisation differently (Ryan, 2013). The prominent internationalisation activities which the universities often employ include: establishing links with foreign universities, setting up joint education programmes, increasing the number of the international students, increasing the mobility of staff and students, setting up branch campuses, increasing research collaboration with foreign partners, emphasizing the EMI and increasing the use of foreign language curriculum and textbooks (Altbach and Knight, 2007; Van Damme, 2001). Although many universities claim that they have adopted those strategies, the level of the internationalisation varies with different contexts. Amongst the different aspects of internationalisation, this study mainly focused on EMI courses. I will discuss the EMI in Europe and Asia in section 3.3 and 3.4.

While the term ‘internationalisation’ has been widely accepted and promoted in global HE, there remains debate on how to implement the international strategies (Reid & Spencer-Oatey, 2013; Wong & Wu, 2011). These researchers note that

institutions only mention the broad approaches to internationalisation, such as increasing the number of international students, promoting international exchange and requiring the use of English textbooks. But practitioners often interpret these approaches in different ways. So there always remains confusion about what internationalisation means in pedagogy. As Reid & Spencer-Oatey (2013) argue “...the internationalisation of the curriculum is often more rhetoric than reality, it seems evident from the literature that many institutions have lacked a clear direction in the implementation of meaningful and sustainable policies”. Wong & Wu (2011: 198) also criticise the ambiguity of internationalisation policies. They believe that the ambiguity of the policy may lead to the partial implementation of the policy. As they note “internationalization efforts frequently result in change that is only superficial or isolated rather than deep and pervasive”. Similarly, Killick (2011:77) argues “internationalisation is not ‘simply’ a matter of presenting an English curriculum, or of developing inclusive pedagogies. It is a process through which universities can take their own place as responsible institutions in a globalising world”. This might suggest that internationalisation is a complex term and it contains various aspects. Universities should not just implement superficial strategies but think over other issues which have been taken for granted, for example, English language. Despite English language playing an important role regarding the internationalisation of HE, the previous research in this field has focused less on the English language issues. So far the implications of internationalisation on English language have received limited attention.

The increasing use of English in global HE has suggested that many NNEs are using English to fulfil their degree requirements. However, turning to the literature on the internationalisation of HE, native English norms have been considered as the most appropriate forms without much questioning. Many previous studies have examined the pedagogical methods which could be applied in multicultural classrooms (e.g. Edmead, 2013; McGrath-Champ et al., 2013). For example, McGrath-Champ et al. (2013) evaluated the team-based learning and the critical reflective journal approaches, in the classroom, where there were mixed local and international students. They found the two approaches could help students with different backgrounds learn more effectively. However, these studies do not consider the changing role of English. Much of the literature has also studied the international

students' experiences and identified the challenges international students have encountered when adjusting to foreign countries (e.g. Bamford, 2008; Chen, 2009; Daniels, 2013; Gu, 2005; Schweisfurth and Gu, 2009). These studies have discussed the various issues international students have encountered in the new environment, such as stresses, cultural shock, loneliness and language skills. English language issues were mentioned sometimes, but NE norms are the reference points. These researchers still regard international students as English learners rather than legitimate English users. In addition, they made no attempt to question whether the native English norms are relevant for NNESSs. They just recommend teachers who could help students improve their English skills. For example, Chen (2009) analyses the metadiscourse of Chinese students' English writing. Chen argues that patterns of metadiscourse use are associated with disciplinary and contextual factors. Chen still compares Chinese students' writing with NS students' and sees Chinese students' writing as 'problems to be remedied'. Daniels (2013) explores the international doctoral students' writing challenges in Australia and notes some students have difficulties expressing "complex ideas and arguments in a language that they are still learning" (p41). Based on the capability theory, Daniels argues the value of writing groups which could help students develop their writing skills. However, Daniels still believes students need to conform to native English.

Although some empirical studies in academic ELF (see 2.5) have been published, so far these studies have little influence on the literature on the internationalisation of HE. Given that the students and staff are from very diverse backgrounds, some researchers (e.g. Doiz et al; 2011; Jenkins, 2014; Kirkpatrick, 2014) argue that the traditional normative approach may not be best suited to the needs of successful communication in HE. Doiz et al (2011) criticise the monolingual nature of HE in English-speaking countries. Jenkins (2014:5) also points out that those international universities "have not even begun to consider the possible linguistic implications of their diverse student and staff make-up", and she questions the existing approach of assessing international students' English.

The genuine internationalisation approach should tolerate diversity and take account of the students' needs. In globalised HE settings, it appears that everything can be internationalised, such as curriculum internationalisation, personnel

internationalisation, and equipment internationalisation. But there have been few talks about the internationalisation of the English language. Though English is mentioned as the international language, many people tend to understand the literal meanings and seldom explore the implications of the term. When we talk about English language internationalisation, the ELFA approach could be adopted in order to understand the use of English in such settings. This approach could legitimise NNEST students' English use and accommodate their English in communications. ELFA approach does not compel the students to stop learning English grammar, vocabulary or phonology, but to take account of students' use of English in the future.

The preceding part has introduced the literature on the internationalisation of HE in a general way. It is believed that in the process of internationalisation, the English language has undoubtedly exerted significant influences upon global HE. However, due to the widespread use of English in academia, some scholars point out that English has posed a threat to the local language and culture (e.g. Smith, 2004; Phillipson, 2009). In some European countries, the promotion of EMI and English publications has led to the discussion about 'domain loss' (e.g. Björkman, 2012; Ferguson, 2007; Ljosland, 2007; Phillipson, 2009).

In fact, whether the term domain loss is really happening remains debatable. The majority of researchers question the term and argue that domain loss has less effect in practice (e.g. Hultgren, 2013; Lønsmann; 2011; Wilkinson, 2013; Ferguson, 2007). The uses of English in HE do not indicate that local language is losing its function. As will be discussed in 3.3, empirical studies show that some teachers use both local language and English in EMI. For example, though the language policy promotes the 'English only' in Norwegian universities, Ljosland's (2010) participants admitted that they use Norwegian sometimes in the classrooms. It appears that national language still has a role to play. Similarly, Björkman (2013: 24) discusses the effects of English on Swedish. She notes there appears to be little sign of English having become the dominant language in Sweden. Swedish is still functioning as the most widely used language. Wilkinson (2013: 13) argues that domain loss "is less of a concern at the level of the individual institution". Wilkinson believes that EMI programmes could bring more benefits to the individual institution than the

disadvantages. The use of English may not pose particular danger in those wealthy European countries. But whether English has posed a threat to languages in other contexts still remains debatable.

The influence of the English on Chinese language has been discussed by Chinese researchers and they pointed out that English has influenced the Chinese morphology and syntax (e.g. Guo and Zhou, 2003; Yang, 2009). Xu (2004) points out that EMI could affect Chinese language learning. Students might feel that learning English is more important than learning Chinese language and culture. The notion of “safeguarding Chinese” is sometimes mentioned in the public media. However, given the large number of Chinese speakers and the dominant role of Chinese language in China, English appears to have limited impact on the Chinese language. The influence of English in China has not led to the ‘domain loss’. As Nunan (2003: 596) notes “English appears to have little impact on Chinese language itself”. In their recent Chinese study, Pan and Seargeant’s (2012) investigate Chinese English learners’ attitudes towards the impact of English on Chinese language and culture. They found the majority of the participants believed that English was influencing Chinese people, but they did not see it as a threat to the Chinese language and culture. After a brief review about the major issues related to English use in international HE, the next section will review the related EMI studies in Europe, in order to understand the rationale and conceptualization of EMI, and especially to understand how teachers perceive EMI and how they implement it in the classrooms.

3.3 EMI in European higher education

Due to the influence of internationalisation, there has been a significant expansion of EMI programmes in European HE (Bolton & Kuteeva, 2012; Coleman, 2006; Costa & Coleman, 2012; Wächter & Maiworm, 2008). Indeed, the 1999 Bologna Declaration accelerates the increase of the EMI programs in Europe (Wächter & Maiworm, 2008). The primary object of the Bologna process is to create a borderless European HE area which will increase the mobility of students and staff within 46 countries who have signed the agreement (see De Wit, 2006). Thus, English has been increasingly used as an academic language in Europe. A large number of the EMI programmes have been implemented at the postgraduate level in European countries

(Brenn-White & Van Rest, 2012; Bolton & Kuteeva, 2012). Universities in the Netherlands and Sweden started to teach in English earlier than other European countries. According to Brenn-White & Van Rest (2012), the top five European countries which offer more EMI programs are Netherlands, Germany, Sweden, France and Spain. Scholars have also identified many reasons for implementing the EMI programs in Europe (e.g., Wächter & Maiworm, 2008; Ferguson, 2007). Three reasons are identified as the most frequently mentioned: to attract full fee-paying international students; to help domestic students adapt to the global market quickly; to help the university acquire international prestige.

EMI has attracted scholarly attention to explore this new education form. (e.g., Bolton & Kuteeva, 2012; Costa & Coleman, 2012). Some focused on the students' and/or teachers' perceptions towards English use in EMI, their reflections on practices and policies (e.g., Bolton & Kuteeva, 2012; Airey, 2013; Erling & Bartlett, 2006; Hellekjær, 2007; 2010; Kuteeva, 2014; Kuteeva & Airey, 2014; Saarinen, 2012; Tange, 2010; Vinke, 1995). As this thesis is teacher-focused, I will not discuss those studies which focused on students. In the following paragraph, I will summarize and discuss the studies which investigated teachers' orientations towards EMI and EMI policies and the teachers' reflections on their teaching practices.

The general findings from the previous studies tend to show that most teachers expressed positive attitudes towards EMI, and many support the EMI at both undergraduate and postgraduate levels (e.g. Bolton and Kuteeva, 2012; Jensen and Thøgersen, 2011; Tange, 2010). They think EMI programme are beneficial to both students and their universities. But the research literatures also raised concerns about using English to teach subjects. Those concerns mainly include subject teachers' lack of sufficiency in English skills; and their difficulty in adjusting to the international students who come from different lingual-cultural backgrounds (e.g. Doiz, et al. 2011; Erling & Hilgendorf, 2006; Tange, 2010; Vinke, 1995). For example, Doiz et al (2011:347) points out that teachers might not have sufficient English proficiency to conduct courses in English, and the students may not have adequate English proficiency to understand the course. Similarly, Erling and Hilgendorf (2006) examine the impact of EMI at a German university. According to their study, the most important problems in EMI implementation included some instructors'

inadequate language skills, and insufficient opportunities for appropriate language training. Some scholars also find that EMI also reduces the teachers' ability to elaborate on the subject knowledge. For example, Vinke's (1995) study suggests that non-native English teachers need to spend more time in preparing their lessons. The author notes teachers' knowledge of English was constrained to explain the content accurately and precisely. Thøgersen and Airey (2011) find that participants in their study speak more slowly and repeat the same information more when teaching in English.

It was also reported in the literature that some European universities carry out English exams to test whether teachers have obtained enough English proficiency to cope with the EMI (Ball & Lindsay, 2013; Klaassen & Bos, 2010; Kling & Stæhr, 2011). For example, Delft University of Technology in the Netherlands, used the Oxford Quick Placement Test to assess teachers' written English. It also developed an oral English test which was derived from the Common European Framework of oral English criteria. Similarly, the University of the Basque Country requires teachers to take an English test, which also takes the Common European Framework as the reference point (Ball & Lindsay, 2013). Apparently, these English tests are still based on the idealised native English (McNamara, 2012).

With regard to code-switching in EMI, the previous research indicates that both English and local language co-exist in practice (Bolton & Kuteeva, 2012; Doiz et al., 2013; Ljoslan, 2010). However, how much English and local language is used in EMI is still unknown. The "parallel language" use is promoted in Swedish universities, but it is unclear how teachers manage to use both languages in the classrooms. As Kuteeva (2014: 333) argues "the full implications of parallel language use and its practical applications remain unclear, and to this day it largely remains an unoperationalised political slogan". This suggests that how much local language should be used in EMI remains a question to be discussed.

The above introductions of studies in Europe have provided primary views towards EMI in Europe. In the following paragraph, I will review three of those articles (Bolton & Kuteeva, 2012; Jenkins, 2014; Tange, 2010) which have direct relation to subject teachers' orientations and practices towards EMI.

Based on the data obtained from the large-scale questionnaires in Swedish universities, Bolton and Kuteeva (2012: 430) examined both students' and teachers' use of English in the universities and found that it varies across disciplines and educational settings. They found the students' responses almost matched the teachers'. As noted above, the use of both Swedish and English is permitted in Swedish universities. Thus, they investigated the amount of English the teachers used. They reported that the teachers' English use varied amongst staff across different disciplines and different teaching settings. Although both Swedish and English are allowed to be used in EMI, Bolton and Kuteeva (2012: 43) think that this system could produce problems in teaching practice. They said that the policy would jeopardise those international students' learning rights; especially those who have weak proficiency in Swedish. They also found that the majority of respondents said they had sufficient English skills to teach the subjects in English and they considered that the use of English did not disadvantage themselves.

Tange (2010) conducted 20 qualitative interviews at three universities in Denmark in order to examine the lecturers' perceptions towards university internationalisation. Based on the data, Tange discussed the four themes related to lecturers' concerns: Language, culture, knowledge and organization. Similarly to Bolton and Kuteeva (2012), Tange's participants considered EMI to be a positive sign in Danish HE, but they also indicated the difficulties of teaching in English. Tange's participants said that they felt confident to teach EMI if they had the prepared notes or power point slides. The participants also admitted to difficulties when they had to respond to students' unexpected questions. As Tange (2010: 143) observes "in the classroom, this means that lecturers will stick to a purely academic discourse, cutting down on the surrounding information that they would use in their Danish classes to illustrate a specific theoretical point or model". In terms of student's feedback, the participants admitted they received more negative feedback concerning their English proficiency. However, they never discussed their English inadequacies with other teachers. One prominent reason identified was their anxiety that their linguistic inadequacies would affect their career status. What's more, the lecturers also expressed their concerns over the international students' cultural diversity. The students' diverse academic and linguacultural background pose difficulties for lecturers in implementing EMI. Some international students were found less likely to participate in the classroom

activities. Lecturers need to adjust to their students and offer courses at “a less advanced level” and invite more students to answer the questions in the classrooms (Tange, 2010, 145).

Despite the fact that EMI has been widely studied in Europe, most of the studies have not assessed teachers' English proficiency from an ELFA perspective. Only a small number of researchers have investigated teachers' and students' perceptives and practices relating to teaching content courses from the ELFA perspective (e.g. Kuteeva, 2014; Jenkins, 2014; Mauranen, 2012; Smit, 2010). They have criticized unrealistic goals of setting standard native English norms in HE settings. For example, Jenkins (2014) explores subject teachers' perspectives towards their institutions' English language policies and practices. She finds that most of her respondents said their universities did not have stated English language policy. But they talked about their understanding of language rules and still considered native English as the most appropriate kind of English in HE. Although some of respondents expressed tolerant views towards NNESS' English, they did not believe NNESS' English to be a legitimate kind of English. In addition, Jenkins also studied 16 European university websites in order to find out the extent to which these universities require the native-like norms of academic English. She finds that all of the 16 websites reflect either explicitly or implicitly native-like English orientation. All these universities' language policy makes no reference to ELF (A) research. Thus Jenkins argues that international universities wish to recruit a diverse multicultural/multilingual population of students and staff, but they do not consider the diversity in the use of English in the lingua franca communication on their campuses. Kuteeva (2014) examined students' and lecturers' views towards the parallel language use in Swedish University. Especially, to find out the extent to which the ideas of 'nativeness' in the parallel language use policy influence how English should be used in the university. Native English is still perceived by the participants as the most appropriate language in Swedish academic settings. However, Kuteeva believes the current English requirements are not suitable in Swedish universities, where English is more likely to be used as an academic lingua franca.

3.4 EMI in East Asia

Universities in Asia have also had the intention of internationalising their universities. For many of them, internationalisation could help them to become the ‘world- class’ universities (Chan, 2011). Since the mid-2000s, the percentage of EMI courses and degree programs in East Asian has increased rapidly (Kirkpatrick, 2014a, b). Offering EMI courses and degree programmes at both the undergraduate and postgraduate level is seen as one of the common internationalisation strategies adopted by those countries. It is important to note the current numbers of the EMI programmes in East Asia are much smaller than the EMI programmes in European countries, and the students enrolled are mainly from the neighbouring countries. Recently, the government of those countries have had ambitious plans to expand EMI courses and to recruit more international students. Increasing the number of EMI programmes/courses has been reinforced in the government development plan.

The EMI policy in East Asian countries has been enacted top-down from the government. For example, in Vietnam, the government set the target of implementing 20% of all courses in English by 2015 (Manh, 2012). The South Korean government enacts financial support to universities offering more EMI courses. It set the goal of “raising the EMI ratio to 3.1% of all courses by 2010” (Byun et al., 2011). In Japan, the Global 30 Project was established in order to recruit 140,000 international students by 2010 (Brown, 2014). Since 2001, the MoE requires some leading Chinese universities to teach selected subjects partly or entirely in English (more discussions in 3.5 and 4.3).

There are several reasons for implementing EMI in HE in East Asian. Some reasons overlap with the European contexts and indicate the instrumental objectives. The reasons identified in the literature are: to boost the domestic students’ international competition, to improve the university ranking, to improve students’ English proficiency, to boost university internationalisation, to attract more international students; to increase the competitiveness of the university (Brown, 2014; Byun et al., 2011; Kirkpatrick, 2014a; Manh, 2012). Although almost all of the universities in East Asian countries want to increase the number of international students, making profits seems to be less prominent in these countries. For example, financial

motivation is not the primary reason for implementing EMI in Japanese universities, for international students pay the same tuition fees as Japanese students in Japan (Brown, 2004). By contrast, increasing the international students' enrolment in the European or other English-speaking countries is profit-driven. It seems that the driving motivation of the EMI institutions in East Asian countries is more related to the public image that the universities want to represent. Increasing the number of international students could help these universities to establish themselves as leading universities in the region.

The implementation of EMI in East Asia has attracted various debates which are similar to those in European universities which use EMI. The literature reflects both positive and negative views towards this new educational approach (e.g. Chang, 2010; Manh, 2012; Byun et al., 2011). In terms of positive outcome, these researchers tend to believe that EMI brings many benefits to students and could help students' to compete in the global job market. For example, Chang (2010) investigates Taiwanese undergraduate students' attitudes towards EMI and finds that most of the students agree that their English language competence has significantly improved, especially listening skills. However, many scholars have expressed their concerns towards EMI implementation. Some scholars argue that the use of English in the instruction might pose challenges in both teaching and learning. Again subjects teachers' and students' English competence have frequently criticized (Byun et al., 2011; Chang, 2010; Hou et al., 2013). Byun et al. (2011: 440) express very negative attitudes towards students' English. As they point out "students often lack adequate proficiency in the language, let alone the higher level of proficiency required in an academic setting". Teacher participants in their study mentioned their English language problems and some admitted that they have to "cover less material" during their teaching. Teacher participants considered student's English as an obstacle which hinders student's content learning. What's more, some scholars note that the increasing use of English language teaching in Asian countries raises the question of whether it will pose a threat to the national language and cultural identities. For example, Manh (2012: 265) notes that local language "may become a stepchild, or second-class". Scholars are also concerned about the teaching quality. Besides, subject teachers in Asian countries often experience a confusing role of being a language instructor in addition to a subject teacher (Hou et al., 2013). Hou et

al. (2013) argues that some teachers also expressed a confused view towards their own role. Participants in the study did not have a very clear understanding concerning their role. On one the hand, they need to teach the content knowledge to students, but on the other hand, they found that students expected them to teach English language. It seems that the universities have not made explicit the job role descriptions for subject teachers to refer to.

The previous literature also discussed the functions of code-switching in EMI. The majority of the studies revealed that code-switching is helpful as it could aid their students' understanding the courses (e.g. Flowerdew et al., 2000, 1998; Tian, 2013). Therefore, different functions of code-switching in EMI classrooms have been identified, such as explaining the difficult points, elaborating the background knowledge, emphasizing the key points, managing the students' behaviour and finishing the teaching tasks as expected. Previous studies have indicated that subject teachers believe the use of code-switching in EMI is useful to teaching and learning. In addition, teacher participants in the previous studies often highlight that code-switching happens occasionally and they stressed English is mainly used in the classroom.

Though an increasing number of EMI courses have been implemented recently in East Asia, only a limited number of studies have been published to investigate the results and consequences of such implementation. Among the studies which have been found, most of studies explore the students' motivations, perceptions, language use of EMI and language learners' performance (e.g. Chang, 2010; Chen and Kraklow, 2014; Kim et al. 2014; Yang, 2014). More empirical studies are needed to investigate EMI from the teachers' perspectives. The following section will review two recent studies (Byun et al., 2011; Kirkpatrick, 2014a) in East Asian which are relevant to the aims of current research.

Byun et al. (2011) adopt a case study method to critically explore the implementation of EMI policy in Korea University, Seoul. Based on the data obtained from the students' surveys and focus group interviews (both students and teachers), Byun et al. (2011) discuss the impact of the EMI policy, the challenges of implementing EMI policies, and the effectiveness of implementing EMI at the Korea university. They

reported that the teacher participants outlined many challenges for teaching EMI. Teacher participants admitted that they “cover less material” during their instructions due to the students’ English ability. In terms of the EMI language policy, students at Korean University must choose five EMI courses to study before they graduate. Thus, they questioned the compulsory aspect of the EMI Policy in Korea. In addition, less than 50% of the teacher participants said that they conducted the EMI entirely in English. Many argued that Korean instruction would raise the standard of teaching and help Korean students to understand the content. This finding suggests that many EMI courses are still taught in Korean. This finding seems to be in line with Evans & Morrison’s (2011) study in Hong Kong, namely the participants reported that their lecturers speak in Mixed Cantonese, Putonghua and Chinese in the EMI classrooms. Evans & Morrison (2011) identified that lecturers usually make great effort to speak in English, but their students always ask the teachers to explain in Cantonese. Similarly, Kim et al. (2014) investigated international students’ perceptions towards the use of the Korean in EMI. The Korean students express positive attitudes towards teachers’ and students’ use of Korean in EMI, especially when they have difficulties in understanding the content. However, international students in their study feel uncomfortable and frustrated when they find students/teachers using Korean.

In addition, the participants noted that the university has placed too much focus on the teachers’ English and seemed to neglect the teachers’ subject knowledge. As Byun et al. (2011: 446) observe “...the question of effective teaching may be crowded out by applicants’ English proficiency, with less acknowledgment given to their experience in the area of study”. Such a view is problematic, as ‘good English proficiency’ is hard to define. The questions I shall ask here are (1) in globalized HE today, what type of language skills should subject teachers have? (2) What kind of English should the teachers use in order to meet the students’ need many of whom have very diverse cultural backgrounds? I will discuss these questions in relation to my research findings in chapter nine.

Kirkpatrick’s (2014b) article outlines three major concerns related to EMI instruction in East Asian universities. First, he notes that EMI disadvantages students and staff whose first language is not English. He argues that universities should offer English language courses as “an integral part of a student’s curriculum” (Kirkpatrick, 2014:

7). The second concern which Kirkpatrick points out is that EMI policies often ignore other languages. He notes the fact that policy requires teachers to use English only, but in practice, teachers also use their first language. Instead of restricting L1 use, he believes that the “multilingual students should be encouraged and allowed to use their linguistic resources in the course of their studies”. The third concern is that native English norms should not become the only criteria to assess students’ English. Unlike other studies discussed in this section, Kirkpatrick (2014b) takes an ELF perspective to evaluate students’ English. He considers those students as multilingual users of English and their “use of English reflects their cultures and pragmatic norms” (Kirkpatrick, 2014: 10). Kirkpatrick’s article reviews some issues that universities are facing today. He argues that universities’ EMI policies should take into account the use of ELF and encourage multilingualism.

In summary, studies which investigate subject teachers’ orientation towards EMI policies and their implementations are still under research in East Asian countries. As demonstrated in the literature review, the majority of studies on EMI in Asian countries focus on the concerns and problems. Interviews and questionnaires are two forms of methods which have normally been adopted by the researchers. But what the teachers or students say might be different from what they actually do in the classroom. Thus, classroom observation could serve as an important approach to studying EMI implementation in the East Asian universities. In terms of the proportion of English used in EMI courses in East Asian context, there are prominent gaps between EMI policies and practices. Some universities have conducted EMI exclusively in English while some just use a portion of English. Thus, it seems the use of the local language (L1) is still prominent in some East Asian universities. Apart from the diversity of the student population in those EMI programmes, there has been no widely accepted criterion or practice to assess teachers’ or students’ English proficiency. Most of the studies made no attempt to identify the issue that EMI teachers should accommodate their English language or change their criteria to assess students’ English in a multinational class. The following section will examine internationalisation in Chinese universities and review relevant studies.

3.5 Internationalisation in Chinese higher education

In the last decade, HE in China has changed to meet the changing economic and social need. Internationalisation has become a highly discussed topic. Universities in China also aspire to be international. Cai (2012b) points out that phrase ‘the internationalisation of HE’ was frequently mentioned in a series of international university presidents’ forums in China. Ryan (2013: 283) notes that the Chinese universities are pursuing internationalisation through both internal and external means. Internal means concern the various reforms and policy enacted to build world level universities. For example, universities provide more foreign (mainly English) language instruction and increase the amount of scholarship support for international students. While the external means refer to the academic mobility. For example, universities encourage staff to collaborate with foreign institutions and to set up joint education programs with foreign universities (also known as transnational HE).

Huang (2003) notes that the joint programs and courses are often provided in cooperation with universities which locate in English speaking countries. It might be assumed that the joint programs often promote themselves as copying the teaching styles from the partner university that is using EMI, using English teaching plans and English textbooks. These joint programs in Chinese universities are seen as “a means for enhancing academic quality and standards, and a mechanism for facilitating the internationalisation of Chinese higher education” (Huang, 2003:194). Thus, some Chinese universities are trying to establish links with universities around the world. A series of policies which highlighted education internationalisation have been enacted in China (see Zhou, 2014). In this section, I mainly discuss the recent policy which has been issued by the MoE, namely *Outline of China’s National Plan for Medium and Long-term Education Reform and Development (2010-2020)*. This new policy has become the latest to reflect the government’s attitudes towards internationalisation in Chinese HE. According to this plan, the government sets the target of encouraging international students to study in China. In 2011, there were 290,000 international students studying in Chinese universities (MoE). However, the government has realized that the majority of these international students were studying Mandarin and not studying for degree courses. Therefore, the government

set the goal of attracting more than 500,000 international students to study degree-level courses in China by 2020 (Luan & Ma, 2011; Ding, 2010; Wang, 2011). This indicates that the government has realized that using Chinese as a medium of instruction has hindered international students recruitment. Therefore, increasing the number of EMI courses has been highlighted in this plan. The plan has also showed government willingness to catch up with the best universities worldwide and encourage Chinese universities to set their goal of building world-class universities to compete with others. Internationalisation may help those universities to “improve their global standing” (Chen et al., 2014).

Recently, research has been conducted to study the internationalisation in Chinese HE from different perspectives (e.g. Chen et al., 2014; Lai, 2013; Zhou, 2014). Chen et al. (2014) examines the indicators of internationalisation from 71 Chinese universities. With regard to the degree of internationalisation, there seems to be prominent differences between the leading universities and other universities. Zhou (2013) reviews the policy documents which have stipulated the goal of internationalising the Chinese universities. Lai (2013) critically examines the indicators which reflect the level of internationalisation. Lai believes internationalization is not a matter of counting the number of international students and staff. What Lai believes important is that the universities offer quality education to international students.

Among the previous research in China, most scholars have associated EMI with internationalisation. Lai (2013) is the only Chinese scholar who made the attempt to consider the implication of internationalisation in relation to English language. Lai suggests that students who are studying in an international university should understand different Englishes. With regard to staff recruitment, Lai believes a genuinely international university would recruit staff from both native and non-native English speaking countries. However, Lai’s (2013) study has not thoroughly discussed the implications of internationalisation in relation to English language in China. There seems to be no discussion on what internationalization means for Chinese students and teachers, though an increasing number of the NNESs are using English. It is likely that EMI will continue to become an important element

indicating the levels of internationalization. The following part will review related literature on EMI in Chinese HE in order to contextualise the current study.

3.5.1 EMI in Chinese higher education

The influences of globalisation and China's entry into the World Trade Organization (WTO) in 2001 had a significant impact on China's HE. After China's joining of the WTO, there seems to have been a greater demand for graduates who could speak English well and also have sufficient knowledge to do business with foreign countries. Therefore, the policy of implementing EMI in Chinese universities has been enacted top-down by the MoE in 2001 with the aims of improving students' English competence and content knowledge (see 4.3). Since 2001, there has been an expansion of EMI in some Chinese universities. Recently, EMI has been considered to be a useful way of helping Chinese universities to participate in the global HE market (Meng, 2011; Peng, 2007; Zhang and Chen, 2005).

The number of international students studying in Chinese institutions has increased dramatically. According to the latest figures provided by the China Scholarship Council (CSC), approximately 292,611 international students have been studying in 660 Chinese universities in 2011. The top ten countries which those international students come from are: Korea, United States, Japan, Thailand, Vietnam, Russia, Indonesia, India, Pakistan and Kazakhstan (from CSC website). Chen et al. (2014) examines the indicators of internationalization from 71 Chinese universities. Based on their data, the proportion of international students in these 71 universities is 3.7% and 9.3 % of the courses are taught in English in those institutions. This suggests that the majority of these international students are from non-native English speaking countries and the number of students is much smaller than the international students in Anglophone or European countries.

EMI in Chinese universities has two forms: teaching content courses entirely in English and teaching content subjects partially in English (Cai, 2010; Yu, 2008). The first type of instruction is characterized by an exclusive use of English in the classroom. Yu & Yuan (2005) argue that the ideal model of EMI in China should use English language as the medium of instruction and Chinese should not be used. Cai

notes that the first type of EMI helps university to attract international students. However, it is not clear how much English the subject teachers use in their teaching practices and to what extent they conform to native English norms.

Turning to the second type of EMI, it refers to teachers adopting both Chinese and English with Chinese being used for the explanation of complex content. Generally speaking, the EMI policies usually prescribe the proportion of code-switching required in Chinese HE and it is the teacher's responsibility to follow the required amount. Peng (2007) observes that many universities adopt the second approach because of low English proficiency of both students and teachers. Some scholars question the need to implement EMI partially in English (e.g. Cai, 2010). Similarly, Peng (2007: 50) criticises the large amount of Chinese used in EMI and argues that "teachers should mainly use English to teach the subject, and Chinese should be used as a supplement". In addition, another form of the partial use of EMI refers to the teachers adopting Chinese to teach the subject, but the text books and power point slides are written in English.

There is another alternative term to describe EMI in China. This is 'bilingual instruction'². Here, bilingual instruction does not refer to the bilingual education to Chinese ethnic minority students. As Feng (2005: 529) describes bilingual instruction as "a modern-day phenomenon in which the majority Han group aspires to produce bilinguals with a strong competence in mother tongue Chinese and a foreign language, primarily English". Thus this clearly indicates the term bilingual instruction refers to the adoption of both a foreign language and Chinese to teach content courses. Taking into account the literature review as well as the global common way to describe this phenomenon, the term EMI will be used in this thesis. It is important to note that EMI is still a new education approach. A lot of concerns have been expressed to EMI in the literature in China. The following section will review some of the key studies.

3.5.2 The previous studies on EMI instruction in China

² The term 'Bilingual instruction' is often used in Chinese universities

Since EMI was implemented after 2001, an increasing number of Chinese researchers have studied this new phenomenon (e.g. Cai, 2010; Hu et al., 2014; Pu & Jue, 2008; Zhao, 2012; Wang & liu, 2010; Xu, 2008). However, there seems to be a disagreement towards teaching objectives of EMI. Scholars showed different perceptions towards the aims of EMI in China. Some scholars point out that the aim of EMI in China is to improve students' English (e.g. Peng, 2007; Yu & Yuan, 2005). Some believe that EMI should focus more on the content rather than the English language (e.g. Cai, 2010). Others have considered EMI as a useful way to improve students' content knowledge and English proficiency (e.g. Xu, 2008). Such disagreement appears to have negative impact on teaching practices, as teachers might feel confused about what their major responsibility is. A teacher seems to adopt the role of the content instructor as well as language teacher.

The general findings from previous research tend to report and discuss the various challenges when implementing the EMI in China (e.g. Zhao, 2012; Wang & liu, 2010; Xu, 2008), but there seems to be very few studies about EMI from the linguistic perspectives (e.g. Hu et al., 2014). EMI in China is still in the early stage of development. Thus, it is reasonable to expect to learn of the worries and concerns that have been found by the researchers. The most cited concerns relate to teachers' and students' English language skills. With regard to subject teachers' English, some researchers have expressed concerns about their English language skills as they are using their first language (e.g. Hu & Alsagoff, 2010; Xu, 2008; Yu, 2008). For example, Hu & Alsagoff (2010: 372) note that: "there is a severe shortage of teachers who are capable of English medium instruction". Similarly, Yu (2008) finds that there is not enough competent teachers who can use English fluently, so many EMI courses are taught mainly in Chinese. They seem to argue that the amount of English used by the teachers depends on their language skills. In addition, these teachers also question the students' English language skills and point out that students may not understand the courses taught entirely in English. Some scholars suggest that CET scores can be used as a criterion to assess if students' have sufficient English skills to benefit from EMI (e.g. Cai, 2010; Han & Yu, 2007).

Due to the concerns regarding both students' and teachers' English, scholars have also questioned the effectiveness of EMI and argue that the teacher's low proficiency

may lead to inefficient teaching and affect student's academic achievement (Xu, 2008; Pu & Jue, 2008). Pu & Jue (2008) examined the EMI courses at Ji Nan and they questioned whether EMI offers the same teaching effect as the courses taught in Chinese. Their finding indicates that the EMI places negative effects on the discipline of learning.

As discussed in 2.4, code-switching is one of the strategies which is adopted by ELF speakers. Though some scholars believe EMI means English-only, code-switching is very common, especially where no or few international students are present in the EMI classrooms (Peng, 2007; Hu et al., 2014). The advantage of employing Chinese in EMI has been discussed in the literature (e.g. Cai, 2010; Pu & Jue, 2008; Zhao, 2012; Xu, 2008). Helping the local students to understand the content has been highlighted in Chinese HE. By contrast, there have been some discussions about the functions of code-switching in EMI in other countries (e.g. Flowerdew et al., 2000, 1998; Tian, 2013). The functions of code-switching in EMI classrooms have been identified in those studies, such as explaining the difficult points, elaborating the background knowledge, emphasizing the key points, managing the students' behaviour and finishing the teaching tasks as expected. Those previous studies have indicated that subject teachers believe the use of code-switching in EMI is useful to teaching and learning.

Allowing teachers to use a certain amount of Chinese may indicate that policy makers are realising the importance of using Chinese to facilitate subject learning and responding to the local teaching contexts. However, although EMI policies have acknowledged the value of code-switching in EMI, code-switching is still regarded as inappropriate, especially if the teachers switch from English to Chinese quite frequently and used very little English (Hu et al., 2014; Xu, 2008). As Tian (2013: 43) pointed out "it is an underlying perception that the more teachers use the Chinese language, the less competent and qualified they are as English teachers at university level". Similarly, Yu and Yuan (2005) argue that the amount of English use by teachers depends on the teachers' and students' language competence. In many occasions, students require teachers to switch to the Chinese (Xu, 2008). This seems to suggest that code-switching is often associated with teachers' and students' incompetence in using the target language in EMI settings as well, especially, they

said some teachers' code-switching is randomly used rather than adopted systematically. This could reinforce the fact that code-switching are likewise prevalent in EMI settings. In terms of language use of EMI, the EMI policy often prescribes the amount of the English and Chinese used in EMI. In some universities, the policy has prescribed an 'English only' policy. The previous literature has identified the mismatch between those language requirements and what the teachers actually used in the courses (more discussion see chapter 4). This reflects the complexity of the policy and implementation.

Though the previous literature indicates that some teachers think that code-switching is a useful strategy to use in practice, there seems to be no discussion concerning the use of code-switching in the classroom when both Chinese and international students are mixed together. In language classrooms, code-switching is often considered as inevitable. As Cook (1996: 86) notes "perhaps code switching is inevitable in the classroom of the teachers and students who share the same language and should be regarded as natural". This raises the question that in EMI courses in China, Chinese students are the majority of the students. It might be possible that international students could not understand the Chinese. Whether code-switching should be used in such contexts is a question which still needs to be studied and discussed, especially as international students normally have very diverse multilingual backgrounds. Apparently, the overuse of Chinese in EMI courses is perceived as inappropriate in mixed classrooms.

Turning to the training, several studies indicate that teachers receive little or no training/support from the universities. Guo (2007) point out that most EMI teachers lack systematic in-service training in subject content or in English, let alone the pedagogy of EMI. It seems that university policy makers tend to think of the use of English as unproblematic and they never consider how to help the teachers cope with teaching the content in English.

Within the literature of EMI in China, very few studies have critically examined the language policy or explored EMI practitioners' language ideologies. The only study which has been found was Hu et al. (2014)'s study. Hu et al. (2014) conducted a case study to examine the language ideology, language management and language

practices at a Chinese university which offers some EMI programs. Based on EMI policy analysis and interviews with professors and students, their study provided a general picture about how EMI policy is carried out in practice. The findings also reveal distinct gaps between policy and practice. As Hu et al. (2014: 36) argue “there appeared to be an unbridged gap between the envisioned disciplinary and language learning goals of EMI and the reported language practices in the EMI classroom”. Their participants express positive evaluation for EMI and the researchers note that EMI has improved both the competitiveness of students’ and the universities’. Turning to the discussion on EMI and language management, they find that EMI has broadened inequalities, because only a small number of students could access EMI programs. As Hu et al. (2014: 36) argue such a divide has accelerated inequalities in Chinese societies. In addition, participants in their study identify the various strategies which they adopt to cope with language difficulties. For example, teacher participants admit that they try to simplify the content. Some also report that they try to minimize the classroom language and rely heavily on the textbooks or their power point slides. Participants also report that they use some Chinese by code-switch to help students understand. Student participants in their study also reported of various strategies which have helped them to cope with EMI. Students report they ask teachers to use Chinese to explain the difficult parts. Some said they use Chinese reference books or aid their understanding. Some reveal that they spend more time reviewing the lesson before the class.

Hu et al. (2014) has critically examined the EMI language policies and practices. Their research explores EMI from social-cultural perspectives and reveals inequalities. They try to highlight the notion of inequalities in EMI in Chinese universities and argue that only a small number of the students could have access to EMI. However, their study seems to focus only on the EMI programs for Chinese students. They have not looked at classrooms where there are both Chinese and international students. Thus, their results have not considered English use among ELF users, nor have they explored EMI policy and practice in relation to English use in academic settings around the world.

In summary, the previous studies still take normative views to measure the language competence of teachers and students. Teachers’ English is often seen as problematic.

A few researchers seem to have the awareness of English used as the global language. However, no previous EMI studies in China have made an attempt to question why Chinese English users need to always follow a NES model and the policy makers seem to ignore the fact that it is very necessary to establish diversified models, because of the increasing number of international students, with very diverse cultural background, studying in Chinese universities. There seems to be little argument about what types of English should be used in the EMI literatures, and no awareness about ELF. In addition, some EMI literature in China seem to be conceptual pieces which are not based on an empirical study. There have been very few studies which investigate what has actually happened in EMI classrooms or explore how content teachers in Chinese universities orient themselves to EMI policies. Thus, it is necessary to investigate how content teachers perceive the use of English in EMI.

3.6 Summary and conclusion

In this chapter, firstly I discussed the globalisation and internationalisation in relation to English language in HE contexts. Secondly, I argued that the current approach to English in HE remains uncritically based on native English norms, which seldom take account of the diversified student population in international HE. Thirdly, I reviewed studies on EMI conducted in Europe, East Asia and China in order to understand the current teaching practices and discuss findings and issues from these studies.

Chapter 4: Academic English Language Policies and Practices

4.1 Introduction

English is now regarded as the world's most widely taught and used language in most non-English speaking countries. So English Language policy is of great importance to ELT around the world. This chapter will begin by briefly reviewing the key terminology of language policy. Because of the aims of this research, Spolsky's (2004) language policy framework will be adopted to understand the English language policy in China. I will also discuss how Ball's (1993) and Shohamy's (2006) policy frameworks interrelate with Spolsky's (2004) framework. Standard language ideology will be discussed. After this, de facto practices, such as EMI policy documents, College English teaching curriculum and English language tests will be discussed in order to explore the de facto practices which influence how English is used and perceived in EMI. This chapter also reviews the previous research on English language policies in Chinese HE.

4.2 A terminological and conceptual basis for language policy

4.2.1 Key terms and concepts in Language policy

Researchers have frequently discussed the term 'language planning' and 'language policy' (e.g. Cooper, 1989; Deumert, 2000; Kaplan and Baldauf, 1997; Schiffman, 1996; Shohamy, 2006). However, scholars often fail to come up with a comprehensive definition of language policy or language planning. There exists a lack of agreement on the exact nature of the relationship (Ricento, 2000; Johnson, 2009; Tollefson, 1991). For instance, Ball (1993: 10) points out that "more often than not analysts fail to define conceptually what they mean by policy". Ricento (2006:10) argues that "there is no overarching theory of language policy and planning, in large part because of the complexity of the issues which involve language in society". Similarly, Ferguson (2006:16) argues that it may be sensible not to overplay the differences of planning and policy, but regard them "as so closely related that they can profitably be brought together for purposes of exposition and

analysis”. Thus, the terms ‘language policy’ and ‘language planning’ are sometimes used interchangeably in the research literature.

In fact, scholars adopt different approaches to studying language policy because there is no consensus about the theory and nature of language policy (e.g. Johnson, 2009; Spolsky, 2004; Tollefson, 1991). Tollefson (1991) draws on the historical-structure approach to study language policy. His approach tries to combine the issues of social class and social power to examine language policy. Johnson (2009) adapts the ethnographic approach to studying language policy. He argues that the traditional approach to language policy often ignores the bottom-up language practices while the ethnographic approach highlights the notion that language policies are negotiated by different practitioners.

In line with my research purposes, Spolsky’s (2004; 2009) language policy framework will be adopted in this study. Spolsky sees language policy as being made up of three interrelated components: language beliefs, language practices and language management. There are two reasons to choose Spolsky’s framework. Firstly, Spolsky’s model allows for an “expanded view of language policy” (Shohamy, 2006: 57). In his framework, language policy is not seen as an overt document which is implemented by a government or top level officials. What is important is that language policy should also reflect the society’s covert or hidden language ideology. Secondly, this framework also highlights the view that the language use in various domains actually represents the language policy. The “linguistic behaviour of the individual or group” could reflect language policy (Spolsky, 2004: 217). Language policy can be seen as the practice that people use in daily life.

In my study, HE in China is the domain where EMI is influenced by overt and covert language education policies. One of the objectives of my study is to explore how subject teachers implement EMI policies in practice and how they think of these policies. The three components outlined by Spolsky help me to fulfil my research objectives. In the following section, I will explain Spolsky’s framework in detail and explain how the other two frameworks (e.g. Shohamy, 2006; Ball, 1993) interrelate

with each other. Standard language ideology, language policy and implementation will also be further discussed in this chapter.

4.2.2 Spolsky's language policy framework

According to Spolsky's (2004) framework, the first important component of language policy is language beliefs, also known as an ideology. This refers to ideologies of the community about certain types of language. Spolsky (2004: 14) defines language ideology as "language policy with the manager left out, that is, what people think should be done". Ricento (2006:9) notes language ideologies "have real effect on language policies and practices, and delimit to a large extent what is and what is not possible in the realm of language planning". The two definitions of language ideology suggest that when people speak a certain language, they are not just using the language itself, but they are also aware of the possible ideas or meanings behind that language. With regard to the English language, Standard English ideology is very likely to influence peoples' perceptions towards English. In other words, standard English ideology could explain why NESs' English has been seen as "correct" and "good". So it could result in a solidified belief. The standard language ideology will be further discussed in 4.3.

The second component in Spolsky's framework is language management. Spolsky prefers the term language management to language planning as he believes language planning contains a wider perspective than language management. Spolsky (2012:5) uses 'management' to describe the "efforts by some members of a speech community who have or believe they have authority over other members to modify their language practice, such as by forcing or encouraging them to use a different variety or even different variants". The term 'language planning' has been widely adopted in the literature. Generally speaking, language planning usually consists of four types of activities: status planning, corpus planning, acquisition planning and prestige planning (Kaplan and Baldauf, 1997). In this section, I will discuss the first three activities. Status planning refers to "those decisions a society must make about language selection and the implementation to choose and disseminate the language or language selected" (Kaplan and Baldauf, 1997: 29). In the same manner, Haugen (1966) suggested a framework to describe the language planning process. According

to Haugen, language planning typically consists of four stages: norm selection; codification; implementation and elaboration. Haugen described the first process as 'norm selection', which is about the choice of a language or variety of languages. Haugen's first stage bears a similarity to status planning. Corpus planning consists of "the internal linguistic goals that need to be set to codify, standardise, modify or elaborate a language(s) so that the language is capable of developing and sustaining the language environment" (Kaplan & Baldauf, 2003: 209). The activities perceived as the corpus planning are: expanding the vocabularies, developing the standard grammar books to standardize literacy. Corpus planning is similar to Haugen's codification process. The third component of language planning is acquisition planning (also called Language-in-Education Planning). Acquisition planning is concerned with how language can be learnt and acquired (Kaplan and Baldauf). Kaplan and Baldauf, (2003:209) point out that "the primary language-in-education policy goals are to set criteria for those processes in the educational system that determine what languages will be taught to whom, in what manner, using what material, as well as how success will be assessed". Spolsky and Shohamy (2000) argue that the decision on acquisition planning is influenced by political, cultural and other factors. In China, the MoE formulate the EMI policy to stipulate that academic subjects should be taught in English. The top-down education policy which requires the university to implement EMI is an example of Acquisition planning. In summary, the above three types of language planning are classified as language management. These activities are normally co-occurring and interrelated.

Language management models are very crucial in helping us to understand how policy is enacted. But the models seem to emphasise the policy makers' or people who have power to make decision on the language and the models seem to ignore the language users (Kaplan and Balduf, 2003). In daily life, people's language use is very different from the language planning models. On the one hand, people have their own opinion towards the language they use. On the other hand, their ideas towards a certain language are also influenced by the language practices.

Language practices refer to the actual language behaviour of people in different domains. They are "the observable behaviours and choices" (Spolsky, 2009:4). Moreover, Spolsky stresses language practice as "the 'real' policy although

participants may be reluctant to admit it". Researchers have identified a mismatch between language policy and language practices (e.g., Romaine, 2002; Schiffman, 1996; Shohamy, 2006; Wright, 2004). Language practices are often at odds with language policy. Schiffman (1996) notes that "there is usually a difference between the policy as stated (the official, de jure, or overt policy) and the policy as it actually works at the practical level (the covert, de facto or grass-roots policy)". Spolsky (2004:223) points out "there are comparatively few cases where language management has produced its intended results'. His words suggest that it is common to see that policies are enacted but they are rarely fully implemented.

In the classroom settings, some empirical studies have showed the mismatch between teachers' actual implementation and the policy documents (Wang, 2008; Martain, 2005; Smit, 2005; Spillane et al., 2002). It has been found that teachers sometimes did not follow the top-down policy and the planned policy failed to achieve the intended goals. Some researchers are trying to explain the reasons for the mismatch. Smit (2005) points out the policy makers often ignore the "local knowledge". In other words, teachers' voices are ignored by the policy makers. Thus, teachers do not feel the top-down policy is related to their local contexts. Spillane et al. (2002) studied the policy implementation from a cognitive dimension. Various possible reasons have been discussed to explain why implementation is always different from the policy documents. Their findings show that policy documents are sometimes very ambiguous. The teachers' ideologies and their prior experiences would also influence the implementations. In addition, they point out that teachers may have different interpretations towards the same policy because of their lack of ability. Peoples' language practices are influenced by their ideologies, but the actual use of language or others' language practice could also influence their ideologies.

Thus, in order to know the real language policy, it is not enough to look at the declared policies only, and it is crucial to study the language practices. The official language policy which has been formulated by the top-down approach cannot guarantee the implementation, because the language users often have their own ideas about the overt policy, and they are not likely to implement the policy as entirely as the policy planners intended. In order to explore how content teachers actually carry out the language policy in Chinese universities, it is extremely useful to obtain the

data from EMI classrooms. Therefore, for the purpose of this study, Spolsky's conceptualisation of the language policy fits to the aim of my study and provides a useful way to understand the complex relationships between the three components. In the following section, I will also discuss Shohamy's (2006) and Ball's (1993) language policy frameworks to further conceptualize language policy theory.

4.2.3 Ball's (1993) and Shohamy's (2006) language policy framework

Based on Spolsky's framework, Shohamy (2006) put forward the expanded view of language policy. Shohamy (2006:48) observes that language policy exists at all levels of decision making about languages ranging from the individual to the global context. She (2006:45) defines language policy as "the primary mechanism for organising, managing and manipulating language behaviours as it consists of decisions made about languages and their uses in society". Shohamy (2006, 53) explains mechanisms as "overt and covert devices that are used as the means for affecting, creating, and perpetuating de facto language policies". She refers to the overt policies as those stated policy documents and regulations. She defines the covert policy which is implicit and de facto. In the same line of Spolsky's framework, Shohamy emphasises, in order to understand the real language policy that it is important to study the mechanisms hidden behind in the stated policy documents. As Shohamy (2006: 53) observes:

it is often the case that formal language documents become no more than declarations of intent that can easily be manipulated and contradicted. Yet, it is essential that these mechanisms, or policy devices, given their direct effect and consequences on de facto language policies and practices, must be included in the general picture for understanding and interpreting LP.

The six mechanisms she listed are: rules and regulations, language education, language tests, language in public space, and ideology, myths, and propaganda coercion" (P58). Those mechanisms will influence language use in practice. Shohamy's framework actually has broadened the scope of the language policy, it provide us with a new angle to study the different mechanisms. Those bottom-up language practices are often ignored by scholars who take a traditional approach (e.g. Shen, 2013). Based on Shohamy's language policy theory, I can examine the

different de facto practices. In Chinese higher education, EMI policy documents have not been stated explicitly in regard to the language requirements for EMI. I will further discuss this point in section 4.4. Shohamy's expanded views on language policy, EMI regulations, English language education and English tests can be considered as the de facto practice which influences how the language is taught and used in the EMI. Due to my research focus, EMI rules and regulations, English language education and English language tests will be further discussed in this chapter.

Ball (1993:10) also provides an important framework for the study of language policy. He argues that there are two ways to conceptualise policy. The first way is to see language policy as text and the second way as discourse. Language policy as text, means to study the declared top-down policies which have been enacted by the policy makers. Shohamy (2006) describes it as overt or implicit policy. This is quite a traditional way to understand the language policies. It sees policy as a fixed statement, or what should be done. In this way, Spolsky's language management can be linked with Ball's policy as text.

Similarly, Jenkins (2014) and Bonacina-Pugh (2012) have examined the language policy and both of them have linked policy as text to Spolsky's language management. For example, Bonacina-Pugh (2012) finds this conceptualisation of language policy was often used "in the traditional approach to language policy research when scholars were primarily concerned with language planning issues arising in post-colonial countries". That is, language policy is perceived as the declared regulations enacted by the top-level. People's language practices and ideologies have been ignored.

The notion of 'discourse' includes language, speech, beliefs and ideologies. As Ball (1993:14) points out "discourses are about what can be said, and thought, but also about who can speak, when, where and with what authority". Ball's second notion, perceiving language policy as discourse, can be related to Spolsky's language ideologies. Conceptualising policy as discourse shows how ideologies influence people's language behaviour and language policy. People's language ideologies towards certain languages usually have an influence on their practices.

In summary, the above section has reviewed key concepts and policy frameworks which are related to my study. Spolsky's language policy framework, Shohamy's expanded language policy and Ball's conceptualisations to policy are all interrelated. They all provide the theoretical foundation for me to study English language policy and practice in Chinese contexts. These frameworks show that language policy studies should study both the top-down policy and bottom-up language practices. Ideologies about language normally have crucial effects on language policies and practices (Ricento, 2006). Different 'mechanisms' could be further explored to understand the de facto language practices.

The above paragraphs have reviewed key concepts and policy frameworks which are related to my study. In the next section, standard language ideology will be discussed. The reason why I include a discussion of standard language ideology is because I am interested in exploring to what extent standard English ideology influences English language policy, content teachers' beliefs and practices, and how the standard language ideology permeates the discourse of EMI policy.

4.2.4 Standard language ideology

As discussed above, it is believed that language ideologies are reflected in language policy and practices. Standard language ideology could explain why a particular language has been considered as being more appropriate, good and superior than other languages. Lippi-Green (1997: 64) defines the 'standard language ideology' from the political perspective:

[...] a bias towards an abstract, idealized homogenous spoken language, which is imposed and maintained by dominant bloc institutions and which has as its model the written language, but which is drawn primarily from the spoken language of the upper middle class.

Two key features emerge from Lippi-Green's conceptualisation of standard language ideology: first, standard language ideology is held by the dominant group of people or higher institutions. This seems to indicate that 'standard English ideology' does not represent that of the majority of people or reflect their linguistics uses. The speech of the minority cannot represent all the other speakers. As Woolard (2005:6) observes standard English is used by a minority group and it is not "really

everybody's language". Second, standard language ideology is considered to be an idealized perceptions. Lippi-Green describes it as an idealized form of language rather than language practice. This may indicate that it is impossible for most people to achieve it.

Milroy (1999: 167, 174) highlights the nature of standard language ideology as "historically deep-rooted and thoroughly naturalized". In addition, the conventional belief of standard language ideology is also linked to the monolingual view of language. As Milroy points out "there is one and only one correct spoken form of language, modelled on a single correct written form". This seems to suggest that such ideology does not tolerate any divergence from the prescribed standard. Without taking the broad situation into account, any divergence from 'standard' has been conceived inappropriate.

Another useful way to conceptualize the language ideology is Woolard's notion of 'authenticity' and 'anonymity'. Woolard (2005) states "the ideology of authenticity locates the value of a language in its relationship to a particular community. That which is authentic is viewed as the genuine expression of such a community..." (P.2-3). It is important that "one must sound like that kind of person who is valued as natural and authentic, must capture the tones and the nuances". According to the Woolard's notion of 'authenticity', English language is perceived as a property which belongs to NESs. Their English use is seen as a special marker which distinguishes themselves from others. In addition, Woolard also explains the ideology of anonymity when he says "hegemonic languages in modern society often rests their authority on a conception of anonymity" (P.3). This kind of conceptualisation often considers dominant ideologies to be neutral. As Woolard (2005: 4) points out "...the tenets of dominant ideologies in the modern public sphere appear not to belong to any identifiable individuals but rather seem to be socially neutral, universally available, natural and objective truths". The notion of anonymity is related to the dominant language development in which individual speakers "are supposed to sound like an Everyman" (p.5). People are expected to use one type of language without any questioning. These two ideologies have caused debate about English language use. When English language is associated with the notion of 'anonymity', people consider English as the property of all people and it

seems that they do not want to tie it with the particular nation, such as English as global English, English as an international language. However, once English language draws on the notion of authenticity, the English language ownership has been stressed. NESs' English is connected with 'standard'. However, the reality is that the majority of people do not speak standard English and there are controversies towards the notion of what the standard English language is. However, such opposing ideologies of the language might influence NNESs' beliefs towards English use. The ideology of authenticity and anonymity denies the NNESs English use in the globalised world and seems to be deeply ingrained in their mind. On the one hand, almost everyone believes that English has become the international language, on the other hand, NNESs always have to conform to idealised native English. The opposing ideologies of language are still influencing on NNESs' English use. As Jenkins (2014: 78) argues "the ideologies of authenticity and anonymity, despite their apparently opposite orientations, come together in a way that has a doubly pernicious effect on non-native English users".

Standard English ideology can be one of the factors which influence people's orientations to English language use and practices. Some previous studies have indicated the direct links between people's orientations and Standard English ideology (e.g. Jenkins, 2007; Pan, 2011; Pilkinton-Pihko, 2010). They argue that standard English ideology leads to British or North America English only. For example, Pan (2011) adopts a critical approach to investigate the Chinese people's ideologies in foreign language education policies in China. Pan indicates that foreign education policies in China are a product of the state ideology. With regard to standard English, the policy documents display a preference to English spoken in English speaking countries.

Many ELF empirical researches (see 2.4 and 2.5) indicate that NNESs use non-native English forms to fulfil their communication purposes. As such, non-native English speakers' English seems to be more relevant for ELF users. Ammon (2007) argues that adhering to standard native English forms over non-native English is unfair, since the native English does not guarantee the intelligibility. As discussed in 2.4, empirical studies find that it is the NNESs who often adjust their language and accommodate the language to their interlocutor (Sweeney and Zhu, 2010).

