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**UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON**

FACULTY OF HUMANITIES

Modern Languages

**Turkish Lecturers' and Students' Perceptions of English in  
English-medium Instruction Universities**

by

Ali KARAKAŞ

Thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

May 2016



**UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON**

**ABSTRACT**

**FACULTY OF HUMANITIES**

**SCHOOL OF MODERN LANGUAGES**

**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**

**TURKISH LECTURERS' AND STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF ENGLISH IN  
ENGLISH-MEDIUM INSTRUCTION UNIVERSITIES**

By Ali Karakaş

Recently, many institutions in non-Anglophone contexts have switched to using English as a medium of instruction in education mostly as a strategic response to globalisation and internationalisation. This switch has increased the intake of international students and staff, leading to the representation of diverse languages and cultures on campuses. Researchers, fascinated by such transformations, have explored issues around EMI from various perspectives, but less from a language perspective, which is largely concerned with language policy and practice. Given this gap, this research explores Turkish students' and lecturers' perceptions of English, by considering their institutions' English language policies and practices from their viewpoints. In doing so, part of the aim is to discover the language ideologies guiding students' and lecturers' perceptions of English.

Using a mixed-methods research design, this research project employed three sets of data collection tools: questionnaires, individual interviews and documentary data. The research was conducted with undergraduate students and lecturers from three disciplines of three Turkish EMI institutions located in two provinces of Turkey. To analyse quantitative data, descriptive statistics and inferential statistics, i.e. the Kruskal-Wallis tests and the Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted. To analyse qualitative data, a mixture of qualitative content analysis and discourse analysis was utilised.

The results show that overall, participants have monolithic perceptions of English in line with their positive perceptions of their own English being perceived as akin to native English, and of their institutions' English language policies and practices grounded in native English. The results also demonstrate that many participants were

more negative vis-à-vis others' English, including that of Turkish students and lecturers whose English they perceived to be not native-like. It also emerged that various language ideologies, which were found to be formed by several factors, e.g. previous educational experiences, external factors and personal aspirations, have seemed to guide participants' normative perceptions towards English.

The research has ideological and practical implications for English language policy and practice in EMI universities as well as policy makers and content teachers both in Turkey and in other similar settings. The results propose that university policymakers should revise their institutions' current academic English language policies to make them more linguistically 'in-line' with the current sociolinguistic reality of English — for example, by determining more appropriate entry requirements or by providing more appropriate EAP support for students. The research also has implications for ELT and EAP practitioners regarding the teaching of English and testing. ELT and EAP practitioners are recommended to reflect on their normative practices and expectations of their students' language use and question the appropriacy of teaching standard (i.e. native) English to students who will, most likely, use English for communication with non-native English speakers and, primarily, for instrumental purposes, such as for the purpose of carrying out their academic tasks. At a more practical level, ELT teachers and EAP instructors can adopt error correction techniques which are mainly focused on meaning and content rather than on accuracy and show tolerance to students' divergent use of English, with an emphasis on their "Englishing," i.e. what they can achieve by using English, particularly for assessment.

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## DECLARATION OF AUTHORSHIP

I, *Ali KARAKAŞ*, declare that this thesis entitled *Turkish Lecturers' and Students' Perceptions of English in English-medium Instruction Universities* and the work presented in it are my own and have been generated by me as the result of my own original research.

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. Parts of this work have been published as:

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Date: ..... MAY 2016 .....



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Thank you all for existing,  
Ali

## **List of Abbreviations**

AmE	: American English
AWC	: Academic Writing Centre
BrE	: British English
BUEPT	: Boğaziçi University English Proficiency Test
BUOWL	: Boğaziçi University Online Writing Lab
BUSEL	: Bilkent University School of English Language
CAE	: Cambridge English: Advanced
CAT	: Cumulative Achievement Test
CEFR	: Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
COPE	: Certificate of Proficiency in English
CTU	: Curriculum and Testing Unit
DBE	: Department of Basic English
DML	: Department of Modern Languages
EAP	: English for Academic Purposes
ECA	: End of Course Assessment
EFL	: English as a Foreign Language
EIL	: English as an International Language
ELF	: English as a Lingua Franca
ELFA	: English as a Lingua Franca in Academic Settings
ELT	: English Language Teaching
EMI	: English Medium Instruction
ENL	: English as a Native Language

EPE	: English Proficiency Exam
FAE	: Faculty Academic English
FCE	: Cambridge English First
HE	: Higher Education
IELTS	: International English Language Testing System
L1	: First Language
L2	: Second Language
LP	: Language Policy
METU	: Middle East Technical University
NES	: Native English Speaker
NNES	: Non-native English Speaker
QCA	: Qualitative Content Analysis
SCI	: Science Citation Index
SFL	: School of Foreign Language
SPSS	: Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SSCI	: Social Sciences Citation Index
StE	: Standard English
TDC	: Testing Development Coordinator
TOEFL	: Test of English as a Foreign Language
TWE	: Test of Written Examination
URAP	: University Ranking by Academic Performance

## **CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION**

“While many people who think about language are thinking about globalization, the people who think about globalization never think about language. Language has not been a category of analysis in the literature of globalization” (Pratt, 2010, p. 9).

“Despite the fact that internationalization is a key strategic aim of university policy across the sector, this does not seem to apply to language, language use, and pedagogic practice” (Turner, 2012, p. 11).

### **1.1 Background and contextualization**

In today’s globalized world, the burgeoning use of English has become more and more evident virtually in any domain with an international dimension, e.g. business, tourism, technology and education (Graddol, 2006). Its role in education, one of the most sensitive domains for language, has been critical. It has been primarily taught as a foreign language in the curriculum, and secondarily used as an instructional language at different levels of education. Especially in higher education (HE), it has been the most studied compulsory subject in non-Anglophone contexts. Over the last ten years or so, many HE institutions in such non-English dominant contexts have undergone a remarkable change by moving from teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) to using it as a medium of instruction in teaching as a consequence of the transformative developments engendered mainly by internationalization (Dearden, 2014, 2015; Shohamy, 2013; Wächter & Maiworm, 2008, 2014).

#### **1.1.1 English as a medium of instruction**

The permeation of English in HE of non-English speaking countries is firmly linked to the fact that globalization and marketization of HE go hand in hand with the widespread use of English in educational platforms (Crystal, 1997; Dewey, 2007; Turner & Robson, 2008). Concerning this issue, Kirkpatrick (2011) maintained that internationalization has come to be equated with the process of *Englishization*, i.e. an expanded use of English, which is manifested in HE as expansion of English-taught courses. Phillipson (2015) saw “[t]he expansion of monolingual English-medium universities in many countries” as “one symptom of global Americanisation” (p. 23).



Moreover, some other factors are mentioned to have facilitated the encroachment of English into HE institutions as the language of instruction. For instance, the Bologna Declaration signed by the European Ministers of Education (1999) with a goal of establishing a common European Area of Higher Education has increased the mobility of students and academic staff within the member nations (currently 47 member countries, including Turkey). Such an increased mobility has exerted vast pressure on HE institutions to adopt English-medium instruction (EMI) policies. In the Bologna process, as Phillipson (2012) asserted, the adoption of EMI policies by universities symbolizes internationalization, and such a symbolic representation is, to him, “an apparently unchallenged [and unquestioned] acceptance of English linguistic hegemony” (p. 148) in the universities of member countries.

Several other scholars have issued similar statements, remarking that the benefits EMI brings along (e.g. mobility, competitiveness, attractiveness) are among the key objectives of the Bologna Declaration (Björkman, 2008a; De Wit, 2009; Kerklaan, Moreira & Boersma, 2008). As such, it is presumed that the Bologna process will lend further assistance to English to maintain its on-going dominance in HE, which corroborates Phillipson’s (2012) view that EMI has become synonymous with internationalization at HE (see, van Damme, 2001 for a similar argument). One question that needs answers at this juncture, however, is why HE institutions around the world are tempted to move towards EMI. In this regard, researchers (e.g. Altbach & Knight, 2007; Doiz, Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2011; Graddol, 2000, 2006; Wächter & Maiworm, 2008, 2014; Wilkinson, 2013) have cited many reasons for why universities offer English-medium education. The following are the most oft-mentioned reasons:

- to generate more revenue from fee-paying students
- to curb the number of domestic students going abroad
- to better prepare the institution for the international competitiveness
- to better prepare students and staff to join in international research communities
- to attract the most talented international students and faculty members
- to equip local students with required skills for the global labour market
- to increase the international mix in the institution
- to encourage capable domestic students to opt for themselves
- to contribute to the modernization/westernization and development of the country

- to improve students' English language skills

Even though the motives mentioned above imply that the choice for EMI at universities appears to be for educational, ideological, cultural, and economic purposes, it is mainly ideological and economic drives which push universities into a competition to anglicise their language policies (Coleman, 2006; Shohamy, 2013). Accordingly, it is fair to say that today's universities are not only educational institutions maximizing knowledge, but also international brands (Coleman, 2006), which capitalize on English as a commodity to vie for customers, i.e. local and international students (Maringe & Foskett, 2010). However, the motives listed above for adopting EMI might differ from one institution to another depending on the context and envisioned mission of each institution.

### **1.1.2 English medium instruction in Turkey**

Before discussing the phenomenon of EMI in Turkey, I would like to briefly touch on the linguistic environment in the country. Holding the gate between Europe and Asia, Turkey has been historically a place where a wide range of languages have been spoken. Notwithstanding containing a large number of minority languages within itself, Turkey is an officially monolingual country, with Turkish being the only official language (Constitution of the Turkish Republic, Article 3). According to a report produced by the European Commission (2006), 93% of the Turkish population spoke Turkish as their L1 (first language). For the rest of the population, which mostly consists of largely bilingual minority groups, Turkish is either a second language which they use quite fluently with native Turkish speakers or a *lingua franca* which is used amongst different minority groups who do not share the same L1. Considering its current linguistic environment, it can be concluded that Turkey is far from being described as a multilingual country. Nevertheless, the phenomena of code-switching and trans-languaging are very likely to occur amongst the country's minority linguistic groups. Since Turkish is the official state language, though, those minority languages are completely excluded from its educational system; moreover, their written public usage is made strictly invisible by measures taken by the state (see, for example, Öpengin (2012) for the case of the Kurdish language, which is the most widely spoken minority language in Turkey). In my opinion, such conservative language policies possibly stem from Turkey's "one nation-one language" policy, which strongly reinforces the idea of

(normative) monolingualism amongst its citizens. Code-switching, multi/bilingual discourse, and linguistic diversity are not considered to be legitimate in the eyes of the state but, rather, an impediment to unity.

In its embryonic stage, Turkey, as part of its modernization efforts, carried out a language reform by replacing the Arabic script with a modified version of the Latin alphabet. Through this reform, the Turkish language was purified from Arabic and Persian loanwords by replacing them with words derived from Turkish as well as western languages, with a preference at the time for French (Binnaz, 1981). Moreover, the purification process, which was driven by the ideology of linguistic purism, gave rise to the emergence of — what is called in Turkey — the dialect of Istanbul, which is, as Campbell (1995) remarked, the “Modern Standard [upon which] Turkish is based” (p. 547). Since the 1930s, it was this dialect which became the officially recognised form of Turkish used throughout the country seeing as it was widely used in both print media and the Turkish education system. Despite there being a lack of research on Turkish people’s attitudes towards those kinds of language policy, common sense has come to indicate that, although most people, including the educated, do not use standard Turkish in their daily practices, they still think highly of it — especially in formal contexts — and believe that it should be the variety of Turkish taught at schools and tested in exams.

The relatively positive leaning towards western languages in Turkey has become more perceptible in the domain of education. As Bear (1985) noted, the new Turkish state replaced Arabic and Persian with western languages, such as French, German, and English, in its foreign language curriculum. Until the 1950s, German and French firmly preserved their status as being the most widely taught foreign languages in the Turkish education system; however, at the end of World War II, Turkey became an ally of the USA in the region. It was because of this alliance that English became welcomed and started to be spread across the country. Since then, English has been privileged as the most studied compulsory school subject in the Turkish education system. Above all, it has become “the most popular medium of education after Turkish” (Doğançay-Aktuna, 1998, p. 37), particularly in HE (see Selvi, 2014 for more information about the place of English in the Turkish education system). Even though the interest in languages such as French and German has faded away, they are still offered as elective school subjects at some secondary and high schools. Moreover, previous researches (e.g. Elkilic & Akça,

2008; Erdemir, 2013; Şeker, 2003; Tarhan, 2003) have shown that English has also been seen in a favourable light by Turkish people (e.g., teachers, students, parents) no matter whether they had an instrumental or an integrative motivation for learning it; they even had a positive attitude towards its being the medium of instruction at schools.

As to the launching of EMI programs in Turkey, the first attempts in Turkish general education were made in the early 1950s when state-funded EMI secondary schools, widely known as *Anadolu Lisesi* (Anatolian high schools) were established in service to students from middle-income families. Before these schools, there were a handful of EMI secondary and high schools run by American missionaries in the metropolitan cities of Turkey, such as Istanbul and Izmir. Of these schools, Robert College, founded in Istanbul in 1863, was handed to the then Turkish government in 1971 and renamed Boğaziçi University. Additionally, in HE, the Middle East Technical University (METU), established in 1956 in Ankara, enjoyed the privilege of being the first state-owned EMI university of Turkey.

The initial attempts with METU and Boğaziçi universities to start teaching subject courses via EMI spurred the private sector as well, and Turkey had its first private EMI university, Bilkent University, in 1984 in Ankara. As stated in the Official Gazette of that year, the chief objective of using English in such universities was “[to] enable students who are registered at English medium department[s] to access scientific and technological information published in English in their related disciplines” (as cited in Kırkgöz, 2005, p. 102). The first expansion of EMI universities occurred following a new regulation in the HE law in 1990 when the private sector was authorized to offer EMI courses (Kırkgöz, 2005). However, these first generation EMI universities were far from being international in today’s terms, for they principally sought to serve Turkish students, and thus did not have many students of other nationalities. Their intended mission was to contribute to the modernization and development of the country by raising qualified human resources.

The second generation EMI universities and programs have been established across Turkey since the turn of the millennium, but this time with a different rationale and by the influence of external factors, i.e. internationalization, marketization and globalization of HE sector. In a drive to respond to these processes, Turkey has taken a raft of steps, such as official membership to the Bologna process in 2001, support for

the launch of new EMI programs in Turkish-medium universities, and establishment of new EMI universities. The core rationale behind such moves has been manifold, ranging from economic to educational incentives. The chief goal has been to increase student and teaching staff mobility, create a borderless tertiary education, and foster close relations with institutions abroad, to name but a few. Most compelling of all, EMI has been implemented to confer an advantage for the education in the country to be competitive in the international market (Collins, 2010).

Furthermore, finding themselves in the middle of a fierce competition with universities within and outside Turkey, Turkish universities have intensified their efforts to actualize internationalization abroad, employing a range of strategies such as promotion of themselves on media, appearance in educational fairs abroad, cooperation with student recruitment agencies, and lower tuition fee charges on foreign students. Such concerted efforts of Turkish universities to compete with rival intuitions in and outside Turkey have been continuing in parallel with the adoption of EMI in full or part. However, Wächter and Maiworm's (2008, 2014) examinations of English-taught programs in European countries show that Turkey still drops far behind other European countries in terms of the number of EMI programs offered.

As of 2015, there are a total of 190 universities in Turkey, out of which 114 are state-funded and 76 privately funded. Many of the state universities depend solely on Turkish in instruction, and a small number of them use EMI in full or part. However, nearly all private universities run their programs in EMI. Despite the lack of exact data on the number of EMI universities, the recent figures show that about 20% of the all undergraduate programs in Turkish universities are offered in different versions of EMI, e.g. in full, in part, or in parallel with Turkish (Arik & Arik, 2014). Privately funded universities seem to have a higher share in the offering of EMI programs, specifically at the university level. Coleman (2006) highlighted the role of the private sector in the surge of EMI programs in Turkey, pointing out that “private sector HE has stepped into the gap between supply and demand left by under-funded and slow-reacting state institutions” (p. 8). Additionally, Dearden's (2014, 2015) findings bolster Coleman's (2006) conclusion with empirical evidence that the private sector offers more EMI education than does the public sector.

Alongside the increased implementation of EMI programs, a dramatic rise in the number of international students and academic faculty has occurred. The recent statistics indicated that the number of international students in Turkish HE surpassed 96,000 in 2014 (Kılanç, 2014, May 12). The majority of these international students come from nearby countries, and countries with which Turkey holds strong cultural, historical, and religious ties (e.g. Turkic, the Balkan, African, and Middle Eastern countries). Although Turkey is still far from competing with its western rivals in terms of international student recruitments, the number of international students has increased nearly fourfold since 2012 when there were roughly 27,000 foreign students.

For admission to EMI programs in Turkey, students must prove their English proficiency with a valid score obtained from an internationally recognized exam or an in-house language proficiency exam administered by individual universities. Arik and Arik's (2014) review of reports on Turkish HE and university websites exhibits that students are often required to certify their proficiency level through tests which originated in the USA (i.e. TOEFL, Test of English as a Foreign Language), and Britain/Australia (i.e. IELTS, International English Language Testing System), despite the fact that "[t]he legitimacy of using standardized tests, which take Inner Circle varieties of English as the norm for local situations, has been highly criticized in recent years" (p. 8; see Jenkins, 2014, 2015a for a similar argument). In the case of failure to obtain a minimum acceptable score from these tests, students can study up to two years in an intensive English remedial program of universities in order to enhance their academic English skills to a degree which will allow them to be able to study their content courses in English. Only after proving the adequacy of their English proficiency with a valid score from the exit language test, are students admitted to their degree programs.

## **1.2 Development of ideas and research rationale**

My interest in the field of EMI at tertiary education comes from several sources. Firstly, my experiences of being an overseas student in a UK university increased my awareness of what it feels like and what is required to be an EMI student, as I had no prior experience of studying in an EMI setting. Having certified my language proficiency in an American English (AmE) oriented test (i.e. TOEFL), I found myself surrounded by international students both in the classes I attended and on campus. I also took a couple

of courses from lecturers whose mother tongues were not English. This was at first a bit shocking for me since I came to the UK in the hope of acquiring a native-like version of English but found that even my native English lecturers use English quite differently. Such first-hand experiences led me to question the logic of targeting a native-like model of English in a setting full of linguistically and culturally different individuals using English for instrumental purposes, i.e. to carry out their academic studies.

Secondly, what led me to the interest in perceptions of English in EMI universities, particularly in Turkey, was the assignment I wrote as part of the module (i.e. English as a World Language) in my first year of the IPhD program, in which I discussed the expansion of English across Turkey from a language planning/policy perspective (see Karakaş, 2013). While reading various sources to trace the role of English in Turkish HE, the stronghold of EMI in Turkey caught my attention. Through my readings, I discovered that the move to EMI has initiated controversy among many people, including researchers, columnists, politicians, and writers. It seemed that these people have predominantly focused on socio-political, cultural, pedagogical, and language-planning issues having arisen from transition to EMI. That is, the main dispute has centred on the notion of the medium-of-instruction debate (MI) of EMI (Selvi, 2014). However, there has not been much mention and questioning of the concept of E, i.e. English, probably because its role as a medium of instruction seems to be assumed. This lack of consideration of language aspect of EMI in Turkey further increased my interest in this area.

Thirdly, thanks to my experiences with Turkish students in Southampton, I had also come to know that most of them were graduates of EMI universities. At our usual meetings, I happened to overhear their concerns and views about their language practices and aspects of their English. Several times, I witnessed how some tended to correct others' speech, modify their speech based on their interlocutors' being native or non-native English, and complain about their English. Some would even ask me to proofread their texts (e.g. assignments, chapters, abstracts). On one occasion, a friend of mine complained about my knowledge of English grammar, after getting his chapter from his supervisor filled with lots of corrections. Such concerns of my friends about their English and language practices led me to probe into their previous EMI education, EAP experiences, and language practices before their arrival to the UK. These factors prompted me to be concerned with the linguistic aspects of EMI in the context of

Turkish HE where students are, as stated before, admitted to programs after certifying their English proficiency in native-English-oriented exams or put in the remedial teaching units upon failure to meet the language entry requirements.

In addition, with further reading up on EMI, I found out that while the socio-political, cultural, and pedagogical issues have been subject to considerable discussion in the literature on EMI around the world (e.g. Kirkpatrick, 2011; Li, 2013; Phillipson, 2012, 2015; Shohamy, 2013) and in Turkey (e.g. Selvi, 2014), there has been little discussion on the issues of transition to EMI from a linguistic perspective (see, e.g. Jenkins, 2010, 2011, 2014; Phan, 2015 for the rare discussion).

Central to the discussion of linguistic aspects of EMI has been the English language policies and practices. A small number of researchers (e.g. Jenkins, 2014; Jenkins & Wingate, 2015; Kuteeva, 2014; Saarinen & Nikula, 2013) mainly from European countries argued that “the standards that are most highly valued [by EMI universities] are still those of native academic English” (Jenkins, 2010, p. 35). A case in point is EMI universities’ English language entry requirements. As Jenkins (2011) noted, “*international university* English language requirements continue to be determined in accordance with entrance examinations grounded in native English, in other words, a *national variety*” (p. 927, italics in original). Another relevant case in point is EMI universities’ traditional academic English/EAP policies and practices, which “tend to be concerned with standards, to assume and/or focus on idealized native English academic norms, and not to question whether these norms are the most appropriate globally or why they should still be considered in some way better than other possibilities” (Jenkins, 2014, p. 49). It is evident from the foregoing arguments that EMI universities attempt to impose linguistic uniformity and standards on their stakeholders via their English language policies. Concerning this issue, van Damme (2001), however, propounded the argument that “[g]lobalisation in higher education does not necessarily imply *international standardisation* and *uniformity*, but asks for policies balancing the global and the local” (p. 4; my italics).

Furthermore, the lack of discussion on the linguistics issues has resulted in scarcity of research on language policies and practices as much of the research into EMI conducted worldwide has had cognitive-pedagogical focus (e.g. disciplinary learning outcomes/experiences, Aguilar & Rodriguez, 2012; Airey & Linder, 2006; Byun et al.,



2010), socio-political focus (e.g. domain loss & parallel language use, Ljosland, 2010; Kuteeva & Airey, 2013; Preisler, 2009), and cultural focus (e.g. cultural identity loss, Byun et al., 2010). Research, partly addressing language-related issues, has tended to explore, for instance, language improvement during the study in EMI programs (e.g. Rogier, 2012), self-perceptions of English proficiency (e.g. Jensen et al., 2011; Jensen et al., 2013; Jensen & Thøgersen, 2011; Pilkinton-Pihko, 2010), and training of teaching staff for EMI (e.g. Klaassen & Graaff, 2001; Ball & Lindsay, 2013).

Nevertheless, there has been a growing interest in questioning and researching English language policies and practices of EMI universities from various directions recently, particularly in European countries (e.g. Doiz, Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2013a; Björkman, 2013; Dimova, Hultgren, & Jensen, 2015; Mauranen, 2012) and in the UK (e.g. Jenkins, 2014; Jenkins & Wingate, 2015; Maringe & Jenkins, 2015). Projects that aim at undertaking comparative research across different EMI settings are also underway. Also, in a recent workshop on EMI<sup>1</sup>, linguistic and educational issues concerning EMI have been thoroughly explored with talks, discussions, theoretical considerations, and research studies from the UK, mainland Europe (i.e. Italy, Austria) and Asia, (i.e. Thailand and China; see, Baker & Hüttner, 2015; Helm, 2015; Komori-Glatz, 2015; Smit, 2015; Wang, 2015a).

Despite the implementation of similar language entry and EAP policies and practices in Turkish EMI universities, such policies and practices have not become a matter of question among researchers so far. What Turkish researchers have investigated hitherto revolved around the cultural, pedagogical, and socio-political, issues of EMI (e.g. Arkin, 2013; Arkin & Osam, 2015; Collins, 2010; Kılıçkaya, 2006; Kırkgöz, 2013; Sert, 2000, 2008; Somer, 2001). Thus, at present, to the best of my knowledge, there has been little research and published data on educational and linguistic aspects of EMI in Turkish universities (e.g. Collins, 2010; Gülle, Özata & Bayyurt, 2014) and some of the existing research has been done by researchers unfamiliar with the research context (e.g. Jenkins, 2014).

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<sup>1</sup> The workshop took place at the University of Southampton, UK, on 4 June 2015. Its main focus was on educational and linguistic issues (i.e. the conceptualisation and role of language(s)) in EMI institutions all around the world, and, in particular, European and Asian institutions. Among the issues addressed by speakers were the conceptualisation of language and education in EMI research, plurilingual practices in EMI classrooms, EMI in European business education, and the role of English in language policies and practices.

Moreover, of the existing studies exploring perceptions of English language policies, practices, and attitudes towards EMI, only some (e.g. Jenkins, 2014; Pilkinton-Pihko, 2010, 2013; Kuteeva, 2014) have considered the role of ideologies in the formation of people's perceptions of English. Furthermore, in a recently edited volume dedicated to EMI, more specifically to the ideological, policy-related, and practical issues of EMI in European HE, the editors, Hultgren, Jensen and Dimova (2015), pointed out Turkey among the contexts where there is still paucity of information and research regarding issues of ideologies, policies, and practices. Prompted by the lack of discussion and research on the language theme of EMI in Turkey, I decided to situate this research in the context of Turkish HE. My decision also finds support from Doiz, Lasagabaster and Sierra's (2013c) argument that empirical research into EMI should be carried out by researchers who know the research context where there are many questions waiting to be answered.

### **1.3 Research aims and questions**

The above discussion and background information clearly underline the need to consider the linguistic implications of transition to EMI at a time when universities highly take pride in the cultural diversity of student and staff population on campus, but seem to brush this diversity aside in their English language policies and practices. As hinted in the vignettes opening this chapter, the above discussion also underlined the lack of research into EMI from an educational and linguistic perspective, especially in the Turkish HE context.

Therefore, the main aim of this research is to gain an understanding of Turkish content lecturers' and undergraduate students' perceptions of English by exploring their views about their own and others' English, experiences of language use, and the English language policies and practices at their institutions. Part of the aim of this research is to find out language ideologies shaping lecturers' and students' perceptions and attitudes towards issues relating to English (e.g. their skills, experiences with language use, the English language policies and practices).

With the above research rationale and aims in mind, the current study is structured around the following research questions:

1) How do Turkish lecturers and students perceive English as a medium of instruction in HE?

- a) How do lecturers/students perceive their language abilities and language use?
- b) How do they orient to written and spoken English?
- c) To what extent are there differences in their perceptions across disciplines/universities?
- d) To what extent are their perceptions influenced by taking part in intercultural communication?
- e) To what extent are their perceptions influenced by the language policies of the university?

2) What language attitudes and ideologies are prevalent among these lecturers and students, and what factors are involved in the formation of these ideologies?

While seeking answers to the above research questions, my position, as the researcher, aligns with English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) research paradigm, in which researchers pay attention to the dynamic and fluid nature of language use. Therefore, just as other ELF researchers (e.g., Jenkins, Cogo, Dewey, 2011; Seidlhofer, 2011) did, I will approach the use of English in EMI contexts from fluidity and flexibility points-of-view and argue that the use of English in practice is to be context-bound and communication-oriented and, thus, that it cannot be based on the norms of a given standard variety. Furthermore, in this study, I will also take a post-normative approach in which EMI stakeholders (i.e. content teachers and students) will be seen as (successful) users of English within their disciplinary domains rather than failed native speakers or eternal learners of English.

#### **1.4 Structure and organization of the thesis**

Apart from this introductory chapter, the theoretical part of this research and a review of the previous literature consist of two chapters. Chapter 2 deals with the concept of EMI by outlining language policy theories and academic English language policies in EMI universities. Its final section reviews studies that explored the topics around EMI, especially studies on English language policies and practices. Chapter 3 discusses the theories of language attitude and ideology, and attempts to show the divergences and convergences between these two concepts. After this, certain kinds of language

ideologies of relevance to this research are discussed. The chapter lastly sums up and discusses previous language attitude and ideology research in academia and other sectors.

Chapter 4 introduces the methodological aspects of the study, starting with an overview of methods used in previous language attitude and ideology research. Next, it explicates the research aims, objectives, and questions alongside the research design adopted. Then, it introduces the study with an account of its setting, participants, and the data collection tools. It further addresses the matters of reliability and validity, and reflexivity. Finally, it outlines the ethical considerations borne in mind during the conduct of the study and for the subsequent use of the collected data.

Chapters 5, 6, 7 and 8 focus on the analysis of the data and presentation of the results. Chapter 5 presents the results of policy and website data on the English language policies and practices at the institutions. Chapter 6 presents the quantitative data from lecturers and students. It first introduces the methods of data analysis and reports the findings separately for students and lecturers. Chapter 7 presents the analytical tools of data analysis and reports the central themes and findings having emerged from the analysis of the lecturers' interviews, with a discussion of the results wherever relevant. Chapter 8 presents the results of student interviews. It begins with a presentation of analytical methods of data analysis and then presents the results according to the identified themes and offers a discussion of the results.

Chapter 9 concludes this thesis. First, it provides an extended summary of the findings in the order of the research questions. It then gives a synopsis of limitations and offers suggestions for further research. Finally, it highlights the significance and contributions of the research to the relevant fields, followed by a consideration and discussion of ideological and practical implications of the findings for the key stakeholders.



## **CHAPTER 2: THE STUDY OF LANGUAGE POLICIES IN ENGLISH-MEDIUM INSTRUCTION UNIVERSITIES**

### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter opens with an elucidation of language aspects in relation to HE. It then provides an overall discussion of language policy as a field of enquiry and related language policy theories. It continues with a critical analysis of academic English language policies of EMI universities, along with research looking at these policies. The chapter concludes with a discussion of previous research addressing topics related to EMI, particularly focusing on research undertaken from a linguistic perspective, and based on the review it justifies the rationale for initiating this current research.

### **2.2 Linguistics aspects of higher education**

The literature shows that many aspects of internationalization (e.g. economic, social, cultural, political, pedagogic etc.) have been extensively researched, but only on occasion in relation to English (e.g. Haberland et al.'s volume, 2008; Preisler, Klitgård & Fabricius' volume, 2011). However, one aspect which has passed without proper consideration during this process is the issue of EMI from a linguistic point of view (Tsiligiris, 2012). Considering EMI from a language perspective, Turner and Robson (2008) pointed out that the theme of language is mainly concerned with language policies and practices in HE. Relative to this theme, much discussion has been generated about the choice of the institutional language (i.e. local or international language), the positions of the domestic language(s), additional language teaching, and ways of responding to the encroachment of English on HE, which have nevertheless remained as a non-issue until recently (Kerklaan et al., 2008). Out of these dimensions of the language theme, my focus and discussion is on issues related to the English language policies and practices when an attempt is made to implement English as a means of instruction.

The education system is, as Spolsky (2005) noted, among the most salient fields for scholars wishing to probe into language policies. Walter and Benson (2012) supported this view, holding that the use of language in education is much more noticeable than any other domains, and "is, perhaps, the domain most sensitive to the choices made about language" (p. 300). Within this general domain, HE holds more significance than other educational levels owing to its international nature with diverse stakeholders, and

thus its language policies merit further investigation, particularly in relation to English language policies.

## **2.3 Language policy as an area of research**

### **2.3.1 Defining language policy**

One can find a number of definitions of the term *language policy* in the literature and it is often hard to come across a definition on which scholars have unanimous agreement. However, in a broad sense, a language policy may be viewed as “an officially mandated set of rules for language use and form within a nation-state” (Spolsky, 2012, p. 3). Additionally, as Shohamy (2006) described more elaborately and critically, “language policy (LP) is the primary mechanism for organizing, managing and manipulating language behaviours as it consists of decisions made about languages and their uses in society” (p. 45).

Language policies can be even determined, for example, by a family member in a home, that is, in informal cases, as well. Moreover, language policies are also concerned with choices, as noted by Walter and Benson (2012), but they also encompass the beliefs and values shaping the choices made (Spolsky, 2005). For the purposes of this research, I will follow Shohamy (2006) who referred to language policies as “specific documents, laws, regulations or policy documents” in which desired language behaviours are determined in the form of rules (p. 45). Spolsky (2004) suggested that policies can be easily recognized in such documents as they “exist in the form of clear-cut labelled statements” (p. 11). This approach may hold particularly true for EMI universities, since they are official government agencies run by laws and regulations. However, caution is also needed at this juncture, because not all policies of these institutions are declared explicitly, and unwritten policies can still become influential in shaping desired language behaviours.

### **2.3.2 Language policy theories**

Regarding language policy theories, I will primarily refer to views of Spolsky (2004), Shohamy (2006), Woolard (2005), and Ball (2006). Spolsky (2004, 2005) identified four key features regarding his language policy theory. The first feature is what he called tripartite division of language policy, which refers to the three components of language policy: language practices, language beliefs (or ideology) and language

management. Of all, language practices are broadly concerned with what individuals actually do while using the language (e.g. their pattern of linguistic choices, formality, following the agreed rules or not, etc.). Language beliefs (or ideology) refer to a set of beliefs regarding the language and its use or, in short, ideals that people (authority holders) think should be committed to. The last component, language management, is “the formulation and proclamation of an explicit plan or policy, usually but not necessarily written in a formal document, about language use” (Spolsky, 2004, p. 14). Those who regulate or govern language management are called language policy managers or in Ball’s (2006) words, “mediators of policy ... who are relied upon by others to relate policy to context or to gate keep” with high degree of authority (p. 45). They aim at altering or affecting the way language is used in its actual practice.

Before moving on to Spolsky’s (2004, 2005) second policy feature, it is worth mentioning that his language management and beliefs dimensions are connected by Bonacina-Pugh (2012) to Ball’s (2006) “two very different conceptualisations of policy”, that is, “*policy as text and policy as discourse*” (p. 44; italics in original). In relation to the notion of policy as text, Ball (2006) argued that “...policies are textual interventions into practice” which might “pose problems to their subjects” (p. 44). The reason why he considers policies consisting of texts to be problematic is that “some policies may be deployed in the context of practice to displace or marginalise others” (Ball, 2006, p. 47). The notion of policy as text, as can be understood, corresponds to Spolsky’s (2004) language management component, which sets to exercise influence on practices through “an authoritative statement (either verbal or written) of what should be done” (Bonacina-Pugh, 2012, p. 215). Shohamy (2006) regarded this kind of policy as the “declared language policy” (p. 68).

As to the conceptualisation of policy as discourse, Ball (2006) noted that policy as discourse deals with issues raised “about what can be said, and thought, but also about who can speak, when, where and with what authority” (p. 48). This notion corresponds to Spolsky’s (2004) component of language beliefs (ideologies) which influence and guide practices. This type of policy is termed as ““perceived language policy”” by Bonacina-Pugh (2012), who also added that this conceptualisation has been predominantly used by researchers taking “the [c]ritical approach to language policy research” (p. 215). Expanding Ball’s (2006) conceptualisation of policy, Bonacina-Pugh (2012) proposed a third conceptualization, i.e. “*language policy as practice*” (p. 216;



italics in original), which entails exploration of actual practices to assess the effects of language policies as texts and discourses. This refers to what Spolsky (2004) called language practice in his trio of language policy framework.

Spolsky's (2004, 2005) second feature emphasized that language policy not only deals with languages or language varieties, but also devotes attention to each single constituent of language at all levels, ranging from phonology, grammar, lexis, style, and bad language to correct language. This implies that language policy has a broader scope than thought, and Shohamy (2006) also indicated agreement with this view. This feature allows for analysing language use holistically, paying attention to all the individual elements surrounding the concept of language.

In the third feature, Spolsky (2005) argued that "language policy operates within a speech community" (p. 2155) regardless of its size (e.g. big or small) or type (e.g. social, political, religious). According to this feature, the participants of my research (i.e. non-English-major lecturers and students) form a particular academic speech community of a large size wherein language policies of instruction operate.

Spolsky's (2004, 2005) last feature is predicated on the view that "language policy functions in a complex ecological relationship among a wide range of linguistic and non-linguistic elements, variables, and factors" (Spolsky, 2005, p. 2155). Not all relationships in which language policies function are easy to establish or show, and thus there might be discrepancies between the implemented language management decisions and the achieved results. For example, a teacher may end up with failure or unexpected results in enforcing grammatical correctness on students (see Spolsky, 2005). This might bear relevance to my research if such contradictions occur between policy makers' decisions and lecturers' and students' practices regarding the use of English.

Shortly after Spolsky's (2004, 2005) proposal of his language policy framework, Shohamy (2006) attempted to expand this model, as she observed some gaps in his framework in understanding and recognizing real language policies. However, her extended view of language policy was still built on the main building blocks of Spolsky's framework. Her argument took its basis from her observation that real language policies are not always explicitly stated in official policy documents and there are some other indicators of real policies which cannot be directly derived or interpreted

from the statements in the laws, regulations and policy papers. She made her argument as follows:

... LP should not be limited to the examination of declared and official statements. Rather, the real policy is executed through a variety of mechanisms that determine the de facto practices. There is a need, therefore, to examine the use of mechanisms and study their consequences and effects on de facto LP, as it is through these mechanisms that the de facto language policy is created and manifested (Shohamy, 2006, p. 54)

As seen above, she suggested that a range of devices are employed by policy managers to control language practices. Thus, it is necessary to enquire into the effects of such devices on the practices observed to be truly able to make out the intended language policies. She called these devices policy mechanisms, which consist of “rules and regulations, language educational policies, language tests, language in public space as well as ideologies, myths, propaganda and coercion” (Shohamy, 2006, p. 56).

Out of these mechanisms, rules and regulations, language educational policies, and language tests have particular relevance and importance for my research. It is because, as Shohamy (2006) argued, as well as influencing real language policies, these mechanisms also have a profound impact on individuals’ language perceptions and behaviours. Given that students are subject to institutional language policies and dictated ideologies beginning from the very outset of their education till their graduation, it is inevitable that their perceptions and behaviours will be influenced by the effects and consequences of these mechanisms and their accompanying ideological orientations. Such a case, as Shohamy (2006) illustrated, can be seen when English serves as the medium of instruction, because “through the use of English as the language of instruction as a requirement for acceptance to institutions of higher education, the power of the English language and its speakers is perpetuated” (p. 54). When linked to Spolsky’s (2004) framework, these policy mechanisms lie in between the ideology and practice components, and serve the purpose of transforming ideology into practice, or vice versa, practice into ideology (Shohamy, 2006).

#### **2.4 English-medium instruction (EMI)**

From a language policy perspective, the decision on the medium of instruction constitutes a paramount concern for university management (Spolsky, 2005). One reason for this is that the choice of any language, English in the case of this study, as a

university language policy brings with it a number of questions and issues to be addressed by policy makers. Such issues may include formulations of rules and regulations relating to the use of English, the status of students and lecturers, and the ways teaching, research, and assessment are carried out, to name a few. Answers to these issues might be sought in policy documents (i.e. rules and regulations), language practices, and language tests, among others, referring to Spolsky's (2004) and Shohamy's (2006) language policy frameworks. To begin with, it is of primary importance to discuss how English is managed as the medium of instruction in HE.

#### **2.4.1 Approaches to English use in EMI**

What the term *EMI* subsumes and how it is construed in international programs may not be always clear, mostly because implementations have been carried out in different fashions depending on to what extent universities use English in their programs. Alexander (2008), in this context, broadly classified international programs into three types based on the amount of English use: replacement type, cumulative type, and additional type. The replacement type entails that English should supplant the local language or languages as the only medium of teaching, and the staff and students tend to be considered to have an adequate level of English proficiency (e.g. Finland, the Netherlands). The cumulative type applies to situations where the use of English gains progressive expansion in parallel to the improvement of the stakeholders' English proficiency. Finally, the additional type takes advantage of English in order to make students' transition to classes in their domestic language easier. That is, in the first years of university education, say one year or two years, all courses are conducted in English, and in the remaining years English is partially used along with local language, or its use can be abolished totally.

The above categorisation might not, however, apply to all institutions which adopt an EMI policy in the instruction of content courses. Individual differences exist among universities based on their socio-cultural and linguistic contexts, and English use might occur in complex patterns according to the specific discipline (e.g. physics, engineering, social sciences), the level of education (e.g. undergraduate, graduate), and active or passive use of English. For example, previous research reveals that some institutions prefer English together to be used with domestic language, i.e. parallel languages (e.g. Preisler, 2009; Bolton & Kuteeva, 2012) and others turn to English-aided instruction in

which education is carried out in the local language, but supporting materials (e.g. lecture notes, course books) and written exams are provided through English (e.g. Sert, 2008), which is a notable example of receptive use of English. Also, some institutions offer EMI only in certain programs, such as engineering, business and management, and social sciences, fully or partly in varying percentages (e.g. Wächter, 2008; Wächter & Maiworm, 2008, 2014) and usually at a master's level, particularly in Europe (e.g. Suviniitty, 2010, 2012; Brenn-White & van Rest, 2012). Multiple examples of such trends of English use exist, since the literature on EMI abounds in research into various contexts across the world. While probing into the English language policies at EMI universities, I will largely build my discussion on Alexander's (2008) replacement type, in which teaching, research, and testing, namely all academic activities, are achieved entirely in English.

#### **2.4.2 The status of speakers in EMI universities**

In this specific domain, viz. HE, a distinction is needed as to the representation of English speakers, particularly those who do not speak it as a first language. Many scholars tend to support the view that non-language-major lecturers and students managing three primary activities of universities (i.e. "teaching/learning, research and enterprise"/knowledge transfer; Maringe & Foskett, 2010, p. 8) through English are indeed users of English, no more learners of it (e.g. Björkman, 2008a; Mauranen, 2003; Ljosland, 2011; Pilkinton-Pihko, 2010). *User* as a term best defines the current circumstances, as the principal objective is not to master English but make use of it as a tool to achieve purposes of academic study (Taguchi, 2014). However, at first, transition from learning English to using English may present a challenge to individuals involved in EMI education because they are to undergo a radical change "from knowing a language in theory to becoming an active user of it" (Hirvensalo, 2012, p. 8) to manage their academic and socio-cultural life when learning content courses and acting in an intercultural communication milieu on a daily basis.

Another challenge which many lecturers may face comes from the implicit language policies of institutions expecting them to serve as language teachers by helping students with inadequate language skills (Hirvensalo, 2012). This additional role of language teaching might, however, affect lecturers' use of English, for they might be pressured to imitate a particular variety of native Englishes due to the fear of their students' negative

evaluation on their teaching efficiency. A recent study in a Danish EMI university corroborated this case by demonstrating that lecturers perceived with high English skills were also perceived with high lecturing skills by students (Jensen, Denver, Mees, & Werther, 2013). However, researchers do not talk of what can underlie students' perceptions. Concerning the dilemma of learning and teaching of English, Smit (2010) explained that the choice of English for instruction has originally nothing to do with language learning or teaching motives, but, at bottom, the exact reason is that English is the only language common to all students and staff representative of several cultures and languages, and it is more likely to recruit international students through English.

On the other side of the scale, as Shohamy (2013) and Wilkinson (2013) observed, many students, particularly locals, are prompted to study in EMI in non-English speaking countries with the aim of enhancing their language proficiency and gaining high levels of academic knowledge. In this way, they attain an additional status, i.e. a learner-like user, whether conscious or not. This learner-like status may incite students to aim for a native speaker model, despite the kinds of English embodied within their linguistic repertoire. The tendency among EMI students towards native varieties of English finds support from a wide range of empirical studies (e.g. Doiz et al., 2011; Inbar-Lourie & Donitsa-Schmidt, 2013; Suvinnity, 2007).

## **2.5 English language policies in EMI universities**

The policies to be explored in this section are based on the common characteristics of EMI programs (Wächter & Maiworm, 2008, 2014), including language qualifications of students for admission into the programs, language (training) support, and the actual use of English in teaching, research, and testing. Such an analysis seems essential if one is to completely and accurately derive universities' *de facto* policies from their language practices via language policy devices.

### **2.5.1 English language entry requirements policy**

One policy the majority of the institutions have in common is the English language entry requirement for undergraduate and postgraduate programs. Institutions ask for a proof of English proficiency from students prior to their admission to the relevant programs, regardless of whether they are local or international students, but some might be exempt from this if they speak English as a first language. In an extensive survey of 2200 institutions across 28 European countries, Wächter and Maiworm (2014)

determined that approximately 8100 EMI programs exist, of which 88% require evidence of language proficiency from incoming students, mostly by recognizing international standard tests such as the TOEFL or IELTS. In addition, it is also common among some universities to design and administer their own language examinations in a format similar to that of their international equivalents.

Although EMI universities proclaim themselves as international in their commercial activities in respect of the diversity of their students' language and cultural backgrounds, they require them to take tests "... all of which test their proficiency in native British or American English" (Jenkins, 2014, p. 12). Such a policy tends to overlook the diversity for English, prioritizing particular kinds of English over others (Jenkins, 2011). By referring to Shohamy's (2006) language testing mechanism, one can infer that though universities do not declare it officially, they want a particular kind of native English and its corresponding norms, predominantly US or UK English norms (see section 2.6.2 for empirical studies).

Recently, critics have also argued about the ways these tests are administered and evaluated (Björkman, 2013; Mauranen, 2012). They emphasize that assessments carried out by native English speakers (NESs) might fail to illustrate students' true communicative competence, for most NESs "are monolingual and thereby bound to their linguistic and cultural backgrounds", and "[w]hat works best for an international context can be a very a different matter from what is appropriate in an ENL [English as a native language] perspective" (Mauranen, 2012, p. 239). Here, one is again confronted with a similar paradox wherein English proficiency of non-native English speaking (NNES) students with multilingual resources is appraised by NESs, most likely according to NES use. Therefore, diversity for English might pass unheeded in that any deviations from NESs' usage may be viewed as learner errors or lack of linguistic competence. In addition, the presence of NESs as examiners may even communicate a hidden message concerning the appropriate use of English. However, to my knowledge, neither Björkman (2013) nor Mauranen (2012) voiced criticisms about the standardized international tests' being founded on particular kinds of native English, and being set as a prerequisite for NNES students only.

### 2.5.2 One-year English for academic purposes (EAP) policy

Many EMI universities establish language centres for students with insufficient English skills to pursue their disciplinary English-medium classes after completing the program. According to Wächter's and Maiworm's (2014) figures, 48% of about 8100 EMI programs across Europe offer English language training to students. Some EAP courses are given under the name of pre-sessional and in-sessional language support. These two types of language support are usually seen in Anglophone universities, and they aim to tailor support primarily for NNES students (see Jenkins, 2014). Although quite a many NES students can need EAP help as well, it seems that EAP support is falsely considered necessary for NNES students only.

One-year EAP curriculum, or preparatory school, is more widespread in non-Anglophone countries (e.g. Turkey, the Netherlands), and particularly aims at catering to both local and international students with language needs. Generally, the EAP courses are grounded in an integrated skills-based curriculum accompanied by course books and supporting materials (Kırkgöz, 2006), which are customarily imported from well-known publishing companies (e.g. Pearson PLC, Cambridge, Oxford) based in Anglophone countries. Moreover, students' language progress is evaluated at regular intervals, and usually against the CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages) framework, particularly within the European Union (see, Björkman, 2011; Saarinen & Nikula, 2013).

Regarding these language support policies, particular contradictions arise, however. This is because with existing policies, universities are likely to fail to realize the aim of being truly international, which is "to equip students with the skills necessary to become interculturally competent and globally aware citizens" (BrackaLorenz & Gieser, 2011, p.1). Firstly, it is obvious from the practices in the EAP programs that students' English skills are considered deficient, and remedial action is thus needed to fix their language problems. In this sense, language centres (or EAP units) are the places where this remedial action is taken. One example concerning a Dutch university's one year EAP policy illustrates how the remedial treatment is viewed as one of the crucial tasks of language centres:

Another task requiring the expertise of language centres rather than subject teachers is *the preparation of students who do not possess the general language competence required for admission*; this may be remedied by

organizing for instance intensive summer schools or a preparatory year for this category of student (level B2). (van Leewen, 2003, p. 5; my italics)

Jenkins (2014) criticized such policies, arguing that discussions on English language should not be limited to the fields focusing on language related issues, and should also be on the agenda of researchers studying internationalization. She discussed this firmly, expressing that “English can no longer be cast aside in the internationalization literature as though it was merely a practical problem to be ‘fixed’ in university EAP units” (Jenkins, 2014, p. 11). Marshall (2009) also criticized this, citing from experiences of multilingual students who took academic English courses in a foundation year. He remarked that attending academic English support courses led many students to develop “a deficit ‘remedial ESL’ identity” by reminding them of “memories of being ESL at high school, something which many students think they have left behind on being accepted to university” (Marshall, 2009, p. 41). He concluded that these students should be accepted as legitimate university students, and their multilingual and cultural backgrounds should be appreciated as an asset for the institution.

The CEFR framework EAP units use in defining students’ language levels does not seem quite fit for purpose. The framework claims to recognize the linguistic diversity and hybridity (i.e. plurilingualism) among language users, pronouncing that “... the aim of language education is profoundly modified. It is no longer seen as simply to achieve ‘mastery’ of one or two, or even three languages, each taken in isolation, with the ‘ideal native speaker’ as the ultimate model” (Council of Europe, 2011, p. 5). However, the word frequency of native speakers and descriptors informed by the concept of native English in can-do statements on students’ language abilities is fairly high, especially in the references to listening and spoken interaction (McNamara, 2012; Jenkins & Leung, 2013; Jenkins, 2015a). For instance, the guideline reads that an independent user (level B2) “[c]an interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party” (Council of Europe, 2011, p. 24). The assumption implies that multilingual students will regularly interact with native speakers; however, this does not befit the current situation of EMI universities in non-Anglophone contexts where, if not all, the majority of students are NNEs. Furthermore, it appears that the notion of fluency is conceived as a distinctive quality of individual (native) speakers rather than a key feature of interactions (see Hüttner, 2009, for further discussion of the notion of fluency). Recently, research has



also revealed that the CEFR-criterion is not considered convenient for students (e.g. studying engineering, business) using English as a tool in their field and mostly with NNEs (Suviniitty, 2012). On this account, it is proposed that this framework needs adjustment in terms of its descriptions of language competences and skills, “considering the aim of the task that is performed through English” (Björkman, 2011, p. 97; see also McNamara, 2012 and Pitzl, 2015 for further critique of the CEFR).

Lastly, through the commercially imported course books and supporting materials (e.g. audio-recordings, dictionaries, graded books based on native speaker norms) used in EAP practices, students might be infused with an ideology that native academic English is the ideal model to follow in dealing with various academic activities (e.g. lectures, exams, discussions, supervisions, etc.). This is highly likely considering that even locally produced ELT (English Language Teaching) course books by universities’ language centres draw on AmE or British English (BrE), as revealed in Jenkins’ (2014) analysis of East Asian EMI universities.

### **2.5.3 Education through English language policy**

When English is determined as the language of tuition, several issues surrounding this decision find answers: which language(s) will be used in teaching, learning, research activities; how much (i.e. partly or fully) and how it will be used (e.g. methods, materials, tests, etc.), and who will use it and for what purposes, *inter alia*. In some instances, however, decisions on these issues might remain vague, as they are not explicitly stated. What seems clear is that lecturers and students are tasked with using English to carry out academic activities (e.g. lectures, workshops, seminars, presentations, exams etc.) in the classroom. What is unclear is whose ways of English use are valid or what kind of English is considered to be appropriate. Moreover, the decisions on the teaching materials, methods, and tests in EMI programs usually do not take place as explicit policy statements. These decisions call for the question of how they convey academic English and academic English speakers to students and lecturers. This can only be understood from actual and wished language practices of students and lecturers via studying policy mechanisms, e.g. textbooks, research and teaching activities, and testing (Shohamy, 2006).

According to Phan (2015), “although English has become a global language, native-speaking English varieties from North America, the United Kingdom, Australia, and

new Zealand are still often regarded as the desired standards for international education” (p. 224). In this regard, for example, most content alongside language teaching materials (e.g. textbooks, texts, research papers etc.) used in EMI programs in non-English dominant contexts come from the core countries (e.g. the UK, US) due to the large dissemination of scholarly knowledge in English (Tollefson, 2000). Also, there is less availability of such materials in other languages (Biswas, 2009). Relating to products and services, Phan (2015) has directed our attention to the widely-held assumption that “the West is better”, according to which “many products and services from the West are taken for granted as being superior and of reliable quality” (p. 224).

In addition to consulting textbooks, students make preparations for classes, such as reading relevant texts, journal papers, and writing essay-type assignments, and giving oral presentations. Similarly, lecturers prepare supplementary materials, lectures, and lecture notes to assist the delivery of subjects, and design tests to assess students’ learning (Suviniitty, 2010; Jensen et al., 2013). These tasks have been addressed by researchers as challenges of teaching specialized subjects in English (e.g. Byun et al., 2010; Kırkgöz, 2005; Li, 2013; Suviniitty, 2012), but their effects and consequences on language practices and on perceptions of English have not received much attention.

Aside from teaching and learning, another task of lecturers and students is to engage in research-based activities (e.g. attending conferences, workshops, seminars, publishing etc.). Despite the low attendance of NES academics to such events and their small number among all academics, NNES academics are required or even forced to comply with native English academic norms, particularly in publishing, as “the vast majority of academic journals with international distributions remain deeply grounded in the norms of British and/or North American academic English, despite their (linguistically paradoxical) claims to internationalism” (Jenkins, 2011, p. 927). Barbour (2002) also maintained that in academic writing, NNES researchers “are generally expected to adhere to the norms of standard English used by speakers of English as a first language” (p. 17). Previous research has shown results reinforcing this case. For example, Kirkman’s (2001) investigation of author instructions of 500 science journals demonstrated that 82% of the journals obliged submitters to write either in AmE or BrE, and the rest (18%) described the English required with vague terms, such as good English, idiomatic English, grammatical English, etc. What the journals mean by implication is that non-standard norms are unacceptable in manuscript submissions.

Research also indicated that some reviewers and journal editors hold unfavourable attitudes towards non-native features in manuscripts (Flowerdew, 2001). Others, like Ammon (2000), however, contended that it is a linguistic right for NNES researchers to preserve their own indigenous features in their writing. Still, much of the research suggested that the native English language standard continues to play a gate-keeping role in reviewers' decisions on the publishability of the papers (Hewings, 2006; Benson et al., 2010).

NNES academics faced with such normative language guidelines of journals, and editors' and reviewers' negative attitudes have adopted some strategies to publish their papers in these journals (e.g. those indexed in Science Citation Index, SCI; Social Sciences Citation Index, SSCI) in order to reach wider readership and get credit for their work (Faber, 2010). For instance, some employ language editors (usually NES editors), some get English correction services from language centres (Burrough-Boenisch, 2006), and others get their papers amended by NES editors (Burrough-Boenisch, 2004; Mauranen, Hynnen & Ranta, 2010; Mauranen, 2012). By these strategies, their English becomes "acceptable to the gate-keepers of publication" (Burrough-Boenisch, 2006, p. 32), because non-conventional and non-native features or what Canagarajah (2006, p. 208) called "marks of localization" are eschewed in their manuscripts. Researchers have taken these issues as disadvantages of NNES contributors in publication, and generally examined reviewers' and editors' attitudes towards contributions by NNES scholars (e.g. Ammon, 2000; Burrough-Boenisch, 2004, 2006; Flowerdew, 2001; Hewings, 2006). Nonetheless, researchers have given less attention to how such policies might influence NNES academics' written language practices, and perceptions of the notion of acceptable (good) English.

Bourdieu and Passeron (1994), however, argued long before that "[a]cademic language is ... no one's mother tongue" and all writers, NES or NNES, "are equal in respect of the demands made by academic English" (pp. 8-9; see also Bourdieu & Passeron, 1977 for an earlier discussion). Mauranen (2006b) also adhered to this view, positing that "research discourses do not belong to any national community alone" (p. 149), and therefore academic English has no native speakers, and its *sui generis* genres and distinctive rhetoric are bound to be attained by all novice users (Mauranen, 2012). Despite these arguments, in practice, native academic English still seems to carry much

weight, particularly in writing, and as discussed above, NNES academics' practices have already been influenced by the publishers' policies.

Taken altogether, one can attribute the current picture of discrepancy between language policies and practices to the fact that "English language policy ... lags far behind English language practice" (Jenkins, 2011, p. 926). That is, while English is used as a lingua franca, i.e. a *de facto* part of academic life on a university campus, the language policy is firmly based on native English. The conclusion I have arrived at is that although policy makers voice the connection between internationalism and diversity in their discourses of internationalization and globalization, they seem to miss the implications of this connection for English itself and its use. These implications seem to be not noticed by researchers either, since there is not much research to refer to in EMI literature which questions these contradictory native-English-oriented policies. The lack of research probably stems from the fact that this is a new area that has recently started to attract researchers' attention. This gap provides the central rationale for my research that aims to contribute to EMI literature by investigating what English means for EMI users operating under these language policies. Having said this, in the following, I will briefly outline how I conceptualize good academic English in the context of EMI.

#### **2.5.4 Good academic English in EMI**

In the above sections, I mentioned that academic English is covertly portrayed as equivalent to native English, particularly in EMI universities' language policies and in scholarly publishing requirements. Such a conception of academic English mandates lecturers and students to abide by native English norms, and avoid variations in their language practices. Expressing my disapproval of the traditional understanding of good academic English as that of NESs, in other words standard English (StE), which still has considerable influence on academic writing (Mauranen, 2006a), I argued this should not be the case in the Anglophone/non-Anglophone HE institutions and in academia, which currently have more NNES members than NES members. In what follows, I will discuss what constitutes good academic English in such institutions by adopting the perspectives of ELF(A) researchers on academic writing and speaking, and academic English in general.

To start with academic writing, Mauranen (2012) argued that "[s]ince writing cultures vary, there is no universal standard of 'good writing'" which will apply to academic

writing in all contexts of language use (p. 241). However, without strict prescriptions, the notion of good writing can be developed around the idea of using English effectively and resourcefully with the linguistic and cultural resources available, regardless of their lingua-cultural backgrounds. Further, correctness, or more broadly conformity to certain conventions and styles is not viewed as the core constituent of good writing (Björkman, 2010, 2013). Rather, good writing is founded on the tenet of conveying meaning and content in a plain, intelligible, and clear manner to the reader. It does not thus dismiss people's culture-specific preferences and writing styles in their texts; quite the contrary, such culture-specific language use in writing is seen as a capital from which one can benefit to ameliorate his or her academic writing skills (Mauranen, 2012; Maringe & Jenkins, 2015). Last but not least, the concept of good writing does not privilege any particular group of speakers as authority over academic writing and promote their norms as universally current. Thus, as Ferguson (2007) noted, "the native speaker and the non-native speaker start as novices" in the attainment of good academic writing skills (p. 28). Mauranen (2006a) also developed a similar argument to that of Ferguson with regards to academic English, contending that:

The genres and rhetoric of the discourse communities that we participate in need to be acquired by all novices, and from this perspective we could argue *there are no native speakers of academic English, that the English of academic genres is new use to all its practitioners at the beginning* (p. 149; my italics).

A similar debate can be made for the notion of good English in speaking. That is, all speakers, be they NESs or NNEs, are novices in academic speaking. As with good writing, good English in academic speaking can be characterised as effective use of English in communication by applying pragmatic communication strategies and making use of linguistic and cultural capitals on hand. As Björkman (2010, 2011, 2013) and Hynninen (2011) argued, speaking good English is not associated with correctness or perceived high level proficiency of NESs. It can even be achieved irrespective of speakers' varying degree of proficiency levels and their language backgrounds if they largely invest in interaction, with concerted efforts to establish mutual intelligibility and understanding. Speaking good English is also feasible even if people's speech shows variations from the conventions and styles of academic speaking that are considered to be the sole appropriate framework, i.e. standard (native) English for academic English (Björkman, 2011; Mauranen, 2006b). On that account, aspiring to speak like NESs, for

instance, through mimicking their accents and aiming at their fluency, or attempting to apply grammatical rules and written forms in speaking will be much less indispensable for both lecturers and students than to be communicatively effective in speaking in order to complete a range of spoken academic tasks.

From the above discussion on good writing and speaking, it is evident that good academic English in EMI settings where people use English as an auxiliary language should refer to “good use of the resources available in the language” and culture by communicating “clearly and appropriately what is intended” to an audience (Greenbaum, 1996, p. 17). What should be thus given prominence in good academic language use is conducting successful communication and getting things done in the intended ways, without being concerned much about the presupposed conventions of academic English, often benchmarked against StE.

## **2.6 Topics of investigation surrounding EMI**

In previous research, issues around EMI have been explored in a wide range of settings from four main perspectives: political, cultural, pedagogical, and linguistic. For instance, from political and cultural perspectives, researchers were primarily concerned with domain loss, the potential threat of English to local cultures and languages, and loss of national identity, among many others (e.g. Carroll-Boegh, 2005; Channa, 2012; Choi, 2008; Cots, 2013; Kırkgöz, 2005; Li, 2013; Ljosland, 2010; Phillipson, 1992, 2003; Preisler, 2009; Sercu, 2004; Tange, 2010; Tsiligiris, 2012; Zaaba et al., 2010).

Unlike cultural and political issues, researchers, moving from a pedagogical perspective, investigated a host of relevant matters relating to EMI pedagogy. In summary, researchers have looked at students’ comprehension of lectures and teachers, and the role of questions in comprehension (e.g. Björkman, 2011; Suviniitty, 2010, 2012), students’ tendency towards learning content courses in English (e.g. Ismail et al., 2011), and students’ difficulties, i.e. linguistic constraints in following EMI classes (e.g. Airey, 2009, 2011; Floris, 2012). Researchers have also studied students’ contentment with EMI (Kim & Sohn, 2009), strategies students use to cope with EMI when fulfilling academic tasks (Marie, 2013; Suliman & Tadros, 2011), the quality of learning and teaching through English compared to students’ first languages (e.g. Byun et al., 2010; Carroll-Boegh, 2005; Klaassen & Graaff, 2001; Suviniitty, 2012; Tange, 2010; Tung, Lam & Tsang, 1997; Vinke, Snippe & Jochems, 1998), students’ and

lecturers' views about effectiveness of EMI and the challenges they faced (e.g. Kim, 2011; Tatzl, 2011) and inconsistency between EMI policy and its implementation in practice (Li, Leung & Kember, 2001).

Previous studies have also explored the difficulties lecturers encountered (e.g. Jensen et al., 2011; Klaassen & Graaff, 2001; Vinke et al., 1998), their language and pedagogical demands to nurture their teaching abilities (e.g. Ball & Lindsay, 2013; Klaassen & Graaff, 2001), their views, attitudes and perceptions towards (the inclusion of) EMI (e.g. Channa, 2012; Dafouz, Hüttner, & Smit, 2014; Doiz et al., 2011; Flowerdew, Li & Miller, 1998; Hengsadeekul, Hengsadeekul, Koul, & Kaewkuekool, 2010; Margić & Vodopija-Krstanović, 2015; Pulcini & Campagna, 2015), and teachers' opinions about students' learning achievements when they commence learning non-language subject courses, such as mathematics and physics in English (e.g. Mansor, Badarudin, & Mat, 2011). Additionally, pre-service teachers' perceptions regarding their training to impart science courses through English have been researched in south-eastern Asia (e.g. Hudson, 2009). Despite being a timely topic, little has been researched on EMI from a linguistic point of view within the existing body of research, and hence this research area has remained somewhat neglected so far.

As noted above, a great amount of research has been undertaken relative to EMI in a wide range of contexts and particularly from a pedagogical perspective. Nevertheless, this does not mean that the studies carried out from different perspectives have completely ignored linguistic matters regarding EMI, as these perspectives are not totally unrelated. Just to give a few examples, researchers sought to explore whether EMI had any significant impact on increasing the size of students' English academic vocabulary (Lin & Morrison, 2010) and overall language proficiency covering four language skills (e.g. Muda et al., 2012; Rogier, 2012). In the next section, I will discuss some of the above studies and other studies most pertinent to EMI from a linguistic viewpoint, largely concentrating on perception-based and language policy studies.

### **2.6.1 Research on perceptions in EMI**

One line of research focussing on the linguistic side of EMI has looked at how students and lecturers view their own English skills and each other's language capabilities. For example, in a Korean University, Byun et al. (2010) found that many students levelled criticisms about their professors' English skills despite agreeing that their English

proficiency did not have a negative impact on understanding course content. Similarly, professors complained about students' academic English skills. Moreover, there was an unfounded assumption that the teaching staff who earned their PhD abroad (mostly at US universities) would face no or little linguistic troubles. However, the researchers do not explain the reasons why students and professors are critical of each other's English skills if understanding content courses is not in jeopardy, and why those professors with a PhD in Korea are presumed to have problematic English.

A study with a group of Dutch lecturers demonstrated that lecturers' linguistic skills at various levels such as pronunciation, articulation, fluency, intonation and grammar were approached from a deficit view, and accordingly the institution organized workshops and peer coaching to enhance their teaching in EMI (Klaassen & Graaff, 2001). This implementation, however, reminds me of the EAP units where students' insufficient language skills are repaired. In addition, it is left to the reader to interpret whose fluency, intonation, and grammar count as unproblematic and ideal for the Dutch speaking lecturers.

Similar issues came out in a university in the Basque country where a training course was developed to improve 44 lecturers' linguistic and methodological skills (Ball & Lindsay, 2013). Expectedly, pronunciation emerged as the most urgent linguistic demand among lecturers, and training in writing was considered rather crucial for lecturing tasks. For lecturers, being comprehensible at a phonetic level and interacting with students spontaneously in formal and informal discourse situations were deemed so important that one-third of the training was committed to pronunciation training, including work on suprasegmental exercises, prosodic considerations, and frequently mispronounced words. Moreover, a certain level of proficiency (C1 in the CEFR framework) was set as a precondition for lecturers to be able to teach EMI courses (see, also Lasagabaster, 2015 for similar language preconditions for teachers). Researchers, however, seemed to miss the point that what is demanded from lecturers is native-like proficiency, particularly for pronunciation, which will presumably make lecturers' English more authentic (Woolard, 2005).

As to students, Doiz et al. (2013b) investigated local and international students' attitudes towards EMI in Spain, and found that local students perceived their English language skills as inadequate whereas their international peers were quite confident of



their English proficiency. Likewise, Cots (2013) surveyed students and teachers regarding their opinions about EMI and their language competence. Lecturers regarded local students' English level as relatively low when compared to that of international students. However, lecturers appeared to harbour more negative attitudes towards their own language competence than students who described their own English proficiency as *good* or *fairly good*. Despite such negative attitudes towards each other's English skills, researchers did not delve into why lecturers and students hold such perceptions, and what they indeed meant by *good* or *fairly good* English. This lack of clarity in lecturers' and students' discourse signals that both groups still act on the traditional assumptions, according to which good English corresponds to that of educated NESs, in other words, what is often called StE (Mauranen et al., 2010). It is important to point out here that *StE* as a term is often used as a euphemism for native English.

Furthermore, research has indicated that teachers tend to make nationality contrasts among students in terms of their language capabilities (Doiz et al., 2011). Based on five teachers' group discussions on the introduction of EMI in a bilingual university, some students from particular nationalities (e.g. German, Austrian) were believed to have a better command of English than students from other nationalities (e.g. Turkish).

Teachers also remarked that students from central and northern Europe outperformed local students in fluency. There is yet no rationale explained for such a categorization of students' English proficiency. It seems to me that there is a hierarchy of Englishes among teachers based on the proximity of students' origins to the UK, just as found in Saarinen and Nikula's (2013) website study in regards to the admission criteria. In addition to the hierarchy of Englishes among teachers, favourable attitudes towards NES teachers were prevalent among some students as stated by one of the teachers. However, there was also another group of students voicing the opinion that NNEs teachers with a good proficiency of English would do better in teaching.

The native-speaker standard in students' minds also emerged in Inbar-Lourie and Donitsa-Schmidt's (2013) research, exploring students' attitudes towards the adoption of EMI in a teacher education college where the majority of students preferred NES teachers for a range of purposes (e.g. conveying the courses accurately, high quality teaching, authentic language, better accent, etc.). Many Finnish students of engineering also displayed favourable attitudes towards NES lecturers while evaluating lecturers' English skills (Suviniitty, 2007). However, students' choice for NES lecturers was not

necessarily related to the belief that they could teach better as found in Inbar-Lourie and Donitsa-Schmidt (2013), for they considered Finnish lecturers' English very good. The real reason for disfavouring Finnish lecturers was their Finnish-accented speech. A similar criticism was directed at Dutch lecturers by students due to their Dutch-accent and the linguistic errors in language use (Sercu, 2004). In reaction to lecturers' perceived poor English skills, most students articulated the view that lecturers should also take English proficiency tests before commencing to teach in EMI programs. However, none of the researchers have tended to question what factors or ideologies shape and guide such native English-oriented attitudes.

In a Nordic country, Finland, Hirvensalo (2012) examined the attitudes of 12 university teachers towards teaching through English. The interview results, echoing Ball and Lindsay's (2013) findings, showed that lecturers had concerns about their linguistic levels, and experienced pronunciation and writing difficulties. These findings are also in line with the results of Tange (2010) who interviewed 20 Danish lecturers on the language impacts of EMI. Unlike other researchers, Tange (2010) pointed out that perceived linguistic challenges arising both from students and lecturers resulted from cultural and linguistic diversity. On the issue of linguistic challenges, I would argue that lecturers might have viewed the diverse forms of English used by students as the source of these challenges. Additionally, as far as I see, the institutions' attempt of offering voluntary language and diversity management training implies that lecturers' English and intercultural communication skills are characterised as problems to be resolved via (remedial) trainings.

In a Danish EMI university, researchers investigated how teachers (n=33) and students (n=1659) from a range of programs (e.g. economics, politics, management, etc.) rated their English competencies at two levels: general English and academic English skills (Jensen et al., 2011). Overall, the majority of the students and teachers evaluated their general and academic English skills positively with a higher standard (i.e. excellent and good). However, teachers' perceived English proficiency was higher than that of students in receptive skills (i.e. reading and listening). Obtained through quantitative analyses, the results do not permit researchers to make further interpretations regarding the underlying reasons for assessing their English skills in this way. Unlike the findings reported by Klaassen and Graaff (2001), Ball and Lindsay (2013) and Hirvensalo (2012), Jensen et al.'s (2011) research indicated that many lecturers did not consider

their linguistic skills (e.g. pronunciation, fluency, grammar) an obstacle to successful teaching, avoiding seeing themselves as second-class users of English.

In a subsequent study, Jensen et al. (2013) examined students' attitudes regarding lecturers' English skills so as to find out whether students' perceptions of lecturers' English skills correlated with their perceptions of lecturers' teaching competence. In addition, researchers attempted to explore students' attitudes towards Danish and non-Danish lecturers' English. The results showed that students' ratings for Danish lecturers' English were lower than their ratings for non-Danish lecturers' English. This appears to corroborate the findings of Doiz et al. (2011), who discovered that Spanish teachers considered local students' fluency lower in comparison with central and northern European students' fluency. These kinds of findings suggest that those sharing L1 tend to perceive each other's English skills as low when others from different linguistic and/or cultural backgrounds are present (e.g. in the classes, on campus). However, the *why* question – why they perceive so – remains unanswered since Jensen et al. (2013) and Doiz et al. (2011) solely relied on questionnaire data.

In the context of Taiwan, Chang (2010) explored teachers' and undergraduate students' views regarding the implementation of EMI. The researcher canvassed students' perceptions of their English proficiency in four skills via a five-point rating scale ranging from *very poor* to *very good*. The results revealed that roughly half of the students rated their proficiency as *OK* in four skills, but their ratings for receptive skills (i.e. reading, listening) were higher than those for productive skills (e.g. speaking, writing), with reading being perceived as the best skill. This finding together with those of Klaassen and Graaff (2001), Ball and Lindsay (2013), and Hirvensalo (2012) suggests that both lecturers and students hold low perceptions of their productive language skills, particularly of their speaking (e.g. fluency, pronunciation, intonation, etc.).

The perception-based studies discussed above demonstrate that researchers have only approached lecturers' and students' perceptions of English language proficiency as a secondary issue. That is, the primary concern was not to explore how they think about English and English proficiency regarding EMI. Therefore, these studies have failed to consider the role of policy mechanisms (e.g. tests, course books, entry requirements, research activities, language support) on people's perceptions of English skills.

Furthermore, the decision on the medium of instruction and its implementation is ideological. However, this ideological dimension of EMI has not been taken into account by the researchers, despite the fact that some ideology-driven observations surfaced among students and teachers, such as preference for NES lecturers and feelings of inadequacy in English skills. This occurred largely because of the methods (mostly quantitative) used in these studies, with self-rating scales containing descriptors of skills such as *good*, *excellent*, and *OK*. However, even interpretations of these descriptors might be affected by individuals' language ideologies, and thus change depending on the attitude of the person who is making the judgement.

### **2.6.2 Research on language policy in EMI settings**

In another line of research, scholars studied English language policies and practices of EMI universities across different settings via documentary analysis and by exploring students' and teaching staff's views about their institutions' language policies and practices. For example, Saarinen and Nikula's (2013) website study of 44 international EMI programs offered by two universities and two vocational schools in Finland evidenced that the role of English was axiomatic as the language of tuition in describing the international programs, though the term *foreign* was used as a euphemism for English on some occasions. However, the role of English as a vehicular language to be used among students in the EMI programs was implied. However, this implied role of English became more explicit and stronger when it came to language entry requirements and the recognized language tests (e.g. TOEFL, IELTS, and Cambridge ESOL) and who is exempt from entry requirements. Saarinen and Nikula (2013) found that students' origins played a significant role for exemption, since students from certain countries (e.g. the UK, US, Ireland, Canada, etc.) and students having studied in one of these countries did not need language proof. They concluded that although the language requirement is essential for admission to international programs, insisting on particular kinds of native English at the expense of others might lead to classification of students based on the English they speak, their nationality, and educational background (Saarinen & Nikula, 2013).

Similar to the case in Finland, in another Nordic context, i.e. Sweden, Björkman's (2014) language policy study of eight EMI universities showed that a lack of clarity continues to surround their language policy documents regarding the norms appropriate

for speakers and the way(s) English should be used. She reported that only one university explicitly states that language use should conform to native varieties of English. Björkman construed the lack of clarity on language issues in the documents as an assumption of NES authority, and since this authority is already taken for granted it does not need to be overtly announced.

In a continental comparative research study into EMI language policies and practices in the UK, Austria, and Thailand, Baker and Hüttner (2015) indicated that the selected institutions from these countries require incoming students to be successful in native English-oriented language proficiency tests as part of their entry requirement. Their analysis of language policy documents of the institutions revealed that students are forced to follow international standards, i.e. those of standard (i.e. native) English in their language practices, particularly academic writing. Their questionnaire data from over a hundred students demonstrated the overwhelming desire among many students to speak StE, and to prefer NES teachers for teaching content courses.

As mentioned above, Jenkins (2014) conducted a broad website study analysing 60 EMI universities' websites and related documents in order to find out how they orient to academic English in their language policies and practices. Her main goal was to determine the extent to which these universities showed attachment to native academic English norms by enforcing them on NNES university students. Her analyses indicated that English was mentioned overtly in the websites, but the kind of English required remained unsaid. It, however, turned out to be hegemonic varieties of English (i.e. AmE or BrE) as inferred from the language tests students needed to take (e.g. TOEFL, IELTS), audio-visual materials in the voiceover of NESs, the use of native English-oriented textbooks, and exemption of NESs from language tests, to name a few. She also highlighted that universities' understanding of being 'international' is strictly bound up with English. On the basis of her findings, she concluded that "if these universities are reasonably typical, we have a situation where prospective and current NNES university students are being influenced on an epic scale to change the way they speak and write English so as to make it more like the English of NES members of the academy" (Jenkins, 2014, p. 120).

Moreover, Jenkins's (2014) questionnaire study with university staff showed that they considered standard (native) English, particularly North American and British academic

English to be the most acceptable kind of English for academic study, and that they generally held deficit orientation to English of NNES students, with an expectation of native-like English usage, specifically in academic writing. Correspondingly, her interview study with international students in a UK university demonstrated students' overall inclination to standard (native) English as a desired goal, especially for written academic English. Interestingly, her findings revealed that most of her student participants made disparaging remarks about the language policies of their institution, markedly the native English-oriented entry requirements since they believed the English tested through international tests (e.g. TOEFL, IELTS) differs from the kind of English, i.e. non-native English, they habitually encountered in the university context.