The notion of standard English ideology is very closely related to the actual practice of ELT, thus it might shape the teachers' belief. Tollefson (2007: 29) points out that "in most ELT textbooks and teachers' guides, the target of standard English is depicted as fixed, consistent and clear". Nearly all the ELT materials and English tests are based on standard native English, to which Non-native English teachers are often exposed. They take it for granted that they are teaching the standard native English. Due to their prior English learning experience at schools, the teachers might feel that the traditional approach to ELT could work better with their students. Thus, one prominent consequence is that both teacher and students may believe that their English should conform to 'standard native English'. Any divergence from the native English speakers is seen as a bad habit or unacceptable one.

In addition, the influences of standard language ideology exist all over the world. It is important to point out that the idea of standard language ideology not only occurs in English, but also in Chinese as well. Widdowson (2011) believes that people's orientations towards their first language influences their orientation towards the second language. There are 56 ethnic groups in China and linguistic diversity exists in China. Mandarin often refers to the language spoken by Han Chinese³. The written form of mandarin is similar, but the oral form varies from different areas. Based on the law of standard spoken and written Chinese language, Putonghua is seen as the standard spoken Chinese, which is described as a common speech with pronunciation based on the Beijing dialect. The status of the standard Mandarin (Putonghua) has been clearly promoted through the Chinese government's Law. This suggests that Putonghua has a very high status in China. The government assumes that Putonghua could facilitate the "removal of dialect barriers" in communication (Wang and Yuan, 2013:27). Putonghua and local dialects have unequal status. As Dong (2009: 119) points out "...Putonghua is assumed to be the medium of Chinese cultural which is seen as a homogenous whole...". People often associated those who speak mandarin with accent as having lower social status. Due to the fact that Putonghua is promoted by the national law of China, few scholars made an attempt to question the status and role of Putonghua, let alone to criticize the ideology of the standard Mandarin. Therefore, Peoples' ideologies to their first language are very

³The Han Chinese are the majority in each province in China.

likely to be influenced by their second language. Standard Mandarin ideology may influence the way that English should be learnt and taught in China.

Standard English ideology might pose an influence on people's orientations towards English. But, Pilkinton-Pihko (2010: 60) finds that her participants, who are teaching content courses in English, admitted that they adhere less strictly to standard native English, because most of them believe that communication is more important than using correct linguistic forms. With regard to my study, I'm interested in finding out if this is the case with EMI in Chinese HE, and in finding out how teachers are required to use English and how they actually use English in their classes.

Building on Shohamy's (2006) framework, policy makers use different mechanisms (e.g. rules and regulations, language educational policies, language texts, and language in the public space) to put language ideology and language policy into practice. Therefore, In order to understand the de facto practices in EMI in China, the following three core mechanisms in relation to Chinese contexts will be explored: EMI policy documents, College English teaching curriculum and English language tests. The next section will start with the EMI regulations and policy documents.

4.3 EMI policy in Chinese HE

4.3.1 National EMI regulations and policy documents

In order to understand how EMI has been described in the policy document, the following section introduces the development of the top-down EMI policy in Chinese universities. In 2001, the MoE issued the document '*Suggestions on Strengthening Higher Education and Improving Teaching Quality*'. This was the first official policy which addressed the requirement for using a foreign language to teach subjects, for university students. It is English the most widely taught foreign language that is used as the medium of instruction. As Tsui and Tollefson (2007) point out the promotion of other foreign languages might be largely symbolic or "lip service". English is the de facto foreign language used in China.

Actually, prior to the MoE's 2001 policy, there were Sino-foreign joint programmes in some universities⁴. These programmes are often taught in English. The 2001 policy document has expanded the EMI courses and programmes in more Chinese universities. It requires some leading universities⁵ to teach the selected subjects in English, such as bio-technology, information science, international trade and law. The policy also stipulated that 5%-10% of all undergraduate teaching should be conducted in English within three years. Due to the uneven development of the Chinese universities, the policy did not require all the universities to implement EMI immediately and it stipulated that universities which cannot do so could use materials in the foreign language initially and teach in Chinese before the resources became available (MoE, 2001). However, this document has been criticised for lacking detailed guidance on how teachers should implement EMI in practice (Peng, 2007; Yu and Yuan, 2005). The ambiguity of the documents has led to different teaching practices which vary from university to university.

Since 2004, the number of EMI courses has been taken into account in the Assessment of Universities Scheme, which has led to the rapid growth of EMI courses in Chinese universities (Hu and McKay, 2012; Peng, 2007). In order to get a better assessment result, the number of EMI courses is listed as one of the evaluation criteria. The Scheme has three rules to ensure the implementation of the EMI: First, English textbooks must be used in EMI programmes. Second, subject teachers are required to use more than 50% of English for instruction. Third, the EMI courses should at least account for 10% of all the courses. Based on the three rules, each university is required to enact their own EMI policies applying to their university situation.

In 2005, the MoE issued a guideline '*Opinions of Further Strengthening Undergraduate Education*'. It further emphasized the aim of improving the quality of EMI in HE and set the goal of increasing the numbers of EMI courses. However, once more the government document seemed very general. No concrete pedagogical

⁴Chinese universities cooperate with foreign universities and students could obtain the joint degree if they graduated

⁵ The term 'leading universities' refer to those Chinese universities which are under the control of the Ministry of Education. Some Chinese universities are administered by provincial governments.

suggestions were outlined. Though EMI was initiated in 2001, much of the existing EMI policy has still focused on the introduction of the rationale of implementing EMI and how EMI will bring benefit to the students, teachers and the nation. There is no reference to what kind of English is appropriate for EMI courses in China. So far, there has not been any overt official policy to prescribe the concrete goals and practices from the national level. Therefore, many Chinese scholars believe that EMI in China lacks rules and regulations (Meng, 2011; Zhao, 2012; Yu & Yuan, 2005). Apart from the ambiguity of the policy, there are many other factors, such as poorly trained teachers, students' English competence, and limited teaching resources that may restrict the implementation of the EMI. Given the fact that EMI has not been widely promoted since 2005, EMI policy documents at university level might reflect the latest situation and offer more concrete approaches. Therefore, the following section will look at the EMI regulations in a Chinese university.

4.3.2 University EMI Policy

It is officially required that each university has to enact their policy based on the central policy from the MoE. So following the 2004 Assessment Scheme, most universities gradually formulated EMI policy to ensure good teaching quality. Guangdong University of Foreign Studies (henceforth GDUFS), one of the key universities, issued its EMI regulations in 2009 (see appendix 13. P. 295), based on the experimental regulation of 2003, and its implementation of the EMI courses is regarded as a representative model. Therefore, the EMI regulation of GDUFS is selected in this study as an example to see how EMI is supposed to be implemented locally. Thus, in this section, EMI regulation from the GDUFS will be discussed. The implementation of EMI courses in GDUFS is closely related to the university internationalisation development strategies. It appears that educational internationalisation is a reoccurring theme in the policy. EMI has been described by GDUFS as follows:

In order to adapt to the economic globalization and educational internationalization development, we need to teach courses entirely in English/ partially in English. Our university needs to strength our core competency and teaching characterises. (Original in Chinese. Author's translation)

Offering EMI in GDUFs is perceived as the best approach to distinguish itself and increase its competitiveness. It seems that implementing EMI is the strategy by which the university aims to achieve internationalisation. The rationale for the educational internationalisation has not been mentioned in the documents. Although the amount of English used in EMI may greatly affect how to define the course (entirely EMI or partially EMI), the two forms of instructions are used interchangeably in this policy documents. This seems to suggest that the two forms of instructions are very similar, from the policy makers' perspective. However, the unclear division of the two types of instruction might cause difficulties for subject teachers to differentiate the courses. In terms of the amount of English, the policy made no attempt to distinguish the two types of instruction. It presents a rather fuzzy guideline for teachers, for example, it defines EMI as follows:

For those teachers who first start to teach subjects in English, they should use no less than 30% of English as the instruction language. For others who have already taught in EMI, they should use more than 50% of the English as the instruction language (Article 7, No. two. Original in Chinese. Author's translation)

Such simplified guideline may pose difficulties when teacher attempting to implement EMI. It is impossible to accurately measure the exact percentage (e.g. 50%). It also implies that subject teachers are permitted to use both types of EMI (use English entirely or partially). This requirement contradicts the notion of using English entirely to teach the subjects (expressed as *Quan Ying* in Chinese, meaning no Chinese should be used). Subject teachers could have different interpretations to the proportion of English to be used in EMI. In addition, the simple use of percentages prescribed in the policy document assumes that all the students who study the EMI courses need Chinese explanations. As discussed in Chapter three, an increasing number of international students are studying in Chinese universities, and many of them can hardly understand Chinese. A question is raised: when international students and Chinese students are mixed together, which language should teachers use in their classroom? The current EMI policy in GDUFs has not made much adjustment and it just uses the percentage which has been cited in the 2004 National University evaluation scheme. The University EMI policies were formulated without acknowledging the needs of international students.

Turning to the requirements for subject teachers, the policy was supposed to require teachers to follow all the regulations. The following extracts are from the document which refers to teaching:

Course preparation: ... Teachers are required to write the teaching plans, course instruction, teaching syllabus and teaching process sheets in English. (Article 7, No. one. Original in Chinese. Author's translation)

Homework and assessment: students are required to use English to do the homework and exams. (Article 7, No. four. Original in Chinese. Author's translation)

EMI courses: EMI (use English partly or entirely) teachers are required to use standard and understandable English to teach the content, except explaining the basic concepts, definitions and key words. (Article 7, No. two. Original in Chinese. Author's translation)

Despite the fact that teachers are allowed to use Chinese in their instructions, all the teaching materials and teaching plans are required to be in English. This seems to give teachers the impression that English should be the instruction language, as teachers need to refer to their teaching plans or power point slides while teaching. However, teachers are still allowed to explain key concepts in Chinese. Permitting teachers to use their first language might help the Chinese students understand the content, but it may bring difficulties for international students who are supposed to attend EMI only.

The regulation also set the requirements for subject teachers' English language. It prescribes that "teachers use standard and understandable English to teach the content". This requirement is rather vague for the teachers to understand. First, the documents provide no additional reference describing what kind of English is standard. Second, the word 'understandable' is confusing and ambiguous, since there are many factors which influence the speaker's English. One speaker's English might be easy to understand for a particular group of people but it may be difficult for others to understand. To what extent teachers' language needs to be understandable is not mentioned in detail. Although the requirement does not offer any concrete explanations, teachers' English has always been criticized as neither standard nor good (e.g. Xu, 2008; Pu & Jue, 2008). Thus, teachers are always expected to take part in short English training courses or to study in English speaking countries in order to improve English skills. Native English norms appear to be the models for them. However, it is hard to know whether such training has improved teachers' English or to what extent the training helps them achieve

“standard’ and “understandable”. The university appears to create the impression that EMI courses were promoted to achieve the goal of internationalisation, but the university has not offered enough guidance to help the teachers/students cope with these new instruction forms.

The review of the EMI policy documents illustrates the top-down policy and suggests there is no overt policy which has been formulated to explicitly describe how EMI should be conducted and what types of English is required to be used. Shohamy (2006) points out that language education and language tests could reflect the de facto practice which might influence how English is taught and perceived. The College English Curriculum Requirements (henceforth CECR) serves as the guiding document and has played an important role in formulating college English education at the tertiary level in China (Lam, 2005). I assume that for the majority of Chinese students and teachers, college English influences their views towards English use. As Hu (2002: 21) notes, a language syllabus in China “reflects fundamental assumptions about the nature, functions and processes of language teaching , lays down the teaching and learning objectives, delimits instructional contents, and circumscribes of process and methods of instruction”. Thus, the following section will discuss the latest version of CECR. The other mechanism, College English Tests (henceforth CET), will be studied further in order to understand the EMI policy more clearly in China. The following section will first provide a brief summary about CECR.

4.3.3 The College English Teaching Curriculum Requirements

CECR provides universities with the guidelines for English instruction to non-English major students. Not surprisingly, a look at the current CECR makes it clear that English teaching to adhere strictly to native-speaker norms. Even if the aim of the curriculum is not described as reaching NES competence, the ability to communicate with people from ‘English speaking countries’ is given priority. CECR was formulated in 2004 for trial implementation. It was put into full implementation in 2007 with the revised version. The 2007 CECR describes the objectives in the following terms.

College English is to develop students' ability to use English in a well-rounded way, especially in listening and speaking, so that in their future studies and careers as well as social interactions they will be able to communicate effectively, and at the same time enhance their ability to study independently and improve their general cultural awareness so as to meet the needs of China's social development and international exchange (CECR, 2007. Author's underlining)

Compared with the previous curriculums, the new CECR has highlighted the need to improve students' listening and speaking skills. However, this objective has received some criticisms (e.g. Cai, 2012; Su, 2013). Su (2013) believes that this teaching objective is too ambiguous to follow. She argues that CECR has not explained what "communicate effectively" means for students. Similarly, Cai (2012) argues that the CECR is very vague and it changes in different time periods. He points out that syllabus does not give concrete guidance on how to develop 'all-round development of English proficiency'. However, there are some signs that communicating effectively means to use native English norms. Though there has not been any overt statement to prescribe which types of English should be taught in Chinese HE in the syllabus, native English models have enjoyed an unchallenged privileged status in the CECR. Proper English is associated with people from English speaking countries.

The CECR sets three levels of flexible target competence to meet different learners' needs, namely basic, intermediate and advanced. Each level of requirement in CECR contains a detailed description of the students' language skills (e.g. Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing, and Translation). It is not surprising to note that advanced competence always has something associated with NESs. For instance, the requirements for listening and translation proficiency state:

"Students should, by and large, be able to understand radio and TV programs produced in English-speaking countries... They should be able to follow talks by people from English-speaking countries..." (MoE, 2007) (Author's underlining)

"With the help of dictionaries, students should be able to translate fairly difficult English texts on popular science, culture, and reviews in newspapers and magazines published in English-speaking countries into Chinese" (MoE, 2007) (Author's underlining)

It remains clear that everything associated with 'English speaking countries' is perceived as superior for a student, and everything associated with local or NNES is seen as less competent. Although CECR does not indicate which country's language model is to be used, it is well known that "English speaking countries" normally

refer to Inner Circle countries. Students' English proficiency is judged in relation to those Inner Circle countries, especially the UK and the USA. But, the question is: whom will Chinese students communicate with in the future? The CECR does not mention communications among NNEs. This might mislead Chinese students into thinking that they would never need to communicate with NNEs in English. Taking Native English norms as the only point of the reference will disadvantage Chinese students who have less exposure to other English varieties. The emphasis on native English norms might not be relevant for the majority of Chinese students, who might need to use English mainly for international communication purposes.

In fact, College English teaching has been seriously questioned by the scholars (e.g. Cai, 2012a; Jin, 1999; Ruan and Jacom, 2009). They point out that college students have low communicative competence after several years of intensive English learning. This phenomenon is often described as "deaf and dumb English" in China. Besides, College English teaching is also labelled as 'time consuming' and 'inefficient' (e.g. Jin, 1999). Some researchers attribute the students' English skills to CECR and argue that the syllabus lacks specific teaching aims (e.g. Cai, 2012a; Su, 2010). Wang's (2008) participants believe that the syllabus "should have been more explicit, concrete, and specific" (p. 14). Su (2010) suggests that practitioners should investigate why students need to learn English and identify their needs properly. Due to the inefficacy of College English teaching, Cai (2012a) suggests teaching EAP/ESP as alternatives. Cai (2012a) argues that the current English course which focuses solely on English language will not help students succeed in international contexts. Cai quotes Johns' (1997) notion of 'teaching English for No Obvious Reason' to describe the College English teaching in China. He points out that ESP/EAP orientated teaching encourages students to apply English language skills into genuine academic study. Thus he suggests that College English teaching in China should redefine its teaching objective. He argues that EAP and ESP will become the future options for English teaching in Chinese higher education. However, Cai has not discussed the theoretical approaches to EAP/ESP. He seems to be satisfied with the genre-based approach. The genre-based approach still tends to focus on the standards and native English norms. Genre-based approach for EAP/ESP is useful for helping students to improve academic English skills, but it fails to consider the implications of Global English. Cai has made no attempt to question

whether EAP/ESP teaching in China should still follow the traditional genre approach. Considering the the future needs of Chinese students and current English use in global contexts, it is insufficient to teach academic English only based on native-norms. The EAP in Chinese universities needs to combine with ELFA percepectives.

In summary, the last part has discussed the college students' English language education syllabus. There are many signs that good English is associated with NE norms in the CECR and the uses of English by NNEs are ignored. In Chinese universities, students normally study two years of College English before going on to study the EMI courses. It is very likely that students' orientations towards English might be influenced by the College English courses. English tests are supposed to follow the requirements prescribed in the language policy. English tests are seen as a powerful device in all institutions and serve as one of the mechanisms that determine de facto practices (Shohamy, 2006). In the following section, I will review three types of English tests in Chinese universities, namely Chinese national university entrance examinations, IELTS/TOEFL and College English Tests. Although they differ in focus, these English examinations are fundamental for students to be enrolled in the EMI programs and courses in China.

4.3.4 English Tests in Chinese universities

The last two sections have discussed some implicit prescriptions in the EMI policy and some neglected problems of the College English curriculum. Turning to English tests, it is believed that the content of the tests will function as a 'guiding policy' or reflect de facto language practice.

Shohamy (2006: 105) states that "language tests affect the choice of languages, the methods and content studied as well as criteria for language standards and correctness". Tests are supposed to follow or reflect the requirements which were prescribed in the language policy. With regard to English tests, native English norms still have the privilege of assessing NNEs' English. In Anglophone countries and their branch campuses, NNEs have to pass International English language testing

system (henceforth IELTS) and Test of English as a Foreign Language (henceforth TOEFL) in order to be admitted onto the degree courses. Apparently, IELTS and TOEFL mainly test student's proficiency in native English. Though numerous scholars have expressed their dissatisfaction towards the current English exams and argued that they lack the reliability to test students' real proficiency, native academic English is still seen as the most appropriate form (Jenkins, 2014; Mauranen, 2012). Thus, institutions often require non-native English students to take a pre-sessional or in-sessional EAP courses to enable students to acquire skills that are necessary in academic settings. Again, non-native English speakers also feel that they need to take EAP courses to improve their English in order to become a qualified student. As Lowenberg (1993) points out:

... in language testing, an implicit (and frequently explicit) assumption has long been that the criteria for measuring proficiency in English round the world should be candidates' use of particular features of English which are used and accepted as norms by highly educated native speakers of English.

Turning to those English tests used in China, Davies et al. (2003: 578) argues "English language test development practice in China is IE (AmE/BrE) norm dependent...". The NES benchmark appears in all the English texts. Generally speaking, international students whose first language is not English have to pass TOEFL or IELTS in order to enter the EMI programs in China. The two types of English exams follow American and British English norms. Most Chinese universities require a minimum score of 550 points /80 points for TOEFL and 6.0 for IELTS. For example, Beijing Normal University's English-Taught Master & Doctoral Programs in Ecological Environment protection and management describes international students' English requirements in the following ways:

TOEFL or IELTS score required for international students whose first language is not English. A minimum score of 550 points /80 points is required for TOEFL and a minimum score of 6.0 is required for IELTS. Applicants who have received an original degree from an English-medium program in previous institutions can be exempted from test requirements (Access from: <http://www.bnulxsh.com/jieshao/hjxy.pdf>)

Similar language requirements can also be found in other Chinese universities. In Chinese HE, it is ironic to still use the IELTS or TOEFL to assess international students' English. IELTS and TOEFL are designed to test NNEs' English who are aiming to study in English speaking countries. It is inappropriate to use those tests to assess students who are studying in non-native English speaking countries. Informed

by the notion of global Englishes, McNamara (2012) questions the appropriateness of using native English norms to test students whose primary aim is to use English in the lingua franca context. He argues that “current conceptualizations of proficiency in terms of gradual approximation to the competences of the native speaker will need to be drastically revised”. But the notion of global Englishes has not informed the test designers, the testing practices are still based on NESs.

For all Chinese students, taking Chinese national university entrance examinations (also called Gaokao),⁶ is a prerequisite for entrance into the universities. The total score of English is 150 points. For students wanting to be enrolled in EMI programs, a minimum score of more than 100 points should be achieved. Some universities require students to take oral English exams. However, In 2013 MoE announced the draft plans to reform English Gaokao. The adjustments in English Gaokao might weaken the importance of English learning in education. The new English Gaokao will be promoted nationwide in 2017, thus the practical reform details have not been announced. But it is clear that the reform seems to downgrade the status of English in Gaokao. However, the reasons for the reforms are not very straightforward. It seems that the policy makers realised the promotion of ELT has posed a threat to Chinese language and culture. As Pan & Seargeant (2012) note the policy makers seen English as a threat to Chinese language and want to preserve the language and culture. The examination reform might make a tremendous impact on English training and learning in China. However, given the long-term goal of university internationalization and increasing the number of international students, I think the English Gaokao reform would not degrade the admission thresholds for those students who want to be enrolled in EMI programmes. English would continue to be a prerequisite for entrance into prestigious Chinese universities. It seems English will still be considered as an important tool to fulfil communication purposes. However, it is clear that the Gaokao reform makes no reference to Global Englishes. English Gaokao still stress NES norms and conveys the perceptions that students have to

⁶Gaokao usually takes the form of “three plus one”. “Three” consist of the three compulsory subjects, Chinese, English and maths. “one” stands for the optional subjects (biology, physics, chemistry, history, politics, geography). Individual provinces have their own rights to design the Gaokao exam paper.

conform to certain native English speakers' norms (e.g. British and American English).

All non-English major students are required to take CETs, the English proficiency tests to assess student's English proficiency and to ensure that students reach the required English levels specified in the CECR. Some scholars have criticized the gatekeeper role of CETs and questioned the validity of the tests. They pointed out that the examinations did not assess the students' communication ability properly (e.g. Li, 2002; Jin, 1999). Although the tests were revised in terms of test content and scoring system in 2006, the new tests have not reduced the students' burden and decrease the negative 'washback' effect. The new tests have not effectively improved students' communicative competence. There are many factors which lead to ineffective tests reforms, such as long-time practice of evaluation criteria, little emphasis on practical strategies within the context of education internationalisation and few ELF-related studies in China. These all lead to CET designer's/reformers' unawareness of the problems.

In addition, the CETs continue to examine students' English language against native English. There might be many reasons for the neglect of developing students' international communicative competence, but I believe that the paucity of ELF-related studies in China might be the possible reason leading to an unawareness of the problems on the part of CET designers/reformers. The second main reason could be that very few studies have been conducted to discuss how to implement the internationalisation strategies in practice. It appears that HE internationalisation is only a term remaining on the lip of the policy makers for a long time. Few scholars have explored how many graduates need for this international communicative competence within the setting of attending international conferences, studying overseas, negotiating with business people and so on. Therefore, there is still much to be done to improve testing reform. In summary, the CETs in China appear to denote attachment to NE norms and the gatekeeping practices have not been changed after the examination reforms. The emphasis they placed on NESs might not reflect the real use of language; this is because in EMI, the majority of students who are involved are NNEs using English to communicate with people who share the same L1 and to communicate with people

who come from different linguacultural background. It might be inappropriate to test students' ability based on NE norms. In the following section, I will review some studies on language policy in China.

4.4 Studies on English language policy in China

Recently, English language policy research in China has attracted the attention of the researchers (e.g. Hao, 2013; Nuan, 2003; Pan, 2011; Shen, 2011; Zhao, 2014). Some summarise language policy theories (e.g. Shen, 2013) or review the previous research (e.g. Hao, 2013). For example, Hao (2013) has examined the foreign language policy research from 1993 to 2012 in China through a bibliometric analysis of the Chinese journal database. Based on his analysis, some problems regarding language policy study have been identified, such as lack of empirical research to study language policy, ambiguous research focus, lack of originality and influential scholars. However, none of them have adopted the global Englishes perspective to study the policy. And they did not realise that they have the power to question the English language perceived as attached to those English speaking countries (e.g. Zhao, 2010). Zhao seems to exhibit a perception that English can not be changed by NNEs. Some of them have considered the globalization and internationalization in relation to foreign language policy (e.g. Nunan, 2003; Shen, 2011), and they suggested that the policy should keep up with the latest development of HE.

Another problem is that it seems that the literature of language policy study in China is mainly focused on the top-down policy. Very few studies have examined the English language policies in a bottom-up-manner. The following paragraphs review the studies which have taken a bottom-up-approach to studying policy. Pan (2011) critically explores the ideologies based on the analysis of the four English syllabuses in China. The English syllabuses include primary, high school and university levels. Pan points out that English education is beneficial to both individual and national development. With regard to standard English, the policy documents display a preference to English spoken in English speaking countries. But Pan claims the government deliberately use the general term 'a language of all English speaking countries' to "distance itself from promoting the cultural model of any particular English speaking countries". It could be argued that using the term 'English speaking

countries' would not present a neutral way. The term 'English speaking countries' often has association with those countries where English is used as the first language, that is, inner circle countries.

Some scholars discussed the mismatch between policy and pedagogical reality (e.g. Flowerdew et al., 1998; Nunan, 2003; Wang, 2008). For example, Flowerdew et al. (1998) examined the EMI classroom at a university in Hong Kong. The language policy has stipulated the use of English as the instruction language. In the interviews, the teacher participants said that they followed the policy. However, participants also switched to Cantonese in practice. This suggests teachers' teaching practices are at odds with the policy documents and what they said in the interviews. Wang (2008) investigated university teacher's attitudes towards the English language policy implementation through classroom observations and interviews. Her research findings also indicate the mismatch between policy and teachers' practices. Several contextual factors, namely class size, student language proficiency, motivation, learning behaviour and institutional evaluation mechanisms on teaching excellence, are identified to explain classroom practices. In the literature of EMI policy research, very few scholars have focused on this area. Based on the limited number of the studies, Peng (2007) introduces the EMI policy developments in China and discusses the problems of implementing EMI in the classrooms. She notes that subject teachers who are involved in EMI often feel confused about the teaching objectives. As discussed in Chapter three, most of the research relate to EMI identified obstacles for implementing the EMI policy. It appears several scholars tried to discuss the EMI in relation to globalisation in Chinese universities (e.g. Cai, 2012; Meng, 2011; Su, 2013), but no scholar has related English language issues to globalisation.

From the above literature review, most studies adopt a descriptive approach to reviewing the top-down Chinese foreign language policy research. Very few studies have looked at the policy from the linguistic perspectives or have explored practitioners' ideologies and their practices. It seems there is a strong attachment to native English norms in English language policy and EMI regulation in Chinese HE.

4.5 Summary and conclusion

This chapter has reviewed the key language policy theories in the literature and how those frameworks can be related to my study. In order to explore the de facto language practices in EMI, three mechanisms were further examined, EMI policy documents, College English teaching syllabus and English language tests. It seems that NE norms are embedded in the policy documents. Given the objectives of English education in China, Global Englishes' perspectives are needed to help students to communicate effectively. The majority of the students and teachers in EMI programs are NNEs, so it is believed that both English language policy and EMI policy should consider the students' learning contexts and needs. It is thought that NE norms are not the only best criteria to assess students' English in the EMI programmes.

Chapter 5: Methodology

5.1 Introduction

The last three chapters demonstrated the theoretical frameworks and literature review that guided this study. This chapter explains the research design of the study. First, the objectives of the study and the research questions are outlined. It then explains the research methods and the underlying rationale for the choice of the current methodology. A description of research tools used in the study follows together with the rationale for each of the research instruments employed. The chapter then moves to a summary of the pilot study procedure. Finally, the last section of this chapter offers an explanation of data collection procedure. It is hoped that the questionnaires, observations and interviews will provide a comprehensive understanding of English used in EMI in Chinese HE.

5.2 The research questions

As described in the last three chapters, the previous literature has demonstrated the value of conducting further research on EMI in Chinese HE from the global Englishes perspectives. The research questions of this study are as follows:

RQ1: How do the subject teachers in Chinese HE perceive EMI policies and practices?

- a. What are the subject teachers' orientations towards EMI and English use in Chinese universities?
- b. What are the subject teachers' orientations towards their own and other subject teachers' English? How do subject teachers evaluate their students' English?
- c. What are the subject teachers' orientations towards their universities' EMI policies and practices?

RQ2: What actually happens in EMI classrooms?

- a. How is EMI implemented in the classrooms and how much Chinese and English were the teachers using?

b. To what extent do subject teachers use NES norms to assess students' English during the instruction? Are they tolerant of student's non-native English use in practice?

5.3 The study methods

The study involved collecting both quantitative and qualitative data. Quantitative data was obtained from the questionnaires. Qualitative data consisted of interviews with subject teachers, responses to open-ended items on the questionnaires and classroom observations. The methodological choice in this study was determined by the research objectives and other practical constraints. Based on research questions and some practical issues (for example, data availability and time constraints), this study is designed to be a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches, in which quantitative and qualitative data are collected and analysed, but the qualitative approach is given more weight than the quantitative approach. Qualitative approach is known for its ability to elicit in-depth knowledge in an area that has not been thoroughly studied previously. Thus, it was seen as an appropriate approach for the aims of this study.

Mixed methods are used as my research approach. Mixed methods research means “the researcher uses a mixture of a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods, approaches, or concepts in a single research study or in a set of related studies” (Johnson and Christensen, 2012: 50). The mixture of quantitative and qualitative methods can help researchers to study the research questions from different angles. Hashemi (2012: 207) points out that “the qualitative exploration of the processes and quantitative measurement of the outcomes in a concurrent design would provide a more complete picture of the phenomenon under study”. With regard to language policy research, Ricento (2006:129) notes the importance of using “multiple methods in exploring important questions about language status, language identity, language use, and other topics that fall within the purview of research”. Thus, the use of different methods is seen as a good choice to overcome the weakness in a single method (Johnson and Christensen, 2012).

Each research approach has its own strengths and weaknesses. As Patton (2002:306) reveals, “no single source of information can be trusted to provide a comprehensive perspective”. Therefore, triangulation in data collection for this study was perceived as an appropriate approach. Johnson and Christensen (2012) refer to triangulation as a means of increasing reliability in research. This enabled me to compensate for the strengths and weaknesses of each data source and to cross check my research findings. All of these research tools (questionnaires, interviews and classroom observations) were piloted and tested for validity and reliability prior to data collection. More detailed discussion of the piloting procedure will be presented in 5.6.2, 5.7.2 and 5.9.2.

5.4 Research context

The subjects chosen for this study were subject teachers, who are teaching subjects entirely or partially in English, in Chinese universities. ELF and EMI would be of relevance to these participants. There were two reasons for choosing subject teachers: Firstly, this study is teacher focused, so the subject teachers in Chinese universities are selected as the practitioners of EMI. These teachers would hopefully reflect back on their previous teaching experience in relation to the use of English in academic contexts. They might care more about successful communication rather than just conformity to native English norms. Secondly, university level education offers more EMI courses compared with any other educational level in China (e.g. Junior or High school).

Questionnaires were distributed to 18 universities within six Chinese cities (Beijing, Xi’an, Chengdu, Huhhot and Baotou, Guangzhou). It is important to point out I did not distribute my questionnaire only to universities in Beijing. This is because universities in big cities such as, Beijing and Shanghai, generally have more well-resourced educational resources than other cities in China. In other words, my study hops to obtain more understandings of the diverse settings in other cities. For the interviews, 12 interviews were conducted in six universities in Beijing. Two interviews were conducted online with participants from Xi’an and Qingdao. Turning to the classroom observations, my main research sites were in four Beijing universities. There were two reasons for conducting most of my interviews and

observations in Beijing. Firstly, educational resources, such as qualified EMI teachers, the scale of EMI programmes and textbook resources are better than those of other cities in China. Thus, those universities offer more EMI courses compared to other Chinese universities. Second, my hometown is in Beijing, which provides me easy access to visit those universities and conduct interviews and classroom observations.

All the universities which offered a selected number of courses taught entirely or partially in English are public universities. About half of the universities are sponsored by the MoE. The rest of the universities are sponsored by their local Municipal Commission of Education. Due to the uneven development of educational standards in each province, the universities sponsored by the MoE generally are better-resourced than those sponsored by the Municipal Commission of Education.

There are two reasons why I selected these universities as my research site or locations. First, I have personal contacts in these universities who could help me find more respondents and participants and introduce some subject teachers in their universities. This helped me to gain easy access to managing interviews and classroom observations. Second, all the universities are public ones and aspire to the aim of becoming international universities, therefore they need to implement EMI language policy, thus it is quite relevant for my research interests.

5.5 Selection of participants

My participants are subject teachers who teach courses in English or partially in English. The majority of respondents of the questionnaire were ‘purposively’ selected (Cohen et al, 2011; Patton, 2002; Ritchie et al., 2003). In purposive sampling, the focus is to select “information-rich cases for study in depth, which are likely to illuminate the questions under study” (Patton, 2002: 230). To ensure more responses for the questionnaire, I also adopted ‘snowball’ sampling (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). I asked some questionnaire respondents to introduce me to potential participants who met my criteria.

Some of the methodology literatures outline the disadvantages of using purposive sampling; they identified that the respondents resemble each other in the sampling (e.g. Cohen et al, 2007; Johnson and Christensen, 2012). However, in order to get as much variation as possible, the researcher purposely recruited respondents from different departments who are teaching different subjects. They have different characteristics in terms of disciplines, professional training and EMI experience.

The interviewees were chosen because they showed their willingness to participate in the interviews and write their names and emails as requested, at the end of the questionnaire. Finally, 14 volunteers showed their interest in participating in the interviews. This was a small number, but the aim of my study is to conduct in-depth interviews. So I think the number of the participants in the interviews should not be too big a problem. Besides, because of the limitations in terms of time and only having myself as the only researcher, it was not feasible to include more participants.

After the interviews, I asked the participants whether I could observe their lessons. Finally, eight volunteers expressed their willingness to allow this. The main sampling criterion for observations was to obtain as much diversity as possible in terms of the subjects, as it is possible that subject teachers' reaction to EMI varies from disciplines to disciplines (Bolton & Kuteeva, 2012; Jensen & Thøgersen, 2011). None of the participants had ever been involved in a study of observations or interviews before they participated in my study.

5.6 Research instruments

In the following section, the three research tools used to collect the data will be described. I will first justify each of the research instruments employed and then explain how I administered them in this study.

5.6.1 Questionnaire: Justification for the questionnaire

Questionnaires are widely used as data collection instruments in second language research (Dörnyei, 2003; Mackey & Gass, 2005). The questionnaire can provide both

qualitative and quantitative data. Turning to my study, I selected a questionnaire as the research instrument primarily for the following reasons.

First, the use of the questionnaire served as a starting point to elicit the information I was investigating. Questionnaires are recommended for collecting data on phenomena that are not easily observed such as attitudes and motivation (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989). By using the questionnaire, I could investigate subject teachers' perceptions of English policies and practices. Second, questionnaires can be used by a large number of participants in different locations. Mackey & Gass (2005: 94) point out that questionnaires can be administered in many forms and elicit comparable information from respondents. The use of a questionnaire helped me to collect data from a large number of respondents, which would have been impossible through interviews or observations. The universities from which I obtained the data for my study are located in different areas of China. Questionnaires were chosen as the most efficient method of eliciting EMI teachers' perceptions towards English use in higher education in China. Third, the questionnaires have been widely adopted in previous studies which have explored related issues in EMI (e.g. Ball and Lindsay, 2013; Jenkins, 2014; Smit, 2010b). In addition, respondents are usually anonymous in completing the questionnaires. They are more likely to provide an honest answer to the questions. However, it is important to point out that there is no such thing as a non-subjective response, some respondents still feel they should give socially acceptable answers. With the strengths stated above, the questionnaire is viewed as a suitable research instrument to be employed in this study.

However, there are weaknesses to using questionnaires as the research method. Questionnaires are limited in that the respondents are constrained by the items. As Denscombe (2007: 170-171) points out "questionnaires, by their very nature, can start to impose a structure on the answers in a way that reflects the researcher's thinking rather than the respondent's". Therefore, I paid attention to the wording of the items and asked one colleague to double check the questionnaire so as to avoid leading questions. My questionnaire contains both open-ended and closed questions. The use of open questions in the questionnaire also compensates for the above disadvantage. The open-ended questions can give respondents the chance to express their own perceptions. I could uncover what the respondents really thought through

their responses. Another way to solve the disadvantage of the questionnaire is to add a blank section at the end of the questionnaire for other comments. Respondents were encouraged to say anything they wished about EMI in general. By doing this, I could find out some ideas or thoughts from my respondents that I had not anticipated. In addition, interviews and classroom observations were adopted to minimise this limitation.

5.6.2 Pilot study questionnaire

After reading the literature, I designed the questionnaire for the pilot study (see Appendix 1 P. 260). The introductory part of the questionnaire briefly explained the aim of the study and the confidentiality of respondents' personal information.

To assess the feasibility of the questionnaire, a pilot version of the questionnaire was given teachers in Chinese universities in December 2012. The feedback I obtained helped me to revise any wording which might be ambiguous and difficult to answer. Another kind of feedback I was able to obtain was information as to whether this research technique is an appropriate way of investigating related topics. Before the pilot study, I was not sure whether the questions were understood and responded to as intended. After the pilot study, I asked my respondents to reflect on how they interpreted the questions. I then knew which questions were less useful in producing response from participants. Therefore, a pilot study was an important part of the process in this study because it enabled me to discover the weakness in the research design as well as the administration procedures (Cohen et al, 2011).

These participants in the pilot questionnaire study had similar backgrounds to the potential participants in the main study. In recruiting the pilot participants, I adopted convenience sampling coupled with snowball sampling (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). All the three respondents had been teaching content subjects in English for more than two years. Thus, they had enough experience to offer me their opinion and reflections on this pilot study.

Before piloting, the questionnaire was translated into Chinese. I wanted the respondents to answer questions in a language which they felt most comfortable and

familiar. The translated version of the questionnaire was checked by one colleague to ensure that the items were easy to understand. Since it was time-consuming to post the questionnaire to my respondents, I distributed my pilot questionnaire via email. After the respondents finished the questionnaire, they returned my questionnaires by email. They underlined the unclear or irrelevant items. They also gave me useful advice on the overall design and layout of the questionnaire. Thus the data collected from the pilot study helped me to modify specific questions. Based on the pilot results, I revised the questionnaire for the main study. The following section summarises the pilot study results.

First, it was found that the layout of the questionnaire was not clear. So I changed the font size and the question order. Second, the respondents also expressed their concern regarding the difficulties in answering some questions in part one, for example, question No.6 asked respondents to estimate the percentage of courses which are taught in English in their universities. Thus, it was revised to “approximately what percentage of the courses is taught in English in your department?” This is because teachers might have better ideas about the percentage of EMI courses which are taught in their own department than in the university as a whole. In addition, I also modified the wording of some confusing questions, for example, question No. 10, in part one. The major reason to modify this question was that it was difficult for participants to remember the policy name. Many of them completed the electronic version of the questionnaire. I think it is more convenient for them to find the internet links. Besides, it saved time for me to assess these policy documents through the internet. Third, some questions were deleted because they elicited very short answers from respondents (e.g. question No. 8 in part three). Such questions might have been difficult for them to answer and might be discussed later in the interviews.

5.6.3 Administration of the questionnaire

The revised questionnaire was finalised based on the feedback from the pilot study. To test whether the revised items to be used in the main study were now working the way they were intended, I then invited one teacher to validate the revised questionnaire and to match questions with themes and constructs. In doing so, I was

able to confirm that what I was actually measuring was what I had intended to measure. The results indicated that the revised survey measured what I had intended to measure and provided sound evidence of validity. The items on the questionnaire were written in Chinese. I selected Chinese because I wanted my respondents to answer questions in a language which they felt most comfortable in.

The modified questionnaire (Appendix 2, P. 264) was distributed to 121 university teachers from 7th January to 30th April in 2013, via email. The questionnaire was sent to respondents in 18 universities in China by email. I want my respondents to answer the questionnaire at their own pace, to choose a suitable time and familiar surroundings. A less-pressured environment enables respondents' to complete a questionnaire more easily. As mentioned in 5.4, these universities are public universities and set the agenda of the goal of internationalisation. At least 10% of their programs are taught in English. Another reason for the selection of those settings was that I had some contacts in those universities. This was expected to provide easy access to obtain data from those universities. At the same time, I did not limit my investigation to the same city because I wanted to find more respondents who had teaching experience of EMI. The emphasis on different types of university was to get 'maximum variation' in data collection. Finally, 110 of the questionnaires were returned after completion. Of these, 106 of the returned questionnaires were valid and four of them were found to be invalid, as they only answered a few questions.

The data from the questionnaire did help the researcher to answer the research question RQ1. However, as mentioned above, many scholars have identified the limitation of using questionnaires, for example, respondents are constrained by the limited item choices, they could not express their reasons for their answers, they might want to express their unique perspective to certain questions but they were unwilling to write on the questionnaire. Therefore, the aim of the questionnaire was to elicit preliminary ideas about how the respondents perceived those questions, while I thought qualitative research methods, such as interviews and observations were, more appropriate for drawing their experience in depth.

5.6.4 Main study questionnaire

The main study questionnaire was divided into three parts (appendix 2). As in the pilot study, both closed-item and open-item questions were used. 15 Likert scale items which were designed to give quantifiable data that can be easily quantified and analysed. They also enable comparisons to be made across groups in the sample. Seven open-ended items were appeared in the questionnaire. The open-ended questions enabled respondents to write a free account of their thoughts and ideas in their own terms (Cohen et al., 2011; Dörnyei, 2003; Mackey & Gass, 2005). As Dörnyei (2003: 45) notes, “by permitting greater freedom of expression, open-format items can provide a far greater “richness” than fully quantitative data. The open responses can offer graphic examples, illustrative quotes, and can also help us to identify issues not previously anticipated”.

The first part of the questionnaire asked demographic information from the respondents, including their age, their teaching disciplines, time spent in English speaking countries for training, the number of courses they taught in English per week. They were also asked to write down their contact details if they were willing to participate in the interviews. Other information required in this part was their EMI training experiences and total number of years teaching subjects in English.

The second part of the questionnaire comprised the Likert scale questions related to teachers’ perceptions of EMI and policy in general. The rating scales have been seen as one of the useful way to investigate attitudes, perceptions and opinions (Cohen et al, 2011). Rating scales are one of the most popular items in the L2 questionnaire (Dörnyei, 2003). The Likert scale has been considered to be a popular format in the L2 study (Dörnyei, 2003). In this study, the scale was intended to gather respondents’ agreements with issues raised in EMI teaching. They are particularly suitable for finding out how teachers think about the language policies and practices. Teachers were asked to show their belief about English use in EMI and attitudes towards EMI Policies and practices.

Items 1 to 15 were designed on a four-point scale to obtain the respondent’s degree of agreement or disagreement. I designed both positive and negative items to

investigate how respondents' perceive EMI and EMI policy and also to what extent they actually followed it through their classroom teaching. The respondents from the present study were asked to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with 15 items by selecting from the four responses ranging from "Strongly Agree", "Agree", "Disagree" to "Strongly Disagree". To accurately embody the content, Dörnyei (2003: 37) argues that "an important concern of questionnaire designers is to decide the number of steps or response options each scale contains." A four-response opinions scale was used in the present questionnaire, because I wanted the respondents to make a decision on whether they generally agree or disagree with each statement. Cohen et al (2007:327) identified the normal tendency for respondents' to opt for the mid-point answer. And they argue this tendency is notably an issue in East Asian respondents. McDonough & McDonough (1997: 178) also indicated that the midpoint in the Likert scales is often difficult to interpret. Therefore, my preference for an even number would prevent them from adopting a neutral position. A four-response opinions scale was adopted in order to minimize the disadvantages of Likert scales.

The final section of the questionnaire, ie, part three, comprises seven open-ended questions. My preference for open-ended questions in the questionnaire was because it allows respondents to write what they think about each question in their own terms. In addition, the open-ended questions might avoid the limitations of the closed ones. Respondents were free to write down their thoughts. Dörnyei (2003: 47) argues that "we need open-ended items for the simple reasons that we do not know the range of possible answers and therefore cannot provide prepared response categories". The open-ended questions in my questionnaire have helped me to explore the uninvestigated issues. As Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010: 36) point out "open-format items can provide a greater "richness" than fully quantitative data. Open responses can yield graphic examples, illustrate quotes, and can also help us to identify issues not previously anticipated". Though there are many merits for using open-ended questions, we cannot neglect some of the limitations, such as respondents' unwillingness to provide longer responses; respondents' writing skills; respondents' reluctance to make much effort to answer open-ended items. From the pilot study, I found the open-ended questions work well. The participants were willing to express their thoughts on each question. However, in the main study, I also found similar

problems, but to my gratification, there were 75 participants who were willing to present their thoughts on each question. Their responses are very useful for me to understand their orientations.

Question 1 in part three is designed to ask respondents' opinions about the differences between teaching style in EMI and teaching in Chinese. Question 2 asked how they perceive their own and other teachers' English in EMI. Question 3 asked if the pressure to be native-like decreased when they find the majority of the students are non-native English speakers, and what kind of English skills should teachers have. Question 4 asked how they assess their student's English proficiency. Question 5 asked respondents to evaluate their university's EMI policies. Question 6 asked respondents whether they would like to be supported by a native English speaker who could give them guidance on their English language. Question 7 asked respondents what kind of suggestions they can put forward if the MOE were to revise the current EMI policy.

5.7 Data collection: qualitative interviews

5.7.1 Justification for the interviews

Interviewing is the most common form of data collection in qualitative research (Rubin & Rubin, 2012; Kvale, 2007; Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009; Lichtman, 2010; Mackey & Gass, 2005). In the interviews, respondents are allowed to speak out their own ideas. As Kvale & Brinkmann (2009:1) note the qualitative interview "attempts to understand the world from the subjects' point of view, to unfold the meaning of their experiences, to uncover their lived world prior to scientific explanations". From the interviews, the researchers can investigate what a person thinks. Unlike using questionnaires, qualitative interviews provide an opportunity for the in-depth understanding of people's personal perspective. The data obtained from the interviews is seen as much more varied and richer than questionnaires. Patton (2002) suggests that another advantage of interviews lies in its strength as an approach in finding out participant's views that cannot be directly perceived, such as feelings and attitudes. Interviews have been used widely in studies of EMI (e.g., Ball and Lindsay, 2013; Jenkins, 2014; Smit, 2010a.b).

One of the aims of my study was to find out how subject teachers felt about the use of English in teaching. How they responded to the use of EMI in Chinese universities and how they implemented the EMI policy in practice. Interviews could help me to gain insights into their feelings and attitudes. Participants could describe their ideas in more detailed ways. The interviews could also give me a chance to further understand my research questions.

Unstructured and semi-structured interviews are two main types of qualitative interviews. In semi-structured or unstructured interviews, knowledge is co-constructed by the interviewer and interviewee. Dörnyei (2007: 135) notes unstructured interview “allows maximum flexibility to follow the interviewee in unpredictable directions, with only minimal interference from the research agenda. The intention is to create a relaxed atmosphere in which the respondent may reveal more than he/she would in formal contexts, with the interviewer assuming a listening role”. This involves the interviewer introducing a topic or a theme, and the interviewees being free to develop their own thoughts. The disadvantages of unstructured interviews are that they can be difficult for the novice researcher to handle (Lichtman, 2010; Mackey & Gass, 2005). Inexperienced interviewers may ask inappropriate questions. Also, respondents may talk about irrelevant issues. In this study, I didn’t adopt unstructured interviews. The major reason was that I did not feel confident to handle this method. I might not have obtained the data which was relevant to the questions of the study. Thus, I adopted the semi-structured interviews (Dörnyei, 2007; Kvale, 2007). First, the aim of semi-structured interviews is to “obtain descriptions of the interviewees’ lived world with respect to the interpretation of the meaning of the described phenomena” (Kvale, 2007: 11). This might allow me to gain “inner perspectives” (Patton, 2002: 340) and understand the participants’ perspectives in depth.

Another advantage of the semi-structured interview is its flexibility. During the interview, the interviewee is encouraged to elaborate on the point raised. As Dörnyei (2007: 136) points out “the interviewer provides guidance and direction, but is also keen to follow up interesting developments and to let the interviewee elaborate on certain issues”. Therefore, by using semi-structured interviews I am able to ask the participants’ views. Sometimes, participants might raise some points which emerge

during the interaction, because information is generated by both interviewer and interviewee during the interviews. As Kvale (2007: 13) points out an “interview is an inter-view where knowledge is constructed in the inter-action between two people”. Kvale and Brinkmann’s (2009: 48–50) metaphors of an interviewer as a miner or as a traveller describe and contrast the two ways of obtaining knowledge. In the ‘miner metaphor’, the interviewer is trying to look for ‘nuggets of knowledge’. The interviewee’s idea is seen as quite fixed and waiting for the interviewer to discover. An alternative ‘traveller metaphor’ sees the interviewer as a traveller to a new country and the interviewer ‘wanders through the landscape’ (ibid.: 48). Then the interviewer starts to talk with people he/she encounters, and encourages people to tell her/him their experiences. After each conversation with interviewees, the interviewer may find new phenomenon and a co-construct of new perceptions. The traveller metaphor emphasizes that both the interviewers and interviewees are active participants and they have an equal chance to express their own opinion. Thus, my role in this study was to look from the ‘traveller’ perspective rather than the ‘miner’ perspective.

Similarly, Talmy (2010) presents two notions on interviews: ‘*interview as research instrument*’ and ‘*interviews as social practice*’. The former refers to conventional orientations to interviews which treat interview data as ‘reports’. With regard to the status of the interview, Talmy (ibid.: 132) describes the conventional interview as “a tool or resource for collecting or gathering information”. Moreover, Talmy notes ‘interview as a research instrument simply treats interview data as reports that reveal truths and fact, while the ‘*interviews as social practice*’ treat the interview as “a site or topic for investigation itself” and its data are “accounts” of truths, facts, attitudes, beliefs, interior, mental states, etc., co-constructed between interviewer and interviewee”. Therefore, I adopted Talmy’s (2010) conceptualization of interviews as social practice. Talmy’s (2010) approaches to interviewing compensate for the disadvantages of semi-structured interviews. Certain flexibility could also be useful.

I was also aware of the limitations of the semi-structured interviews. The data generated from the interviews may be biased. The interview does not allow for anonymity, it might difficult for interviewees to express their real thoughts in face to face interviews (Arksey and Knight, 1999: 56-58). Denscombe (2003: 169-172)

identifies that interviewees and their responses can be affected by the identity of the researcher. This is what Denscombe (2003: 169) refers to as the ‘interviewer effect’. The sex, age and ethnic origins of the interviewers’ personal identity will influence their responses. These factors can impact on the honesty and the amount of information the interviewee is given. It is important to point out that none of these factors can be changed. Denscombe (2003: 170) notes that “interviewees, and interviewers... have their own preference and prejudices, and these are likely to have some impact in the chance of developing rapport and trust during the interview”. For example, after a few interview questions, the participants would have become aware of the topic under study. This in turn may have influenced their responses to what she/he thinks the situation requires. Nevertheless, I found that most of the respondents were willing to talk about the research topics in depth. This may indicate that they reflected on their previous teaching experiences and had thought about these issues before the interviews.

Thus, in order to minimise the limitations of the interview, it is very important to make the interviewee feel comfortable in order to obtain reliable responses from them. This could indicate that the interviewer is of importance during the interview. As Patton (2002: 341) points out the “quality of the information obtained during an interview is largely dependent on the interviewer”. Therefore, before each interview, I tried my best to understand each university in which my participants were working. I also tried to be polite and neutral as the researcher. I was also aware of the need to take ‘interview effects’ into consideration when analysing the data.

5.7.2 Interview procedures

5.7.2.1 The construction of interview prompts (the pilot study)

In order to practice my interview skills and to see if my interview questions elicited the data I wanted, I interviewed three Chinese visiting teachers in UK in January, 2013. They were all interviewed individually. The three participants had taught EMI courses in English or partially in English before they arrived in the UK. After the pilot study, three changes were made. Firstly, in my pilot study, I took notes while I was interviewing. However, I found the respondents felt uncomfortable if they saw me writing the notes during the conversation. Therefore, in order to pay attention to

what they say and respond to the participants in good time, I did not take notes in the main study. Instead I took notes immediately after each interview in most cases. The notes helped me to recall what I had heard in the recordings in the later analysis stages. Secondly, I had used some linguistic terms in my pilot interviews which I noticed the three participants were not familiar with. I realized that I should avoid using those terms in my study. Thirdly, I found that sometimes our interview discussions ranged in unplanned directions. This is not to say that our discussion was not relevant, but this kind of conversation elicited natural and spontaneous communication which I was trying to encourage. The three participants were raising issues that I had not thought about previously. In addition, I had to return to the issues to ask my respondents to clarify their ideas. My subsequent questions became more explicit and asked for further explanation. For example, when I asked participants to explain their views towards content teacher's English proficiency, many of them said "they should speak good English". When I asked for clarification about what it means to have 'good English', the respondents were surprised because they assumed me to have the shared understanding. In order to get more detailed explanation from the participants, I asked the following questions such as 'What do you mean by 'good English'?' I used a lot of follow-up questions to encourage participants to clarify what they meant.

5.7.2.2 The administration of the main study Interviews

Interviews were conducted in March and April 2013. After the respondents completed the questionnaire, they were asked to participate in an interview which was designed to elicit deeper thoughts from the participants. The language chosen for interviews was Chinese due to the fact that participants felt more comfortable sharing their ideas with me in their mother tongue. I think this also created a very relaxed atmosphere of trust and cooperation. Without any question, participants were free to speak in English if they preferred. In some interviews, participants sometimes switched to English to express their ideas. I think it is useful for interviewees to code-switch if they feel English words or sentences are helpful to explain their meanings. Two interviews were conducted online through *QQ Online chatting software*, which enabled us to make a video call over the internet. The video call made it possible for us to see each other while communicating. The remaining

12 interviews were conducted face to face. Face to face interviews may be more social and involve more non-verbal cues than online interviews. However, because the two participants were in Xi'an and Guangzhou, online chatting software resolved geographical limitations and saved the travel costs (Connor et al, 2008). As Chen and Hinton (1999) have observed, 'real time' online interviews enable respondents to answer immediately. Therefore, the online interviews resembled a face-to-face interview. The background information of participants being interviewed is presented in the following table. The aim of this is to give the reader a preliminary understanding of the respondents' backgrounds. Each interview lasted about 60 minutes depending upon each participant. The longest interview lasted 2 hours, whereas the shortest interview lasted 45 minutes.

Table 1: Description of the participants

Name of the participant	Years of teaching EMI	Foreign study/visit experience	The EMI course name	University is controlled by
Participant 1	4	Canada (6 months)	1. Financial Markets and Institutions	provincial governments
Participant 2	9	The USA (2 years) Japan (1 years) Singapore (2 years)	1. International Business Negotiation	MoE
Participant 3	5	No	1. International Business Law 2. The Law of Contract: a Comparative Treatise	MoE
Participant 4	3	Australia (6 months)	1. Production and Operation Management	provincial governments
Participant 5	5	Australia (6 months)	1. Production and Operation Management	MoE
Participant 6	2	The UK (5 years)	1. Community psychology	MoE
Participant 7	5	Japan (4 years)	1. Advanced Mathematics	MoE

Participant 8	6	Germany (1 year)	1. Advanced Mathematics 2. Probability and Statistics	MoE
Participant 9	3	The UK (2 months)	1. Introduction to JAVA Programming 2. An Introduction to Information Technologies	provincial governments
Participant 10	5	Canada (6 years)	1. Enterprise risk management	provincial governments
Participant 11	2	The USA (8 months) The UK (1 year)	1. Foreign Language Learning Theory and Practice	provincial governments
Participant 12	3	The USA (6 months)	1. Economics of Money, Banking , and Financial Markets	MoE
Participant 13	4	Australia (6 months)	1. Fashion Marketing	MoE
Participant 14	5	UK (1 year) USA (7 months)	1. Comparative Law	MoE

Before the interviews started, the interviewees were given an information sheet and a consent form, and permission for audio-recording was requested. Kvale (2007) notes that the interview should take place somewhere that the interviewees feel comfortable. In this study, when my participants told me their free time, we also chose a place which was convenient to them. The 12 face-to-face interviews were conducted in the work office. All the interviews were conducted on different days and were audio recorded in an MP3 format, which meant that they were easily stored and managed in an electronic format.

In my study, I am interested to understand the situation from the participant's perspective. The instrument used in the interviews followed what Patton (2002) referred to as the interview guide approach, I listed the main topics to be explored in an interview and used the list as prompts to "ensure that the same basic line of inquiry are pursued with each person interviewed" (Patton, 2002: 343). Patton (2002: 349) notes that "the outline increases the comprehensiveness of the data and makes data collection somewhat systematic for each respondent". The interview prompts

(see Appendix 9, p. 287) were used to help me recall the themes to discuss and ensure that “the relevant issues are covered systematically” (Arthur and Nazroo, 2003:115). They were also designed to provoke the interviewees to start thinking about certain aspect of issues related to EMI. The questions on the interview prompt were aimed at exploring more details of the teachers’ teaching practices and their perceptions towards language policies.