Finally, a doctoral study by Hu (2015) exploring teaching staff's orientations to and perceptions of language policies and practices in Chinese EMI universities showed content teachers' tendency towards standard (native) English, especially linguistic correctness in respect of their expectations of students' language use. As she further elucidated, what leads to strong attachment to native English ideology among her participants is their concern with examinations grounded in standard (native) English.

The findings of the preliminary studies call for further research to explore whether such policies actually influence lecturers' and students' use of English, and their orientations to spoken and written English in ways leading them to attempt for native-like proficiency. In this respect, it is vital to refer to what users tell about their language practices, and what they think about English and their English skills as well as language acts, for "people's language practices cannot be fully understood only from observation and description of actual use" (Kitazawa, 2012, p. 28; 2013).

### **2.6.3 Research on EMI in Turkey**

In Turkey, the body of research on EMI-related issues remains so scarce that idiomatically speaking, they can be counted on the fingers of one hand. Firstly, EMI has become a matter of discussion about the quality of learning and teaching and socio-cultural concerns. In this sense, some scholars strictly opposed EMI, claiming that it would be detrimental to effective learning of the subjects studied due to a number of reasons, e.g. low participation, low comprehension of classes, high linguistic and cognitive demands on lecturers and students (Arslantunali, 1998; Boztaş, 1995; Köksal, n.d). Similar concerns were articulated in research studies by student (e.g. Kavanoz &

Yüksel, 2010) and lecturer participants (Ölçü & Eröz-Tuğa, 2013). Pro-EMI scholars supported it for its subsidiary benefits, such as students' improved cross-cultural understanding, intellectual skills, and academic language skills (e.g. Alptekin, 2003; Soylu, 2003).

Additionally, attitude and perception studies have been done regarding EMI, which often yielded contradictory results. For instance, it was found that lecturers from fully EMI and Turkish medium programs supported the use of Turkish in instruction to increase student learning (Kılıçkaya, 2006; Ölçü & Eröz-Tuğa, 2013), particularly in engineering (Saka, 2009), whereas lecturers teaching through partial EMI preferred using EMI over Turkish (Başibek et al., 2014). Motivation research on EMI showed that students were motivated to study in EMI for instrumental (e.g. getting a job, taking part in research) and intrinsic (e.g. learning about cultures, interacting with NESs) purposes, and had fairly positive evaluation of their English skills, with speaking being perceived as the weakest skill, though (Kırkgöz, 2005).

Apart from attitudinal research, researchers also investigated the effectiveness of EMI in relation to the development of language skills, and discovered that EMI was more effective in boosting students' language skills than Turkish-medium and English-aided instruction (e.g. Sert, 2008). In another study, Kırkgöz (2009) explored students' and teachers' perceptions of the effectiveness of the EAP program in an EMI university in terms of meeting students' language needs in their degree programs, concluding that language courses taken did not equip students adequately enough to deal with the requirements of their disciplinary subjects. This is one of the rare studies which address issues of English language policy. Another study is that of Collins (2010) with a large sample of students and lecturers from Bilkent University. She found that English language policies, such as entry requirements and EAP programs were criticized by students since their English is assessed via standardized tests that prioritize grammatical knowledge. She also indicated that some lecturers required students to produce grammatically correct language in assessment and marked them down due to language mistakes while the majority were tolerant of students' non-standard language use by giving primacy to their content knowledge. She reported normative expectations to cause reluctance among students to orally participate in classes even if they knew the content due to the fear of failure to express themselves in a grammatically correct way and fear of negative reactions of their friends and lecturers.

Similar to the studies conducted in various contexts around the world, EMI research in Turkey has mainly focused on its pedagogical impacts on content and language learning, students' and teachers' perceptions of performing academic tasks in EMI, and partly their evaluation of English skills. Having reviewed these studies, I noticed that the academic language policies and their likely effects on students' and lecturers' orientation to English have not been a serious matter of question within the existing body of EMI research.

## **2.7 Summary and conclusion**

In this chapter, I discussed scholars' views on language policy and language policy theories in relation to their relevance to HE, as they have been recently used as the framework to explore EMI universities' *de facto* academic English language policies (e.g. Cots, 2013; Jenkins, 2014; Saarinen & Nikula, 2013). Then, I examined the common language policies and policy mechanisms lying at the centre of EMI universities with various types of research addressing them, and the degree to which these policies enforce native English varieties on students and lecturers. I also reviewed existing research which investigated EMI from different angles, and particularly discussed the research done from a linguistic point of view. Very few studies have been critical of academic English language policies and practices of EMI universities and their potential consequences on NNES academics' and students' language use (e.g. Saarinen & Nikula, 2013; Jenkins, 2014), while the rest have just scratched the surface, superficially investigating students' and lecturers' perceptions and assessment of English proficiency, but taking no account of the ideologies guiding these perceptions.

Overall, there has been a dearth of research focusing precisely on what happens to students' and lecturers' views of English and their language practices when native English norms and proficiency are perpetuated by means of stated and unstated language policies during the course of study in EMI. In this sense, the website and language policy studies have paved the way for further investigation by pointing the strong link between native academic English and EMI universities' language policies and practices. Thus, there is a need for empirical research to explore to what extent these policies exert influence on people's orientation to English, the kinds of English they use, and their English abilities.





## **CHAPTER 3: THE STUDY OF LANGUAGE ATTITUDES AND LANGUAGE IDEOLOGIES IN RELATION TO ENGLISH**

### **3.1 Introduction**

In this chapter, I will firstly discuss the notions of language attitudes and language ideologies. I decided to include these two concepts to my theoretical framework since exploring language attitudes alone would not be sufficient to understand the potential impacts of the socio-political/cultural and historical factors present in my participants' surroundings in terms of their attitudes towards English. Given that my participants are based in a particular social context (EMI universities) where certain ideologies already exist, as was already discussed in the previous chapter, the dominant language ideologies which prevail in their socio-cultural environment might influence their social experiences regarding English and, accordingly, their attitudes towards that language. Following this discussion, I will outline the views regarding the notion of language ideologies from a variety of different angles, and will examine the convergences and divergences which are apparent between language attitudes and ideologies. I will then consider certain types of ideology with relation to English (in general) and English language teaching and learning (in particular). I will end the chapter with a critical review of past research into users' attitudes towards English, its varieties, speakers, uses, and EMI, particularly in academia.

### **3.2 Language attitudes**

#### **3.2.1 Defining attitude**

The concept of attitude is recognised as one of the most all-pervading constructs in the field of modern social psychology in which attitudes play a crucial role in comprehending social actions and thoughts (Garrett, 2006; Edwards, 1999). There has been a growing base of research on attitudes, and thus defining this concept has not been an easy task. This is partly due to its dormant nature, as well as to its multiple aspects and manifestations (Baker, 1992; Garrett, Coupland & Williams, 2003; Gardner, 1985). The working definition adopted for the purposes of this study, and which has achieved a general acceptance among researchers is that of Weber (1992), who defined it as "an evaluative reaction - a judgement regarding one's liking or disliking - of a person, event or other aspect of the environment" (p. 117). For example, Myers-Scotton (2006) similarly referred to attitudes as "**subjective evaluations**" (p. 120; emphasis in

original). Garrett (2010) also pointed out that similar definitions to those of Weber (1992) and Myers-Scotton (2006) have been extensively adopted by researchers. It is, thus, possible that one can infer what attitudes individuals or groups hold towards any object through looking at their reactions and evaluations.

### **3.2.2 Theories of attitudes**

Baker (1992) raised some concerns about previous language attitude studies, underlining the fact that “[m]uch language attitude literature is atheoretical” (p. 1). In this respect, I will briefly explicate two prominent theories of attitudes: behaviourist and mentalist. The former one sees attitudes as entities which can determine and prompt certain behaviours of individuals (Hohenthal, 2003). The fundamental viewpoint here is that language attitudes can be inferred from the apparent behavioural elements of a person, such as from physical reactions and responses. Therefore, according to this view, self-reliance on the observable data alone would suffice to elicit language attitudes. However, scholars have severely criticized the behaviourist theory since it undermines the complex nature of attitudes by simply treating them as observable units of behaviour and the sole variable defining behaviours. When viewed from this aspect, the behaviourist theory pays no mind to a broad range of variables (e.g. gender, age, social membership, etc.) likely to affect people’s behaviours (Ihemere, 2006; McKenzie, 2006).

By contrast, the mentalist theory draws attention to invisible cognitive processes. Accordingly, this view applies some measures such as self-reports and introspections in an attempt to gauge individuals’ language attitudes. Proponents of the mentalist theory stated that attitude involves three components: cognitive, affective, and conative (Baker, 1992; Garrett, 2010; Hohenthal, 2003; Pickens, 2005). The cognitive component comprises beliefs, values, and thoughts; the affective component is concerned with how people feel about an attitude object (e.g. emotional reactions such as love, anger, hate, etc.), and the conative (behavioural) component refers to unconscious striving towards acting in particular ways (Baker, 1992; Hegar, 2012; Mckenzie, 2006; Sykes, 2010). Most researchers consider the mentalist model superior to the behaviourist model, as the complex nature of human beings is acknowledged (McKenzie, 2006). I partly sign on to this view of attitudes in order not to discount the complex human nature in eliciting one’s attitudes but also to follow Liebscher and Dailey-O’Cain’s (2009) interactional

approach in which “the importance of local context and ideologies in the study of language attitudes” are taken into account (p. 196; see also Garrett et al., 2003; Garrett, 2010). Paying attention to the social context is worthwhile to find out how people’s judgements are affected by contextual factors in their current surroundings and their social experiences. In respect to my research context where English is used as a tool for instruction and communication on the campus, this approach is of enormous significance to discover whether people’s evaluations are influenced by the institutional language policies and the pervading ideologies behind these policies.

### **3.2.3 Language attitude studies**

According to Ryan, Giles and Sebastian (1982), language attitude basically means “any affective, cognitive or behavioral index of evaluative reactions towards different language varieties or speakers” (as cited in Melander, 2003, p. 2). In a broader definition, Richards and Schmidt (2002) defined language attitudes as “the attitudes which speakers of different languages or language varieties have towards each other’s languages or to their own language” (p. 286). They also added that language attitudes “towards a language may also show what people feel about the speakers of that language” (p. 286). These definitions are best suited for the purposes of my research because my research setting (i.e. EMI universities/programs) is home to both Turkish students and non-Turkish students from various linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Therefore, my research closely pertains to Turkish students’ and lecturers’ evaluative reactions to varieties of English and their speakers in respect of language use.

Since it is challenging to deal with the term *language attitudes* as a concept being so broad, Baker (1992, pp. 29-30) classified a number of major areas<sup>2</sup> of inquiry that previous language attitudes research has investigated. In like manner, Schiffman (1997) provided a useful general classification<sup>3</sup> of language attitudes studies on the basis of areas researchers have explored until quite recently. A well-rounded summary of recent

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<sup>2</sup> Baker’s (1992) list covers attitudes towards the following areas: a) language variation; b) learning a new language; c) a specific minority language; d) language groups, communities and minorities; e) language lessons; f) the uses of a specific language; g) attitudes of parents towards language learning; and h) language preference.

<sup>3</sup> Schiffman (1997) defined language attitude studies as the study of either a large or small group of people’s attitudes towards: a) language in general; b) their motivation towards the learning of L1 or L2; c) the status of (i) a language, (ii) its speakers, or (iii) some form (non-standard?) H-variety?) of a language; d) towards language shift (either within a particular community, or in general); e) towards loyalty to own language; and f) their non-standard dialect/language given that they are from a minority group.

and past language attitudes research on the English language along with some approaches to the study of language attitudes can be found in Garrett et al. (2003), Garrett (2010), and Jenkins (2007) who investigated attitudes towards various English accents. In my study, I am interested to explore attitudes towards English in EMI contexts, along with students' and lecturers' attitudes towards their own and others' English, drawing on Baker's (1992) classification of major research areas in the study of language attitudes. I am also keen to learn about students' and lectures' attitudes towards English in general, towards its status, use, and speakers in the context of HE by referring to relevant research areas identified by Schiffman (1997). It is likely that the results might also yield implications for the research area studying attitudes towards language preference (Baker, 1992), considering that English is the preferred language of instruction in the institutions and programs, namely the setting under investigation in this research.

As a result of my review of the current and past language attitudes research, I have concluded that the aforementioned categorisation, not to mention the conventional theories of language attitudes, will be incomplete without the language ideologies framework. This is due to the fact that lecturers' and students' attitudes will most probably be influenced (i) by the ideologies that already exist in their current environment, (ii) by the ideologies to which they were exposed in their earlier environments, and (iii) by their personal experiences with English. By addressing the issue of language ideologies, particularly with regards to my participants' present local context and earlier environments, I aim to discover whether particular language ideologies guide the attitudes that both lecturers and students usually have towards English.

### **3.3 Language ideologies**

#### **3.3.1 Views of language ideology**

Lippi-Green (2012) expressed ideology as "the promotion of the needs and interests of a dominant group or class at the expense of marginalized groups, by means of disinformation and misrepresentation of those non-dominant groups" (p. 67). The nexus between language and ideology is, however, rather complex. Different views, hence, come into play in determining what language ideologies refer to. By some, they are seen

as a cognitive aspect (e.g. Irvine, 1989<sup>4</sup>; Rumsey, 1990<sup>5</sup>; Silverstein, 1979<sup>6</sup>; Wolfram & Schilling-Estes, 2006<sup>7</sup>) being described as a set of beliefs, ideas, notions, and perceptions about language structure and use. Thus, it can be said that language ideologies are close to attitudes in some respects. Nevertheless, it is important to realise that they are not the same phenomenon. This will be discussed in more detail later (i.e. section 3.3.3). However, scholars differ in their emphasis on the defining characteristics of language ideologies. For example, linguistic and functional awareness are the key components for Silverstein (1979), whereas Irvine (1989), and Makihara and Schieffelin (2007) put more stress on the cultural side of language ideologies. Rumsey (1990) pointed to the sharedness of language ideologies, and Wolfram and Schilling-Estes (2006) accentuated that language ideologies are deeply rooted and often unquestioned, even if they are false and unreasonable.

As relevant to the study of English language policies, “language ideology is [defined as] language policy with the manager left out, what people think should be done” about language use (Spolsky, 2004, p. 14). Approaching the issue from a different direction, Woolard (2005) introduced two ideologies (i.e. authenticity and anonymity) by discussing their role in perpetuating linguistic authority in language policies. According to the ideology of authenticity, she noted, a language gains value to the extent that it is connected to a particular community. For a speech variety to claim value, it should be thus strongly identifiable with a socio-geographical region. Within the authenticity framework, linguistic elements such as accent and structural form have particular weight, as they serve not only as indexical signs related to a specific group or person but also “as an iconic representation, a natural image of the essence of that person” (p. 3). Therefore, she further stated that “[t]o profit, one must sound like that kind of person who is valued as natural and authentic, must capture the tones and the nuances” (p. 3). Naturally, this requires a speaker, especially if a second language (L2) user, to adopt the ways the valued authentic speaker applies and to remove his or her first language (L1)

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<sup>4</sup> Irvine (1989) defined language ideology as “the cultural system of ideas about social and linguistic relationships, together with their loading of moral and political interests” (p. 255).

<sup>5</sup> Rumsey (1990) referred to language ideologies as “shared bodies of common-sense notions about the nature of language in the world” (p. 346).

<sup>6</sup> Silverstein (1979) regarded language ideology as “any sets of beliefs about language articulated by the users as a rationalization or justification of perceived language structure and use” (p. 193).

<sup>7</sup> Wolfram and Schilling-Estes (2006) saw language ideologies as “ingrained, unquestioned beliefs about the way the world is, the way it should be, and the way it has to be with respect to language” (p. 9).

traits. Although Woolard (2005) only touched on authenticity in respect of spoken language, it is without doubt that the ideology of authenticity applies to written language.

Concerning the ideology of anonymity, Woolard (2005) stressed that the attention is on the availability of the language to all with no particular link to anyone or authority, by “sounding like it is from “nowhere”” (p. 5). Consequently, everyone can equally use such languages in their own ways in principle. However, her review of sociolinguistic case studies revealed that the ideology of anonymity, in practice, benefited “institutionally and demographically dominant languages to consolidate their position into one of hegemony” by enabling “their superordinate position to be naturalized, taken for granted, and placed beyond question” (p. 6). She also referred to Bourdieu (1991) who called the ideology of anonymity “*méconnaissance*” (misrecognition) so as to emphasize the fact that anonymity is indeed not detached from any social and geographical roots and groups reinforcing the authority, but people remain unaware of this truth. As he argued, this naturalization of the ideology is substantiated by virtue of authorized institutions, such as schools and the media. In regards to language policies in HE, these ideological complexes might be implicitly at work through policy mechanisms, and this in effect may have certain consequences on people’s language practices in accordance with the *de facto* policies language policy managers aim to turn into practice.

Turning back to the term itself, one can see that although many scholars, both inside and outside the field of linguistics, view ideology as a set of beliefs/ideas as discussed above, there are also others who state that ideology is power-laden (A. W. Lee, 2012) and serves as a tool in the hands of power holders to enforce their views about language and its speakers, i.e. how it should be used, taught, and learned by dismissing the interests of subaltern groups (Lippi-Green, 2012; Zaidi, 2012). I will hereby take the term *language ideology* as a concept that is enforced by the dominant groups to promote their own interests and needs over those of the less powerful groups. This does not, however, mean that less powerful groups do not have language ideologies. While doing so, I will follow Kroskrity (2000) who suggested that people should “think of ‘language ideologies’ as a cluster concept consisting of a number of converging dimensions” (p. 7) as it allows one a better understanding of the concept. It is thus more practical to focus on these dimensions instead of searching for a single definition.

### 3.3.2 Characteristics of language ideologies

Kroskrity (2000, 2010) identified four interconnecting characteristics of language ideologies, which clearly summarizes what the concept embodies in accordance with the above discussion of the essential properties that constitute language ideologies.

According to Kroskrity's (2010) first characteristic, "**... language ideologies represent the perception of language and discourse that is constructed in the interest of a specific social or cultural group**" (p. 195; italics and bold in original). This means that individuals' conceptualization of language is anchored in their social experiences and has strong ties to certain political and economic interests of a particular group, as can similarly be seen in Martínez's (2006) conceptualization of language ideologies in her study. A similar account of language ideologies also appears in Woolard (1998) as the source from which people's concepts about language originate.

The second characteristic concerns the fact that

**... language ideologies are profitably conceived as multiple** because of the multiplicity of meaningful social divisions (class, gender, clan, elites, generations, and so on) within sociocultural groups that have the potential to produce divergent perspectives expressed as indices of group membership (Kroskrity, 2010, p. 197; italics and bold in original).

This dimension explicitly suggests that there is a considerable variability in terms of social experiences of individuals arising from the social divisions and demographic factors. This implies that there may be diverse beliefs, perceptions, and attitudes about language and its use among, for instance, boys and girls, dominant and subordinate groups, and the young and the old. The multiplicity of language ideologies can even be more controversial among culturally and socially diverse groups (Gal, 2006; Blommaert, 2006a). Hence, it would be fair to say that the existence of such social divisions and demographic factors constitutes the underlying reason why language ideologies are multiple with complicated views on language and language use, and how language should be used in specific ways (Blommaert, 2005a; Makihara, 2007).

Kroskrity's (2010) third dimension focused on how "**...members may display varying degrees of awareness of local language ideologies**" (p. 198; italics and bold in original). That some language ideologies are explicitly verbalized although others remain implicit is the message Kroskrity (2010) conveyed in this dimension. He further made it clear that even if people may overtly verbalize their ideologies in many



instances as implied by Silverstein (1979), not all language ideologies are articulated in an extremely overt way by people. In consequence, Silverstein (1979) suggested that researchers should attend to actual and intended language use (i.e. language practices) to be able to ascertain the private language ideologies people have about language use.

Making reference to Woolard and Schieffelin (1994), Kroskrity (2010) pointed out in the fourth dimension that “...*members’ language ideologies mediate between social structures and forms of talk*” (Kroskrity, 2010, p. 200; italics and bold in original). At this juncture, the emphasis is on the mediating role of language ideologies in bridging language users’ “sociocultural experience and their linguistic and discursive forms as indexically tied to features of their sociocultural experience” (Kroskrity, 2010, p. 200). This dimension hints that language ideologies are not solely concerned about language (Woolard, & Schieffelin, 1994; Woolard, 1998; Blommaert, 2005a; Makihara & Schieffelin, 2007; Spitulnik, 1998) but rather, they also play an active role in the formation and legalization of authority, establishment of social connections of similarity and disparity as well as the measures of cultural stereotypes regarding the kinds of language users and social clusters of people (Spitulnik, 1998). In addition, language ideologies may link language with authority, aesthetics, ethics, and theory of knowledge in the sense of cultural and historical particularities (Makihara & Schieffelin, 2007).

In the manifestations of language ideologies, therefore, people tend to make selections of certain linguistic features and evaluations of the significance of languages, even varieties of the same language by either downgrading or promoting them (Abongdia, 2009). For instance, one can hear people stating that they do not like a variety because of pejorative associations tagged on them as a result of previous (negative) social experiences. Along similar lines, some languages (also varieties) are believed to be richer in vocabulary, whilst some others may be considered unsuitable for being a medium of education. As Milani and Johnson (2010) asserted, such differentiations do not materialize arbitrarily, but are the consequences of “particular processes under specific social, political, cultural and economic conditions” (p. 4).

According to Woolard (1998), the ideological and cultural representations (i.e. language ideologies) can be identified in three particular situations: (i) language practices, (ii) explicit metalinguistic discourse, and (iii) implicit metapragmatic strategies (pp. 9-11). Paffey (2010) explained these situations in detail in the order given, remarking that

ideology is communicated and shaped by language practices; metalinguistic discourse consists of an explicit discussion, that is, an evaluation, and planning about how speakers use language and should use it. Regarding implicit metapragmatic strategies, Paffey (2010) referred to Woolard's (1998) suggestion that these strategies are "part of the stream of language use in process and that [they] simultaneously indicate how to interpret that language-in-use" (as cited in Paffey, 2010, p. 9).

Until this point, the main discussion has centred around the cognitive aspects of language ideology, which is chiefly concerned with linguistic beliefs, ideas, notions and conceptions. Another aspect of language ideologies, as Kroskrity (2010) pointed out, relates to people's feelings about language use and structure, i.e. the affective side. Similarly, Register (2001) and Higgs (1987) considered feelings and emotions to be part of the notion of ideology. Nevertheless, for them, language ideologies are more comprehensive than how I have described them thus far. According to their understanding of the concept, ideologies not only contain (1) cognitive and (2) affective aspects, but also (3) programmatic and (4) solidary aspects. Higgs (1987) explained these aspects respectively, noting that an ideology:

- (1) ... structures a person's perception and predetermines his understandings of the social world, expressing these cognitions in characteristic symbols.
- (2) ... tells him whether what he "sees" is good or bad or morally neutral.
- (3) ... propels him to act in accordance with his cognitions and evaluations
- (4) as a committed member of a political group, in pursuit of definite social objectives (Higgs, 1987, p. 37; my numerical order).

My position regarding language ideologies closely aligns with the aforementioned summary of interlocking characteristics given by Kroskrity (2010). These have, to a large extent, treated language ideologies from a cognitive perspective, treating them as deep-seated beliefs. For instance, language ideologies are firstly regarded as the expression of perceptions of language and discourse in Kroskrity's (2010) discussion. Secondly, language ideologies tend to be considered manifold on account of various divisions such as social, geographical and personal differences among the individuals. Thirdly, awareness of language ideologies is said to likely differ among members of a particular discourse community, and finally people are inclined to associate language and its speakers with various notions like authority, aesthetics, prestige, etc. based on

their perceptions, socio-historical backgrounds, and degree of consciousness of language ideologies. As can be clearly understood from Kroskrity's (2010) exposition of these four characteristics, the cognitive aspect is the point where each characteristic is inseparably linked with each other.

I would argue, however, that a concept as complex as language ideologies cannot only be approached from a single aspect, i.e. cognitive. Therefore, it seems to me that Higgs's (1987) proposed aspects of ideology (i.e. cognitive, affective, programmatic and solidary) ease and broaden our understanding of the notion of language ideologies, thereby complementing the four characteristics discussed by Kroskrity (2010). The pivotal reason that I seek an all-inclusive understanding of language ideologies lies in the fact that language users do not only hold perceptions in regards to language, but also make evaluative assessments (i.e. affective component) about language, its use, and speakers. Later, such perceptions and evaluative assessments can guide people's linguistic behaviours (i.e. programmatic or conative) one way or another. That is, people are linguistically prompted to act in line with their perceptions and affective evaluations. As Higgs (1987) asserted, the solidary aspect suggests that individuals influenced by ideologies mostly hold shared beliefs and display collective behaviours.

In this research, I will adopt a critical approach to language ideologies. According to this approach, there are actually multiple competing language ideologies with one or some of them usually emerging as dominant. This approach sees ideologies as being socially- and historically-rooted, constructed over time, power-laden, and serving the interests of a particular group while dismissing the interests of other groups. I also maintain that most people who commit certain language acts collectively under the influence of dominant language ideologies essentially serve the interests of dominant groups without any apparent coercion, i.e. without being unaware of the ideologies that guide their perceptions, evaluations, and linguistic behaviours. Hence, such people do not show any resistance towards authority given that the dominant ideologies which they have internalised — and which have been reinforced in them through the recurring imposition imposed upon them by the dominant groups — have become common sense to them over time.

### **3.3.3 Convergences and divergences between language attitudes and ideologies**

The above review of language attitudes and ideologies shows some similarities and differences between these two research fields in concern with Kroskrity's (2010) characteristics and Higgs' (1987) aspects of ideologies, and Baker's (1992) and Schiffman's (1997) classifications of attitude studies. Previously, while exploring Cameroonian high school students' attitudes towards English in a bilingual context, Dyers and Abongdia (2010) also compared the descriptions of language attitudes and ideologies according to Schiffman's (1997), and Agheyisi and Fishman's (1970) categories of language attitude studies and Kroskrity's (2000, 2010) four characteristics of language ideologies. Their rationale for this was the insufficiency of language attitudes framework in explaining some categories of the obtained data regarding the social factors in the research context. Dyers and Abongdia (2010) singled out two main similarities between the fields of language attitudes and ideologies. In their own words:

- (1) Both deal with the issue of status and how this affects patterns of language shift and maintenance in societies - in Schiffman's terms, the status of a language, the status of its speakers or the status of the variety (standard/non- standard) of the language, or its use in certain domains. In Agheyisi and Fishman's terms, the social significance of language or language varieties and attitudes towards speakers of different languages in multilingual settings.
- (2) Just as there are, according to Kroskrity, a multiplicity of LIs [language ideologies] which effectively capture social divisions within sociocultural groups, so language attitudes also tend to differ depending on factors such as age, gender, social class and level of education, as has been shown in the studies conducted by Gardner and MacIntyre (1993), Morgan (1993) and Siachitema (1985). (Dyers & Abongdia, 2010, p.123; their numerical order)

In addition to these two similarities between the two concepts, drawing on Higg's (1987) aspects of ideologies, I have noticed another similarity between these two fields of research, which is explicated in my own words below:

- (3) As with language attitudes which are composed of three components (i.e. cognitive, affective and conative), language ideologies are also made up of several interrelated aspects (i.e. cognitive, affective, programmatic and solidary) subsuming all the three components of language attitudes, with the exception that language ideologies include the solidary aspect; that is, language ideologies are mostly grounded in collective rather than individual behaviour.

There are, however, several differences between the notions of language attitudes and ideologies, which clearly differentiate them from one another. To illustrate, Eagleton (1991) pointed out that an attitude cannot be conceived of ideologically, unless it acts to promote and legitimize the power status of a particular group. This means that not all language attitudes reflect or produce ideologies, but as Martínez (2006) argued, all language ideologies include attitudes. Moreover, language ideologies are mostly collective and shared by certain interest groups in a given community or interest group, whereas language attitudes are generally specific, subjective, and individual (Cameron, 2003; Myers-Scotton, 2006; Woolard & Schieffelin, 1994). Myers-Scotton (2006) clearly distinguished them by defining language “**attitudes as more unconscious assessments**” and “**ideologies as more constructed assessments**” (p. 110; emphasis in original). Below is a comprehensive summary of similarities and differences between the concepts of language attitudes and ideologies.

**Table 1.** Similarities and differences between language attitudes and ideologies (Dyers & Abongdia, 2010, p. 132)

Language attitudes	Language ideologies
Individual thoughts, feelings, reactions	Group/community beliefs
Possessed by individuals	Develops in interest of powerful groups
Rooted in individual experience	Shaped by socio-historical events
Can be both short- and long-term, but more mutable than ideologies	Long term, deeply rooted and resistant to change
May affect language learning and motivation, but not always	Strong effect on language learning and motivation
May play a role in the creation of language policies, but not their implementation	Play a central role in language policies and their successful implementation
Often unconscious, covert assessments; sometimes distinguishes between languages and speakers of those languages	Conscious, overt assessment of languages and their speakers

In a context like HE, people’s language attitudes towards English are, I believe, highly susceptible to the impacts of language ideologies. The fundamental reason is that language policy and the socio-contextual (i.e. campus) properties are ideologically loaded, as argued in the preceding chapter. Consequently, it could be argued that lecturers’ and students’ language attitudes may be informed by the ideologies that language managers aim to put into practice through explicit, implicit policies and policy mechanisms (e.g. Jenkins, 2014), and by their lecturers’ and friends’ ideologies

concerning English. Bearing the possible influences of language ideologies on individuals' attitudes, researchers who had investigated language teachers' and learners' attitudes observed that particular types of ideologies have seemed to play a major part in the formation of people's attitudes towards English, and various English accents in particular (e.g. Jenkins, 2007, 2009; Cogo, 2010; Sherman & Siegllová, 2011).

### **3.4 Types of language ideologies**

#### **3.4.1 Standard language ideology**

One common type of language ideology that often stands out in the literature is standard language ideology, which Lippi-Green (2012) defined as:

a bias toward an abstracted, idealized, homogeneous spoken language which is imposed and maintained by dominant bloc institutions and which names as its model the written language, but which is drawn primarily from the spoken language of the upper middle class (p. 67).

Within the notion of standard language, Lippi-Green's (2012) description actually reveals how language is conceptualized as an entity exalted to an ideal excellence as being uniform and exploited under the control of a social group. Defined in this way, it goes beyond doubt that the fluid and unstable characteristics of language as an entity are heavily overlooked by leaving no room for variation (Deumert & Vandenbussche, 2003; Milroy, 1999; Milroy, 2001). Despite a lack of general consensus on what standard language is, standard languages are associated with a handful of properties that differentiate them from non-standard languages and varieties. Among them, the most prominent ones are the notions of correctness, authority, prestige, and legitimacy, which are the most salient characteristics of the standardisation process (Bex & Watts, 1999; Gal, 2006; Milroy, 2001, 2007; Milroy & Milroy, 2012).

At the core of the notion of authority is the question of who enforces the language rules on anyone else and makes decisions on the best and correct language use (Milroy, 2007). In this context, Gal (2006) and Wolfram and Schilling-Estes (2006) pointed at grammar books, usage books, dictionaries, and institutions like language academies as the primary sources of authority and correctness. Through the notions of authority and correctness, standard languages/varieties are claimed to be protected and sustained (Milroy, 2007). Through the agency of the educational tools mentioned above (e.g. grammar and usage books, dictionaries, etc.), language users are instilled with a respect

and an appreciation towards standard languages and varieties. In the meantime, innovative features deviating from the standard language forms are not permitted into language (Woolard, 1998).

As distinct from the notions of authority and correctness, the concept of prestige does not directly relate to a particular language or variety. Rather, it is viewed as a social category attached to a particular group of speakers or some of its members due to their perceived higher social status (Milroy, 2007; Milroy & Milroy, 2012). On the other hand, according to the notion of legitimacy, common sense presumes that some forms (i.e. the standard forms) of a particular language become legitimate, whereas other forms deviating from the standard are construed as illegitimate (Milroy, 1999). Consequently, deviant forms are viewed “as non-standard or even sub-standard” (Milroy, 2007, p. 137).

### **3.4.2 Standard language ideology and English**

Concerning English, one preeminent version of standard language ideology shaping speakers’ evaluations of their language performance is StE language ideology. According to this ideology, all users of English (NESs and NNESs) regardless of their sociocultural and linguistic backgrounds are required to use NES norms in their language use (Cogo, 2010). Among the proponents of this ideology, Quirk (1990) regarded NNESs’ variant uses of English as a problem, as they are, he argued, “inherently unstable” and therefore show divergences from the so-called StE (p. 100). StE is portrayed as the most significant variety being widely used in writing and printing (Bex & Watts, 1999; Milroy, 1999).

Moreover, this kind of English is strongly associated with a prestigious group, i.e. educated speakers of English as a first language<sup>8</sup> (see Davies, 2013; Milroy, 2001, 2007; Trudgill, 1999). Finally, it is propagated as the ideal prestige variety for NNESs to learn in schools, most preferably with NESs as the ideal teachers (Bex & Watts, 1999;

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<sup>8</sup> StE is often linked to the notion of native English and also used as a synonym for it. It is for this reason that I sometimes insert the word ‘native’ after ‘standard’ (i.e. standard native English) throughout the dissertation when I feel these two terms seem to be conflated in the language policies and in the words of my participants. However, I use these two terms separately as StE and native English wherever my participants distinguish them in their comments on their English skills, practices and language policies. As will be seen in the analysis chapters, StE is often associated uniquely with the notions of correctness and linguistic accuracy and native English with unmarked accent and pronunciation.

Pullum, 2004). Some scholars even postulated that learning StE will yield social and financial returns to NNEs, such as being wealthy and acquiring high prestige in the society (e.g. Honey, 1997), while others regarded such statements as “sociological naivete”, rejecting the idea that StE will bring all sorts of benefits to its users (Pennycook, 2001, p. 42). Such ideologies are entrenched and enforced on NNEs through language learning materials, such as codified handbooks, grammar books, dictionaries, textbooks, and other reference materials used in educational institutions, to all of which individuals are exposed at the very onset of their English learning process (Bex & Watts, 1999; Gal, 2006; Jenkins, 2007; Pilkinton-Pihko, 2010, 2013; Tomlinson, 2005). Shohamy (2006) also made reference to such teaching materials in her discussion of language education policy, arguing that through these policy devices, the hidden policy ideology is translated into practice.

Such representations of the English language under the guise of StE have been subject to harsh criticisms by some sociolinguists. The leading criticism is on the misconception of the nature of language by advocates of StE language ideology, for language is misrepresented as an entity being totally homogeneous, uniform, and invariant. However, a conception of this kind entirely comes into conflict with the true nature of language, which is inherently fluid, dynamic, unstable and variant, and under constant negotiation most particularly in intercultural encounters (Baker, 2009, 2015; Jenkins, Cogo & Dewey, 2011; Milroy, 1999, 2001; Weil, 2011), but less so in the first language community.

One further criticism concerns the extent to which the variety called StE can be successfully attained by users and learners of English considering all the efforts and time they spend on it. Furthermore, the relevance of StE for intercultural communication in settings where English is not the mother tongue for most speakers is in question. In this regard, scholars such as Mauranen (2003), Tomlinson (2004) and Hall (2014) held StE to be an irrelevant, unachievable, and unattainable variety, usually overcharged by linguistic market, educational systems, and stakeholders such as teachers and testers in order to promote StE amongst learners as well as users.

### **3.4.3 Native speaker ideology and English**

The notion of native speaker cannot be captured as free of ideological baggage, since “it envisions and enacts ties of language to identity, aesthetics, morality, and epistemology”



(Doerr, 2009, p. 18). Perceptions of native speakers, at first glance, evoke similar ideological images to what has been already discussed in connection with StE language ideology. However, despite overlapping with each other at many points, ideologies of native speakers are not only concerned with language, but also with who speaks that language, and how these speakers are conceived by other speakers, for whom the language is not the mother tongue.

Regarding the ideologies reflected on the concept of native speaker, Doerr (2009), citing from Pennycook (1994), maintained that three language ideologies of native speakers have come to foreground. The first is the ideology that being a citizen of a nation-state is intimately equated with as being a native speaker of the national language that nation-state speaks (see Davies, 2013, for a similar argument). The second one is based on the assumption that language is a uniform and stable entity possessed by a homogeneous speech community. As such, a sharp and straight line of distinction is drawn between being a native speaker and not being one. The final ideology views a native speaker as the expert on the language, with a high degree of capability in all areas of language. The ideology implied here is that the language competences and performance of NESs are present at birth, and are superior to those of NNEs, who are not true-born speakers of the language. Ideologies of native speakers discussed here have close parallels with Woolard's (2005) ideology of authenticity in which authentic voice is represented by members of a particular speech community, i.e. native speakers of that particular speech community (i.e. NESs in my case). Of the three ideologies mentioned above, the last two, i.e. the second and the third ones, concern me more once it comes to the users of English in EMI universities.

The historical roots of ideologies of NESs, notably the second and third one mentioned above, can be seen, more obviously, in the ELT profession, and among its stakeholders such as teachers, publishers, and students. Holliday (2006) argued that the ideology of native-speakerism still remains pervasive within the ELT profession where NESs "are lauded as the best teachers of EIL [English as an International Language] and given priority in the job markets" (Jenkins, 2004, para. 6). Likewise, it is a common tendency among students to refer to NESs as the sole model for correct English usage (Seidlhofer, 2005). As such, many NNEs (e.g. teachers and learners along with academics) are imparted with this ideology of superiority of NESs in teaching. As a natural consequence, NNEs tend to aspire much to imitate native-like use of English (e.g. their

pronunciation, linguistic norms). Although this ideology has largely surfaced in research carried out by people involved in ELT (Friedrich, 2003; Jenkins, 2007; Sherman & Siegllová, 2011), it has been found to have influenced the users of English (non-linguists), as indicated in the preceding chapter with lecturers and students who attempted to sound like NESs in their speech, and preferred NES lecturers for teaching content courses (see Doiz et al., 2011; Inbar-Lourie & Donitsa-Schmidt, 2013; Suviniitty, 2007).