However, the interview prompts were not fixed. They were open to include issues that the interviewees wished to talk about during the interviews. All the participants in the interviews were encouraged to elaborate on the issues which were important to them, and encouraged to speak about their own ideas. Thus the orders of the prompts were changed according to different participants. I also asked additional questions. Some of the questions which I asked had not been anticipated at the beginning of the interview.

Kvale and Brinkmann (2009: 138) note that interviewers must have the “ability to listen actively to what the interviewee says...and how it is said”. In order to obtain a greater depth of understanding from participants, I tried my best to be sensitive to participants’ responses and then elicited follow-up questions. In addition, the interviews were conducted in a natural style rather than a formal question-answer pattern. In this sense, the interviews “resembled a conversation” (Erling and Bartlett, 2006: 14). Additionally, the flexibility of the interview gives me a chance to resolve any misunderstandings which might occur in the course of the interview.

5.8 Data collection: Classroom observations

5.8.1 Introduction

This section discusses the research questions explored through classroom observations and the rationale for conducting research by classroom observations. The use of classroom observations in this study was intended to address the RQ2. The primary focus of my observations was to observe how content teachers conducted their teaching through the medium of English. From the observations, I expected to obtain a better illustration of how much English was used by the teacher

in their classroom, how the teacher assessed student's oral English, to what extent they corrected a student's 'different' way of using English, and how much they adhered to the objectives of the curriculum in their classroom teaching. The observations would thus supplement the data drawn from other methods by enabling me to see teacher participant's teaching practices.

5.8.2 Justification for the Classroom observations

Some researchers have identified the functions of observation (e.g. Cohen et al., 2011; Johnson & Christensen, 2012; Mackey & Gass, 2005; Ritchie, 2003). First, observations could allow people to “to get direct information on classroom events, on the reality of program implementation” (Weir & Roberts, 1994: 164). Ritchie (2003: 35) describes observations as “the opportunity to record and analyse the behaviour and interactions as they occur” within a particular context. The researcher can collect first-hand data from the observation and could “gain a deeper and more multi-layered understanding of participants and their context” rather than collecting second-hand accounts (Mackey & Gass, 2005: 176). Second, observations demonstrate what people actually do and what they say they do by comparison with what they say they do in the interviews. Sometimes participants in the study do not always do what they say in the interviews or in the questionnaire.

Observation is thus seen as “a reality check” (Cohen et al, 2011). In my case, I could combine the findings obtained from the observations with teachers' responses to interviews and questionnaires. Ritchie (2003:35) notes that the value of observation lies in the researcher being able to see the “events, actions and experiences”. The observations in my study provided a means of seeing EMI teaching practices. Patton (2002: 263) states that, researchers could “learn things that people would be unwilling to talk about in an interview” through the observation. Another important reason to adopt observation in the study is the “social-desirability bias” (Patton, 2002). Some studies have emphasized the risk of receiving social-desirable responses in interviews and questionnaires (Oppenheim, 1992). Observation is seen as a good way to allow researchers to see the real practice which cannot be predicted in advance.

Classroom observation thus enabled me to observe what the subject teachers actually did in the classroom and gave me access to the EMI reality I was attempting to study. However, there are weaknesses to the observation method. Mackey & Gass, (2005) identified the “presence of an observer can influence the linguistic behavior of those being observed”. Those being observed may respond negatively to the presence of the researcher. They might change their normal classroom behaviour to suit the expectations of the people who are observing. To minimize this concern, I tried my best to mitigate the effects of my presence by sitting in the back of the classrooms. I thought that this would not attract the attention of the whole class or disturb the teaching.

Three different types of observation have been used in classroom research. They are highly structured, semi-structured or unstructured observations. Research in a highly structured observation has its observation categories worked out in advance. According to Cohen et al (2011: 457), “a semi-structured observation will have an agenda of issues but will gather data to illuminate these issues in a far less predetermined or systematic manner”. By contrast, in unstructured observation, the researcher does not have a clear idea of what to observe. In this study I adopted the semi-structured observations.

5.8.2 Piloting the observations

Four pilot observations were conducted before the main study. Piloting the observation was important for the main study for various reasons. Firstly, conducting a pilot study, I was able to gain an emic understanding of the classroom: what was happening, the proportion of English used by the teacher, the level of interaction between teachers and students, the materials that they used. These observations helped me to familiarise myself with the EMI classroom. Secondly, the pilot study was a good chance to practice my observation skills. Meanwhile the piloting helped me to think about my data analysis. Initially, I did not have a detailed table to record the proportion of English and Chinese used by subject teachers during the observations. Before the pilot study, I simply wrote the question “what percentage of the teachers’ language is in English, Chinese, or a mix of Chinese and English?” in the observation guide. However, after the pilot study, I found it was very difficult to

quantify the English use and Chinese use. I needed to adapt my analytic methods to count the proportion of English and Chinese classroom talk in order to record the time for the L1 and L2 use. Besides, the pilot study helped me to finalise my observation guide. Appendix 10 was the initial observation guide. After the revision, appendix 11 was used in the main study.

5.8.3 Observation Data collection procedures

Before conducting the classroom observations, I faced some difficulties in obtaining permission to observe the classrooms. Some subject teachers seemed unwilling to be observed by an external researcher at the beginning. I think that some subject teachers might have considered the observation as part of their evaluation, and some might have other worries. I visited the selected universities and met the teachers in order for us to get to know each other. I assured them that my study was not to evaluate their teaching and gave them a further explanation of the purpose of the study. Promises were given again to each of them that the data would be kept confidential and his/her name would be kept anonymous. These visits helped me to reduce the teachers concerns and anxiety. Finally eight teachers from five universities agreed to permit me to observe their lessons. The participants were teaching in different disciplines, thus, they have very different teaching plans and textbooks. After gaining their permission, I asked them to sign the consent form. A few of the teachers were very surprised to see this form. This was understandable because it was the first time that they had signed the form. In addition, before the main study, I also visited the classrooms with the aim of introducing myself to the students and also to familiarise myself with the location of these different classrooms. All the participants were full-time staff employed in these universities. I used pseudonyms to describe my participants in this study. The following table gave an overview of the observation participants.

Table 2: Teacher participants' demographic information

Name	age	Gender	Position	Number of years teaching	Number of years teaching in English	The EMI course name
Xing	50	Female	Professor	30	10	1. International

						Business Negotiation
Dan	40	Female	Associate professor	13	5	1. Financial Markets and Institutions
Mei	36	Female	Lecturer	10	6	1. Advanced Mathematics 2. Probability and Statistics
Jing	38	Female	Lecturer	12	5	Advanced Mathematics
Ping	34	Male	Associate professor	5	3	Enterprise risk management
Yun	37	Female	Associate professor	6	3	Economics of Money, Banking, and Financial Markets
Dong	31	Male	Lecturer	3	2	Community psychology

32 lessons were observed. Each lesson lasted for 50 minutes and the teacher had to teach two lessons consecutively with a ten minute break at between. 30 lessons were audio-recorded. For these lessons, the recorder was placed at the front of the teacher's table. Two of the lessons were video recorded (this was requested by the participant, as she was preparing a demonstration lesson in English, and she wanted to watch her teaching behaviour). The two video recorded lessons were conducted in the same classroom with the camera placed at the back. This seemed to me the best way not to distract the students. However, I did not include the two video recorded lessons because those lessons might have been performed differently from normal lessons.

As a researcher, I had realized the potential negative consequences of these observations. Subject teachers may respond negatively to the presence of the observer, or may alter their classroom behaviour to meet the expectations of the observer. Thus, before conducting the classroom observation, I met each participant individually. I explained the general topic of my research, but not the specific purpose of the observations. I discussed the observation schedule with the participant and let them to choose which dates I would attend. My observations corresponded with participants' timetables.

The 30 audio recorded observations (each lesson lasted for 50 minutes) took place in five universities in Beijing. The recordings of each teacher depended on how many times the participants permitted me to observe their lesson. During the observations, I sat in the back corners of the classroom in order not to distract the students' attention. Erlandson et al. (1993: 97) points out that "it is impossible to observe and record everything in the setting, and therefore one must begin somewhere with some type of plan". Thus, the observation scheme (Appendix 11, P.291) was used to record activities in the classroom and helped me to depict the classroom settings, the amount of English used in the lesson and the extent to which the teachers corrected students' 'different' way of using English in practice. Adopting an observation guide was one way of helping me to record events in the classroom, such as information of the courses, teacher's teaching styles, teaching resources. However, I was not restricted to my observation scheme, I paid a lot of attention to the things that were happening in each lesson. I made detailed field notes to keep a record. O'Reilly (2009:70) refers to field notes as "the written record of observations, jottings, full notes, intellectual ideas, and emotional reflections that are created during the field work process". Taking notes also helped me to obtain a detailed account of what had happened in the classroom. My field notes included my own comments on the teaching, the brief timing of events (use of English), teachers' comments and responses to students' answers, as well as some notes which I felt important. Sometimes I wrote detailed notes after the class on the same day when I could still remember the things which had happened in the classrooms. The field notes were especially useful during the data analysis process, as they provided "a first-hand encounter with the phenomenon of interest rather than a second-hand account of the world obtained in an interview" (Merriam, 1998: 94).

The use of English or Chinese in each lesson, teacher's responses to students' oral English could reflect the subject teachers' orientations towards English. I also made an attempt to find out the reason why the participants switched to Chinese during their instructions. As it was the third week of term when I started my observation, I did not have the opportunity to observe the format of their final examination. But I talked to students very informally about their final exams. They told me examinations were conducted entirely in English. Incidentally, I also talked to the

students informally and asked their views about the teacher's use of English and their perceptions towards EMI.

5.9 Reflexivity in my own role in interviews

I tried to embrace reflexivity in different stages of my research. Participants and I share the same language and cultural background. Our common backgrounds have helped me to build rapport, and to understand their perceptions more thoroughly. I found I was able to connect their English learning and teaching experiences in China with my previous experiences. The similarities we had often enabled me to better understand research context and subject teachers' perceptions.

Despite my participants and I share the same language and cultural background, I found each participant had his or her own style, personality and education experiences. They had greater knowledge and experiences in teaching the EMI courses than I. Thus, I could never be sure in advance what would they say in the interviews.

However, the shared background also created challenges in my data collection process. I found participants assumed me to have the same views as them. Sometimes they did not elaborate their perceptions explicitly. When we discussed how they perceive their students' English, for example, one respondent said "Chinese students are not good at oral English(.) you know". This situation taught me that I need to ask more clarification questions to obtain extra information from participants. I needed to be sensitive to participants' responses, especially when they assumed me to share the same view with them. I tried to probe with more questions and encourage participants to express their views in more detailed ways.

I must admit that my views and previous educational experiences may have had an impact on my participants. I was also aware that my own beliefs impacted the questions which I asked. However, I did not consider this had led to change participants' views or push them to have a particular view. As I mentioned in 5.7.1, I took the 'traveller approach' in the interviews and considered interviews as 'social practice'. The whole interview was a dynamic process where I and participant were

co-constructing meaning. Apart from the similarities we share, we also developed new insights during the interactions. Sometimes I responded to the participants' ideas and expressed my views on the topic we discussed. I felt it was reasonable and natural to let the participants know my views rather than say nothing. As a research student, there were no power structure issues between me and my participants. They knew that I was a PhD student, while the participants all have their expertise and rich teaching experiences. My participants were encouraged to share his/her views towards language policy and EMI in China and they were totally free to express disagreement or agreement to my views.

The interview data did indicate that some participants expressed disagreement with me. Their responses demonstrated that they were willing to disagree with me. I also noticed participants sometimes expressed their views inconsistently. I think it was common that interviewees may sometimes express their views inconsistently. This is what normally happened in the natural communication, as people's perceptions might change towards certain complex situations. I paid attention to their inconsistency during the interviews and tried to identify to what extent their views influence the research findings. Participants in my interviews also asked me questions as well. So they were not just focussed on giving the information which I aimed to obtain. I also needed to answer any question they raised in the interviews. For example, questions related to the EMI in Europe, the use of English in the UK and English accents.

As a novice researcher, I found it was challenging to respond to the participants' ideas in an appropriate time during the interviews. There were many unanticipated moments that I had to make prompt responses to the participants' questions. I was trying to find a balance between expressing my views but also to listen carefully to what my participants said and how they said it. I was concerned with introducing a topic (the notion of ELF and NNESS' English use) which those subjects may never have thought about before. But I found the participants were interested to listen to what I said. And I felt they expected me to say something more during the interviews. Overall, I think my interviews helped me yield substantive information about my research focus. They also helped me to become reflexive in understanding my role.

5. 10 Reflexivity on my own role in classroom observations

In observations, observers can have different roles according to their research purposes. Researchers should decide on the degree to which they participate and observe in the fieldwork, based on their research aims. In this study, I took the role of a non-participant observer. I did not take part in the class activities which I observed, mainly because I was not familiar with those subjects in the content-based class and this would have posed difficulties for me in participating in the classroom activities. In addition, I did not want to disturb the lessons. I tried to observe the lessons with minimum disruption to the classrooms.

However, it is necessary to point out that the observer could have different roles in the observations. It is impossible to sustain total lack of participation. My role as an external researcher was known by the students. But I felt many students considered me as an ‘English teacher’ who could help them to understand the English sentences in the textbook. Sometimes I shared the textbooks with students at the back. I felt in a dilemma what I should do when students had a temptation to expect me to help them. They expected me to translate some English sentences in their textbook and tell them the answer. While, I helped them to understand the English sentences they did not understand, but I restrained myself from telling them the exact answer. To be honest, sometimes I did not know the answer even I when I understood the English text.

Before the observation, I did not tell the teachers the specific aim of my research. They did not know my observation focus in advance. Sometimes, I had spontaneous conversations with subject teachers after the class. Although I told participants that I did not assess their lesson and English language, they still expected me to comment on their lesson. I appreciated their efforts and I told them that they received much positive feedback from students. But I did not comment on the English issue directly. Thus, I assumed a slightly different role according to different situations. I was ready to change my roles when the situation required. I see myself as dynamic during my observation.

In addition, I also share the similar culture and language as participants, I was advantaged in understanding subject teachers' teaching practices and their roles in classrooms. But the shared Chinese language and cultural background might affect my data collection. I might miss some details which I had taken for granted. So I tried my best to separate my previous knowledge on Chinese higher education from the things I observed in the classrooms. However, I did not consider this led me to lose the objectivity in my study. Actually, my knowledge of the EMI courses was very limited, as I had never experienced EMI courses when I studied in China. Before the classroom observations, I also had my curiosity about the classroom teaching, especially how the teacher accessed students' oral English, to what extent they corrected a student's different way of using English and how much they adhered to the objectives of the curriculum in their classroom teaching.

5. 11 The use of multilingual data in research

Some previous studies have discussed the difficulties and challenges to deal with multilingual data in multilingual settings, especially when the data is collected in one language and analysed in another (e.g. Birbili, 2000; Halai, 2007; Smith et al., 2008). They identified that researchers who collected multilingual data are often confronted with translation of data into another language (often English). Halai (2007: 344) points out the translated texts have actually been recreated and he names the translated materials as "transmuted texts". As Halai (2007: 347) argues "the final text had undergone a process that had transformed it and even altered it in some ways".

The process of the translation involves more than just a literal transfer of meanings. Temple (2002: 846) argues that there is no correct way of translating and points out translation involves more than the conversion from one language into another. He also describes the translation process as a boundary-crossing between two different languages. Regmi et al., (2010: 18) define transliteration as "a process of replacing or completing the words or meanings of one language with meanings of another as sometimes the exact equivalence or exact meaning might not exist". In my study, Chinese language and English language have very different syntactical styles and grammatical forms. Sometimes it was hard to find the equivalent words or phrases

in English. I needed to use my understanding and knowledge to convert the Chinese meaning into English with English sentence structure or comprehensible expressions. Thus, transliteration can be used to help me in the translation process.

In what follows, I will discuss the process and challenges associated with preparing and presenting the data (originally in Chinese) in this study. As I mentioned, all the respondents completed the questionnaires in Chinese and all the participants used Chinese in the interviews. The primary reason to use Chinese was because I wanted the respondents to answer questions or to express opinions in a language which they felt most comfortable. Before analysing the questions on the questionnaire, I translated all my participants' answers into English. It was straightforward to translate their answers from the closed questions. Only answers in part one required translation, while I copied their answers in part two (Likert scale questions) to the English version questionnaire.

For translating respondents' answers in the open-ended questions on the questionnaires, I tried my best to choose the appropriate word in English to express the same meanings as what my respondents wrote. I wrote the closest meaning when the exact equivalent cannot be found. Therefore, all the information presented on each questionnaire has been translated into English. After this preparation, I started the process of data analysis (see 6.2), and I used translated sentences and words as direct quotations when interpreting the data.

However, it was time-consuming process to translate the interview data. After I finished interviews, I listened to each interview carefully. All the interviews were transcribed into Chinese first. I also double checked the transcribed text with the recording in order to check for inaccuracies. I found the speech and writing to be very different things; speech contained the speakers' feelings and emotions. As discussed in 7.3, some prosodic features were also transcribed in order to reflect how the participants expressed themselves, such as laughter and strong emphatic stress, short pauses and intonation raising. The whole process required repeated listening to the recording.

Due to the time limit and research focus, translating the entire interviews seemed impractical at that time. So I decided to translate those data segments which were

most relevant to my discussion and analysis. I also used the translated words as the direct quotes.

I think most of the time, I was confident to use my own knowledge to translate from Chinese to English. I had the advantage of belonging to the same culture as my participants. This advantage has helped me in data preparation and analysis. But I also faced the difficulties to translate the Chinese data into English in this process. I needed to ensure participants' original meaning was not lost or misinterpreted in the process of translation. The grammatical structure of Chinese differs to English language, so sometimes I needed to paraphrase their meanings into English. I frequently asked myself whether my English translation reflected what was originally said by the participants. I adopted the transliteration, when I found some Chinese words or proverb does not have an equivalent word in English. For example, when translating Feng sha, Zhuang shi duan wai, gai duan jiu duan, I gave the detailed explanation of the word or proverb in English. As my thesis targets the readers with different linguistic and cultural backgrounds, I tried my best to make my translation understandable for wider target readers. To ensure the validity of my research, I asked one of my colleagues who had long time English teaching experience in China to check the translation. After receiving her feedback, we discussed some transcriptions and I revised those unclear or ambiguous translations. For example, after discussions, I revised some words to translate Chinese proverbs accurately. I did not translate all the interviews into English, I did the initial coding manually in both Chinese and English. English was used in a second-level coding. The detailed discussion of interview data analysis can be found in 7.3.

5. 12 Validity

Establishing validity is a major way to verify the credibility of both qualitative and quantitative approaches (Patton, 2002). Because qualitative methods were the major research technique used in my study, the validity of qualitative approaches will be discussed. Validity refers to the extent to which the results accurately reflect the reality of the respondents' view. Some researchers have identified the importance of establishing credibility, transferability, conformability and dependability (e.g. Erlandson et al, 1993; Mackey and Gass, 2005) in qualitative data analysis.

According to Mackey and Gass (2005: 180), credibility emphasizes that research findings are credible to their research population. Transferability concerns the relevance of the research to another context. Researchers are encouraged to “report their findings with sufficient detail for readers to understand the characteristics of the research contexts and participants” (Mackey and Gass, 2005: 180). It is important to note that transferability cannot be established by the original researcher. Other researchers need to compare the research findings in the relevant contexts. Conformability relates to the comprehensive action of presenting the data. As Mackey and Gass, (2005: 180) note “researchers are required to make available full details of the data on which they are basing their claims or interpretations”. Dependability entails fully describing the research contexts and participants.

Some strategies have been identified for establishing credibility, transferability, conformability and dependability (e.g. Creswell, 2009; Johnson and Christensen, 2012; Mackey and Gass, 2005). Different researchers offer different techniques to ensure the validity and reliability of the investigation. Common procedures to ensure the validity and reliability in qualitative research are as follows:

- Spend a long period of time for data collection to obtain an in-depth understanding
- Persistent observation
- Use of one or two researchers to cross check the codes
- Use of a triangulation technique of an independent auditor to verify the clarity of the research
- Provide with detailed description in order to make all the research steps transparent
- Write a reflexive researcher journal

The validity of this study was enhanced by the following strategies: Firstly, all the research techniques were piloted before the main study. Secondly, I spent three months in China for data collection. Thirdly, I adopted a triangulation technique to collect data from multiple data sources. Fourthly, I tried to provide a detailed description of the research contexts in order to identify the features which resonate with other research settings. Fifthly, I recoded the data after the initial coding as to check the consistency of the coding. I critically reflected my roles and biases through all the research processes.

5.13 Ethics and Confidentiality considerations

The methodology literature has addressed the importance of ethical considerations (e.g. Cohen et al., 2011; Lichtman, 2010; Mackey and Gass, 2005). Generally speaking, the current research did not offer any dangers to the participants. Ethical approval was obtained from the University of Southampton before I began my data collection. I was aware of the need to inform teachers prior to the research. All the respondents and participants were given the information sheet (see Appendix 5.) first, and then they were given the consent form. Confidentiality of respondent's personal data and answers, and the right to withdraw from the research at any time were mentioned in both the information sheet and the consent form. All the data collected from this study were saved in a very secure computer.

5.14 Methodological Limitations

First, the present study was limited to a very small size sample, and it is not possible to generalise its findings to all Chinese subject teachers. Second, the present study only involved some volunteer teachers at some universities in China. It would have been appropriate to include more universities in China but was not feasible for this research. The results of the interviews and questionnaire might be subjective as they only indicate some teacher's perceptions. However, as the aim of this study is to explore the individual teachers' orientations to EMI in depth, I was not interested in generalising the findings to all subject teachers in China. With regard to the small number of participants, this study attempts to do in-depth analysis in which multiple data sources are collected to study the research topic. Thus the use of multiple data sources may enhance validity; it is thus possible that despite the lack of generalization, readers will be able to apply the findings of the study to other similar situations. Teachers in this study may share similar features with other subject teachers. Third, observations were also limited because I only observed a limited number of lessons for a short period of time. Although my study planned to make systematic observations over three months, this initial plan was changed due to unforeseen constraints, for example, some lessons were observed only twice due to the teachers' reluctance to be observed more often. More extensive observations would give a more detailed account of teaching practices. It might be meaningful to

compare the observed EMI teaching practices with student's perceptions. In addition, the observation was limited because the lack of another observer. I think it is very necessary to double check the accuracy of the observations. I also admit that the current research should be seen as a first step in exploring subject teachers' orientation to English language policies and practices. Further study with multiple research methods are needed to fully understand the topic.

5.15 Summary

This chapter gave a detailed description of research methods and procedures. The use of triangulation in data collection aimed to strengthen the validity and to build up an in-depth understanding of EMI in some Chinese universities. In order to fully explore the research questions, multiple data sources in this study helped to elicit participants' orientations towards EMI and English language policy to find out what happened in the EMI classrooms. The next stage is to organize and provide explanations of data in order to make sense of the data. The following three chapters (Chapter six, seven and eight) will present data in order to make interpretations.

Chapter 6: Orientations Elicited in the Questionnaires

6.1 Introduction

Chapter six draws on the data obtained from the questionnaires in order to analyse the themes related to the teachers' orientations to EMI, English and EMI policies. This chapter presents the research results based on the closed questions and open questions separately, and then discusses the combined findings together. The analysis and discussion of questions four to ten is divided into three sections. The first section (part one of the questionnaire) presents the findings concerning the respondents' background information. The analysis begins with question four. Questions one to three are not analysed as they just give information about the participants' age, department and the subjects they teach. The second section (part two of the questionnaire) covers the 13 Likert scale statements questions. The third section (part three of questionnaire) presents the results of seven open-ended questions.

6.2 Questionnaire data analysis methods

The questionnaire contains both closed and open-ended questions. For analysing the close questions, the Microsoft Excel was used to calculate the frequencies and percentages. For analysing the open-ended questions on the questionnaire, qualitative content analysis was employed as the main analytical tool. This analytical method has been adopted by the previous scholars who aimed to investigate respondents' orientations (e.g. Jenkins, 2014; Zacharias, 2013).

Berg (2007: 303-304) defines content analysis as “a careful, detailed, systematic examination and interpretation of a particular body of material in an effort to identify patterns, themes, biases, and meanings”. Schreier (2012:5) summarises three key features of qualitative content analysis and describes it as systematic, flexible and capable of reducing data. Thus content analysis is a method that allows the researcher to reduce, simplify and interpret the data through systematic qualitative coding. There is a controversy concerning whether the analysis should be limited to

manifest content or latent content (Berg, 2007). In my study, I intended to adopt the latent content analysis, since it focuses on “second-level, interpretive analysis of the underlying deeper meaning of the data” (Dörnyei, 2007: 245-246). By contrast, manifest content analysis concerns “surface meaning of the data” and is not sufficient to explore my participant orientations (Dörnyei, 2007: 246). In this study, I explored the deeper meanings in order to interpret the data. It is important to state that this approach has been criticized for “being too positivist in orientation, particularly when only the enumerative approach is used” (Grbich, 2007: 122). For example, this approach has been criticized for simply counting the number of instances in the transcription and makes no effort to interpret the data. Therefore, interpretation of the data becomes a crucial step in this study.

Dörnyei (2007: 245-246) describes the five general phases of the content analysis: transcribing the data, pre-coding and coding for themes, developing ideas, interpreting the data and drawing conclusions. Following the procedure proposed by Dörnyei, initial coding followed by second-level coding was applied to the analysis of open-ended questions and interviews in my study. First, I tried to be familiar with the answers from the questionnaires. I read the respondents’ answers from those open-ended questions many times in order to know my data. Then I tried to identify the major topics or ideas in the questions. This process is what Dörnyei called initial coding. I did my initial coding manually. During this stage, I need to decide which information was relevant to my research focus. Schreier (2012:242) points out: “...(software) supports you at the later stages of bringing it all together, in seeing relationships emerge between categories, and in recognising similarities or differences between your cases”. Therefore, after I identified a few themes, I imported the initial themes into the QDA Nvivo 10 to help me to do the second-level coding which helped me to backtrack to the initial coding and to improve them. During this stage, I tried to create the sub-categorizes based on what my respondents responded to the open-ended questions. I also tried to combine the categories which shared the similar topics. Finally, I grouped similar topics into the broader themes. The Nvivo 10 also helped me to count the words which appeared quite often. In addition, in order to ensure coding consistency, I also recoded the data two weeks later. This helped me to think over the coding themes and revise them.

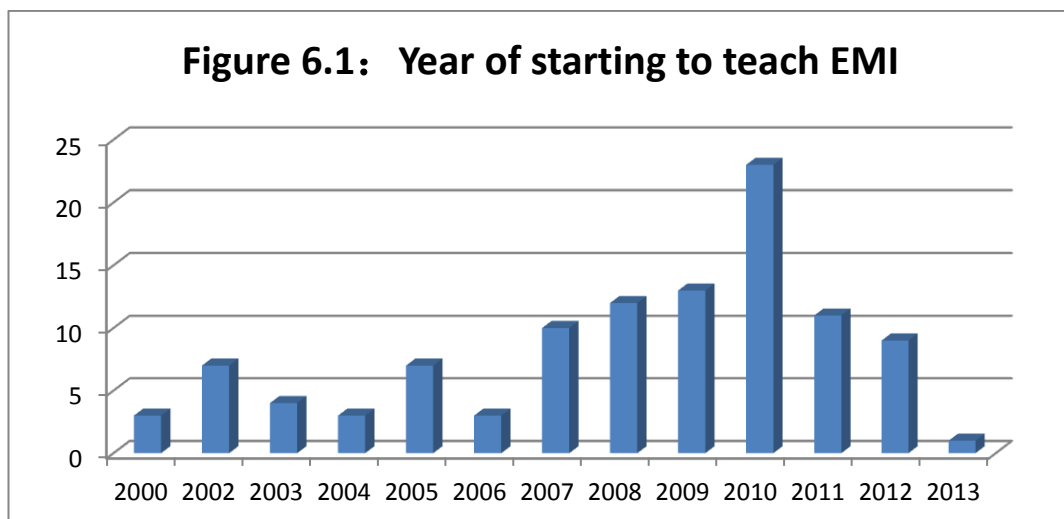
6.3. Questions in part one of the questionnaire

In part one of the questionnaire, the questions were asked in a specific order.

However, in the following discussion, I will first present the questions (Q4, Q 5, Q6, Q7, Q8a, Q9, Q10, Q11, Q12) which relate to the respondents' basic background information. I will then go on to discuss the only question which asks for respondents' opinions (Q8b).

Q4: Respondents' timing of starting to teach courses in English

Question four (see Appendix three for the whole questionnaire) asks respondents when they began to teach EMI. Based on the 106 responses to my questionnaires, the timing of starting EMI varies among the respondents. The earliest EMI started in the year 2000 (see Figure 6.1). Three respondents said they started to teach EMI in the year 2000. Seven respondents indicated that they started EMI in 2002. Similarly, seven respondents said they taught EMI courses in 2005. Before 2007, the number of participants who were involved with EMI was quite small. After the year 2006, however, a big increase of participants who were involved in EMI can be seen. 75% of the respondents revealed that they started to teach subjects in English after the year 2007. This may suggest there has been a prominent increase of EMI courses after 2007, though the top-down EMI policy was initiated in 2001. This may have resulted from certain constraints, such as the shortage of the subject teachers. So EMI in Chinese HE emerged through a long process of adjusting to the globalization trend in economic development.



Q5, Q6 and Q7: The average EMI teaching hours per week and the proportion of English use in the classroom

Question five asked respondents how many hours of EMI courses they taught per week. The average number of teaching hours was 3.8. It appears that EMI courses only constitute a small portion of teaching time for my respondents. This suggests Chinese is still the dominant language for instruction in the respondents' universities. Question six asked respondents to estimate the percentage of the EMI courses in their school/department. It was reported that about 10% to 20% courses in their departments were taught in English. Question seven asked the respondents to estimate the proportion of English use in the classroom. Despite some respondents writing 100%, the majority of respondents indicated that they used English between 40% to 80% of the time. The average is 66%. This number indicates that the majority of respondents are using both Chinese and English to teach. The reasons for the use of L1 and when they use L1 needs to be further explored in the following data analysis chapters.

Q8a: The students' nationalities in the EMI

Question eight in part one asked respondents to describe the student's nationalities. 58% of respondents said that their students were all Chinese students. 8% of the respondents said their courses were designed for international students only. 34% of the respondents revealed that both Chinese and international students were present in the classroom. It is not surprising to find out that Chinese students constitute the major body of students in EMI programmes or courses. It seems the level of internationalisation has not reached a very high level in China compared to the universities in Europe, such as those in the Netherlands, Denmark and Sweden. This is in spite of the fact that a few researchers suggest that students have diverse educational and linguistic backgrounds in some universities.

Q9: Respondents' overseas experience

With regard to my respondents' overseas experiences (Q9), 80% of respondents have been to other countries for various purposes, such as studying for a degree, receiving

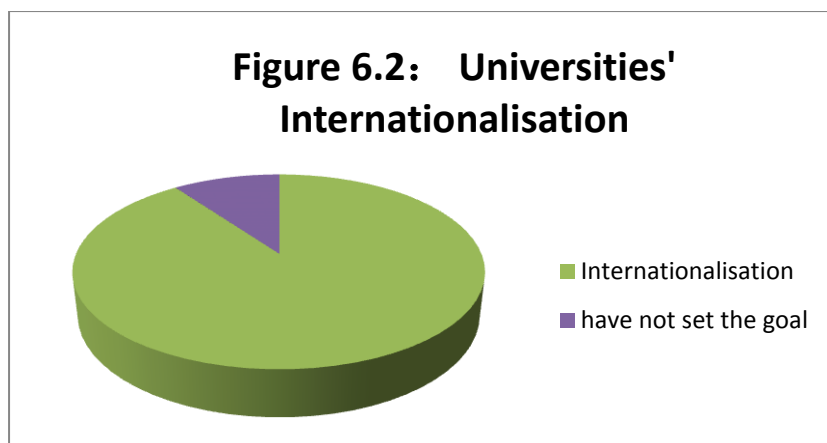
English training and attending conferences/travelling. Studying or attending English training were identified as the major purposes. The majority of the countries they listed were English speaking countries, such as the UK, the USA and Australia. Approximately 23 respondents wrote they went to non-English speaking country for academic visit. 18% of respondents identified that they had never been to any other English speaking countries. With regard to the length of study abroad, respondents who received a degree from a foreign country normally spend from one to five years. However, for respondents who only went to attended English training courses, their English training period ranged from three months to six months depending on each respondent. Overall, the proportion of respondents who have overseas experience is quite large. This might suggest that respondents in this study have used English to communicate with both NESs and NNESSs.

Q10: The respondent's university's English language policies and practices

For question ten, respondents were asked to indicate whether their university had any language policy relating to EMI. 35% said that their university had a stated policy or curriculum for EMI. 30% of respondents said their university did not have an official document of language policy for EMI. 35% of respondents ticked the "do not know" choice, which may indicate that many of my respondents were not very aware of the language policy in their universities. There are two possible reasons to explain the lack of EMI policy in the universities. First, EMI is still a newly emerging teaching practice for many universities in China, and they have not made out a detailed plan for EMI. Second, universities might just adopt the national EMI policy without any modifications, and they have not properly introduced the policy to the teachers.

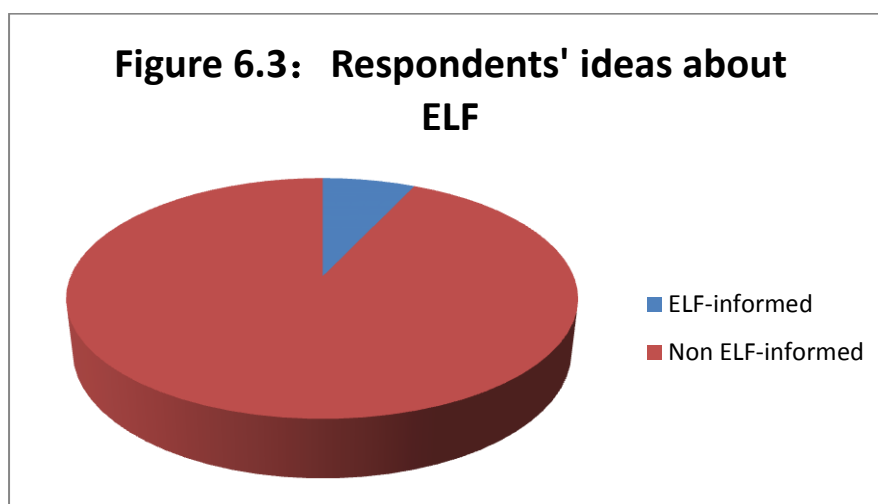
Q11: Achieving the goal of Internationalisation

Question 11 asked respondents whether the goal to internationalise the university had become a high priority in their university (see figure 6.2). Almost 90% of respondents revealed that their own institution had set the target to internationalise the university. Only 11 respondents said their university had not yet set this aim. It is clear that internationalisation has become an important development agenda in the respondents' universities.



Q12: Respondent’s knowledge of ELF

Question 12 asked respondents whether they had heard about the term ‘ELF’. As can be seen from Figure 6.3, it is not surprising to find out that only five respondents have ever heard of this term. The rest of the respondents said they had never heard about it. I would not expect the term ‘ELF’ to be familiar to my respondents. Given the fact that all my participants were subject teachers, they did not have much opportunity to read the books or articles in Applied Linguistics. What is more, ELF is a newly emerged research area; so far the spread of ELF has not led to a change in Chinese HE. It is not surprising to find participant were not familiar with this term.



Q8b: Respondents’ evaluation of their students’ English

Question eight in the second part of the questionnaire also asked the respondents to use one word to describe their students’ English. The majority of the respondents’

comments concerning their student's English were quite negative. The elicited negative descriptions were 'non-standard', 'not idiomatic', 'terrible' 'bad'. It appears that some respondents do not perceive the students as having the necessary skills in English. Those descriptions seemed to take native English as a reference point. Among the few neutral or positive expressions, were such as 'ok', 'good', not bad' and 'so-so'. This finding emerged a few times in other open-ended questions and interviews. I will further explain it in the open-ended questionnaire analysis and the interview chapter.

6.4 Results retrieved from part two

In part two, questions 1 to 13 used a four-point Likert scale question. The choices 'strongly agree' and 'partially agree' have been added together to indicate the respondents' agreement with a particular statement. The choices 'partially disagree' and 'strongly disagree' have been added together to ascertain their disagreement. The analysis and discussion in part two are divided into three sections. The first section contains Q1 and Q2, which mainly relate to a university's internationalization and EMI. The second section (Q3, Q6, Q7, Q8, Q12) explores the respondent's general view towards EMI policies. The third section is about respondents' orientations towards English language (question Q4, Q5, Q9, Q10, Q11, Q13).

6.4.1 Respondents' orientations to internationalisation and EMI

Respondents were asked to react to the first statement "if the university is going to compete at an international level, it has to offer more courses in English". The results have shown that the majority of respondents agreed with this statement. Only 13% of respondents disagreed with it, the majority agreed with the statement that EMI helps the institutions to achieve the goal of internationalisation. The findings may suggest that respondents believe EMI contributes to the internationalisation. In response to the next statement about increasing worldwide influence of teaching more EMI courses, a high proportion (77%) of the respondents were in a agreement. 24% of the respondents were not in favour of this statement. Overall, their responses indicated a positive orientation towards EMI. They seemed to associate EMI with a university's reputation around the world.

6.4.2 Universities' respondents' orientations to EMI and EMI policies.

6.4.2.1 The policy influences

In response to the statement, 'I begin to teach EMI courses/programmes because of the new teaching policies'. 15% of respondents strongly agreed with the statement. 51% respondents ticked 'partially agree' to it. However, 33% of respondents disagree with this idea. The results seem to suggest that the top-down EMI policy could be one possible reason which influences teachers' involvement in EMI, other possible reasons, such as teachers' self-interests, research motivations, and incentives, could also contribute to their involvement.

In response to question six, 'When I teach EMI programmes/courses, I always follow the university language policy', 37% of respondents in my study agreed with this idea, while the majority (60%) of respondents showed their disagreement to this idea. This suggests that, for many respondents, they did not follow the policies. This may suggest that there are always differences between policy as stated and policy as it actually operates at the practical level. The reasons for not enacting the policy will be further explored in the open-ended questions and the interviews.

Moving on to question seven, "I think the EMI policies in my university are clearly written". My respondents seemed to hold a very negative view towards their university policy. Only 22% of the respondents agreed with this statement. 78% of respondents disagreed with this idea. It is possible that my respondents believed that their university policies are vague and do not offer them enough support in pedagogy. So they tend to show negative views to the policies.

For question eight, respondents were asked to react to the statement "I think the current English teaching policy is not concrete, teachers and universities are responsible to interpret it by themselves". 90 respondents strongly agreed with the statement that they have to make adjustment according to their classroom situations. Nine respondents also ticked "partially agree" to this statement. Only seven respondents expressed their disagreement to this question. The finding may tentatively suggest the unfeasibility of the top-down policy. Respondents have to

make adjustments in practice.

Turning now to question twelve, 82% of respondents revealed that EMI language policy expects them to conform to native academic English. However, only 18% of respondents said that they had not been expected to do so. The findings seem to suggest that there is certain policy or regulation which requires respondents to follow the native English norm. It is very likely that how they were required to teach by the policy, would influence their teaching.

6.4.2.2 The internal body's expectations of respondent's English

In response to question nine, 'I feel that students consciously or unconsciously expect a native-like standard of English of me'. The results have shown that 44% of respondents said they had received such pressure from the students, while 66% of respondents said that they felt their students did not expect them to do so. Question ten asked respondents whether the head of department consciously or unconsciously expected a native-like standard of English for teachers. Comparing this result with the previous one, respondents received higher expectations from their head of department, than from the students. Only 26% of respondents said they did not feel that the head of the department expected them to do it. The rest of the respondents believed that their head of department expected a native-like standard of English from, them. This might indicate that university leaders imposed greater pressure on EMI teacher's English. The high expectation from head of the department can be explained by the fact that top-down officials still require teachers to conform to native English. The head of department or EMI students may have different orientations towards EMI teachers' English.

In question eleven, respondents were asked to indicate whether they are encouraged to use English as much as possible. It was not surprising to find the majority (92%) of respondents agreed with this idea, while 8% of respondents disagreed with it. The limited use of English in the EMI has become a great concern for some respondents. Results suggest that they might feel obligated to use more English in the classrooms.

6.4.3 Universities' respondents' orientations towards English language

6.4.3.1 EMI teacher's self-evaluation towards their own English

For question four, respondents were asked to react to the statement “when I teach in English, I am able to express myself clearly. I feel confidence in teaching content subjects in English”. The majority (95%) of respondents thinks they could clearly express their ideas in English. Only 5% of respondents think they could not do this. This question indicates that the majority of the respondents are confident of teaching in English. They may identify themselves as successful EMI teachers. Although this item has gained the support of the majority of respondents, this does not indicate that they have positive attitudes towards their own English. In both the questionnaires and the interviews, I found my respondents have contradictory views towards their own English. This suggests they have complicated views towards English language. I will further discuss this issue in my analysis of open-ended questions in chapter 7.

In response to question five, “the majority of my students are non-native English speakers, so I feel less worried about my English accent when I teach in English”. 61% of respondents expressed their agreement to this statement. The rest of the respondents showed their disagreement with this statement and they seemed still to care about their own English accent. Perhaps some respondents still perceive that there is a certain type of English accent which they aspire to acquire. For some of my respondents, they may have some pre-conceived notion about the correctness of English pronunciation.

6.4.3.2 Respondent's orientations to the types of academic English used in EMI

Question 13 asked respondents to react to the statement “it is more important for EMI teachers to communicate appropriately and effectively rather than exhibit native-like proficiency”. The results have shown that 57% of respondents agreed with this statement, while the rest of the respondents disagreed with it. This finding may indicate that many respondents have realized the need to communicate effectively rather than exhibit native-like proficiency. But to what extent their tolerant attitudes towards English influence their orientations towards English is still

unknown. The finding also suggests that quite a lot of (43%) the respondents tend to believe in the importance of mastering native-like English in educational settings. Presumably, those respondents believe native English is the only correct form of English.

In summary, the quantitative findings have offered preliminary insights on subject teachers' orientations towards EMI, English language and EMI policies. It appears that respondents believe EMI contributes to the university development. The preliminary findings suggest that language policy is one of the factors which contribute to the respondents' strong attachment to native English. However, some respondents seemed not to enact the EMI policy in practice. However, I could not explore why they ticked agree or disagree. The following part will present the findings from the open-ended questions. It was hoped that open-ended questions could explain how respondents perceive those topics in depth.

6.5 The analysis and discussion of the open-ended data in part three

In the following section, I will divide my analysis and discussions into four parts. The first part (Q1) asks respondents to reflect on EMI. The second part (Q2, Q3 and Q4) asks respondents' views towards English use in EMI (students' English, self, other teachers'). The third part (Q5 and Q7) explores EMI teachers' orientations to current EMI policies. It also includes suggestions to revise the current EMI policies and practices. This part also explores the effects of EMI policies on students and teachers. The fourth part (Q6) raises issues concerning language support from NESs. The last subsection asks respondents to make further comments on the research topic. The coding of these questions was based on the themes that emerged from responses and the main themes and sub-themes have been shown in Appendix 4.

6.5.1 Respondents' reflections on EMI

Question one in part three asked for respondents' reflections on teaching content courses in English. My respondents wrote detailed thoughts in response to this question. The coding of this question was based on the themes from the data. The first theme which emerged from the responses was the general concerns of teaching

in EMI. The word 'time consuming' appeared 78 times across the 106 responses. For many of them, it was time-consuming to prepare EMI rather than the Chinese-instruction courses. Many said that EMI was very demanding and they spent more time and effort to prepare the lesson, e.g. "I need a long time to prepare EMI lessons", "I spent more than twice as much time on EMI lesson preparation than Chinese-instruction lessons". Many respondents also said that they found EMI lessons need more teaching time. They noted that they could teach the course faster and in greater depth if they taught in Chinese. Another respondent said "I could easily finish all the teaching requirements if I teach in Chinese, but I could not do this in English". The findings seem to suggest that EMI takes more teaching hours for teachers to fully explain lessons. However, most respondents have been given the same teaching hours as lecturing in Chinese. Because of the time constraint, some respondents revealed that they had to leave out a few topics in the textbook. Thus, results suggest that EMI is challenging for both the teachers and the students.

Not only do teachers need to adapt themselves, but students may also need to adapt to EMI in a limited period of time. A few responses emerging from this question concerned the students' ability to adapt to EMI. Some said they found their students had no experience of learning any content courses through the medium of English; therefore, students need time and learning strategies to adjust to EMI. One respondent said "we can't expect students to do a great job at the start, as they all need time to adapt to this type of teaching". Another respondent, for example, said "in the past, students considered English as a language course. Now they are using English to learn knowledge. Students need to be familiar with it". Thus, using English to teach subjects have also added difficulties for the students whose first language is not English.

Some respondents also mentioned concerns related to teachers' linguistic competence. They said that sometimes they did not know how to explain their ideas accurately in English. This reflects their inconsistent beliefs about their own English (see 6.4.3.1). The following strategies to cope with the language problem could illustrate the point. A few respondents said that they needed to practice their teaching beforehand in order to speak accurately, while they admitted that they seldom do so when they teach in Chinese. Their response indicated that these respondents felt the

need to rehearse their EMI lessons. One of the strategies adopted by respondents to conquer their worries was to make detailed power point slides in English. For example, a respondent said “in order to help me use English to explain knowledge to my students, I like to write detailed English sentences on my power point slides, as I found it was a helpful method to explain the topic more accurately”. Some respondents’ concerns related to their English competence have caused them to rely heavily on the written English instead of speaking English spontaneously. This result correlates with Tange’s (2010) findings. Teachers in Tange’s study also said that they felt confident if they had prepared detailed power point slides.

6.5.2 Demands that universities are making on subject teachers

The data obtained from respondents showed that many of respondents were concerned about the amount of external pressure they received from their university, department and colleagues. The external pressures mainly centred on the expectation for them to speak good and fluent English. Based on the respondents’ answers, the successful implementation of EMI is more associated with the subject teachers’ language skills rather than their pedagogical skills. Some also noted that they had been observed by other senior teachers without any prior notice and felt unhappy about it. They pointed out that they received excessive pressure from the university about their English language skills and disliked such pressure. For example, one of the respondents noted: “I feel uncomfortable. Some of my colleagues often hold a sceptical view towards my English. Some teachers audited my classes. While other teachers who teach in Chinese told me they have never been observed”. These respondents felt that external pressures like those described above decreased their confidence in teaching the course in English.

6.5.3 Students behave differently when they study in EMI

22 respondents mentioned that more questions were raised by the students after the class. One respondent said “we have a certain time for students to ask questions. I found that more students from EMI classes ask questions than those from Chinese instruction classes”. When students read textbooks or listen to lectures, they face much difficulty in understanding the concepts; they were unable to fully understand

the content as they are required. But the interesting finding is that many teachers said that they found students tended to be more active in EMI classrooms. This may be explained by the fact that the groups are usually quite small in EMI classroom. This is advantageous for student participation in class activities. The teacher's personality or teaching style can also help stimulate students' participation.

6.5.4 Incentives for subject teachers

A few respondents pointed out that they receive more research funding when they teach subjects in English. For example, a respondent said "I'm teaching EMI courses and I'm involved in two research projects on EMI. So I've got research funding from my university". Many said they received extra wages for teaching EMI. This can be attributed to the fact that the policy makers in Chinese universities are trying to encourage more teachers to teach in the EMI programmes or do research on EMI. It is a good sign for the development of EMI in China.

6.6 Respondents' orientations towards their own English and other EMI teacher's English

6.6.1 Respondents' orientations towards their own English and their image of good EMI teachers

As discussed in 6.4.3.1, most EMI teachers' self-evaluation towards their own English is quite positive. In order to explore it in depth, question two first asked how respondents perceive their own English. A lot of them described their English in positive terms. The expression 'I'm quite satisfied with my English' appeared 43 times from the 106 responses when asked to self-evaluate their proficiency. The next most frequently cited expression were: "I'm satisfied with my English. I think I can handle my EMI courses". "My English is OK. I'm quite satisfied with it". Some respondents tend to be more confident in reading and writing. In addition, a few respondents also considered communication to be the most important aspect in EMI and believe their communicative ability is good. A respondent said "I'm able to communicate with my students effectively. And I can explain the contents effectively". A similar comment was also made by another respondent: "my English is adequate in EMI, but as a subject teacher, content issue is more critical than a

language issue.” Therefore subject teachers have to face more challenges, though these respondents seemed to be satisfied with their English. Their satisfaction or confidence may come from their overseas study experiences. They all mentioned the benefits of their experiences of interacting with NNEs. Some respondents said their experience of studying overseas provided them with more chances to practice their English in multilingual settings.

Turning to the negative comments, a range of negative evaluations emerged from the responses. Many respondents expressed a negative evaluation of their own English. A few made general points “not good” or “bad”, without giving any reasons or explanations. Many respondents used the words ‘good’ or ‘bad’ to evaluate their English skills in this question (several participants in the interviews also mentioned this point (see 7.6). The most frequently-used expressions are as follows:

“My English is not good enough, not perfect enough”, “My English is not idiomatic. My English is not like a native English speaker. I’ve got Chinese English accent and features while I speak”, “I feel worried about my English. My English might contain grammar mistakes and I used China English, and my English is not authentic. English speakers would not speak in my way”.

The above data shows that these respondents are not very confident about their English and they tend to subconsciously compare their English with a NES’s proficiency. It is worthwhile to point out that nearly all my respondents indicated their desire to improve their English. Even those who seemed to be confident towards their English also mentioned the importance of improving their English. Some respondents thought that subject teachers and students all need to enhance their English skills, especially speaking skills. For example, a respondent said “there should be training courses to develop teachers’ and students’ proficiency in English”, “it’s important for both teachers and students to improve their English skills”. Though many of the respondents did not say clearly that they wanted to improve their English to be as close to NESs as possible, they might felt that that there is a single correct type of English which they aspire to imitate. From what they wrote on the questionnaire, their English proficiency improvement was closely linked with the notion of ‘standard’ and ‘accuracy’. They seemed to take remedial perceptions

towards teachers' and student's English. It is very likely that respondents' orientations are influenced by the standard language ideology with a focus on accuracy. This reason can be used to explain the respondents' answers in the closed questions. This orientation occurred a few times (Q8b in part one, Q14 and Q15 in part two). When respondents evaluated their students English (Q8b in part one), they tended to use negative descriptions to describe students' English. However, there are different types of native English. I wonder which kind of native English they are aiming to follow. It is possible that some of them might just consider all types of native English as being similar.

Question two comprises two parts, the first part of the question asks how teachers perceive their English, the second part of the question asked the respondents to evaluate other teachers' English or the competence other teachers should master. It is interesting to note that about 30 respondents did not evaluate their own English. It appears that they are reluctant to comment on their own English possible, because some respondents may find evaluating their own English difficult and embarrassing. Thus, they tended not to comment on their own English or simply said their English is 'so so'. However, nearly all the respondents pointed out that other subject teachers' English competence is very important and wrote down a few words to describe a qualified teacher's English language. Some considered English speaking skill as the fundamental one. One respondent said "teachers must have a high proficiency in English speaking. They should explain knowledge fluently in English. If a teacher cannot explain the content clearly in English, she/he is not a qualified EMI teacher". This response indicates that some of the teachers care more about their English speaking ability, though many wrote of their expectations of other skills.

Similarly, the most frequently used descriptors are "good" and "so-so". The word 'good English' appeared 48 times from the 106 responses in question two, e.g. "teachers should speak and write *good English*", "*good English* is the fundamental skill for each subject teacher". Some of them also explained what *good English* means, and their explanations can be divided into three categories. First, *good English* refers to the performance that EMI teachers demonstrate who have high proficiency in spoken English. For example, a respondent said "teachers should have good English presentation skills". Second is native English. Though some

respondents did not explain directly what the word ‘good’ referred to, from their further responses, there was a covert assumption that “*good English*” means native English. For example, a respondent said: “subject teachers need to have good English; they should speak fluent English with no strange accent”. Some respondents noted that EMI teachers should make an effort to improve the four basic language skills (listening, speaking, writing and reading). Third, good English concerns academic degrees that those teachers have received in English speaking countries. It’s particularly noteworthy that the respondents assume that those teachers who have been overseas should know English well and be able to communicate with ease in English. They think very highly of Chinese teachers with a PhD in an English speaking country. A respondent said “those staff who received their PhD degree from Britain or America normally have a good command of English. Besides English, they seem to have a comprehensive understanding of the subject knowledge. I think they have advantages in teaching EMI compared with other subject teachers”. “In my department, there are a few teachers who obtained their PhD abroad. I think they speak good English and they are qualified for EMI teaching”. From this we can understand that their concept of “good English” has been broadened to include the notion that NNEs could also speak good English.

In addition, a small number of respondents pointed out that subject teacher should take an English proficiency test. They referred to English exams as a way to select a qualified teacher, with two respondents named CET 6 and two named IELTS. They said that their university did not require teachers to pass any of the English exams. But they all felt those exams are useful tool to assess English proficiency. One of the respondents said: “During my university study, there was no CET. But I took IELTS seven years ago. I was not prepared to go abroad, but I just wanted to see how many points I could earn in this famous test”. The tests mentioned above are designed on NE norms. This may indicate that the respondents prescribed English reference points which could be used to measure subject teachers’ English. They seemed to ignore the fact that those tests often do not measure how people use English language. Presumably, these respondents still think that people who obtain high scores in these exams demonstrate their good English competence. This could be one reason which explains why many respondents drew on the English exams scores when they tried to evaluate each other’s English.

Turning to the negative evaluations of the teachers' English obtained from the data, some respondents were suspicious about other teachers' English; they wrote negative comments saying that not all teachers have adequate English proficiency to teach EMI. For example, one respondent said "I don't think some teachers in my universities are capable of teaching in English". A number of respondents described others' English in a very negative way: "the teachers' English isn't that good". They said that a teacher's inability to use English entirely throughout in a lecture is common. They seemed to believe that those teachers who have less competency in English could not deliver the lesson entirely in English. It seems to them that teachers' English proficiency is determined by the amount of English used in the classroom, rather than evaluating how effectively teachers use language in the classroom. In the close-ended question (Q7), most of the respondents did use a certain amount of Chinese in EMI. Very few said that their classrooms were English-only. It seems that code-mixing is a common practice in the classroom. However, it appears that some respondents hold a negative view towards this practice and many believe code-mixing is not a good way to teach EMI. Many possible reasons could explain this. First, respondents seem to believe that they should use English as much as possible and they feel obligated to avoid using too much Chinese in EMI. Second, in EMI class, using large amounts of Chinese is not considered to be a proper way of delivering the lesson. There is a certain imbedded belief that English-only EMI is better than courses which are delivered partially in English. Third, some respondents perceived code-mixing as a sign of lexical gaps. It seemed that they associate code-mixing with teachers' lack of English ability.

Based on the analysis of the data obtained from the responses to the two parts of question two, we can see that the respondents' orientations towards their own English and others' English tend to be more negative than positive. It is very likely that they used native English norms as the yardstick to evaluate their English. At the same time, I have found that the respondents hold different orientations towards the *good English* of EMI and qualified EMI teachers, but some beliefs are limited and prejudiced to some extent. This might result from their traditional language view, backwash of English testing, and the few opportunities for EMI teachers to take part in high-quality training courses and so on.

6.6.2 Respondents' orientations towards EMI teacher's English in multilingual/multicultural settings

Question three asked respondents to reflect on their English use in multilingual/multicultural settings. According to the data elicited in this question, some respondents wrote of the advantages which such settings would bring to students, for example “a diversity of cultures and ways of doing things”, “international context” and “real context to communicate in English”. After the general comment on the multilingual settings, the word “standard” appears 57 times from the 106 respondents. Some of them wrote phrases like “standard English”, “standard way of speaking”. This may indicate that many respondents still hold more normative perceptions towards English. These respondents believe people who take part in the international context should speak Standard English. Despite the fact that they did not use the word ‘standard native English’, they referred to native English as standard. They pointed out the importance of conforming to native English and achieving intelligibility. For example, one respondent said “people need to use correct English in a multilingual environment to create smooth communication”. Similarly, another respondent said: “we all need to speak standard pronunciation, and this will help the audience to understand you”. The quotations probably show a belief shared among many other respondents. They tended to believe that only native English or near native-like English ensures successful communication. In addition, there were also a couple of responses which referred to China English. They took China English as an example to say that Chinese-influencing-English is inappropriate in the multilingual context and would cause problem for intelligibility.

The second theme which emerged from the responses was that only a small number of respondents have awareness of the varieties of English in multilingual setting. They referred to the word “successful communication” in the multilingual context, but they said less about the notion of conformity to native English. Some of them first described their classes and realized that the setting was different to the traditional classroom. They tried to ensure that both Chinese students and international students understand the courses and benefit from them. The following description from one respondent is a case in point:

I'm teaching three EMI classes, the majority of my students are Chinese. But there are a few foreign students (cannot speak Chinese). Thus, I use English entirely in my classes. In such circumstances, I have to keep in mind that my primary task is to clearly explain the content to all the students. Sometimes I need to adjust my English, and try not to use my Chinese English which is hard for foreign students to understand.

As with the word “intelligible English”, the respondents have different attitudes. Some think it very important, while others do not. A few respondents mentioned the word “intelligible” a couple of times. The primary reason was that a teacher needs to speak English which is intelligible to all the students. For example, a respondent said “as a teacher, I need to make myself understood by both Chinese and international students. My English should be intelligible to them.” But others maintained that language accuracy becomes a less important issue in the multilingual context, and explaining the content courses clearly should be prioritized. Some said they emphasized the importance of the subject matter, and stated: “for me, the subject matter was the most important point, and English was not an issue in my contexts. My duty is to teach knowledge. I just care about the course itself”. For them, the subject matter was more important than the language. Two respondents mentioned their English use in the multilingual/multicultural settings. The English goal will differ considerably for those who use the language mainly to communicate in the multilingual/multicultural settings. For example, a respondent said: “in EMI, we are not teaching English language. I see English as a tool for communication. Communicative effectiveness is a crucial issue”.

6.6.3 Respondents' orientations and evaluation of students' English

Question four asked how subject teachers assess their students' English written work and oral English speech. Though this question did not ask for respondents' general perceptions towards their students' English, a lot of respondents first evaluated the students' English. The responses obtained can be divided into two types. The first type of responses is normative orientations, which respondents believed that students must follow the native English norms. The second type were the flexible orientations

in which respondents tended to accept non-native English and expressed less negative views towards non-native English.

For those who held a normative orientation to their students' English, they tended to use the word 'bad' to describe their students' English. For them, using English correctly is the central issue. For example, a respondent said "the majority of them have bad English. Many of my students cannot speak and write correctly". Another respondent wrote "my students need to improve their writing, listening, speaking and reading skills. They should speak and write English correctly". As explained in 6.6.1, respondents preferred to use the general adjective 'good' or 'bad' to evaluate their own or other teachers' English. When they evaluated the students' English, they still preferred to use those terms. These results were in line with the findings obtained in Q8b in part one of the questionnaires. In addition, a few respondents referred to the difficulty of understanding students' poor English. The same was true of several others who also thought native English facilitated intelligibility in communication. Therefore they maintained that "students must speak and write good English, otherwise, they cannot be understood". Their "good English" is actually referred to as the native English norm. However, it seems that many of the respondents ignored the fact that students could adapt their English in communication where both the interlocutors were responsible for contributing to the successful communications.

Almost all my respondents did not mention the phrase "conformity to native academic English". But they used the words "standard, correctness or errors" many times. These words are often associated with native English norms. For example, one respondent said "I hope my students can write and speak standard English. Their written work should be correct". 40 respondents wrote very negative comments about their students English, and some respondents wrote "their English proficiency is not good enough to benefit from EMI", "their English is terrible".

It is noteworthy that respondents preferred to draw on the CET scores when they evaluated students' English. Nearly all the respondents preferred to use the CET 4 passing rate to reflect their students' English ability. For example, a respondent said "my students' English is not good and the majority of them have not passed the CET 4". Similarly, another respondent wrote "I taught third year students. I don't think

my students were adequately proficient in English. Many of my students haven't passed the CET 4". Their responses suggest CET have a very influential role in their mind, so CET could be regarded as an important indicator of the university students' English competence. They tended to draw on the English tests as the yardstick to measure students' English. They seemed to care more about students' scores rather than how students' use English. They made no attempt to question the validity of this kind of English tests.

Turning to the question of how they assess their students' English written work and oral English speech, the majority of the respondents adopted a normative orientation towards students' written and oral English. They considered their students' English written work and oral speech as something to be "improved" or "corrected". Many required their students to write and speak correct and clear English in both oral and written forms and considered these to be crucial skills in their further work. They thought that students would benefit a lot from this requirement when they graduate from university. Some respondents further emphasized their points, saying that students should use correct grammar and sentence structure in both writing and speaking.

Therefore, the desire for conformity was particularly evident among my respondents. Sometimes respondents justified their normative approach towards the language policy, university requirements, English language tests and future career. They seemed to think that it is the language policy that requires students to conform to correct native English. For example, a respondent said "it is very necessary for my students to write and speak correct English. This is expected by my university. Every student should try their best to use correct English". Another respondent said "all the English exams expect students to use correct native English. As a teacher, my responsibility is to push them to use Standard English."

Similarly, a few respondents also wrote reasons for their students' conformity to native English. The most frequently-mentioned reason was the benefits for students' future study and work. They thought their students would have to use standard English if they wanted to study or work abroad. For example, a respondent said "I require my students to use Standard English. They will benefit from this if they

intend to study abroad”. Another respondent likewise said “if you want to work in a big multinational company, it’s the basic requirement for you to use correct English. You won’t be recruited if your English is not standard”. Their responses indicated their misconceptions about English use in the future. They believe that their students mainly talk with NESs and only native English is equal to intelligibility. The uses of English by NNESs have not been mentioned by the respondents.

Those respondents who have flexible views towards their students’ English gave very positive perceptions of their students’ English. About 40 respondents argued that their students had mastered the fundamental English skills to communicate in the EMI. Some wrote positive comments, such as “their English is good and they could express their ideas clearly”, “my students have a good command of English. We can communicate in the class”. Another respondent said “overall, my students’ English is very good. What is important is that they could explain the content in English and also write an experimental report in English. From my perspective, they are good English users”. Another group which gave positive comments of their students’ English said “my course is an optional course. So all the students are very motivated to learn it and they have very good English”.

Again those flexible respondents also like to refer to the CET 4 to measure their students’ English. As a respondent said, “my students’ English is good and the majority of them have passed the CET 4”. Another respondent said “my students have good English. Nearly all the students have passed the English tests”. Those respondents did not evaluate their students’ English based on how they use English in practice (e.g. in the EMI courses), and they thought that test scores could indicate their students’ English competence. In addition, a few respondents referred to the final examination to argue that their students had adequate English proficiency.

Some of the teachers said that they are willing to accept variation in oral English, and they understood their students’ difficulties in studying EMI. One respondent mentioned: “I never expect them to use 100% of correct English. It’s difficult to require them to use correct English. It might be easier to require them to use correct English in written work, but I won’t require their oral English”. And another respondent said “I never expect them to always use correct English, because I know

it's an unrealistic goal for my students". Respondents seem to have more tolerant views towards their students' oral English than written English, and thus have different attitudes. Though many respondents seemed not to follow a strict normative orientation to assess their students' oral English, they still believe that there is only one correct form of English and that students must follow that norm in writing. The reasons why some respondents took more flexible views will be further explored in the chapter 7.

6.7 Respondents' orientations towards their university's EMI policies

Question 5 asked for respondents' orientations towards their university's EMI policies. The responses can be divided into two categories: not useful and useful. As discussed in the analysis of question 10 in part one, only 35% said that their universities (12 universities) had a stated policy or curriculum for EMI. Among those 35% of the respondents, found the policy not useful. Some respondents said that the policies are vague and not applicable in their teaching context. For example, one respondent said "the document of policy was written by the officials, it is very macro and not really helpful for us". Other reasons given were that policies were just about the rules. As one respondent said "I seldom follow the policies. I have to make the adjustment in my class". Some said that the policy ignores the students' need. A respondent said: "the language policies are devised by policy makers who prioritise their own interests rather than considering the students' needs".

Some respondents criticized their institutional policies. They questioned the compulsory nature of EMI policy in their university. One respondent said: "it's useless and unfair to require every student to learn EMI courses. Not all the students should be required to take a certain number of courses taught in English". Currently, some universities require all undergraduates to take a certain number of courses in English. However, students at undergraduate level might find it difficult to follow the instruction in English. Others criticised their universities for advertising EMI courses/programs. They thought that the policy makers had not considered whether the teachers are ready or not.

Another criticism lies in the proportion of English and Chinese used in teaching. Based on the responses to the questionnaires, we know that each university has different requirements on the proportion of languages used in EMI. In some universities, the respondents are advised to use English-only, but others permit teachers to use a certain percentage of Chinese, normally between 30% to 50%. This finding seems to suggest code-mixing is commonly adopted in EMI classrooms. However, my respondents mentioned that they were under pressure when they used Chinese in EMI. Despite the fact that they said they were allowed to use Chinese, they knew that the policy actually encourages teachers to use English as much as possible. As a respondent wrote: “because of my students’ limited English skills, I need to explain the content in Chinese to help them understand. But I know that the university wants to see English-only classrooms”. Her response could be used to explain why some respondents (in 6.6.1) associated code-mixing to teachers’ lack of English skills. There is hidden meaning embedded in the EMI which might indicate that English-only EMI is superior to other types of EMI. A few respondents who were supposed to use English-only said that they needed to switch to Chinese as well. Their teaching experience tells them that they need to use Chinese as a strategy to accommodate their students. As one respondent said: “ideally EMI teachers should not use Chinese even for terminology explanations, otherwise students just wait for the Chinese. But I can’t use English all the times. I need to explain something in Chinese, especially the content that is most useful for students to master”. Similarly, another respondent said: “the policies are prescribed by the policy makers and are not feasible. In my university, they require us to use 70% of English in their courses. However, students are unable to follow English instruction”. Many of my respondents expressed the dilemma they were in as to whether to follow the policy or not to. They felt obligated to follow it, but they found the reality constrained their use of English.

Turning to the views from a few respondents who found the policies useful, they acknowledged that the policy of EMI in Chinese HE could be useful, for example, “EMI policy would facilitate learning subjects”. Many pointed out that the purposes of the policy are very good, considering the benefit to students, teachers and the university. Those who believe English language policy is beneficial to their students

argue that students were expected to improve their English proficiency and thus to enhance their employment prospects.

Some respondents observed the policy and used an adequate amount of English in the classroom. For example, one respondent said “in my university, English is used for 50% of instruction time”. These respondents seemed to believe that the language policy could ensure that the teachers used adequate English in the classrooms. Similarly, another respondent said “policies are useful. Without policies, teachers could teach whatever they like. Students’ exposure to English largely depends on their teachers. The policy could ensure that the students’ learn more effectively”.

Besides the benefit to the students, many also believe that the policy could encourage teachers to teach EMI which will improve teacher’s academic knowledge and career prospects. For example, one respondent said “as an EMI teacher, I need to read more English books and articles. This helps me to improve my English and my knowledge in my subject”. Similarly, another respondent wrote “thanks to teaching EMI, I was able to read the latest research paper in my area, and I have published two research papers in English”. The other benefit they gain from the policy requirement is that both teachers and students improve their knowledge of foreign languages. Some respondents thought their university policies attract teachers to teach because of the incentives offered to teach in English. One respondent said “teaching EMI courses is awarded double pay. I taught one course, but I earned the money of two courses”.

A few respondents also found their university EMI policies beneficial to their university development. They said policies increase the university reputation and rankings. For example, one respondent said “providing English medium programmes could attract more students’ applications for enrolment in a school. It will enable the university to improve its reputation”. It appears that EMI courses have been used to attract a variety of students and enhance the worldwide reputation of some Chinese universities.

6.8 Respondents' orientations towards English support received from native English speakers

Question 6 asked respondents whether they would like to be supported by a NES who could give them guidance on their English language. 69 respondents revealed that they hoped to get language guidance from NESs. They admitted the benefit of improving their English by speaking with them. Many of the reasons for this overlapped. For example, one said: "I welcome them to my class and offer them language support. They could help me to improve my English". It seems that my respondents think that the NESs could help them to speak and write standard English. In addition, a few respondents said that NESs could tell them what the standard is when they seek advice from NESs teachers, e.g. "I want to use the correct form and I think native English teachers could tell me if it is correct or not", "they could tell me the standard forms and why". It seems that most of my respondents often consider NESs to be the authority. They do not perceive themselves as having the right to question NESs' English. In 6.6.1, almost all the respondents mentioned they wanted to improve their English but did not explain how they would do this. The responses elicited from this question suggest that the respondents think NESs could help them to improve their English. They believe the English used by the NESs is the most appropriate English in HE context. Actually, 20 respondents simply wrote the short responses such as 'yes' and 'of course' without giving any reasons. Presumably, their reasons resonate with those respondents who wrote their reasons down or they do not have good reason to disagree with the statement.

However, 36 respondents said that they were not willing to be supported by NESs. Some of them simply said that they did not think this would help. Some have also raised the problem of pressure from a NES. The following statement is a case in point:

If a native English teacher is sitting in my class, it will pose a negative effect on my confidence. I will question my ability to teach in the class. Then it will also give people the feeling that I'm not competent in English. My English should not be measured by native English speakers.

Many respondents also mentioned the teachers' English training opportunities and supports. Presumably, they considered that the support from a NES and other English trainings opportunities could help them to improve their English. Many took the view that subject teachers received little or no English training. They appreciate the opportunities to study abroad. They believed that studying in English speaking countries would improve their English proficiency. A respondent said "I wish I could receive some sort of training before teaching. I wish I could go to study English in some English-speaking countries". Similarly, another respondent said: "I spent four months as a visiting teacher in Britain last year. But that was the only chance I received of training abroad. I felt my English improved after the four month training. I expected more English training in some English speaking countries". Despite the fact that the majority of the respondents referred to destinations in English speaking countries, a few respondents acknowledged that they were also willing to study in some European countries, such as Germany, Denmark, and Sweden where they thought there were EMI programmes which had a good reputation. A respondent said "I heard that in Denmark, many universities run EMI courses. I'm willing to go to Denmark to observe how they conduct EMI. They may have very similar situations as China. I'll gain more pedagogical implications if I could go to Denmark". These respondents seemed to appreciate the opportunities of studying in these countries, and their purposes were not restricted to English improvement. They also want to gain pedagogical skills to teach EMI. In addition, some noted that they had not been trained to teach the subject content in English. They also complained about the lack of training courses for subject teachers, as one respondent said "we don't have opportunity for training. Our university officials assume that we have sufficient English competence and content knowledge for the job. They just assume that we have no problem". This might suggest that it should not be assumed dogmatically that teachers can implement EMI without any problems. On the contrary, respondents tended to hope to get more support from their universities.

6.9 Suggestions for improving current EMI policies

40 respondents left question seven blank, three of them simply wrote "not care about the policy". These respondents might feel that they have a limited right to engage in

the policy making, because they had not been asked such a question before. The suggestions that these respondents made in response to this question can be grouped into three themes.

The first theme concerns suggestions to enact specific English language regulations to assess students' English. They all believe that students should have adequate English to benefit from EMI. Some hope that such a policy could stipulate concrete requirements for English language skills for the students. As a respondent said "not all the students have sufficient English skills. My university has worked out the general requirements for international students. But sometimes those general requirements are negotiable". Similarly, another respondent said: "we should have a language policy which sets specific requirements for English writing, reading, listening and speaking. It is very necessary to measure the students' English". Their responses might indicate that they believe that certain English language proficiency tests could be used as the indicator to reflect students' English competence. It seems that they prefer that there should be prescribed English norms which could be used to assess students' English. However, they cared less about how their students used English in practice. They relied much on the scores that the students obtained from the English tests, which they have a very positive perception towards in China. Other useful communication strategies have not been mentioned by the respondents.

The second main theme was about the relating to the instruction language for the consideration of the target students. Some respondents argued that EMI teachers should have a clear idea of their target students. Teachers need to make them understood by both international and local Chinese students. For example, one respondent said "in the mixed student class, I have to adjust my English as I have to make sure that the majority of my students can understand the content". Another respondent expressed his concerns about EMI "I found it was difficult for me to explain the content in both languages. If Chinese students do not understand, I use Chinese to explain. The international students might not benefit from this, because their Chinese is not good". As was discussed in 6.7, respondents expressed disagreement concerning the requirements to ask all the Chinese students to have a couple of EMI courses. When asked to write suggestion, some of them criticized the obligatory nature of the EMI courses in their universities. They think that students

should be given more freedom to choose whether they want to be enrolled in the EMI programmes or not, and to decide which courses they want to take. For example, a respondent said “EMI courses should become optional for those who are interested in them. In fact, all of my students are forced to study the course. It’s better to provide several optional EMI courses for those who would like to choose”.

The third theme involves the suggestion concerning the flexibility and dynamics of the policy. With regards to the amount of English use in EMI, there are some opposing ideas. Some said that teachers should decide the amount of English use in EMI, while others suggested that the percentage of English use/ Chinese use would be an unreliable reflection of classroom reality. They hope to be given more freedom to organize their lessons, and they criticized the view of having a unified EMI policy.

6.10 Respondents’ final comments

The final question provided spaces for respondents to write their own comments. About 37 respondents wrote comments in this section. The rest of the respondents did not make any comments. I divided their comments into two parts: comments about the importance of the topic and complaints to their universities.

As with the positive comments on my research, some respondents said that the questionnaire gave them some useful background information about EMI. Others thought that the questionnaire raised important issues for them to consider. For example, a respondent said “this is a useful topic and I’m sure you will find very interesting findings”. Another respondent said “EMI has suddenly become popular among many Chinese universities. I think your research will have important implications for EMI in China”.

There are also a few respondents who want to see my findings. A respondent, for example, said: “I hope to know your results. Could you email your final finding to me when you finish you PhD”. Another respondent wrote “this is a good topic, and I’m looking forward to seeing the result”. 10 respondents commented that the questionnaire had enabled them to reflect on their way of teaching. They wrote

sentences related to their self-reflection. A respondent said “it’s good for me to reflect on my teaching. This “pushed” me to think about policies which I had not considered before”. Similarly, one respondent said “your questions have made me think about those issues. Though I have already finished your questionnaire, I will continue to think of your questions in the future”.

In addition, some respondents expressed their complaints concerning their university. Their major complaints are related to the lack of recognition from the university. Some found that the university did not pay attention to EMI in practice. For example, a respondent said “preparing the lectures requires extra effort. This is not recognized by my university”. Some respondents also criticized the current assessment system for teachers. A respondent said:

In my university, teachers have been assessed every year. But as far as I know, the university does not take our great notable effort in EMI teaching as a useful assessment index. Publication is the most important factor which has been taken account of.

A few respondents also argued that their university did not offer much support for them. They said the university mainly cared about its ranking and students’ enrolment. They felt that the university ignored the pedagogical issues. Additionally, some respondents also complained about their students’ different levels of English in the EMI class. One respondent said: “my students have very different levels of English, some are brilliant, whereas some are bad”. Some of them identified that students’ language support has been provided separately from their EMI courses, and the English language courses have not helped them to study the EMI courses. They believe that the students’ inadequate English hinders them from benefiting a lot from EMI. They called for extra English language training for those weak students.

6.11 Discussion and Conclusion of the questionnaire study

The findings obtained from the responses to questionnaires have partly helped to gain a general ideal about how subject teachers perceive EMI, EMI policy and

English use in Chinese HE. In this section, I will discuss the findings of the research questions in relation to the previous literature.

Though EMI in Chinese HE has been fully promoted since the year 2007, many respondents said that EMI is a developing phenomenon. Currently, Chinese students represent the majority of students in EMI courses in Chinese universities. But some respondents also revealed the large proportion of international students enrolled in some EMI programs. In those contexts, respondents are using English as an academic lingua franca. In addition, given the rapid promotion of EMI, it might be expected that there will be a great increase of international students to study in China by the year 2020. Despite the fact that the overwhelming majority of the respondents have been overseas and have experienced English use in the global contexts, most of them have not related the global spread of English to English use in China.

Overall, internationalisation of HE has become an important agenda for the majority of universities in China. My respondents were aware that EMI had also been encouraged as a way to promote the internationalisation of their universities. With regard to the RQ 1 a (a. What are the subject teachers' orientations towards EMI and English use in Chinese universities?). The results from the questionnaires reveal that respondents generally expressed positive perceptions towards the EMI. However, many of them also expressed their concerns about EMI in the open-ended questions. Their concerns are related to teachers' or students' English proficiency, university's management, English training opportunities, effective course instructions and the period needed to adjust to EMI. Some stressed the importance of having training courses before teaching on them. Many respondents believe that both students and teachers need to adjust to this new form of education. They think that they need to spend more time on preparing the lessons. Some said that they received more external pressure when they were involved in EMI, such as, students' expectation of 'good' English and clearly explained content, senior teachers' frequently observing their lessons. Generally speaking, most of their concerns are reflected in the EMI literature (e.g. Byun et al., Doiz, et al. 2011; Erling & Haigendorf, 2006; Tange, 2010; Wang & Liu, 2010; Zhao, 2012). What's more, some respondents complained that they have multiple roles. They consider themselves to be the subject teachers, but many students and even other teachers expect them to teach English language.

This finding indicates that EMI in China still has ambivalent teaching goals. As explained in the literature, there are still no consensus views to the teaching purposes of EMI. My questionnaire findings suggest that it is unrealistic to require teachers to teach both language and content. Focusing on content appears to be more realistic in EMI courses. Therefore, a clear target for implementing the EMI is much needed.

The questionnaire findings also helped to answer research question RQ1 b. (What are the subject teachers' orientations towards their own and other subject teachers' English? How do subject teachers evaluate their students' English?). With regard to their orientations towards their and other teachers' English, they seem to have a native-oriented idea of English towards their own and other teachers' English. The majority of respondents took the "conforming approaches" and contrasted their or others' English with a NES. Some expressed a negative view concerning the Chinese-influenced English use. Standard native English is seen as the most appropriate form of English in Chinese HE among the majority of respondents. This view is frequently expressed by the majority of respondents. In addition, they identified the language issues as a linguistic challenge for both teachers and students. They said both students and teachers need to make efforts to improve their English, as they felt their English is not sufficient for EMI. They showed their concerns about other teachers' English. They take the view that not all of the subject teachers' have adequate skills for teaching in English. Many of them think that they are teaching subjects in English, so they need to refer to a specific model (often American/British English) to guide their English. This perception has been mentioned many times. Though some respondents did not directly say that they hope to follow native English norms, nearly every respondent mentioned the word 'good' English'. This expression actually has strong connotations with native English. In addition, words such as 'standard', 'correct', 'authentic' appeared many times. Most of the respondents still relied on the test scores of students to evaluate their students' English. They did not question or doubt the effectiveness of using English tests exclusively to assess students' English use. Based on their responses from the questionnaire, those students who had passed CET 4 had obtained enough English competence for the EMI courses. Although CET 4 is purely an English language competence test, it does not test students' English competence in academic settings. The respondents appear to believe that CET4 is a reliable test of students who are

enrolled in the EMI courses. Most of the respondents consider native English as the most appropriate form in academic settings and they never attempt to show disagreement with native English. This finding is in line with several previous studies (e.g. Jenkins, 2014; Kirkpatrick and Xu, 2002; Evans, 2011).

As was discussed in Chapter four, standard native English ideology could be used to explain my respondents' attitudes to native English. The strong attachment to native English which has been reflected in the responses to the questionnaire denotes Woolard's (2005) ideologies of anonymity and authenticity. With regard to the notion of the anonymity, my respondents seem to take for granted that they need to use English to teach subject content. Many of respondents' also listed the benefits of teaching subject content in English. They made no attempt to question which kind of English is appropriate in Chinese HE. With regard to the notion of the authenticity, they appear to totally agree with the fact that native English is better than other English varieties. Even though some respondents refer to non-native English or Chinese-influenced English, they tend to believe those Englishes are not the standard. When asked to give suggestions on some revision for the EMI policies, some still hope that the policy could provide the English reference points to assess students' English ability, though they had previously believed the policy not useful. Their suggestion indicates that they believe native English norms are reliable to assess students' English competence. Their strong normative views may also be influenced by their Chinese ideology, norms and standards are highlighted in the Chinese language (see 4.2.4). This may influence subject teachers' orientations to English language. In fact, subject teachers have fewer opportunities to access books about applied linguistics, especially the growing literature in Global Englishes. Thus, they may also assume that they have no right to question standard native English.

On the other hand, a few respondents acknowledged the importance of communicating effectively and seemed to take a more flexible approach to native English. When asked to evaluate students' and teachers' English, they wrote positive orientations to their English and said they all have adequate English to benefit from EMI. Some of respondents also noted that they accept some divergence from native English norms sometimes, especially in spoken English. However, their answers were not consistent in all the questions. For example, in question two (part three), a

respondent expressed a strong normative view and identified the problem of both teacher and students' English. While, in question four, this respondent seemed to take flexible view to evaluate their students' English. Similarly, another respondent who emphasized the importance of communicating effectively and also evaluated other teachers' English positively. But later he still considered code-switching to be a gap of knowledge and he problematized teachers' use of Chinese in the instruction. It appears that those respondents who have a more flexible view towards students' English, they often have more tolerance towards students' spoken English compared with than written English. When they refer to written English, they emphasized the native norms again.

In fact, a lot of my respondents expressed similar contradictory views in the response to questionnaires. Thus, the questionnaire findings seem to suggest that the prevailing orientations among those respondents was that they still believe there is only one correct form of English, and any divergence from native English is seen as errors. The number of respondents who expressed flexible views towards native English is relatively small. It is also possible that they adopted the flexible view mainly because of practical issues, such as large classes. It appears impossible for the teachers to pay attention to students' linguistics competence. In addition, the questionnaire results have shown that some respondents anticipate the difficulties that students would encounter in EMI. Many respondents were more likely to understand their students' difficulties. They realised writing essays or experimental reports represents their students' first time of writing academic English. So they do not expect students to conform to native English. Thus, the practical constraints could be one possible reason to explain why some respondents' hold more tolerate views to Chinese speaker's English.

Turning to the RQ1 c. what are subject teacher's orientations towards their university's EMI policies and practices? The findings from the questionnaires illustrated complex findings. Around 30 % of the respondents said that there are EMI policies in their universities, while about similar proportion of the respondents said that there is no such policy or they have no idea if such as policy exists in their institutions. The findings suggest that subject teachers did not have the identical understanding of EMI policies. It appears that there might be covert EMI policy in

their universities. This might suggest that different teaching approaches could be discovered in different university contexts. As discussed in chapter 4, my study drew on Spolsky's language policy theory. He conceptualises policy as language ideology, language practice and language management. Thus, exploring teachers' orientations to EMI and English language appears to be very crucial to the understanding of the policy.

The majority of the respondents found EMI policy not useful, since many believe it is vague and not helpful in practice. They have to make adjustments to the official policies. Some respondents complained about EMI policies for never considering the students' needs and the teachers' voices. As was discussed in 3.5.1, many universities require all Chinese students to obtain some credits from EMI courses before graduation. However, the respondents said that the students have very different English competence and motivations. These differences have posed challenges for the subject teachers. Thus, many respondents argue that EMI courses should only offer to highly motivated students. They dislike the uniform policy which requires all the Chinese students to take EMI courses. The major reasons given were related to some students' weakness in English and the lack of qualified subject teachers.

In addition, some respondents question the fixed regulations related to the proportion of English/Chinese use in EMI courses. They found that this requirement is neither useful nor practical at all. Their negative responses might suggest they did not follow it in their classroom. The results demonstrated that they were required to use English-only or use English as much as possible, but their responses seemed to suggest that they could not follow the implicit policy due to the practical constraints, such as the students' English proficiency, and content difficulties. The results of the questionnaire indicate the reality of both Chinese and English co-existing in EMI classrooms. This finding is in line with the previous studies in EMI (e.g. Bolton & Kuteeva, 2012; Doiz et al., 2013; Byun et al., 2011; Yu & Yuan, 2005), which indicate that lecturers use both local language and English in the EMI classroom in the Expanding Circle countries. Due to the fact that, two forms of EMI exist in Chinese HE (discussed in chapter 4), many university's EMI policies have not been clearly distinguished. But for those respondents who teach the EMI courses (entirely

in English), they have the perception that their instruction should be taught exclusively in English. Though some universities stipulated the English-only policy for EMI, it did not mean that teachers use English as the only means of communication in the classrooms. Therefore it seems that the implementations of EMI practices are largely dependent on the individual teachers, not on the EMI policies.

Those respondents who found the policy useful tended to highlight the long-term benefit for the students, teachers and the universities, and they did not associate EMI policies with their own specific teaching contexts. Some said that the EMI policy could standardize the teaching practices, ensure the general teaching quality and improve students' subject knowledge and English competence. Some also identified the positive links between the EMI policies and the university's ranking and recruitment.

In summary, the findings from the questionnaire demonstrate some preliminary findings of how subject teachers perceive the EMI and EMI policy in China, and of how EMI policies are actualized in practices. It is also crucial to point out that most of the respondents' understandings of the policy are limited to the policy document itself. They seemed to ignore the association between language policies and language practices. They generated the view that they have little engagement in the policy formation. The questionnaire results also reveal that the majority of respondents think native English is a superior model to fulfil the communication needs in HE. However, due to the limitations of the questionnaires, I could not explore in depth why my respondents chose a particular answer on the questionnaire and what their responses meant. Thus, in the next chapter, I will describe and analyse the results of the interviews with 14 participants to provide deeper understanding of teachers' orientations towards English language policies and practices. Some of the findings from the questionnaires were confirmed by the interviews.

Chapter 7: Orientations Elicited in the Interviews

7.1 Introduction

As discussed in 5.7, interviews are used in this research to find the in-depth understanding of teachers' personal perspective and gain insights into their orientations towards EMI. This chapter first explains the interview data analysis procedure. Then it discusses results in order to explore reasons underlying subject teachers' orientations and practices. The interview results are presented in terms of the coding categories and the major themes that emerged from the data. This chapter helped us further understand subject teachers' orientations to EMI, English and EMI policies.

7.2 Interview data Analysis methods

To analyse 14 semi-structured interviews, I again employed content analysis as the main analytical tool (see 6.2). Content analysis provided me with the way to know 'what' the participants said. However, it is also useful to explore 'how' the participants expressed their ideas. During the interviews, the meaning was co-constructed between me and my participants. Interviews contain the interlocutors' positions. For example, sometimes when I talked about my understanding of English or my experiences of using English during the interviews, some participants reiterated or changed their position to the themes which I intended to explore. Thus, this made me think about an analytical framework which could enable me to explore the dynamic features of the interviews. In order to fulfil my purposes, I drew on positioning theory (Van Langenhove and Harré, 1999) as my analytical framework. I found my participants' positions were continually changing during the interviews, in relation to the topic under discussion, as well as my orientation to it. Positioning theory can help me to understand the complexity of subject teachers' orientations to English and EMI policies.

Positioning theory has been employed as a useful analytical tool in applied linguistics (e.g. Jenkins, 2004; King & Fogle, 2006). King & Fogle (2006) studied the parents' perspective on family language policy for bilingual children. They used

the ethnographic interviews to explore how parents position themselves in relation to experts' advice and other family member's opinion. Similarly, Jenkins' (2014) recent book made use of Positioning Theory to analysis the international students' position on English and English language policies/practices in the un-structured interviews. Jenkins found several of her participants expressed contradictory views to some of her research topics in the interviews.

Van Langenhove and Harré (1999) see positioning as a more dynamic form of social role. Apter (2003: 23) states: "positioning theory sees positions as ephemeral, changing, and open to dispute in the sense that one person can refuse to accept the other's interpretation and attempt to impose his or her own". According to positioning theory, positions are emerging over time from conversations. The dynamic nature of positioning can help me to understand my participants' orientations during the interviews. My interviews were interactive and dynamic. Participants in the interviews positioned themselves or were positioned during the interactions.

In addition, Van Langenhove and Harré (1999: 20-23) categorise various modes of positioning, such as first and second order positioning, performative and accountive positioning, self and other positioning, tacit and intentional positioning. Among those modes, I found that the first and second order positioning was most relevant to my interview analysis. Van Langenhove and Harré (1999: 20) point out "first order positioning refers to the way persons locate themselves and others; a second order positioning "occurs in which the first order positioning is questioned and has to be negotiated". During my 14 semi-structured interviews, I found that my participants often did not have the same opinion from the beginning to the end, but they had changed positions during the interviews. It is important to note that participants changed their positions in relation to the topics and to my position. Thus, it is helpful to use positioning theory to describe the dynamics of the interactions during the interviews.

7.3 Analysing the interview data

After I completed the interviews, I listened to each recorded interview carefully and tried to become familiar with the data. Then all the interviews were transcribed into Chinese first in order to acquire a better understanding of them and also to have the material in a form easy to refer to in the actual analysis (see appendix 15 for an example of transcription). The transcription conventions used in my interview data analysis are adapted from Jenkins (2014: 220). Appendix 14 shows the interview transcription conventions in this study.

The advantage of self-transcribing was that it helped me to familiarize myself with the data. I also transcribed some of the prosodic features such as pauses, laughter, and emphatic stress. I wanted to analyse not only what my participants said but how they said it. Prosodic features help me to interpret my participants' orientations. As Jenkins (2007: 210) notes some prosodic features "may provide richer insights than the referential content alone... and to identify any influence of the interviewer on what the participants say". It is important to note that sometimes the participants would further explain their positions verbally. Thus I discussed those prosodic features when necessary. The prosodic features were transcribed in two rounds. In the first round I transcribed more noticeable prosodic features such as laughter and strong emphatic stress, and then transcribed features such as intonation rising and short pauses in the second rounds. Features such as, intonation rising, short pauses, require repeated listening to the recordings.

According to the content analysis proposed by Dörnyei, I used initial coding followed by second-level coding. Miles and Huberman (1994) suggest that the researcher needs to read carefully all the data before the data analysis. First, I read the transcripts and the notes several times in an attempt to uncover the prominent topics. Then, I wrote comments next to the transcription after repeatedly reading my transcripts. At the same time, I tried to identify the prominent data segments and translate them into English. During my translation process I evaluated whether the translated version accurately represented the original text.

To further examine those data segments, I identified the key words in each segment. I then carefully grouped the key words thematically, and supported them by the quotations of transcripts. After carefully reading those key words, some prominent topics were identified. The identification of prominent topics was the initial coding (Dörnyei, 2007) of the interview data. My initial coding produced 32 emergent categories relating to the research questions. After the initial coding, I re-read the interview data and began a second-level coding. I tried to re-organize the initial coding into themes. During this stage, I tried to eliminate, combine or subdivide the first-level of codes. I managed to identify three larger themes which connected the codes. The larger themes were as follows:

- 1. Perceptions of English use in EMI and relevant issues**
 - a. Concerns about teaching in EMI**
 - b. The difficulties in teaching and learning subjects in English**
- 2. Orientations⁷ to EMI policies and practices**
 - a. Teachers' orientations to the English language requirements in the EMI policies**
 - b. Orientations to code-switching in EMI**
- 3. Orientations to English language**
 - a. Orientations to their own and their students' English**
 - b. Orientations to language support for the students and the teachers**
 - c. Orientations to how to assess students' written and spoken English**

It is important to point out that the three larger themes for analysis have their sub-themes and that all the themes are interrelated. After identifying the codes and themes, I printed out all the transcriptions and highlighted some parts particularly relevant to the themes, then I analysed the major themes and made interpretation based on the extracts. However, this does not indicate that all four steps were separated. As a researcher, I was engaged in ongoing processes of interpretation of the data, in all stages.

In the following section, I discuss the first of the main themes: 1. Perceptions of English use in EMI, and I will present EMI teachers' ideas via direct quotes in our interviews. In order to protect the participants' identities, I deleted their university

⁷ Orientation denote a persona; attitude ,percetion or belief.

and the department they were working in. The detailed description of the participants' background can be found in Chapter five (see 5.7.2.2).

7.4 Perceptions of English use in EMI and relevant issues

Participants all commented on the use of English when teaching subjects in Chinese universities and the majority expressed a positive reaction to the use of English. Several participants said they voluntarily applied to teach EMI courses. Many shared their application experiences of teaching EMI courses in their universities. Most of them thought that teaching courses in English promoted their awareness of reading and thinking in English. They tended to believe EMI enriched their professional career. In addition, they also referred to the advantages for students in EMI programmes, saying that EMI helped students to improve their English so that they could continue their postgraduate study overseas and find good jobs. At the same time, they all accept the role of English as an international language. For example, T2 said: “you need to master English(.)if you could speak English and you can communicate with people all over the world(.)as it’s an international language”. Nearly all participants pointed out that ‘English is an international language’ during the interviews. But they never questioned the idea that English was regarded as an international language. When asked about their attitudes towards EMI, most of them seemed to have no doubt about EMI at the beginning. T1 said she liked this form of teaching and believed EMI to be beneficial to her students. She said: “it can help students boost their career prospects and learn academic terms in English”. T14 said: “I find the teaching very delightful(.)my students all have strong motivation to learn and I like to teach them in English(.)for the majority of them(.) they will benefit a lot from EMI courses”. Some stated that EMI in China is a recent trend and it was first initiated by the government. As T 6 said: “almost every university offers some courses in English(.)actually this is required by the MoE(2)EMI has been promoted in the very recent years”. Some also said EMI has helped her university to achieve the internationalisation and to recruit more fee-paying students.

However, when we began to discuss various issues involved in EMI, such as students' language competence, numerous teaching tasks and the challenging courses in their universities, some respondents changed their position on EMI. Many

outlined the difficulties and concerns in teaching courses in English. Two issues were frequently mentioned during the interviews: the first one was whether Chinese universities have sufficient resources to offer EMI courses, and the second was the perceived difficulties in teaching and learning subjects in English.

The following extract is from the interview when I told T5 of the recent expansion of EMI programmes and the universities' latest plan of becoming international university, she changed her position to EMI and expressed her doubts/concerns about EMI in China. In fact, four other participants altered their positions to some extent after we discussed the rapid expansion of the EMI courses in China. T5 in the following extract, describes EMI as “a luxury good” during the later stage of our interview.

Extract 1

- 1 T5: ermI think EMI in China is a luxury good
2 L: why? what do you mean by this?
3 T5: EMI in Chinese universities is a popular trend(.) It's like a fashion trend
4 fashion trend you know(.) the EMI was first initiated by the Ministry of
5 Education(.)then EMI becomes a very popular type of instruction in many
6 universities(.) in fact I think for many universities (.)they are not capable
7 of teaching subjects in English(.)but the universities are all eager to
8 receive support from the Ministry of Education which would suggest a
9 good reputation and more economic benefit for them(.)so(.)some
10 universities strive for implementing EMI courses (.)this is as if someone
11 want to buy luxury goods(.)but he/she does not have enough
12 money(.)she/he may borrow the money to keep up appearances

When I mentioned some universities' strategies of implementing EMI programmes in order to attract more international and Chinese students, T5 initiated the talk on the topic of Extract one. This suggests that she was willing to tell me her perceptions of EMI again. T5 drew an analogy between EMI and luxury goods. She described EMI as “a very popular trend” and “a fashion trend”. She repeated the words “fashion trend” twice; this might suggest that she had a negative view on EMI in China. This is because the word ‘fashion’ normally has no connection with education in China, and it indicates something which is popular at a particular time and lasts for a short time. She also pointed out that some universities provided EMI courses simply because of the funding stimulus and good reputation which EMI could bring about. It can be interpreted that some universities do not have sufficient resources to

teach courses in English. But those universities still claim that they are well-prepared to conduct EMI, “to keep up appearances”. Though T5 has a positive position on EMI at first, she seemed to have very cautious positions on the development of EMI in China. T5 felt that the most important thing was whether the universities have the adequate resources to offer EMI or not. Other respondents (T3, T6, T11, T13) likewise expressed sceptical views on the rapid expansion of the EMI programmes in China. They also pointed out that EMI need some prerequisites, such as competent teachers, many motivated students and good textbooks or software.

In addition, it should be noted that a few respondents emphasized that EMI is not simply a way to use English power point slides and English textbooks. They pointed out that the university needs to think about the unique features of their EMI, such as using special software, arranging an internship in foreign-owned enterprises, and organizing various discussions. Extract two is from the interview with T13 after she questioned the EMI implementations. T13 began her talk by mentioning poor conditions that the faculty should notify before conducting EMI. She was trying to elaborate the prominent characteristics of EMI courses.

Extract 2

- 1 T13: sometimes I feel we are paying too much attention to English(.)I
 2 think that the EMI course should have its prominent own features(.)
 3 if the faculty does not have good working conditions nor have good
 4 textbooks good content erm(4)
 5 L: good teachers
 6 T13: yes good teachers yes(.)EMI pose high requirements to the
 7 teachers(.) textbooks and content(.).if we do not have this
 8 software(.) then what will you teach? Just explain some English
 9 vocabulary? I don't think it's helpful(.) you just teach the
 10 vocabulary(.)What I want is to first explain the theory
 11 and then ask students to use the software
 12 L: it's good to have such kind of software to facilitate your instruction
 13 T13: yes certainly the EMI course does not simply mean to use English
 14 to teach the course or just to find an English textbook and to read
 15 the texts in English(.)it's meaningless
 16 L: yes
 17 T13: yes some teachers just grab an English textbook and read it in
 18 the classroom(.)can you perceive any meaningful effect

T13 believed that using English itself would not distinguish her course from other EMI courses. The “prominent features” which T13 referred to include good EMI text books, well-selected content and competent teachers. In the previous exchange, T13

also mentioned and repeated the importance of the software, i.e. helping her students to apply theories into practice. This can be seen in extract two. So we may infer that using new software is an innovative and prominent feature in her teaching. In addition, she held a negative position on those teachers who merely read English from the textbook without offering students' any other support. From line 17 to 18, her remarks might indicate that some teachers rely heavily on the English textbook and make no effort to elaborate the content in their own words.

The topic of the difficulties in teaching and learning subject in English has been raised by the participants. Several of them pointed out that they spent a longer time to prepare the English lessons and they had to finish the English lessons in a limited period. When they talked of the time limitations they meant that sometimes they could not finish the assigned course content. Comments on time constraints in EMI have been frequently raised in the interviews. The following extract is from the interview when discussing the EMI policies of her university.

Extract 3

- 1 T2: I started to teach this course three years ago I remember I spent
 2 much longer time to prepare the course in English
 3 L: yes it's time consuming I can imagine
 4 T2: five years have passed erm I still have to prepare it carefully(.) to
 5 be familiar with the English terms(.)I revised my power point slides
 6 each time I spent much longer time to prepare EMI than I do for
 7 lecturing in Chinese(.)but I could not finish [so much content
 8 L: [yeah how
 9 T2: because we use English and we have to translate some key content into
 10 Chinese(.)I have to speak slower if I speak in English
 11 L: yeah(.)it is so difficult for you erm you may need more teaching hours
 12 T2: yes it's VERY DIFFICULT (.) lecturing in Chinese would need one
 13 hour but we need more than one hour to finish in EMI (.) the
 14 university still expects us to finish within the 15 weeks(.) we haven't
 15 been given any extra time
 16 L: can you negotiate it with the department?
 17 T2 no (.) no extra time (.) the department cannot give extra time and I
 18 I can do nothing

T2 began to introduce her teaching experiences to me. T2 mentioned the extra time she spent on preparing the lessons. She also pointed out that using English to teach the content is more time-consuming than using Chinese. T2 strongly emphasized the words 'VERY DIFFICULT'. This seems to suggest she had a strong perception of

the time constraints as a result of English instruction. She then elaborated her points by complaining about not being given any extra time. T2 felt that the department had not considered the difficulties. She positioned herself as having no right to ask for more teaching hours. In fact, other participants also shared this opinion that EMI courses should be allocated more teaching time. In order to solve the problem, most of them said they have had to cut out some of the content to adapt to the practical situation. But they could not justify the adaptation, as T7 expressed: “many students expressed their concerns that PGR entrance examinations would include the exercises which I didn’t have time to explain”. It seems that participants tend to believe that English use or bilingual use of English and Chinese is more time-consuming and this would lead to time shortage.

In addition, there seems to some confusion over what role they should play. Several participants complained that they were expected to teach the English language. As T8 said: “I have been assigned many roles but I know I should teach the subject not English”. All the participants said they only considered themselves as the subject teachers. They highlighted that their role is different from English teachers. Some of them (e.g. T3, T7, T8, T10, T13, and T14) mentioned that their students normally have a limited amount of English input. They found that their students expect them to take the role of English language teachers. Thus, EMI courses are seen as good opportunities for students to learn and use English language.

Several participants also described the difficulties for Chinese students studying subjects in English. They pointed out that the considerably greater effort that their students had to exert on learning the subjects through English. They said EMI has an accelerated disadvantage for Chinese students who are not good at English. T5 criticised EMI for decreasing the chances for some students’ to get high scores in the final exams. Because she said: “students are more likely to get 90 points if the course was taught in Chinese(.)now they could only gain 70 points”. In the questionnaires, a lot of the respondents expressed concerns about the compulsory nature of the EMI courses (see 6.7). Again this issue was emphasized by some of the participants in the interviews. Those participants expressed their disagreement over the policy which requires all the Chinese students to study one or two EMI courses. They pointed out that those students who are obliged to study EMI courses often

lack any interest. They suggested that the university give students more freedom to choose EMI courses or not.

7.5 Orientations to the EMI policies and practices

The second theme comprises teachers' orientations to their institution's EMI policy and practices. The sub-themes that emerged from the first main theme were: teachers' orientations to the English language requirements made in the EMI policies and teachers' orientations to code-switching in the EMI

7.5.1 Teachers' orientations to the English language requirements in the EMI policies

Half of the participants expressed a positive orientation to the EMI policies in general; the prominent reasons given were that policy would ensure the quality of EMI. They believed policy to be particularly useful to students. They seemed to have unquestioning beliefs in the crucial roles of EMI policy at the start of the interview. For example, T11 said: "policy could ensure teachers use erm erm the adequate amount of English in the classroom(.)I think students will improve their content knowledge and English language". Many had similar perceptions during the interviews. They also associated students' academic and English improvement with the amount of the English used in the classroom. However, some of them (T9, T10, T14,) changed their positions when we discussed the policy implementation. They said they all had to change the stipulated policy based on their classroom situations. The other half of the participants (e.g. T1, T2, T3, T7, T8, T13) felt consistently that the EMI policy was not useful. They said the policies are vague, use clichés and are decided top-down. Most of the given reasons were overlapped with the responses from the open-ended questionnaires. These participants also raised further concerns for implementing EMI. For example, T13 held a strong negative view on the top-down policy. She said: "the current English policy is vague and NOT USEFUL(.) erm(.)NOT USEFUL". The emphatic stress and repetition of 'not useful' suggests that she was holding a strong negative attitude towards the policy. She went on to explain that the top-down policies have no value for teaching and expressed critical

views on policy makers: “who are sitting in their office and drinking a cup of tea, how can we expect them to make good policy”. She seemed to lose confidence about policy makers and the policy.

As with the English language requirements in the EMI policy, the issue of how much English to use in EMI has been frequently identified as a recurring topic for my participants. Ten participants said their university EMI regulations do stipulate the exact percentage of English used in teaching, normally more than 50%. However, the majority found it is not useful. They argued that the uniform regulation did not consider the students’ real needs. Many of them described the prescribed classroom language use as not do-able in practice and some revealed that they did not follow the prescribed policy in practice. As discussed in chapter 4, there is always a gap between language policies and language practices. This has been reflected in the interviews.

In the following example, T9 teaches Java Language Programming at a university in Beijing. Extract four is from the interview with T9 and is about her views on the EMI policy in her university.

Extract 4

- 1 L: what do you think of it?
2 T9: on(.) yes(.) VERY useful(.) it could help students to study
3 more effectively(.)
4 L: why
5 T9: the policy could guarantee the EMI teaching quality (.) for
6 example the policy requires teachers to use English (.) then
7 teachers will provide English instruction (2) policy also prescribes
8 an incentive plan
9 L: an incentive plan?
10 T9: to motivate more teachers to teach EMI when they offer financial
11 incentives for EMI teachers
12 L: what about English(.)is there any requirements for English
13 T9: yeah (.)for example, in my department the policy prescribes the
14 amount of English should be used in the EMI classroom(.)
15 teachers prepared their PPT slides in English(.) teacher
16 should speak English most of time(.)no less than 60% in the
17 classrooms
18 L: what do you think of it?
19 T9: this is good for the students(.) many students do not have many
20 chances to use it
21 L: so you use 60% of English
22 T9 em(.)sometimes I do need to change it according to my students

- 23 L: you find it not feasible to some extent
 24 T9: yes I have to see if my students could understand
 25 L: any requirements on which kinds of English should be used in EMI?
 26 T9: (5)good English erm your should have good English proficiency(.)
 27 of course we need to have good English proficiency
 28 L: does the policy include this
 29 T9: no(.) we don't have written rule for such details

T 9 began by saying that language policy is useful to students and believed that the policy requirements for teaching in English could bring benefits to students. The emphatic stress on the word 'very' suggests that she's holding a strong position on the usefulness of the policy. Since the policy in her university specified financial incentive plans for teachers, the policy was also seen as encouraging more qualified EMI teachers to teach courses in English. She did not mention any concrete requirements for English teachers or students, but she said the policy could help to ensure the adequate amount of English that students receive in the class. When I tried to confirm if she used the 60% of English that the university requires, she said she implemented it flexibly. Later T9 said the requirement was not feasible. Although she felt that the policy was useful, she adjusted it to suit the needs of the students. She positioned herself as not entirely implementing the policy in practice, especially the prescribed percentage of English use. She tended to regard this requirement as not applicable. Later, when asked which kinds of English she was expected to teach, after a long pause, in line 22 she said, 'good English'. The long pause may indicate that she felt a bit surprised to hear this question. Or she might never have thought about this issue before the interview. Her response, 'good English' is always expected, despite the fact that there was no overt requirement in the policy. In fact, the response like 'good English' or 'correct English', appeared in almost all the interviews. This will be discussed in detail under the theme of orientations to English in EMI later in section 7.7.

Similarly, the following extract is from the interview with T12 about policy issues. T12 expressed contradictory positions on EMI policy during our interactions. He changed his position when he heard about some other teachers having the same problem in practice.

Extract 5

- 1 L: Does your university have any English policy related to EMI
2 T12: erm(.)erm(5)there is a teaching guideline
3 L: does this guideline have any requirements in English language
4 T12: yes. The policy encourages more teachers to teach in English(.)
5 I think it's good for students erm requirements also encourage
6 teachers to attend the English trainings and to improve their English
7 L: you said the language policy encourages the teacher to use English
8 T12: yeah(.)the policy require us use the adequate amount of English(.)
9 we should use English no less than 50% in the classroom
10 L: do you find it helpful?
11 T12: yes yes(.)er I think this will promote teaching and learning
12 L: right(.)but some teachers said it's hard to follow this requirement(.)
13 a bit difficult to measure the percentage erm erm(.)50% or 70%
14 T12: yes it is difficult to follow(.)i never count this(.)what I could do is to
15 estimate roughly(.)each teacher has different teaching styles
16 L: ok you said the teaching guidelines require you to improve your English
17 T12: yes
18 L: does it tell you to what level you should improve?
19 T12: (3)erm no it is not specifically prescribed but policy is seen as
20 something to motivate teachers and students to improve

The responses from the questionnaires show that some universities did not have an English policy related to EMI. So I initiated the topic and asked T12 if there was any English policy related to EMI. After a noticeable long pause, T12 said there is *a teaching guideline* in line two. The word 'erm' and the long pauses seemed to indicate he felt hesitant in answering this question. He did not say yes or no directly, but just use "*a teaching guideline*". This may also indicate that he was not familiar with the EMI policy in his university. Meanwhile, this reveals that T12 felt uncertain about whether this teaching guideline could be English policy or not. But he still thought the EMI regulation very useful for both students and teachers. Again, he mentioned that he was required to use at least 50% of English in the classroom. However, he simply agreed with this requirement and found nothing to criticise. However, after I told him the difficulties of following these requirements raised by other EMI teachers, when talking about the difficulties, he changed his position. He showed his agreement by repeating the phrases in line 14 and then said the amount of English used by teachers varies from teacher to teacher. At this point, T12 indirectly said that many teachers' differ how they use English in spite of the same EMI regulation. This might suggest T12 actually had thought about the problems in practice, but he did not dare to voice his idea at the beginning. I then referred back to our discussion on the English requirements. It seemed that the guidelines have not

prescribed concrete requirements for English in T12's university. In line 19, after a three seconds pause, he said "erm no it is not specifically prescribed..." . His comments contradicted his previous ideas in line 6. T12 said "policy is seen as something to motivate teachers and students to improve their English". T12 justified this on his university requirement document despite the fact that he admitted that there were no written requirements for teachers to improve their English. This may indicate that EMI policy is always associated with standard English language ideology. Participants tended to attribute their needs for improving English to the policy.

Those participants who had consistent negative comments on the language policy also talked about the prescribed language use in EMI. Many said they should be given more freedom to decide by themselves which language to use. For example, T14 used the expression "a very nice wishing list" to describe the English language requirement in EMI policy. Those participants who did not follow this requirement expressed strong emotion and thought that there should not be such requirements fitting in for all the courses and all the students' needs. In addition, they felt that their universities' EMI policy is too macro and said likewise that they did not follow the prescribed percentage of English use in the policy. However, they felt a bit embarrassed when they admitted that they did not follow the policy in practice. Extract six is from the interview with T6 about the EMI policy in her university.

Extract 6

- 1 L: you know(.) some teachers' may follow the policy and some may
 2 not
 3 T6: well (.) I don't actually [@@@@@
 4
 5 L: [@@@@@
 6 T6: policy(.) is very vague and not practical(.)I need to adjust the
 7 policy according to my situation (.) I'm teaching International
 8 Trade to my students

In extract six, the use of prosodic features like laughter suggests that T6 felt a little bit embarrassed when she admitted that she had not followed the EMI policy. On the one hand, T6 found that the policy is very vague and impractical to follow. On the other hand, T6 may feel that she had been told to follow the policy. This mixed feeling may reflect the general view among the teachers. As a university teacher, she

may think that she had to obey the rules. This has also been raised by T14, she said: “teachers felt obligated to follow the policy. It’s not appropriate to resist it”. Although T6 said she could decide classroom language use, she still felt a bit nervous when she admitted that she did not follow it. Because her practice contradicted the policy requirements, she felt not very confident about her own practices. In theory, she is expected to follow the top-down policy. The non-conformity to EMI policy might be considered as an improper approach.

When participants referred to English language requirements in the EMI policy, they tended to mean regulations about normative English use. With regard to English language requirements for both students’ and teachers’ English in the EMI policies, several participants said that in the EMI policy documents there were not concrete regulations on teachers’ English. They pointed out that the policies are too general to state these requirements. However, ‘unwritten English regulations’ were mentioned by many of the participants. Many said they were expected to attend training courses to improve their English. For example, T3 felt that her university always assumed that she should improve her English. She said: “because I’m teaching the courses in English(.)English is not my mother tongue”. Others felt that they should use ‘standard’, ‘accurate’ and ‘clear’ English in EMI. Although some of them did not use the words ‘native English’, many referred to ‘standard English’ when they described the kind of English they were expected to use. The following extract is from the interview with T14 about her university that does not have any English policy for EMI.

Extract 7

- 1 L: if there is no such policy do you think it’s possible to have it
 2 T14: (4)I haven’t thought about this issue(.)erm yes maybe
 3 L: there is no such English language related policy I’m wondering
 7 how they recruit teachers and how teachers require students’
 8 English(.)I mean what kind of criteria they based on
 9 T14: for recruiting EMI teachers(.)normally regular teachers were
 10 welcomed to volunteer to teach the courses in English(.)if there is
 11 too many candidates(.)then the school will held a demonstration
 12 lesson
 13 L: will the university consider teachers’ experience in foreign
 14 countries
 15 T14: yes overseas study experience is definitely an important factor
 16 they will consider(.)they will also observe your performance in

17 the presentations(.)the examiners will evaluate teacher's
 18 English fluency(.)Pronunciation(3)this factor could be judged
 19 with less attention(.)different people have different English
 20 accent
 20 L: right[
 21 T14: [yes they will pay much attention to the teacher's
 22 fluency(.)and your language(.)if they could understand
 23 your English(.)these examiners normally have overseas study
 24 experience(.)they will have a general impression of each
 25 teacher's English ability(.)if they think your were making a lot
 26 of grammar mistakes(.)you language contains a lot of
 27 errors and not fluent(.)your errors interfere others' to
 28 understand your meaning erm erm you make a bad
 29 impression(.)it's better not to have strong Chinese English
 30 accent

When I asked T14 whether she thought her institution should have such a policy, after a long pause, she admitted that she never thought about it and then answered yes with uncertainty. I then asked her to explain the procedure of subject teachers' recruitment. Her responses suggest that in her department senior staff have a strong influence on the selection. Many respondents in the questionnaires mentioned that overseas living/studying experiences will be considered as one of the most important selecting criteria. So I asked T14 if it was the case with her institution and she agreed by using the word "definitely". But she strongly highlighted the importance of the actual performance during the recruitment presentation. Although there is no written policies about the recruitment criteria, T14 highlighted English oral fluency and grammar accuracy as the primary consideration. She believed that those who speak English fluently and accurately were likely to be perceived as the competent EMI teachers. Although she felt accent less important initially, she still thought that a Chinese-influenced English accent is not appropriate in the end. From line 25 to 29, she said the acquisition of native-like English (fluency, lack of grammar errors) could help EMI teachers to have a better self-image. Many participants said likewise, that native English could help EMI teachers to make a good impression on themselves. They wish to speak good English in order to have a good self-image. However, given the fact that EMI courses/programmes are intending to recruit more international students, it is not enough to assess teachers' English based on the fixed view of English language which only displays fluency, accuracy and near-native accents. The communicative skills and intercultural competence used in the multilingual contexts have not been considered as crucial in the teachers' selection procedure.