Challenging the ideology of native-speakerism, researchers in ELF and intercultural communication take a very different position about the use of English, though. Baker (2011), for example, contended that what users of English need for effective communication is not the skills of NESs or conformity to their norms, but “the skills of multilingual communicators” who are able to “make use of linguistic and other communicative resources in the negotiating of meaning, roles, and relationships in the diverse sociocultural settings of intercultural communication through English” (p. 63).

#### **3.4.4 Ownership of English**

Assumptions on the linguistic ownership of a language may well fit into Pennycook’s (1994) first proposed ideology of native-speakers, in which being a member of a particular nation-state from birth amounts to being a native speaker of the language spoken by this nation. Concepts such as native speaker and its related terms (e.g. first language, a specific speech community) are also subsumed in the notion of ownership (O’Rourke, 2011). Actually, what stands out here is an ill-formed perception at work to depict the NESs as the sole authority to claim ownership over the language. Ideological conceptions of this kind have been well-illustrated by researchers in recent studies. For instance, O’Rourke (2011) found that non-native Irish students studying in Ireland viewed their native Irish classmates as the “owner and guardian of the ‘true’ language” (pp. 327-328). This and similar conceptions of ownership, as Blommaert (2006b) asserted, have the effect of shaping the way people conduct their communicative acts.

According to the supporters of the ownership of English by its native speakers, anyone speaking it from birth is the *de facto* owner of the language. The advocates of this ideological view, not surprisingly, primarily comprise those supporting StE for language use. However, evidence suggests that those who act in accordance with this ideology are mainly NNEs (e.g. language teachers, learners and users; see e.g. Liou,

2010; Matsuda, 2003; Öztürk, Çecen & Altınmakas, 2009; Sifakis & Sougari, 2005). In regards to learners and teachers, several studies have corroborated the prevalence of the above ideological views in their findings. For example, a study on high school students' perceptions of English in Japan showed that they considered English as the property of Americans and Britons, with uncertainties about its world-wide ownership (Matsuda, 2003; see also Liou, 2010). Analogous perceptions have been widespread among language teachers, too. For instance, Turkish teachers of English were found to consider that English belongs to the UK and the USA due to historical, socio-economic, and political reasons (Öztürk, Çecen, & Altınmakas, 2009). Similar findings among teachers working at different levels have been revealed in other contexts as well, such as in Greece with primary, lower, and upper secondary school teachers (Sifakis & Sougari, 2005), in Indonesia with tertiary teachers (Zacharias, 2005), and in Taiwan with college teachers (Liou, 2010).

Widdowson (1994) argued, however, that "...standard English is no longer the preserve of a group of people [i.e. the British] living in an offshore European island, or even of larger groups [i.e. Americans] living in continents elsewhere" (p. 382). One reason for that is attributed to the shift in the status of English from being a national language to an international and global one as the lingua franca of the 21st century. Some other researchers made similar remarks on this issue, arguing that "English is an international language and as such no longer the preserve of its native speakers" (Jenkins & Seidlhofer, 2001, para. 18). In the late 1970s, concerning the features of an international language, Smith (2015)<sup>9</sup> asserted that "[n]o longer should we feel that it belongs to someone else" (p. 164). According to this view, any speakers of English are, therefore, entitled to claim ownership of English, as it is no longer the English as is conventionally known, but "a *lingua nullius*", i.e. language belonging to no-one (Phillipson, 2015, p. 23) and used merely within the national borders of the western English-speaking nations (Jenkins, 2004; Phan, 2015; Shohamy, 2013; Wang, 2015b).

Recently, positive changes in attitudes and opinions have been reported in Europe about the matter of ownership, particularly among younger multilingual English users, language teachers, and learners with language experiences in lingua franca

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<sup>9</sup> This article was originally published in 1976, yet the current quote comes from its republished version in JELF (*Journal of English as a Lingua Franca*). The original citation is as follows: Smith, L. E. (1976). English as an international auxiliary language. *RELC Journal*, 7(2), 38-42.

communication (e.g. Cogo, 2010, 2012; Erling, 2007; Kalocsai, 2009; Ranta, 2010). Results have revealed that they have become more attentive to effective communication instead of making efforts to conform to a particular variety of English and its linguistic norms. They use English more with NNEs, and in their own ways, simply are creative, maintain intelligibility, have fun, and feel a sense of ownership, often with few or no communication breakdowns.

### **3.5 Attitudes to English among non-native users**

The above discussion has shown that language teachers' and learners' attitudes towards English, speakers of English, and their English skills have been the object of much research to date. However, research studies which consider the influences of language ideologies on speakers' attitudes towards English are limited. In what follows below, I will discuss the findings of the relevant studies carried out in a variety of contexts. I have divided the studies to be discussed in the following section into two parts with the aim of comparing users' attitudes in sectors such as service and business with those of users in the HE sector in particular. This way, it becomes possible to see how far users in HE and other sectors hold similar or different attitudes towards English, its speakers, and their own language abilities.

#### **3.5.1 English users' attitudes in service and business sectors**

As a result of the spread of English in various domains as the main language of communication, researchers have become seriously interested in understanding people's attitudes in order to understand their linguistic orientations both at perceptual and behavioural levels. For instance, in Taiwan, A. W. Lee (2012) investigated 38 people's attitudes in service sectors towards English. She found that they all deemed English as indispensable. Their perceptions of NNEs' use of English and the concept of ownership appeared to remain under the influence of StE language ideology in the sense that they denied ownership of English by NNEs. Moreover, the researcher indicated that people wished to have native-like pronunciation in their spoken language, and believed that achieving near-native-like pronunciation would gain them more privileged social status. In all, according to people's perceptions in the service sector, what constituted 'a good English user' was a close approximation of proficiency to that of NNEs, particularly in pronunciation. This indicates that the traditional assumption for

good English still pervades among this group of people (see Jenkins, 2007; Mauranen, Hynninen, & Ranta, 2010; Mauranen, 2012).

Another domain where users' attitudes towards English have been studied is the business sector. Much research has been done in this specific domain. For instance, Kankaanranta and Louhiala-Salminen (2010) examined business professionals' attitudes towards communication in English by surveying 981 people from 31 language backgrounds, and interviewing 15 Finnish businessmen based in five globally-networked companies. They found that business people considered knowledge of standard grammar rules less significant in business contexts, stating that communication is smoother when the parties share the topic and knowledge of particular genres related to their business areas (i.e. business competence). That is, "the focus is on getting the job done" rather than achieving competence of NESs (p. 207). Business professionals also found it difficult to communicate with NESs and talked of them as teachers in the case of contact situations. This study provides evidence that the presence of NESs around informants has influenced their language attitudes, and brought back memories of their school days. Above all, some reported to expect NES colleagues to correct their language usage as though they were language teachers.

Similar findings have been reported with business people elsewhere. For instance, Kitazawa (2013) found that her East Asian participants from the business sector were less concerned with achieving native-like competence but more with handling communication for their business goals. It is because, she further explained, business people believed that achieving mutual business communication does not only occur through language, but shared knowledge of content of communication is also necessary.

Other research has likewise looked at the use of English in international business contexts, sampling 34 multilingual and 9 NES business professionals, all based in a European business enterprise (Rogerson-Revell, 2007). The interview results showed that the business people tended to modify their speech in order to be more intelligible in interactions. Particularly, NESs avoided jargon, idioms, and slang. However, people's perceptions of NESs and NNEs in communication were indecisive, for some considered NESs to be easier to understand while others did not. There was a consensus on the varieties which were perceived as more difficult and easier to understand: BrE and AmE along with some European Englishes such as German and Dutch English were

said to be easy, while non-standard varieties of English and some non-native accents such as southern European were labelled as “heavy regional”, “uneducated accents” or even “non-articulated English” (p. 116). As distinct from the findings of Kankaanranta and Louhiala-Salminen (2010), the business people in this research appeared to be infiltrated with StE language ideology, despite their efforts for accommodation in their language practices. In view of the results, one can surmise that the people seemed to construct hierarchies of varieties and accents of English for intelligibility, prioritizing native varieties, and more specifically native English accents over non-standard ones (see also Jenkins, 2007; H. Lee, 2012; Lippi-Green, 2012).

Likewise but in a different context of Germany, research on the attitudes of a group of business managers in a multilingual company yielded parallel results to those of Rogerson-Revell (2007) and Kankaanranta and Louhiala-Salminen (2010) on the grounds that business executives had a pragmatic view of English use without being bothered with linguistic issues (Ehrenreich, 2010). The managers placed much emphasis on communicative efficiency, and therefore the notion of appropriateness was judged against efficiency unlike the conventional notions of appropriateness judged against the yardstick of NESs’ performance. However, regarding the matter of intelligibility, a hierarchical classification of speakers emerged among managers contacting various speakers of English. In contrast to what Rogerson-Revell (2007) found, native English varieties were also said to be difficult to comprehend by some managers (Ehrenreich, 2010).

### **3.5.2 English users’ attitudes in academia**

Besides exploring people’s attitudes in sectors like business and service, researchers have recently studied users’ attitudes in the HE sector in many countries where universities offer partial or full EMI courses. For instance, in Sweden, Björkman (2008b, 2009) explored non-English major students’ attitudes towards spoken English of lecturers and students at a technical EMI university. Analyses of the data collected from 63 speakers through voice recordings showed that engineering students paid more attention to successful communication rather than the standard linguistic forms of English (e.g. morphological and syntactical). This resonates with the findings of another study that investigated a highly diverse student group’s interaction enrolled at a hotel management program in Austria (Smit, 2007). Students in Smit’s (2007) study were

found to place more emphasis on interactional success rather than linguistic correctness, similar to the findings of Kankaanranta and Louhiala-Salminen (2010) with business executives. However, Björkman's (2008b, 2009) informants showed strong reaction to heavily-accented non-native English speech, as found also by Inbar-Lourie and Donitsa-Schmidt (2013) in Finland and Sercu (2004) in the Netherlands. To me, this suggests a double-standard impact of StE language ideology in that deviations in the use of grammatical forms were welcomed, but divergences from native English accents were unwelcomed. These findings also endorse Jenkins' (2007) argument that "accent is frequently the item that NNSs single out when they criticize their own or others' NNS English" (p. 59). Such findings indicate students' strong orientation to native-like English speech, too. However, the aforementioned studies largely neglected students' attitudes towards written English.

Having explored the perceptions of three NNEs lecturers of engineering towards their own language proficiency in a Finnish EMI university, Pilkinton-Pihko (2010) found that lecturers did not strictly adhere to native English norms as with business people in Kankaanranta and Louhiala-Salminen's (2010) study. Lecturers were more concerned about using English to clearly communicate ideas to their students. However, two types of language ideologies surfaced when lecturers assessed their language proficiency for academic and non-academic purposes: StE language ideology and English as 'other', that is, English used by other NNEs users (see Jenkins, 2007). Their perceptions changed based on the benchmark of comparison: when lecturers compared themselves with NESs, their perceptions were fairly low; however, when the reference point moved to NNEs, they were more satisfied with their language abilities. However, as Pilkinton-Pihko's (2010) study was confined to only three lecturers, it is difficult to generalize the findings to other lecturers in different contexts.

Similarly, research on Taiwanese university students' attitudes towards Taiwanese users' English indicated that almost half of the students were aware of a wide range of non-native English accents around the world (H. Lee, 2012). However, the researcher identified a three-layer hierarchy in their attitudes consisting respectively of AmE and BrE, other native English varieties (e.g. Canadian and Australian English), and non-native varieties of English. H. Lee's (2012) analyses mirrored and corroborated Björkman's (2008b, 2009) and Smit's (2007) findings that non-English majors showed less interest in native English norms in the language production than their English-major

counterparts. H. Lee (2012) suggested that the differences in attitudes between English-major and non-English major students may result from their previous learning experiences, and future expectations, such as being exposed to different curricula, coming from different English learning environments and having different future career resolutions. Hierarchical ranking of varieties of English exhibits how deeply the students were embedded in StE language ideology and superiority of NESs over other speakers.

Also, researchers scrutinised what lecturers thought about using English instead of local language(s) in HE around the world. For example, with a large scale survey of 1,131 non-English major lecturers' attitudes towards increasing use of English in Danish HE, Jensen and Thøgersen (2011) demonstrated that younger lecturers and lecturers with a higher load of teaching in English favoured the increase of EMI. In terms of evaluation of their own English skills, lecturers' perceptions were fairly high and positive. In addition, there were no criticisms among lecturers levelled against each other's English skills, which contrasts Björkman's (2008b, 2009) findings with students who heavily voiced their discontent at speakers whose speech was characterized by strong non-native English accent. However, Pilkinton-Pihko's (2010) results were partially in line with Jensen and Thøgersen's (2011) in the sense that lecturers in Pilkinton-Pihko's (2010) research were pleased with their English skills when their English skills were compared with the skills of other NNEs. Unlike Pilkinton-Pihko's (2010) findings, Jensen and Thøgersen (2011) did not spot any sign of ideologies guiding Danish lecturers' perceptions.

Likewise, in a different research setting, in Bangladesh, Al Mamun, Rahman, Rahman, and Hossain (2012) surveyed 79 undergraduate students from 7 non-English disciplines in order to explore their attitudes towards English in an EMI university. The findings showed that students expressed positive attitudes towards English, were aware of the global status of English, and thought of English speakers as more educated and prestigious. In an earlier large scale study in Kuwait University, Malallah (2000) conducted research with 409 undergraduates from 3 faculties, two of which (i.e. college of arts and sharia and Islamic studies) are run in Arabic and one (i.e. college of science) in EMI. Having examined their attitudes towards the English language and NESs, he found that English was highly favourable, and NESs were noted to have high prestige, better education, and superior intelligence. Furthermore, students felt more educated



when speaking English, and thus desired to meet NESs for interaction. It is axiomatic that both in this research and Al Mamun et al. (2012), the impact of StE language ideology on students' attitudes is rather profound in that NESs were tagged with high prestige, better education, and good manner in tune with the prestige aspect of standard language ideology in which a particular group of people are credited with higher social status (Milroy, 2007; Milroy & Milroy, 2012). The results obtained by Al Mamun et al. (2012) and Malallah (2000) echoed the findings of A.W. Lee (2012) whose participants from the service sector considered that achieving native-like pronunciation would gain them a more privileged status among other speakers devoid of native-like pronunciation.

In a Nordic context, Finland, ambiguity of perceptions of English and ambivalent attitudes towards English language use emerged among 13 students from a variety of language backgrounds in an EMI university (Hynninen, 2010). In contrast to students in Al Mamun et al.'s (2012) study and Malallah's study (2000), this multilingual group of Hynninen (2010) took a pragmatic view in their language use, believing that English is a vehicle for them that may be adjusted, if need be, for the purposes of effective communication. As to the perceptions of English, however, they inclined to view English under the influence of StE language ideology and native speaker ideology in that they regarded native English as natural and fluent. Moreover, acting in accordance with the ideology of authenticity (Woolard, 2005), they held the view that the 'real' English they would like to speak is possessed by NESs, and that they are the best linguistic model for language improvement. The word 'real' is unquestionably a euphemism for native English, being envisaged in their minds as a result of the strongly held StE language ideology (see Jenkins, 2007). Although for these students English was not the object of study, but a means to an end, namely to learn subject content and to communicate with their classmates and lecturers, their perceptions seemed "to draw on previously acquired notions of language" such as naturalness and correctness of ENL (Hynninen, 2010, p. 40). Therefore, as with people who denied ownership of English by NNESs in the Taiwanese context (A. W. Lee, 2012), students in Hynninen's (2010) research were also against the idea that NNESs might claim ownership of English. Even worse, these students degraded NNESs as incompetent language users. In short, Hynninen's (2010) findings revealed an inconsistency between students' conception of English and their language practices in actual communication, and the underlying

reason for this ambivalence was concluded to originate from prior learning experiences in EFL classes (see Preisler, 2008, for a similar argument).

Apart from studies investigating undergraduates' attitudes towards English, researchers explored post-graduate non-English major students' attitudes towards English. For example, in Finland, Suviniitty (2009) investigated master students' attitudes towards their own English skills and their lecturers' skills. The majority of their lecturers were NNEs (i.e. Finnish lecturers) while a small number of them were NEs, and students were from 17 different language backgrounds. The results revealed that students evaluated their lecturers' English positively as either *good* or *excellent*, and on the other hand, regarded their own English skills as worse than that of the lecturers. This deficient perception of their English capabilities in comparison to their lecturers' English capabilities suggests that even the low presence of NEs among the faculty might influence students' attitudes by evoking representations of the superiority of NEs.

The above review shows that some researchers have started to consider the notion of language ideologies in their investigations as a factor which might guide their participants' attitudes. It has become clear that some users of English in both academia and business have welcomed the diversity and appreciated their own language use, paying more attention to successful communication than linguistic correctness via adjusting their speech, as Cogo (2012) pointed out. Therefore, one can infer that there are attitudinal differences between "language-focused speakers of English" (e.g. language teachers, students, linguists) and "content-focused speakers of English" (e.g. non-language-major lecturers, students, business people; Ehrenreich, 2010, p. 127). However, the overall results suggest that language ideologies (e.g. StE language ideology, native English superiority, authenticity etc.) rekindled by NNEs' memories of past school years have led content-focused users of English to have ambivalent and usually depreciatory attitudes towards their own English skills, and those of their interlocutors.

One further point is that mentalist theories of attitudes generally underlay the reviewed studies, drawing on either quantitative or qualitative data elicitation tools, and ignoring the fact that language attitudes may also be constructed and reconstructed in the course of interaction, and shaped by the elements in the larger social context (Liebscher & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009). In relation to my context of enquiry (EMI universities), the social

context and its properties (e.g. diverse student body, language policies, and various academic activities, etc.) are the leading factors that might shape users' attitudes. The role of social context and its properties has not been considered in the studies discussed above, particularly in those conducted in EMI universities and programs (see also section 2.6.1). This gap also shows adequate ground for initiating this study at hand, and the need to consider the role of language ideologies in the formation and negotiation of language attitudes, and the role of the context of interaction in the construction of attitudes.

### **3.5.3 Attitudes towards English in Turkey**

In Turkey, on the topic of my study, previous research has looked at two separate issues: firstly, which kind of English to teach and learn and the kind of English Turkish users prefer in their language practices and secondly, attitudes towards English as the language of instruction in academic disciplines. To start with, researchers have felt motivated to undertake attitudinal studies towards English with a great desire and enthusiasm as a consequence of growing importance which has been attached to English since the second half of the 1980s. The research conducted to date has covered more or less the specific categories of language attitude research established by Baker (1992) and Schiffman (1997).

Although the literature on attitude research in Turkey is fairly large, I will limit my review to studies which have more relevance to the scope of this project. For example, studies have been conducted to investigate students' attitudes towards learning English (e.g. Kızıltepe, 2000; Elkılıç & Akça, 2008), towards the English language and the use of English in the Turkish context (e.g. Karahan, 2007), towards English and English speaking societies at a tertiary level (e.g. Üzümlü, 2007), towards teaching English at high school (e.g. Bağçeci, 2005), and towards English at preparatory schools (e.g. Şeker, 2003). Additionally, researchers have probed parental attitudes towards English education at the kindergarten level (Tavil, 2009) and attitudes of the general public towards English (Büyükkantarcıoğlu, 2004). All these studies, with small exceptions, obtained more or less similar results which could be outlined as follows: students, notwithstanding their educational level, and parents held favourable attitudes towards English and learning English, and students mostly expressed their wish to have more fluent and native-like English skills. The pragmatic and utilitarian value of English was

well recognized by learners and parents with positive attitudes, but there was a mild rejection to its being the medium of instruction in schools, particularly at the secondary level. Students, for instance, preferred English to be an elective course rather than to be the sole medium of education (see Gürtler & Kronewald, 2015 for similar results with German lecturers).

Relating to the in-service and prospective teachers of English, a multitude of attitudinal studies has been also conducted. For instance, research has explored teachers' and trainee teachers' attitudes towards the growth of English as a global language (Bayyurt, 2008, 2009), English language teachers' perceptions of the new role of English (Öztürk et al., 2009), pre-service teachers' attitudes towards teaching pronunciation (Coşkun, 2011), and pre-service teachers' attitudes towards native and non-native varieties of English (Genç, 2012). Overall, the findings indicated that both in- and pre-service teachers were aware of the current place of English in the abstract, but they were reluctant to accept divergences in the use of English in practice, considering that the correct model for pronunciation is the NES model and native English varieties are thus more favourable than NNEs varieties (see Grau, 2005; Murray, 2003 for theory/practice divide in attitudes). As with other language teachers, prospective teachers, and students (e.g. in Decke-Cornill, 2002; Jenkins, 2007; Murray, 2003; Timmis, 2002), the influence of language ideologies on Turkish teachers and students has been relatively strong.

The second issue concerning the Turkish context deals with EMI from the stakeholders' (i.e. lecturers and students) viewpoints in HE. For more than a decade, there has been a growing interest in the investigation of the impacts of internationalization of HE, particularly on language aspects in Turkey. Researchers have mainly investigated the views of stakeholders on EMI. Mainly, they looked at attitudes of university lecturers (e.g. Başibek et al., 2014; Collins, 2010; Kılıçkaya, 2006; Ölçü & Eröz-Tuğa, 2013; Saka, 2009; Sert, 2008; Somer, 2001), attitudes of students from various disciplines and universities (Collins, 2010; Çiftçi & Deniz, 2010; Erdemir, 2013; Kavanoz & Yüksel, 2010; Kırkgöz, 2005), attitudes of parents, students and teachers (Tarhan, 2003), and attitudes of engineers (İlter, 2009) towards instruction in foreign language. Turkish researchers' attitudes towards publishing in English were also explored (Demirel, 2012). Overall, positive attitudes were adopted by lecturers, students, parents, and engineers towards EMI. Further, researchers were found to show strong preference for publishing

in English due to the prestige attached to English publications. However, there was a small group of opposing voices against EMI among some Turkish lecturers due to pedagogical and cultural concerns. Again, this line of research was similar to those in the European contexts (see Airey, 2011; Doiz et al., 2011; Hirvensalo, 2012) in that it was fairly pedagogically-oriented rather than focusing on the linguistic dimension, as discussed previously regarding the EMI research (see section 2.6.3).

As the above review shows, there is still scant research on users' attitudes towards English in the light of language ideologies, specifically when it is used for studying content courses and as a means of daily intercultural communication. Furthermore, to my best knowledge, to date no research has been initiated in Turkey in order to explore how students and lecturers orient to English and their language practices in EMI contexts. Thus, there is a need for further research that will grapple with these concerns and seldom-examined attitudes of users in Turkish HE, and accordingly contribute to knowledge and understanding. The above studies are mostly grounded in traditional theories of attitudes, presuming that attitudes are learned entities, and thus can be elicited through direct and indirect methods such as by way of questionnaires and one-to-one interviews. However, it is short-sighted to think of attitudes as exclusively learned entities because attitudes towards English might be shaped by macro contextual factors and so be treated as "appraisals conveyed in a particular context" while people are engaged in interaction (Giles & Billings, 2004, p. 201; Dörnyei, & Csizér, 2002). In addition, much of the above research has not paid attention to the possibility that strong ideological positions and beliefs may potentially influence language attitudes.

### **3.6 Summary and conclusion**

This chapter provided a summary of the key themes and relevant research based on the analyses of the related literature. First of all, I introduced a general overview of the concept of attitude and theories of attitudes along with the classification of previous language attitudes studies so as to see where this research is situated within language attitudes research. Following the discussion of language attitudes, I presented the rationale for mapping language attitudes onto language ideologies, underlining the significance of language ideologies in the formation and negotiation of attitudes. I also argued that the conventional language attitudes framework would be inadequate alone in dealing with the larger socio-political context where attitudes are formed, shaped, and

displayed (e.g. Devos, 2008; Edwards, 1999; Giles & Billings, 2004). I further reviewed language ideologies as a field of inquiry and looked at different views on their conception, narrowing down the focus on English in particular. Although the literature on language ideologies is vast, only the most pertinent language ideologies to English were allocated space for discussion based on the results of previous language ideology and attitude studies. The discussion has shown how language ideologies have played a prominent role in the formation of language-focused speakers' (e.g. language teachers, students, linguists) attitudes towards English, speakers of English, and varieties of English in a large number of contexts.

Having identified that the influence of language ideologies on users' attitudes towards English has remained largely unexplored, I examined a line of studies on users' attitudes from different domains, but especially from HE. Overall, the findings of previous studies indicated that users of English from the domains of academia and business have sought to engage in successful communication rather than to make efforts to use English as NESs do. However, it emerged that the users in HE tended to be slightly more native English-oriented than the users in the business and service sector. To me, this distinction probably results from the educational policies of institutions as they use a range of policy devices to put their ideologies into practice (Shohamy, 2006). However, none of the studies have attempted to consider the potential impacts of the policy mechanisms on users' attitudes in HE.

In the final section of the chapter, I reviewed relevant language attitudes research in Turkey to see to what extent previous research addressed similar matters. In doing so, I noticed that albeit there is substantial research on language attitudes towards English, there seems to be still a gap in language attitude research on English when it is the medium of instruction and means for daily communication on campus, and when its use is regulated by academic language policies. This review of the study context served to provide background knowledge as regards the study setting and seeing what has been done so far. Through this review, it appears from research to date that Turkish language teachers', students', and their parents' attitudes towards English have been shaped by the dominant ideologies. It nevertheless remains to be seen how users in HE think about English and speakers of English and their English skills, as well as what factors affect their perceptions.



## **CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

### **4.1 Introduction**

The previous chapters (Chapters 2 & 3) reviewed the literature on EMI related issues, and research on perceptions relating to language skills as well as users' attitudes towards English, towards speakers of English including both NESs and NNEs, and towards their own language abilities together with language ideologies on certain occasions. This chapter describes the methodology of the present research, and gives explanations as to why the preferred design has been applied for answering the research questions under investigation. The chapter, first, discusses the methods previously used in language attitude and ideology research and outlines the aims, objectives and research questions of the study, and then continues with a discussion of the research design adopted to explore Turkish lecturers' and students' perceptions of English in EMI programs. It then moves on to a more detailed description and explanation of the participants and their selection, data collection tools employed, along with the matters regarding the reliability and validity of these tools. Then, the chapter provides an overall account of ethical considerations.

### **4.2 Methods of previous language attitude and ideology research**

Overall, researchers have tended to rely on two essential approaches in language attitude research: direct and indirect approaches. Within each approach, researchers can employ a number of methods for measuring attitudes in compliance with the aims and nature of their research. Considering the purposes and nature of my research, I am convinced that the direct approach will better answer my research questions for the reasons to be discussed hereunder.

A study taking the direct approach to studying people's attitudes attempts to encourage people "to articulate explicitly what their attitudes are to various language phenomena" (Garrett, 2010, p. 39), and these phenomena can be anything related to language. In brief, researchers using the direct approach to elicit attitudinal data directly ask a set of questions to respondents (Garrett, 2005; McKenzie, 2010) so that their responses can be used as self-reports of their beliefs, feelings, and behaviours regarding an attitude object. In this approach, surveys, particularly questionnaires and different types of interviews, are the most frequently used methods as thoroughly documented in



researchers' extensive reviews of past language attitude research (e.g. Baker, 1992; Garrett, 2010; McKenzie, 2006, 2010).

One distinct advantage of the direct approach is that it is individuals who are invited to express their attitudes in a direct manner, be it orally or written (Garrett, 2005). The researcher's task is thus to rely on people's self-reported accounts to be able to gauge their attitudes. Such an approach is useful in two respects: firstly, it contributes to the objectivity of the measurement because the researchers establish their elicitation of attitudes on individuals' own responses instead of their own subjective inferences by monitoring their behaviours (McLeod, 2009). Secondly, it avoids some ethical issues such as deception of the research participants, for they are made aware by researchers in advance that their attitudes are being sought. It is probably for these reasons that a large number of researchers having studied EMI for attitudinal or ideological research have used the direct approaches (e.g. Airey, 2011; Botha, 2014; Byun et al., 2010; Kılıçkaya, 2006; Kırkgöz, 2009; Tange, 2010).

Although several methods for researching language attitudes have been in use, no specific methods have been proposed by scholars for studying language ideologies as yet. This comes, at first, as a surprise given that much has been said and written about language ideologies since the late 70s by researchers from the fields of linguistics, anthropology, and social sciences (e.g. Gal, 2006; Makihara & Schieffelin, 2007; Silverstein, 1979; Woolard, 1998). Scholars also unanimously concur that the concept of language ideologies (beliefs) constitutes one of the components of language policy along with language management and language practices (e.g. Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997; Spolsky, 2004).

Interestingly enough, neither theorists nor language policy researchers have written or said much about the ways of uncovering people's language ideologies. As such, I looked through the previous studies on language ideologies with the intention of precisely pinpointing what methods and how they have been used until now. A thorough review of the literature shows that the common practice among many language ideology researchers has been to resort to methods of language attitude research, particularly the direct approach methods such as different forms of interviews or survey questionnaires or, both in combination (e.g. A. W. Lee 2012; Abongdia, 2009; Dyers & Abondia, 2010; Pilkinton-Pihko, 2010). Garrett (2010) also drew attention to the lack of

unique methodological approaches to identifying language ideologies. As a solution to this gap, he suggested that methods of language attitude research can be used to study language ideologies. He explicated this gap as follows:

Research into language ideologies is not linked to any specific methodological tradition, although critical discourse analytic procedures constitute one approach within sociolinguistics. Language attitudes research can arguably be seen, though, as one set of methodological options for studying language ideologies (p. 35).

Following what researchers previously did and Garrett's (2010) suggestion, I have also applied some methods of language attitudes research in an effort to identify the language ideologies underlying Turkish lecturers' and students' perceptions about English, their language abilities, language use, and their institutions' English language policies and practices.

#### **4.3 Research aims, objectives and questions**

As seen in the preceding chapters (2.6 and 3.5), there has been a recent and intense interest among researchers to explore issues such as perceptions of students' and lecturers' language use and ability in the contexts of EMI institutions. Research has also demonstrated that the study of academic English language policies has made its way into literature as of late (e.g. Jenkins, 2014; Kuteeva, 2014; Saarinen & Nikula, 2013), and the findings from these preliminary studies call for further investigation of the potential effects of native English-oriented academic language policies on users' linguistic acts and orientation to English. Principally, the scarcity of empirical research on what language ideologies guide users' perceptions of English has provided another vindication for undertaking this current study.

Among the literature on EMI, Pilkinton-Pihko's (2010) research is the one that bears the closest resemblance to my research in terms of its scope and aims, despite its being relatively small-scale and limited in methodological aspects. As I see it, my research continues and extends her exploratory research on perceptions of English and the language ideologies involved in the formation of the perceptions. However, I also consider the potential influences of language policies on individuals' perceptions and language use, being to a large extent inspired by Jenkins' (2014) and partly by Saarinen's and Nikula's (2013) observations regarding the English language policies in

EMI universities and their effects on staff and students language-wise. In short, this research has the following principal aims:

- 1) to explore how Turkish lecturers and students perceive English by considering their views about their own and others' English, their experiences of language use, and their institutions' English language policies and practices
- 2) to find out the language ideologies shaping their perceptions of English and attitudes towards their skills, language use and the English language policies and practices at their universities, and explore the factors leading to the formation of these ideologies

Before sketching the research objectives of this study, it is imperative to distinguish research aims and objectives from each other. Although these two terms are used interchangeably with each other, they are differentiated with small nuances in scholarly writing. For instance, Lankshear and Knobel (2004) referred to a research aim as an overall concept to address the research questions in connection with the research problem, whereas they defined research objectives as the concept “of the more or less specific *tasks* or *components* researchers will undertake in order to fulfil their research aims” (p. 51; italics in original). It can thus be surmised that in research terms, the concept of research aims relates to what the researcher intends to achieve, while the research objectives are concerned with how researchers will realize the established aims. Research objectives might be therefore considered subordinate to research aims. In light of these considerations, the study has the following objectives:

- 1) to ascertain the research environment (setting) within which the study will be conducted;
- 2) to find and recruit suitable participants from whom to generate data;
- 3) to design and use suitable data collection instruments to elicit relevant data from participants;
- 4) to determine and use appropriate methods to analyse the obtained data from the participants; and
- 5) to report reliable findings and objective interpretations in accordance with the research questions posed.

The primary interest of this research, as mentioned before, lies in finding out how users of English in Turkish EMI universities orient to English, and perceive their language skills, practices, and university language policies and practices, and what factors impact

their orientations and perceptions. This interest led me to the current research that sets out to answer the following research questions:

1) How do Turkish lecturers and students perceive English as a medium of instruction in HE?

- a) How do lecturers/students perceive their language abilities and language use?
- b) How do they orient to written and spoken English?
- c) To what extent are there differences in their perceptions across disciplines?
- d) To what extent are their perceptions influenced by taking part in intercultural communication?
- e) To what extent are their perceptions influenced by the language policies of the university?

2) What language attitudes and ideologies are prevalent among these lecturers and students, and what factors are involved in the formation of these ideologies?

#### **4.4 Research design: A mixed methods case study**

A research design consists of “a flexible set of guidelines that connect theoretical paradigms first to strategies of inquiry and second to methods for collecting empirical materials” (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008, pp. 33-34). Likewise, Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) regarded a research design as “a plan of action” which connects “the philosophical assumptions to specific methods” (p. 4). My decision for the research design of this study was made in accordance with the proposition that “‘what’ works to answer the research questions is the most useful approach to the investigation” (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011, p. 23; see Mason, 2006, for a similar argument).

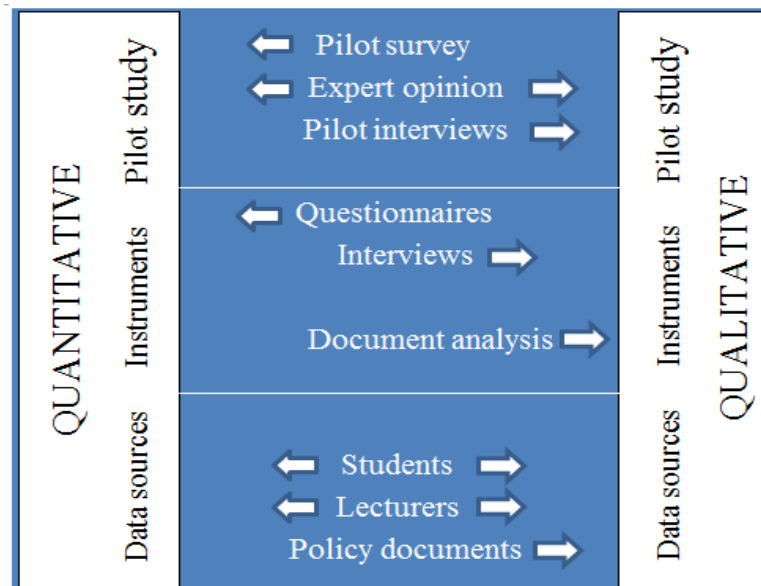
Having carefully reflected on my own research questions, I concluded that the main research questions and sub-questions might not be satisfactorily answered with a single approach. Hence, I decided on a mixed methods research design, also named multi-strategy (Bryman, 2012), which is broadly delineated as mixing data collection methods of both quantitative and qualitative approaches in a single study (Bryman, 2006, 2012; Creswell, 2009; Dörnyei, 2007; Payne, 1994). Besides mixing data collection methods, a mixed method study can include a combination of the “analysis of both quantitative and/or qualitative data” in the frame of one single study (Creswell, Plano Clark, Gurmman, & Hanson, 2003, p. 212).

There is a range of mixed methods research designs which can be adopted by researchers from various disciplines (see Creswell et al., 2003, pp. 216-217, Table 8.1 for an overview). Recently, it has also become common to use hybrid designs in which one type of data can be embedded in another within conventional procedures. This research employs a hybrid design which Luck, Jackson and Usher (2006) called a mixed methods multi-sited case study. It is an embedded mixed methods case study in the sense that I attempt to collect and analyse quantitative and qualitative data to explore a particular case, i.e. EMI in Turkish HE. What makes it multi-sited is the three EMI universities, namely the cases wherein I am interested in exploring the language policies and practices from the perspectives of lecturers and students. According to Luck et al. (2006), case study is “a detailed, intensive study of a particular contextual, and bounded phenomena that is undertaken in real life situations” (p. 104). In applied linguistics, case study is seen “as an excellent method for obtaining a thick description of a complex social issue embedded within a cultural context” because “[i]t offers rich and in-depth insights” into the research phenomenon, i.e. the case under investigation, particularly when combined with other methods (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 155). It also allows data of smaller cases within a larger case to be organized for comparison (Patton, 2002). Thus, in the case of this study, it becomes possible to compare the case of lecturers with that of students.

Within my research design, a quantitative dataset plays a supplemental role as the research is largely qualitatively driven. The quantitative strand (lecturer and student surveys) was included to enhance the qualitative strand<sup>10</sup> (semi-structured interviews & document analysis) for three main purposes: (1) to gather background data, (2) to reach a large number of participants for an overall picture, and (3) to identify areas of conflict and interest to be further explored rigorously. A policy document review was added into the design later to generate a better understanding of the results, particularly concerning issues of ideologies, language policies, and (intended) practices. The research design of the study is illustrated below:

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<sup>10</sup> I conducted focus group discussions with students as well. My initial aim was to have one focus group from each of the universities, but the students from METU declined to partake in the group discussion. Thus, in the end, I only had two focus groups. After completing the transcriptions and after having read them for pre-coding, I noticed that the focus group data contained neither many instances of group thinking, nor the challenging and developing of new perspectives. I thus tried to combine the focus group data with the interviews in an earlier draft of this thesis. Nevertheless, since it was unconventional for one to combine focus group data with interviews, I decided to take out the focus group data from my analysis.



**Figure 1.** The research design of the study

Apart from strategies of inquiry and research methods mentioned above and shown in Figure 1, Creswell (2009) cited another constituent of a research design: philosophical assumptions. My research operates within a pragmatic world-view that concentrates “on consequences of the research, on the primary importance of the question[s] asked rather than the methods” (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007, p. 23), and acts in accordance with the argument that the research design should be driven by research questions (e.g. Mason, 2006; Cohen et al., 2011)

Well-known mixed methods researchers saw pragmatic world-view as the fundamental philosophical assumption for mixed methods research (e.g. Brannen, 2005; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). They based their arguments on the fact that pragmatic world-view eschews purism regarding methods and presuppositions relating to these methods (Brannen, 2005), and “is thus pluralist in nature” (Roux & Barry, 2009, p. 3). Therefore, a mixed methods study, being informed by the pragmatist world-view, has enabled me to mix “multiple methods, different worldviews, and different assumptions, as well as different forms of data collection and analysis” (Creswell, 2009, p. 11) in the investigation of participants’ perceptions and ideologies about English/English use and English language policies and practices.