Almost all my participants have noticed the fact of ‘unwritten English regulations and they talked about these ‘unwritten regulations’ without questioning, at the beginning. However, after we had discussed those regulations further, in our interviews, some of the participants believed that they were competent to teach the EMI courses and they thought the requirements for language had increased pressures on them. They felt that they could help their students understand the courses through English. For example, T1 later described those unwritten language regulations as ‘troublesome’. The following extract is an example which indicates the position change of T10 after we had discussed the EMI teachers’ assessment criteria. T10 started to talk about her unpleasant feeling when people always question her English.

Extract 8

- 1 T10: I have been teaching EMI courses for nearly 7 years(.)I’m
 2 familiar with the teaching(.)my students wrote positive
 3 feedback on my courses(.)but those who do not teach EMI
 4 courses always suspect I was not good enough in English
 5 L: have you been sent to study abroad(.)I mean to attend
 6 English training courses?
 7 T10: yes(.) I went to the Australia for English training several years
 8 ago(.) the university sent me to study English there(.) I’m not using
 9 the mother tongue to teach erm everytime when the university talks
 10 about EMI courses(.)we always need to improve our English
 11 further(.) I have the feeling that my English always needs
 12 improving because I’m teaching in English(.)they could observe
 13 my class to see how I managed the courses successfully
 14 L: I understand your feeling erm it’s not your fault
 15 T10: I’m not happy about it(.)they just expect me to speak more fluently
 16 and accurately(.)or may be try to get rid of the Chinese accent
 17 erm erm I think I’m capable to teach the lessons(.)more time
 18 should be spend on research rather than improve my English

In extract 8, T10 actually explained the unwritten language regulations which her university expect teachers to achieve. She said “speak more fluently and accurately(.) or may be try to get rid of the Chinese accent” at the end of the extract. Despite this T10 did not mention that teachers should aspire to native English, her words might indicate that other people expect her to speak near native-like English. So she criticized the unwritten regulations for placing too high expectations on her. She also criticized the management staff for only asking the teachers to improve their English rather than observing her classroom to see how she taught the lessons. She felt her use English good enough to teach the content. She thought that it was unrealistic to expect her to achieve native-like English. Finally, she thought that she should spend

more time on her research than on her English. She may have some regrets for spending too much time on improving her English. In fact the majority of questionnaire respondents also said their universities did not have any overt English language policies in their university. In such a situation, EMI teacher's individual orientations towards English become an important factor which can influence how they teach and assess students' English. This theme will be discussed later in this chapter.

7.5.2 Orientations to code-switching in EMI

The topic of the code-switching appeared several times during the interviews. Many give overlapping reasons for code-mixing. Most of the participants said Chinese use can help them to teach the courses more effectively, and help them to explain the difficult points more clearly. The frequent reason given was that their students have difficulty in understanding the subject matter in English. But they tended to emphasise the point that they used the permitted amount of Chinese occasionally in their courses. Most of the respondents described their students' English as 'not good'. They positioned themselves as concerned about their students' English. They regarded their use of Chinese as a facilitating method to clarify the contents in order to help the students' comprehension. Three participants (T1, T9, T14) said they use Chinese to help the students understand the content. For example, T9 said: "I think it is still necessary to explain some Chinese cases(.) it is unavoidable that I need to use the Chinese when there is no equivalent meaning in English". Two participants (T1 and T10) said they used Chinese when they need to draw students' attention. Their responses seem to suggest that they thought code-switching was helpful in teaching. The following extract is from the interview with T9 concerning her view of the use of Chinese in EMI.

Extract 9

- 1 T9: my students have problems in understanding the content(.)
- 2 especially if it is the first time for them to learn content through the
- 3 medium of English(.)my opinion is that while I'm explaining
- 4 the new key concepts, I prefer to use Chinese to teach(.)
- 5 using English-only would hinder my students'
- 6 learning
- 7 L: so you use Chinese mainly because you find your students could not

- 8 understand you
- 9 T9: yes erm sometimes I switch to Chinese to explain the key points but
- 10 I mainly use English to teach
- 11 L: yeah it's important that students should understand the course(.)how
- 12 do you evaluate the students' English
- 13 T9: their grammar skills are ok erm their listening and speaking are not good
- 14 L: but it is EMI erm I mean how do you consider the use of Chinese in EMI
- 15 courses
- 16 T9: it's acceptable(.) this is my opinion(.)my duty is to help my students
- 17 understand(.) I think it's meaningless to use English-only without
- 18 making your students understand(.)this is my opinion

It can be seen from Extract 7 that T9 began by giving the reasons for use Chinese in the classroom. The students' linguistic skills have been perceived as the primary factor which determines the choice of language in her classroom. When I asked her to comment on her students' English, she seemed to have only a partial understanding of English language. Her descriptions seemed to indicate that English grammar is separated from reading and speaking. It can be inferred that people who have 'good English' must have good speaking skills. Other things such as, grammar and reading skills are not as important as speaking skills. T9 seemed to attribute her use of Chinese to the students' low English proficiency. But she tried to emphasize the point that the primary language she adopted was English. While she was expressing her ideas, she used a lot of expressions such as 'my opinion' 'I think' and 'this is my opinion'. This gave me the feeling that she was explaining her strong position which may be different from other teachers.

As discussed in the previous section, in some universities, the exact percentage of English use is clearly stated in the policy or teaching documents. But some of the interview participants did not use the proportion of the code-switching as required or were even not aware of this requirement. The participants who did not follow this requirement expressed, with strong emotion, that there should not be such a requirement fit in for all the courses and the students. Some participants said likewise that the proportion of English use depend on the source of the students. For example, T3 said: "all my students are Chinese (.) I think it's very necessary for me to use Chinese". As noted in the questionnaire data analysis, Chinese students constitute the major body of students in EMI programs or courses at present. This could be another reason for teachers' use of Chinese in EMI. In the following extract, T8 shares a similar point.

Extract 10

- 1 T8: erm I do use Chinese in my teaching(.)my students are Chinese
2 students(.)it's the compulsory course for them
3 L: are there international students in your class
4 T8: not many.erm erm about 5 students or 7 students(.)but they are
5 from International Department(.) They took my course as the
6 optional course(.)the course is designed mainly for the
7 students from my department
8 L: but can those international students understand Chinese(.)or are
9 you free to use Chinese if they are present
10 T8: a little(.)they normally have Chinese lessons(3)but (.)but as I said
11 my course is designed for students from law department mainly
12 and I need to ensure the majority of my students could
13 understand but I know it's bit chaotic(.)to be honest there is no
14 clear division between the types of EMI(.) Some courses are
15 targeted for Chinese students(.)some for international
16 students and some courses are open to both Chinese and
17 international students. each department has its own course design(.)
18 there is no unified approach(.)really it depends on the
19 teachers(.)university does not make a very clear distinction between
20 different types of EMI

T8 began by saying that most of her students are Chinese and she uses Chinese in her instruction. As discussed in chapter three, many universities have placed internationalisation on the agenda. I assume that there should be a certain number of international students in EMI classes. Thus, I asked her the number of international students in her class. She admitted that there was a very low number of international students but she pointed out that they were from the International school. She also said her courses were designed for law majors). She seemed to emphasize a very prominent distinction between her department and the International department. She did not treat the students of the two departments equally. It seems that the participants' responses to the number of international students in their classes contradicted the number listed in the university development agenda. Thus, I asked her whether these international students could understand Chinese. She said 'a little' which suggested that the international students did not have a very high proficiency in Chinese. In line 10 there was a noticeable long pauses, this may indicate that T8 then felt a bit upset when she realised that this was unfair or inappropriate for international students. So she emphasized the fact that her course was designed for students in her department. She was trying to show she was not behaving unprofessionally. But after this point, she began to reposition her arguments. She

adopted the words ‘a bit chaotic’ in line 13. Such a strong emotion for EMI can be ascribed to teachers’ unsystematic use of English in EMI. In some classrooms, international students were mixed with Chinese. Teachers randomly switched between the two languages and used a large amount of Chinese in front of them. She referred to the fact that there are no written regulations stipulating which course is designed for whom. In the line 19, she said it was the teacher who decided which language to use. Therefore, it can be seen that she actually expressed a contradictory position. As she said at the beginning, the proportion of English use depended on where the students came from.

In addition, it should be noted that the participants responded differently to teaching the contents entirely in English. During the interviews, I mentioned that some Chinese universities offered EMI programmes entirely in English. On hearing this, the participants expressed their preference for teachers who are able to teach the courses entirely in English. Some talked about the good points of teaching in English such as an association with international reputation and enrolment. Some (e.g. T1, T2, T4, T6, T7, T8) said that their universities were encouraging teachers to use English as much as possible. But the EMI policy does not clearly prescribe this, though it is open knowledge that they are expected use English as much as possible. It appeared that they tended to think that their university expects them use less Chinese in EMI. Some of them rechecked the language requirements listed in their universities’ EMI regulations. They pointed out that their universities do expect them to implement the courses exclusively in English. Three of the 14 interview participants tended to generate a certain degree of superiority amongst their colleague because they could use English entirely in the EMI classes. For example, T14 said: “it is not allowed if we only use Chinese (.) but we are encouraged to use English entirely in the classroom”. Similarly, another participant T4 said those teachers who could use English entirely are perceived as more competent in English than those who use code-switching. She called the former “advanced EMI”, which clearly showed her preferences. It seemed that these participants still think code-switching is the result of the teachers’ lack of English competence. They felt obligated to use English much more than was prescribed. Though participants did not mention the advantage of using more English, the notion of the increasing the

English input was sometimes mentioned by some participants. They noted that the ideal EMI course is where English is the only language used.

Extract 11 illustrates how T5 considers the proportion of English used in EMI. Although T5 felt that subject teachers should be allowed to use Chinese, she felt proud about her use of English in the classroom.

Extract 11

- 1 L: I heard that in some universities(.)EMI teachers are required to
2 use 50% of English and 50% of Chinese
3 T5: in my university(.)there is no such requirement(.) I don't think
4 they should have the standard requirement for the amount of
5 English used in EMI(.)it's impossible to have the same
6 requirement for all the courses(.)it's not enough just to improve
7 students' English.in fact student must understand the content
8 L: especially they have to understand the mathematical formula
9 T5: it's impossible to have the same requirement(.)we are not using
10 our mother tongue(.)teachers should have flexible approach(.)in
11 the first semester both English and Chinese were used (.I used
12 English entirely if the content is not difficult to understand
13 and I switched to Chinese as the majority of my students are
14 Chinese
15 L: I remember observing your lessons(.)you use English nearly
16 all the time(.)is there any policy or requirements for the
17 subject teachers' use of English
18 T5: no no my university does not have such requirement(.)teachers
19 normally have the power to decide by themselves(.)I asked
20 them(.)they told me I 'm the ONLY ONE in my department who
21 use almost all English to teach(.) they said other teachers mainly
22 use Chinese to teach the subject.

In extract 11, T5 said that there was no EMI requirement for the language use in her university. However, it was found that there was an EMI regulation in the university websites which prescribed the exact proportion of English use which should indicate that T5 was not aware of the language related policy in her university. Although this might be the individual case, it still indicates that the policies or requirements might produce no effect on EMI teachers' classroom practices. T5 also expressed strong emotion that there should not be such a requirement. She said it's impractical to have the fixed requirement. Similarly, T5 also emphasized the point that understanding the content is much more important for her students. She switches to Chinese easily when she finds most of her students speak Chinese. She said the amount of English used depended on the students' English proficiency. In line 20, she felt proud that

she used almost all English to teach. It seems that T5 was concerned with how people would evaluate her English.

Almost all the participants said their use of Chinese had not exceeded the amount which has been permitted in the EMI regulations. They emphasized the point that the use of Chinese is to explain or clarify the key concepts or to facilitate the teaching. The use of code-switching is often associated with teachers' responses to the classroom contexts. However, when I mentioned that a number of international students were studying in their universities, like T8, they began by stressing that their courses were targeted for Chinese students. They felt that they were entitled to use an adequate amount of Chinese. Although respondents did not admit that the use of Chinese excluded the international students, later a few of them showed sympathy towards the very small number of international students in their classrooms. They pointed out that the university management staff sometimes randomly placed some international students into their classes. They said the university management staff assumed that these students could quickly adjust to the EMI courses.

The interviews have indicated that participants often used code-switching in their classrooms. On one hand, they felt it necessary to implement the courses in English. On the other hand, they realised the necessity of using the L1 to facilitate their teaching and students' understanding. In fact, the functions of code-switching have not been fully recognized and acknowledged in education policy. It seemed that the majority of participants still consider code-switching to be a compensation strategy rather than a communication strategy. They attributed their code-switching to the students' incompetence in English. No participants said their use of code-switching was due to their poor English competence. Besides, for those participants who expressed negative orientations towards code-switching, they emphasized the point that university policy requires them to use more English. Their orientations to the function of code-switching are positive, but they still thought code-switching to be an inappropriate strategy. Their contradictory views about code-switching are still influenced by the monolingual EMI ideology which sees the combined use of Chinese and English as improper. In the foreign language classrooms, if the teachers use more L1 than English, he/she is often seen as less competent and qualified. Therefore, participants often added that their use of code-switching is not randomly

used but systematically applied in their classrooms. The data obtained from the questionnaires and interviews indicate that some universities allowed the teachers to use code-switching in EMI. However, to what extent the subject teachers follow those requirements in practice remains largely unknown. Thus, classroom observations are useful to see how teachers use code-switching in practice.

7.6 Orientations to English language

7.6.1 Orientations to their own and their students' English

It is important to point out that during all the interviews, I did not ask the participants directly to comment on their own English, because based on the responses from the questionnaires, some respondents seemed unwilling to comment on their own English. But most of the interview participants mentioned their own perception of their English while we were discussing other EMI teachers' English competence. Most of the participants acknowledged that English is a tool for communication. They felt that they could manage to teach the courses in English. Some of them said their English is adequate to teach the EMI courses in China. They positioned themselves as competent teachers with sufficient English competence. However, when they compared their English with their colleagues or NESs, they started to consider that they needed to improve their English. Several of them preferred to use the word 'standard' 'good' and 'clear' to modify the English which they wish to achieve.

The following extract with T9 took place when we discussed the EMI teachers' English competence in her department. Prior to this extract, T9 said that she was confident to teach the courses in English and mentioned the effort she had made to prepare the courses. However, T9 expressed admiration for those teachers who had received education in the English speaking countries and who said that they had no language problems in teaching the EMI courses. Then she changed her positive position and felt that her English was not good enough.

Extract 12

- 1 L: how many EMI teachers are there in your department?
- 2 T9: three teachers(.).not many

- 3 L: yeah what do you think of their English
 4 T9: for the majority of Chinese EMI teachers(.)generally speaking
 5 they have good writing and reading skills(.)but for speaking
 6 skills(.)maybe not good(.) those who studied their PhD degree in
 7 foreign countries might be capable of using English for
 8 instruction(.)YOU KNOW they speak good English
 9 L: yeah en we do not have an English speaking environment(.)why do
 10 you think they speak good English
 11 T9: (3) they use and speak English everyday with native English speakers
 12 (.in other words they practice frequently in genuine contexts(.) I think
 13 they could speak English more accurately and fluently than others (.)I
 14 learnt English in China(.) I only spent a few months in the English
 15 speaking countries(.) I didn't have much opportunities to practice my
 16 English(.) my English is not good enough(.) but I need to try my best
 17 to achieve the standard English(.) because I'm the teacher

In extract 12, I asked about T9's perceptions of teachers' English in her department. She preferred to use the general descriptor 'good' when she attempted to evaluate others' English skills. Like many responses elicited from the questionnaires, several participants mentioned their belief that those who obtained their PhD abroad could speak good English as well. T9 also shared the same belief, because she assumed that those teachers would have had more chances to practice their English with NESs. By contrast, those Chinese teachers who had never studied abroad have had the limited chances to practice their spoken English. It seems that T9 thought teachers could improve their speaking skills by talking with NESs. Once a teacher can demonstrate high proficiency in spoken English, she/he will be considered as good English user. In line 13, she said that teachers who practiced their English with NES "speak English more accurately and fluently". It seems that T9 ignored the fact that those teachers also need to speak English with NNEs. This suggests T9 thought that achieving good oral English skills means that teachers need to practice their English with NESs. After commenting on others' English, T9 changed her position and said her "English is not good enough". In contrast with other subject teachers, T9 realised that she had limited occasions to practice her English. She seemed to believe that she could improve her English by speaking with more NESs in foreign countries. The reason why she wants to achieve standard English is simply because she is a teacher. In the Chinese education contexts, teachers are often perceived as the authority. They are also expected to demonstrate the standard model which students can follow. The traditional views on the teachers' role are very likely to influence the participants' orientations. Here, it is clear that T9 still felt obligated to use standard English in order to present the standard model. T9's view is very common among other

participants in the interviews. Participants' orientations to their own English changed in relation to which assessment criteria they were based on.

Participants' orientations to their students' English are influenced by the language ability of the students they are teaching. Some (e.g. T4, T8, T7) said that their students have good English competence and pointed out that their students were selected before they were enrolled in EMI programmes. They often emphasized the point that their students have a very strong learning motivation and good attitudes. For example, T4 said: "my students were selected so they do not have language problems. Their English is good". When I asked her how her students were selected, T4 explained that her students took English Gao Kao exams that all had achieved high scores in English. T4 did not criticise her students' English and seemed to believe that the entrance exams scores would reflect her students' English ability.

However, the majority of the participants in the interviews expressed a more negative evaluation of their students' English. Their EMI courses were often designed as compulsory ones and their students were not required to take any English exams. As was discussed 6.6.1, when the questionnaire respondents evaluated their students' English, their comments were often associated with 'bad English'. After reading my interview transcriptions, I found that the phrases "bad English" and "low ability" had been mentioned frequently by some participants. During the interviews, when they referred to those negative phrases, I asked them for further explanations on how they interpret those terms. It was found that some participants described the students as weak in speaking and using grammar accurately. In addition, the participants also pointed out that their students have limited chances to read the disciplines in English. The following two extracts reflect the typical participants' orientations.

Extract 13

- | | | |
|---|------|---|
| 1 | L: | what do you think of your students' English? |
| 2 | T12: | very bad. Many of my students have difficulties to speak English(.) |
| 3 | | they are good at reading |
| 4 | L: | you think they have bad English because of their speaking skills |
| 5 | T12: | yes(.) they are not using the correct English grammar. |

Extract 14

- 1 L: what do you think of your students' English?
2 T6: my students have very low ability to use English in practice (.)
3 they have weak skills in speaking and listening(.) they seldom
4 use English to communicate their ideas(.) for the first two years(.)
5 they were learning vocabulary, grammar, sentence structures(.)
6 they have few chances to read the academic terms(.) they
7 did not read any subject books in English.

As can be seen from the two extracts above, both the two participants thought their students had bad English, because of their weak competence in speaking and their ability to use English in communication. It appears that T6's comments on her students' English are not restricted to English language ability but also include their ability to understand and study content knowledge. In addition, there seems to be distinct differences in students' reading, grammar, lexical and oral English competence, but they did not consider these skills to be the integrative part.

It is not surprising to find that many participants still considered that their students should speak and write 'standard', 'accurate' and 'good English'. They expressed positive views on their students achieving standard native English. For example, T13 in the following extract also expressed positive views on standard native English. Actually, before this extract, I pointed out the fact that many NNEs study different subjects in English in universities worldwide. I also briefly introduced the ELFA approach. After heard my words, T13 felt very surprised to hear the ELFA approach. She did not comment much on it but seemed very shocked to hear of. Then we continued to discuss EMI and ELT in China. I raised the topic of non-conformity to native English.

Extract 15

- 1 L: erm(.) when we speak or write English(.)our English contains some
2 Chinese features(.)the English is different from native English
3 speakers(.)but maybe others can understand
4 T13: I think students and teachers need to use standard English
5 otherwise they could not understand your English language(.)
6 people learn how to speak by imitation(.)we can not create
7 English by ourselves(.)English should retain its'original taste and
8 flavor'(.).perfect accent may be difficult to achieve but your written
9 English should be correct er no errors
10 L: yeah
11 T13: I mean we need to try our best to imitate their English pronunciation
12 er TRY OUR BEST(.) it's unrealistic to expect we have the same

13 accent as they(.)Chinese people always have Chinese English accent(.)
 14 though one billion people are using English(.)they cannot change the
 15 rules(2)otherwise people could not understand your English(.)you will
 16 be kept away from communication (Feng sha) @@
 17 L: yeah erm I remember you mentioned previously that you studied in the
 18 USA for one year? you might also have many chances to talk to both
 19 NESs and NNEs
 20 T13: yes
 21 L: can they understand you
 22 T13 yeah they can understand my point most of the time(.)but my English is
 23 not standard erm if I could use standard English(.) they could
 24 understand me better

In extract 15, T13 again expressed a positive perception of conforming to standard native English. T13 said both students and teachers should imitate native English speakers' English. It seems that she had never considered that NNEs could make any language innovation. T4 did not question the notion that the students' need to follow native English norms. She used the metaphor 'original taste and flavor' in line 7 to express the importance of the ENL norm. The emphatic stress and repetition of the word 'try our best' again suggests that she was holding a strong belief that students/teachers could improve their English in line with ENL by making a consistent effort. T13 admitted the fact that Chinese people speak English with a Chinese accent, but she seldom showed confidence in her English accent.

At the end of the extract, T13 used a very popular Chinese term 'Feng sha' which means to keep away from communication. She seemed to express that both students and teachers should all follow the native English norms. Otherwise, nobody will talk to them because of their English. T13 also said that only native English could promote communication. She believes any divergence from native English will cause communication breakdown. I then asked about her overseas experiences in the USA. Although she admitted that people could understand her most of the time, she still wanted to have standard English. In addition, it seemed that my previous introduction on the ELFA approach did not influence her position.

It is useful to note that nearly all of the participants drew on the CET 4 results to evaluate their students' English. The possible reason is that all students have to take this test and it helped them to make quick evaluations. Several of them thought that the marks of the CET could reflect their students' English proficiency. For example,

T6 said “my students have different levels of English proficiency(.)some have already passed the CET4 while some of them haven’t”. They also said the university could use this test as the gate-keeping criteria. It can be used to measure if a Chinese student has the sufficient English language skills to study in the EMI courses. For example, T2 said: “CET 4 helped us to measure students’ English in a general way(.) those who have passed CET 4(.)are qualified to study the subjects in English”. Similarly, many questionnaire respondents also expressed their appreciation of using CET 4 as the reference to evaluate their students’ English. However, a few respondents said their universities did not use CET to assess students’ English. They argued that the university should first check students’ CET scores before they permit students to select EMI courses or programs. This indicates the powerful role of CET 4 in the participants’ minds. The following extract took place when we discussed the effect of CET in EMI. T1 initially positioned herself as a strong follower of the CET tests.

Extract 16

- 1 T1: my students(.)I think most of my students have adequate
 2 English proficiency(.)many of them have passed CET4 and it’s
 3 really useful
 4 L: so your students have already passed the CET before they enrolled
 5 in EMI
 6 T1: no we started EMI in their first year erm at that time they didn’t take
 7 the exams
 8 and they took the CET4 last year(.)but personally I think students
 9 should take the CET 4 before they started the EMI courses(.)
 10 based on their scores (.) we could know if the students have the
 11 adequate English levels
 12 L: I guess EMI requires students to have higher English proficiency
 13 than the general English test(.)I mean CET 4 probably does not
 14 focus on the academic English
 15 T1: I think that CET 4 scores do reflect overall students’ competence(.)
 16 proficiency(.)we could use the results to assess students’ English
 17 and academic English.

Unlike others who expressed negative views on students’ English, T1 believed that her students mastered enough English to be able to benefit from the courses. Her evaluation was based on her students’ CET 4 results. She tended to use students’ CET4 scores to assess whether they have the appropriate qualifications to study in EMI. It should be noted that T1 overly relied on the CET 4 scores rather than their students’ actual use of English. This also indicates that general English exams influence people’s orientations to English language. T1 even suggested requiring the

students to take the exams before they enrolled in the EMI programs. I then responded to her by stating that CET 4 might not test students' academic English. However, she seemed to ignore my point. Instead, T1 reiterated her positive positions on the value of CET 4 and did not question the validity of CET 4. We continued to discuss how to help the students learn more effectively in EMI and I also raised the idea of the EAP courses. At this moment, T1 changed her positive position on CET 4 scores. The following extract showed her views.

Extract 17

- 1 T1: my university recently has also promoted the EAP courses
 2 for the students(.)foreign language department has more
 3 detailed information on EAP erm I think courses will benefit
 4 for my students(.) students also need to improve their academic
 5 English skills
 6 L: yes I think general English might be different from the academic
 7 English erm English used in the EMI courses
 8 T1: yes a lot of terms and models(.) I don't think all my students'
 9 have the sufficient
 10 academic English skills(.) sometimes the test results are not
 11 reliable
 12 L: yes tests can not measure everything
 13 T1: erm in EMI my students' need to write analytical report and
 14 do group presentations all in English(.) I found some of my students
 15 found those tasks difficulties I must say many of them have already
 16 passed the CET 4
 17 L: the question is how should CET reflect EMI
 18 T1: I think we may need a new English test to decide who
 19 are going to study in EMI courses and should contain oral
 20 English exams erm(2)I don't know exactly but those who design
 21 English tests should think about how to incorporate academic English
 22 skills into the English tests.

As can be shown from this extract, T1 started to introduce the subject of EMI courses in her university. She seemed to welcome the courses and said students need to "improve their academic English skills". Then I raised the issue about the differences between academic English and general English again. This time, T1 agreed with me (on the point) and reflected on her students' English proficiency again. She admitted that in practice the students may perform better or worse than the examination scores indicate. She seemed aware that test results could not reflect her students' English performance in EMI. T1 actually changed her position on the CET 4. Later she suggested having a new English test to measure students' English level. However, she still thinks that there should be a standard English test to

measure students' English, and she argued that test makers should take oral and academic English skills into account.

Those participants who expressed positive views on their students' English expressed more flexible views about students English, though they admitted that their students' English is not standard. The notion of intelligibility was mentioned and their focus was on their achieving the communication purposes. For example, T7 said: "English is a tool for us(.) if they can understand my students' meanings. As long as we can communicate our ideas, I don't think we need to master perfect English". What T7 meant by the phrase 'perfect English' is standard native English. It is very likely that T7 has realized that the key task in the multilingual contexts that communication is the primary task instead of conforming to standard native English.

There are also a few participants (e.g. T6, T14) who changed their perceptions of the need to ask their students to conform to standard native English. In the following extract 18, T6 initially held a very strong normative view on native English and required her students to always follow native speaker norms. She described native English as 'great' and 'cool' and used the words 'not good' to describe other teachers' English. When I asked about her overseas experiences, she was willing to share her experiences with me. However, in the process of telling me her story, she shifted her original normative orientation to a more flexible orientation.

Extract 18

- 1 L: you said you studied in the USA for six months(.)en how do
2 you find the use of English there
3 T6: yeah(.) I really enjoyed that experience(.)a bit short but
4 useful(.)
5 L: did you talk more often with native-speakers or non-native
6 speakers? In the UK I find I speak more often with non-native
7 English speakers@@
8 T6: @yes(.)I think I also speak more often with non-native English
9 speakers(.)for the first 2 months I studied English language
10 (.)my classmates were all non-native English speakers.
11 later I audited some MA courses(.)I have American
12 classmates and classmates who come from all over the world
13 you are right I speak more often with non-native English
14 speakers
15 L: quite a similar situation(.) I think it's interesting to speak with
16 other non-native English speakers
17 T6: yes. one of my friends is from Thailand(.) our English is not

18 very good(.)but we tried to use various ways to achieve
 19 communication(.) such as paying attention to other's
 20 English(.)looking up words and phrases(.)speaking slowly(.)
 21 we are good friends and went to shopping and travel around
 22 after the class
 23 L: do you think you had some misunderstandings
 24 T6: no(.) for me I think I could understand her English(.)sometimes
 25 I find we also need to make efforts to
 26 understand each other(.)not only practice your English(.)i
 27 remember I used the word 'bizarre' in the group discussion(.)
 28 two of my group members did not understand the meaning(.) I
 29 was pretty sure that my pronunciation was good(.)en but when
 30 I changed the word into 'strange' they all understood
 31 L: en I also have had the similar experiences (.) we all need to
 32 consider whether the listener understands us(.) sometimes er (.)
 33 some native English speakers(.)they use very idiomatic expressions
 34 I find it very hard for me to understand
 35 T6: yes(.)I agree with you(.) we need to know how to adjust our language

In extract 18, T6 initially held a very strong normative view on English use and she required her students to follow native speaker norms. Later in the interviews, when I asked her to talk about her use of English in the USA, her response demonstrated that she enjoyed her experience very much. Then I asked her whether she spent more time talking with native English speakers or non-native English speakers. T6 said she talked more often with NNEs than NESs. She mentioned the communication between her and a Thai friend. T6 and her friends actually used different strategies to communicate. The communication strategies which she listed in lines 18 to 20 have demonstrated that they made efforts to get across their meanings to each other. Then I asked her if she encountered any misunderstanding when she communicated with non-native English speakers. T6 said no without any hesitation. She gave an example to demonstrate how she tries to let the listener understand her meaning (see line 24-30). This typical example demonstrates how people try to get their ideas across. I pointed out that some NESs used very idiomatic expressions which might cause difficulties to understand. In line 36, she added: "yes" which indicated she agreed with my opinion. She emphasized the point that both speaker and listeners need to learn how to get their meanings across. When T6 reflected her experiences in the USA, she seemed to realise the gap between what they thought to be necessary skills for communication and what are really needed for successful communication. Although T6 seemed to realise the importance of adjusting her English in different communication contexts, when talking of her students' English, she again changed to

normative perceptions, and pointed out her students need to use standard and correct English. Thus, overall T6 expressed ambivalent attitudes towards English.

7.6.2 Orientations to the language support for the students and the teachers

It is interesting to note that during the interviews some participants mentioned that either their own English or their students' English needs to be improved. Again, many of them actually demonstrated a certain degree of contradiction in their comments. Some teachers seemed to be positive towards their own English at the beginning but not so positive by the end of the interviews. However, later some shifted their original perception to a new position when they talk about how to improve their English. For example, one participant said: "my English still needs improving". A few of them also expressed their interest in attending training courses to improve their English, but criticised a lack of support for the EMI teachers. For example, T8 said:

NONO(.) no support at all(.) I help myself erm erm they simply assign the teaching task to me and then I'm responsible to all the teaching(.)another teacher who also teach EMI in my department(.) only two teacher(.) we sometimes feel a bit isolated.

The lack of training provided for EMI teachers was quite common among many Chinese English teachers. The participants said that their universities prioritised research over teaching. As T 9 said: "promoting EMI teaching is just paying the lip service (.) I know my English still need to be improved but I do not expect they will offer me any language training". Likewise the participants only felt blamed for their lack of English proficiency. The administrative staff said that it is the teachers' responsibility to improve their English. The administrative staff tended to believe that as long as teachers make great efforts, they can acquire the necessary level of standard English.

In the following example, T11 showed a concern that her English was not good enough and needed to improve even when she said she "could handle the teaching" in line two.

Extract 19

1 T11: English is not our mother tongue and I hope to receive some English
2 training(.)erm I can handle the teaching with my English(.)but I hope

3 they could offer me more training(.) I know such training is like a pie
4 in the sky
5 L: why do you think such training useful
5 T11: to improve my English proficiency erm erm life-long
6 learning(.) as a teachers I must improve erm to refresh my
7 English
8 L: well I observed your lessons(.)actually I think you speak
9 English very well
10 T11: @@thank you(.) as an EMI teacher I have to have higher
11 aims(.)my students erm and my colleague (2)the university
12 all expect me to have higher English proficiency

T11 seemed to believe that she could improve her English if she attended more English training courses. But actually she knew that she was unlikely to get such support from her university, instead she had to made great consistent effort by herself. She further explained that her students, colleagues and the university all expect her to achieve higher English proficiency. This indicates that improving her English is the external expectation. Thus, the fact that she changed her views could be interpreted as her own perceptions of her English being different from others. The external pressure affects them to set the goal to improve their English in line with the NEL. Though a few participants generated more tolerant views on non-native English, they still believed that there is one correct form of English. About half of the participants mentioned the aim of improving their English to be as close as possible to the standard form.

Some participants also talked about ways to improve their students' English. They again highlighted that they did not have the duty to help students to improve their English. They all mentioned that their students should further improve their English through College English courses. They said they did not care about students' English accents and fluency in the EMI courses, but they pointed out that students' English language competence should be enhanced.

It should be pointed out that only two participants (T12 and T14) mentioned that their universities offered EAP courses for their students. The rest did not. It should also be noted that three participants actually had no idea about what EAP courses are about. Despite the fact that most of the participants were not familiar with EAP courses, they thought that EAP courses are very necessary for their students. They

main reason given was that such course would help students' to improve their English skills. They expected that EAP courses could improve their students' four language skills. The following extract took place after we discussed the EAP courses in T14's university.

Extract 20

- 1 T14: no no we don't have EAP courses now
2 L: do you think it is useful to have such courses
3 T14: yes(.)my students lack the academic English skills and I think
4 such courses could improve their English(.) it's similar to
5 College English
6 L: improve their English skills?
7 T14: yes erm I'm not sure about the EAP courses but students could
8 improve their speaking writing and reading skills(.)students
9 need to observe the standard academic English
10 L: okay so you think EAP courses could help your students' to
11 improve their academic English and you think there is standard
12 academic English
13 T14: yes

The extract begins with T14's statement that there is no EAP course in her university. It appears that T14 welcomed the EAP courses simply because the courses would improve their students' English. It seems that T14 could not differentiate between the EAP courses and the College English courses. She tended to believe that both courses could help their students improve their English skills to achieve the language competency of a NES. In line 8, T14 said: "students need to observe standard academic English". Even though she says she is not clear about what the EAP courses should teach, she claimed that the courses would help students improve their '*standard academic English*'. Her orientations to EAP courses were associated with orientations to College English.

The findings also suggest that some subject teachers did not have a clear idea about how to help students' improve their English. It seemed that they only identified the need to offer language support for students without understanding which types of English support would help students to improve their skills. They tended to pin all their hope on the College English courses. However, apparently College English provides little support for students who are going to be enrolled in EMI courses. In the mind of the majority of participants, students could improve their English skills

through attendance at a series of English language courses. They made no attempt to question the current College English teaching.

Another interesting finding is that previous experiences of communication with NNEs might influence teachers' perceptions of how to help students' improve their English. During our interviews, when asked to reflect on their overseas experiences, nearly all the participants said that they had experienced communication with NNEs in various contexts. All of them said they had difficulties in understanding the NNEs when they first arrived in foreign countries. Many expressed negative perceptions towards NNEs' English. But they all said they could understand those NNEs' English after a few months of increased contacts and had changed their attitudes. They also like to compare Chinese English accents with those NNEs accents and made comments like "Chinese English accent is easy to understand" or "our English accent is much better than other NNEs' accent". Two participants (T7 and T13) said it is necessary for their students to listen to English speakers with different accents. T7, in the following Extract 21, expressed her belief in encouraging her students to listen to different English accents. T7, is a mathematics teacher and she stayed in Japan for 5 years.

Extract 21

- 1 T7: I often encourage my students to speak English as often as
2 possible(.)I tell them to have a positive attitudes to different English
3 accents(.)because every speaker have their own accent(.)if you could
4 understand different English accent(.)it shows that you have good
5 English proficiency(.)Chinese people's English is good compared
6 with other English accent(.)when I attend the international
7 conference(.) you can imagine they all speak English with
8 different accents
9 L: do you think your students have any expectations of your English
10 accent
11 T7: NO NO(.)I heard people say American English accent sounds nicer
12 than British accent(.)but British English has better grammar than
13 American English(.)i have a friend who is studying in King's
14 College London?
15 L: yeah King's College London
16 T7: we often watch American films(.) I find they speak good English(.)
17 but the grammar is so so(.)an American friend tells me people who
18 stay in the middle part of the States speak standard English(.)the rest
19 all have accent
20 @@ what are the Americans(.)those who obtain the Permanent
21 Resident Card are Americans

In extract 21, based upon her previous overseas experiences, T7 believed that it was good for students to listen to different English accents. In line 4, she said students could demonstrate good English proficiency if they understood different English accents. Good English proficiency is now associated with students who could understand different English accents. She seemed to believe Chinese people's accent sounds much better than other non-native English accents. When I asked her if her students have higher expectation of her English, the emphatic stress on the two words "no no" suggested she did not feel worried about her English accent at all. However, she was not clear about differences between British and American English. T7's perceptions of American English and British English accents are probably influenced by her friend's views and film dialogues. While we were talking about accents, she referred to the grammar and said British English people have better grammar than American English. But I doubt if she could distinguish between British and American accents. For many Chinese teachers, the differences between them are hardly perceptible.

Initially, she said the American English accent is better than the British accent. But later when she said her American friends told her that the standard American English accent only exists in the middle part of the states, she realised that there is no correct American English accent. This may indicate that she did not have the sociolinguistic knowledge. In addition, T7 held very positive attitudes towards Chinese English, possibly because of the awareness of the diversity of English used in international contexts. It is important to point out that there was quite a small number of participants who expressed more flexible orientations to Non-native English. Some participants' orientations changed as the interviews progressed. To what extent their flexible orientations influence their teaching practices is still unknown.

7.6.3 Orientations to how to assess students' written and spoken English

It should be noted that several of the participants did not have a consistent view on the form and correctness of English. They sometimes changed their positions in relation to the topics and to the issues raised during the interviews. With regard to how they assess students' written and spoken English, the majority of the participants said that they focused on whether their students could express their ideas

rather than if they could use the correct language forms. But three participants said they asked their students to conform to standard native English in both written and oral work.

T3 initially said her students had adequate English to study EMI courses and she appeared to be satisfied with their English competence. Then I raised the current use of English around the world and the ELFA approach to T3. She did not agree with my views. She expressed a contradictory position. The following extract 15 took place after I described the ELFA approach on English language. I then asked T3 how she measured students' English in coursework, essays and exams.

Extract 22

- 1 T3: Students DO NOT conform to native English(.)this is not because
2 they don't want to conform(.)it's because of their low English
3 proficiency
4 L: okay
5 T3: you know so many students could not use the standard(1) then if
6 you could do this, you will make a difference(.)you will be
7 successful(.)find a good job(.) get promotion (.) despite the fact
8 that we are using English in China(.)I think it is still necessary to use
9 the standard(.)people could understand you better if you follow
10 native English norms (2)otherwise people will not understand your
11 points
12 L: erm on some occasions(.) our Chinese English erm many foreign people
13 could
14 understand our points(.) though it's different from native English
15 speakers' English
16 T3: but it's not correct erm not standard (.) not standard

In extract 22, T3 formed a strong attachment for native English. She assumed that NESs' English is the most desirable one that every student wants to achieve. She began by mentioning the low proficiency of her students. It seems that T3 changed her initial position, she did not consider her students' English to be acceptable or legitimate at this moment. When we refer to native English, T3 still believed that ENL is the most acceptable form of English. Her students needed to improve their English as closely possible as to NESs. Whenever she used native English norms as the yardstick, she always made negative comments on her students' English. T3 believed NE would make students feel superior, as the majority of students could not achieve this goal. She used the phrase "you will make a difference" in line 6. It

seems that T3 referred to the good image she wants her students' to show. She also said that people could not understand the points if someone does not speak NE. This belief was shared by some other participants in the interviews. When I said that foreign people actually could understand Chinese English in some contexts, T3 disagreed with my points and said 'it's not correct'. My responses did not change her strong position on native English. T3 repeated the phrase 'not standard' twice, which indicates her strong belief on standard native English. This belief may influence her ways of assessing the Chinese students' English.

Despite the fact that the majority of the respondents expressed positive orientations to native English, sometimes their orientations were not consistent during our interviews. A few changed their position after hearing about the ELFA approach (e.g. T2, T7, T8, T12). Some said it was their first time of hearing about this approach. Later they said they understood the difficulties for students learning subjects in English. A few referred to the Chinese social context where English is not frequently used. They seemed to notice it was impractical to expect all the students to conform to native English. Presumably, after my explanation of the ELFA approach, they also reflected on their orientations and expressed more tolerant views on their students' English. In particular, many of the participants expressed a more flexible approach to their students' spoken English than to their written English.

In addition, it has been found that those who have a more tolerant view about non-native English usually have experience of using English in a multilingual environment. Many referred to their study experiences in foreign countries. It should be noted that only T12 did not have overseas experience, whereas the rest have. For some of them, they have the awareness of different varieties of English. Though they still said native English norms are important, some of them talked a little less about the notion of conformity to native English.

The following Extract 23 is from the interview with T8 about how often native English norms are used for assessing their students' English. The conversation took place after T8 listened to my instruction concerning the ELFA approach.

Extract 23

- 1 L: will you correct your students' spoken language
2 T8: in my classroom, students often use sentences like he go to
3 somewhere (.) this sentence do not follow the grammar
4 accuracy(.) in my class I do not correct them
5 L: why don't you correct
6 T8: in SPEAKING (.) the main reason is because I could understand their
7 meaning(.)another reason is because I do not want to demotivate
8 the students
9 L: what about in writing(.) will you correct them
10 T8: in writing, I don't expect my students to write 100% correct English(.)
11 but I do require them not to make obvious grammar mistakes(.)I need
12 to make sure they organize their report logically and they also need to
13 show they understand the content(.) sometimes the grammar is right(.)
14 but the words are not idiomatical(.)if I could still understand their
15 point(.)I don't mind. You know(.) it's fun to read their English
16 sometimes@@@

What T8 said suggests that she was happy with her students' English as long as she could understand them. She gave reasons why she did not correct students' spoken English. The extra stress on the word 'speaking' suggests that she took a more tolerant view of her students' oral mistakes than their written ones. This result correlates with Jenkins's (2014) questionnaire respondents. A lot of Chinese respondents said that they would not correct their students' oral mistakes as long as they understand them. However, in writing, T8 altered her position of written English a bit and said that students "should not make obvious mistakes". It seems to T8 that naive English norms are often used to measure her students' writing. But T8 also highlighted the intelligibility in writing. At the end of this extract, T8's words "it's fun to read their English sometimes@@@", suggest that she enjoys reading her students' English. Her flexible attitude to students' English shows that her attention was focused on content and intelligibility rather than on form.

Another participant T2 expressed a very negative orientation to her students' English, and she attributed her strong conformity to native English to the English tests. It seems that she positions herself as having to take account of the English examinations and other type of English assessment. However, when we talked about EMI practices in China, I mentioned the concerns which other Asian teachers encountered and my feeling that native English norms should not be used to measure NNESS' English in EMI in Asian countries. When we talked about how she

measured her students' English, she seemed to change her normative position to a more flexible position.

Extract 24

- 1 L: you said you asked your students to do all the assignments in English
2 T2: yes all in English
3 L: how do you measure your students' English language
4 T2: I have a lot of students(.)A LOT(.)four classes each about 150 students
5 L: big classes(.) (.) it must take you a lot of time to do the marking
6 T2: erm yes I spent a lot of time on marking(3)other teachers also have
7 many students when I assess my students' assignments I focus on the
8 content(.)
9 L: ok you did not focus their English mistakes
10 T2: I do not have time and energy to correct their English (3)other teachers
11 also do the same way
12 L yes
13 T2: for students I think it's still a challenge for my students to write in
14 English(.) as long as I could understand their meaning that is fine(.).I
15 could understand their English I can not require both language and
16 content

When asked whether T2 corrected students' written English or not, T2 pointed out that she has a large number of students, in line 4. T2 admitted that she did not correct them due to the large number of students in her class. But there was a long pause before she said that other subject teachers did the same. This might indicate that T2 felt she had the responsibility to help students to conform to native English, but in practice, she found she could not because of lack of time and energy. She then emphasized the fact that other teachers did not correct students' errors. This might indicate that her practice is very common among many subject teachers in China. She then pointed out the difficulties for her students writing in English and admitted she could understand and accept what her students' wrote in the assignments. In fact, she altered her position to some extent and said she measured students' English based on the intelligibility rather than native English norms. It is necessary to point out that T2's flexible orientations to English may be influenced by the practical issues, such as the large number of students in the classroom and heavy work load. This could be one of reasons which made T2 accept the divergence from native English when assessing students' English.

7.7 Conclusions and discussions of the interview study

The findings from the interviews pointed to possible reasons for respondents' responses in the questionnaires. The interviews have given me an opportunity to understand how subject teachers perceive English, EMI and EMI policy in China. The interviews also helped me to explore the effects of English language policies on teachers and how the policies are actually implemented in practice.

In fact, many of the participants exhibited contradictory positions on EMI policy, EMI and English language. Some factors have been found which influenced the participants' positions during the interviews. The following factors could be the major one for attributing their changing positions. First, people's orientations are constantly changing. Their views might be influenced by the communication context, self-reflection and the topics under discussion. The issues which I investigated stimulated participants to reflect on EMI, and I found that their orientations were not fixed. Second, the research methods and my personal views might have had some effects on them. As discussed in Chapter 5, my promises were given to each of them that the data would be kept confidential and his/her name would be kept anonymous. The research confidentiality builds trust between me and my participants. This trust needs developing gradually in different ways. During the interviews, I always encouraged my participants to say what they wanted to express. At the same time, I also shared my experiences and views on certain topics. This may have given my participants the feeling that we were communicating rather than merely answering the interview questions. So my participants did not regard me as an 'inspector' but still as an external PhD student whom they could talk to about their understanding of the EMI. In addition, because the study topic is very closely related to their work, they might have felt that it was a good chance to talk about their concerns and understanding. In fact, several respondents did not dare to say they were not following the EMI regulations at the beginning. But after they heard that other teachers also did the same, they tended to admit their actual practices. Thus, I consider my interviews sometimes stimulated the participants to freely express their views which they did not dare to admit in public. I also introduced the ELFA approach and the current use of English in the world. All these might influence my

participants' orientations. When my participants changed their positions during the interviews, I found they were willing to explain their views which often contradicted their previous positions. This may suggest that some participants had already thought of the issues we were discussing. But they might have felt uncertainty as to when to say them.

The findings from the interviews have further helped me to answer my research questions: RQ1 a. What are the subject teachers' orientations towards EMI and English use in Chinese universities?

During the interviews, participants expressed many concerns related to teaching in English, such as lack of support, difficulties for teachers and students and, the vague distinction between the different types of EMI. Although the official figure indicates that large number of EMI courses or programmes are being established in Chinese HE, many participants did not feel that the figures were reliable. They said that the development of the EMI was still in the initial stages. The participants did not consider that their universities had offered them enough support that other teachers made the extra effort for preparing the courses. According to the responses from my participants, there are many things which the government or university need to improve. It seems there is no clear division between the different types of EMI and the aims of them. My participants seem to realise that they have to adjust their ways of teaching according to different contexts. They think that the management level does not make much effort to meet the needs of Chinese students and international students.

Many participants felt that EMI demands more teaching time than teaching in Chinese. Some felt that their universities did not notice the time issues. In addition, they believed that their universities have ignored the fact that students' might need more learning time. While the subject teachers are clearly aware about their responsibility to help students' understand content, they were very critical about the language role which the university imposed on subject teachers. The teachers were well aware that during the limited teaching periods, they could only help students learn the content well.

Participants' orientations on English language would influence how they consider English use in EMI and the criteria for assessment. With regard to English language, the participants all expressed a certain degree of attachment to native English. They felt that native English was the most appropriate form of English in Chinese HE. Native English is always regarded as superior to non-native English and always has the association with *standard, correct* and *good*. Many of participants believed they could conduct their teaching in English confidently at the beginning of the interviews, but after further discussion of language issues, they all felt that they should improve their English. When they talked about improving their English, they often compared their English with NESs. They tended to think that they have a relatively low level of English competence.

In addition, the majority of participants gave a positive evaluation of their overseas study experiences. The foreign countries they referred to were mainly English-speaking countries. It seems that they have very little opportunity to speak English in China and almost all participants consider the best opportunity to improve English is to study in English speaking countries, because many of them believed they would communicate mainly with NESs there.

Most of the participants still have a strong attachment to native English. Again, the underlying standard native English ideology could be interpreted as my respondents' orientations to English language. This reflects Woolard's (2005) ideologies of anonymity and authenticity. With regard to the notion of the anonymity, they felt obligated to use English to teach the content. Some felt that EMI poses challenges for both students and teachers, they tended to blame their students' English or their own English. They made no attempt to think about which type of English is suitable in EMI programmes in China. Turning to the notion of the authenticity, they believe that there is only one correct version of English. They tend to believe that native English is superior to any other English variety. They kept using 'standard English', 'correct English' during the interviews. They often associated good English with the speech of people who come from English speaking countries. Although some participants mentioned that those who obtained their PhD degrees could also speak good English, they assumed that they would like to practice their English with NESs rather than with NESSs.

In addition, participants' previous English learning background, examinations and their aims for positive self- image could also explain their strong attachment to native English. However, several participants revealed contradictory orientations towards native English and changed their positions during the interviews. For example, many of them revealed that they did not follow the native English in practice. Or some of them accept some divergence from native English norms in spoken English or suggest that their students listen to some non-native English varieties in order to give them a greater awareness of English use in real communication. It appears that for those respondents who have a more flexible view on students' English, a certain tolerance for students' oral English was generated. When they referred to students' written English, they again changed their position. They said students should use correct English grammar and vocabulary. Their positions changed from more flexible positions to normative ones. Nearly all the participants mentioned that communication is much more important in EMI. In other words, they think that they need to make some efforts to help the students understand their English instructions. However, to what extent they implement the EMI is still unknown. Though they showed positive attitudes to native English, it seems that some of them have very vague understandings of native English. One participant said: "British English has better grammar than other native English" or "American people speak good English, but the grammar is so so". Their perceptions of native English seem to be subjective and not based on their actual communication experiences. This finding also suggests that people often mention the British and American English, but some might not be clear about the real differences between them. The majority of my participants showed some perception concerning the kind of image they wanted to give to others and how they perceived the English use in practice. For those who held more flexible views on the forms and correctness of English, they also experienced a certain degree of conflict between allowing 'errors' to pass and accepting only standard native English ideology.

The findings from the interviews have further helped to answer my research questions: RQ1 b. What are the subject teachers' orientations towards their own and other subject teachers' English? How do subject teachers evaluate their students' English?

All my participants' evaluations are based on which benchmark they used. If I asked them simply to comment on their English, they tended to be satisfied with their own English competence. Many said they think they had adequate English competence to teach the content. However, when they compared their English with NESs and 'standard' English, they tended to say that their English was not good enough. Due to the influence of the standard language, they always feel that they still need to make a consistent effort to improve their English. Only one participant said directly that she disliked the persistent pressure to improve her English which was exerted on her as a non-native English teacher. She might already realise for herself the unrealistic goal of speaking native-like English. She disliked spending much more time on achieving what she considered were unattainable goals. Some participants expressed admiration for those subject teachers who have received education in the English speaking countries and who said they used English entirely in the EMI courses. Many of the participants still think the most valuable communication opportunities is to practice their English with NESs in the English speaking countries.

With regard to their orientations to students' English, the majority of the participants still believe that the students should try their best to speak and write standard English. They expressed their concerns about students' English proficiency. Like many responses obtained from the questionnaires, participants in the interviews also expressed strong attachment for native English. Many initially said that standard native English is the best kind of English that students should aim for. It should be noted that some participants expressed more flexible view towards students' spoken English. Some said that they measured students' spoken English based on the intelligibility rather than native English norms. Some even admitted that they did not correct students' written mistakes. The reasons mentioned include the large number of students and the flexible views on accepting their non-standard English. However, although many participants said that they sometimes accept some divergence from native English in practice, they still believe that such divergences are not the standard form. This finding seems to suggest that ELF exists in practice, but the subject teachers still tend to think that people should follow standard English.

In the following chapter, I will describe and analysis the observations I made in order to explore EMI from an observer's perspective. As it was discussed in the

methodology chapter, observations can demonstrate what people actually do compared with what they say they do. The findings from the interviews and questionnaires will be compared.

The findings from the interviews have further helped to answer my research questions: RQ1 c. what are subject teacher's orientations towards their university's EMI policies and practices?

Participants' orientations to their institution's EMI policies, it seemed that some were not familiar with the EMI policies and had no clear idea of what was written on the policy documents. But they still wanted to comment on the policy. Initially some participants expressed a positive attitude to EMI policies; they believe that policies could ensure the quality of EMI teaching and improve teachers' career prospects. When we discussed further about how they implement the regulations into their classroom, many exhibited a different position, they expressed more criticisms of the EMI/English related policies than positive opinions. They said the policy is vague and unhelpful for their teaching practices.

When the participants were asked to comment on the English requirements of the EMI policies, one issue concerning the amount of English use in EMI in China was discussed quite frequently during the interview. Many participants said that their university EMI regulations do acknowledge the exact percentage of English used in teaching. But some participants found the requirements were not practical to follow in practice, and one described it as "a very nice wish list". They all approved the use of code-switching in their classrooms, but no one said directly that they used Chinese more than the EMI regulation prescribed. The reasons for their use of code-switching were raised as explaining the key concepts and helping the students to understand the content. The interview results indicate that almost all of them adopted code-switching mode. This is inconsistent with their statement that English was mainly used in their classrooms. Their responses suggest that they still lacked confidence about using code-switching in EMI classrooms, because they were supposed to use English as much as they could. Their ambiguous position indicated that they did not want to be perceived as incompetent English teachers.

In addition, participants said that it is well known that although they are expected to use Chinese in class, those subject teachers who use English entirely are more highly respected than those who use English partially. Most of the institutions' EMI policies did not specify the requirements for teachers' English language, but many of those participants tended to believe what they were expected to by the university. It seems that there exist some 'unwritten regulations on English language. Participants were expected to use English as much as possible. They tended to exhibit a certain degree of superiority if they could teach courses entirely in English. Turning to 'unwritten requirements' for teachers' English, they often mentioned the words 'standard English', 'fluency', 'accurate English' and 'good English' to describe what subject teachers should achieve. They expressed the feeling that they were expected to speak standard native English and asked to attend English training courses in English speaking countries. Actually there is little chance for the majority to do this. Some participants said they were not happy about external unreasonable expectations of their English. However, the majority seemed take it for granted that unwritten English requirements were acceptable, and they highlighted the notion that they need to improve their English in order to give students a good impression. Though three participants have realised functions of the code-switching in ELF context, their orientation to code-switching is still linked with the speakers' lack of English competence.

Chapter 8: Classroom Observations

8.1 Introduction

Classroom observation was employed in this study to answer the RQ3 and to find out what actually happens in EMI classrooms. In this chapter, findings from observations will be presented and discussed. Chapter 8 will first explain the classroom data analysis procedure and then describe the characteristics of classrooms and universities. Then it will quantify the amount of English and Chinese used by four of the participants I observed. I will present the results in terms of the pedagogic episodes which occurred in the classroom and explore the reasons for them. The classroom observations analysis will contribute to the understanding of how the intended EMI language policy was implemented by different participants and what norms they adopted to measure the students' English.

8.2 Observation data analysis methods

Except for participant T5, all the observations with each participant were conducted after the interviews. When I had completed 32 classrooms observations in five universities, I listened to the recordings to gain an overall impression of each classroom. However, I have only presented data from 18 lessons delivered by four teachers in three universities. These 18 lessons were selected using different criteria. My main criteria for the four teacher's classes were based on the different disciplines. I also considered the technical aspect, such as quality of recording, the amount of English used in each lesson and the nature of the lesson (lecture or exercise lessons). I think the number of classroom observation was enough since the data pattern has been repeated (Cohen, et al., 2011).

During my observations, I first recorded the general information of each classroom setting with the help of my observation scheme. Second, I focused particularly on how the participants facilitated teaching using two languages. I took field notes of the classroom in order to understand why teachers switched to English or Chinese and how they dealt with form and correctness of English language in practice.

Although EMI often has the meaning of using English only, the classroom observations reveal that very few participants use English exclusively. Code-switching is a prominent feature in all the classrooms. Thus, I quantified the four participants' speech in order to find out the amount of English and Chinese used. I drew on the 'sampling' methodology proposed by Duff and Polio (1990). Their method allowed me to find out how much English/Chinese the subject teachers were using. According to this method, teachers' utterance was noted every 15 seconds and categorised as follows:

<p>L1: utterance is completely in Chinese L1c: utterance is in Chinese with one word or phrase in English Mix: utterance is approximately an equal mixture of Chinese and English L2c: utterance is in English with one word or phrase in Chinese L2: utterance is completely in English Pause: no speech ? utterance not clear enough to be coded</p>
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Table 8.1: Coding system of language use in class (adapted from Duff and Polio 1990)

Most of the lessons started by the teacher greeting all the students. I counted this stage as 0:00. After this, I listened to my recordings many times and noted the type of speech which occurred every 15 seconds of the language and then decided how I should categorize them. Appendix 11 shows an example of the observation scheme for a 10-minute period of lesson. This method has been adopted by other researchers to measure the ratio of L1 and L2 in classroom settings (e.g. Song, 2009).

After quantifying English and Chinese use in each classroom, I listened to my recordings many times in order to identify the key features during the instructions. Taking into account the purposes of my observations, I decided to transcribe part of each lesson. I transcribed those pedagogic episodes related to my research questions. Then I categorized them based on my observation scheme and the important things I selected after I finished my observations. I focused on the language used in each classroom and how the participants corrected students' English. Thus, the observation data were analysed at the sentence level. Three major themes emerged relating to my research focus.

1. Purpose of code-switching during the instruction

2. Occasions of English use in the classrooms

3. Participant's feedback on students' spoken English (content based or language based)

Before I present the results of my observations, I will first describe the four teachers and their teaching context as this will help students to understand participants' teaching behaviour. The three public universities where I conducted my fieldwork are all located in Beijing. All of them offered a certain number of EMI courses or programmes and presented the public image of being international universities.

8.3 The characteristics of the observation settings

All three universities which I observed offer both undergraduate and Master's Degree programmes in various disciplines. A range of selected courses are taught entirely or partially in English. Though the number of international students in each university varies, their university English websites indicate that they all place an emphasis on international cooperation or have the features of an international university. They implied a shared goal to internationalise their universities. University A describes itself as "*a truly international university offering a high quality academic experience*". University B is one of the leading comprehensive universities in China. It has a well-balanced range of science and arts subjects and a lot of disciplines are ranked first class among Chinese universities. On its university website, it describes its aims as to become "*one of the top-ranking research universities in China and an internationally renowned higher education institute with its own distinguishing features*". Compared with universities A and B, university C has the least number of international students. University C also focuses on "*establishing exchange and collaborative relationships with universities both home and abroad to achieve an international influence*". This university is also trying to achieve international reputation and exchange programmes with foreign universities.

The participants' classrooms were all located in multi-functional teaching buildings. T1 and T2 are from the same university. Table 8.2 contains background information (name of course, participants' speciality). There were about 65-70 students in T1 and

T2's classrooms. Due to the large number of students in the classroom, they both used microphones to teach. Their classrooms were extremely big with 11 rows of desks facing the teacher's stage and blackboard. All the desks and chairs were fixed on the floor, which made it impossible to shift them. Their rooms were all equipped with a computer, a projector and a roll-down projection screen.

Teacher	Specialty	Course name	University
T1	English, Business and Economics	International Business Negotiation	A
T2	International Trade and Finance	Economics of Money, Banking, and Financial Markets	A
T3	Economics	Financial Markets and Institutions	B
T4	Mathematics	Probability and Statistics	C

Table 8.2: the name of the course)

T3 and T4 had rather smaller classes compared to T1 and T2's classrooms, with 25 to 27 students. In their classroom, students' desks were placed in rows, all very close to the blackboard and the teacher's computer desk. In the front of the room, there was a long blackboard and a pull-down projection screen. T3 did not make any power point slides. This contradicted what she said in the interviews. For T4, the blackboard was used to write formulas and draw mathematical graphs. T3's class is also called 'international class', which refers to Chinese students who study their program for three years in China and one year in an English speaking county. This is known as a "3+1" bachelor degree in China.

Ho (2007) analysed the grammar lesson in stages proposed a model for analysis of lesson stages which proved useful for this study. He found the lessons comprise mainly three stages: the introduction stage, instruction stage and conclusion stages. In this study, after the initial analysis of all the lessons, four stages of lessons were summarised: the pre-introduction stage, introduction stage, instruction stage and conclusion stage. The pre-introduction stage comprises greeting and review. The Introduction stage consists of lead-in questions and explanations. The Instruction stage comprises teachers' explanation, recapitulation and interaction. The conclusion stage is when the teacher summarise the lesson and assign the homework for students. This terminology will be used where needed to clarify the location within lessons of lesson extracts discussed below.

The majority of the students in T1 and T4's classrooms are Chinese students. The courses were designed as a compulsory course for all the Chinese undergraduate students in their departments. The international students only account for the minority. In T1's classroom there were three international students, two from Russian and one from South Korea. In T4's classroom there were three students from Kazakhstan and one from Thailand. T1 and T4 used both English and Chinese in teaching. But all the students in T2 and T3's classroom were Chinese students. Both teachers used a large amount of Chinese in their classrooms. They adopted Chinese through nearly all in the four stages of lessons: the pre-introduction, introduction, instruction and conclusion stage.

With regard to the textbooks, two teachers (T2 and T3) used textbooks published in the USA or UK. The other two teachers (T1 and T4) used English textbooks written by Chinese teachers. Both T1 and T4 said they preferred to use textbooks which reflect Chinese social contexts. It is important to note that all the textbooks have been translated into Chinese versions. My observations add evidence to the fact that the most of the students either read the Chinese versions of the textbooks or read printed power points slides in English. It is possible that Chinese students find it much easier to read the Chinese textbooks or power point slides.

The general information, such as physical conditions in the classrooms, teaching materials and university background information enhanced my understanding of those participants' teaching practice. This information helps me to think about the extent to which these factors may influence the teachers' use of Chinese and English and the way to conduct EMI. In the following section, I will first quantify the language used in class.

8.4 Quantifying English use

In this study, L1 and L1c were considered to represent utterances in Chinese. L2 and L2c were treated as referring to teacher talk in English. The percentages of L1 and L2 talked by each of the four participants are listed in the following tables.

T1	L1	L1C	Mix	L2C	L2
Lesson 1	23%	8%	1%	1%	67%
Lesson 2	16%	3%	3%	4%	74%
Lesson 3	19%	4%	3%	6%	68%
Lesson 4	9%	3%	2%	3%	83%
Lesson 5	12%	9%	3%	5%	71%
Average percentage	16%	5%	2%	4%	73%
	21%		2%	77%	

Table 8.3: Percentage of T1's talk

During the five lessons I observed, T1 used both Chinese and English to teach. Her lessons were well-organized and followed a regular pattern in which she explained the new content and then moved onto the exercises at the end. As can be seen from table 8.3, the amount of English and Chinese she used was quite consistent during the five lessons. The average percentage of Chinese use was 21%, while the percentage of English was 77%. Overall, English was the major medium of instruction in her classroom.

However, in terms of English use, there is a prominent difference between T1 and T2's classroom. T2 dominated most of the classroom talk and also use Chinese as the dominant language. As the table 8.4 shows, she used Chinese most of the time and only occasionally explained a few terminologies in English or she simply read English sentences from her power point slides. She made no attempt to speak in English or to involve students in discussion. There was not so much communication between students and teachers in her class. When T2 asked her students to answer the questions, nearly all her students responded in Chinese. As can be seen from table three, the percentage of Chinese use was 91%, while the percentage of mixture of English and Chinese was 8%. Generally speaking, Chinese was the major medium in all her classrooms, but English still played a role in each classroom. T2 did not use English as frequently as I had expected. Although T2 and T1 were working in the same university and both had overseas study experiences, there were significant differences between the amounts of English used in their classrooms. As shown in table 8.2, T1 is the only participant in the observations who studied English language

and literature in her undergraduate study, the rest did not have any additional degree in English. It is very likely that T1 feels very confident of her ability to teach the courses in English and her English competence is better than T2. In addition, T1 and T2 have different orientations towards their students' English. In the interviews, T2 generated more negative evaluations of her students' than positive ones. It is very likely that T2's orientations towards her students' English competence influences her language use in the classrooms. T2 might believe that the use of Chinese can help her students to understand the content better.

T2	L1	L1C	Mix	L2C	L2
Lesson 1	82%	7%	10%	1%	0%
Lesson 2	75%	17%	8%	0%	0%
Lesson 3	64%	27%	6%	3%	0%
Average percentage	74%	17%	8%	1%	0%
	91%		8%	1%	

Table 8.4: Percentage of T2'talk

Similarly, 90 percent of the language T3 employed was Chinese. As can be seen from table 8.5, T3 used an average of 38% of L1C which indicated that her teaching was mainly in Chinese but with a few words or phrases in English. During her instruction, English was added to review the lesson or to introduce the initial topic. Her lessons normally began with a summary of the content covered in the last class. Then she asked the students to read the textbook and then she asked some questions related to the text they read. When she was explaining the calculation process, she always switched to Chinese. The average percentage of English was only 8%. Although her lessons were called EMI, Chinese was the major medium of instruction. Apparently, the amount of Chinese T3 used exceeded the prescribed amount in the policy. Her practices contradicted what T3 said in the interviews. She claimed that she mainly used English in class.

T3	L1	L1C	Mix	L2C	L2

Lesson 1	67%	14%	3%	6%	9%
Lesson 2	77%	20%	0%	0%	1%
Lesson 3	28%	64%	4%	3%	1%
Lesson 4	48%	48%	1%	1%	2%
Lesson 5	40%	42%	2%	7%	5%
Average percentage	52%	38%	2%	3%	5%
	90%		2%	8%	

Table 8.5: Percentage of T3' talk

Moving on to T4's classrooms, T4 mainly employed English in the classroom. What was surprising was that in the five lessons I observed, she used English 96% of the time. Chinese was used only when she need to explain some terms in Chinese or to check her students' understanding. The class size was relative small in T4's lesson. However, there was hardly any interaction between the teacher and students. The nature of the Maths lesson may require little discussion. Thus it is not surprising to find a lack of interaction in the classrooms. Students only answered the teacher when they were asked. As can be seen from table 8.6, the amount of English and Chinese she used was quite consistent during the five lessons. The average percentage of Chinese use was only 3%. Overall, English was the major medium of instruction in T4's classrooms.

T4	L1	L1C	Mix	L2C	L2
Lesson 1	4%	0%	0%	2%	94%
Lesson 2	0%	0%	0%	2%	98%
Lesson 3	3%	0%	2%	2%	93%
Lesson 4	0%	4%	0%	0%	96%
Lesson 5	2%	0%	3%	0%	95%
Average percentage	2%	1%	1%	1%	95%
	3%		1%	96%	

Table 8.6: Percentage of T4's talk

The reason for quantifying the language is to have a general impression of each classroom. The four tables above have indicated the proportions of English and

Chinese used by each participant. According to my observations, T4 conducted the lessons mainly in English. Others more or less used Chinese during their instructions. However, the participants' English use in practice are not in line with their responses in the questionnaires and the interviews. Except T4, all the teachers' Chinese use has actually exceeded the amount which they said in the questionnaires and the interviews. T2 and T3 even adopted Chinese as the major medium of instruction in their classrooms, while in the interviews, T2 and T3 often emphasised they switched to Chinese only when the students could not understand. Findings from the observations do not support what they said in the interviews.

In addition, with regard to the proportion of English use, all of the four participants' practices are different with their universities' EMI policies. T1 and T4 exceeded the required amount of English use, while T2 and T3 used less amount of English. The official EMI requirement in University A requires teachers to use at least 40% of English, while more than 70% of English is supposed to be used in T3 and T4's classrooms. In the interviews, some of them mentioned that their university expected them to use English as much as possible (see 7.5.2). T1, T2 and T3 probably were aware of such expectations, so they tended to claim that they were using English to the largest extent. However, the classroom findings suggest that T2 and T3 have adopted a much higher percentage of Chinese and have not meet the policy requirements. It is noteworthy to point out that the language use varies significantly in T1 and T2's classrooms, where T1 and T2 are working in the same department. T1 and T2 should have the same EMI policy in their university. Many reasons could be used to explain the mismatch. First, it is possible that participants adjust the EMI regulations to their classroom contexts. As some mentioned in the interviews (see 7.5.1), they found their university EMI requirements were not feasible in their classroom settings possibly because the majority of their students were Chinese. Thus, participants felt that the EMI requirements are decontextualized and they wanted to make their own adjustments to the EMI regulations. Secondly, another possible reason is that there is no assessment scheme which evaluates how EMI courses are implemented in practice. These subject teachers were teaching the content based on their own understanding, and their use of code-switching is done in their own individual way.

8.5 Main theme 1: purpose of code-switching during instructions

After quantifying the amount of English and Chinese used in each lesson, I then listened to each recording again. I transcribed some pedagogical episodes when the participants switched between the two languages. I selected those incidents in order to explore the possible reasons why the participants used Chinese or English in EMI. The transcription conventions used in my observation data analysis are partly designed by myself and partly adapted from Jenkins (2014: 220). The following table indicate the observation transcription conventions.

(.)	Pause of one second or less
(2)	Etc. pause of 2 seconds etc.
XXX	Unintelligible word or words
CAPS/Bold	Stressed word/loud talking in Chinese
@	Laughter (length indicated by number of @)
T1, T2, T3 etc	EMI teachers
[[Overlapping speech
()	English translation of words uttered in Chinese
S	a student
Ss	Students

Table 8.7: Transcription conventions

The first theme is the purpose of code-switching during instructions. The four sub-themes which emerged from this theme are as follows: explaining the content by referring to Chinese proverbs; explaining the content when the students have difficulties in understanding; the use of Chinese for recapitulation, maintaining classroom discipline.

8.5.1 Explaining the content by referring to the Chinese proverbs

When the participants started to explain the content, they switched to Chinese with different purposes in mind. T1 sometimes switched to Chinese to facilitate her English explanations. The following examples indicated that T1 used Chinese

proverbs when she might have found it impossible to find the equivalent words in English.

Extract 1⁸

1 T1: power means whether you can control or whether you can have
2 influence over others(.) over others(.) right? so actually in our daily
3 life everyone knows what it means by 县官不如现管⁹(3) ok(.)
4 because the guy who is directly above you has more influence or
5 control over you (.) right(.) so we say this guy will have more
6 power(.) erm in the war why we say the USA is the super
7 power(.) because the USA has strong influence of control over
8 other countries(.) that's why

In extract one, T1 used a Chinese proverb in line three in order to help students understand the content in relation to their culture. The Chinese proverb means that the officer who is in charge of the local company is much more powerful than the officer in charge of the region. T1 expressed in the interview that using Chinese proverbs was a useful way to connect with the students' Chinese cultural awareness and to engage the students' interests. It seems that L1 serves as a way of helping teachers connect with students' cultural perceptions and to facilitate their teaching. This finding is in line with the functions of code-switching in ELF (see 2.4). One of the purposes of code-switching in ELF is to express cultural identity (Klimpfinger, 2009). T1 appears to use this Chinese proverb to explain the content from a Chinese cultural perspective. The following extract offers another example of such cases.

Extract 2¹⁰

1 T1: negotiation in the same thing when two sides talking about plans
2 and take a lot of time and energy(.) then they find this plan does
3 not work but they do not want to look for other new plans because
4 that will take them more time but if you don't get rid of the
5 previous plan you never make progress so at that time you must
6 follow one proverb in Chinese 壮士断腕 你该断就要断¹¹(4) off
7 course considering only your own interests thinking your own
8 interests is another reason and then how can we get rid of it

⁸ First lesson observed in T1's classroom

⁹ 县官不如现管 English translation: The official sitting in the county seat can't order people around like one sitting right here

¹⁰ Third lesson observed in T1's classroom

¹¹ English translation: cut loss quickly

In extract two, T1 used a Chinese proverb in line five followed by long pauses. The long pauses seemed to indicate T1 wanted to give her students more time to reflect on what she said. The literal meaning of the proverb in line six means that a brave soldier whose arm has been bitten by a snake must make quick decision to amputate the arm. T1 wanted to express that people who involved in the negotiation should make a prompt decision at certain time. The use of Chinese proverb can help her to express her idea precisely and to resonate with the students who share the same culture background. Again, code-switching served as a way to help students understand the subject. The use of Chinese in this context should not be interpreted as the teacher's lack of English proficiency, but should be seen as a way to help the local students understand better the content and also to help those students who lacked confidence to learn the English-only instruction. As the majority of the students are Chinese, T1 believes that Chinese proverbs are more familiar to them. Using Chinese proverbs which students were familiar with could help them to understand the content and promote solidarity. However, there were a few international students present in T1's classroom. T1 expressed in the interviews that those international students could understand both English and Chinese, but she pointed out: "their Chinese is not good". Thus, there are questions about the appropriateness of teachers using Chinese proverbs with international students, since the use of Chinese proverb may exclude international students. It seemed that T1 was not aware of the need to make adjustments for international students. This finding seems to be consistent with Jenkins's research results (2014). She discusses the small amount of academic support that international students in British universities receive from their universities. Her participants complained that some lecturers make no adjustments to the international students' English. My data reflected similar evidence that some teachers may ignore the presence of international students in multilingual classrooms in Chinese universities.

8.5.2 Explaining the content when the students have difficulties understanding

Many factors may influence the participants' decision to use Chinese and English in EMI. During the interviews, nearly all the participants said they switched to Chinese totally when they found their students did not understand what they were saying. Sometimes they noted that their students' lack of competence in English is the major

reason. In T1 and T4's classroom, before participants switched to Chinese, they preferred to ask if students could follow them, expressions such as: "right?", "Ok?", "Can you follow me? And "do you understand?" were frequently adopted to check the students' understanding. However, I noticed that in some classrooms, students did not respond to teachers orally. Their behaviour can be interpreted as one of my participants (T12) in the interviews, said "most of my students are very shy and they don't like to talk in class(.)they are not willing to answer the questions voluntarily". Most other participants said likewise that they think their students are too shy to speak. Despite students not responding to the teachers orally, many students nodded or shook their heads when their teachers checked their understanding by using expressions such as right?", "Ok?", "Can you follow me?". It seemed that some students preferred to respond to the teacher through body language instead of verbal communication.

If teachers found that many students shook their heads, the teachers would switch to Chinese to explain the content. The following extract three is a common pedagogic episode. T1 spoke English first and ended with the word 'right?' in order to check her students' understanding. As T1 did not receive any responses from their students, this may indicate that many students had problems in understanding the English content.

Extract 3¹²

- 1 T1: if I can produce all kinds of different styles of(.) different styles of
- 2 cars(.)that's no economical (.) that's not economical(.)Right?
- 3 Ss: Silence (no response)
- 4 T1: 如果一个企业，比如说克莱斯勒，比如说德国的德国大众，它
- 5 要是把整个车系全都生产完了这德国大众也就要倒闭了。因为
- 6 不符合经济发展规律所以它只能生产几种类型的 car 然后能取
- 7 得规模优势 (The company, such as Chrysler, XX and Volkswagen
- 8 will go bankrupt if they designed all styles of cars. This
- 9 could break the law of economics. So companies normally
- 10 produce a few types of cars and try to achieve scale advantage)
- (Author's translation)

¹² Second lesson observed in T1's classroom

In extract three, T1 used the word ‘right’ with rising intonation to check whether students could follow her or not. It is necessary to note a similar type of questioning often occurred in other participants’ classrooms, where they often used rising question intonation to check students’ understanding rather than use the interrogative sentence. If T1 received little or no oral or facial response from her students, she then switched to Chinese to explain the meaning. But her Chinese explanations were not the direct translation of her English, she also added examples to elaborate the content so as to help students build a concrete image. As discussed in 7.5.2, some participants in the interviews said sometimes they switched to Chinese to save time. The time issue has been mentioned many times and the teachers indicated that teaching in English often takes them longer time to finish the assigned curriculum than using Chinese language. Due to not receiving a response from the students, it is possible that T1 switched to Chinese directly mainly because she did not want to spend too much time on it and she felt that a Chinese explanation could help her to get to the point efficiently. Although the interviews reflect the teachers’ perspective one the use of Chinese to save the class time, my observations indicate that students do have difficulties in understanding explanations in English. The following extract offers another example to indicate that T1 switched to Chinese when she found her students remained silent for quite a long time. Extract four begins with T1 asking students if they could follow her instruction.

Extract 4¹³

- 1 T1: did you understand my question?
 2 Ss: Silence (no response)
 3 T1: (2)why the USA prime minister cannot fully support its own
 4 country’s industry(.) no Japanese prime minister(.) it’s own
 5 country’s producers’ industry (2) why? (2)
 6 Ss: Silence (no response)
 7 T1: 日本首相为什么不能像美国总统那样全心全意的支持本国
 8 企业(Why Japanese prime minister cannot fully support its own
 9 country’s industry)(3)why?
 10 Ss: Silence (no response)
 11 T1: 我们刚刚分析完了这个案例(.) political reasons? (We have just
 12 analysed this case)

In the extract, Chinese was used on occasions when English failed to work. T1 did not use the Chinese initially. T1 first asked if the students could understand her or not. Then she repeated the question again and then switched to Chinese. In such

¹³ Second lesson observed in T1’s classroom

instances Chinese was used to help the teacher participants fulfil the teaching task and to express meaning efficiently when English explanations did not work.

8.5.3 The use of Chinese for recapitulation

In T1 and T3's classroom, Chinese was also used for recapitulation. In the following examples, the lecturer switched to Chinese because she reiterated what she had just said in English. On such occasions, T1 simply wanted to emphasize the key points. The following examples from T1's class reflect this practice.

Extract 5¹⁴

- 1 T1: Wal-Mart is a big retailer(.)so that's why all the product
2 producers and suppliers want do business with Wal-Mart (2)
3 because it has selling channel all over the world(.)that's why
4 during the negotiations Wal-Mart has pushed the price from
5 the suppliers very very low level(.)we all know that
6 Wal-Mart selling strategies are low prices (.)沃尔玛最大的
7 销售策略是低价(.) 叫做薄利多销(.)薄利多销(.)
8 Mart selling strategies are low prices small profit, large
9 sale volume(.)low prices small profit, large sale
10 volume) (Author's translation)

In extract five, Chinese was used to recapitulate the key points she wanted to deliver. T1 wanted her students to pay attention to what she said. In extract 5, T1 wanted to emphasize Wal-Mart's selling strategies. Instead of speaking in English, she repeated the word '薄利多销'(small profit, large sale volume) twice in line 5 and then switched to English. Chinese was used to emphasize the key points from the textbook. This finding has indicated that T1's L1 use could also be considered as the way to draw students' attention. For example, the following extract took place when T1 was not satisfied with students' assignments. She found many of them did not make enough effort to do the assignment. She said: "I must emphasize" and then she switched to Chinese.

Extract 6¹⁵

- 1 T1: those students who hand in the homework just put the interest rate
2 or leasing rate(.) that's all (.) I don't think that you will create value

¹⁴ Forth lesson observed in T1's classroom

¹⁵ Forth lesson observed in T1's classroom

3 for the company(.)I don't think company will treat you well and you
 4 may very soon lost many good chance(.) you know. Often
 5 your boss will determine your future just by once(.) some students
 6 seem to do everything in a very lazy ways they do not want to put any
 7 effort. I must emphasize 在你进入工作岗位，老板就一次确定
 8 你的未来，他不会给你很多机会，你进入工作岗位要做很多投资
 9 报告，几十页一次的报告，咱们同学交上来的就一页纸。写点
 10 interest rate or leasing rate(.)这是人人可以找到的(when you work
 11 in a company.)your boss won't give you many opportunities(.)you
 12 have to write many investment reports. You might need to write
 13 many pages(.)it's very pity many of you handed in one page report
 14 as your assignment with only the simply calculation of interest rate or
 15 leasing rate(.) everyone can do this.

In line six, T1 switched into Chinese when she wanted to emphasize the points she made. She might have thought that English could not help her to fulfil the same communication purposes that she intended to convey. Thus, it seems to T1 that the use of Chinese can be a helpful tool to reinforce the points she wants to make. English would not have the intended effect.

In T4's classrooms, although there were a large number of Chinese students, she rarely used Chinese compared to the other participants in my study. Only two instances when she used Chinese were identified. The following examples from T4 show the two pedagogic episodes.

T4: if we have a random variable X with distribution F (.)如果我们有个随机变量 X 和概率 F 分布

T4: when we try to select sth from the large data base. The process of collecting information from a sample is referred to as sampling. The key sample movement translated to Chinese 样本

In the first example above, T4 first explained the content in English when the new concept was introduced. She then continued by providing the Chinese translation. In the second example, T4 emphasized the word 'sample' and translated only this word into Chinese '样本'. T4's translations were all the abstract subject jargon which she tried to make accessible to her students. So she translated the words into Chinese in an attempt to help her students better understand the concepts.

In addition, in some classes code-switching was also used to draw students' attention or to maintain the classroom discipline. Before the lesson started, many students were still chatting with their classmates. The teacher normally switched to Chinese

and used expressions like “别说啦”[no talking], “我们现在开始上课”[Let’s start our class now] to stop students’ talking and to maintain the classroom discipline. I found this technique was quite helpful to draw students’ attention in the observations. During the interviews with T1, she said she used Chinese when she needs to draw students’ attention. Because the majority of her students were Chinese, maintaining the classroom discipline sometimes can be better achieved in Chinese, especially when using English appeared to have failed to stop students’ talking. Chinese served as an efficient way to express meaning promptly.

8.6. Main theme two: occasions of English use in the classroom

8.6.1 More English use at the beginning of the lesson and after the students’ positive responses

Turning to the second theme, I found three participants preferred to speak English for their classroom routines. They tended to speak more English during the pre-introduction and introduction stage of the new lesson. All the participants, except T2, tended to speak slightly more English during the pre-introduction stages. They all started their lesson with friendly talk in English. The following are a few examples to illustrate the participants’ use of English at the beginning of the lesson.

Extract 7

- 1 T1: it’s time to begin our class(.)did you all hand in your assignment?
- 2 remember your assignment? the case analysis(2)if not please hand in
- 3 your assignment after this lesson
- 4 T3: good morning(.)are you all here? Let’s start our lesson
- 5 T4: hello everyone(.) before we start our lesson(.)I need to tell you about
- 6 the new teaching timetable next week(.)I will email the new
- 7 timetable to you later today(.) please check your email

Though the percentage of English use in each classroom varied, T1, T3 and T4 all used English to greet their students. They might have done this to show that they wanted to reinforce the features of EMI lessons. Or they might have done this to show that they were trying to use English in their classrooms. As was discussed in the interviews (see 7.5.2), some participants often switched to Chinese when they found that students could not follow their instructions. Classroom observations

further indicate that positive responses from their students often encourage the teachers to keep speaking English. The example below shows an instance where T3 used English all the time without any explanation in Chinese.

Extract 8¹⁶

- 1 T3: let's think about the determinants of interest rates for individual
2 securities(.)can you still remember the factors which influence
3 individual securities?
4 Ss: inflation
5 T3: yes inflation(.)it means the continual increase in the price
6 level of goods and services(.)ok the next factor?
7 Ss: (no verbal response)
8 T3: remember?
9 Ss: real interest rate
10 T3: yes and the third one is default risk(.)it means risk that a security
11 issuer will default on the security by missing an interest or principle
12 payment(.) right?
13 Ss: yes
14 T3: we also know another factor which is about the length of time a
15 security has until maturity(.)how we call this factor?
16 Ss: time to maturity
17 T3: good(.)if you can not remember those factors(.)you can turn to page
18 44(.) page 44 ok let's continue

In extract 8, T3 was asking a series of display questions related to factors influencing nominal interest rates. English was used consistently throughout the extract 8. This can be interpreted that students' response to teachers' questions serves as a useful 'mirror' to determine which language to use in instructions in her classrooms. The four participants reinforced this notion during their interviews. They said their use of Chinese who will determined by students' feedback.

Turning to T4's classrooms, she was the only teacher who used almost all English during her instruction. Her use of English was quite consistent in all the lessons which I observed. Maths classes may involve a relatively straightforward language switch to maths language. This could be one reason why T4 used a great deal of English in her classroom. The lessons focused on explaining mathematical definitions and the calculation process in English most of the time. T4 started her

¹⁶ Third lesson observed in T3's classroom

lessons with a brief introduction and went straight into the topic. Extract 9 is a case in point:

Extract 9¹⁷

- 1 T4: ok so we continue our talking about the confidence interval(.)
2 the introduce of theorem concept and its meaning(.)why we
3 can get these results(.)so actually we did the calculation to get
4 one possible value mean of \bar{X} (.) Then we can get the interval
5 of mean of the population(.) please remember these results(.)
6 so sometimes we also write it by \bar{X} plus a minus means of α
7 over 2 and σ valid by square result that is perfectness
8 interval for μ when σ is known(.) when σ is known we use
9 this normal distribution so the other case will be σ is not
10 known(.)before we learn it(.)let us see an example(.) if
11 random sample of size $n=20$ from a normal population with
12 the variance $\sigma^2=225$ has the mean $\bar{X}=64.3$ (.)construct a
13 95% confidence interval for the population mean μ (.) to
14 think about it for one minute(.) If random sample size $n=20$
15 from a normal population with the variance $\sigma^2=225$
16 has the mean \bar{X} the
17 value of sample mean is 64.3(.) please construct a 95%
18 confidence interval for the μ , for the population mean μ (.)
19 right?
20 Ss: (no oral response)
21 T4: so please tell me what is α . When one minus α equals 95%(.)
22 so be careful we usually see the confidence degree of
23 confidence use the 1 minus α (.) One minus α equals 95%(.)
24 then we can get α actually equal to 0.05. So no(.) α over two
25 will be 0.025 and now we have check the t for XXX Z sub, α
26 over two the Z sub is 0.025(.)yes?
27 Any question?
28 Ss: (no oral response)

The above extract is a typical instance in T4's lessons. Similarly, she frequently used expressions such as "right" and "yes" with a raising intonation to check if students could understand or not. However, my observations indicated that students did not responded to her orally, but some students nodded their heads quietly. When she received the nodding response from her students she would keep speaking in English. Due to the nature of the courses, her utterances contained words as well as numeric and non-numeric symbols. It is important to note that the English she used in her lessons was the technical jargon. While she was explaining the calculation process in English, she wrote down the formula on the blackboard. Initially, I felt that her students might not able to understand her English. But in fact it seemed that most of

¹⁷ Second lesson observed in T4's classroom

them could follow her very well and knew exactly how to calculate the exercises. Besides, the students were quite familiar with the numeric and non-numeric symbols T4 used and seemed to follow her English instruction well. This might indicate that the students were better selected for the EMI course.

8.6.2 More English use when the participants are following power point slides or textbooks

Though the participants switched to Chinese in order to provide the Chinese equivalents, there were some occasions when the participants (especially T2 and T3) spoke more English than Chinese, such as reading the English sentences from their power point slides and reading the sentences from the textbook. Except T3, all the other participants prepared English power point slides to assist their instruction. Although T3 said she had prepared English power point slides in the interviews, I did not see this during my observations. T3 relied heavily on the textbooks and often read the English sentences from the textbook.

Unlike T3, T2 had English textbooks and power point slides. But the only occasions I heard T2 speak English was when she read the English headings or the sentences from her power point slides. Although T2 said that using Chinese is appropriate in her classrooms, she did not use Chinese mainly in practice. Her teaching practice contradicted to what she expressed in the interviews. The following three sentences were recorded while I observed T2's lesson. These English sentences were exactly the same as those found in the textbook. T2 read these English sentences aloud while she was explaining the content in Chinese.

Extract 10

- T2: player in the market, bidding against one another, establish the market price
- T2: the first conclusion is that the price is set by the buyer who are willing to pay the highest price.
- T2: because market participants are constantly receiving new information and revising their expectations, it is reasonable that stock prices are constantly changing as well.

Many reasons could explain the greater use of English when teachers are following the textbook. Some of my questionnaire respondents said that they relied heavily on power point slides, because without them, they would not know how to explain the concepts precisely in English (see 6.5.1). It is very likely that they feel that standard English can produce better teaching outcomes. They might find that power point slides or other written English helps them to speak English with confidence or to produce a more 'native-like' and 'standard' utterance. A few interview participants also stated that power point slides could ensure they speak correct English. Pursuing standard language but ignoring the major objectives of the EMI has indeed affected participants' teaching. As discussed in 7.4, some participants in the interviews expressed negative orientations to other subject teachers' English, especially to those teachers who usually read the English textbook when teaching. Their negative reactions are more related to some teachers' behaviour rather than to what kind of English they speak. It is also possible that T2 lacks English competence for her job. She may believe that written English can help her to have standard English. However, she seemed to ignore the fact that authentic communication requires the speakers to accommodate and paraphrase the written English by using their own words.

8.7 Additional features of T2 and T3's EMI courses

As discussed in 8.4, T2 and T3 used a large amount of Chinese in their lessons. Code-switching is a prominent feature in their classrooms. However, sometimes their switches between the two languages indicate some other features. T2's instruction is mainly based on her English PPT slides as she put detailed information on each slides. But T3's instruction is based on the textbook. English is more likely to be used when T2 and T3 read the English sentences from the PPT slide or the textbook. They normally used Chinese for explanation and recapitulation. When T2 and T3 were explaining new content, one prominent feature was that they spoke mainly in Chinese but mixed in a few English terminologies or phrases. It is possible that they are well aware of the nature of the course, and that they are expected to use English mainly. But they found that Chinese explanations could help them to achieve effective teaching. Since teaching entirely in Chinese is inappropriate in EMI courses, these two participants preferred to teach mainly in

Chinese but occasionally with English terms. The following examples indicate how T3 teaches the courses in practice.

Extract 11a¹⁸

T3: Ok 第三个要素 liquidity risk 流动性风险首先还是要大家知道流动风险的定义(ok, the third factor is liquidity risk. First, we need to know the definition of the liquidity risk)

Extract 11b

T3: 流动风险的定义有 3 个因素一个是 predictable price 预期的价格销售第二个是 low transaction costs 低廉的交易成本第三个是 short notice (the definition of liquidity risk has three factors. The first one is predictable price. The second one is low transaction costs and the third one is short notice)

Extract 11c

T3: 超过 50 的 PMI 代表了经济复苏的趋势和经济发展趋势越高相对越好但是这也不见得很好特别高你会想到一个 over-heating 了能够经济过热的一个状态了 (If Purchasing managers' index (PMI) exceed 50, it might suggest good economic recovery and the economic development. It's necessary to point out higher PMI figures do not always reflect good economic situation. You will think about economic over-heating).

The above extract shows that all was explained in Chinese except for the underlined English terms. The code-mixing demonstrates that the courses were not conducted entirely in Chinese. In addition, some participants said in the interviews that students had difficulties in understanding the English instruction. The mixture of Chinese and English could make students feel at ease and understand the content confidently. But this also contradicted what T3 said in the interviews.

Similar teaching practices can be also found in T2's classrooms. For example, while T2 was explaining the new content, one prominent feature of her lessons was she spoke mainly in Chinese but with a few English terminologies. As with T3, T2 probably thought that teaching mainly in Chinese but using some English terms might represent EMI. The following are some of those examples:

¹⁸ Third lesson observed in T3's classroom

Extract 12a¹⁹

T2: 我们看第二个 model 就是 generalized deficit evaluation model 推广的红利定价模型现时中我们的股票 (Let's see the second model, generalized deficit evaluation model. In reality we call it shares.)

Extract 12b

T2: 第一年的 deficient 低于 1 第二年年末的低于 2 第 N 年的低于 N 我们预计在 N 年之内我们能够以第 n 年的价格 t_n 价格售出(.)
this reasoning implied that the current value of a share of stock can be calculated as simply the present value of the future divided stream, [the deficient in the first year is below 1. The deficient in the second year is below 2. The deficient in the N is below N. The we could estimate in N year, we could sell the goods at t_n].

Extract 12c

T2: 这个 model 比较适合研究但是不具有可操作性但是为了它具有可操作性就得到了我们第三个 model 戈登模型 Gordon Model 这个更具这个经济家的名字命名的(This model is mainly used for research. It does not have the operability in practice. The third model is Gordon model which could be applied in practice. Gordon Model is named by the economist Gordon).

As can be seen from extracts 12a,b,c, although T2 spoke Chinese she used 'model', 'deficient', 'generalized deficit evaluation model' and 'Gordon model' in English. It seemed she used code-mixing to show that she intended to teach in English. She might have thought that using English terms would indicate that her lessons were not entirely in Chinese. Or she may have wanted the students to remember those terms in English. Although subject teachers should be allowed to use their multilingual resources to accomplish the teaching objectives, Chinese should be used as the supportive language. Apparently, in T2 and T3's classrooms, Chinese is the medium of the instruction. Their teaching practices contradicted what they said in the interviews. It is possible that their practices represent how they believe EMI should be implemented.

8.7 Participants' feedback on students' spoken English (content based or language based)

Before examining the teachers' feedback on students' oral English, I would like to discuss the general mode of teaching and give a description of question-answer

¹⁹ Second lesson observed in T2's classroom

patterns based on my observations. First of all, it is important to point out that all the lessons I observed were teacher-centred and teacher-controlled. The participants did much more talking than their students, while students were quite passive in class and they were not often encouraged to express their views unless they were asked to answer specific comprehension questions. For example, T2 seldom asked questions. Her students made no contribution to the lessons at all. Acceptable explanations for are the large classes, the nature of the subjects, the teacher's teaching styles and certain cultural aspects. Many research studies have indicated that teachers dominate the classroom talk in East Asian classrooms (Leung, 2005). Some scholars have suggested that Chinese teachers' teaching practice reflects the "Confucian Heritage Culture" (e.g. Biggs, 2007). The "Confucian Heritage Culture" denotes that the teacher is still the source of authority, with students participating as passive learners. Thus, teachers tend to dominate the classroom by giving the answers instead of asking the student for answers. This would influence their classroom pedagogy. Thus, it is not surprising to find that the teachers speak more in classrooms in China.

Another important point based on my classroom observations, is that teacher participants' language choice seemed to determine the students' choice. If the teacher participants initiated the question in English, the students tried to answer the questions in English. This again indicates that teachers' language use in the classroom influences the students' language choice in the classroom. However, teacher participants did not overtly ask students to answer the questions in English. The students were free to choose the language they wanted to use. Many times the teacher participants tended to adopt more display questions and students preferred to answer them in chorus unless they were nominated to answer them. This can be seen from Extract 8. In the following section, the analysis examined the extent participants accessed students' oral English in class. Special attention was paid to the teacher's feedback, especially to how they corrected their students' English. The identification of those incidents were obtained after repeated listening to my recordings in order to find the relevant interactions. The example below was just one of the examples, there are some other examples. The following example was selected to show how the participants gave feedback. Extract 13 arose when T1 asked how her students understand negotiation power.

Extract 13²⁰

- 1 T1: next one is the reputation(.)I'm sure this is easy to understand (.)
2 the more famous your products are more negotiating
3 power you have(.)because we can have more access to the potential
4 trading partners and you can add reliability(.)right?
5 Ss: yes
6 T1: ok next one product life circle(.)do you know life circle theory?
7 can anyone tell me how many stages are there?(3)I will ask a
8 student to answer(.)Li Ping?
9 S: erm each product have a life circle(.)it should have introduction (.)
10 developing (2)
11 T1: ok(.) but we don't say developing(.) we say growth(.)there are five
12 stages in a product's life cycle they are introduction growth maturity
13 saturation and decline(.)right?
14 S: yes
15 T1: ok(.) sit down please(.) during the period of growth (.)can you tell
16 me the negotiating power rests on the sellers or on the buyers?(2)
17 Wang Haijia
18 S: it rest on the seller
19 T1: good(.) seller(.)during the period of saturation(.)negotiating power
20 rests on the sellers or the buyers?
21 Ss: buyers

In extract 13, all students answered T1's first question together, then she asked one students to answer it individually. T1's questions were clear and easy for students to follow. The student said 'each product have' instead of 'each product has'. The verb does not agree with the single subject of the third person. T1 did not correct this error. However, she paid attention to the meaning that the student wanted to express. In business negotiation, precise technical terms should be used to describe the situation, so T1 pointed out it was not appropriate to say 'developing' but to say 'growth'. In line 18, the students said "rest" instead of "rests". But later T1 reformulated the student's utterance by "negotiating power rests". Many similar instances occurred during T1's instructions. Reformulations were used quite frequently in T1's classrooms during my classroom observations. This is in line with the previous study that ELF users sometimes reformulate their English to achieve communication (e.g. Mauranen, 2006). The following two extracts all reflect how T1 offered oral feedback to her students.

²⁰ Fourth lesson observed in T1's classroom

Extract 14²¹

- 1 T1: what is users' interest? users' interest(.) Jiang kun
2 S: they can buy things at the lower price and they want to save
3 the money(.)there are some difference between users and
4 sells interest
5 T1: ok(.)of course they welcome goods sold at the lower price(.)
6 what about SIA

Extract 15²²

- 1 T1: Last time I asked you to read the textbook about how to
2 strength the communication.(.)could you tell me how you
3 understand this? Li Ping
4 S: you listened to others carefully(.)crucial thing is you must
5 listen to what other parties wants and desires and the conditions
6 so you can find out the implied meanings later
7 T1: good(.) we must listen carefully(.)then you might find out
8 the useful information.

Extract 14 took place when T1 discussed the interest of different business parties. The student used “some difference” instead of “some differences”. T1 might feel that the student had already answered the main point and so did not expect her to give the standard form. Again her feedback was content based. Similarly, in extract 15, this student said: “crucial thing is you must...” instead of ‘the crucial thing is that you must...’. In addition, the student did not consistently use the correct verb form “want”. But, T1 praised the student and did not correct the non-standard usage. Therefore T1 may focus more on the meaning rather than on the language form.

Similarly, in extract 16, the student used non-standard English. She said “influence the market shares” while the teacher just rephrased her utterance into “increase the market share”. T1 tried to encourage the students to give the specific percentage. The students first said “10 per cents” in line 11 and then “30 per cents’ in line 13. However, T1 did not correct the language form but elicited the exact percentage from her, although she reformulated the students’ utterances later. What T1 concerned most was the correct number not the correct language form.

Extract 16²³

- 1 T1: what's the first purpose that USA put forward? Zhang yu
2 S: the USA wants to influence the market shares in Japan so

²¹ Second lesson observed in T1's classroom

²² Second lesson observed in T1's classroom

²³ Fourth lesson observed in T1's classroom

3 they want to reduce the obstacles
4 T1: ok you are right(.)the USA wants to increase the market
5 share in Japan(.)this is kind of demand or condition and it
6 has to be supported by specific condition(.)what's that
7 S: because(.)at the present the USA government just
8 occupied
9 T1: no no I mean what are the actual condition that USA put
10 forward
11 S: they want to have market shared more than 10 per cents
12 T1: more than what
13 S: 30 per cents
14 T1: 30 per cent? Ok sit down please(.)when you want to
15 increase the market share(.)this is just the abstract target
16 then this target has to be supported by specific conditions(.)
17 so form this condition(.)you know what do you mean by
18 specific(.)actually they want to double the market share(.)
19 it's 20 per cent

During my observations of T1's lessons, it was clear that teaching content was her main concern. However, it is interesting to point out that in the interviews; T1 said she felt that she had a responsibility to correct students' English which was different from standard, but her teaching practices did not reflect what she said in the interviews. In practice I found she did not correct her students' English, and her feedback was content based. What T1 concentrated on was whether students could express their idea and understand her question.

Unlike T1's classroom, T3 adopted the Chinese language to ask students' questions and, then her students would answer her back in Chinese. But I still identified a few instances when she spoke English. The feedback was also content based, with the participant's focus on whether students could understand the content or whether they had a different understanding. The following two extracts occurred when they were talking about loanable funds in the financial markets.

Extract 17²⁴

1 T3: we know governments also borrow heavily in the market for
2 loanable funds(.)right?we talked about this last time(.) I will
3 call a student to tell me(.)Wang Yan
4 S: sometimes government issued the debt to support the unbalances
5 between em em(2)
6 T3: between what
7 S: between taxes and infrastructures

²⁴ Third lesson observed in T3's classroom

- 8 T3: right(.) we have a special term (.) remember? Between operating
 9 revenues and budgeted expenditures(.) when the interest rate is high(.)
 10 what the government will do?
 11 S: I think the government won't do anything immediately(.)government
 12 will normally wait and because of the high interest rate
 13 T3: good(.) higher interest rate might cause government to postpone the
 14 borrowings

Extract 18 ²⁵

- 1 T3: can you tell me the relationship between the quantity of loanable
 2 funds supplied and interest rates?
 3 S: the more interest rates means the higher loanable funds
 4 T3: yes it's a positive relationship

In extract 17, the student intended to say the government release bonds. She used 'unbalances' instead of 'imbalances'. Later, she did not know how to express the exact term, thus she used two specific words "taxes and other infrastructure". T3 later reformulated the students' utterances and used the phrase 'operating revenues and budgeted expenditure' instead of correcting the students' English directly. In the interviews, T3 was the only teacher who highlighted the issue of intelligibility during the classroom interaction. She admitted that she took a flexible view of her students' English. What she said in the interviews was the same as what I observed. As a subject teacher, her primary concern is about the meaning rather than just the form.

In T4's maths classes, there was no discussion. T4 assigned the maths exercises and students tried to solve them individually. I did not see many interactions between teachers and students. The following two extracts took place when T4 asked a student the meaning of random sampling. At the beginning, the student seemed to have no idea and there were long pauses after the question. But in Line 4, T4 tried to encourage the student to say more. The student finally said "fx1 time fx2 time fx" instead of "fx1 times fx2 times fx". T4 praised the student without pointing out the 'times'. Then T4 read the definition from the power point slides.

Extract 19²⁶

- 1 T4: last time we learnt the random sampling(.)right? What is the
 2 random sampling(3)Gaohan(.)

²⁵ Third lesson observed in T3's classroom

²⁶ Second lesson observed in T4's classroom

- 3 S: en(3)
 4 T4: what is random sampling?
 5 S: It's kind of something...
 6 T4: what kind of something?
 7 S: em(.)every variables have the f(x) equal to fx1 time fx2 time
 8 fx
 9 T4: good. Let X1, X2 and Xn be n independent random
 10 variables(.)each having the same probability distribution
 11 f(x).We then define x1, x2 and xn to be a random sample of
 12 size n from the population f(x) and write its joint
 13 probability distribution as the f(x) equal to f(x1) times f(x2)
 14 times fx

The following extract offers another example which shows the feedback which T4 provided was content-based rather than accuracy-based. T4 seemed to be satisfied with answers from the student.

Extract 20²⁷

- 1 T4: how to estimate the confidence interval? Li Tianyi
 2 S: en we just use this Chi-squared distribution
 3 T4: yes what to do next
 4 S: S squared can be known by random sample(2)em random
 5 sample can(.) we get one sample we can use it to find out
 6 thevalue of S squared(.) then we can know its confidence
 7 interval
 8 T4: right(.) I think now you clear for the three theorems(.) Let us
 8 to do this example(.)if 16 tests runs the gasoline
 9 consumption of an experimental engine has a standard
 10 deviation of 2.2 gallons(.)S equals 2.2(.) n equals 16.

Again, in terms of English, the student used a non-standard English form to answer T4's question. T4 accepted the student's answer and went straight to the next exercise without repeating the correct English language. T4 did not comment or correct the student's English, but she allowed the students continue to express their ideas. During the interviews, T4 told me: "the language of mathematics is different from daily language (.) We have to follow the grammar but we also need to use mathematical symbols or terms to express maths ideas". Her utterance during the interviews may suggest that the English T4 used was different from that of other EMI courses. What seems more important is to have a logical idea to understand maths problems rather than to use correct language forms. Comprehensibility

²⁷ Third lesson observed in T4's classroom

seemed to be the major priority in her classrooms from what I observed. However, as discussed in 8.7, T1 corrected students' English when she found the student did not use the proper technical terms. This indicates some subject teachers are also concerned with students' subject language skills. Despite the fact they expressed tolerant view towards students' oral English in the classrooms sometimes, they still revealed the importance for students to master precise disciplinary terminology in English.

Although some participants expressed contradictory positions towards using native English norms to assess their students' English, findings from the classroom observations revealed that the four participants observed rarely used native English norms to measure students' English or correct them. Their teaching practices indicated that they were not using native English norms to assess students' English. It appears they did not require their students to conform to standard native English in practice. In general, T1, T2 and T4's classroom practices generally reflect what they said during the interviews. They all mentioned, to some extent, that they focused on what their students expressed, rather than on correct English forms when assessing students' oral English. The most frequently mentioned reason for this was that they believe their primary duty is to teach the content. Some said they focus on the meaning rather than assessing if their students' could use the correct forms. In addition, T9 was the only one in my interviews who admitted that she does not have a clear idea about native English norms. T9 said: "I'm not an English teacher(.) as a NNES I'm not very sensitive to English language(.)if Chinese students speak English with some Chinese features, I don't know@@ I don't think it's funny. But I think English is a tool. For ordinary people(.)intelligibility is the most important(.)I don't expect them to speak perfect English". Although I did not observe T9's lesson, her reason might suggest that some subject teachers are not very sensitive about what standard native English is or what the native English norms are. They may simply agree with the notion that students' should conform to standard native English, but they might not clearly know what the standard native English is.

By contrast, T2' classroom practice contradicted her responses in the interviews. She expressed a strong opinion on native English norms and emphasised the point that subject teachers should correct students' English. My classroom observations seem

to suggest she actually adopted the ELF orientated approach in her teaching experiences. This suggests that many subject teachers and students are using ELF in practice, but some of them did not realise their teaching practices denote the notion of ELF. Some of them are still caught in the dilemma of displaying qualities which they think qualified teachers should have, and using a more practical approach to respond to their local classrooms.

My findings seem to contradict the ELF definition (see 2.2.3) which does not include interlocutors from the same language/cultural background. However, what I am trying to argue is that ELF definition should expand to include English use between same L1 speakers talking to each other in English. People who speak the same L1 sometimes need to use English to communicate in certain occasions and settings. ELF communication can be also found among the English users who share the same L1. The English they used are influenced by their L1. In addition, they are also adapting and adjusting their English, using code-switching to help communication. The English interactions between the interlocutors from the same language and cultural background comprise ELF practices.

8.8 Conclusions and discussions

This chapter has analysed and discussed research findings from the classroom observations. Due to the limited time and very small number of the participants, my observation findings cannot be generalized to all subject teachers in China. But these observations and my field notes has helped to gain an insight into what four participants actually do in their classrooms. Findings from observations are very likely to resonate with similar EMI classrooms in other Chinese universities. During the interviews, participants expressed their orientations towards EMI policy, English language, EMI practice and textbooks. The analysis of my observations has helped me to examine what the subject teachers said in the interviews. It has also enabled me to capture the emergent data, especially, issues which I would have never anticipated before making the observations.

The findings from the observations helped to answer RQ2: how is EMI implemented in the classroom and how much Chinese and English were the teachers using? With regard to the teacher participants' teaching practices, each participant has different ways of implementing the EMI courses. Generally speaking, all four participants dominated the classroom. This teacher-centred approach is quite common in classrooms, as discussed in 8.7. It is not easy to get data of teacher/student interaction. It was also found that sometimes participants' teaching practices contradicted the EMI policy and the positions they expressed in the interviews. It appears that the language requirements of the EMI policy have less impact on their teaching. As discussed in chapter 7, all four participants said that their power point slides were written in English in the interviews. However, T2 did not prepare any power point slides during my observations. Her teaching practice was at odds with the top-down EMI regulation which requires subject teachers to prepare the slides in English. In addition, although the university EMI policy requires teachers to recommend at least one Anglo/American teaching textbook to students, my observation revealed that the majority of students just read the textbooks with Chinese translation or the printed PPT slides. I assume that many students may find that foreign published textbooks are expensive to buy and less relevant to their learning context.

It can be seen from the observation data that the four participants often used questions with rising intonation to check their students' understanding. Expressions, such as 'right?' 'understand?' 'OK?' are most frequently-used. This finding reflects Björkman's (2012) study which investigated ELF users' use of questioning. Based on my observations, questions with rising intonation cause no understanding problems for the students. The use of questioning in EMI facilitates students' understanding. In addition, observation findings illustrate the fact that participants also used communication strategies, such as repetition, code-switching, use of questioning, to help them overcome the challenges for teaching subjects in English. The strategies they adopt is consistent with some ELFA empirical findings (e.g. Cogo, 2009; Mauranen, 2006b; Björkman, 2011, 2012). It was only during my observations that I became aware that subject teachers' use of English varied significantly from teacher to teacher. I think that the specific classroom context and participants' English competence could influence the way that participants

implement their lessons. Respondents revealed in the questionnaire that 66% of their lectures were given in English. The observation findings indicate that some teachers mainly use Chinese in their classroom. When the participants were asked how much English they used during the interviews, many said they use both Chinese and English and they also emphasized the language they used depended on their students' English competence. Very few subject teachers reported that he/she used a large amount of Chinese in EMI courses in the questionnaires and the interviews. Most of the subject teachers said that code-switching happens occasionally and stressed that English is mainly used in their classroom. The findings from the questionnaires and interviews suggest they were aware of the EMI regulations which state that English should be the main instruction language.

However, the two participants who used larger amount of Chinese in their classrooms than they said felt that participants did not follow the top-down EMI policy and they may implicitly believe that their practices are feasible and acceptable. The observation data revealed that T1 and T4 conducted their teaching mainly in English. However, T2 and T3 used Chinese most of the time. In T1's classrooms, the average percentage of Chinese use was 21%, while the percentage of English use was about 77%. In T2's classroom, the average percentage of Chinese use was 91%, while T2 only occasionally spoke English or used code-mixing. In T3's classroom, T3 used 90% of Chinese. However, in T4's classroom, 96% of the language T4 employed was English.

I assume that the underlying biased views towards code-switching have influenced subject teachers' orientation in the interviews. They felt embarrassed to admit that they used a lot of Chinese in EMI. As discussed in chapter six and seven, subject teachers said that admitting to the excessive use of Chinese in EMI courses would disadvantage their career prospects, since it is against their university EMI policy. Despite the fact that Chinese serves as an important facilitator for Chinese students in the classroom, the large amount of Chinese used in 'EMI' is not regarded appropriate for international students, whose first language is not Chinese. This problem has also been discussed in Swedish higher education where EMI lecturers use both English and Swedish (Bolton & Kuteeva, 2012). Bolton & Kuteeva (2012)

point out that the mixture of both English and the local language is problematic if international students do not understand Swedish.

Findings from the observations also revealed that participants tended to speak more English during the greeting, reviewing and introduction of the new lesson. In addition, they spoke more English when they read the prepared notes or English power point slides. On the one hand, they thought that written English materials can help them to speak English more precisely. On the other hand, this teaching practice may suggest some subject teachers were facing challenges when having to speak spontaneously in English. Using prepared written English materials may reduce their difficulties in teaching EMI courses. In addition, as was discussed in 6.5.1, a few respondents said they felt that they could not explicitly explain the content in English if they moved beyond the prepared English written form, such as the textbook, teaching notes and power point slides. However, teacher's English proficiency can be one reason which explains lecturers' teaching practice. To what extent they lack the sufficient English competence and pedagogical knowledge is still in need of further studies.

Although some participants said that they lacked confidence in using L1 in the EMI classrooms, my classroom observations revealed that code-switching is very common in the classrooms which I observed. This also reflects the previous literature on code-switching in Chinese contexts (Peng, 2007; Hu et al., 2014). Four functions of code-switching can be summarised from the data. First, the participants used code-switching for explaining difficult points which they thought their students could not understand. Second, code-switching is used to help the participants finish the teaching tasks as expected, especially where the students in the classroom share the same L1. Third, the participants used code-switching to emphasize the key knowledge and maintain classroom discipline. Fourth, code-switching is used to help the students understand the content in the local sense. The L1 equivalents sometimes signal the local culture and the solidarity of being from the same cultural region. The functions of code-switching in this study are in accordance with previous studies (e.g. Flowerdew et al., 2000, 1998; Tien, 2014). However, it is also important to note that two participants (T2 and T3) used Chinese habitually. Due to all their students being Chinese, they used or switched to Chinese very frequently. T2 occasionally switched

to Chinese to explain the grammatical points to her students, the other teacher did not focus on language form. It seems that the use of both Chinese and English is more likely to continue in Chinese universities. This may be especially the case when EMI programmes target Chinese students only. Code-switching has been used to fulfil different functions for all the participants in EMI courses. Teachers' frequent use of Chinese should not be seen as a lack of competence in English language. The data from my observations suggest that the teachers' language choice is often associated with their classroom contexts, according to whether the majority of the students can understand the content or not. Sometimes students expressed explicit confusions towards what the teacher said, or they simply revealed their confusion through facial expressions. However, in most cases, students did not express their confusions verbally, and then it was the participants who decided which language to use based on their judgement of the students' comprehension. Applying to mother tongue in the EMI classroom can help teachers ensure time is saved and signal cultural identity (Klimpfinger, 2009). The findings in the observations seem to suggest that the code-switching in T1 and T4's classroom was more frequently employed than in other classrooms (T2 and T3).

Turning to the RQ3 b, the findings from my study also indicated that participants tended to focus more on the content meaning rather than the English form in practices. Teachers seldom used native English norms to assess and correct students' English during the instruction. Students received less English language feedback from their subject teachers unless their response was highly problematic. The students' comprehension of the content appears to be more important in EMI classrooms. My participants seemed to take a more tolerant view to their students' spoken English. It seems that their emphasis is not on the Anglo-American varieties of English but on the academic knowledge. They are tolerating their of student's non-native English use in the lessons. This finding seems to reflect previous studies on Chinese subject teachers' attitudes towards non-native English (e.g. Jenkins, 2014). The Chinese respondents in her questionnaire study tended to have more tolerant views towards non-native English. The data from my study obtained the observations, indicate that these subject teachers actually did not use native English norms to measure students' English. Overall, the findings from the data obtained

from the observations complement the data obtained from questionnaires and interviews.