Furthermore, researchers have advanced convincing arguments for using mixed methods research. One key argument that convinced me to choose a combined mixed-methods design is that it benefits from triangulation in which the researcher is entitled to

use more than one method for data collection (Cohen et al., 2011). The term *triangulation* suggests that the employment of three methods is optimal, but not essential (Bechhofer & Paterson, 2000). Dörnyei (2007) and Payne (1994) viewed methodological triangulation as a crucial precept of research which heavily relies on mixed methods due to the fact that underlying weaknesses of single methods can be compensated by using the strengths of another, and this accordingly increases internal and external validity of the study, and research findings in particular.

This research uses various types of triangulation to draw a more complete and accurate picture of the research phenomenon. First, it employs methodological triangulation by using different methods, which contain both within method (i.e. two types of qualitative strategies) and between-method strategies (i.e. quantitative and qualitative strategies) (Cohen et al., 2011). Additionally, it triangulates data sources by recruiting lecturers and students in order to get a better insight into the research topic from different viewpoints (Payne, 1994). Another type of triangulation used pertains to the research setting, and it is called space triangulation (Cohen et al., 2011). For the purpose of space triangulation, data were collected in three EMI universities located in two different provinces of Turkey. The objective of space triangulation was to overcome the potential limitations of conducting the study within a single institution and its institutional sub-culture. Theory triangulation (Payne, 1994) was also used in the research via building the research on three theoretical frames (i.e. theories of language policy, language attitude, and ideology). Lastly, a strong version of triangulation characterized the research wherein different methods were used for making more than one exploration on the research topic (Bechhofer & Paterson, 2000).

## **4.5 Setting and participants**

### **4.5.1 The settings of the present study**

The study was conducted at tertiary education institutions in Turkey, with the key EMI actors (i.e. lecturers and students) from three renowned EMI universities: Boğaziçi University, Bilkent University and Middle East Technical University<sup>11</sup> (METU). Of them, Boğaziçi and METU are state universities, whilst Bilkent is a private university. Detailed background information about each university is given below.

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<sup>11</sup> In Turkish Ortadoğu Teknik Üniversitesi (ODTÜ)

#### **4.5.1.1 Boğaziçi University**

Boğaziçi University is located on the European side of İstanbul. Its origin goes back to Robert College, an American missionary school founded in 1863, the university division of which was handed over to the then Turkish government in 1971. With this handover, it was transformed into a public university, and it has been using EMI in all its programs since teaching began there. As of the 2014-2015 academic year, it offers 32 undergraduate programs within 4 faculties and has 6 graduate schools, with 56 masters and 32 doctorate programs. Due to its high academic performance, Boğaziçi is consistently ranked among the top universities nationwide and worldwide. In the Times Higher Education World University Rankings of 2013-2014, it was ranked as the 199th, and it enjoyed the privilege of being the only Turkish university among the top 200 universities. According to URAP's (University Ranking by Academic Performance) 2014-2015 rankings of the Turkish public universities, Boğaziçi ranks seventh among 98 universities. Offering EMI courses and being among the highest universities in the ranking lists enable Boğaziçi to attract many of the high scoring Turkish students from the centralized university exam as well as many of the international students who prefer to study in Turkey.

Currently, it hosts approximately 700 international students from over 70 countries as part of 559 bilateral agreements with institutions abroad. The majority of its full-time international students, currently 350, come from nearby countries (e.g. Greece, Iran), Turkic countries (e.g. Azerbaijan, Turkmenistan), countries with which Turkey has strong religious ties (e.g. Afghanistan), and the USA. Therefore, Turkish students at Boğaziçi are exposed to not only a rich cultural diversity, but also linguistic diversity on campus. A more detailed breakdown of international students at Boğaziçi can be found at the website of Higher Education Information Management System<sup>12</sup> (Yükseköğretim Bilgi Yönetim Sistemi). In the 2013-2014 academic year, the total number of its students was around 15,000 while the number of academic staff members was 1,053. According to statistics, Boğaziçi had 81 full-time international academic staff members from 22 nationalities in the same academic year (Council of Higher Education, 2015b). This number increases during the academic year, with the arrival of visiting international scholars and researchers. It also cooperates with several international

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<sup>12</sup> <https://istatistik.yok.gov.tr/>



university networks (e.g. International Association of Universities) around the world for academic and cultural purposes, e.g. student and staff exchange, the international joint curricula, and double/joint degrees.

#### **4.5.1.2 METU**

METU, also a public university, is located in the capital of Turkey, Ankara. It is the first state-funded HE institution of Turkey established in 1956. Its official language of instruction is entirely English. It is, therefore, the predecessor to Boğaziçi in terms of teaching content courses in English, and the most long-established research-led Turkish university that provides EMI. Like Boğaziçi, METU is one of the most preferred Turkish universities by both Turkish and international students due to its English-medium education, its academic performance in the ranking lists, and its variety of undergraduate and postgraduate programs, most of which have a specific focus on science, technology, and engineering. Presently, it offers 40 undergraduate programs within 5 faculties, and 104 masters and 66 doctorate programs within its 5 graduate schools.

METU was ranked among the first 225 universities worldwide based on the Times Higher Education World University Rankings of 2013-2014. It is ranked as the second of 98 universities in the URAP's ranking list of the Turkish public universities in respect to their academic performance. As well as attracting many talented Turkish students, it appeals to international students<sup>13</sup> both for full-time and part-time study. As in the case of Boğaziçi University, the majority of international students come from Turkic countries (e.g. Azerbaijan, Kyrgyzstan), South Asian Islamic countries (e.g. Pakistan, Bangladesh, Indonesia), and neighbouring countries (e.g. Syria, Iran). There are also students coming from a variety of European countries for a short term stay under bilateral exchange programs. The current profile of international students at Bilkent indicates that linguistically and culturally diverse student bodies are represented on Bilkent's campus. According to the data on the total number of students and academic staff, METU had 27901 students studying at its undergraduate and postgraduate programs, and 2047 academic staff in the 2013-2014 academic year.

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<sup>13</sup> According to higher education statistics on students by nationality, 1817 international students were enrolled at METU in the 2013-2014 academic year (Council of Higher Education, 2015a). This number includes only full-time students.

METU embodies full-time international academic staff<sup>14</sup> within its faculties, as well. In addition to having full-time international students and academic staff, it yearly hosts an average of 300 students and 50 teaching staff/researchers under its bilateral exchange, Erasmus exchange, and cooperation agreements with universities abroad. In return, it annually sends abroad almost an equal number of students and teaching staff. It holds membership to a series of associations and international university networks, which are mainly concerned with international education and mobility of teaching staff/researchers and students.

#### **4.5.1.3 Bilkent University**

Bilkent University was established in 1984 in the country's capital, Ankara, being inspired by the first state-funded EMI institutions. As a non-profit organization, Bilkent is the first private<sup>15</sup> HE institution in Turkey as well as being the first private institution that started offering EMI programs in Turkish HE. Bilkent, as with Boğaziçi and METU, is consistently ranked among the best universities in Turkey and the world. According to UPAR's 2013-2014 ranking of the foundation-founded universities in Turkey, Bilkent sits in the top out of 29 universities. In the worldwide university rankings of 2013-2014 of the Times Higher Education, Bilkent is among the first 250 universities. Due to its national and international reputation, and use of EMI in teaching, students from upper-middle class families, students granted scholarships by Bilkent, and many international students<sup>16</sup> opt to continue their study in this university.

Currently, one-fourth of Bilkent's academic staff is comprised of international academic members. Similarly, the international student body whose population reaches around 1100 each year together with the enrolment of exchange students corresponds to approximately 10% of the total student population, which is currently around 13000 who have been enrolled at 9 faculties and 2 four-year professional schools. Moreover,

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<sup>14</sup> According to higher education statistics, the number of international academic staff was 41 at METU in the 2013-2014 academic year, representing 21 nationalities (Council of Higher Education, 2015b). This number does not include visiting scholars.

<sup>15</sup> Private universities in Turkey are referred to as 'vakıf üniversiteleri' in Turkish, which can be translated into English as foundation-funded universities. Unlike public universities, these foundation-funded universities charge high tuition fees to their incoming students, and do not benefit from state funds.

<sup>16</sup> According to higher education statistics of the number of international students, 473 international students from over 50 countries were enrolled at Bilkent in the 2014-2015 academic year (Council of Higher Education, 2015). This number includes only full-time students.

according to the university facts, there is a year-to-year increase in the number of international students, and it is anticipated that over the years, the number will increase gradually. The profile of the international students enrolled at Bilkent is remarkably similar to Boğaziçi's and METU's international student profile, with the majority coming from Azerbaijan, the USA, Pakistan, Iran and Albania.

#### **4.5.2 Overview of participants**

Participants in this study include Turkish undergraduate university students and content lecturers from the above three institutions. Overall, the participants were selected on the basis of purposive sampling so as to reach “individuals who can provide rich and varied insights into the phenomenon under investigation so as to maximize what we can learn” on the research topic (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 126), and to ensure that they have been experiencing or “had experienced the central phenomenon” (Creswell, 2009, p. 217). The central phenomenon here is the act of studying and lecturing in an EMI tertiary institution in Turkey, and the knowledge of and/or experiences with English language policies and practices.

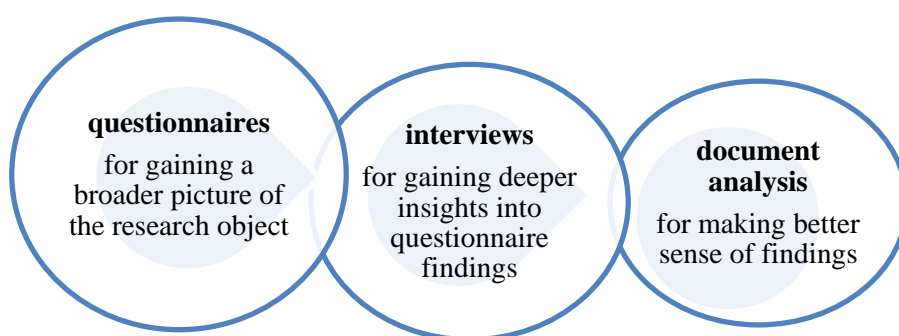
With regard to participants' academic majors, sampling was made from three disciplines, which represent hard sciences (i.e. mechanical engineering), social sciences (i.e. international relations), and humanities (i.e. history). There are three main reasons for choosing these disciplines. Firstly, the previous research reveals that these disciplines, especially mechanical engineering and international relations, are the ones where EMI is most widely offered because of the significance of English for their alumnae in terms of career prospects (e.g. Doiz et al., 2011; Knapp, 2011; Jensen et al., 2013; Suviniitty, 2007; Wächter & Maiworm, 2008, 2014). Secondly, focusing on these faculties creates an opportunity to establish a degree of comparison on the data collected. Lastly, these disciplines have the largest and most diverse teaching staff and students in numbers by comparison with other disciplines. As an added advantage, this paved the way for accessing and recruiting as many participants as possible, specifically for the questionnaire study.

From the above-mentioned disciplines, in total, 423 participants (351 students and 72 lecturers) participated in the questionnaire study (see section 6.3.1 for demographic details of lecturers, and section 6.4.1 for demographic details of students). Out of these questionnaire participants, all the volunteers, who ticked the option on the questionnaire

which invited them to participate in one-to-one interviews were contacted through emails with the aim of asking for their availability for the interviews. Although the initial number of the students who had agreed to attend the interview sessions was around 30 — and, for the lecturers, around 18 — some of them refused to partake in the interviews later on for a variety of different reasons (e.g., lack of time, being on a sabbatical, loss of interest in the research). In the end, 20 students and 14 lecturers, who were randomly sampled, took part in the follow-up in-depth interviews. As was mentioned above, the interviews were conducted on a voluntary basis. The distribution of interview participants across universities and disciplines, however, was more or less equally representative — especially in relation to student participants. More information about questionnaire and interview participants is given in Appendix 1 (p. 264).

#### 4.6 Research instruments and data collection procedures

As illustrated in Figure 2 below, three methods of data collection were utilized in this research: a questionnaire survey, individual interviews, and document analysis. These instruments were used in a specific order, starting first with survey questionnaires, and then moving to interviews, followed by document analysis. This was done with a purpose of deepening the findings of the preceding instrument at each stage, and moving from generality to particularity regarding the findings. The process of data collection is demonstrated below in the form of a melting snowball. I coined this phrase to illustrate how my research seeks particularity by moving from general findings to specific ones.



**Figure 2.** Data collection instruments in order of general-to-specific pattern

In the subsequent sections, the research instruments and the data collection procedures will be respectively described in detail.

#### 4.6.1 Survey questionnaires

A survey questionnaire was the first research instrument applied for data collection in order to generate quantitative data, while the remainder of the research largely consisted of qualitative data. The questionnaire method was used in the first instance for three major reasons. Firstly, it allows the researcher to gain access to a large number of informants based in different geographical locations, and this makes it easier to assemble a great deal of information in a relatively short span of time (Dörnyei, 2007; Wray & Bloomer, 2013). By this means, it also becomes possible to draw or gain a broad picture of the research object at a given point in time. Secondly, it can help the researcher plan the next stage of data collection. Thirdly, questionnaires also introduce the topic to potential interviewees. Thus, they might start thinking about it ahead of the interviews. To this end, this study made use of questionnaires to identify topics of discussion for the next round of data collection in which interview protocols were utilized to deepen the questionnaire findings. Miles and Huberman (1994) also added that quantitative data can also help the qualitative side of a mixed methods study “during *design* by finding a representative sample and locating deviant cases” (p. 141, *italics in original*). They further noted that quantitative data might be useful in the time of data collection as well through providing background data, acquiring unnoticed information, and sidestepping “elite bias” among informants in respect to their status (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 141).

Many researchers, including researchers from applied linguistics, agree that it is practical to use questionnaires so as to survey a sample of a particular population if the aim is to know about their general trends, attitudes, perceptions, or opinions (Abbuhl, 2013; Brown, 2001; Creswell, 2009; Dörnyei, 2007; Mackey & Gass, 2005). A large number of studies within the literature on teachers’ and students’ perceptions of English and their English skills in EMI settings have extensively relied on questionnaires to elicit perceptual and attitudinal data (e.g. Byun et al., 2010; Doiz et al., 2013b; Jensen et al., 2011; Kırkgöz, 2005; Suviniitty, 2007). However, studies which have sought to explore language ideologies have often chosen to undertake a qualitative method rather than a quantitative questionnaire in an attempt to unearth their informants’ language ideologies (e.g. Abongdia, 2009; A. W. Lee, 2012; Dyers & Abongdia, 2010; Matsuda, 2003; Rogerson-Revell, 2007).

In this study, the questionnaires not only attempt to explore participants' perceptions of English, their English abilities/acts, and English language policies and practices, but also their language ideologies regarding English and its use for academic and social purposes. This exploration was done by asking participants to respond on a four-point Likert scale ranging from *poor* to *excellent* for perceptions, and from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree* for language use and English language policies. The decision for an even number of response choices, viz. 4-point Likert scales, was made to prevent participants from leaning towards the middle category, because the use of middle category might lead them "to avoid making a real choice, that is, to take the easy way out" (Dörnyei, 2003, p. 37).

There are, however, several inherent weaknesses and practical concerns associated with questionnaires (e.g. Abbuhl, 2013; Dörnyei, 2007; Mackey & Gass, 2005). First of all, questionnaires with closed questions can only provide a thin description of the research phenomenon, and thus probing into the depth of a subject becomes barely possible, since there is no room for expansion and further comments on responses in structured questionnaires. There is also the likelihood of misinterpreting the questionnaire items, as the items were constructed and pre-set by the researcher. It is highly likely that the items might cause social desirability bias, which arises when "respondents like to appear to be other than they are", by providing answers that do not accurately reflect their own views, feelings, or beliefs, but might be seen as favourable by others, particularly by the researcher (Brace, 2013, p. 210). To be able to minimize such limitations, several steps were taken, such as triangulation of the data collection tools, particularly using qualitative methods to obtain a thicker description, piloting of the questionnaires, and obtainment of expert opinions on questionnaire structure and items in order to predetermine the problematic areas and rectify them (see 4.6.1.2 for further details).

#### **4.6.1.1 The structure of the questionnaires**

Two versions of the questionnaires were used in this study: one for students and the other for lecturers (see Appendices 2 & 3). Both questionnaire versions consisted of four sections. Although each section in both questionnaires dealt with the same topics of investigation, there were similar and different questions posed at students and lecturers

in view of their different academic and socio-cultural backgrounds in relation to English and English language policies/practices of the university.

Section 1 aimed to gather a wealth of background information from participants, such as their personal details, e.g. their age, gender, university, and discipline, and their current academic titles (only for lecturers). Separate questions were directed to students and lecturers with respect to language information. For instance, students were asked whether they had any overseas experience, had taken any language test and attended the university's preparatory school, and finally if they previously studied in an EMI school. Likewise, lecturers were queried about the length of their teaching in English, their overseas experience, and where they obtained their academic degrees. Data of this sort aided the recruitment and selection of participants for the interviews.

The questions in section 2 were taken partly from Pilkinton-Pihko (2010), Jensen et al. (2011), Rogier (2012), and Suviniitty (2012), and some items were modified and rephrased. This section pertains to participants' perceptions of different aspects of their own English skills, but particularly writing and speaking. In addition, students were asked to evaluate their Turkish friends', non-Turkish friends', and their lecturers' English proficiency. In parallel to this, lecturers were asked for their views on Turkish and non-Turkish (except NES) students' academic English proficiency. This was done through 4-point Likert scale items given that rating scales of this sort are, as Cohen et al. (2011) put, quite functional in attempting to tap into individuals' subjective responses such as their opinions, perceptions, and attitudes

Section 3, largely adapted from Guerra (2005), aimed at providing information about participants' perspectives on English in general and its use in particular, covering such issues as ownership of English, participants' goals for writing and speaking, their familiarity with varieties of English, and views about being cognizant of different kinds and accents of English. Likert scale and multiple choice questions comprised this section, and both students and lecturers answered the same questions.

Section 4 endeavoured to identify students and lecturers' perceptions towards the English language policies and practices at their universities by means of Likert scale questions. Most questions were the same for lecturers and students. A few different questions were posed to each group based on the relevance of the language policies/practices to students and lecturers. In the main, the questions concerned the

preparatory school, language tests, and language support provided by the universities over the course of education. Questions on language policies which ask of lecturers to take an English proficiency test and publish papers in English in order to get academic promotion were also included in the lecturer questionnaires.

Both questionnaires were composed of closed-ended questions in which the likely responses are set down by the researcher (Mackey & Gass, 2005) and there is no requirement for a long open answer (Wray & Bloomer, 2013). This type of question was chosen because it enjoys several advantages. For instance, closed items, as Mackey and Gas (2005) noted, involve “a greater uniformity of measurement” and thus have “greater reliability” (p. 93). They further added that it is easier to analyse and quantify data gathered with closed-ended questions (Mackey & Gas, 2005). Wray and Bloomer (2013) additionally pointed out the practicality of collecting larger nuggets of information on the research topic with closed-ended questions. On top of these advantages, the precise reason for using closed questions is due mainly to the fact that participants generally lean towards leaving out open-ended questions or providing very little information that can hardly be used for the purposes of research.

However, closed-ended questions suffer from some drawbacks, including their patronizing tone, and likelihood of prejudging the matters and probable answers (Wray & Bloomer, 2013). More than this, closed-ended questions fail to answer *why* and *how* questions related to the research topic. Taking into account these sorts of drawbacks, using a patronizing language and presuming some issues and possible responses were carefully avoided during the design phase of the questionnaires by appealing to experts’ and pilot participants’ opinions prior to the main field work. With a goal to provide answers to why and how questions, I employed qualitative data collections tools.

The language of the questionnaires was English. Some researchers highlight the significance of administering questionnaires in participants’ first language (Mackey & Gass, 2005). Under certain conditions such as when participants have a good working knowledge of the language of the research, and are familiar with the special terminology used, the language in which the research is carried out might be preferably used. Considering that students in this study are enrolled at EMI universities and have already certified their English proficiency, and lecturers have been teaching through English, English seemed more appropriate to me. Participants also opted for it when they were



asked for their language preference prior to administration, pronouncing that they are fully literate in the language of questionnaire, viz. English. Another reason for choosing English was to avoid the loss of translational fidelity, as some linguistic terms (e.g. native/non-native English, varieties/kinds of English) used in the questionnaires have no exact equivalents in Turkish. However, participants have been familiar with such terms since the early days of their English learning at schools.

#### **4.6.1.2 Piloting the questionnaires**

The questionnaires were piloted twice before data collection with a similar group of individuals who were not involved in the main study. In the initial pilot, lecturers' questionnaires were piloted with two Turkish lecturers teaching their content courses in English in two different universities in İstanbul, Turkey. For students' questionnaires, a small group of Turkish students (N=16) studying at a UK university and sharing similar characteristics (e.g. their departments, language background) with the main participants of the research, partook in the piloting.

The principal purpose of the initial piloting was to maximize the effectiveness of the questionnaires as well as quality and quantity of answers (Abbuhl, 2013). Such a piloting is generally likened to a “dress rehearsal,” but in research contexts, it serves more like a “field testing” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 112) that “might give [the researcher] advance warning about where the main research project could fail, where research protocols may not be followed, or whether proposed methods or instruments are inappropriate or too complicated” (van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001, p. 1). In this fashion, piloting helps the researcher find any problematic questionnaire items, overcome the weaknesses of closed-ended questions, and make decisions on the size of sampling and courses of actions to be followed (Abbuhl, 2013; Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010; Wray & Bloomer, 2013).

The potential areas of concerns included areas such as the layout, the wording, the number of items, and the time taken to complete the questionnaires, among others. Pilot study participants were invited to critically offer comments on such areas in order that necessary amendments could be made in line with their comments and suggestions. In addition, two experts, i.e. my supervisory team, commented on the questionnaires. According to my supervisors, and the lecturers and students who participated in the initial pilot, the number of pages was reasonable - four pages - (e.g. Dörnyei & Taguchi,

2010; Wilson & Dewaele, 2010). Sentence lengths of the items were not too long and sentences were easily comprehensible. The time spent on completing the questionnaires varied 15 to 25 minutes, a time span that is unlikely to result in questionnaire fatigue (Abbuhl, 2013).

Some concerns were, however, expressed about question and scale item ordering, layout, overlapping questions, the possibility of participants' being unfamiliar with some terms, and annexing some new items. In accordance with the comments, necessary changes have been made: I took out overlapping questions, changed the layout, and rearranged and mixed question and item ordering to avoid a pre-determined conceptual order. Lastly, I added one new question into Section 2 and dismissed two overlapping questions from the same section.

In addition to the above changes, the second round of piloting was done by using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences), version 21, in order to compute the internal consistency estimates of reliability. The second piloting was done for statistical purposes only in accordance with the suggestion that researchers provide information on the reliability of their questionnaire measures in the pilot study, for instance, by "reporting Cronbach alpha coefficients to provide evidence on the internal consistency of the questionnaire" (Abbuhl, 2013, p. 543). For many researchers, the reliability coefficients should be in excess of 0.70. Regarding the relevant cut-off point, Dörnyei (2007) stressed that "if the Cronbach Alpha of a scale does not reach 0.60, this should sound warning bells" for researchers (p. 207).

In practical terms, such analyses aid researchers to minimize potential limitations of the research instrument. Accordingly, the lecturer questionnaire was piloted with 24 lecturers (17 males and 7 females) from three different universities, and the student questionnaire with 51 students (39 males and 12 females) from Bilkent University and METU. Cronbach coefficient alpha values computed separately for the relevant sections of the questionnaires are given in Table 2:

**Table 2.** Cronbach alpha values for pilot questionnaires

Questionnaire type	Section 2A	Section 2B	Section 3B	Section 4
	English skills	Sub-skills	Use of English	Policies and practices
Lecturer	.930	.876	.554*	.729
Student	.791	.818	.636*	.720

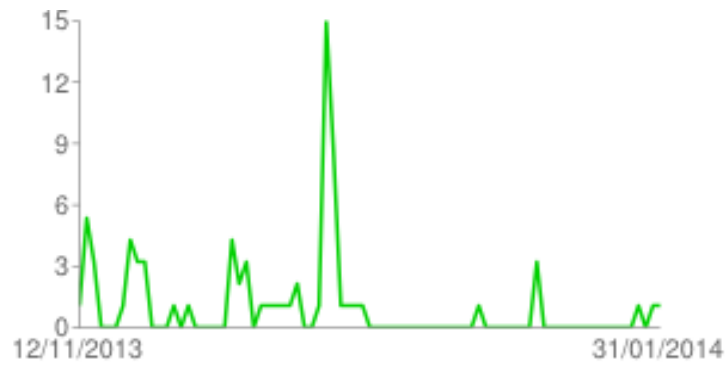
As can be seen above, except for Section 3B marked with asterisks, the values indicated satisfactory reliability for student and lecturer questionnaires. The results for Section 3B did not yield reliable values most probably due to the small number of respondents and items in the scales. However, the analyses conducted helped me decide which questionnaire items to include and take out based on their contribution to the reliability of the scales. Consequently, 9 items in Section 2B were reduced to 7, and 20 items were reduced to 15 in Section 4. No elimination or addition was made in others.

#### 4.6.1.3 Administration of questionnaires

The questionnaires were administered in two phases. The first phase included the distribution of questionnaires to lecturers. For this, first, an online questionnaire with Google Docs was created. Following this, lecturers' email addresses were obtained from their academic homepages. An email link<sup>17</sup> attached with an introductory text was sent to lecturers individually to invite them to take part in the survey. The introductory text presented clear instructions to lecturers by explaining the purpose of the study, the content of the questionnaire, and procedural matters (e.g. the length of and average time needed to complete the questionnaire, the number of sections and questions, etc.). The same information was given again on the welcome page of the online questionnaire in case some might click on the link without reading the introductory text. Both in the emails and on the welcome page, my name and contact details were laid out so that they might contact me should they have any questions regarding the questionnaire or the study itself. The data collection process started in the fall term of the 2013-2014 academic year and lasted slightly more than two and a half months. The number of daily responses to the questionnaires is illustrated in Figure 3.

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<sup>17</sup> <https://docs.google.com/forms/d/1VuOdrk2c5Eksj78BUhoano-unf7TB6dwyJ6B-15QL1I/edit>



**Figure 3.** Number of daily responses and data collection timeline

Three weeks after the initial emails, with the objective of increasing response rate, I sent reminders to lecturers. Moreover, I employed various strategies (e.g. addressing lecturers deferentially, highlighting the benefits and importance of the research) that were likely to contribute to the growth in response rate (Cohen et al., 2011). Despite all my efforts, as noted by researchers (e.g. Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010; Wray & Bloomer, 2013), the response rate turned out to be comparatively lower than I expected, and this is viewed as one of the shortcomings of online surveys. In total, the response rate corresponded to 15%<sup>18</sup>.

It is fair to note, despite any potential limitations, that online questionnaires served fairly well in collecting data from this particular group of participants, with an “advantage of reaching out to a larger and more diverse pool of potential participants” (Wilson & Dewaele, 2010, p. 103) such as lecturers, a specific group of hard-to-reach people in my case, located in different provinces, universities, and disciplines. Also, online surveys helped me “increase the ecological validity of the resulting database” (Wilson & Dewaele, 2010, p. 103). It is because the data were garnered from a large number of people, and it thus became possible to explore to what extent the results of this study can be extrapolated to other similar settings. Otherwise, it was not even feasible for me, as a single researcher, to reach such a widely distributed huge number of lecturers in person given that they rank among the busiest people and spend little time in their offices. More precisely, in the Turkish context, they are conceived of as hard-to-reach individuals. Hence, using web-based questionnaires was the best option available, freeing them from the constraints of time and place, and giving them the

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<sup>18</sup> 72 responses were received out of over 450 emails sent to lecturers. Non-Turkish lecturers’ emails and failed emails were excluded from the total count of sent emails.

chance to fill out the questionnaires wherever and whenever they feel willing to do so, even by means of their smart phones or devices (e.g. tablets).

In the second phase of questionnaire administration, a traditional way of surveying was embraced with a paper-and-pencil questionnaire, randomly circulated among voluntary students. Before doing so, course lecturers' permissions were obtained. Thus, a top-down approach formed the process of data collection in which I distributed questionnaires to students immediately after the lectures and usually in the company of lecturers, who introduced me to their class and let me explain my research to students. My presence during in-class questionnaire administration enabled students to raise any concerns they had and to ask me for further clarifications. Overall, questionnaires took about 15 to 25 minutes to complete. However, as this way of data collection proved to be less fruitful in reaching the targeted number of participants owing to the large number of reluctant students for a paper-and-pencil survey, I shared the questionnaire with relevant student groups on Facebook, taking one student's advice, who earlier managed to collect her quantitative data via Facebook groups. Hence, it availed me to reach a myriad of students I missed during the in-class surveys.

#### **4.6.2 Interview protocols**

The interview method was used as the second instrument of data collection. Researchers regard it as the most useful strategy in exploring, accessing, and directly reporting people's perceptions, beliefs, attitudes, and values (Berg & Lune, 2012; Byrne, 2004; Mackey & Gass, 2005; Richards, 2003; Rapley, 2001) as well as eliciting their views and opinions (Creswell, 2009). According to Richards (2003), interviews are the backbone of qualitative research. The interviews were conducted to generate soft data – comprised of word-of-mouth responses (Henerson, Morris & Fitz-Gibbon, 1987) – that would expand on the findings of hard (questionnaire) data. As Verma and Mallick (1999) remarked, when used as a follow-up to questionnaires, interviews can serve two purposes: they can either supplement the questionnaire findings by enabling further elaborations on some significant aspects generically addressed by the questionnaires, or can complement the questionnaire findings by enabling investigation of interrelated topics that cannot be addressed by questionnaires. In this study, I focused both on the supplementary and complementary functions of the interviews, inviting my participants

to further elaborate on their answers to the questionnaires, and encouraging them to debate novel topics related to the research.

As many researchers observed, the qualitative interview method is preferred due to its enormous strengths in eliciting thorough information concerning respondents' personal or private experiences, views, and beliefs about the related topics of the research (McNamara, 1999; Turner, 2010) and in gaining more profound insights into the issues under investigation as well as accessing a huge amount of information (Padgett, 1998; Richards, 2003). According to Henerson et al. (1987), interviews can provide more flexibility for researchers to be sure whether their questions have been clearly conveyed to or understood by their participants. However, the possibility of giving clarifications to participants is lacking in questionnaires, as they are often limited to *yes/no* or *agree/disagree* questions, and researchers can barely be sure if their questions have been understood in the right way. As previously noted, in mixed methods research, one method might be used to overcome the weaknesses of the other, and this is actually what interviews fulfilled in my research: overcoming some of the limitations of questionnaires.

Most likely, owing to the above-cited strengths of interviews, the researchers who studied individuals' attitudes, perceptions, beliefs, and views about English in EMI-related contexts widely chose the interview method either as a single method or combined it with other methods, often with questionnaires (e.g. Byun et al., 2010; Channa, 2012; Hirvensalo, 2012; Jenkins, 2014; Tange, 2010). It has also been extensively employed in studies exploring language ideologies, as mentioned earlier (see section 4.6.1). Apart from using interviews to explore lecturers' and students' perceptions and ideologies, I relied on them so as to explore factors which might play a part in the formation of perceptions and ideologies. In this way, in line with Richard's (2003) golden rule for interviewing, I aimed at seeking the particular via interviews in contrast to the general of questionnaires.

I applied a semi-structured format of interviewing. This type of interview was chosen for several reasons. Firstly, as its name denotes, it is not totally structured with pre-set questions followed in a particular order without digressions, but on the contrary, it retains a great deal of flexibility, freedom, and adjustability for the researcher in seeking information from the respondents, with a small set of guiding themes and prompts asked

in no particular order or wording (Berg & Lune, 2012; Dörnyei, 2007, Turner, 2010). Secondly, the interviewer can make “on-the-spot decisions” for further probes beyond the responses during the interviews (Kvale, 2007, p. 34; Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009), and may ask the interviewee to elaborate at depth on related issues or given responses worthy of notice. Thirdly, the structured part keeps the interviewer in control of the direction of the interview, and thus gives “an overall shape to the interview and help[s] prevent aimless rambling” (Opie, 2004, p. 18).

Concerning the interview method, there are a few concerns raised by scholars of educational and linguistic research. The chief concerns fall into three categories: (a) time-related, (b) researcher related, and (c) interviewee related concerns. It is generally agreed that interviews demand more time than a questionnaire in terms of set-up, administration, and analysis (e.g. Dörnyei, 2007; Henerson et al., 1987; Berg & Lune, 2012; Kvale, 2007). There is also the issue of researcher bias and power balance, by which the researchers might exert an influence on respondents’ answers. To illustrate, even the researcher’s facial expressions (e.g. smiling, frowning) may impact the interviewee in a way that results in modification of their answers. Similarly, the interviewee may show a tendency to exhibit him/herself differently by answering in a way that will be appraised positively by the researcher. Such biases, thus, pose a threat to trustworthiness of the study (Chenail, 2009).

To allay the concerns raised above, a pilot version of the interview was tried out with a small of group Turkish participants. The interviewees were asked for their comments on the conduct and success of the interviews as well as the issues addressed. Furthermore, I implemented several strategies to the end that the effectiveness of the interviews could be enhanced. First of all, I sought to build a good rapport with my participants so that they can truly display themselves with sincere responses. Then, as someone having lived in the same cultural context, I avoided asking them leading and culturally inappropriate questions, and allocated them enough time to respond to the questions. Taking such precautionary steps aided me to reduce the mentioned concerns to a minimum level. Finally, I had the opportunity to gain practical experience through hands-on practice with interviewing, which also boosted my self-confidence as a researcher prior to actual interview sessions.

#### **4.6.2.1 Administration of interviews**

Interviews with lecturers who had previously answered the questionnaires were conducted in their offices in each university. Interviews with students were held in various locations convenient for students such as library study rooms and coffee shops, all on university campuses shortly after the week in which they completed the questionnaires. With some students, Skype interviews were made in accordance with their request for an online interview. Taking Berg and Lune's (2012) advice into account, interviews were conducted in the language of the respondents, Turkish, but with the occurrences of code-switching to English for linguistic terms in some cases, and all interviews were digitally recorded through a sound recorder (Philips Voice Tracer LFH0632). Each interview lasted for 25 to 70 minutes depending on some factors, e.g. time and willingness to talk. An interview guide in the form of a small piece of paper with some notes on was used during the interviews (see Appendix 4, p. 275, for a sample guide).

#### **4.6.3 Document analysis**

As discussed in section 2.3.2, I built my research on Spolsky's (2004) language policy framework; however, I could not directly explore actual language practices. It is because I did not collect observation data on practices due to my restricted access to the classrooms. Instead, I analysed the institutions' English language policy documents to be able to determine the intended language practices and what ideologies underpin them. Document analysis is, thus, the final data collection tool employed in this study.

Bowen (2009) defined document analysis as "a systematic procedure for reviewing or evaluating documents – both printed and electronic (computer-based and internet-transmitted) material" (p. 27). It is often combined with other analytical methods for the purpose of triangulating the data sources for convergence and corroboration of findings. It also holds several advantages over other methods. To illustrate, it is less time consuming in collecting data, more easily accessible than human participants as documentary data are mostly available in the public domain, and less affected by the researcher and research process. On the not-so-bright side, it suffers from some weaknesses, such as biased selectivity, inadequate detail, and low retrievability (Bowen, 2009; Cohen et al., 2011; Verma & Mallick, 1999), particularly if the data is garnered from online sources as the content of the data in online platforms tends to change so



often. While some sections of the online data are open to all, some are blocked. To diminish the effects of such weaknesses on the data, I contextualized the data coming from the website and policy data, provided more detail about the selected parts for analysis, and explicitly spotlighted the origins of the data by providing links in the footnotes to the relevant sections and documents under discussion.

Predictably, depending on the nature of the research, the objective of collecting documentary data, and the sorts of documents (e.g. official/unofficial, published/unpublished, public domain/private papers) can widely vary (Cohen et al., 2007). In this research, my document analysis will “have a policy focus, examining [official policy] materials relevant to a particular set of [language policy] decisions” (Blaxter, Hughes & Tight, 2010, p. 186) with regards to various matters on English (e.g. its use, teaching, and role). In that sense, I principally aim to critically analyse the writings of policy-makers on the university websites and in publicly available policy documents to be able describe and make sense of the intended language practices on campus. This analysis will shed light on the findings of the primary data collected via the aforementioned instruments, specifically on the issue of language ideologies given that policy documents both reflect and shape ideology. By document analysis, I also intend to collect some data relating to practices, one of the three components of Spolsky’s (2004) language policy framework, in order to overcome the lack of observation data on actual language practices in the present research (see Chapter 5 for more information on the procedure of policy data analysis).

#### **4.7 Validity and reliability of instruments**

The courses of action to establish reliability and validity in a mixed methods research study differ from those used in a single method study. The reason for this is the fact that quantitative and qualitative work belong to different paradigms, the former being positivist searching for a single correct view of reality and the latter being constructivist and interpretivist viewing the social reality as relative and multiple. What is central in a mixed methods study, anchored in the pragmatist world-view, is to engage in a mixed process of validation and ensuring reliability, using quantitative and qualitative criteria, and applying relevant techniques matching the required criteria. Thus, dealing with validity and reliability takes multiple forms, moving beyond “*methods-centric discussion*” (Hesse-Biber, 2010, p. 86, italics in original) by paying regard to the

research questions and whether a strong linkage is created between the problem stated and method used.