Chapter 9: Conclusion

9.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I will first summarise the key findings of the research. Then I will discuss the theoretical contribution and implications for EMI in Chinese HE. Then the limitations of the study will be discussed. Finally, some suggestions will be given for future research.

9.2 Research questions and findings

As was introduced in Chapter 1, this study explored subject teachers' orientations towards English language use in classroom and teaching practices. It also explored the effect of EMI policy on teachers. The EMI policies have been examined through teacher's orientations and implementations. The findings obtained in this research will contribute more generally to knowledge about EMI and ELF. In addition, it may contribute to the HE in China and other non-Anglosphere countries where they have started to implement the EMI courses in universities. The following section summarises the findings by discussing each of the research questions.

RQ1: How do the subject teachers in Chinese HE perceive EMI policies and practices?

- a. What are the subject teachers' orientations towards EMI and English use in Chinese universities?
- b. What are the subject teachers' orientations towards their own and other subject teachers' English? How do subject teachers evaluate their students' English?
- c. What are the subject teachers' orientations towards their universities' EMI policies and practices?

The RQ 1 was explored through both the questionnaires and interviews. The findings indicated that the majority of teachers expressed a positive view towards EMI and

English use in Chinese universities. They identified the fact that both students and teachers themselves benefited from the EMI courses. Many believe that EMI programmes enrich their professional career and improve their English. The beneficial reasons for students were also related to the instrumental purposes, such as overseas study and good job opportunities (see 7.4). However, the findings suggest that EMI is challenging for both teachers and students. Some teachers have very cautious positions on the development of EMI in China. They raised challenges regarding teaching subjects in English, such as teachers' limited English proficiency, the longer time needed for lesson preparation and high expectations from their universities (see 6.5 and 7.4). In addition, teachers expressed concerns related to students' English competence and lack of experience of the English speaking environment. They believe that students need time and learning strategies to adjust to EMI. These concerns identified in this study support previous EMI studies conducted in both East Asian and European contexts (e.g. Bolton & Kuteeva, 2012; Chang, 2010; Erling & Bartlett, 2006; Hellekjær, 2010; Hu, 2008; Peng, 2007; Tange, 2010; Xu, 2008; Yu, 2008). Teachers did not consider EMI to be a threat to Chinese language and culture.

In answering RQ1b, with regard to their orientations towards English language, many teachers acknowledged that English is a tool for international communication and emphasised the importance of learning English for Chinese students. Teachers in this study have complicated views on English language. In the view of the majority of teachers, native English is the most appropriate form of English to learn. They took the "conforming approaches" and contrasted their own or others' English with a NES. They expressed a negative view concerning Chinese-influenced English use. A few participants even had the biased orientation that communication cannot be achieved if both speakers could not use native-like expressions. Thus, they sometimes emphasized the point that both students and teachers need to make some efforts to improve their English through English courses and overseas study. Native English has always been associated with notions of 'standard' and 'correctness'. This orientation was mentioned several times in both questionnaires and interviews. Although some teachers accept some divergence from native English, they consider native English as the most appropriate form in academic settings. In addition, many teachers appreciated very much the opportunity to study in English speaking

countries, since they believed that it would improve their English proficiency which is connected with their career prospects.

With regard to teachers' orientations to their own English, some teachers demonstrated ambiguous orientations. Many believe that they have sufficient English skills to cope with the courses. They evaluated their reading and writing skills more positively than their speaking skills. But in general they do not consider that their speaking skills hinder their teaching. However, they subconsciously compare their English with a NES's norms and resist the external requirements to improve their English. My findings confirm the ambiguous orientations reported in the previous EMI research conducted in the academic settings (e.g. Jenkins, 2014; Pilkinton-Pihko, 2010). In the interviews, participants seemed to believe native English to be the most appropriate academic English. Chinese English and other non-native English were considered less favourably than native English. This resonates with previous studies which explored teachers' orientations towards English (e.g. Bolton & Kuteeva, 2012; Pilkinton-Pihko, 2010; Jenkins, 2014). Some possible reasons were also identified and discussed, such as their previous education experiences, English language policy, English textbooks and attachment to standard language ideology. In addition, some participants related their desire to improve their English in order to give others (students, colleagues, administrators) a good impression and to develop their career prospects within the university, such as promotion and involvement in research projects. They tended to use the phrase 'good English' to describe their target for improvement. Their 'good English' is actually referring to native English. This might suggest they could obtain more external rewards and a greater reputation if they speak standard English in EMI courses.

Most participants expressed negative orientations towards other teachers' English. But they all pointed out that subject teachers should have good English competence to ensure the quality of EMI. Some noted that those teachers who have gained academic degrees in English speaking countries often have good English. They were likely to assume that teachers with extended experiences in English speaking countries mainly improved their English by talking to NESs. The majority of participants still believe, by contrast, that teachers without any overseas experiences tended to speak English with NNEs in the classroom environment and have rare

opportunities to practice their spoken English with NESs. This finding suggests that the teachers think the only valuable communication in terms of improving their English skills is speaking with NESs in the English speaking countries. However, they may ignore the fact that those people who studied overseas also have to communicate with NNESs in English. They appear to have false beliefs in their approach to improving their English skills. They did not realise how important it would be to talk with NNESs, as English is widely used for international communication and within multilingual societies. People talking with NNESs are actually enhancing their English ability and their intercultural communication skills to use English in globalized contexts. Some respondents' concerns relating to their English competence have caused them to rely heavily on written English instead of oral English.

With regard to the students' English, most teachers said that some students' language proficiency did not meet the requirements for EMI programmes. Their comments concerning their students' English were quite negative. Many believe that the students' inadequate English hinders them from benefiting more from the EMI courses. In fact they evaluated students' English from CET, rather than based on their classroom performance. The English scores (e.g. CET 4/6) students received were repeatedly used as a reference to evaluate students' English competence. This may suggest the influential role of the English exams affecting their orientations to students' English.

Turning to the question of how subject teachers assess their students' English written work and oral English, many teachers did not have a consistent view on the form and correctness of English. The majority of the respondents adopted a normative orientation towards students' written work and oral English under the influence of English exams and policy. They considered their students' English written work and oral English as something to be consistently improved or corrected. But sometimes they said they focused on the students idea rather than on the correct language forms. Some seemed to have more tolerant views on their students' oral English compared with their written English. It is important to note that some teachers' flexible orientations to English may be influenced by practical issues, such as the large number of students in the classroom and heavy work load.

The findings also confirm that people sometimes have contradictory orientations towards English language (e.g. Jenkins, 2007, 2014; Baker, 2012). Their positions towards English were dynamic and difficult to perceive. The interview data demonstrated that subject teachers' positions towards their own and others' English changed, as they compared themselves with different people. If they compared their English with that of other academic staff in the university, they often expressed positive reactions. In contrast, when they compare their English with NESs, their positive perceptions disappear and they often point out their language weakness. Also, they identified the need to make some efforts to improve their English despite the fact that they actually have vague ideas about their learning goals. Thus, it is the crucial point whether they consider native English to be a benchmark which evaluates people's English. This result confirms the finding reported in previous research (Pilkinton-Pihko, 2010). However, although sometimes the teachers seemed to generate a more flexible view on others' English, the majority of the participants made no attempt to challenge NE norms. It was found that traditional ELT and standard language ideology were very likely to influence their perceptions.

In answer to my RQ1c, the majority of the respondents to the questionnaires reported that their university did not have any EMI-related policy. Many of them added that they had no interest in reading any policy because they considered it vague and not useful (see 6.7 and 7.4). Similarly, teachers in the interviews also expressed more criticisms than positive opinions towards the EMI related policy in the interviews. The teachers think that their university policies are vague and unfeasible, so they tend to show negative views about the policies. There are three types of concerns about the policy. First, they questioned their universities' requirements that students take two or three EMI course credits before graduation. This system is believed to be too rigid to ensure the flexibility and suitability of students' learning.

Second, they dislike the top-down policy, since it prescribes the amount of English use in the EMI courses, which was not applicable in many classrooms. Many said teachers should decide the amount of English use in EMI classes, while others believed that the proportion listed on the regulation could not reflect the classroom reality. They hope to be given more freedom to organize their lessons, and they criticized the uniform EMI policy.

Third, they resent the external unrealistic expectations. Although there were no clearly-stated EMI policies concerning the teachers' English level, some teachers seemed to be aware of the 'unwritten language regulations' expecting them to achieve a very high standard. The top-down management team expects them to conform to native English and to speak English as much as possible. Thus, some teachers seemed to express contradictory views on how much English should be used in the classroom. On the one hand, they had to switch to Chinese in order to help students understand the content. On the other hand, they felt obligated to use much English to meet the requirements. They still considered the frequent code-switching as a compensation strategy rather than a communication strategy.

It is also crucial to point out that many teachers' interpretations of policy are limited to the policy document itself. They seemed to ignore the association between language policies and practices. They tended to believe that ordinary teachers have little influence on policy making. But the findings suggest that teachers play an important role in classroom practices, and sometimes the EMI practices largely depend on the individual teachers not on the EMI policy. Policies or requirements might have less effect on EMI teachers than expected.

RQ2: What actually happens in EMI classrooms?

a. How is EMI implemented in the classrooms and how much Chinese and English were the teachers using?

b. To what extent do subject teachers use NES norms to assess students' English during the instruction? Are they tolerant of student's non-native English use in practice?

Findings obtained from the classroom observations helped to answer the RQ2 (a, b). Generally speaking, the observations reinforce the mismatch between EMI policy and actual implementation. Sometimes, teachers' teaching practices contradicted the EMI policy and the positions they expressed in the interviews and questionnaires.

The results reveal that the EMI course is still a newly emerging form of teaching and only a small number of teachers are involved in EMI courses. The results obtained from observations also indicate that there are only a small number of international

students in EMI classrooms. This finding may suggest that the real number of international students in the degree programmes may not be as many as the publicly released figure. Actually, Chinese students constituted the major body of students in EMI courses.

Generally speaking, all of the four teacher participants dominated most of the classroom talk in the class. This teacher-centred approach is quite common in the classrooms I observed (see 8.7). It is not easy to obtain data of real interactions between teachers and students. The four teachers displayed similar teaching including aspects such as starting the lesson with revision, explaining the new content (of the textbooks and power point slides) and asking students to do exercises. Although all the teachers stated in the interviews that their power point slides were written in English, one teacher did not prepare any at all during my observations. Her teaching practice was at odds with the top-down EMI regulation which requires subject teachers to prepare the slides in English. With regard to textbooks, the classroom data suggests that many students were not using the textbooks written in English, they were using the textbooks with Chinese translation or the printed power point slides.

Teachers' use of English varied significantly from classroom to classroom. The quantification of English use in each classroom has been specifically explained in section 8.4. Two of the teachers mainly adopted Chinese to teach while the other two exclusively used English. The observation data offered further evidence that code-switching is often used in the EMI courses. The amount of Chinese used in practice exceeded what the teachers reported. Data from the questionnaires and the interviews, may suggest that the underlying biased views on code-switching have influenced subject teachers' orientations. The data also suggests the inconsistencies between the reported teaching and the reality in the classrooms. In addition, the finding supports the previous literature on language policy and language practices. Subject teachers in this study did not follow the proportion of English prescribed in the policy and this result also confirms the findings reported by Costa and Coleman (2012). It appears that the language requirements of the EMI policy have less impact on their teaching. It is up to the individual teachers to decide how much English and Chinese will be used in practice.

Findings from the observations also revealed that the participants tended to speak more English during the pre-introduction stage and introduction stage. In addition, two teacher participants spoke more English when they read their prepared notes or English power point slides. A lot of teachers held a negative position on those teachers who merely read the English from the textbook without elaborating the content in their own words. Using prepared written English materials may reduce their difficulties in teaching EMI courses (see 6.5.1). But to what extent they lack sufficient English competence and pedagogical knowledge is still in need of further studies.

Turning to code-switching, four functions of it can be summarised from the classroom data. First, teachers used code-switching for explaining difficult points which they thought their students could not understand. Second, code-switching is used to help teachers finish the teaching tasks as expected. Third, teachers used code-switching to emphasize key knowledge. Fourth, code-switching is used to help the students understand the content in the local sense. The L1 equivalents sometimes signal the local culture. The functions identified in this study are in accordance with previous studies (e.g. Flowerdew et al., 2000, 1998; Hu et al., 2014; Peng, 2007; Tien, 2014)

However, it is also important to note that two participants (T2 and T3) used Chinese habitually. Since all their students were Chinese, they switched to Chinese very frequently. In addition, apart from T2 who occasionally switched to Chinese to explain the grammatical points to her students, the three other teachers did not focus on language form. This finding generally supports what the participants said in the interviews.

Although the policy expects subject teachers to help students with their English, the findings indicate that the participants did not regard themselves as language instructors. Most of the participants regarded themselves as facilitators to helping students with their academic achievement. This is consistent with what the previous scholars argue that the major responsibility for subject teachers is to teach subject knowledge (e.g. Cai, 2010).

The observations also confirm the fact that there is still much to be improved on the part of the university. Some universities do not have specific regulations regarding what happens in classes which have all Chinese students in them or are mixture of Chinese and international students. The EMI policy has not clearly specified the different EMI courses, but all of them are designed for Chinese students, rather than for a mixture with the international students. Thus, the findings provide evidence that subject teachers and the universities seemed not to be ready to adapt to the new teaching context where the increasing numbers of international students are studying in Chinese universities. It has been found in the EMI literature that this kind of teaching poses great challenges to those international students who do not speak the local language (e.g. Bolton & Kuteeva, 2012).

In answer to RQ2b: To what extent do subject teachers use NES norms to assess students' English during the instruction? Are they tolerant of students' non-native English in practice? It was found that classroom observations resonated with the findings in the questionnaires and interviews. In the teacher-centered classrooms, teacher participants gave very limited English feedback to their students. If the student's English was highly problematic, they tended to reformulate the students' utterances. In general they tend to tolerate the students' oral mistakes, and pay more attention to the content rather than the accuracy. Though a few participants occasionally emphasized accuracy in the EMI courses, learning content is the major objective in practice. Native English norms have not been used as a yardstick in the classrooms. This finding seems to reflect Jenkins's (2014) findings that Chinese respondents tended to have more tolerant views on non-native English in practice. The findings also suggest a gap between what subject teachers thought to be necessary when assessing students' English and what criteria they actually used in practice. This may indicate that contextual factors, such as the large number of students and time constraints for teachers, might influence teachers' tolerance to students' oral English.

9.3 Contributions and implications

In the following subsections, I will first discuss the theoretical contribution of study to the ELF and language policy framework. This is followed by discussion of three

major implications for the teaching of subjects in English, EMI policy and for ELT in China.

9.3.1 Theoretical contribution of the study

This section discusses the contribution of study to the ELF and language policy framework. As discussed in 2.2.3, both Jenkins' (2014) and Seidlhofer's (2011) ELF definition focus exclusively on the communication between speakers from a different lingualcultural background. Similarly, Mauranen's (2012) notion of 'similects' also talks about ELF users speaking English with people who come from the different L1 background. However, English interactions among the people who use the same L1 background have often been perceived as 'non-ELF' interactions. In this study, I explored the situation where students and teachers are all Chinese or sometimes the majority of them are Chinese (with limited number of international students). What I found is that when students and teachers were using English to learn the subject knowledge, they adopted an ELF oriented approach in their practice, and sometimes they used code-switching in their interactions. In this sense, their English use was influenced by their L1 and culture background, but they were also adjusting their English. It is therefore argued here on the basis of my findings that the definition of ELF should be expanded to include same L1 speakers talking to each other in English. My study which has explored subject teachers' orientations and implementation of EMI in universities offers new evidence to expand the ELF definition and to apply ELF theories into a wider social context. In this sense, ELF users' English can be perceived as the result of interactions between both people who come from different language backgrounds and those L2 English users who share the same L1.

As for its contribution to language policy research, my study has confirmed Spolsky's language policy framework. As discussed in 4.3, Spolsky (2004) sees language policy as being made up of three interrelated components: language beliefs, language practices and language management. My research has drawn upon his framework to explore subject teachers' orientations and implementation of EMI in Chinese universities. Adopting his framework offers new perspectives to study language policy in this case, since EMI policy in China is a new area of language

policy research. As discussed in 4.4, the previous language policy literature in China is mainly focused on the top-down policy and policy making process. The bottom-up language practices have often been neglected in the research. Unlike the traditional approach, Spolsky's framework provides me with the theoretical basis to interpret subjects' beliefs about language policy, English language, and how policy is actualised in practice. The findings for this study thus offer further empirical evidence for understanding his framework.

According to Spolsky (2004), people in the community often have certain perceptions towards a language. The majority of my participants have strong views towards English language and said they considered native English to be correct and better than non-native English. Even sometimes, some subject teachers who showed a certain degree of tolerance of NNEs' English, still perceived native English to be better than any other Englishes. Standard English language ideologies seem to be deeply rooted in my participants' mind.

The second component in Spolsky's framework is language management. It actually indicates how English policy should be implemented. However, my findings suggest subject teachers in this study did not implement the top-down education policy. Many described their university's EMI policy as not useful. Spolsky (2004: 222) said "the real language policy of a community is more likely to be found in practices than in its management". Some teachers in my study did not follow the policy and said it was not useful.

According to Spolsky, examining language practice is as important as examining policies. Spolsky's language practices reflect what people actually do with language. He defines practices as "observable behaviours and choices" and calls them "real policy" (p.4). In my study, subject teachers' teaching practices were reflected in their actual EMI instruction and responses from questionnaire and interviews. My findings confirmed that a gap exists between the intended EMI policy and the enacted EMI teaching practices.

9.3.2 Pedagogical implications for EMI in Chinese higher education

The use of English as an academic lingua franca is a recent education phenomenon in Chinese universities and has attracted a lot of attention and criticism. The findings obtained in my thesis contribute to how we can improve the implementation of EMI and EMI policies, and it is hoped that the findings will encourage the policy makers and practitioners to reflect on EMI in China. In this section, I will discuss the major pedagogical implications and outline some suggestions for EMI policy and implementations in China.

Subject teachers' role should be clearly defined. Several teachers in this study highlighted the point that they considered themselves to be subject teachers rather than English teachers. Their orientations and practices indicate that they never consider themselves to be language instructors. They criticised the extra role as language teachers imposed on them. Thus, it is crucial to define clearly the teachers' role in the EMI policy, otherwise teachers are likely put in the ambiguous position when conducting their teaching. The teaching aim of the EMI should be specified and the learning objectives of EMI should have a clear focus. So it is hoped that the policy makers revise the targets and introduce more concrete objectives for EMI. The ambiguous teaching target creates the false image that subject teachers should pay equal attention to the language and the content. It is generally believed that a better understanding of their role could enhance better learning and teaching outcomes.

There should be supporting action plans for EMI teachers and students. Teachers in this study also expressed many concerns and uncertainties about teaching in English. Many of them expressed their difficulties in teaching subjects in English since it is different from their previous teaching experiences. They noted the teaching time constraints, diversified student population and the lack of the support and training. Thus, it would be very helpful for universities as well as policy makers to acknowledge teachers' difficulties in teaching EMI and work out feasible plans to help subject teachers (especially new teachers) to cope with EMI quickly. There are various things that a university can do to help teachers cope with EMI. For example,

training programs should be duly offered. Topic-based seminars could also be good choice, e.g. how to deal with the time shortage in EMI courses? EMI-based research funding should be established to encourage teachers to explore further strategies to deal with the different problems.

Another issue which was addressed by many participants is the students' language ability. Teachers feel that their students have uneven English language skills. Thus, it is hard for the teachers to conduct EMI courses well. This finding also reminds the educators, curriculum developers and policy makers to re-think ELT in Chinese universities. In fact, a lot of efforts have been made to improve the quality of ELT in China, but the effects are not as good as was hoped for. And it seems that many English lessons have not prepared Chinese students' to quickly adapt to EMI courses in the universities. As discussed in 4.3.3, Cai (2012a) suggests teaching EAP for university students in China. Therefore, additional EAP courses or English language supporting courses should be provided for weak students. The implications of this finding to ELT will be further explored in Section 9.3.3.

Subject teachers' contradictory views may reveal the fact that there should be a shift from the traditional EFL paradigm to ELF paradigm. Subject teachers in this study exhibited contradictory views concerning their own English and other subject teachers' English competence. Many respondents to the questionnaire said that their English is sufficient to teach EMI courses in China. However, once they compared their own English with NESs, they always generated a certain degree of self-doubt and frustration. Similarly, participants in the interviews expressed contradictory orientations towards English and their position changed during our interactions. Their positive attitudes towards native English are often influenced by the Standard English ideologies of the traditional EFL paradigm, which might lead them to remain less confident about their own English and others' English competence. Although sometimes they realised the problems of applying native English norms in practice, they still did not feel that they have the right to question it. Many still believe that their English should conform to native English. Considering the nature of EMI courses and English use in the globalized world the ELF paradigm could offer teachers' a new perspective to conceptualize the English and to build their professional confidence.

The knowledge of ELF can be incorporated in the teacher education programmes. However, the majority of teachers mentioned that they seldom received any kind of training. Many said that there are no teacher education programmes for subject teachers in their universities but they would welcome such training programmes. Thus, this study calls for the development of education programmes for subject teachers. In-service training courses for subject teachers are urgently needed. But it is important to note that those training programs should not just focus on improving their linguistic skills but most importantly focus on multicultural and ELF awareness-raising. Although many teachers have studied English for many years and obtained Master/PhD degrees in related fields, findings from the interviews seem to suggest they have a weakness in sociolinguistic knowledge and intercultural awareness. In addition, it is very useful for them to know some selected ELF/ELFA empirical studies, especially to know how NNEs use English to communicate successfully with people in ELF settings. Currently, the number of international students in EMI programmes is still small. However, due to the recent expansion of EMI courses/programmes in Chinese universities, it appears that Chinese universities are aiming to recruit more and more international students. It is very likely that students in EMI programmes will become more diverse with students coming from different linguacultural backgrounds. The notion of ELF could help the subject teachers to reflect upon their own teaching and think about if ELF will affect their understanding about language and teaching practices.

The findings from this study also raise concerns for the international students in Chinese universities. With the national promotion of the EMI programmes, there will be increasing numbers of international students. Thus the current course plan and design will not meet the new demands. Therefore, the question of how to help those international students become successful in Chinese universities remains a big challenge. If Chinese universities still aim to attract a large number of international students, subject teachers need to understand how to manage cultural diversity and understand how cultural diversity influences the teaching/learning. The training programmes should also include intercultural communication courses which could help teachers to develop their intercultural awareness. Unlike teaching to the homogeneous group of Chinese students, teachers need to adapt their teaching methodology and assessment methods in the multilingual classroom. Students in

future EMI programs/courses may have different English proficiency, different cultural backgrounds.

In addition, there seems to be few chances for the subject teachers to share and collaborate on issues in their teaching. Thus, regular opportunities for teachers to share their teaching experiences are much needed. In-service training courses could provide such opportunities for teachers to exchange their ideas of teaching in English. The results obtained from the interviews show that, many participants seemed to generate contradictory orientations towards their own and their students' English skills. Exchanging their experiences would help them be aware of other orientations and to be more confident in their own English. However, it is important to point out that offering in-service training courses for EMI teachers demands a lot of planning. The question of what would be taught in those training courses still needs further study and discussion.

The findings obtained from this study also have important implications for EMI policies in China. Many subject teachers appeared to complain a lot about their universities' EMI policies. This suggests that policy makers need to be aware of teachers' orientations to EMI policy and update the policy in accordance with students' needs and the problems in teaching. Based on the findings obtained from this study, I would like to make four suggestions for improving EMI policies in China.

Firstly, there is a great need for the university to take into consideration a more flexible system of course selections under the EMI policy. Many teachers said that their Chinese students have chosen the EMI courses mainly because of the compulsory nature of the course. They pointed out that some of their students have different levels of English and motivation. They criticized the compulsory nature of the language policy and said that Chinese students should be given the freedom to decide whether to take EMI courses or not. It seems that universities are required to implement the government's EMI policy, but the policy makers do not consider whether all students welcome EMI courses. It is unreasonable to assume that all Chinese students are willing to be students in EMI courses. Thus, EMI policy should be revised to give students more options for selecting the type of courses they prefer.

Courses taught entirely in Chinese should also be made available for those students who are not willing to take the EMI courses. An explicit statement of offering the parallel courses (Chinese and EMI) should be included in the university EMI policy. Secondly, differentiated EMI policy and instruction should be provided so as to meet the different needs. The findings of this study have indicated the need to differentiate different types of EMI programmes for diversified student populations.

Differentiated EMI policy should be enacted to meet the demand of each type of EMI programme. Due to the large number of Chinese students in some EMI programmes, it is really difficult and pointless to stop students and teachers from speaking some Chinese. 'English-only' EMI may not produce the ideal teaching and learning outcomes in classrooms with all Chinese students. I think what the policy makers could do is to separate international and Chinese students in some courses. But it is very necessary to work out the detailed plans in advance on which subjects should combine the two groups together and which subjects should separate the two groups. My suggestions are that for those fundamental subjects which provide the key concepts of their programmes, those courses should be offered in Chinese instruction for Chinese students. For those Chinese students who are enrolled in the EMI courses, those courses can be taught bilingually. Research evidence indicates that prescribing the percentage of English use in the policy does not help in practice. Thus, teachers should be allowed to act more flexibly according to their classrooms. The policy should clearly differentiate the different EMI courses and acknowledge the value of using Chinese in those EMI courses designed for Chinese students. Both teachers and students should be encouraged to use Chinese or code-switching in the classroom where Chinese students constitute the target students. The value of code-switching should be highlighted in EMI classrooms. Emphasizing the value of code-switching in EMI courses could bring two advantages. First, it will help the students and teachers to feel confident in using the Chinese in EMI courses. Second, teachers' multilingual resources are being encouraged. Such highlighting would also reduce the sense of guilt on the part of teachers when they switch from English to Chinese in their classrooms.

Thirdly, the EMI policy should be tailored to the needs of international students. Based on the findings obtained from the classroom observations, one of the problematic things is the large amount of Chinese used in EMI classes. This may

lead to the difficulties for international students whose first language is not Chinese or who understand little Chinese. They may feel uncomfortable when they find it hard to follow the teacher who uses Chinese most of the time. In addition, due to the recent expansion of the EMI courses/programs in Chinese universities, it appears that the universities are aiming to recruit more and more international students from other regions, such as Europe and Latin America. They may look for universities which can offer courses taught exclusively in English, unless they have any Chinese background. If Chinese universities are planning to recruit international students without any Chinese language background, using both Chinese and English would hinder the development. Thus, it is very important that EMI policy should explicitly stipulate the *English-only* policy in EMI courses for international students.

However, it is possible that there are some introductory courses in any disciplines, in such cases, the university could join the two groups together in those courses. Such joining up is very necessary for both international and Chinese students. Mixing international and Chinese students in the same EMI classroom could enhance their intercultural and ELF communication skills. Due to the presence of international students, teachers and students must all use English to negotiate their meanings in ELF contexts. Thus, it is very necessary for the EMI policy to differentiate clearly between courses for Chinese students and courses for international students. There should be specially-designed EMI classes for international students with diverse multilingual backgrounds. Predictably, most of the international students in China are NNEs. Thus, there is a need for language policy makers to take account of the ELF paradigm when formulating the EMI policy.

Fourthly, it is hoped that the revised version of EMI policy would contain some feasible requirements rather than overemphasizing the quantity of English use. With regard to the language requirements of the EMI policy, current policy which quantifies the English and Chinese use in EMI courses might cause people to evaluate the course based on how much English the subject teachers could use rather than the quality of the EMI course. Teachers' English competence should not be related to the amount of the English they use. The most important thing is that subject teachers should generate the ability to adjust their English to help their

students understand the content and provide high quality EMI courses. Comprehensibility of the content appears to be more important in EMI classrooms.

All in all, it is important to keep in mind that developing EMI in China involves a lot of effort and reform. A proper mechanism to systematically monitor and evaluate EMI is much needed. Whether the latest English *Gao Kao Reform* will influence the development of EMI programmes in China is still not known. But I think EMI programs will continue to exist for many years in China. However, the implementation of EMI calls for extensive research involving language teachers, subject teachers and staff in the international offices. Acknowledging the problems and challenges of EMI can help policymakers make comprehensive policies. I believe the notion of ELF could offer some micro implications of how English should be used and assessed in EMI programmes in China.

9.3.3 Implications for ELT in Chinese higher education

The research findings also have implications for ELT in China. Though my study focused on subject teachers who are not teaching English language skills, English language education provides the prerequisite for both teachers and the students in EMI courses. Teachers' and students' previous English learning experiences will influence how they perceive and use English language. All the undergraduates are learning EMI courses and College English simultaneously. However, after several years of English learning, they still have a lot of problems in English. The previous literature has criticized Chinese people's lack of competence to use English in practice. The efficiency of ELT in China has been seriously questioned in the literature (see chapter 4). In addition, the findings of this study also reveal that some subject teachers felt their Chinese students have weak English communication skills. They expressed concerns over students' English and felt that students could not benefit from the EMI courses. This suggests that some students may not achieve the intended proficiency and the target to "communicate effectively" despite many years of English learning. There are many factors that could impact students' poor English performance. Having the NE target can be one of the major factors which influence students' English learning achievement. The current ELT, which is based on the native English model, is not sufficient for Chinese students to quickly adapt to the

EMI courses. The current ELT model in China will disadvantage both students and teachers who need to speak English in the Lingua Franca situation. Therefore, it is very urgent that the ELT policy makers consider the future use of English of their students and offer concrete approaches to inform students how to achieve communication effectiveness. Given the reality of English use today, the ELF paradigm could offer ELT practitioners a new way of perceiving English, and the notion of ELF fits in well with the college English teaching target. Thus, ELF is a very relevant concept which could prepare Chinese students to use English effectively in the globalized world. Based on this consideration, I will give the following suggestions for ELT in Chinese HE.

First, it is important to offer courses which can raise the students' awareness of Global Englishes. I think university students are the ideal target to provide them with Global Englishes' awareness raising courses, because after several years of English learning and use in the classrooms, they are very likely to use English in ELF contexts. Introducing the notion of Global Englishes could prepare them to become successful English users. Another reason is that university students do not have as much pressure on them as primary/high school students who have to pass English exams in order to be enrolled in the schools and universities. Those students have just started English learning. They do not have much autonomy to decide by themselves and they seldom communicate in the ELF context. But university students have gained sufficient experiences and knowledge to be able to reflect on their English use and to understand the variations in English. Questions about how to raise students awareness still to be discussed in the ELF field. In fact, some recent empirical studies have discussed ELF-informed pedagogies and applied them into teaching practice (e.g. Baker, 2012; Hino & Oda, 2014; Galloway, 2013). These studies criticised the practice which focuses exclusively on the native English mode and found that ELF-informed courses influenced people's orientations to English. They also pointed out that their participants' understanding of global English and intercultural communication has been broadened as the results of ELF awareness-raising courses. As for those teachers who felt unsure about how to teach ELF in the classrooms, these researchers' experiences have provided them with valuable information. The methodology, which they identified for teaching ELF or raising

intercultural awareness, could be adopted in the classrooms to see if these are effective.

Second, ELT should include both NNEs and NESs in the selection process for listening materials. This is because students will encounter English speakers with different L1 backgrounds in their future studies and work. Incorporating ELF conversation into listening materials is a very important way of helping the students to understand the general ideas of what future international communication will be like. Additionally, it is also important to ask students and teachers to listen to English conversation which involves other NNEs and Chinese English speakers. Exposing students to Chinese ELF could improve students' confidence in learning and using English. They could also understand how those Chinese who speak English in ELF settings could achieve mutual intelligibility without acquiring native-like competence. At the same time, the English curriculum should contain an explicit objective which highlights the point that students need to be able to use English to communicate with both NNEs and NESs. However, the current English listening materials in China are mainly spoken by NESs. This might give students a misconception that they would only meet English speakers who speak similar English to the speakers in the listening recordings. With regard to English pronunciation, the Lingua Franca Core could be used to guide the teacher how to teach pronunciation.

Third, the empirical ELF(A) studies have suggested the usefulness of using various pragmatic strategies and accommodation skills. These key communication strategies have been identified to help NNEs to communicate more effectively in ELF settings. However, the current ELT has placed too much attention on the native English norms and often neglected the communication strategies. Thus, English teachers should first inform their students of the importance of those communication strategies, and then help students' to practice those strategies in speaking classes. It is also very important to note that students should be told that they need to adjust their Englishes according to different contexts and interlocutors. Achieving mutual intelligibility should be emphasised. In English speaking classes, teachers could assign the information gap task to students. The students could work in pairs and learn through practice how to adjust their language to make it more intelligibility.

Fourth, ELT course materials should be modified. To my knowledge, there has been, so far, no published textbook or teaching material based on the global Englishes paradigm. There is a lack of ELF-informed teaching materials written by local Chinese scholars, because “none of the syllabi of English teaching in China mentions a single word about ELF” (Wen, 2012: 372). Textbooks writers seldom write English books which contradict the teaching syllabus.

Fifth, undergraduate curricula should be redesigned. College English as a general English course is offered to 1st and 2nd year undergraduates in many universities with the emphasis on general linguistic knowledge and the four language skills. Many subject teachers in my study said that their universities do not offer any EAP courses. As discussed in 4.3.3, Cai (2012a) problematizes the College English teaching curriculums and believes EAP/ESP should be taught for college students as the alternatives. However, his proposal on EAP is still guided by the traditional genre approach, and he makes no attempt to challenge a major assumption of the traditional genre approach of EAP, that is, in his view, students need always defer to NESs’ English use. Additional EAP courses or English language supporting courses should be provided for students. It would definitely need time and preparation for the implementation of EAP programs. Such English courses are particularly useful for those students who want to be enrolled in the EMI courses to enable them to become familiar with the English in their disciplines. But it is argued here that EAP/ESP courses in Chinese universities need to add the ELF perspectives in their curriculums in light of the findings of this study as well as the position taken in the ELF literature. In other words, the traditional conforming approaches should be replaced by the ELFA approaches in English lessons including EAP courses.

The previous literature had discussed the ways to incorporate ELF perspective into English language classes (e.g. Baker, 2012; Jenkins, 2006; Hino & Oda, 2014). These ELF-informed pedagogies can be applied in the EAP instruction as well. But unlike College English today, EAP instruction needs to focus in particular on academic English language and other academic abilities, such as critical thinking, presentation skills and time management.

With regard to the English language in EAP instruction, the implication of my findings is that four important dimensions can be integrated into EAP instruction in Chinese universities. First, it is necessary to help students to conceptualise the English language in a plurilingual way for various purposes. EAP with ELF perspectives requires teachers to focus on helping students to use English in academic settings, not on how to speak/write like a NES. Second, the EAP teachers should teach both English language and communicative skills to students. Especially, students should be equipped with the communicative skills to participate in international academic contexts. Third, taking account of students' need should be the EAP course priority. Many participants in my interview study pointed out they will use English mainly to talk to NNEs or even the people who share the same L1. However, the critical point is that this need is often ignored by the teachers and policy makers. Ignoring the use of English by NNEs will mean not being able to provide students' with the adequate skills and knowledge for their future life, work and study.

Last but not least, given the importance of using English in global settings, English tests in China should be revised to include ELF interactions in both academic and general settings. In China, CET4/6 are used widely to assess students' English proficiency. It is suggested that English tests focus on assessing students' English use in both academic and general ELF settings, and that these tests should also reflect current use of English around the world.

ELF has become a subject of considerable interest round the world with its own annual conference, academic journal and book series. As mentioned previously, more and more Chinese scholars have already conducted empirical research in ELF. Recently, it is noteworthy that some Chinese PhD students have begun to study ELF related topics in HE and secondary education, such as Fang (Forthcoming) and Liu (Forthcoming). In addition, the 8th International Conference of English as a Lingua Franca will be held on August, 2015 in Beijing. This will help more Chinese scholars, teachers, publishers and policy makers to understand ELF(A) and its implications. I cannot predict how far the English policy will take account of the spread of ELF/ or the finding of the ELF(A) research in Chinese universities. But I predict that many English teachers will be informed by the theory of ELF and

gradually recognize the lingua-franca use of English. Many Chinese universities are aiming for internationalisation. Thus, for those universities, language reform could become one area for them to investigate. As Jenkins (2011: 934) points out “it is a contradiction for any university anywhere that considers itself international to insist on national English norms”.

9.4 Limitations and suggestions for future research

9.4.1 Limitations

There is a need for caution in interpreting the findings. My study was limited in several ways and it is not possible to generalize its findings to all Chinese subject teachers. First, although I have tried to find teachers who taught different disciplines, my study was still limited to a very small size sample. My classroom observations only reflected the four participants who agreed to more regular observation during a limited period of time. Future studies could use observations use observe more lessons or could use longitudinal observations to observe the participants.

The second limitation is that teachers are the only focus in this research. My study did not involve students, policy makers and the administrative staff in international offices. I did not include those groups mainly due to time constraints and the difficulties of having access to higher ranking officers. I hope to focus other practitioners’ orientations for the future research.

The research findings of this study were also limited to observations and interviews conducted in Beijing. There is an unbalanced distribution of HE resources in China. With regard to the implementation of EMI, there might be regional differences. So the findings may not represent all of EMI in practice. There is a need to interview/observe more subject teachers who are working in different areas in China. Where my study was concerned collecting data in the same area helped me to finish the data collection within the planned time.

The fourth limitation concerns the author’s interview skills. As an inexperienced interviewer, I found I missed some points which I should have asked participants during the interviews. Second rounds of interviews might have been helpful for me

to solve this problem. But I did not do them in this study due to time limitation. I was not able to fly back to China during that period of time. Future research should consider second rounds of interviews. Such interviews can help the researcher to explore questions that have been raised by the participants in the later interviews.

The fifth limitation is concerns that the design of the questionnaire. Although the questionnaire was revised several times and piloted before the main study, some items were not clear enough to obtain responses from the respondents. If I were going to design the same questionnaire again, I would rephrase some items. In addition, I had never experienced EMI courses when I studied as an undergraduate at the university in China. My understanding of EMI courses are all based on the literature, policy documents and the data I collected. The lack of self-exposure to EMI courses restricts me in getting a thorough understanding of EMI courses in China.

9.4.2 Future research

I adopted a bottom-up approach in this study, in which I looked at policy through the subject teachers' perceptions and implementations. Future work is needed to conduct a more detailed and extended text analysis of the written EMI policy and English teaching curricula.

A second area of further research is to study whether different academic disciplines affect subject teachers' perceptions and practices of their English use. Although my questionnaire data was collected from teachers of different disciplines, the small number of the respondents cannot provide much detailed information. Thus, it is hoped that future research about this topic will include larger number of samples to explore if the academic disciplines influence the teachers' views on English use in EMI courses.

Another possible future study could also look at the teachers' identity in the EMI context, and explore how subject teachers define their teacher identity in the academic contexts where English is increasingly used as the lingua franca.

My study has explored different types of EMI courses. Some of them are taught mainly in English and some conducted partially in English. The actual English use in each classroom is at odds with the policy. Future study could focus on the comparison between those EMI courses exclusively taught in English and those partially taught in English.

Another area of future research could focus on policy makers' and administrators' orientations towards EMI and English language use. The study could aim to compare the differences among those different practitioners. Studies could also explore how they enact the EMI policy and policy making process.

Finally, future research could study other Asian HE contexts with the aims of exploring how teachers in other countries perceive EMI and conduct EMI programmes. Scholars could compare the research findings obtained in different settings in order to draw wider implications for EMI programmes.

9.5 Final conclusion

Nowadays, many people perceive English to be a global language, but the majority of them have not thought about how the current use of English relates to their life and study. The emergence of the EMI programmes in China has stimulated me to explore what teachers think about the English language and how they implement EMI courses in practice. The findings obtained in this study could be considered as the preliminary understanding of EMI in China which calls for further empirical study. Based on the findings of this study, we have realised EMI courses are different from conventional education forms. Given the future development of EMI in China and its distinctive features, ELF paradigm are more likely to reflect how English would be used in Chinese HE in the future, e.g. diversity of the students and teachers, more EMI courses, changes in the English entry requirements. What the speaker needs in ELF settings is to negotiate the meaning to achieve successful communication. Therefore, I would like to end this thesis with positive views on the ELF paradigm. ELF is a quickly growing field which provides both theories and practices which truly reflect English use in the globalized world. It appears that English will continue to be the main global language worldwide. I am confident to

say that the ELF paradigm will continue to be of relevance to English users who will continue to use English to communicate in a globalised world.

Appendix 1

Questionnaire for Chinese University Lecturers (Pilot)

Dear University lecturer

I am a PhD student at the University of Southampton. I am currently researching English medium instruction in Chinese higher education. I would be extremely grateful if you could help me with my research by completing this questionnaire. This is not a test and there are no right or wrong answers. All the data gathered will be dealt in a confidential and anonymous manner.

Please contact me, if you have any questions about this questionnaire.

Many thanks for your time and cooperation.

Lanxi Hu

Part One

1. Age (circle as appropriate) 20-29 30-39 40-49 50-59 60+
2. Which department do you work in?
3. Which subjects do you teach in English?
4. From which year did you start to teach EMI?
5. How many hours do you expect to teach in English per week?
6. Approximately what percentage of the courses is taught in English in your university?
7. Does your university have any English language policies designed specifically for EMI? If so, please state the name of the policy if you can remember
8. Have you ever been to any foreign countries to receive English and subject-based training?
If yes, please state where and for how long?
9. Have you ever heard about the term *English as a lingua Franca*? Yes/No
If yes, please state where?
10. If you are willing to take part in a short interview, please provide your name and contact details. (Participation is optional)
(Name/Email/phone number)

Part Two

Following are a number of statements. Please indicate to what extent do you

agree or disagree with the following statement.

- 1 Fully agree
- 2 Partially agree
- 3 Partially disagree
- 4 Fully disagree

1. If the university is going to compete at an international level, it has to offer more courses in English.

(1) (2) (3) (4)

2. Teaching more programs in English will raise academic standards at the university.

(1) (2) (3) (4)

3. I began to teach EMI programmes because of the new teaching policies.

(1) (2) (3) (4)

4. When I teach in English, I am able to express myself clearly. I feel confidence in teaching content subjects in English.

(1) (2) (3) (4)

5. The majority of my students are non-native English speakers, so I feel less worried about my English accent when I teach in English.

(1) (2) (3) (4)

6. When I teach EMI programs, I always follow the national English language teaching curriculum to assess students' English ability.

(1) (2) (3) (4)

7. I think the EMI policies or the teaching curriculums are clearly written.

(1) (2) (3) (4)

8. I think the current English teaching policy is not concrete, it is difficult for me to follow in practice.

(1) (2) (3) (4)

9. I am aware of which kind of English I'm expected to use in EMI under the guidance of English language policies.

(1) (2) (3) (4)

10. I feel that students of the department consciously or unconsciously expects a

native-like standard of English of me.

(1) (2) (3) (4)

11. I feel that the head of the department consciously or unconsciously expect a native-like standard of English of me.

(1) (2) (3) (4)

12. I'm encouraged to use English as much as possible in the classrooms.

(1) (2) (3) (4)

13. The EMI policy/regulation expects students and teachers to conform to native academic English.

(1) (2) (3) (4)

14. The English used in EMI should aim for international intelligibility rather than near-nativeness.

(1) (2) (3) (4)

15. It is more important for EMI teachers to communicate appropriately and effectively rather than exhibit native-like proficiency.

(1) (2) (3) (4)

Part three

Please consider each question below and write your answers below. Whatever you write will be useful to this research.

1. In comparison to teaching in Chinese, how do you feel about teaching content courses in English?

2. In EMI in China, what is your target regarding your English language competence? In term of English language, what do you think EMI teachers should master?

3. Has the pressure to be native-like decreased when you find the majority of the students are non-native English speakers?

4. How do you assess your student's English proficiency? (e.g, based on the language policy, based on native English norms or international intelligibility?)

5. Could you say how useful (or not) you think the current EMI policies being implemented are?

6. Would you like to be supported by an English teacher (Native English speaker)

who could give you guidance in terms of the English language?

7. If the Ministry of Education or your university were to revise the current English language policy, what in your view are the most important aspects which should be included?

8. Please describe briefly how you perceive English language policies incorporate internationalism? What kind of English do you think is appropriate to be used to help the university to achieve the goal of internationalisation in higher education?

Thank you very much for completing this questionnaire!

Please use this space if you wish to make additional comments on the answers you have given above. (You can write in Chinese if you want)

Appendix 2

Questionnaire for Chinese University Lecturers (main study)

Dear university lecturer,

I am a PhD student at the University of Southampton, UK. I am currently researching the EMI in Chinese higher education. I would be extremely grateful if you could help me with my research by completing this questionnaire. This is not a test and there are no right or wrong answers. The questionnaire should take you between 15 to 25 minutes to complete and is used for my thesis. All the data gathered will be dealt with in a confidential and anonymous manner.

Please contact me, if you have any questions about this questionnaire.

Many thanks for your time and cooperation.

Lanxi Hu

Email: lh6g09@soton.ac.uk

Questionnaire

Part One

1. Age (circle as appropriate)

20-29

30-39

40-49

50-59

60+

2. How many years have you been teaching?

3. Which subjects do you teach in English?

4. From which year did you start to teach EMI?

5. How many hours do you expect to teach in English per week?

6. Approximately what percentage of the courses are taught in English in your department?

7. Please estimate approximately the proportion of English use in your classroom.

8. Where do students come from in your EMI classes? Could you please use a word to describe their English?

9. Have you ever been to any foreign countries to study or work?
If yes, please state where and for how long?

10. Does your university or your department have any English language policies which are designed specifically for EMI for teachers and students?
Yes/No/ don't know

If you can remember please state the name of the policy or provide the link.

11. Is internationalisation a high priority in your university?

Yes

No

12. Have you ever heard about the term *English as a lingua Franca*?

Yes

No

If yes, please state where?

13. If you are willing to take part in a short interview, please provide your name and contact details.

(Optional)

Name:

Email:

Phone number:

Part Two

Following are a number of statements. Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statement.

1. Fully agree
2. Partially agree
3. Partially disagree
4. Fully disagree

1. If the university is going to compete at an international level, it has to offer more courses in English.

(1) (2) (3) (4)

2. Teaching more programmes in English will raise the worldwide influence of the university.

(1) (2) (3) (4)

3. I began to teach EMI courses/programmes because of the new teaching

policies.

(1) (2) (3) (4)

4. When I teach in English, I am able to express myself clearly. I feel confidence in teaching content subjects in English.

(1) (2) (3) (4)

5. The majority of my students are non-native English speakers, so I feel less worried about my English accent when I teach in English.

(1) (2) (3) (4)

6. When I teach EMI programmes/courses, I always follow the university language policy (e.g. bilingual teaching regulations)

(1) (2) (3) (4)

7. I think the EMI policies in my university are clearly written.

(1) (2) (3) (4)

8. I think the current EMI is not concrete; teachers and universities are responsible to interpret it by themselves.

(1) (2) (3) (4)

9. I feel that students consciously or unconsciously expect a native-like standard of English of me.

(1) (2) (3) (4)

10. I feel that the head of the department consciously or unconsciously expects a native-like standard of English of me.

(1) (2) (3) (4)

11. In the EMI classroom, I am encouraged to use English as much as possible.

(1) (2) (3) (4)

12. The EMI language policy expects students/teachers to conform to native academic English.

(1) (2) (3) (4)

13. It is more important for EMI teachers to communicate appropriately and effectively rather than exhibit native-like proficiency.

(1) (2) (3) (4)

Part three

Please consider each question below and write your answers below. Whatever you write will be useful to this research.

1. In comparison to teaching in Chinese, how do you feel about teaching content courses in English?

2. In EMI in China, how do you evaluate your English language competence? In terms of English language, what do you think EMI teachers should master?

3. What kind of English skills should EMI teachers have in multilingual environments?

4. How do you assess your students' English written work and oral English speech?

5. Could you say how useful (or not) you think the current EMI policies are?

6. Would you like to be supported by a native English speaker who could give you guidance in terms of the English language? Why or why not?

7. If the Ministry of Education or your university were to revise the current EMI policy, what in your view are the most important aspects which should be included?

Thank you very much for completing this questionnaire!

Please use this space if you can provide me with feedback and suggestions.
(You can write in Chinese if you want to)

Appendix 3

Questionnaire for Chinese Lecturers (Chinese version)

调查问卷

亲爱的老师，您好！

目前我在英国南安普顿大学人文学院攻读应用语言学博士学位，我对中国高校近年来开展的双语教学很感兴趣。我想通过您了解双语教学的进展情况，下面是我拟定的一份调查问卷，我非常希望能得到您的帮助。烦请您在百忙中给予尽可能多的回答，对您提供的支持和帮助，我将不胜感激。谢谢！

如果您对该问卷有任何问题，请与我联系。

衷心感谢您的配合与支持！

胡兰西

联系方式：邮箱：lh6g09@soton.ac.uk

第一部分

1. 您的年龄段是： 20-29 30-39 40-49 50-59 60+
2. 您的教龄是多久？（ ）年
3. 您目前使用双语（中英文）进行教学的课程名称？
4. 您是从哪一年开始使用双语进行教学的？
5. 您每周教授双语课程的学时数是多少？（ ）小时
6. 请您大概估计一下双语课程在您所在院系的比例？（ ）%
7. 请您估计一下在课堂中您使用英文的比例？（ ）%

8. 您班上的学生生源是哪里的？您能用一个词来形容他们的英语吗

9. 是否有过外国留学或访学的经历？

如果有，请您写出外国留学的国家名称及留学年限？

10. 您所在的大学或学院是否有针对双语课程的教学大纲或相关文件？

A. 有

如果您还记的，请写下该政策文件的名称或提供相关网页链接

B. 没有

C. 不知道

11. 您所在高校是否已经把提高学校国际化水平当成学校发展目标？

A. 是

B. 否

12. 你是否听说过术语“英语作为通用语” (*English as a lingua Franca*)?

A. 是 通过何种途径 ()

B. 否

13. 我将非常感激如果您可以参加一个简短的访谈，如果您愿意参加访谈，请你留下您的联系方式。

姓名：

邮件：

电话：

第二部分

请您根据题目的表述，选择您对题目表达的同意程度。

1. 如果一所大学以国际化为办学理念，这将意味着该大学应该提供更多以英文授课的课程。

1) 非常同意 (2) 部分同意 (3) 有点不同意 (4) 非常不同意

2. 开设更多的双语课程将会提升一所大学的学术影响力。

1) 非常同意 (2) 部分同意 (3) 有点不同意 (4) 非常不同意

3. 我从事双语教学的主要原因是受教育政策的影响。

1) 非常同意 (2) 部分同意 (3) 有点不同意 (4) 非常不同意

4. 当我用英文教授专业课时，我可以清楚的表达自己的思想。我感觉非常自信的教授英文授课。

1) 非常同意 (2) 部分同意 (3) 有点不同意 (4) 非常不同意

5. 我的学生大多是英语为非母语的使用者，所以当我用英文授课时我不太会担心自己的英语口语。

1) 非常同意 (2) 部分同意 (3) 有点不同意 (4) 非常不同意

6. 当我用英文进行教学时，我总是严格遵循学校制定的语言政策（如双语教学管理办法）。

1) 非常同意 (2) 部分同意 (3) 有点不同意 (4) 非常不同意

7. 我认为现行的语言政策或双语教学大纲清晰的表述了目前对双语教学的要求。

1) 非常同意 (2) 部分同意 (3) 有点不同意 (4) 非常不同意

8. 我觉得现行的有关双语教学的政策不太具体，从事双语教学的教师和开设英文课程的学院需要根据自己的实际情况对其解读。

1) 非常同意 (2) 部分同意 (3) 有点不同意 (4) 非常不同意

9. 我觉得学生在有意识或无意识的期望我使用标准的英式或美式英语。

1) 非常同意 (2) 部分同意 (3) 有点不同意 (4) 非常不同意

10. 我觉得学院负责人在有意识或无意识的期望我使用标准的英式或美式英语。

1) 非常同意 (2) 部分同意 (3) 有点不同意 (4) 非常不同意

11. 在英文授课中，我被要求尽可能多的使用英文。

1) 非常同意 (2) 部分同意 (3) 有点不同意 (4) 非常不同意

12. 英文授课政策规定，教师和学生要遵循英语为母语者的学术语言能力

1) 非常同意 (2) 部分同意 (3) 有点不同意 (4) 非常不同意

13. 对于英文授课教师来说，最重要的是用英语进行有效且符合语境的交流而不是要展现自己的英语已经接近英语为母语者的语言能力。

1) 非常同意 (2) 部分同意 (3) 有点不同意 (4) 非常不同意

第三部分

请您认真考虑下列问题并在题目下方写出您的观点。题目答案本身并无正确与错误之分，您的任何作答都对本研究都非常有价值。

1. 您在双语教学中的教学方式与用中文教授课程相比有和不同之处？

2. 在双语教学中，您怎么样看待您自己的英语水平或者说您认为双语教师应该具备的素质？

3. 当您发现班里大部分学生都不是以英语作为母语的人，在这样的语言环境中您认为教师和学生要具备什么样的英语交流能力？

4. 你怎么评价您的学生的英语水平？

5. 请您谈谈您对现行高校英文授课教学政策的看法？

6. 在双语教学中您是否希望获得一名英语外教给您提供语言指导与帮助？为什么希望或为什么不希望？

7. 如果教育部或者您所在大学打算修改现行的英文授课语言政策，您认为该政策最重要应该包含哪些内容？

如果您愿意参与我的采访，请留下您的姓名和联系方式

姓名：

邮箱：

电话：

非常感谢您完成这份问卷！

如果您还有其他反馈或建议，请您在下方的空白处填写。

Appendix 4

Questionnaire main and sub-themes

Question One: Respondent's reflections on teaching in Chinese and teaching in English

1. General concerns of teaching in EMI

- Time: For teachers: More time-consuming to prepare compared with the Chinese instruction courses. For students: Students need time to adjust to the instruction. EMI demands a longer period of instruction time.
- Concerns related to teachers' linguistic competence: the concerns about their English proficiency. Inability to elaborate. Rely heavily on the Power Point slides. Limited use of English in EMI as a disadvantage.

2. Demands that they (university, department, colleagues) are making on EMI teachers

- Students/head of department do expect them to speak good and fluent English.

3. Students behave differently when they study in EMI

- More questions raised by the students (the groups are usually quite small, which is advantageous)
- Stimulating student participation

4. Incentives for subject teachers

Question 2: Respondents' orientations towards their own English and other EMI teachers' English.

1. Self-evaluation

- Positive towards their own English. The judging criteria is focused on communication
- Importance of communication
- Negative views towards their own English
- Importance of correctness
- Importance of improving EMI teacher's English. High level of oral English ability. The necessity to conform their English to native English

2. Respondent's expectations about EMI teachers' English

- They think teachers' English competence is very important
- Good English in written and oral English. Especially important to demonstrate high proficiency in spoken English.
- Good English equals native English. The notion of native speakers as the default model.
- Good English equals those teachers who received a higher education degree in a foreign country (once a teacher has become an EMI teacher, the language competences of that teacher are treated as adequate (sufficient to succeed in the programme))
- Subject teachers need to demonstrate high marks in English exams.
- Suspicious about other teachers' English proficiency. 1) negative towards other teachers' English. Not good. The majority of the course was taught in Chinese. Code-mixing is seen as a sign of lexical gaps.

Question three: Respondents' orientations towards EMI teachers' English in multilingual/multicultural settings.

1. Normative perceptions

- Standard English
- Accuracy of expression

2. Aware of the Varieties of English

- Intelligible
- Acceptance of the different use of English
- Focus on the content rather than English language
- Importance of communication rather than correctness.

Question four: respondents' orientations and evaluations to students' English

1. Normative orientation

- Correct and clear English/standard: Conformity to native English. English tests score as an important indicator to demonstrate students' English
- Bad English
- Improve their students English means conform to native academic English as closely as possible

2. More flexible perceptions

- Raise students' confidence
- Pay greater attention to written English than spoken English
- Accept variation in oral English

Question five: respondents' orientations towards their university's English language policies

1. The English language policies are not helpful.
 - Vague, written rules, not applicable in teaching context
 - Loss of confidence
 - No references to international students
2. The English language policies are useful
 - Useful to the students
 - Useful to the teachers (good for their professional development)
 - Useful to the university

Question six: Native-speaker support/ Support linked to Native English

1. Require native-speaker support
 - Help respondents to conform to native English: to speak and write standard English
 - Improvement of their English
 - Help me to know what is the standard.
2. No need to have native-speaker support
 - Satisfied with their current English
 - Communication is much more important
 - Not helpful
3. Do/don't have received any language training and support

No support offered to the EMI teachers

- Short-time study in English speaking countries(3-6months)
- English training in their own institutions (also with an native English speaker--not helpful)
- No training at all. They just assume that EMI teachers should have sufficient knowledge: disciplinary competence, teaching competence and language competence

Question seven: Revise the current EMI policies

1. Language requirements for both teachers and the students
 - Specific English language regulations to assess both teachers' and students' Concrete language requirements for both teachers and the students

2. Clear target students

- The target EMI student body. Having students from different countries brings a greater diversity of cultures, values and ways of doing/seeing things.