In quantitative research, reliability deals with to what extent any measurement instruments can effectively yield the same results when used on the same sample soon after the initial measure (Hesse-Biber, 2010; Mertens, 1998). Therefore, the focus is on the consistency of the instruments in obtaining the same results between two measures (occasions) of the same phenomenon, and how far the measurement is free from chance errors in what it purports to measure. As noted by Black (1999), there are some elements that researchers can work on to keep their instruments' reliability high, including (a) “[s]ufficient numbers of questions or identifiable components of responses for sets of questions that constitute the operational definition of a construct” (p. 197, italics in original), (b) “[q]uality of wording of questions” and (c) “[t]ime allowed and needed” (p. 198). These factors have been considered and enhanced in the initial pilot study by taking pilot participants' views on the relevant factors of the questionnaires.

The reliability of the survey questionnaire was also tested statistically by computing the internal consistency estimates of the related scales on the SPSS program. Table 3 below outlines the output revealing the Cronbach Alpha values of the reliability analysis. As can be seen, the values, except those in Section 4 in the lecturer questionnaire, and section 3B in the student questionnaire<sup>19</sup>, indicated satisfactory levels of reliability.

**Table 3.** Cronbach alpha values for main study questionnaire scales

Questionnaire type	Section 2A	Section 2B	Section 3B	Section 4
	English skills	Sub-skills	Use of English	Policies and practices
Lecturer	.919	.760	.745	.534*
Student	.852	.858	.652*	.714

As well as being reliable, the instruments should be also valid. Validity is judged against the criterion of “whether the instruments measure the phenomenon that they are supposed to” (Hesse-Biber, 2010, p. 85). One key aspect that determines the validity of obtained information in surveys, particularly focusing on participants' self-reported

<sup>19</sup> The scales which did not indicate required levels of reliability and questionnaire sections which do not lend themselves to inferential statistics will be subject to descriptive analysis only.

perceptions, attitudes, and ideologies is the degree of honesty from the respondents about their answers (Mertens, 1998).

For an instrument to have validity, four major types of validity are classified as points of reference by researchers: construct validity, content validity, internal validity, and external validity. Construct validity basically deals with the extent to which a concept or notion can be represented by the measures of the instrument and how appropriately it is categorized and elaborated (Black, 1999). Construct validity is established in this study by fairly discussing and elucidating the notions pertinent to the current research, such as attitudes, ideologies, and language policies along with their established theories of what these notions (i.e. constructs) and their constituent elements are, based on a wide literature search (Cohen et al., 2011).

To establish content validity, which means adequate and representative coverage of what is intended to be measured in the research instrument, as noted beforehand, two experts in the content area, i.e. my supervisory team, were consulted because content validity is not considered a “statistical property” but rather “a matter of expert judgement” (Vogt, 1999, p. 301).

Internal validity looks at the degree to which the effects of unintended variables on the data, findings, or explanation of a phenomenon have been minimized in a study (Mertens, 1998). As Cohen et al. (2009) asserted, to a certain extent, it has to do with how well and accurately the results of a study can describe what is being explored, and how accurately, Brown (2004) noted, the results can be understood “as meaning of what they appear to mean” (p. 493). I attempted to establish internal validity by taking some measures such as the use of suitable and multiple research instruments, and the attempt to eliminate bias (researcher and participant) through engaging with the research, rather than imposing my preferences. Moreover, respondents were informed about the objective of the study before they were involved in the survey study and interview sessions so that natural responses could be elicited (Mackey & Gas, 2005).

Finally, external validity, which seeks to demonstrate the extent to which one can generalize the results of a study to a larger group, events, or situations (Brown, 2004; Mackey & Gas, 2005), was assured by presenting as much information as possible about the research settings, the background of the respondents, and the research design (e.g. a comprehensive reporting of the methods, instruments, and data gathered). Thus,

the reader can gain insights into the overall situation described in my research, and further decide on the applicability of the information/findings in their own situations.

The measurement of validity and reliability in qualitative research is made with alternative concepts and procedures developed in parallel to those in the quantitative paradigm discussed above. Despite the abundance of categories used for the measurement of validity in qualitative research (see, for example, categories of Lincoln & Guba, 1985)<sup>20</sup>, the five categories (i.e. descriptive validity, interpretive validity, theoretical validity, generalizability, and evaluative validity) identified by Maxwell (2002) stand out as the most cited ones in qualitative research; and seem to be the most exhaustive conceptualization of the term.

Descriptive validity, Maxwell (2002) asserted, concerns the accurate reflection of what has been said or done by the respondents in the researcher's report. This might be ensured by remaining loyal to what the researcher saw and heard, without fabricating, falsifying, or omitting participants' accounts. As Thomson (2011) and Maxwell (2002) maintained, descriptive validity is the foundation stone on which all the other types of validity are constructed.

Interpretive validity refers to the extent to which the interpretations of the data are freed from the researcher's own outlooks, but rooted in participants' perspectives, that is, how they make sense of their own explanations, words, or actions in the context under scrutiny. Therefore, such cues as body language and basic transcription information (e.g. laughter, word-stress, emphatic stress) through which participants can ascribe additional meaning to what they literally say or apparently do were used in the transcripts when necessary.

Theoretical validity, however, moves from matters of description and interpretation to the question of how the researcher theoretically builds her/his constructs (i.e. concepts or notions) and the link between these constructs (Maxwell, 2002). This can replace construct validity of quantitative research. The other category, generalizability, according to Maxwell (2002), is related to the degree to which one can make connections of a particular situation or population to more general situations, wider

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<sup>20</sup> Lincoln and Guba prefer the term *trustworthiness* over *validity* in qualitative research and identify four categories to evaluate the *trustworthiness* of a qualitative study: *credibility*, *transferability*, *dependability*, and *confirmability* which overlap in many respects with Maxwell's categories.

populations, and different settings. However, the notion of generalizability reminds of the link to quantitative research. Therefore, Richards' (2003) concept of *resonance* is more appropriate than generalization for qualitative studies. Lastly, one can see that in evaluative validity, the focus shifts to examination of the researcher's evaluation, putting the data aside (Maxwell, 2002). To meet evaluative validity, the researcher is supposed to avoid making claims derived from his/her understanding of the situation, events or accounts, but rely on the data itself (Thomson, 2011). To the extent a researcher grounds his/her evaluations in and draws the results from the data, the evaluative validity is reinforced and becomes far stronger, which is the objective of this research.

#### **4.8 Ethical considerations**

Ethical considerations and ownership of the research hold an important place in framing the research design and are among the vital elements to be addressed while carrying out social studies, especially those employing qualitative methods, since they are more concerned with the participants' personal and private sphere i.e. personal views, sensitive issues, and information (Punch, 2005). The ethical considerations taken into account in this study chiefly include assurance of voluntary informed consent, anonymity, confidentiality, right to refuse/withdraw at any time/stage of the project, ownership of the data, minimization of the risks to participants (Cohen et. al., 2011; Dörnyei, 2007). Furthermore, the responsibilities to participants (e.g. openness and disclosure, right to withdraw, privacy, incentives) were given careful consideration in line with the British Educational Research Association (BERA) Ethical Guidelines (2011, pp. 5-8).

The participants were informed about ethical standards at the onset of the study with informed consent, risk assessment, and participant information sheet forms in which detailed information on the research project was given to the participants in accordance with the institutional guidelines of the sponsor university and the universities where the study was conducted (see appendices 5, 6, and 7 for sample forms). The given information was on the following matters: the content of the research, why they were chosen as participants, their rights (e.g. voluntary participation, withdrawal), and the detriments arising from participation. In general, involvement in activities like filling out questionnaires and taking part in interview sessions did not offer any significant

danger to participants. Participants were assured that the data they provided would be anonymously used throughout the research with pseudonyms that do not reveal their identities when reporting the data.

#### **4.9 Reflexivity: My role as a researcher**

No matter how hard researchers attempt to leave out their personal preferences/biases in their research, it will be influenced one way or another by their own perspectives, experiences, and ideologies. There is, thus, a need for researchers to account for their potential influences on their research, by reflecting “on their own positioning and subjectivity in the research and provide an explicit, situated account of their own role in the project and its influences over the findings” (Starfield, 2010, p. 54). This process, known as *reflexivity* in research terms, “challenges us to be more fully conscious of our own ideology, culture, and politics and that of our participants and our audience” (Etherington, 2004, p. 36). It is further argued that if research is to be useful, valid, rigorous, and high quality, any researcher should be reflexive irrespective of what methods and perspectives they use (Etherington, 2004; Gilgun, 2010; Guillemin & Gillam, 2004). By being reflexive here, I intend to account for how I experienced myself as a researcher and my participants, and how my participants experienced me as the researcher, that is, how they viewed me/my role during the data collection process.

Reflexivity is generally considered a process that more qualitatively-oriented researchers should engage in and account for. Gilgun (2010) maintained, however, that “we often are unaware of what we think and believe and the implications of our interactions until we write about them and discuss them with others” (p. 7). This occurred to me when I got feedback from two experts and my pilot-study participants on the first draft of my questionnaires. They recommended that I avoid asking leading and emotional questions which could channel the participants towards a particular answer. I realized that I unwittingly mapped my own perspectives and beliefs in the wording, organization, and order of the some options in the third section of the questionnaire, and that even such-simple looking mechanics of the questionnaire might affect the participants’ answers, and ultimately the findings.

During the questionnaire study, as Adler and Adler (1994) recommended, I presented myself as a complete outsider who had no affiliation with them and their institutions, or, to put it more precisely, an outsider that they would not call one of us (Breen, 2007).

My outsider-status proved to be both advantageous and disadvantageous. While it became a hindrance in gaining access to the research sites and recruiting participants, it was helpful in getting more sincere and objective answers as participants could answer the questions based on their own views and perspectives rather than provide answers that would be viewed favourably by me. Despite having no direct contact with my participants when collecting questionnaire data, I confined them to make choices out of the options I provided. Designed with closed-ended items, the questionnaire did not allow them to bring their own perspectives, but required them to work within the limits of the freedom I drew for them. That is, wording of the items, categories, descriptors used in the questionnaire, all produced from my perspectives, could influence my participants' views about, understanding, and interpretations of the questions, and answers inevitably. Although the option *other* was given in some questions so that the participants could make their own comments, they might yet still have felt forced to give an answer or leave out the question(s).

During the interviews, I was no longer a total stranger as both teaching staff and students were aware of my presence and purpose, but I was still an outsider. This proved to be helpful for some reasons and a hindrance for others. It was helpful in that being aware of my outsider-status and unfamiliarity with the research setting and community, both lecturers and students appeared willing to talk to me at length about what they knew and experienced concerning language policy issues. Besides this, as an outsider, I did not need to tackle role duality; that is, I was neither an instructor nor a friend of the students, and neither a colleague nor a student of the lecturers. I was a researcher only. With this role, I believe, it became possible to remove the research biases on the part of my participants. This is because people tend to respond differently based on who is asking the question. I felt, despite my outsider-status, that my researcher identity provided an advantage to me in my efforts to find voluntary participants for the interview sessions. Their readiness to help me appeared clearly in collecting my qualitative data. I had a larger number of interviewees than I expected, and the interviews were mostly informal and longer. The main disadvantage I felt was related to access and recruitment issues, particularly at the stage of arranging interviews.

I had much apparent and direct influence on the participants during the interviews, having the control of asking them questions on the topics I was interested in. It was, hence, probable that my choice of topics, wordings, purpose, and structure moulded

their opinions and responses. This is what researchers call *halo effect* in research, which accounts for the situations “when interviewees pick up cues from the researcher related to what they think the researcher wants them to say, thus potentially influencing their responses” (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 174). Furthermore, there were many cases where the participants picked up and reiterated my words, expressions, and phrases in their answers. This is a natural aspect of conversation exchanges as people often adjust to each other’s language by picking up certain words, phrases and expressions from their conversation partners. However, it might play a leading role in the answers elicited from the participants. Therefore, in the analysis chapter, I provided interview excerpts that not only displayed what my participants said but also my own questions. I might have also influenced them when I referred to research findings and discussions that contradicted what they had believed or taken as for granted until then.

#### **4.10 Summary and conclusion**

In this chapter, I considered a number of methodological issues relevant for the design and operation of this research. First, I reviewed the methods previously used in language attitude and ideology research with reference to their strengths and weaknesses. The principal aim was to identify the most appropriate methods to employ for data collection. After that, I laid out the research aims, objectives, and questions of the study. I further presented the research design along with explanations of why it was chosen. My focus, then, shifted to the manner of data collection by presenting the research instruments employed to collect data. Next, I set out the issues pertinent to validity and reliability from quantitative and qualitative perspectives alongside ethical considerations applied in the conduct of the research.

It is my hope to have shown that the diverse methodological elements I dealt with and the procedures I followed in this chapter have served the purpose of providing accurate and satisfactory answers to the research questions of the study. In the next four chapters, I will turn to the explanation of data analysis procedures followed, and presentation of the results.





## CHAPTER 5: ANALYSIS OF LANGUAGE POLICY DOCUMENTS

### 5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis of policy documents and website data on academic English language policies and practices at each university under investigation. First, it introduces the analytical tools used in the analysis. It then provides some information about the analytical procedures of data analysis, followed by the actual policy and website data analysis of each university under the following categories: (a) the perceived role(s) of English in the university, (b) English language requirements, (c) the pre-faculty EAP program and (d) the faculty EAP program.

Overall, the data presented here, firstly, attempts to reveal how universities orient to English, and what kind of English they refer to in their policy documents. Secondly, it offers insights into the kind of English language ideology the language policy managers (policy makers) have in relation to language acts of their institutions' stakeholders (students & academic staff). Thirdly, although the analysis does not directly provide answers to the research questions of this investigation, it facilitates an understanding of the responses students and lecturers give to the questions about language policies and practices in the questionnaire (Chapter 6) and interviews (Chapters 7 & 8). Lastly, and maybe above all, it helps reduce the gap identified in Spolsky's (2004) framework by looking at the intended language practices in the policy documents.

### 5.2 Analytical tools of language policy analysis

The primary analytical tool used in the analyses of language policy documents is qualitative content analysis (QCA; Berg, 2001; Dörnyei, 2007; Hsieh & Shannon, 2005; Schreier, 2012; Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009). Using QCA, I will transcend the surface level analysis (i.e. literal meaning) of the policy data, and my main focus will be thus on latent content, i.e. "the *deep structural* meaning conveyed by the message" (Berg, 2001, p. 242; italics in original). This sort of content analysis is termed by Dörnyei (2007) as "latent level analysis" through which researchers attempt to conduct "a second-level, interpretative analysis of the underlying deeper meaning of the data" (p. 246).

This method is particularly useful when examining what is said in the content for descriptions of English language policies and practices as well as looking "at how something is being said or expressed" within content (Schreier, 2012, p. 19). Namely,

QCA equally pays attention to how words are chosen in the content besides investigating what is literally said (Berg, 2001). Figuratively, Berg (2001) asserted that QCA “is a passport to listening to the words of the text, and understanding better the perspective(s) of the producer of these words” (p. 242). This document analysis mainly aims to understand the perspectives of policy makers (language managers) for such an understanding will permit me to gain insights about their ideological mindsets (assumptions) concerning English and language practices.

Moreover, QCA analysis can be used in combination with other analytical tools in cases where QCA alone fails to satisfy the objectives of the analysis. I will put discourse analysis into the service of QCA as a secondary analytical tool so as to uncover language ideologies underpinning policy makers’ decisions on language practices and their perceptions of the role of English. Through the support of discourse analysis (Fairclough, 1995; Gee, 2011), QCA converts into what Schreier (2012) called “a critical QCA” (p. 50) in which linguistic elements that are exploited for the purpose of perpetuating a particular ideology or ideologies and linguistic inequalities (power-related/political issues) are examined in addition to analysing the textual content of the language policy data.

Unlike QCA, discourse analysis is concerned both with the “[a]nalysis of what is and what is not there in the material” (Schreier, 2012, p. 47). The analysis of such absent features, topics, or issues in the discourse of the policy materials can be done by carrying out “a “negative” analysis” in which attention is devoted to “meaningfully absent” elements as argued by Pauwels (2012, p. 253) in his multimodal framework for analysing website data. Performing such an analysis is considerably important in my research because *de facto* language policies are not always explicitly mentioned in the declared policy statements, but it is still possible to determine the real language policies by examining the language policy mechanisms and their potential impacts on language practices. Therefore, while carrying out the website data and policy document analysis in the subsequent sections, at the analytical level, I will primarily draw on QCA, and will further support it with discourse analysis and negative analysis.

### **5.3      Analysing the policy documents data**

The policy documents to be analysed in the subsequent sections were mainly acquired from each university’s websites. The data included a combination of multimodality of

aural (a sample speaking test), audio-visual (e.g. introductory videos) and largely textual data (e.g. website data, student handbooks, strategic plans). However, I should note that I did not run a multimodal analysis because my main focus was on textual data where language policy decisions are overtly stated or covertly implied. Therefore, I did not analyse the visual elements (e.g. photographs, logos). In the event of the absence of information on certain language policies and mechanisms, I attempted to gain additional information from other relevant sources, such as online forums where university students/staff hold conversations on the absent topics. I myself even posted some queries on, for example, which materials (e.g. course books, dictionaries) are used in their English language schools.

After having collected and thoroughly read the contents of the policy data obtained from each university, I firstly organized the data according to certain content elements based on the recurring themes in the website data and policy documents. In doing so, I identified a similar pattern in each university's websites and policy documents with respect to the ways they talk of the role(s) of English, and the ways they publicize their policies. I then grouped these emerging themes under four main categories based on the relationship of the identified sub-themes with each other. The analysis will examine the content elements classified under the following categories:

- The role(s) assigned to English in universities
- English language requirements
- Language support in the Pre-faculty EAP programs
- Language support in the Faculty EAP programs

For the purpose of ensuring validity, I will present detailed excerpts from relevant policy statements wherever necessary and provide contextual information about where the excerpts are taken from in order to ensure that the analysis is “*solid*,” “*comprehensive*” and is “presented in a *transparent* way, allowing the reader, as far as possible, to test the claims [and interpretations] made” (Jørgensen & Phillips, 2002, p. 173; italics in original). Having said this, I now turn to the analysis of the policy data.

### **5.3.1 Bilkent University**

#### **5.3.1.1 The role(s) assigned to English**

While exploring the About Bilkent section and relevant sub-sections on its website, the first thing I noticed in Bilkent's mission statement<sup>21</sup> is the following declaration:

“Education at Bilkent is not a simply a means to obtain a vocation, a career. Instead, it endeavours to nurture students in the way of thinking and of learning to learn” (para. 1).

Considering that Bilkent is an English-only university, it assumes that such an intellectual growth will occur through using English in teaching rather than the students' mother tongue. Further, one can easily see the direct references made in the University Facts<sup>22</sup> page to the presence of “international faculty members from 40 countries” (para. 7), “student exchange program agreements with over 250 universities around the world” (para. 9), and its high ranking positions in the league tables of the top universities. In another section, Historical Background<sup>23</sup>, attention is drawn again to the institution's international profile, referring to the high proportion of international academic staff and “foreign students from different countries” (para. 4), its exchange programs with institutions abroad, and its high ranking “in Turkey and internationally in number of published papers per faculty member” (para. 8).

What I find particularly interesting in the Historical Background section is the emphasis on the fact that many of Bilkent's international teaching staff “were working in prominent universities in North America and Europe” (para. 8) before they joined Bilkent. Added to this, when examples are given for the countries Bilkent collaborates and exchanges students and staff with, out of nine countries mentioned by name, four are ENL countries (i.e. Australia, the UK, Canada, and the USA) while the rest are comprised of European countries and Japan (see para. 6). It seems to me that English is perceived to play a strong role in Bilkent's avowed international status, and its connection with the outside world, particularly with native English speaking countries and hence with native English. Therefore, English and EMI programs appear to function as a master key that opens Bilkent's doors to international arenas, thereby contributing to its internationalization efforts, and to what it “prides itself on”, i.e. “its truly

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<sup>21</sup> <http://w3.bilkent.edu.tr/bilkent/mission/>

<sup>22</sup> <http://w3.bilkent.edu.tr/bilkent/university-facts/>

<sup>23</sup> <http://w3.bilkent.edu.tr/bilkent/historical-background/>

international perspective” (Bilkent in Brief section<sup>24</sup>, para. 3). Judging from Bilkent’s perceptions about the role of English, it seems that the language management draws on the ideology of Englishization as internationalization, i.e. the belief that English internationalizes the university (see Botha, 2014 for a similar argument).

### **5.3.1.2 English language requirements**

For applications to the university, Bilkent recognizes certain international language exams (i.e. IELTS, TOEFL IBT, CAE (Cambridge English: Advanced), and FCE (Cambridge English: First). The acceptance of these exams implies that Bilkent welcomes AmE and BrE on its campus. However, there is no mention or problematizing of AmE and BrE differences. That is, the website data and policy documents do not include any information whether one is favoured over the other or both varieties are acceptable for language practices. I will turn to this issue later in this section.

Bilkent also administers its own language examination which students can take after registration. However, it provides no information about exemptions from the submission of exam result. This leads me to conclude that regardless of students’ backgrounds, they all have to meet the minimum language requirements to be able to begin their degree programs. As to the kind of English deemed appropriate for academic studies, Bilkent does not specify anything about it. However, the fact that Bilkent requires all its prospective students to prove their English proficiency in native English (especially AmE and BrE) grounded language tests provides evidence that the kind of English it wants is native English. Further, these tests tend to link English language-test scores on the CEFR, which, as argued before, takes native English as its yardstick in the assessment of language skills. This makes Bilkent’s native-English orientation even clearer.

For those students who do not have results from the above-mentioned international tests, Bilkent administers its own English language proficiency and placement exam, i.e. COPE (Certificate of Proficiency in English), on their arrival to the university. Designed and given by the Bilkent University School of English Language (BUSEL), the test, akin to its international equivalents, aims to measure candidate students’ four major English skills in two phases. The focus in the first phase is on testing “a student’s

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<sup>24</sup> <http://www.exchange.bilkent.edu.tr/bilkent.html>

knowledge of grammar and vocabulary” (COPE Guidelines, 2014, p. 2). The second phase focuses on assessing students’ writing, reading, listening, language skills (i.e. grammar) and speaking.

What I found notable in the COPE Guidelines (2014) is that despite the existence of much information about the contents of the each exam, the assessment criteria seem to be meaningfully absent in Pauwels’ (2012) terms, except for the speaking exam for which detailed information is given in a separate file in the Announcements<sup>25</sup> page of the BUSEL’s website. It is interesting that BUSEL publicizes the criteria for speaking explicitly, but does not do the same regarding other skills. A possible explanation for this is that in the Turkish context the issue of prosodic features (e.g. accents, pronunciation, and intonation) is relatively salient in language education and hence in language use. It might be for this reason that Bilkent prefers to be explicit about its speaking criteria. The document<sup>26</sup> on speaking criteria elucidates that the assessment of the speaking skill is done on students’ ability to:

- expand their answers and produce relevant, coherent and meaningful speech.
- use *correct* intonation, rhythm and pronunciation so as to be understood easily.
- speak *fluently* and coherently on a range of topics without any *unnatural hesitation*.
- communicate clearly and support what they are saying by using relevant examples and detail.
- consistently use a wide range of language *naturally, accurately* and *appropriately*.
- make themselves *clearly understandable to the listener* (my italics; p. 1).

In addition to the above information, a digitally audio-recorded sample speaking test<sup>27</sup> is publicly available for students on the COPE speaking exam page. The purpose of this sample is to show candidate students what they are expected to do for being successful in the speaking exam. Listening to the audio-sample, it becomes evident that the speaking exam is administered by an AmE speaker with two Turkish students. It is also overtly cited that students’ level of performance has to be at the B2 level of the CEFR.

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<sup>25</sup> For COPE Speaking Exam Information, visit <http://www.idmyo.bilkent.edu.tr/duyurular.html>

<sup>26</sup> Available at [http://www.idmyo.bilkent.edu.tr/duyuru\\_new\\_speaking\\_exam\\_2015agu.pdf](http://www.idmyo.bilkent.edu.tr/duyuru_new_speaking_exam_2015agu.pdf)

<sup>27</sup> Available at [http://www.idmyo.bilkent.edu.tr/cope\\_speaking\\_exam\\_sample.html](http://www.idmyo.bilkent.edu.tr/cope_speaking_exam_sample.html)

In light of the above latent analysis, the deeper meaning of the message is that Bilkent's own language exam measures students' English proficiency in standard native English. This can be also understood from the discourse of the assessment criteria set down for the speaking exam, in which attention is on correct, accurate, and appropriate grammar use, pronunciation, intonation and rhythm, to name but a few. It may be also the case that even if BUSEL does not say it explicitly, the same normative criteria will translate into the assessment of students' writing. Consequently, the overall impression created by the exam criteria is that Bilkent expects their students to conform to standard academic English in all their language practices. Additionally, the conduct of the speaking tests by Americans gives the indication that Bilkent actually favours AmE over other kinds. Further evidence supporting this conclusion is the use of standard AmE (e.g. spelling, American vocabulary, and terms) in the English version of the university website.

#### **5.3.1.3 Language support in the pre-faculty EAP program**

As to those students who fail in the COPE exam, Bilkent places them in its pre-faculty EAP program so that they can acquire the expected level of English via intensive English courses. This program is under the directorship of BUSEL whose mission is, as stated in the welcome message of its American director in the BUSEL Student Handbook<sup>28</sup>, to prepare “students for English medium academic study in the faculties and vocational training schools within the university” (p. 2). The BUSEL Handbook<sup>29</sup> states that the preparatory school employs around 170 language instructors, particularly underlining the fact that many of them are international teachers. Although no specifics are available about their nationalities, it turns out from the academic staff page that international staff largely consist of British and American teachers. This shows that *international* is a euphemism for native English teachers when it collocates with teaching staff, as is often the case in other institutions in non-Anglophone countries (see, e.g. Kirkpatrick, 2011; Saarinen, 2012; Saarinen & Nikula, 2013).

After being placed at one of the six levels (beginner to pre-faculty) based on their COPE scores, students undergo continuous assessment in the program by sitting for several course specific (End of Course Assessments, ECAs) and level-specific (Cumulative

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<sup>28</sup> Available at <http://www.idmyo.bilkent.edu.tr/kilavuzeng.pdf>

<sup>29</sup> Available at [http://www.idmyo.bilkent.edu.tr/0405Kilavuz/kilavuz\\_eng.pdf](http://www.idmyo.bilkent.edu.tr/0405Kilavuz/kilavuz_eng.pdf)



Achievement Tests, CATs) tests as well as completing learning portfolios, tasks and quizzes. However, no detailed information is presented either in the handbooks or on the website about how students are assessed in these tests, tasks, and quizzes. Concerning the teaching materials, what is told is the existence of a textbook development unit which produces the course books to be used in the program. Again, nothing is said about the contents of these books and the language teaching approach adopted, except for the explanation in the BUSEL Staff Handbook<sup>30</sup> that “[t]he textbooks are designed according to objectives specified in the Preparatory Program’s syllabus with the development of writing skills being of central importance” (p. 15). One later learns from Frequently Asked Questions<sup>31</sup> page that the school “make[s] use of commercially prepared materials as well as a collection of software” (para. 30). Yet, the school does not say which commercial materials they use. Therefore, one is left to infer what the school means by commercially prepared materials. When Bilkent’s native English orientation in its language requirements is considered, it is very likely that the school uses commercial materials particularly designed to teach native English by publishing companies located most probably in the native English speaking countries (e.g. the UK, the USA).

Other than its textbook unit, the program embodies special units such as Curriculum and Testing Unit (CTU), Testing Development Coordinator (TDC), and Teacher Training. The point I realized in relation to TDC is that the head of testing is an American teacher; however, all other sub-units are headed by Turkish teachers. Turning to Teacher Training section in the BUSEL Staff Handbook, one sees that it attempts at offering “in-service teacher training for newly-qualified instructors and in-service teacher training courses for instructors” with an aim to “maintain a high degree of *professionalism* among its staff” (p.15; my italics). Interestingly, the assumption seems to be that such professionalism will be achieved when instructors manage to “receive an internationally-recognized certificate or diploma from University of Cambridge ESOL” (p. 15). Another remarkable detail I noticed is the differences in the minimum job requirements set down for local and international applications. One can see that although nothing is mentioned about language requirements for international candidates, proof of English proficiency is overtly imposed as a requirement for Turkish applicants,

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<sup>30</sup> Available at [http://fae.bilkent.edu.tr/fae\\_data/bsh.pdf](http://fae.bilkent.edu.tr/fae_data/bsh.pdf)

<sup>31</sup> [http://busel.bilkent.edu.tr/?page\\_id=792](http://busel.bilkent.edu.tr/?page_id=792)

with the acceptance of usual language tests (e.g. IELTS, TOEFL). It is clearly inferred from the implementations of TDC and teacher recruitment policy that the school not only wants its teaching staff to teach native English, but also wants them, particularly its NNEST staff, to use native or native-like English.

#### **5.3.1.4 Language support in the faculty EAP programs**

The faculty academic English (FAE) program provides English language support for students in their programs with a set of selective and compulsory content-based and academic skills courses. In the Aims & Purposes<sup>32</sup> section of the program website, one of the aims is to empower students to “assess and continue to improve their *linguistic accuracy and expression*” (my italics; para. 2). Also, it seems clear in the Who we are<sup>33</sup> section that much emphasis is put on the productive skills, particularly students’ academic writing as the program instructors are tasked with designing “meaningful courses which emphasize *high standards of academic writing achievement*” (my italics; para. 1). According to the BUSEL Handbook, the program has roughly 60 teachers, “many of whom are international faculty” (p. 3). Yet again, *international faculty* seems to be substituted for NES teachers (from the UK, USA, and Canada) as could be understood from the online academic staff page of the program.

Unlike the preparatory program, the FAE program is more explicit about the courses offered (e.g. who teaches the courses, course aims) in its five teaching units. Each teaching unit is liable for providing discipline-specific language support to students in certain faculties. The courses seem to be mainly concerned with enhancing students’ writing (e.g. English and Composition I-II) and speaking (e.g. Advanced Communication Skills) along with grammar knowledge (e.g. Advanced English grammar I-II). For example, ENG 101 English and Composition 1<sup>34</sup>, which all first-year students have to take, seeks “to further develop the students’ *linguistic accuracy and range in English*” (para.1) while ENG 117 Advanced English Grammar 1<sup>35</sup> sets out “to help students to *further develop competency in grammar*” (my italics; para. 1). As is evident from the course aims, the main objective of the program is that students should learn how to use English in compliance with the conventions of StE.

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<sup>32</sup> [http://fae.bilkent.edu.tr/?page\\_id=33](http://fae.bilkent.edu.tr/?page_id=33)

<sup>33</sup> [http://fae.bilkent.edu.tr/?page\\_id=8](http://fae.bilkent.edu.tr/?page_id=8)

<sup>34</sup> <http://catalog.bilkent.edu.tr/current/course/c82101.html>

<sup>35</sup> <http://catalog.bilkent.edu.tr/current/course/c82117.html>

Moreover, the FAE program has a writing centre, i.e. BilWrite, whose main task is to provide feedback and assistance to students on their written assignments and problem areas in writing. The services students can freely benefit from are clearly described on its About BilWrite<sup>36</sup> section, by maintaining that BilWrite instructors are assigned to do the following:

- provide feedback on the overall organization of the paper, clarity, coherence, *language structure* and word choice, and whether it meets the requirements of the task.
- provide feedback in order to help students become *better writers*.
- help with *grammar*, but do not correct or ‘fix’ papers (my italics; para. 4-5)

The evidence thus far is that BilWrite and language support courses on writing attempt to encourage students to follow the norms of academic StE in their writing. In addition, the general presumption upheld appears to be that students will be better writers only if they can excel in correcting their grammar and language structure and avoid certain grammatical deviations from standard academic English. Furthermore, the high number of courses on writing and grammar, and the availability of a separate writing centre present substantial evidence that students’ competency in grammar and writing skills are perceived to be the most serious problem areas to be fixed in order to ensure their conformity to standard academic English in their language practices.

### 5.3.2 Boğaziçi University

#### 5.3.2.1 The role(s) assigned to English

As in Bilkent’s About Bilkent section, the first thing I noticed in Boğaziçi’s mission and vision statements<sup>37</sup>, and in the Facts and Figures handbook (2013) is the repetitive use of the word *international*, predominantly with reference to publications, projects, diversity of students and academic staff, and partnerships, *inter alia*. Its vision is clearly defined as to achieve “international excellence in education and research” (Vision & Mission page, para. 1). One of its mission statements reveals that the university aims at

[e]ducating individuals ... who can *think critically* and who, with their academic and cultural formation and self-confidence, are versatile, *creative*

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<sup>36</sup> <http://bilwrite.bilkent.edu.tr/>

<sup>37</sup> [http://www.boun.edu.tr/en\\_US/Content/About\\_BU/Vision\\_Mission](http://www.boun.edu.tr/en_US/Content/About_BU/Vision_Mission)

and capable of being *successfully employed* in academic institutions and in public or private sector (my italics; para. 1).

Another point I noticed in the History of Boğaziçi University<sup>38</sup> page is that Boğaziçi seems to take much pride in being a descendant of an American college (Robert College) founded in 1863 because the university maintains that “the sound academic traditions of Robert College form the nucleus of Boğaziçi University” (para. 9). It is also interesting that Boğaziçi refers to 1863 as its year of foundation, and claims that it is the first EMI institution in Turkish HE. However, the fact is that it was converted from Robert College’s university division in 1971, and took the name Boğaziçi University in the same year. It seems clear from Boğaziçi’s claims that it wants to turn its affiliation with the Robert College and its EMI nature into an advantage to promote itself.

In addition, the evidence which has emerged in Boğaziçi’s orientations to English suggests that the word *international* is primarily used to mean English. This is considerably manifest from the characterisations of English by implicit references as the means of Boğaziçi’s international activity, foreign student and staff recruitment, and achievement of international excellence. Also, the discourse used in its mission statement gives the impression that English-medium education will enable its students to easily find respected jobs, and develop their critical thinking skills and creativity. Based on Boğaziçi’s orientations to English, it is probably not a misrepresentation to say that the ideology of Englishization as internationalization is prevalent to a great extent among its language policy makers.

### **5.3.2.2 English language requirements**

Boğaziçi requires its forthcoming students to present some form of English language certification by taking the institution’s in-house language examination called Boğaziçi University English Proficiency Test (BUEPT), or an international English proficiency test (e.g. TOEFL IBT, CBT, PBT & IELTS) approved by the university senate. It also administers a test of written examination (TWE) for students who fail to satisfy the minimum requirement in the writing section of these tests. In relation to exemptions from the entry requirement, no information is available in the university’s Admission to

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<sup>38</sup> [http://www.boun.edu.tr/en\\_US/Content/About\\_BU/History](http://www.boun.edu.tr/en_US/Content/About_BU/History)

Undergraduate Programs from Abroad<sup>39</sup> page. However, it is later made clear in the 2014-2015 University Registration Information Booklet<sup>40</sup> that the language requirement applies to all international students, be they NESs or NNESs when they apply for an undergraduate program.

Nevertheless, regarding the admission of exchange students, it is indicated in the Application<sup>41</sup> page that “[n]on-native speakers of English should provide proof of English proficiency” (para. 8) with the above international tests. Likewise, in the Frequently Asked Questions<sup>42</sup> section, there is more detailed information given to prospective exchange students about who are exempt, and who are not from the language entry requirement. The statement reads as follows:

Language of instruction at Boğaziçi University is English. Erasmus exchange students and exchange students *whose native language is English do not need to provide any documentation*. But students *whose native language is not English need to provide proof of sufficient English proficiency* (my italics; para. 9).

The university’s School of Foreign Languages (SFL) administers its own language exam for students who “have not taken or passed the TOEFL or IELTS and are not exempt from the English proficiency exam” (2014-2015 University Registration Information Booklet, n.d., p. 9). Unlike Bilkent’s language test (COPE), BUEPT consists of only three sections: listening, reading, and writing. As I understand it, the test does not assess students’ speaking skills. Carried out in two stages, the test focuses on students’ listening and reading comprehension in the first stage. In the second stage, students sit for the writing exam. As specified in the online student handbook<sup>43</sup> regarding written expression, “[d]uring the evaluation process, what is predicated on is a *grammatically and semantically competent academic English*, and expression of ideas in a coherent manner” (my italics and translation; Sınav İçeriği – Exam Content – section, para. 3).

An implication of the analyses of the entry requirements is that Boğaziçi prefers to measure its students, particularly Turkish and other NNES students, against a native

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<sup>39</sup> <http://adaylar.boun.edu.tr/en-EN/Page/ApplicationDocuments/StudentsFromAbroad>

<sup>40</sup> [http://ogrenciler.boun.edu.tr/content/files/ukbk\\_en.docx](http://ogrenciler.boun.edu.tr/content/files/ukbk_en.docx)

<sup>41</sup> <http://www.intl.boun.edu.tr/?q=node/80>

<sup>42</sup> <http://www.intl.boun.edu.tr/?q=node/20>

<sup>43</sup> <http://yadyok.boun.edu.tr/birim/ogrenci-el-kitabi.htm>

English benchmark. The exemption of NES students further underpins the assumption that these students already possess the kind of English the university considers appropriate for the academic tasks they will carry out in their disciplines. The evidence from the above analyses also suggests that the language managers of Boğaziçi are subscribed to the ideology which equates the relevant kind of English with standard native English.

### **5.3.2.3 Language support in the pre-faculty EAP program**

The English Preparatory Division of the SFL is responsible for the language support provision to pre-faculty students. The principal aim is enhancing students' language skills to the desired level that will enable them to follow their studies in their disciplines. The program employs about 110 language instructors, of whom only twelve are international (eleven NESs and one Russian). The program's emphasis is on students' acquisition of reading, listening, and writing skills. With regard to writing skills, the statement which has captured my attention in the student booklet is that "the need arises for students to be able to use English *correctly* in their writing *as well* given that the examinations at the university are written" (my italics; section C, para.1). The use of the adverb *as well* suggests that students are not only expected to use English correctly in writing, but also in their verbal language practices, even though this is not stated.

After being placed in a suitable program level (beginner to advanced) based on their scores in the placement test, students are continually assessed over the academic year with several Achievement and Quarter exams as well as extra coursework. In no case is any information provided about the content, assessment, and type of the exams or teaching materials and approach. The reminder given to students is that they will be informed by their language instructors about the content, assessment, date, and venue as the exam dates draw near. In case of failure, it is clearly conveyed to students that they have to attend the eight-week summer school and sit again for the exam in August. However, there is a general lack of information clarifying what happens if students fail again at the end of the summer school. The absent information is quite important as the duration of the program is regarded as one-year. I will therefore re-address this issue in the analysis of student interviews in Chapter 8.

Turning to the units the program embodies, one can see that there is a course materials preparation unit which designs and implements the curriculum, and produces the teaching materials (e.g. textbooks, videos, tapes) and other complementary materials. In addition, it possesses a writing centre which aims to help preparatory students improve their academic writing skills. Writing centre instructors, as stated in the students' handbook, meet students one to one at students' request, and determine their problem areas in writing, making the necessary corrections on their sample papers. The services provided by the centre seem to be limited to editing and giving feedback, but it is again unclear what aspects of students' writing are addressed in tutors' feedback, except for grammatical corrections. In addition, the program does not provide any information about the recruitment of its teaching staff and the availability of any in-service training, except for the fact that almost all of its international teachers are NESs. The evidence I obtained about the preparatory program reveals that its main concern is to get NNEs students to gain levels and skills in standard academic English.

#### **5.3.2.4 Language support in the faculty EAP programs**

The Advanced English Division of the SFL provides language support services to students once they pass into their departments. The unit, as specified in its About Us<sup>44</sup> page, “aims to offer students a wide variety of electives that will contribute to their cultural formation and *confidence in written and oral expression in English*” (my italics; para. 1) and some required courses. These courses are taught by eleven language instructors, one of whom is an American, also the coordinator of the unit. The unit particularly emphasizes that the courses offered

... should be seen as part of *an intellectual adventure* through which students can further develop their literacy skills and learn to *think critically* about universally generated knowledge and *culture* while at the same time enjoying a concentrated opportunity to *improve their academic skills* in English (my italics; About Us, para. 2).

Upon checking its Course Details<sup>45</sup> page, it is evident from the courses offered that the main focus is on reading, writing, speaking, and discipline-specific terminology. In the

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<sup>44</sup> <http://www.advancedenglish.boun.edu.tr/index.htm>

<sup>45</sup> <http://advancedenglish.boun.edu.tr/courses-eng.html>

Undergraduate Catalogue<sup>46</sup>, the course aims are stated more explicitly. For example, AE 111 Advanced English, a required course for all students in the first year, aims “to enhance the spoken/written performance of *the non-native student* by emphasizing extensive discussion and essay production” (my italics; para. 1). In a speaking course (i.e. English through Public Speaking and Drama II), the objective is to develop “further skills in voice production and breathing techniques, intonation, emphasis, and articulation required in public speaking” (para. 6). Another course, AE 411 Language Awareness through Translation I, claims to “contribute to the discovery of the complexities of a target language” (para. 15). The word *target* refers to English as can be understood from the following course statement in the Course Details page: “Through intensive practice in English-Turkish/Turkish-English translation and comparative work on translated texts students will have a chance to focus on *accuracy, clarity, and flexibility* in language use and transfer of meaning across cultures” (my italics; para. 15). Overall, the common goal of each course seems to be to raise the level of English, increase mastery of English, and improve effective expression skills in English.

As to additional support for writing, an online writing service, Boğaziçi University Online Writing Lab (BUOWL) is available for students and language teachers. As stated in the General Information <sup>47</sup>on the BUOWL page, its aim is to help students and teachers of writing courses master academic writing, “with tips on grammar, punctuation, spelling, and other problems areas in English such as pronoun agreement, subject-verb agreement, and sentence fragments” (para. 2). It also serves as a resource centre where students can carry out several writing tasks and exercises, mostly on grammar and writing various types of essays. It is easily noticeable from the lab’s main goal<sup>48</sup> that the primary concern is with grammar, writing mechanics, organization, content, and lexis and structure. Its main goal is described as follows:

By the end of the Prep year, students will be able to write academic essays (and research papers) at Freshman level *clearly* and *accurately* at an *acceptable speed*. They will also have a critical awareness of their writing in terms of content, coherence and *linguistic accuracy* (my italics; para. 1).

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<sup>46</sup>[http://www.boun.edu.tr/en\\_US/Content/Academic/Undergraduate\\_Catalogue/The\\_School\\_of\\_Foreign\\_Languages/Advanced\\_English\\_Unit](http://www.boun.edu.tr/en_US/Content/Academic/Undergraduate_Catalogue/The_School_of_Foreign_Languages/Advanced_English_Unit)

<sup>47</sup><http://www.buowl.boun.edu.tr/buowlstudentsinfo.htm>

<sup>48</sup><http://www.buowl.boun.edu.tr/teachers/writing%20program.htm>



Given that the above statement takes place in the teachers' section<sup>49</sup> of the Online Writing lab, and the emphasis that BUOWL should be seen "as a resource book and a handbook for teachers" (para. 1) of writing courses in particular, the language managers' requirement is for teachers to compel students to adopt a standard way of writing/using English at an acceptable speed, that of an NES by implication. Despite being quite overt about its goals, the Advanced English program does not give much information about its teaching materials, assessment criteria, teaching approach, and the like either in its course descriptions or on its writing centre's page.

As can be seen, so far, from the above manifest and latent level analysis, the kind of English NNES students are expected to improve and master through faculty English courses and the help from the writing centre appears to be taken for granted as standard native English. Overall, the hidden message given to students in the program seems to be that they will have "confidence in written and oral expression in English" (About Us, para. 1) and use English effectively only if they adhere to the norms of standard native English in their language practices.

### **5.3.3 METU (Middle East Technical University)**

#### **5.3.3.1 The role(s) assigned to English**

Like Bilkent and Boğaziçi, METU foregrounds its international character in its General Information<sup>50</sup> page and particularly in its sub-section International Perspective. It features its international status, claiming that "[s]ince its foundation, METU, as an international research university, has been the leading university in Turkey in terms of depth and breadth of international ties and the amount of funds generated from international research projects" (para. 1). This general statement is further detailed with exact figures of its international students, exchange programs with many foreign universities, "joint degree programs with European and American universities" (para. 1), international associations and networks it belongs to, and accreditations and certifications obtained from international organizations. Interestingly, METU only specifies one of its accreditations, clarifying that it has managed to "have all its engineering programs accredited by the United States Accreditation Board for

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<sup>49</sup> <http://www.buowl.boun.edu.tr/fbuowlteachersinfo.htm>

<sup>50</sup> <http://www.metu.edu.tr/general-information>

Engineering and Technology” (para. 5). This shows how explicit the institution is regarding its ties with the USA.

In a relevant linked document, METU Strategic Plan 2011-2016 (2011), the university senate seems to build a close link between the institution’s internationalization efforts and its EMI nature (see Jenkins’s 2014 analysis of METU’s website data/strategic plan for an earlier argument in this respect). Some of its strategies are enumerated as to increase its international recognition, collaboration, the number of international publications, students, and external evaluations of its academic programs, among many others. The assumption seems that English will facilitate all these efforts. One example justifying this assumption actually exists in METU’s own descriptions of its international perspectives. It describes the perceived role of English as follows:

English as the language of instruction in all its degree programs has greatly facilitated METU's efforts to accommodate international students and researchers. METU hosts over **1,700 international students** from nearly **94** different countries studying toward [a] myriad of academic degrees (emphasis in original; para. 2).

In addition to outlining METU’s internationalization strategies, the plan also includes a large number of strategies with respect to English, which primarily set out to raise students’ English proficiency levels by “[p]roviding opportunities for students to use the foreign language in an effective communication both in written and spoken form throughout their education in their departments” (Strategy 2.2.1, p. 21). It is evident that English is again euphemised as *the foreign language*, but the kind of English students need to use for effective communication remains unclear. I will look at this issue in the next section by turning to the language entry requirements and pre-faculty and faculty EAP programs at METU.

### 5.3.3.2 English language requirements

METU, as with Bilkent and Boğaziçi, recognizes TOEFL IBT, IELTS and its own institutional exam, i.e. METU English Proficiency Exam (EPE) for applications to its programs. On its Registrar’s Office’s General Information<sup>51</sup> page, the institution expresses clearly that “[a]ll students who wish to carry out their undergraduate or graduate studies at METU have to certify their proficiency in the English language” (my

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<sup>51</sup> <http://oidb.metu.edu.tr/en/general-information>

italics; para. 1). Although the language requirement seems to be valid for all students, the additional policy information given later, as can be seen below, reveals that the exemption from this requirement can actually apply to some students.

For the undergraduate programs, the English proficiency of students who are *nationals of English speaking countries and who have graduated from institutions of secondary education after receiving education with the nationals of those countries for at least the last three years*, is evaluated by the SFL Administrative Board. For the graduate programs, those who are *the citizen of a country official language of which is English and graduated from universities providing their education in English* do not have to certify their proficiency in the English language (my italics; para. 1).

It is evident from the above statement that not all students have to certify their English proficiency. Also, it seems to me that what the institution has in mind as English speaking countries are those Anglophone countries where English is used by its NESs. In light of the evidence, so far, it would be fair to conclude that what METU means by all students is all NNES students who are obliged to prove their English in AmE- or BrE-oriented exams.

As to METU's own language exam, all prospective students have to take it unless they submit an accepted score from the recognized international tests. It aims to assess whether students' English is eligible enough to fulfil the course requirements. In general, the exam, as stated in the METU-EPE booklet<sup>52</sup>, "is mainly concerned with assessing students' proficiency in reading and understanding academic texts, their ability to follow lectures, take notes and make use of these notes, as well as their competence in composing academic texts of varying length" (p. 1). That is, the exam mainly addresses students' EAP skills (i.e. reading, listening comprehension, and writing competence). It is notable, though, that there is no assessment of students' verbal communication skills which they obviously need in various academic tasks such as presentations, discussions, and workshops.

Administered in two sessions, the exam assesses students' listening comprehension and reading comprehension in the first session while it focuses on their language use, note taking, and writing in the second session. In the EPE booklet, I particularly looked at the assessment objectives to find out against what benchmark students' English is judged,

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<sup>52</sup> Available at [http://www.dbe.metu.edu.tr/prf/EPE\\_booklet\\_ENG.pdf](http://www.dbe.metu.edu.tr/prf/EPE_booklet_ENG.pdf)

and what kind of English they are expected to use. For example, one objective in relation to listening comprehension is “[t]o assess the candidate's ability to deduce the meaning of *functional expressions*, *idiomatic expressions*, vocabulary and *structure*, to identify paraphrasing and to draw conclusions” (my italics; p. 3). Additionally, more normative objectives stand out regarding the assessment criteria for language use and writing. Below are two of these normative assessment objectives:

To assess the candidate's ability to understand context and vocabulary in order to produce the right word that fits the context both meaningfully and grammatically (the cloze test section; p. 12).

To assess the candidate's ability to use *correct*, *appropriate* language structures, vocabulary and discourse features in writing, to follow the *conventions of standard written English*, to produce a cohesive and coherent piece of writing that *accomplishes the given task* (the paragraph writing section; my italics; p. 17).

It is sufficiently evident from the above assessment objectives that METU-EPE also attempts to measure students' EAP skills against standard native English norms, and expects its candidate students to conform to these norms in their language use, particularly in writing. It is also important to note that such prescriptive expectations are implicitly conveyed to students in the latent content as a disguised suggestion that they can successfully fulfil “the given tasks” if they succeed in using “the conventions of standard” native academic English.

### **5.3.3.3 Language support in the pre-faculty EAP program**

The Department of Basic English (DBE) runs the language support program for students whose level of English is below the required level to pursue their undergraduate studies. It aims at helping students acquire the basic academic skills they need to follow courses and satisfy course requirements. It is part of the SFL, whose mission is to provide “students studying at METU with *English language education at international standards* by coordinating and monitoring the academic work in its departments” (my italics; Welcome to METU SFL<sup>53</sup> page, para. 1). The main focus of the program is on developing students' four major skills. It runs its courses in five different levels, with

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<sup>53</sup> <http://ydyom.metu.edu.tr/en/>

over 200 language instructors, of whom only nine are international (seven NESs, one Italian, and one Russian).

The emphasis of language education and the intensity of courses vary in respect to students' levels of English. For instance, in respect to students in the lower levels, more attention is given to reinforcing their basic language skills and vocabulary. However, for students in the upper levels, the focus is on their effective use of the four skills in completing various tasks similar to what they will face in their departments. In the Advanced level, where students English is considered “only slightly below the required level by the university” (para. 7), the aim, as stated in the Courses<sup>54</sup> section, is “to *perfect the skills and language* necessary to practice academic skills at their faculties” (my italics; para. 8).

Looking at the discourse of the course aims, I noted the frequent reference to language (e.g. equipment of students with the basic language, further language reinforcement). It is also interesting that *language* is used without regard to specific details. It seems to me, however, that it covertly refers to linguistic (grammatical) forms, structures, and mechanics. The department's efforts to make students master the (basic) language from the beginning level to the advanced level where they are expected to perfect their language skills unveils its unstated objective that students should conform to the established norms of standard academic English. This conclusion is quite feasible considering the kind of English the university considers appropriate for academic tasks on campus, as illustrated in the preceding section on the language requirements.

Unlike the pre-faculty EAP programs of Bilkent and Boğaziçi, METU's preparatory program does not share detailed information about the assessment of students' progress, contents of the courses, and teaching materials and approaches used. However, it gives precise information as to what happens when students fail to pass the proficiency exam at the end of the preparatory year, pointing to the availability of a Repeat level where failed students can get further language support. I will later address these meaningfully absent points in chapter 8 by drawing on students' interview data.

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<sup>54</sup> <http://dbe.metu.edu.tr/courses.htm>

#### 5.3.3.4 Language support in the faculty EAP programs

The faculty EAP courses are run by the Department of Modern Languages (DML). It has 72 English language instructors, including one American instructor. In its 'What's unique about us?'<sup>55</sup> page, it is easily noticed that the DML interprets its uniqueness in relation to the academic qualifications of its staff. It explicitly mentions that 75% of its staff hold a post-graduate degree in fields related to the English language (e.g. TESOL, ELT, Applied Linguistics). Further, it emphasises the fact that

[m]any of our faculty members also hold *international teaching certificates* such as the COTE, DELTA or ICALT. We *value our qualifications* as we believe in the importance of *professionalism in language education*, interaction of research and reflective practice, and career-long professional development (my italics; para. 2).

It is evident from the above statement that there is an implicit link between the DML's efforts and the SFL's mission, as stated earlier, which is to provide "English language education at international standards" (para. 1). It seems to me that international standards amount to the language teachers' holding one of the international teaching certificates, all provided by Cambridge English Language Assessment, particularly for NNEs. The impression the department creates is that when its teaching staff certify to teach standard native English, only then can they be considered to have achieved professionalism in teaching English.

As to the courses offered, almost all courses, whether required or elective, are concerned with improving students' EAP skills, especially writing (e.g. essay writing and paragraph writing) and speaking skills (e.g. presentation skills and job interviews). I particularly looked at the assessment criteria in the course outlines to figure out what is expected of students in their oral and written language practices. It is remarkable that courses on writing and speaking skills relatively depend on an identical scoring rubric in which more weight is put on language than content. For instance, the course objective set for the Expository Paragraph Writing course is that students will "use correct, appropriate language structures, vocabulary and discourse markers" (para. 6). In line with this objective, students' writing is assessed in terms of language and mechanics

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<sup>55</sup> <http://www.mld.metu.edu.tr/node/20>

(e.g. sentence forms, word choice, register, punctuation, capitalization, and the like) according to the following criteria:

- The language and mechanics are accurate and appropriate.
- The paragraph displays a range of vocabulary and good control of advanced grammar structures.
- Register is appropriate.

Similarly, it is evident from ENG 211 Academic Speaking Skills Course Outline<sup>56</sup> that the courses on communication skills set such normative objectives for students' English as "[u]sing correct pronunciation, intonation and stress" (p. 1). In accordance with these objectives, in a range of speaking tasks (e.g. presentations, debate/discussion, role-plays) of communication-based courses (e.g. the ENG 211 Academic Speaking skills course), it is clearly outlined that a student gets the highest score in the language and vocal delivery sections of the course when she/he

- uses **topically rich & diverse** vocabulary
- uses **grammar** *correctly*
- **paraphrases** the original text
- uses *correct* **pronunciation**
- speaks at an *appropriate* **pace**
- speaks **fluently** avoiding frequent repetitions, hesitations & gap fillers
- **speaks loudly & clearly**
- speaks using *correct* **intonation** (ENG 211 Current Events Presentation Rating Scale; bold in original; my italics; pp. 1-2)

In addition to the EAP support, the METU SFL helps its members with a wide range of academic writing tasks (e.g. theses, journal articles, proposals) in its writing centre. The centre's main duty is specified in the What is the AWC<sup>57</sup> (academic writing centre) page as "to improve their writing skills by increasing awareness of their own writing process" (para. 1), as well as identifying their weak points in writing and reinforcing these points accordingly. As evident from the services they provide (e.g. improving paper's organization, cohesion and clarity; refining editing skills), what is meant by weak points

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<sup>56</sup> Available at <http://www.mld.metu.edu.tr/node/38>

<sup>57</sup> <http://www.awc.metu.edu.tr/what.html>

is indeed language and mechanics (e.g. sentence forms, word choice, register, punctuation, capitalization, and the like). The centre provides individuals with a series of links in its Useful Links page through which they can access online dictionaries (i.e. *The American Heritage Dictionary*, *Roget's Thesaurus*) and other writing centres in Turkey and around the world. Examining the links given in the section Other Centres<sup>58</sup> in the World, I noticed that all the links are American universities' writing centres. Judging from the centre's aims and the resources it recommends for improving academic writing skills, it is evident that the centre essentially intends to help the METU members write their academic manuscripts in standard native English or, more precisely, standard AmE.

#### **5.4 Summary and conclusion**

This chapter was born out of the need to get a much better picture of the selected universities' orientations to English via examining their documents on English language policies and practices. Also, I felt that this analysis was necessary to unearth the kind of language practices the language managers attempt to impose on students and teaching staff. The need also arose as I did not have any observation data on my participants' language practices, which thus left a gap in my investigation of language policy work in the selected universities. To soundly base my arguments on Spolsky's (2004) language policy components, and Shohamy's (2006) language policy mechanisms, I sought to compensate this gap by analysing the English language policy documents. To this end, at the analytical level, I used Schreier's (2012) QCA, and discourse analysis. To reinforce the effectiveness of discourse analysis, I also included Pauwels' (2012) negative analysis in my analytical framework. The analysis enabled me to examine the intended language practices, stated or implied in the policy documents, and to determine the relationship between language policy components, especially language beliefs (ideologies) and language practices.

The analysis offers answers in relation to the perceived roles of English, which is seen in each institution as the key to internationalization and intellectual development. Additionally, it shows that *international* has been implicitly equated with English. It is most likely owing to the belief that it is English which internationalizes their

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<sup>58</sup> <http://www.awc.metu.edu.tr/wcw.html>



universities. The analysis also reveals the lack of explicit references to the kind of English the institutions consider appropriate for language use in their policies. However, based on the clues given in the language policy mechanisms (e.g. entry requirements, EAP courses, teacher recruitment), the analysis further clarifies that the institutions covertly prioritize and prefer standard academic native English for language practices on campus. Their preference for this kind of English seems to be primarily informed by the ideology that standard native academic English is the most appropriate kind for academic language practices. The institutions' overall orientation to English suggests that they are considerably normative in their language policy documents regarding the intended language practices.

However, one does not know whether or how the language ideologies underlying the policy documents analysed here are reflected on the stakeholders' perceptions and desired language acts. For this reason, it is vital to explore whether and how the stakeholders buy into the ideologies of the language managers, and accordingly attempt to modify their (desired) language practices in line with the policy maker's expectations or challenge these top-down imposed ideologies on the ground level. Moreover, there are some areas highlighted in the above analysis where there is meaningfully absent information (Pauwels, 2012). Particularly, none of the universities talks of their content teachers (e.g. recruitment, their English, staff profile) or (the use of English in) content specific courses. These areas still need further investigation. In the next chapter, therefore, I will present the questionnaire findings of my research, and further investigate these relatively less addressed and overlooked areas in the policy documents in Chapters 7 and 8.

## **CHAPTER 6: QUESTIONNAIRE FINDINGS**

### **6.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the findings from the questionnaire data, and indicates how these findings relate to the research questions. It first introduces the methods of data analysis, followed by the presentation of the findings. The findings are separately presented for lecturers and students. For each group, the chapter first summarizes lecturers' and students' background characteristics. It then presents the results relating to English ability and English use, namely participants' perceptions of their own and other's English as well as their desired goals for written and spoken academic English. The results obtained from these sections concern the sub-questions 1a (How do lecturers/students perceive their language abilities and language use?) and 1b (How do they orient to written and spoken English?). After this, it explores participants' ideas about issues around global uses and users of English. In this manner, it addresses the first half of the RQ2 (What language attitudes and ideologies are prevalent among them, and what factors are involved in the formation of these ideologies?), and gives an insight into their overall orientation to English. Next, it moves on to the sections wherein participants' beliefs about the ideal teacher and language policies and practices are elicited. The results drawn from these sections pertain to the first part of the RQ2, too. Differences in participant's perceptions about various matters are analysed in the relevant sections via inferential statistics, and this helps partially answer the sub-question 1c (To what extent are there differences in their perceptions across disciplines?). Finally, the chapter ends with a concluding section, which highlights various points to be further explored in the next chapters.

### **6.2 Analytical methods of data analysis**

The questionnaire data employs a statistical approach for the presentation, interpretation, and analyses of the data. The statistical approach adopted comprises quantitative processes, the first of which is data recording. The statistical package for the social sciences (SPSS 21) was used to record and analyse the numeric data. Researchers can apply descriptive and inferential statistics, either separately or together in the analysis of quantitative data (Abbuhl, 2013; Dörnyei, 2003; Griffée, 2012). The research questions of this study call for both descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics are applied in an effort to "show trends or patterns" (Griffée, 2012,

p. 152) in participants' perceptions of English proficiency, global uses and users of English, and English language policies and practices by calculating frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations of their responses.

However, sub-research questions which look at whether differences in participants' perceptions emerge across some factors, such as their disciplines, and experiential differences with English language policies, can only be answered through inferential statistics. Inferential statistics, more sophisticated than descriptive statistics in respect to drawing inferences about a particular sample along with a wider population (Dörnyei, 2003), allows comparison of participants' views, beliefs and feelings, and accordingly reaches conclusions about the factors likely to influence their perceptions. The inferential statistics are conducted through non-parametric tests as the data are not normally distributed (Can, 2014). The tests conducted include the Kruskal-Wallis test, the Mann-Whitney test, the Chi-square test, and crosstabs which all attempt to identify the degree of differences in participants' responses to particular statements.

### **6.3 Analysis of the lecturer data**

#### **6.3.1 Characteristics of the lecturers**

In total, 72 lecturers took part in the study, 63.9% male and 36.1% female. They are all Turkish and speak Turkish as their L1. Their age widely ranged from 30 to 60 and above. Out of all the lecturers, 33.3% were from Bilkent, 30.6% from Boğaziçi, and 36.1% from METU. With respect to their disciplines, 33.3% were from the field of international relations, 47.2% from the field of mechanical engineering, and 19.4% from the field of history. In terms of their teaching positions, 38.9% were professors, 19.4% associate professors, 30.6% assistant professors, and 11.1% were PhD holders. Their experience of teaching content courses in English ranged from 1.5 to 39 years. Most of them earned their doctorate degrees in universities of native-English speaking countries (56.9% USA, 11.1% UK, and 4.2% Canada). However, 20.8% obtained their PhDs from different universities in Turkey and 6.9% from European universities. Table 4 shows lecturers' backgrounds in detail.

**Table 4.** Demographic characteristics of the lecturers

N= 72		(f)	(%)			(f)	(%)
Gender	Male	46	63.9	Teaching post	Prof.	28	19.4
	Female	26	36.1		Assoc. prof	14	19.4
Age	30-39	26	36.1	Experience in years	Assist. prof	22	30.6
	40-49	23	31.9		Doctor	8	11.1
	50-59	15	20.8		0-10	25	34.7
	60+	8	11.1		11-20	22	30.6
University	Bilkent	24	33.3	PhD country	21-30	16	22.2
	Boğaziçi	22	30.6		31+		
	METU	26	36.1		America	41	56.9
Discipline	International rel.	24	33.3		Turkey	15	20.8
	Mechanical Eng.	34	47.2		UK	8	11.1
	History	14	19.4		Canada	3	4.2
					Other	5	6.9

Regarding their overseas experience, 97.2% have been abroad while 2.8% have never been. Among the oft-mentioned reasons for being abroad were academic activities, stays, and recreational visits. Although the countries lecturers visited and stayed represented each continent, the USA was the most popular destination (93%), with a longer duration of stay, particularly to pursue post-graduate degrees, followed by the European countries (20.8%), the UK (16.6%) and Canada (6.9%).

### 6.3.2 Perceptions of English proficiency

#### 6.3.2.1 Lecturers' perceptions of their English proficiency

The data covered in this section aimed to explore how lecturers perceived their English proficiency in the major skill areas (writing, listening, vocabulary, speaking) and some of the sub-skill areas of writing and speaking. Lecturers were asked to assess their English on a four-point Likert scale, i.e. 1 (*poor*) to 4 (*excellent*) to express their portrayals of their skills in relation to academic English. Table 5 summarizes lecturers' self-assessments of their major skills and overall English proficiency.

**Table 5.** Lecturers' evaluation of their English ability

	Writing		Listening		Vocabulary		Speaking		Ov. prof.	
Scale labels	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Poor	-	-	-	-	1	1.4	1	1.4	-	-
Satisfactory	1	1.4	3	4.2	4	5.6	3	4.2	3	4.2
Good	22	30.6	16	22.2	29	40.3	27	37.5	23	31.9
Excellent	49	68.1	53	73.6	38	52.8	41	56.9	46	63.9

Table 5 indicates that more than 90% gave high self-ratings to each of their major skills, with the perception of their English being in the *good* and *excellent* range. It came as a surprise that none seemed to have any concerns regarding the level of their English in each skill area. With the Kruskal-Wallis test, a significant difference was found between their perceptions of overall proficiency and disciplines [ $X^2=8.59$ ,  $p<.05$ ]. The follow-up Mann-Whitney tests revealed that the history lecturers had significantly higher perceptions of their English than the international relations and engineering lecturers (see Appendix 8, p. 283, for the test results).

Table 6 shows the distribution of lecturers' self-assessments of specific language behaviours they display when using English, particularly effective writing and speaking.

**Table 6.** Lecturers' evaluations of their sub-skills

SN	N	S. agree		Agree		Disagree		S. disagree		Mean	SD
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	$\bar{x}$	s
S1	72	52	72.2	15	20.8	1	1.4	4	5.6	3.59	.78
S2	72	40	55.6	25	34.7	7	9.7	-	-	3.45	.67
S3	72	6	8.3	29	40.3	33	45.8	4	5.6	2.51	.73
S4	72	52	72.2	19	26.4	1	1.4	-	-	3.69	.54
S5	72	47	65.3	23	31.9	1	1.4	1	1.4	3.61	.59
S6	72	23	31.9	41	56.9	8	11.1	-	-	3.20	.62
S7	72	10	13.9	16	22.2	40	55.6	6	8.3	2.41	.83

Note: S stands for Statement and the statements given below are represented in the SN (Statement No) section of the above table.

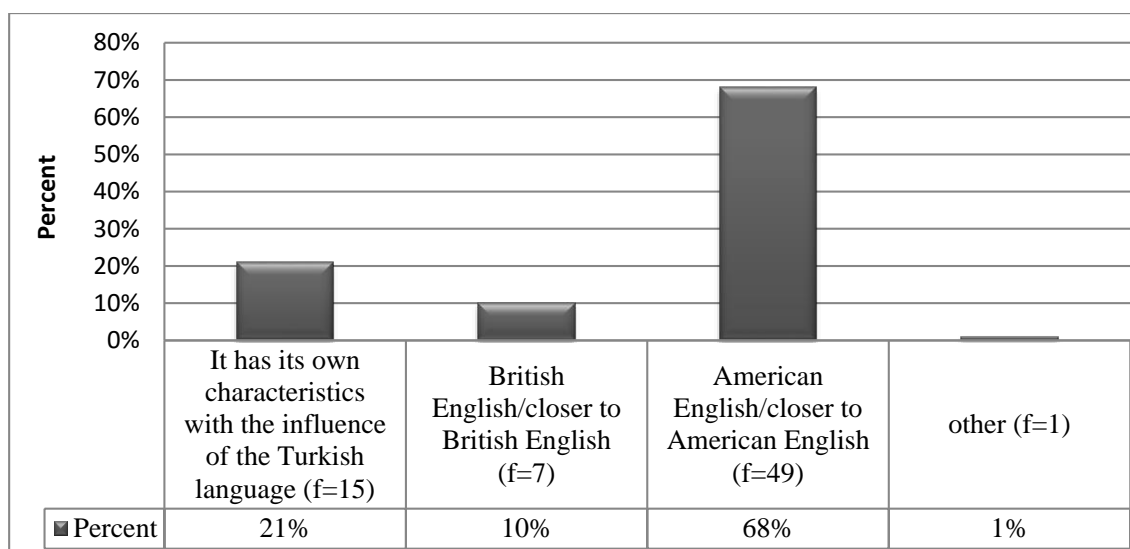
- S1. I have an adequate vocabulary to write in English.
- S2. My speaking is free from basic grammatical errors.
- S3. My English sounds like native English.
- S4. I can communicate successfully in English.
- S5. I have fluency in English.
- S6. I have good English pronunciation.
- S7. I have a native-like accent.

It appears that most lecturers have strong confidence in their vocabulary knowledge to produce written texts ( $\bar{x}=3.37$ ). On the issue of correctness, 90.3% believe that they speak English without making even basic mistakes. With regards to pronunciation, slightly more than half reject having a native-like pronunciation, and the vast majority feel that their accents differ from native-English accents. Nevertheless, 97.2% still consider their speaking in English to be fluent, and 89.9% judge their pronunciation to be good. Remarkably, 98.6% agree that they can have successful communication through English. These findings suggest that although the majority do not associate their accents and pronunciations with native English, they still characterize their English as fluent, their pronunciation as good, and their communication as successful, thus possibly not equating good English with native English.

According to the Kruskal-Wallis test, a significant difference emerged between lecturers' perceptions of their pronunciation and their disciplines [ $X^2= 6.99$ ,  $p<.05$ ]. This difference was supportive of the history lecturers whose perceptions of the statement *I have a good pronunciation* were higher than those of the engineering lecturers ( $U= 132$ ,  $p<.05$ ). As to other statements, their views were roughly similar without significant differences (see Appendix 9, p. 285, for the detailed test results).

#### **6.3.2.2 Lecturers' perceptions of their English use**

To get a better insight into lecturers' perceptions of English, it was essential to examine their perceived English use. The aim was to establish if they would identify their English with the characteristics of a specific native English variety or with other characteristics that reflect mother tongue influences or features of other standards. To this end, they were asked to answer a multiple-choice close-ended question, *what do you think about the English you use?* As well as the four pre-determined options, the lecturers were given the *other* option to make their own comments, if needed. Figure 4 summarizes the frequency and percentage for each statement.



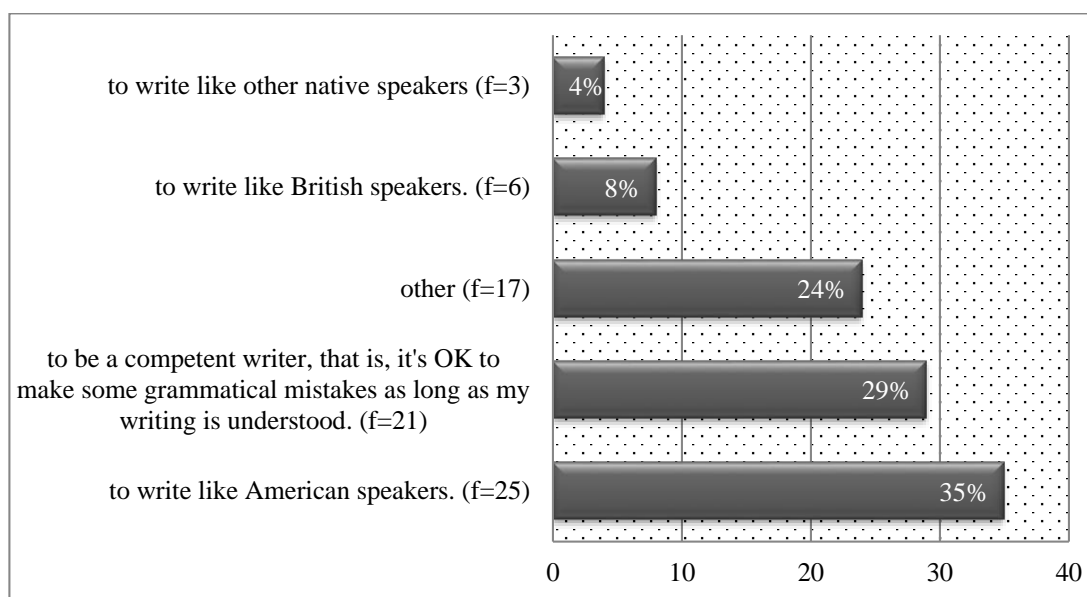
**Figure 4.** Lecturers' perceived English use

Figure 4 shows that over one third of lecturers regarded their English as having the features of the BrE and AmE. Of them, an overwhelming majority affiliated their English with AmE. A possible reason for this might be their long-term and intimate familiarity with AmE. However, about one fifth saw their English as having its own characteristics with their mother tongue influences. I will take up this point later in the next chapter to find out their feelings about L1-influenced English. Only one lecturer described her English use in her own words, making the following comment: "It is obviously not as rich as a native speaker's one. It is not much influenced by my native language".

With a Chi-square test and crosstabs, a closer look at whether lecturers' perceptions of their English correlate with the type of English they were exposed to while doing their PhDs indicates that the type of English spoken around them played a significant role in their perceptions [ $\chi^2(1)=84.467$ ,  $p<.05$ ]. That is, there were more lecturers having stayed in the USA for several years, who viewed their English as akin to AmE, and more lecturers having done their doctorates in the UK who identified their English as close to BrE. However, for those who completed their PhDs in other countries (e.g. Turkey, Canada, and European countries), no correlation emerged (see Appendix 10, p. 288, for the test results). This finding, hence, leads to the conclusion that the types of English lecturers were exposed to in the USA and UK seemed to be influential in the way they perceived their own English use.

### 6.3.2.3 Lecturers' goals for written English

With the purpose of exploring how lecturers orient to their written academic English, I asked them about their goals for written English. AmE is seen to be the most favoured model for written English among all other options while BrE and other native varieties are the least preferred targets by lecturers (Figure 5). Around one third set their goal for being a competent writer who is more concerned with content and intelligibility than grammatical forms in writing.



**Figure 5.** Lecturers' goal in writing academic English

Seventeen lecturers, however, referred to different objectives, expressing their goals in their own words. From Table 7 below, it is evident that a strong emphasis is placed on being a competent writer, but with a different interpretation of the term than the one which prioritizes intelligibility over correctness because many lecturers (see the comments of L8, L16, L19, L26, L27, L28, L41, L51, L53 and L68 in Table 7) had the objective of becoming a competent writer who does not make any grammatical mistakes when writing in English. One of them stated he could tolerate “very few mistakes” only (L48), and for another, making mistakes was unacceptable in writing, but it was okay to “use some ‘non native’ expressions” (L26). In addition, there were some concerned with “academic communication” (L60), content and style of their writing (L24 & L43), and wishing to appeal to a wider international audience (L49). Astonishingly, one lecturer expressed his goal as to write “like any native speaker” (L36), thus showing no particular preference for a particular nationality.



**Table 7.** Lecturers' descriptions of goals for written English

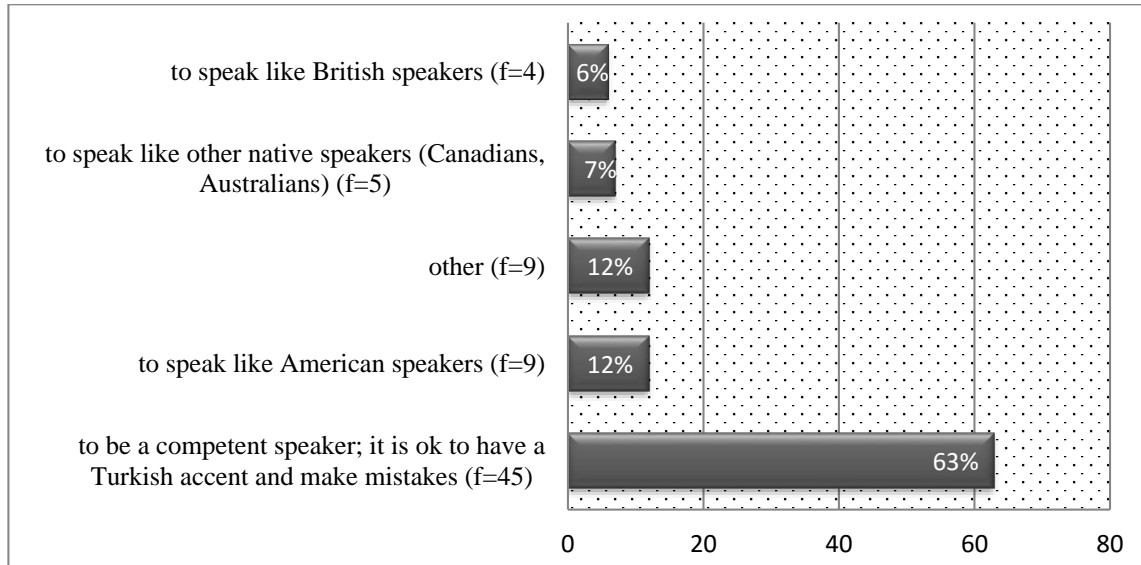
Lecturers ID		Goals
L8 Boğaziçi	IR	to be a competent writer
L16 METU	ME	To convey the meaning clearly and without any grammatical or semantic mistakes
L19 METU	ME	To be a competent writer without any grammatical mistakes
L24 Boğaziçi	ME	To make my points clear and not write in complex style
L26 METU	ME	To be a competent writer that does not make grammatical mistakes but may use some "non native" expressions.
L27 Boğaziçi	ME	to write like people who don't make grammatical mistakes
L28 METU	ME	be a competent and fluent writer.
L36 METU	ME	like any native speaker
L41 Bilkent	IR	speak/write/comprehend correctly and effectively. The rest is just aesthetics.
L43 Bilkent	ME	As much understandable as possible
L48 Bilkent	ME	to be a competent writer, that is, it's OK to make occasional (very few) grammatical mistakes as long as my writing is understood.
L49 Bilkent	ME	to make our publications more universally read and understood
L51 Bilkent	ME	to be a competent writer with no errors, but necessarily mimicking Americans or British.
L53 Boğaziçi	H	to be competent, to be understood, to make it enjoyable for the readers to read to, no to make grammatical errors, plus to create and write with my own style
L60 Boğaziçi	H	academic communication
L67 Bilkent	H	I am quite competent in English, but my scientific writing is a tool, a means to disseminate my findings to the international scientific community.
L68 Boğaziçi	H	to clearly and correctly convey my thoughts.