3. Suggestion concerning the flexibility and dynamics of the policy

The final part: Final comments on the research and the questionnaire

1. Useful topic

- Comments on this research
- Popular topic
- Interest in the result
- Makes the respondents reflect on some issues

2. Complaints to their University

- Do not pay attention to EMI (several respondents complain that there is currently a lack of incentives to encourage teachers to take up EMI)
- Receive no or little support
- Advertisements to attract students
- Notice the students' needs.

Appendix 5

Participant Information Sheet

Study Title: Exploring policies, practices and orientations towards English as a medium of instruction in Chinese higher education.

Researcher: Lanxi Hu

Ethics number: 5054

Dear University Lecturers,

I would like to invite you to participate in my research project. Before you decide whether you want to take part, it is important for you to read the following information carefully. Please ask me if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. If you are willing to participate you will be asked to sign a consent form.

What is the research about?

I am a PhD student at the University of Southampton, UK. This research aims to explore how English is used in English Medium Instruction in Chinese universities through exploring teachers' orientations to both policies and practices. The reason for undertaking this study is to provide evidence concerning how English is used by EMI teachers in practice and also provide justification for a change of English language policy in Chinese higher education.

Why have I been chosen?

I am inviting two groups of EMI teachers to take part in this study, subject teachers who are currently teaching subjects in English and teachers who used to teach subjects in English at universities in China.

What will happen to me if I take part?

If you would like to take part, then I will contact you through email. I will send the information about my study and the questionnaire to you. The questionnaire will take you 20 minutes to complete. After you have completed the questionnaire, you are free to leave your contact details if you would like to participate in the interviews or would like me to observe your lessons.

Are there any benefits in my taking part?

You will not experience any direct benefits from taking part in this study.

However, I do hope that my results will inform you about the issues you have encountered in the English medium instruction and also raises your awareness to think about the global use of English. I hope that this research will contribute to developing English language education in China.

Are there any risks involved?

The risks involved in participating are minimal. If there are questions that you do not want to answer, you are free not to answer those questions or to withdraw from participating.

Will my participation be confidential?

All the information that is collected about you during the course of the research will be kept strictly confidential. Nobody from outside will be allowed access to any information that might identify you. All the data collected from the study will be stored on a password protected computer.

What happens if I change my mind?

You are free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason and without any consequence.

What happens if something goes wrong?

In the unlikely case of concern or complaint about this research project, please contact the Chair of the Faculty Ethics Committee, Professor Ros Mitchell (rfm3@soton.ac.uk).

Where can I get more information?

If you have any questions about this questionnaire or the research, please feel free to email me at lh6g09@soton.ac.uk .

Appendix 6

Participant Information Sheet (Chinese version)

研究题目：探析中国高校教师如何看待英文授课的政策与实践

研究者：胡兰西
道德标准号：5054

亲爱的老师，

我想请您参加我的研究项目。在您决定是否参加之前，请仔细阅读下面的信息。如果你有任何疑问或是想了解更多和研究相关的问题请与我联系。如果您同意参加此研究项目，请在同意表上签名。

这个研究项目是关于什么的？

我目前在英国南安普顿大学攻读博士学位。此研究主要是探索中国高校教师是如何使用英文来教授专业课。我进行该研究的主要原因是探索此类教学模式的实际操作，并且为英语政策的改革提供依据。

为什么选我参与这项研究？

我将邀请现在在中国高校讲授英文教学的老师或者曾经从事英语教学的老师参加我的研究项目。

如果我参与该项目，我需要做什么？

如果你同意参加，我将用电子邮件和你联络。我将把我研究课题更加具体的介绍发给你。同时我也会把我的调查问卷发给您。您可能需要20分钟来回答这份问卷。在您回答完问卷之后，您可以自由决定是否参加我的采访或是允许我观测您的课堂，如果您愿意请您在问卷里留下您的联系方式。

参加此调查对我有何益处？

虽然您不会得到什么直接的收益，但我希望我的结果可以使您了解到您在英文授课中遇到的问题，同时也可以使您意识到英语在全球范围内的使用。我希望这项研究可以对中国英语发展有所帮助。

如果参与，会有什么风险吗？

此项活动几乎没有风险。如果遇到您不想回答的问题，您可以选择不作答或是放弃参与此次调查。

我的参与是保密的吗？

此研究涉及的所有信息都将被严格保密。未经允许任何人都不能查看有关信息。所有收集到的数据都会被存储到一台由密码保护的计算机中。

如果我改变主意了呢？

您可以随时终止此次调查，这不会对您有任何影响。

如果我在参与过程中遇到什么问题怎么办？

如果您对此项研究项目有任何意见和建议，请联系学院研究道德委员会主席，Ros Mitchell 教授（邮箱：rfm3@soton.ac.uk）

如果您想了解更多信息

如果您对此调查问卷有任何问题，请随时联络我 lh6g09@soton.ac.uk。

Appendix 7

CONSENT FORM

Study title: Exploring policies, practices and orientations towards English as a medium of instruction in Chinese higher education

Researcher name: Lanxi Hu

Ethics reference: 5054

Please initial the box(es) if you agree with the statement(s):

I have read and understood the information sheet
and have had the opportunity to ask questions about the study

I agree to take part in this research project and agree for my data to
be used for the purpose of this study

I understand my participation is voluntary and I may withdraw
at any time without consequence

Name of participant (print name).....

Signature of participant.....

Name of Researcher (print name)

Signature of Researcher.....

Date.....

Appendix 8

CONSENT FORM (Chinese)

研究题目：探析中国高校教师如何看待英文授课的政策与实践

研究者：胡兰西

道德标准号：5054

如果你同意下面的叙述，请在方框内打勾

我已经读过研究者的资料并且得到询问问题的机会

我同意参加此研究且同意我有关的资料供研究者使用

我明白我的参与是完全自愿的并且可以随时退出研究

参与者姓名.....

参与者签名.....

研究者姓名.....

研究者签名.....

日期.....

Appendix 9

Interview Prompts

Briefing: Introduce myself

Explain the purpose of the interview

Ask for permission to record or take notes

Ask if they have any questions

Part one: Participant's background information

Tell me about yourself (include information about the department they are working in, how long have they been teaching EMI courses, the course names they are teaching, the text books they are using, their students' general information, overseas study/visit/work experience, etc.)

Part two: Interview prompts

Prompt 1: The reasons they conduct EMI?

Prompt 2: The selection criteria for EMI teachers in the department?

Prompt 3: The English training they received for EMI?

Prompt 4: Views about Chinese academic English policy?

Prompt 5: The influences of the policy in their content teaching?

Prompt 6: The challenges of teaching EMI?

Prompt 7: The relationship between Chinese EMI and university internationalisation?

Prompt 8: The function of English in Chinese higher education? EMI? Future implications?

Prompt 9: Awareness of Global Englishes/ different Englishes in the world? China English, etc?

Prompt 10: What kind of English they find most relevant in EMI?

Prompt 11: Perceptions about their students' English use and the interviewee's English? Assessment in EMI?

Examples of follow-up questions

You said that EMI is a "luxury" in Chinese higher education. What do you mean by "luxury"?

How do you conceive this issue?

How did you feel about that?

You mention previously something about the incentive to teach content teachers to conduct EMI, Could you please say more about that?

After the interview

Ask my participants if they have anything more to say

Is there anything else you would like to bring up, or ask about, before we finish the interview?

Appendix 10

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION GUIDE (pilot)

University _____

Date _____

Subject _____

Teacher _____

Class Size _____

Time _____

Description of the physical settings

How is the classroom set up?

PPT Slides: Language use on the slides:

a. English

b. Chinese

c. English, but with Chinese translation.

d. Others _____

2. LESSON:

Teaching materials	Language used in the classroom	Classroom interaction	Students' involvement	Teacher feedback to 'different' forms of English	Focus on the content /focus on the language How it is reflected in the classroom?

Others: What percentage of teachers' language is in English, Chinese, or a mix of Chinese and English?

Appendix 11

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION GUIDE (main study)

This form is designed to record classroom observation data.

University _____

Teacher _____

Date _____

Course _____

Number of students _____

Description of the physical settings

How is the classroom set up?

PPT Slides: Language use on the slides:

a. English

b. Chinese

c. English, but with Chinese translation.

d. No PPT slides

e. Others

Did the teacher mention the requirements of English use in the class?

a. Yes

b. No

2. LESSON:

Teaching materials	Language used in the classroom	Classroom interaction	Teacher's role	Students' involvement	Teacher feedback to 'different' forms of English	Focus on the content /focus on the language How it is reflected in the classroom?

Appendix 12

The observation schedule of a 10-minute period of T1's lesson

Time (Minutes)	L1	L1C	Mix	L2C	L2	pause	S talk	Notes
0'15''					+			Lesson start
0'30''					+			T1 talk
0'45''					+			T1 talk
1'00''					+			T1 talk
1'15''					+			T1 talk
1'30''					+			T1 talk
1'45''					+			T1 talk
2'00''				+				T1 talk
2'15''					+			T1 talk
2'30''					+			T1 talk
2'45''					+			T1 talk
3'00''					+			T1 talk
3'15''					+			T1 talk
3'30''						+		T1 talk
3'45''					+			T1 talk
4'00''					+			T1 talk
4'15''					+			T1 talk
4'30''					+			T1 talk
4'45''					+			T1 talk

Time (Minutes)	L1	L1C	Mix	L2C	L2	pause	S talk	Notes
5'00''	+							Explains the question in Chinese
5'15''			+					T1 talk
5'30''	+							T1 talk
5'45''	+							T1 +S
6'00''					+			T1+S
6'15''					+			T1 talk
6'30''					+			T1 talk
6'45''					+			T1 talk
7'00''					+			T1 talk
7'15''			+					T1 talk
7'30''	+							T1 talk
7'45''	+							T1 talk
8'00''		+						T1 talk
8'15''	+							T1 talk
8'30''	+							T1 talk
8'45''	+							T1 talk
9'00''	+							T1 talk
9'15''	+							T1 talk
9'30''	+							T1 talk
9'45''				+				T1 talk
10'00''					+			T1 talk

Appendix 13

EMI regulations (entirely EMI or partially EMI) at Guangdong University of Foreign Studies

(Accessed, 9, September, 2014: <http://www1.gdufs.edu.cn/jwc/bestcourse/kecheng/pdf>)

广东外语外贸大学全英/双语课程教学管理规定

实施全英/双语课程教学旨在适应经济全球化及教育国际化迅速发展的要求,同时加强我校的办学特色及核心竞争力。为推动我校全英/双语教学课程建设,保证全英/双语教学的教学质量,规范全英/双语教学管理,结合我校实际,特制定本管理规定。

第一章 总 则

第一条 双语教学原则上是指以外语或外语与母语结合使用的非语言类课程的教学活动,本规定适用于以英语或英汉语结合的教学活动。

第二条 全英/双语教学课程指采用了外文教材并且外语授课课时达到该课程课时的50%及以上的课程,外语类课程(含专业外语课程)不列入全英/双语教学课程范围。

第三条 根据积极推进、分步实施的原则,相关学院应根据各学科专业特点和教师教学情况有计划地开设全英/双语教学课程。尤其应在全英/双语教学班及经济、管理、法学等学科尽量多开设全英/双语教学课程。

第二章 全英/双语课程开设要求

第四条 各专业的全英/双语教学课程原则上应在大二以上阶段的学科基础课、专业必修课或专业选修课中开设,并列入专业教学计划。在原教学计划基础上增设全英/双语教学课程应办理教学计划异动手续。

第五条 全英/双语教学课程应合理定位课程教学目标,体现专业培养的基本规格和要求,充分利用前沿性、国际性的学科专业知识,引进先进的教学理念,促进学生使用外语进行专业学习,提高学生综合素质和国际竞争能力。

第六条 教材选用要求

(一) 选用优秀外文新教材(含国外优秀原版教材或国内高水平的自编教材),也可以采用由学校立项建设、经学校教材建设委员会审定的外文教材或讲义。

(二) 选用外国教材,应由主讲教师事先提出具体建议,经院系审议同意,并报教务处备案后方可使用。任何单位和个人未经权利人授权许可,都不得擅自复制、使用外国教材。

(三) 学校鼓励教师编写有特色的、符合学生实际情况、适宜课程教学的全英/双语教材。

第七条 教学环节要求

(一) 备课。开设全英/双语教学课程的教师应对学生的外语基础进行充分了解,认真备课,并用外文撰写课程教学大纲,课程简介、课程进度表和教案等。

(二) 课堂教学。全英/双语教学除了基本概念和原理、重点及关键词等内容可用汉语讲解或解释外,应尽量使用规范、易懂的英语讲授。教师的课堂教学语言使用英语的比例第一次开课应不低于该课程课时的30%,第二次开课应达到50%及以上。

(三) 教学方法和手段。要根据课程内容、学生特点及全英/双语教学的需要选用恰当的教学方法和手段,有效调动学生学习积极性,并充分利用多媒体开展教学,建立丰富的网络教学资源。

(四) 作业和考核。作业和考核要求全部使用英文,并要求学生用英文作答。

第八条 师资要求

(一) 具有较为深厚的英语语言功底,口语流利,教学经验丰富,教学效果良好。

(二) 鼓励从国外留学归来的博士、硕士承担全英/双语教学任务。其他从事全英/双语教学的教师要有计划地选派赴国外或国内重点高校进修培训,以强化外语运用能力和专业知识。

第三章 全英/双语课程建设与管理

第九条 各教学单位应对初次进行全英/双语教学的课程和教师组织试讲,经学院审核后方可实施。审核内容包括师资水平、教材、教学大纲、课程简介、教案、习题等。

第十条 开设全英/双语教学课程必须由任课老师在开设前一学期期末填写《广东外语外贸大学全英/双语教学课程教学信息表》,经学院审核后,由学院交教务处备案。

第十一条 质量管理

(一) 各学院对所开设的全英/双语教学课程应适时组织专家或同行听课、检查有关教学文件和资料、调查学生学习效果,及时向任课教师和教务处反馈全英/双语教学课程教学情况,对发现的问题要及时整改。

(二) 学校每学期通过组织学生评教、督导听课或不定期的问卷调查等方式加强全英/双语教学课程的质量监控和评估。对达不到全英/双语教学要求或连续两学期学生评教成绩在本学院所开设课程的后15%内的课程,学校将取消全英/双语教学课程的资格。

第十二条 学校设立专项资金用于全英/双语教学课程的建设,适当提高全英/双语课程的课酬标准,重点建设教学效果好的全英/双语教学课程。

第十三条 学校重点打造若干个全英/双语教学团队,建设措施参考《广东外语外贸大学教学团队建设与管理办法》(广外大教〔2007〕63号),并在教研教改立项、教材立项、精品课程评审等方面对从事全英/双语教学的教师给予重点支持。

第四章 附 则

第十四条 对已使用合适的原版教材，但教师暂时不能以外语进行授课，或因其它原因必须以汉语作为课程教学语言的课程，暂时不列入全英/双语教学课程的范畴。

第十五条 本管理规定自公布之日起开始实施

第十六条 本管理规定由教务处负责解释

Appendix 14

Interview transcription conventions

(.)	Pause of one second or less
(2)	Etc. pause of 2 seconds etc.
XXX	Unintelligible word or words
CAPS	Stressed word
@	Laughter (length indicated by number of @)
L	Lanxi (the researcher)
T1, T2, T3 ect	EMI teachers
[[Overlapping speech
?	Rising intonation
.	Falling intonation

Appendix 15

An example of the interview transcriptions (Chinese)

L: 老师您之前开设的英文授课课程名称是什么?

T5: 就是高等数学还有信息安全密码学

L: 这几个是针对那个年级的学生开设的?

T5: 高等数学就是大了一(.) 那个是对应材料系的国际班的同学(.) 信息安全密码学是大三的(.) 就是信息系的必修课

L: 国际班是不是在国内上一段时间?

T5: 对(.) 就是国内上两年然后国外上两年

L: 您这个学院英文授课的比例是多少?

T5: 这个学院(.)我知道的就四门课

L: 不是很多(.)就四门

T5: 对(.)大部分老师是给外面国际班的学生上课(.) 他们高数(.) 数理方法(.) 线性代数(.) 还有那个概率论(.) 都是针对国际班的

L: 那就是给那些打算出国的学生上课?

T5: 或者还有就是老师有项目(.) 这个项目是和英语教学相关的(.) 所以要用英文教授的

L: 你觉得英文授课对学生有什么影响呢?

T5: 我觉得英文授课对有些同学很有帮助(.) 不管是就业还是继续求学都有好处(.) 但是唯一的问题是并不是所有学生都适合开设全英文课程

L: 您说的不适合(.) 是指?

T5: 有些学生英语还没过四级他们英语比较一般(.) 我觉得另外老师也是问题现在的情况不是你想开就开(.) 主要还要看学院有哪个老师可以上而且不是所有老师都愿意上(.) 老师熟悉哪门课就开

L: 那您觉得英文授课是从哪一年开始的?

T: 这个我不太清楚(3)@@@ 因为我是 09 年才回来

L: 您之前出国了?

T5: 我知道国际班是 08 年开始的(.) 因为我是 09 年开始教的(.) 上到现在每次教一年(.) 但是我们学校双语课是什么时候开始的(.) 就不知道了(.) 因为我后来才来到这个学校(.) 然后 09 年回来以后(.) 双语课也不多(.) 图像处理 有的老师出国了(.) 回来学校要求开设一门英文授课

L: 那您当时回来是不是也是因为您出国(.) 然后回来教授这门课?

T5: 这个其实也不是(.) 当时回来没有关系(.) 原来教这个班是个退休的老师 他能用英语讲课(.) 我回来就被分到这门课(.) 这几年陆续来了几个国外回来的博士(.) 可能也能用英文授课(.) 你也知道我们国内能用英语讲课的老师也比较少(.) 咱们学的念了(.) 读 写可以(.) 但是真正说的比较少

L: 可能我们没有太多使用英语的环境(.) 你全用英文讲(.) 他们可能也接受不了

T5: **对对** 你也可以问问国际班的学生 他们有的老师 上的时候(.) **我听说的**(.) 课件是英文上课都是汉语

L: 有这样的(.) 还有就是有的学校要求英文授课一半一半英语(.) 有的时候中文 有的时候英文 或者有的就是定了书是英语(.) 中英文混合讲

T5: **没有固定的**(.) 我觉得统一了也不行(.) 不同的科目目的(.) 一方面为了出国一方面要掌握知识(.) 光提高英语也不行(.) 说实在的你必须理解意思嘛其实最重要的是理解意思

L: 尤其数学可能要理解公式

T5: 这个也不能统一规定(.) 毕竟不是母语授课(.) 还是要灵活掌握(.) 我一般第一学期 每个术语幻灯片都是把中文的意思打出来 不是特别难就是全英语了(.) 还有我也不能讲的特别简单他们都是很认真的

L: 很认真的

T5: **很认真** 底子也强 那是挑选出来的学生 他们找你麻烦 老师这个太简单 我们出不了国怎么办 所以题目的话我有时就用中文课件的题目用过来 因为就我一个人教 有时没时间翻译题目 (.) 有时题目就用汉语出现了但是课件基本都是全英语的

L: 恩 这样

T5: 术语会标出汉语的意思 还有就是一开始汉语可能多一些 上了一段时间 可以用英语讲 他们也可以跟的上 **pace** 了(.) 但是讲到难的 或者模糊对比的 就是一定要用汉语讲 你用英语讲 讲完了会没有什么反应 下面一片茫然(.) 没有意义

L: 我那天听您的课你几乎都是全英语讲(.) 我感觉你讲的英语很流利 板书课件都是英文 是不是学院有明确的使用英语的要求还是老师自己掌握

T5: 有没有 学校没有明确的规定 还是老师自己掌握(.) 我就问了他们 他们说好像就我这英文板书 英文课件 英文授课 没有任何障碍 别的老师大多英文课件 说汉语的比较多

L: 我也是发现一些老师都是只是用英文课件 大多是用汉语讲

T5: 我经常鼓励他们尽可能多说英(.) 告诉他们要积极对待各种口音(.) 因为每个人话都是有口音(.) 如果带有各种口音的英语你能听懂 (.) 表面你英语练得不错(.) 水平挺好(.) 咱们中国人说的很好啦(.) 你能听懂就很好了你才能交流了(.) 你像我现在去开国际会(.) 你可以想象大家都是带各种口音的

L: 是那您觉学生会给你发音方面的期望吗?

T5: 有没有(.) 听说美国的语音好听但是语法不如英国的(.) 我有个朋友在英国的国王学院 是吧

L: 对 国王学院

T5: 我们经常看美剧 发现美国的英语很好听 但是语法很不严格(.) 我之前有个美国朋友他说美国中部那块说的英语很纯正(.) 其他地方都有 accent @@ 什么是美国 美国就是大家得到绿卡的就是美国人

L: 恩

T5: 所以也没有 一开始我就和学生说不要在乎口音 要在乎你的听力 对各种口音你都能听懂 这是很好的能力 这就是在锻炼你的能力

L: 对对

T5: 你不能要求别人你只能要求自己所以学生(3)

L: 也不是很在意这方面

T5: 对对

L: 那您也不要求他们吧

T5: 没有 我就要求他们能听懂 能表达 但是他们有时候听你问题(.) 那天有个叫小菲的女孩 她比较爱问问题(.) 我让她回答问题(.) 她一站起来说 I want to do 什么(.) 说了半截时候 突然意识自己在用英语(.) 她可能英语多的时候 她会用英语思考 这是很重要的 要用另外一种语言思考很重要 他们一般的(4)

L: 还好

T5: 很好很好(.) 他们对我很好 我也很喜欢他们

L: 我感觉那天的课程效果也很好

T5: 我从这个第一学期就教他们

L: 这是第二学期

T5: 对 第二学期 因为也比较熟悉大家了 这个人是什么特点 那个人是什么特点

L: 了解

T5: 对 也比较了解 然后走的比较近 不像原来教大班 一教 100 多号人 就教那么一学期 走了就忘了这个是一年下来的

L: 这个时间比较长

T5: 所以一直教他们国际班 09 年开始 这都第四次了(.) 所以他们都知道老师怎么回事 了他们会问一下上一届@

L: 对 我们当时上课也会问学长这个老师严不严@

T5: 对对@@

L: 考试好不过考试怎么考

T5: @@ 还可以 这可能相互的吧 首先我挺喜欢他们的 他们比较优秀嘛 还有都比较认真 然后稍微有点掉队(.) 你会一直喊他 比如 高新那孩子总站着

L: 哦 我也是看大 有个学生站着上课

T5: 他经常站着 (3) 他上次考的不好 我不是他班导师 不太清楚 他开始可能不认真 (.) 第一学期考的不好 我说你哪里不会 过来问我了 咱们就这么多人 过来问问题呀

L: 恩

T5: 然后参加补考就过了考的还不错 我真觉得考的还不错 (.) 我说你既然考的还不错 而且补考和这题差不多 要不是比原来简单 我说你一定能为啥你不好好学呀 可能鼓励一下 他就很认真 @@@ 现在也不知道为啥(.) 这几个星期 一直喜欢站着 估计是怕困

L: 那您上学期教的也是英文授课吗

T5: 对对 一般来说

L: 那您觉得学生从大一一进大学是不是适应全英语教学呢?

T5: 因为这个班还好了 他们知道要出国知道自己用英语上课(.) 所以一开始 一打招呼 第一节上课时 你要自我介绍 顺便我们这个课程怎么样 然后你要注意什么(.) 全部用英语 一开始要用英语说一下(.) 说的时候看大家的反映(.) 如果是看大家听明白点头就说明这一届英语水平还是不错的

L: 听懂了

T5: 都是日常对话

L: 对

T5: 第一堂课尽量讲的少一点(.) 然后讲完以后 看他们听懂没 然后再叫起几个做个自我介绍(.) 我大概看看他们能听懂多少 多叫几个人再看英语怎么说 (.) 一开始还是很慢

L: 需要适应

T5: 以后讲完以后看看有没有反应(.)如果问他们并且知道我们说的内容就过了

L: 我不太了解国际班的学生(.) 他们他们当初入选国际班 是不是就是看高考成绩(.) 自己想出 就分到国际班

T5: 这个我具体不太清楚因为是材料学院的(.) 我估计不是他们想上就行(.) 估计是挑出来的成绩要在前面英语成绩也要好(.) 挑出来组成一个班

L: 调出来的话可能就比较适应英文授课

T5: 对对对(.)他们英语都不错因为是挑出来的(.) 学习成绩也是很好的否则进不了这个班

L: 我了解了一些学校他们英文授课大二或大三才开

T5: 哦 这个是一入学

L: 早一些

T5: 一入学 所有的课都是这么开了就是 (.)说是用英文授课 就看老师怎么教了

L: 但是学校没有明确的规定

T5: 这个没法规定 就像我教的那个信息安全本身就是全英文的(.)可是我用全英文讲完底下一片茫然

L: 那个课写着就是全英文

T5: 对呀(.) 但是那样根本实施不下去一点都不实用你要求全英语(.) 这也不现实 它是一个逐步渐进的过程那个专业术语那么多

L: 是呢

T5: 当时是因为项目要求讲那个课(.) 120 个人在后面 英语参差高低不一样(.) 自我介绍完了大家都不知道我在自我介绍

L: 晕了

T5: 恩 都晕了(.) 然后问老师你在说什么呀怎么我们都不懂呀

L: @@

T5: 问怎么回事呀 我说咱们这课用英文上(.) 他们一开始都不太清楚 突然用英语上(.) 你想 100 多个人用英语上课(.) 好的好 坏的坏(.) 用英语 幻灯出来也看不懂(.) 单词都没接触过(.) 什么加密解密上来 10 几个不认识的词

L: 因为设计到一些专业术语

T5: 很多很多(.) 公式的话也有 但是很多都要语言去叙述有些小故事(.)这个那个来叙述
(.) 有一个单词听不懂他可能更不上(.) 比如单词听懂了意思又理解不了

L: 那他们有没有学校给他们开设专业英语呀

T5: 应该是有(.) 应该有专业英语课

L: 那个是?

T5: 专业英语课 一般上的时候就是读篇英语文章翻译翻译

L: 对

T5: 不是用英语上课就是咱们小时候学英语课的那种

L: 那个是专业那边给他们开

T5: 一般都有开设有专业词汇

L: 那您这门课就叫高等数学

T5: 对对高等数学

L: 那是开设一学期

T5: 一学年

L: 我不太了解数学您平时布置的作业也是要求英语作答吗?

T5: 是

L: 题目也是英文吗

T5: 全是英文的(.) 考试也是英语(.)就是平时问问题的时候用汉语文剩下都是英语的(.)
他们有时候毕竟还是他们还是习惯用汉语的课本(.)你别看我用英语讲他们能听懂(.) 他
在看东西时候还是嫌累还是看汉语的

L: 就是看汉语教材(.) 我看大家拿的讲义都是印出来的(.) 那个是原版书吗

T5: 不是 那个是我们老师自己写的

L: 老师编的?

T5: 对对 因为国外的数学太简单(.) 对咱么国内太简单 它注重应用咱们是为了考试(.)比
如将来建模竞赛 数学竞赛 考研你要讲他们那个 咱么就一个都考不上了这是**重点**

L: 哦 这样那看来专业还是不一样(.) 比如像他们管理专业经济专业他们直接就

T5: 对他是学高数 B 或高数 C(.) 现在是 A 现在是 高数 A

L: A?

T5: 就是最难的一档(.)现在高数有三档所以那个简单文科的数学就无所谓了(.)这个不行

L: 那这个英文教材就是我们学校的老师自己编写了?

T5: 对对对你看我们那个课本挺厚的

L: 是我看很厚一本

T: 我们自己编就把重点(.)因为学时也少

L: 对

T5: 汉语上课的学时是 98 学时一学期(.)我们这才 64 学时现在学时也少内容还不能简单了(.)你就要往里面挑了(.)拿国外的那课本**根本不可能**

L: @@@@

T5: 国外那课本其实写的挺浅显易懂(.)挺好的但是不适合咱们的要求(.)咱们的学生他学不了那么深(.)他不安(.)他们都是好学生(.)他就觉得我学这个万一出不了国怎么办(.)这个他们也总是不放心

L: 还有就是是不是国外比如高中生毕业以后(.)学的少直接学大学那个就(.)咱们直接用原版的教材会简单些

T5: 咱们现在也改了(.)咱们现在高中里面也有些大学的东西(.)但是基本的概念不准不严格

L: 不严格概率(.)我记的我们高中老师我们现在开始学概率(.)你们上大学以后也会学 就这样说

T5: 对对 现在就是稍微 就是浅显的东西放在高中了(.)所以有的时候一开始上课(.)这节课学过吗? 学过就哈哈的过去了(.)咱们好像不同的地区(.)好像重点我觉得也不太一样(.)比如那个反三角函数(.)老师这个我们都学过然后有的人说老师我们一点都没学过(.)感觉就是看情况

L: 看情况

T5: 对呀(.)就是讲到那个地方问一下(2)有的有反应有的没反应

L: 那您教的这个国际班 大部分是北京的同学?

T5: 不是(.)北京的少(.)他们是按成绩录取的(3)但是北京的孩子基础好些(.)他可能成绩没那么好但是各方面的能力(.)毕竟语言方面要高一些特别是表达方面

L: 还是各个省录取来的

T5: 是 他们是挑成绩挑出来的 我看他们学习都很认真很刻苦(.)就感觉不一样(.)你像我们课时少

L: 是

T5: 我讲不了那么多习题但是他们做的比你多多了(.) 没事拿一大堆题来问你(.) 还和我
说担心考研要考

L: 我不知道您还教别的本科生

T5: 教教

L: 那您觉得他们学习积极性是不是比别的

T5: 他们很省心(.) 我一开始教的那一级还好 09 级最好了(.) 监考我都不用看他们(.) 他
们不会抄别人的那样子因为人也少就 30 个人

L: 能看到他们也

T5: 我觉得这些孩子都很懂事教他们为自豪(.) 就和教别的班就不一样

L: 您觉得有必要用全英语授课吗?

T5: 那个就要看情况了

L: 看情况

T5: 你全英语讲完以后 也没有人懂 也不现实呀 那咱们是不是教会他这个东西(.) 是学
会用英语这个语言学另外的东西(.) 对不对而不是为了学英语

L: 是

T5: 所以目的不一样 我觉得不管他们听懂没听懂(.) 你就用英语说(.) 我觉得也没啥意
义(.) 对吧我目的是让他们学会我的信息安全学(.) 你说如果重点是掌握英语(.) 结果我讲
完以后大家信息安全完全不知道(.) 单词估计也不懂 @@

L: 都没听懂(.) 我觉得还是要根据班里的实际情况看班里的状况

T5: 他跟咱们出国留学不一样(.) 出国留学你不懂语言(.) 就考不了试没法儿去(.) 周围也
都是这种环境(.) 大家必须说英语(.) 在咱们国内他就是可以逃避

L: 对对对

T5: 我就是上课时说下课就不用说(.) 你非要拿这个要求他们他就觉得很怪

L: 还有在国外大家一讨论

T5: 因为你想说话必须要说英语(.) 你想说汉语没有

L: 我们这

T5: 留学生很少大环境在这个地方(.) 对不对你听不懂(.) 你想说话必须要用英语(.) 这个
呢我听不懂 一问大家都听不懂(.) 然后法不责众就这样了

L: 是呢

T5: 我觉得行不通

L: 就是最近几年国家的导向也是要从原来的双语转成全英语导向

T5: 对(2) 我觉得可以这样做(.) 但是我觉得先把学生挑好(.) 学生要人少点 不如说 30 个人

L: 30 个人

T5: 这些学生的语言水平要差不多(.) 你别参差不齐(.) 也不行而且就是这 30 个人要乐于接受这种安排(.) 这就没问题(.) 但是问题是现在课程这么紧(.) 忙着学东西(.) 及格也很重要是不是? 学语言也重要(.) 咱们就是这种制度呀(.) 你是学了能力但是你的成绩还是那么少(.) 你没有奖学金你就没法去保研(.) 对他来说是很大的损失

L: 是的

T5: 他没有时间去浪费在这里(.) **真的真的**我觉得现在他们也很辛苦(.) 课多压力大 一门课(.) 原来用汉语学可以考 90 分(.) 现在非得用英语上的课可能就考 70 分(.) 那我的加权成绩就很低那他就是很不愿意了(.) 就是很现实

L: 还有我觉得您做为授课教师是不是英文授课准备时间要大的多

T5: **是的 是的**(.) 那是一定的

L: 那学校系这边会不会有些鼓励措施

T5: 没有(.) 和别的课时是一样的

L: 就是一样的课时

T5: 一开始材料学院那边给补助(.) 毕竟是老师付出了努力他们有点

L: 对对

T5: 但是这个学院是没有的

L: 就是和其他的老师用中文授课是一样的

T5: 对(.) 你想现在很多老师就是用中文授课呀(.) 所以这没法比较两个人的工作量(.) 就是你全用英语说和你全用英语课件(.) 和他用英文课件汉语说(.) 你们两个的工作量怎么评价(.) 都在上针对同一个群体(.) 就是你多说几句英语就多给你补助(.) 这就没有

L: 可能就是学校之间的差别(.) 我的一个了解 就是外经贸给到 2 个课时(.) 二外那边给到 1.5

T5: 这个没有

L: 那边老师说能促进一下老师上课的积极性

T5: 对是有点这个道理(.) 现在这个暂时也没有(.) 因为还有很多老师不用英语讲

L: 所以您也感觉(.) 是不是上这种课的积极性也不是很高

T5: 没人选(2)我的课没人选(.) 谁上就上那个课(.) 你就上一个课别人也不想去尝试上

L: 就是您上的话一直上下来

T5: 没人选我一直上也没人来上(.) 太麻烦了@@

L: @@

T5: 我就上着吧因为我也喜欢他们(.) 而且孩子们也都挺积极向上的我也挺喜欢的

L: 我也是感觉到

T5: 很喜欢我(.) 我也很喜欢他们但是一般没人选(.) 我都是选的课没人选的 @@ 希望有别的老师选(.) 但是没有老师选比如说我出差晚回来(.) 那这个课就往后推(.) 推到后面能回来以后再上(.) 去年我是 10 月中旬才回来(.) 是 9 月开学嘛(.) 我这个就是 10 月中旬才开始上

L: 等着您呢

T5: 是(.) 等着我回来上因为太费劲了

L: 而且我觉的像您这样英语也好(.) 专业也 能够熟练胜任双语课的或全英语教师也不是很多

T5: 大家可能写论文还是好些(.) 但是真正能够日常说的(.) 毕竟没那个环境我觉得还是不太方便

L: 而且鼓励呀也没有太多(.) 评价也不考虑

T5: 没有没有鼓励(.) 你这么一说(.) 也是@@@@@@我都一直没想到(.) 一直就是上这个课也没想到鼓励这些

L: 我是了解到其他高校(.) 有的就是说上这样课很辛苦(.) 备课准备时间大(.) 规定的课时内容很多

T5: 是是是(.) 这个没有(.) 这个就是材料学院给一点补(.) 我们学院说既然给了(.) 大家都超过了课时(.) 大家都超过了课时了(.) 应该教 100 个课时(.) 我们讲了 150 课时(.) 然后材料给了 学院就不算课时费了(.) 就不在给了还扣掉了

L: 就没有啦

T5: 这个可能跟外语学院呀(.) 他们外语是重点呀(.) 这个是数理化学院(.) 数学是最穷的地方

L: 也就是看课呀学校的整体来定

T5: 看学校了(.) 没有 这个(.) 说材料学院给了那你们就算了(.) 这个按说跟他有啥关系呀

L: 对对

T5: 那边是那边的给的(.) 这和咱们学院有啥关系哈(.) 付出辛苦还是付出辛苦

L: 那就是学校整体不一样了

T5: 还有就是看学院和系重视这个事情的程度(.) 还有又不是这个学院开设的课(.) 是替别的系开设的课可能这样的关系@@@

L: 这样@@

T5: 好像有的老师也没听说老师

L: 这个学院自己开设的双语课也没有

T5: 也没有(.) 我没听说过有

L: 那也是统一的

T5: 有吗? 我估计应该没有(.) 没人要求你开双语你开了双语(.) 那你就自己承担吧

L: 所以积极性就是老师愿意上就

T5: 主要积极不积极看学生吧(.) 看学生想上吗(.) 学生如果不想上老师积极没用吧我觉得学生没有

L: 你觉得学生呢

T5: 我觉得学生也不想上这个吧

L: 对(.) 可能主要看学生以后的发展(.) 以后他出国(.) 或者工作中能用到(.) 可能有用但是如果他也许就是在北京找个工

T5: 对(.) 我感觉学生对这个双语课有热情吗

L: 您觉得呢

T5: 学习好的学生呢个有热情(.) 学习不好的学生就没有热情(.) 学习好的他想挑战自我的感觉学习不好的(.) 我汉语都听不懂(.) 你来个这个我都不想听(.) 你让我及格就算了(2) 我感觉这样的学生也不少

L: 还有就是国际班的同(.) 他们要出国他们是没有问题

T5: 对(.) 他们是没有问题

L: 但是对大部分本科生来说(.) 不是这种国际班的学生(.) 可能就没有这么大的兴趣度了

T: 对对(.) 我成绩高了(.) 保研了(.) 这歌可能比较现实(.) 你英语学的好了我觉得他们那个大学英语不及格的还很多

L: 对(.) 还有四六级

T5: 对对(.) 他们一来不及练这个(.) 有兴趣的可以我觉得没兴趣的强制他们来上(.) 效果不好

L: 这样效果不好

T5: 所以就这种还是实验性质的比较好(.) 拿个小班(.) 然后做的比较好了有成果了(.) 慢慢的推广这是最合适的(.) 而且我们数学一般是 5 个班(.) 一上 150 个人(.) 你怎么上全英语

L: 师资也是

T: 师资也是很紧张(.) 是不是(.) 最少四个班 120 个人(.) 数学我们课很紧(.) 嘴不停的说还讲不完

L: 对(.) 你还要板书

T5: 对对对对(.) 不像有的文科板书少就要不停的写

L: 还要看他们懂没懂

T5: 他们好像把课时缩减了马克思列宁(.) 他们那些政治理论课时很多(.) 好像数学课缩减了不少(.) 数学一下不停的讲(.) 成什么状态了不停的写(.) 用幻灯也打的快(.) 要不就不讲不完内容(.) 这是有要求的所以你顾不得把什么细化(.) 你要有时间细化(.) 比如你就这么几个学时(.) 他这就 64 个学时还要把 98 个学时的内容都拽过来

L: 都要讲完还用英语讲

T5: 要有重点(.) 还要用英语讲你想想(.) 它要多凝缩到一起呀

L: 对老师的要求高学生也要求高

T5: 对呀(.) 所以比如我讲什么东西时都要看看各年的考研题(.) 然后难度在什么地方因为他们比较用功也比较聪明(.) 简单的就是一带而过难的地方就是不停的说(.) 重点就是讲这些

L: 讲这些

T5: 但是没办法按说英文授课时间应该更长一点吧

L: 对对对

T5: 它**没有**(.) 没有增加课时(.) 缩短了 3 分之一的吧

L: 是不是要开设其他课所以缩短了吗?

T5: 对对(.) 还有其他的课 就这样 他觉得你出国了就不用

L: 但是应该是增加课时才对

T5: 其实我觉得的有时候也没必要(.) 因为国外的数学也没这么深奥也用不着(.) 因为你学了这么多纯理论(.) 将来从事材料处理的这个专业(.) 你要用到哪块数学知识(.) 你必须新学那块(.) 高数就是基础 它就是个简单介绍 我觉得大概你知道我用哪儿数学知识知道怎么去查(.) 那个是最重要的不可能把所有的知识都记下来(.) 而且咱们学生就会做题(.) 其他能力真的(.) 你在国外是文科的(.) 可能不知道理科的(.) 能力很差 怎么去调研(.) 怎么去查文章(.) 怎么去分析问题(.) 怎么找问题(.) 有了问题怎么分析他们这些能力很差很差

L: 可能还是以为的感觉(.) 就是我大学时候(.) 老师说个什么我就听然后

T5: 你让我做我就做(.) 你要给我留很多题(.) 你不给我留题我就慌(.) 怎么办呀(.) 他们也都是这样 一开始总要题(.) 我说不要题(.) 你就把我说的单词(.) 课文都念会(.) 会说就行啦(.) 然后我给你留的题会做就行了

L: 对(.) 就行了

T5: 咱们 64 不可能讲 98 的(.) 那个题那么难的因为没讲(.) 你怎么考呀

L: 他们可能就是看考研题目就紧张(.) 说这个不会做怎么办呀

T5: 习惯了习惯了(.) 现在还好一点 第一学期很慌张(.) 说老师怎么办(.) 这个题(.) 拿很多题来问嘛

L: 尤其就是高中时做题比较多

T5: 就是题海战术嘛(.) 是吧

L: 大学没题了就不习惯了

T5: 孩子比较努力(.) 上次还把物理的题拿来让我帮他们做(.) 有和数学的有关的

L: 还有我想问你们考试也是全英语(.) 就是我不了解数学这块(.) 你们题目有没有需要文字写的题目多不多(.) 大部分是公式

T5: 有些需要文字的叙述(.) 但是不多(.) 他要把他连起来虽然是公式(.) 但是把公式但处在那里不行(.) 列一堆公式知道你在干啥(.) 你要讲为什么要有这个公式(.) 由这个公式我们知道什么东西有什么表示(.) 你要把他们连起来

L: 那您比如平时判作业和考卷的时候(.) 您会关注他们里面的叙述的语法问题多不多?

T5: 倒是不特别多(.) 因为数学语言还是比较简单准确的(.) 比如像 因为 所以 @@这就很简单 然后 接着 叙述的东西

L: 少

T5: 比较少一些也是一般的句型(.) 没有特别复杂(.) 不讲究美(.) 就是讲究简洁和准确对这两个是最重要的

L: 这个是最重要的了

T5: 弄到美(.) 或者语法在数学上不用(.)对不对

L: 大部分是关注他是不是把答案算出来了

T5: 对对(.) 然后是不是证明过程是不是准确

L: 那语言问题是不是也比较少

T5: 语言问题少(.) 句型很简单嘛(.) 他就是有的单词不会@@@

L: @@ 比如单词可微可导(.) 比如要他们写(.) 但是拼错了这种情况你会扣分吗?

T5: 这个就不会扣分了(.) 但是如果他是都对题 就是满分的卷子(.) 那个地方错了要扣分的(.) 如果本身都没对就不要扣分了因为我们满分的卷子 意味着就是 perfect 完美的卷子 什么错误都不能有

L: 恩 就是视情况了

T5: 一般就是勾出来然后就不扣分了

L: 再扣可能就没多少分了

T5: 对对对 就不扣了(.) 因为关键是看他是否掌握了数学思想(.) 会不会解题 会不会证明 这个是最重要的(2) 语言这块相虽然也重要不过对于数学的卷子来说它就是次要的了(.) 如果考英语的话这个就估计就是最重要的了

L: 就是大学英语老师那边(.)这个是最重要的(.)现在您是用英语当成一种工具

T5: 对对对 我们是当成工具做这个东西(.) 就是如果工具上稍微有点瑕疵的话(.) 我们就不会特别挑剔(.)要不就有点过分了

L: 我们刚说到语言是工具(.) 然后可能我们在生活中(.) 最近可能看到一些中式英语或表达我们中国人或多或少都有这种口音表达

T5: 很正常

L: 您怎么看到这个方面的东西

T5: 我觉得没什么呀(.) 因为每个人日式英语 美式英语 英式英语 都有这样呀(3)觉得这个不能改就不改嘛(.) 不改也没觉得并不好

L: 不改也没觉得并不好

T5: 没有(.) 因为我接触的都是外国人嘛(.) 比较多大家都是带有 accent 嘛也不同

L: 是是

T5: 我们都习惯了我们那时候跟泰国朋友一起聊天

L: 恩

T:经常会讨论发音问题(.)咱们不是有英标(.)他们也有他们的到音标

L: 恩

T5: 我们拿着我们的英标去问美国的朋友(.)他说我们没学过英标@@@

L: @@

T5: 所以就是这个本身就没有定数(2) 工具只要我说的别人能明白(.)别人说的我能明白能够交流就可以了(.)不需要刻意的把自己弄的那么完美(.)弄的那么完美就和咱们说汉语那个播音台(.)那个也没有意义呀

L: 对(.)正常交流中(.)有几个像是罗京李修平那样

T5: 对对 那个没有意义嘛(.)我觉得只要它能服务于我(.)就能用的很方便就可以了

L: 就可以了

T5: 但是你要是让别人更好的理解自己(.)还是尽量的把自己的发音弄好一点

L: 恩

T5: 就是尽量嘛(.)是不是? 但是也不是去追求它完美我觉得意义不大

L: 是

T5: 所以对于每个人有口音的时候(.)我都是可以理解嘛(.)因为每个人都有口音@@

L: 对@@ 我能问您当时您出国的是哪些国家

T5: 我在日本待了

L: 哦 日本那边

T5: 差不多待了不到六年吧(.)在那边是生活的时候用日语(.)讨论的时候用英语讨论 跟大家交流的机会比较多

L: 我的一个同学也是在日本读博士(.)他也是平时买东西用日语(.)在平时实验室用英语

T5: 对(.)其实挺辛苦的

L: 恩是

T5: 因为它的英语也不是太好懂(.)懂了日语以后再去听它的英语就明白了(.)不懂日语的时候(.)呜呜不知道她的英语在讲什么

L: 恩恩

T5: 日式英语比中式英语说的太那个了(.)不过咱们中式英语有时候说的就是不好(.)就是那个阴阳顿挫(.)说的太明显了

L: 有的说的很明显

T5: 是挺难听的@@

L: @@@

T5: 所以我有时候跟我的同学说不管我的发音怎么样(.) 我希望你们还是要多听听电台 @@@

L: @@

T5: 尽量不要就是那样 @ @这种(.) 四声那么明显的说话还是挺难听的@

L: 恩

T: 就是念东西的时候自己念一下让自己宿舍的同学听一下(.) 要不有的时候还是挺让你自己丢脸的(.) 我感觉 @@@

L: 恩

T5: 差不多就行 不要太差(.) 如果别人在说自己差的时候(.) 是不是太差 如果是就要改一下

L: 那如果平时您看美剧英剧的时候(.) 会不会有意识的模仿一下一下里面的英语

T5: 哎 没有 现在累了(.) 看那个就是为了放松

L: 休息了

T5: 谁还想看他们怎么说(.) 而且有的时候再模仿年轻的可以(.) 但是慢慢的因为用的年数长了一种腔调自己想改 很难再改了 @@@

L: 对是呢 是呢(.) 那您上英文授课学校有没有人去听课? 去评价?

T5: 好像听过很少(.) 听过两次 学生评价(.) 学生每个学期会评价会在网上评价

L: 恩

T5: 但是我这个课挺好的

L: 我听着就觉得

T5: 就是免检课程(.) 就是没人去检查(.) 不需要检查所以我一开始不清楚(.) 不知道在哪查(.) 后来他们跟我说(.) 后来说是免检课程(.) 是这个全英语的(.) 还是不错的因为学生评价高(.) 以后谁也不用来检查(.) 就 Ok 啦(.) 我记忆中就有一个老师听过我的课 @@@

L: 他是系里的领导去听还是他是

T5: 学院的

L: 那他听您的课主要关注您数学哪方面还是英语语言呢

T5: 我觉得应该得都要关注吧

L: 恩

T5: 但是那个老师英语好不好(.) 那就是另外一回事了如果他一概听不懂(.) 他听了也白听 @@ 这么多年就一个老师听过

L: 感觉您也是也比较有经验

T5: 是教他们这个是比较多(.) 也不是新老师了听课的人比较少(.) 我倒是挺想让这样的老师讲一讲 去听一听 因为都是学生们而且我对学生有点像对待孩子(.) 你看我喊他们孩子

L: 是的我听到了

T5: 我就是觉得他们很小

L: 我觉得这样的氛围很好

T5: 是(.) 他们的问题也会很那个啥有个孩子我也不知道(.) 他学数学把那个东西弄的特别细(.) 细了就好像一叶障目(.) 什么也看不见(.) 他很认真就是考特别少什么东西都觉得很难

L: 他是不觉得自己很努力(.) 但是最后分数

T5: 我也觉得他很努力(.) 整天都在问问题很简单的问题就把他想的很难(.) 我也不知道为啥他会那样想(.) 我有时候就问为啥你怎么想呢

L: 恩

T5: 老师我也不知道(.) 我也觉得它很难@@@

L: 很担心

T5: 我觉得很简单的事情到您这里怎么这么难呀@@

L: @@

T5: 我觉得很简单的事情(.) 怎么到你这里这么难呀我都不知道怎么回事了(.) 就是这样的问的比较多

L: 多一些

T5: 有时也讨论 (.) 很少去聊这种个人生活(.) 因为我是大课老师不是班导师(.) 关于学的东西 我一般都告诉学习方法这个比较多

L: 恩 这个多些

T5: 我说你看你学这么难你有时候把那书闭上(.)好好想一想那个到底对方学了什么形象的用自己的语言描述一下(.)也别搞的这么复杂(.)真的很简单的事情(.)到他那就变的特别难特别复杂

L: 他可能养成那种习惯

T5: 学数学是不是也讲究一些天分(.)我有时候想这事并不是他把每个题目都扣懂了(.)但是他是在记忆不是自发的那种(.)见到未知的问题怎么去建立联系?不会建立联系给了我一个题(.)我马上看答案(.)他把这两个记住了结果我又换了个题(.)没答案他就不知道怎么办了(.)就是这种样的学习方式可能是

L: 可能就是每个学生情况不一样

T5: 恩我觉得是学生怎么去学东西还需要指导

L: 还有就是您平时做的课件大纲都是英语的吗?

T5: 恩全是英语的(.)只有那个术语 derivative 导数(.) differential 微分这全部是英语的而且在只有在第一节课有介绍的时候出现这个中文以后就没有啦(.)觉得一般一开始第一 section 有个 introduction 在那有别的就没有啦

L: 恩

T5: 因为教的年数多了把微分那块(.)因为以前每到这里都讲不动(.)所以这次故意的把汉语的那个拿过来放到这个地方要不实在是不行

L: 效果就不好

T5: 一般的全是英文(.)教学大纲也全是英文

L: 这个也是您自己制定上面也没有人来管

T5: 没有人来管这个因为也是我根据就是教数学教了很多年(.)大家考什么每年的考研题我也都会看一看考哪些东西(.)自己怎么定(.)要不然真的这些孩子将来万一出不了国(.)他要考研他就很难受还是多考虑这方面的(.)比较现实孩子们都很辛苦学了半天(.)他们本来很优秀(.)可是你让他用英语上课(.)他学的东西少了最后他考的差了(.)其实不是他自己的原因(.)是你们(2)咱们的这个制度

L: 课时也少了

T5: 这个制度让他成这样了(.)所以所以考虑这些方面的事(.)尽量就是我即使没能出了国但是我最后学的东西(.)和别人也差不多

L: 差不多别差太多

T5 恩只要我努力我就能跟上你们(.)是这样的

L: 还有就是(.)您现在教的英文授课(.)它学校有没有安排给老师出国的机会

T5: 这个没有吧不会为了英文授课让你出国吧

L: 给老师针对语言的培训什么的

T5: (4)

L: 是不是这方面您很少听说

T5: 没听说过吧@ 大家都是为了科研

L: 为了科研出国

T5: 没有说为了教学(.) 我感觉现在国内不重视教学

L: 可能就是评价体系

T5: 看你出了多少论文

L: 是否是核心期刊

T5: 对对对现在是这东西(.) 好像没人说你教学(.)教学大家都过了

L: 都过了

T5: 没人评价你这个东西(.) 我觉得有点怪了 因为大学不是研究所(.)我认为还是评价教学才最重要的

L: 对

T5: 但是现在变了

L: 现在就是看每年发多少论文(.)老师精力也是也写论文为主

T5: 对对对还是以论文为主(.)我觉得不好(.) 失去了大学本来是教育人的基地(.) 现在成了造文章的基地我就有点感觉(.) 有点变了

L: 每年可能跟职称相联系

T5:对对对这和国内的风气(.)这个没办法

L: 形成这样

T5: 我记得我刚毕业的时候(.) 大家很注重教学我那时好像(.)当时让我上高数我是第一个年轻老师去上(.) 大家还考评半天(.) 我是不是能够上这个课 还好几个老师去听

L: 恩

T5: 现在才没有呢

L: 就去直接去上就行

T5: 有个要求(.) 也没那么严格

L: 那您希望学校要有明确的规定(.) 比如对英文授课的规定(.) 对语言的要求 在课堂中英语的使用比例

T5: 我觉得这个没意义

L: 没用

T5: 我觉得英语本身就是工具嘛(.) 慢慢的大家英语水平高自然而然就会提高上来(.) 有些词用英语语也不是那么容易的准确表达出来

L: 是是

T5: 我不太清楚(.)我总是看大家的热情(.)我怎么感觉一般的学生对双语教学没那么大热情

L: 恩

T5: 也不知道上这个课的学生水平参差不齐(.) 我不觉得他们有太大的热情

L: 是

T5: 所以学校一定要上百分之多少(.) 这个硬性规定没啥意义

L: 它好像国家那边有个就是说(.) 一个国际化 最近总提及

T5: 恩恩

L: 总是把国际化和双语或是全英语联系在一起

T5: 国际化就是用英语上课这个(.) 我觉得这个没有道理吧(.) 我也没见别的地方他们就是鼓励(.) 也没去实施嘛(.) 像日本吧它也没有实施嘛(.) 单独有门课(.) 比如这老师很擅长说英语 那我单独开一门课(.) 有兴趣的人来听(.) 但是不是强制规定你一定去听

L: 只是宏伟的目标提了(.) 但是具体实施就不是了

T5: 我觉得咱们中国动不动就是国际接轨了(2) 我觉得也没接到轨了(.) 咱们那个 SCI 人家国外谁讲究这个呀(.) 欧美他们讲嘛? 不讲那咱么国内把那个接轨了(.) 你讲呀(.) 人家把那个 SCI 制定出来了(.) 是美国制定出来的(.) 没问题但是人家不执行呀

L: 是

T5: 咱们执行呀(.) 弄的乌烟瘴气的我觉得弄的很不像话了(.) 是不是

L: 就是感觉

T5: 怎么叫接轨你就全接上轨(.) 你说教授治学你都是后勤在管理这些人(.) 教授地位也不是很高

L: 还有就是教务处制定政策的人(.) 都不是真正上课的老师

T5: 对呀他是这个领导(.) 他想做一下这个事情(.) 他也没去看老师么都怎么回事就来一下

L: 具体很难了解一线老师的真实情况

T5: 对呀 对呀

L: 很多政策都是指导性的(.)

T5: 没有必要(.) 我真的觉得这个就是给一些人 show

L: 还是实实在在

T5: 实实在在的做我觉得(.) 是不是

L: 恩

T5: 他自然而然的需要这个发展了他就会去努力(.)你比如说增强学术交流很重要(.)多请一些老外来上课来做报告(.) 学生都想听他想接触外面(.) 开阔学生的视野这样他们自然而然的就会去努力学这些东西(.) 你非要强调老师要在课上用多少百分比的英语 他本身中国人(.) 英语也不是特别好(.) 下面也是中国人 还百分之多少(.) 下面也没兴趣 我觉得为了做这个而做这个没有意义

L: 对(.) 就是即使有些学校规定了(.)但是实际上课的时候也没有遵循

T5: 没法实施对吧(.) 我觉得没有意义(.) 我觉得咱们把国际接轨理解错了(.) 如果咱们很强的话别人就和咱们接轨了(.) 用不找这么去折腾

T5: 咱们还是考虑大环境比较合适(.)并且可能实际上让自己变的强大比较合适(.)也不用非要怎么样(.) 他们自然觉得你们这边比较好(.) 我们采用你的 就和咱们接上了(.) 这样比较现实

L: 咱们一说就是和国际话

T5: 那也要真正一样呀都弄了些真正一样(.)你也不一样的东西(.) 弄了些中国特色的东西

L: 是

T5: 都是些国特色的东西(.) 要想国际化还是要和学生积极性连接起来(.)现在这些事离学生太远了(.)以后靠硬性的

L: 他也不知道以后用英语干嘛

T5: 对对他们都很困惑(.)你知道

L: 为啥这个课要用英文授课

T5: 很多很困惑(.) 努力学习又怎么样他们都这样

L: 是呢

T5: 老师我就考第一然后上博士(.) 上博士我能找工作

L: 是呢是呢现在都是就业都有压力(.) 还有找工作不像以前

T5: 是呢 是呢

L: 谢谢老师和您聊的很开心

T5: @你就问这了

L: 是的谢谢您

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