*Notes: IR stands for international relations, ME for mechanical engineering and H for history. Their descriptions are presented verbatim, including typographical features.*

#### 6.3.2.4 Lecturers' goal for spoken English

As far as lecturers' goals in speaking are concerned, a quite different pattern emerged in their responses (Figure 6). It is interesting that their references to native English models, particularly AmE, are considerably fewer compared to the number of their references to the same models for written English. In the case of goals for spoken English, there was a dramatic increase in the number of lecturers who wished to be a competent speaker who can get things done by retaining their non-native accents, and by ignoring the grammatical mistakes committed. This case clearly points to a difference among many lecturers regarding their orientations to written and spoken English. Possible reasons for this difference need further exploration. I will thus turn to this issue in the following

chapters, with a more in-depth analysis of their expectations about spoken and written language use.



**Figure 6.** Lecturers' goal in speaking academic English

Again, there were some lecturers holding different objectives for speaking from the pre-given goals (Table 8). Among them, several desired to be competent, fluent, and comprehensible (L5, L8, L28, L43) and to be able to “communicate ideas and information” when speaking English whereas some others referred to speaking correctly (L41), “with little accent as possible” (L53), and speaking “a decent English”, i.e. English conforming to generally accepted standards (L70). In brief, aspiration to native English varieties among lecturers was much weaker in spoken English, for which many prioritized competence over nativeness and correctness. One reason for this might be that their spoken English is not judged as harshly as their written English when they depart from native English. I will explore this issue further in Chapter 7 on lecturers' interviews to provide a more precise analysis/discussion of this difference.

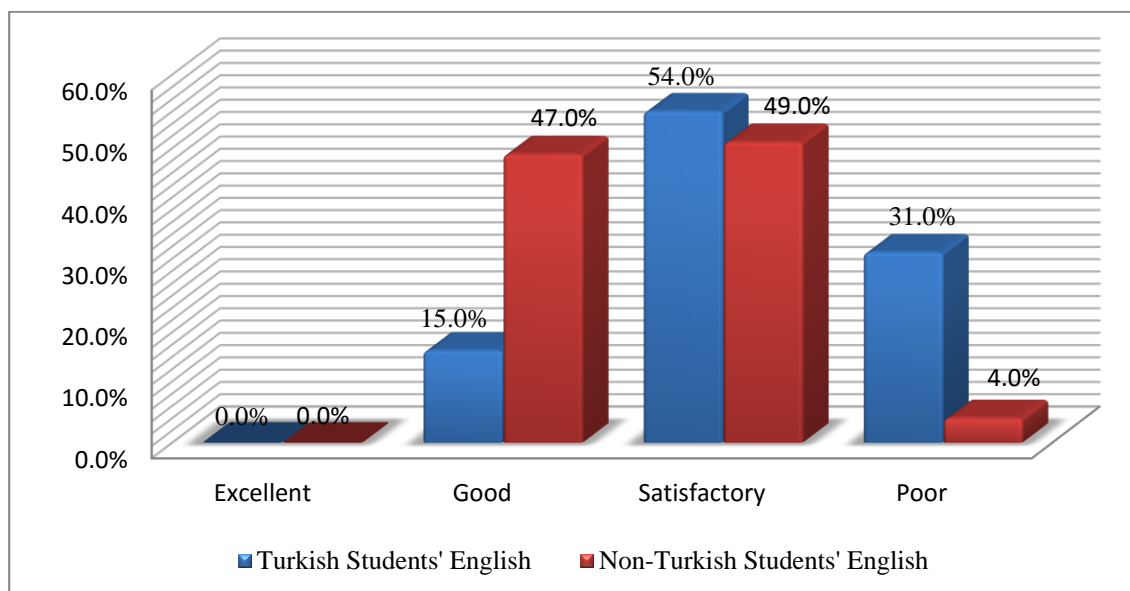
**Table 8.** Lecturers' descriptions of goals for spoken English

Lecturers ID	Goals
L5 Boğaziçi ME	to speak clearly and understandable even it's not in very advance level
L8 Boğaziçi IR	to be a competent speaker
L28 METU ME	be a competent and fluent speaker.
L41 Bilkent IR	speak/write/comprehend correctly and effectively. The rest is just aesthetics.
L43 Bilkent ME	As much understandable as possible
L51 Bilkent ME	to be a competent speaker with no errors, but necessarily mimicking

	Americans or British.
L53 Boğaziçi H	to be competent, to be understood, to make it enjoyable for the listeners to listen to, no to make grammatical errors, to speak with little accent as possible
L60 Boğaziçi H	academic communication
L67 Bilkent H	to communicate ideas and information, support my students' learning -- I am quite competent in English, but my lectures are not contexts where I display my academic English. The language is a tool
L70 Boğaziçi H	to speak a decent English that allows me to convey the material properly but at the same time respecting the lower English proficiency levels of my students (hence, I do not prefer to use low-freq. words because my goal is not to show off but make sure they understand what I am trying to get across)

### 6.3.2.5 Lecturers perceptions of students' English proficiency

Lecturers were asked to rate their students' English proficiency on a four-point Likert scale so as to determine their views on students' English (Figure 7). Including non-Turkish students as well as Turkish students in the assessment made it possible to see whether lecturers would make any nationality contrasts in their ratings of Turkish and non-Turkish students' English.



**Figure 7.** Lecturers' evaluation of students' English ability

The figure above clearly reveals that non-Turkish students' English is rated more often as good than that of Turkish students. Equally, lecturers viewed Turkish students' English as almost eight times poorer than they did non-Turkish students' English. This

means that lecturers have more positive attitudes towards non-Turkish students' English compared to that of Turkish students. It should be also noted that the difference in lecturers' perceptions of Turkish and non-Turkish students' English is statistically significant according to the Mann-Whitney U test [ $U=1437.5$ ,  $p<.05$ ].

**Table 9.** Difference in lecturers' perceptions of students' English

Groups	$\bar{x}$	SD	$\Sigma_{\text{rank}}$	$X_{\text{rank}}$	U	P
Turkish students' English	1.84	.89	56.47	724.5	1437.5	.000
Non-Turkish students' English	2.43	.51	88.53	16.50		

This difference indicates that lecturers exhibit a nationality contrast in their perceptions, in which Turkish students' English was less positively evaluated than that of non-Turkish students. One possible reason for the deficit views on Turkish students' English could be that they fail to live up to lecturers' expectations regarding English use. It is also likely that Turkish lecturers tend to see the language use of their own L1 group (Turkish students) less favourably than others (international students). Maybe, lecturers are more aware of what Turkish students do wrong or find them embarrassing in the use of L2. These points will be further explored in the next section on qualitative data.

### **6.3.3 Lecturers' perceptions of global uses and users of English**

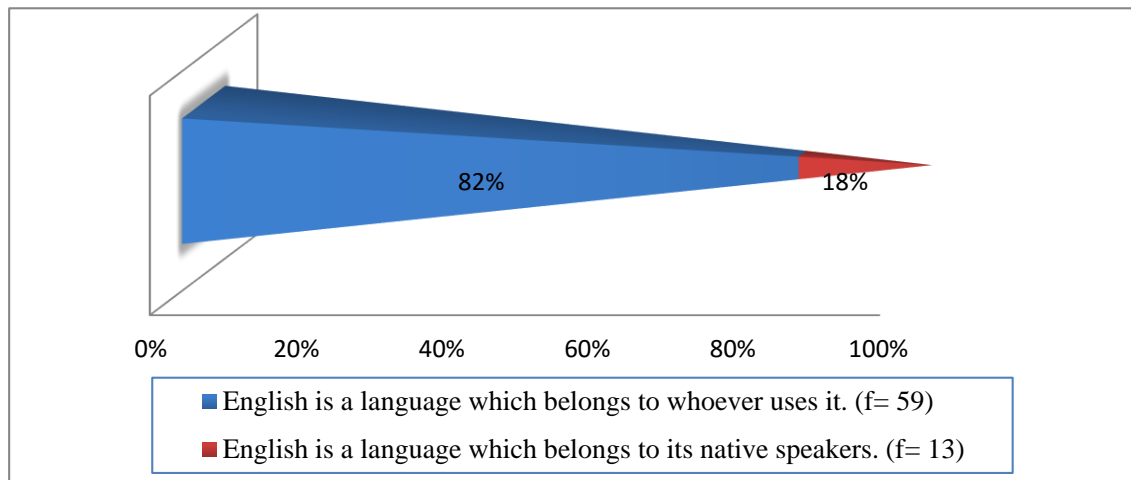
This section presents the results on lecturers' views on the following topics: the ownership of English, the knowledge of other kinds of Englishes and accents, and their degree of familiarity with various English varieties and accents.

#### **6.3.3.1 Lecturers' perceptions of the ownership of English**

When one takes into account the changing demographics of English speakers and the diversity of Englishes spoken around the globe, it is crucial to probe into what lecturers think of the ownership of an international language such as English to be able to better understand their overall orientation to English.

As can be seen in Figure 8, a vast number of lecturers were in absolute agreement on the view that speakers all around the world can claim ownership of English regardless of whether they speak it as a native, second, or additional language. On the other hand, those who restricted the ownership of English to the inner circle countries (i.e. the USA,

the UK, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and Ireland) constituted around less than one-fifth of lecturers.



**Figure 8.** Lecturers' views on the ownership of English

I should underscore here that such liberal orientations to the concept of ownership of English can suggest that most lecturers have now feelings of ownership of English, and that its ownership should be justly shared by its users. It is worthy of investigation whether such an ideology of the linguistic ownership of English by all will actually translate into their perspectives on English and on their language practices. This issue will be re-explored in the next two chapters when introducing qualitative data analyses.

### 6.3.3.2 Lecturers' perceptions of English varieties and accents

This section discusses what lecturers think about the awareness of different varieties and accents of English. To elicit their views, I asked them to respond to four statements related to English varieties and accents on a four-point scale, ranging from (4) *strongly agree* to (1) *strongly disagree*.

As shown in Table 10 below, among the areas of highest agreement, the most agreed upon statement by lecturers was about knowing the characteristics of English, which has a much wider intelligibility (S2,  $\bar{x}$ = 3.15). This is followed by the importance of being aware of the linguistic norms employed by NNEs (S1,  $\bar{x}$ = 2.76), and importance of knowing the impacts of cultural norms/differences on the use of English (S3,  $\bar{x}$ = .3.05). It is surprising that with respect to the perceived importance of having knowledge about the inner circle varieties of English other than AmE and BrE, lecturers showed the lowest level of agreement (S4,  $\bar{x}$ = 2.51).

**Table 10.** Lecturers' views about the knowledge of English varieties and accents

No	N	SA		A		D		SD		Mean	SD
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	$\bar{x}$	s
S1	72	11	15.3	38	52.8	18	25	5	6.9	2.76	.79
S2	72	21	29.2	42	58.3	8	11.1	1	1.4	3.15	.66
S3	72	19	26.4	38	52.8	15	20.8	-	-	3.05	.68
S4	72	4	5.6	32	44.4	33	45.8	3	4.2	2.51	.67

**S1.** It is important to be aware of the English spoken by other non-native speakers.

**S2.** It is important to learn about the features of English which can be understood internationally, not just in one or two countries.

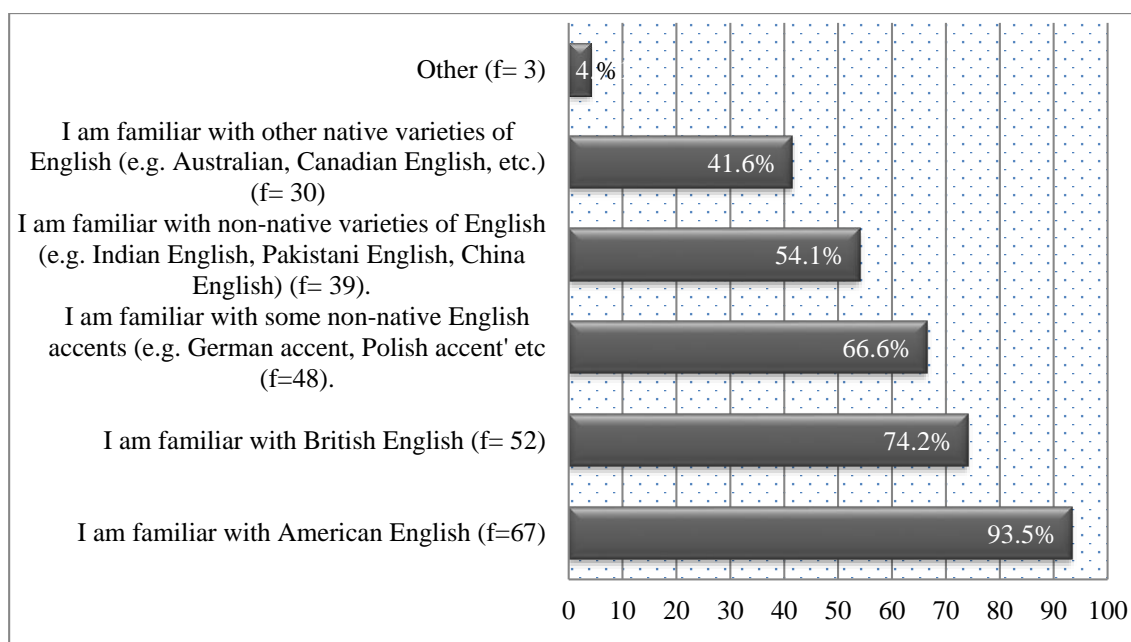
**S3.** It is important to know that different cultures use English differently.

**S4.** It is important to know about other national varieties of English besides British and American English (e.g. Australian, Canadian English).

Overall, the results demonstrate that lecturers held more positive attitudes towards the features of English with wider intelligibility, and non-native varieties and accents, but displayed less positive attitudes towards learning about non-dominant native English varieties, e.g. Canadian English. Additional inferential statistics, i.e. the Kruskal-Wallis test, run to determine whether lecturers' answers to the above statements differed across their disciplines, showed no statistical differences in the mean scores of lecturers' responses. This result means that there are no significant effects caused by lecturers' disciplines on their responses to the given statements (see Appendix 11, p. 289, for the test results).

### 6.3.3.3 Lecturers' familiarity with English varieties and accents

As a follow-up to the preceding section, the analysis in this section explores how familiar lecturers feel with the varieties and accents representative of various native and non-native English varieties and non-native English accents. As can be understood from Figure 9, a hierarchical order occurred in the degree of lecturers' familiarity with English varieties and accents. Predictably, lecturers claimed the highest degree of familiarity with two dominant native varieties, i.e. AmE and BrE respectively. An interesting point was that non-native English accents achieved higher frequencies than non-dominant native English and non-native English varieties. Lastly, lecturers were more unfamiliar with non-native and other native English varieties.



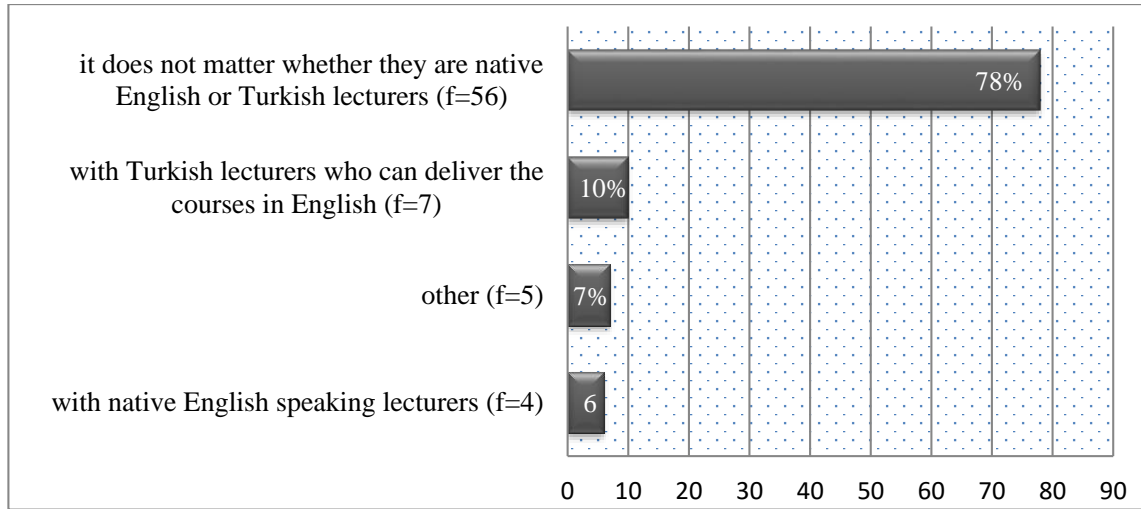
**Figure 9.** Familiarity with English varieties and accents (multiple responses possible)

In light of the above findings, it is probable that the hierarchical order of lecturers' familiarity with English varieties and accents plays a vital role in lecturers' orientation and attitudes towards English. I will take up this point later in the next chapter to see whether such a link between their familiarity with accents/varieties and attitudes towards English will emerge.

#### 6.3.4 Lecturers' perceptions of the ideal teacher

As evident from Figure 10, an overwhelming number of lecturers displayed a neutral attitude towards the discussion of who might be the ideal teacher to deliver subject courses in English. To be more precise, either it did not seem to matter for them whether the content courses are given by Turkish or native English lecturers, or they wanted to play it safe, attempting to appear neutral. It is because of these that the proportions of the participants showing positive inclination towards Turkish lecturers or NES teachers were relatively small.

From a different viewpoint, the results suggest that about four-fifths of lecturers refrained from choosing Turkish lecturers as the best model for teaching content courses despite their being Turkish. Such avoidance in designating a particular group possibly occurs for the reason that Turkish lecturers do not favourably view most of their Turkish colleagues' English once it comes to teaching courses in English. Not surprisingly, lecturers showed the lowest preference to NES teachers.



**Figure 10.** Lecturers' views on the ideal teacher for EMI courses

As for the comments on the ideal teacher by a few lecturers, it is seen in Table 11 that two lecturers prefer Turkish lecturers (L36 & L53), one clarifying that Turkish students can benefit from a little bit of discussion in Turkish, which is only possible with Turkish speaking lecturers, but provided that mainly English should be used in lectures. Another two lecturers (L16 & L49) did not discriminate between native English or Turkish lecturers, yet described essential qualities of an ideal teacher, stressing that to be able to lecture in English, they should speak and communicate well in English. Interestingly enough, one lecturer (L43) built a relationship between the notion of ideal teacher and native-like accent.

**Table 11.** Lecturers' descriptions of the ideal teacher

Lecturers ID	Descriptions
L16 METU ME	it does not matter whether they are native English or Turkish lecturers AS LONG AS they speak English well
L36 METU ME	I prefer Turkish
L43 Bilkent ME	Any lecturer with native-like accent
L49 Bilkent ME	as long as they can communicate well in English, it does not matter
L53 Boğaziçi H	turkish lecturers. lectures should be in english, but it a bit of discussion in turkish is useful for the turkish students

### 6.3.5 Lecturers' perceptions of language policies and practices

This section analyses lecturers' views about their institutions' academic English language policies and practices. As the statements on language policies and practices are varied, I classified the fifteen statements into three groups on the basis of their



relevance to each other. I would like to start with the analysis of the first group of statements which concern lecturers only. Below is a summary of their responses.

**Table 12.** Lecturers' perceptions about policies and practices concerning themselves

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Table 12 shows that lecturers in general did not perceive the language proficiency test they have to take for promotion and job applications as satisfactory for accurately assessing their English (S1,  $\bar{x}$ = 2.75). One interesting point, though, is their general agreement on the necessity to certify their level of English to prove their eligibility for teaching in English (S2,  $\bar{x}$ = 3.04). Regarding the kind of English they are required to use, they narrowly shared the view that they are duty bound to use certain native English varieties (i.e. BrE & AmE; S9,  $\bar{x}$ = 2.20). However, around half agreed that they feel urged to use native English implicitly. This might be due to the institutional policy which impels them to publish in journals whose working language is English, which tend to overtly or covertly equate good English with native English (BrE & AmE) in their guidelines (S14,  $\bar{x}$ = 2.34).

As for their language practices, a vast majority acceded that EMI lecturers can cope with the burden of academic writing and do not fall back on translation services (S6,  $\bar{x}$ =

1.80). On the other hand, more than half admitted receiving proofreading service to increase the possibility of the acceptance of their papers for publication (S15,  $\bar{x}$ = 2.55). What contributes to their tendency to get their papers proofread might be their effort to eliminate non-standard elements from their papers. Finally, there was a rather general agreement among lecturers on tolerantly approaching students' English as far as their English use remains comprehensible to them (S7,  $\bar{x}$ = 3.06).

The second group of statements are about language policy issues mainly related to candidate and full-time students (see Table 13). This time, lecturers expressed their perspectives on the statements which particularly interest their students (e.g. admission requirements, language support, language practices).

**Table 13.** Lecturers' perceptions of policies and practices concerning students

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Table 13 demonstrates that almost all lecturers are sceptical about NNES students' English ability (S13,  $\bar{x}$ =3.19), and thus consider the policy which requires them to provide valid test scores for admission reasonable. Furthermore, many lecturers agree that international tests, such as IELTS and TOEFL, whose scores are recognized in admission to the programs, actually judge students' English against native English (S5,  $\bar{x}$ . 3.06). As regards students' English ability, there is an overall disagreement among lecturers on the necessity of students' having native-like proficiency to follow courses

in English (S12,  $\bar{x}$ = 2.30). Nevertheless, once it comes to expectations from students concerning their language acts, the mean scores of the lecturers who think students should conform to native academic English in their writing slightly increased (S3,  $\bar{x}$ = 2.54). Their attitudes towards students' written English became much clearer when many agreed that students should get academic writing skills support from their universities (S8,  $\bar{x}$ = 3.58). Lastly, turning to the language support given to pre-faculty students through preparatory courses, most lecturers agreed on the usefulness of preparatory programs in helping students improve their English (S2,  $\bar{x}$ = 2.91).

In the third group, there were only two items relating to the concepts of communicative success and good academic writing. The aim was to discover how lecturers would conceive of these two terms, and what would take precedence in their interpretations of these terms. Table 14 shows the summary of their responses.

**Table 14.** Lecturers' perceptions of spoken and written communication

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

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

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

What is apparent from the above table is that despite the lack of a complete agreement among lecturers on the view that accomplishing successful communication should have precedence over speaking without mistakes in spoken academic discourse, the majority aimed at achieving communicative success instead of linguistic correctness (S4,  $\bar{x}$ = 2.76). Nevertheless, it is notable that lecturers were a bit more reserved as to academic writing because although the majority associated good academic English with being comprehensible to the reader, around one third did not agree to this (S11,  $\bar{x}$ = 2.79).

#### **6.4 Analysis of the student data**

This section of the analysis turns to students' responses to the questionnaires. The analyses of the data are given by following the same thematic pattern adopted in the presentation of the lecturer data.

#### 6.4.1 Characteristics of the students

As displayed in Table 15, a total of 351 students participated in the study. All students speak Turkish as their native language. The distribution of male and female participants in the total sample size was approximately equal (51% Male & 49% Female). The age range of the sample was between 18 and 33, with the overwhelming majority of the students aged between 18 and 24 years of age. As illustrated in Table 15, 37.6% were sampled from Bilkent, 30.2% from Boğaziçi and 32.2% from METU. The distribution of students by their discipline was as follows: 30.2% from international relations, 39.3% from mechanical engineering, and 30.5% from history.

**Table 15.** Demographic characteristics of the students

N= 351		(f)	(%)
Gender	Male	179	51.0
	Female	172	49.0
Age	18-24	332	91.7
	25-32	28	8.0
	33+	1	0.3
University	Bilkent	132	37.6
	Boğaziçi	106	30.2
	METU	113	32.2
Department	International Relations	106	30.2
	Mechanical Engineering	138	39.3
	History	107	30.5

Table 16 below shows students' language background information. The table reveals that 70.7% of students took a proficiency test before starting their degree programs while 29.3% were directly enrolled at the preparatory program. Of those taking a proficiency test, 85.7% took their institutions' in-house language test, and the rest took one of the international tests (e.g. TOEFL, IELTS and FCE). Of the students, 80.6% attended the preparatory schools and took intensive English courses over at least a year before moving into their disciplines whereas 19.4% satisfied the entry requirements and were directly placed in their programs. A smaller percentage of them (29.9%) previously attended an EMI high school while 70.1% studied at Turkish-medium public schools. Concerning their overseas experience, 57.3% have had experience of living abroad in varying lengths of duration while 42.7% have not been abroad. This means, in one sense, that a high percentage of students have been involved in intercultural communication using English.

**Table 16.** Language backgrounds of students

N= 351		(f)	(%)
English proficiency test	Yes	248	70.7
	No	103	29.3
Type of proficiency test	University's own test	220	85.7
	IELTS	17	6.6
	TOEFL	10	3.9
	Other	9	3.5
Preparatory school	Yes	283	80.6
	No	68	19.4
EMI high school	Yes	105	29.9
	No	246	70.1
Overseas experience	Yes	201	57,3
	No	150	42,7

From the information detailed above, it becomes clear that a vast majority of students had direct experience with some of the English language policies. However, it is very probable that even if a small group of students lacked first-hand experience with these policies, they might have still had at least some sort of knowledge about these policies as a result of witnessing the processes their friends underwent. Similarly, those students who have not had overseas experience could have also experienced intercultural communication, mostly likely with their international friends and academic staff, or it might even be on an online platform.

## 6.4.2 Perceptions of English proficiency

### 6.4.2.1 Students' perceptions of their English proficiency

Students evaluated their major skills in English on a four-point scale as with lecturers and their responses were analysed using descriptive statistics, i.e. frequencies and percentages.

**Table 17.** Students' evaluation of their English ability

(N= 351)	Writing		Listening		Vocabulary		Speaking		Gen. prof.	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Poor	5	1.4	9	2.6	15	4.3	57	16.2	5	1.4
Satisfactory	68	19.4	54	15.4	85	24.2	109	31.0	81	23.1
Good	196	55.8	174	49.6	191	54.4	129	36.8	206	58.7
Excellent	82	23.4	114	32.5	60	17.1	56	16.0	59	16.8

Table 17 indicates that students' perceptions of their skills are on average relatively lower compared to those of lecturers, but still a vast majority (over 70%) perceived each of the skills and overall proficiency to be in the range of good and excellent. The skill students seemed to have the lowest confidence in is their speaking, with around half (47.2%) rating it in the poor to satisfactory range. Based on their ratings of their overall proficiency, it might be concluded that the students viewing their English proficiency positively reached a higher percentage compared to the students adopting negative views on their English.

A closer investigation of the responses via inferential statistics made it clear that students' perceptions of their English proficiency significantly differed from each other across some background factors. For instance, the Mann-Whitney U tests found that their perceptions differed significantly in terms of their experiences with language policies (i.e. preparatory school [ $U = 5941$ ,  $p < .05$ ], overseas experience [ $U = 12156.5$ ,  $p < .05$ ], and previous EMI experiences [ $U = 11352$ ,  $p < .05$ ]). Cross-checking the mean scores of their responses, I found that the students who did not attend preparatory school, who had overseas experience, and who previously studied through EMI perceived their English to be of a higher level than the students who took preparatory courses, and who had no overseas and no EMI experience (see Appendix 12, p. 290).

As with lecturers, students' perceptions about their specific language behaviours were elicited on the same scale, and they were also given statements about certain aspects of their written and spoken English use. As Table 18 shows below, the statements which have taken top level of agreement among students pertain to the intelligibility of their English ( $S6$ ,  $\bar{x} = 3.23$ ), the sufficiency of their vocabulary knowledge for writing ( $S1$ ,  $\bar{x} = 3.20$ ) and ease of communication through English ( $S4$ ,  $\bar{x} = 3.15$ ). These findings imply that many students feel confident about their English. Concerning the prosodic elements of their English, with the lowest level of agreement, a great majority did not associate their accents with native-like accents ( $S3$ ,  $\bar{x} = 2.10$ ), yet still regarded their pronunciation as good ( $S5$ ,  $\bar{x} = 2.88$ ) and their English as fluent ( $S7$ ,  $\bar{x} = 2.78$ ). This is an interesting finding and also deserves further consideration. I will therefore examine this finding in greater detail in the next chapter to clearly understand how students interpret good English. Regarding the concept of grammatical correctness, a slight majority of students agreed that they speak English without any simple mistakes; however, the rest reported that they make grammar mistakes when speaking English ( $S2$ ,  $\bar{x} = 2.64$ ).

**Table 18.** Students' evaluations of their sub-skills

No	N	S. agree		Agree		Disagree		S. agree		Mean	SD
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%		
S1	351	102	29.1	223	63.5	22	6.3	4	1.1	3.20	.59
S2	351	33	9.4	174	49.6	129	36.8	15	4.3	2.64	.71
S3	351	25	7.1	66	18.8	182	51.9	78	22.2	2.10	.82
S4	351	107	30.5	196	55.8	43	12.3	5	1.4	3.15	.67
S5	351	73	20.8	174	49.6	96	27.4	8	2.3	2.88	.74
S6	351	106	30.2	223	63.5	21	6.0	1	0.3	3.23	.56
S7	351	67	19.1	153	43.6	119	33.9	12	3.4	2.78	.78

**S1.** I have an adequate vocabulary to write in English.

**S2.** My speaking is free from basic grammatical errors.

**S3.** My English (accent) sounds like native English.

**S4.** I can communicate successfully in English.

**S5.** I have a good English pronunciation.

**S6.** My English is easy to understand.

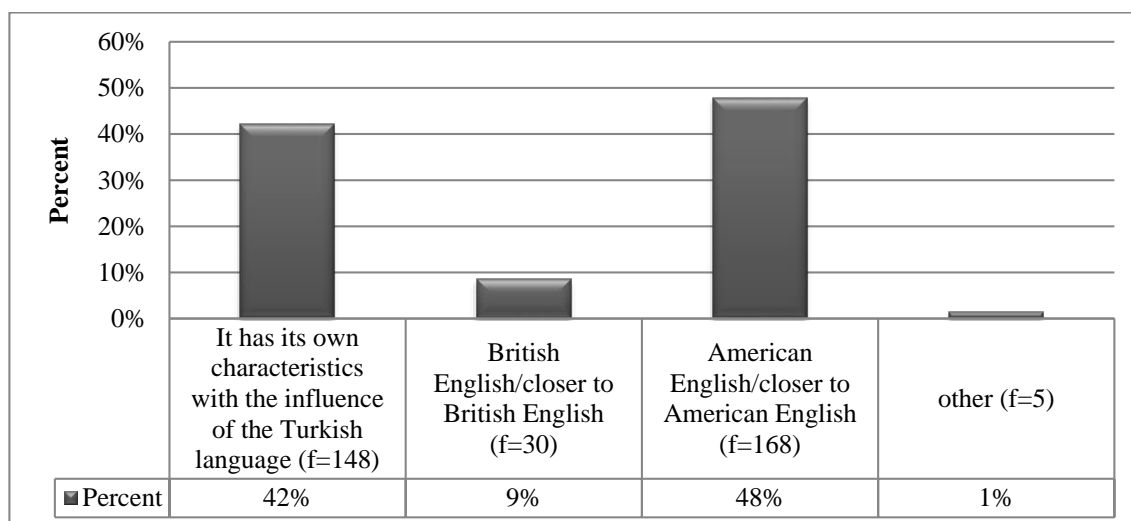
**S7.** I have fluency in English.

Overall, students' responses to the statements showed a similar pattern to those of their lecturers. The most noticeable difference between students' and lecturers' perceptions of certain aspects of their English was that lecturers had a much higher level of agreement on the need to speak correctly than students did. As to the factors which might influence students' perspectives on the above statements, it was discovered that the students with preparatory school and overseas experiences perceived their English skills at a significantly higher level than those students who did not attend the preparatory school and lacked overseas experience (see Appendix 13, p. 292). However, no disciplinary differences emerged in students' responses ( $p > .05$ ), which indicates that whichever discipline they study in, they hold similar perceptions of their English skills.

#### **6.4.2.2 Students' perceptions of their English use**

Using the descriptive analysis, it was found that most students leaned towards a native English variety when describing their perceived English, with a high proportion of them identifying their English as close to AmE. Contrary to the interest shown in AmE, BrE did not draw much attention from students as a kind of English they could associate their English with. Of note, though, was that a considerable number of students saw their English as having its own characteristics with L1 influences. Finally, there were some students clarifying how they perceived their own English in their own words. Two of them elucidated that their English is "british + american mix" and "mixed". Another

two put it more precisely, one stating that “It has own characteristics and also is closer to British Eng. in writing”, and the other one conveying “I do not have such a concern as long as I am understood”.



**Figure 11.** Students’ perceived English use

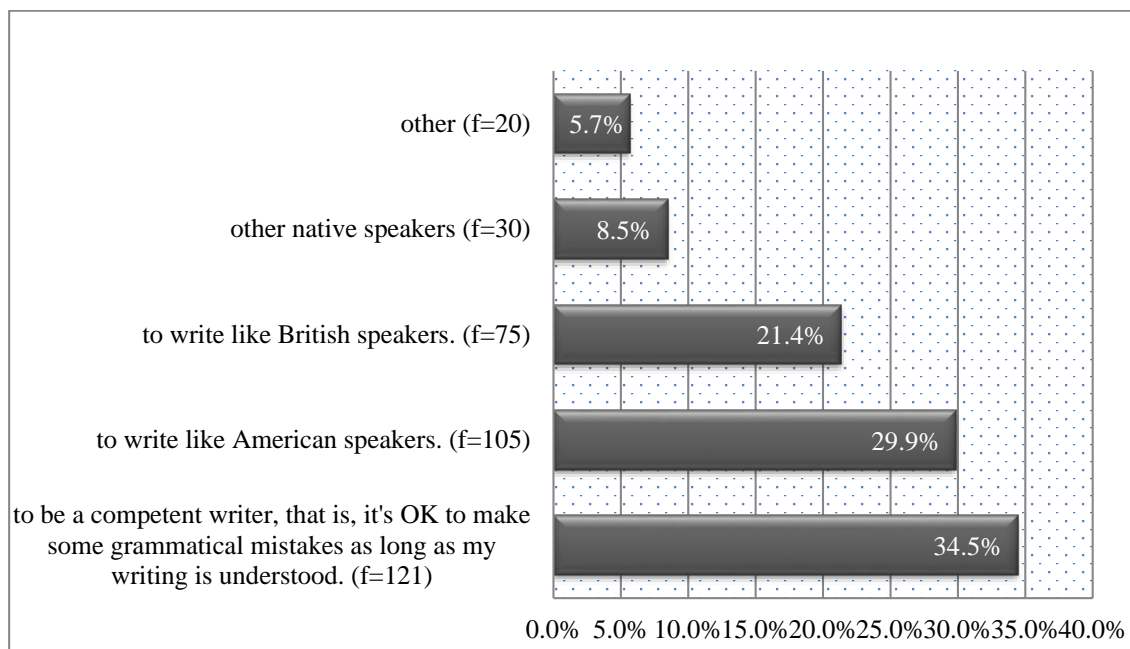
Students’ perceptions of their English seemed to be fairly similar to those of lecturers, particularly in the sense that within both groups, AmE is perceived more favourably as the point of reference than the other options while judging their English. Nevertheless, it needs to be noted that the proportion of lecturers basing their English on AmE is nearly 20% higher than that of students, but the proportion of students who did not associate their English with either AmE or BrE outnumbered the proportion of lecturers. A possible scenario that might help interpret this discrepancy between students and lecturers might be the high number of lecturers who received long term exposure to native English varieties as a corollary of doing their PhDs in an ENL country.

#### **6.4.2.3 Students’ goal for written English**

In order to find out what goals students set regarding their written English, they were asked to choose one of the pre-determined goals in the questionnaire which best defines their goal. The goals given to them were exactly the same as those given to lecturers. As shown in Figure 12, the students who set out to be competent writers of English without concerns about making mistakes which do not cause breakdowns in communication constituted the highest percentage among students, yet the total proportion of students who were inclined to native models (BrE, AmE and other native Englishes) as their goal for writing accounted for around 60% of students. Of the native models desired by



students for written English, AmE received more favourable responses than BrE and other native English varieties. What is clear from students' responses is the overall tendency and more positive attitudes towards native models, in particular AmE when setting goals for written English.



**Figure 12.** Students' goal in writing academic English

A small percentage of them set different goals from the given statements, accounting for how they want their writing to be like. As can be seen in the responses presented in Table 19, many expressed a desire to be competent writers, communicating their ideas clearly and “correctly” without grammar mistakes (S81, S149, S229, S247, S257, S268, S320 and S346) or writing with only “some mistakes” (S43). Furthermore, some drew attention to the point that they did not aim at or need a native model (S71, S149, S229 and S346) for written English. One reason cited by a student was that being a NES does not grant privileges (S268) in academic writing. For some, in good writing, what matters is the knowledge of “a big range vocabulary and good grammar” (S268) and “writing without grammatical mistakes” (S229) and “how beautiful and grammatical correct it is” (S257). Only one student (S344) displayed a strong attachment to writing like any native speakers. In sum, as seen in their descriptions, factors such as clarity, simplicity and especially grammatical correctness seemed to matter much more for several students than the accomplishment of native speaker competency when setting their goals.

**Table 19.** Students' descriptions of goals for written English

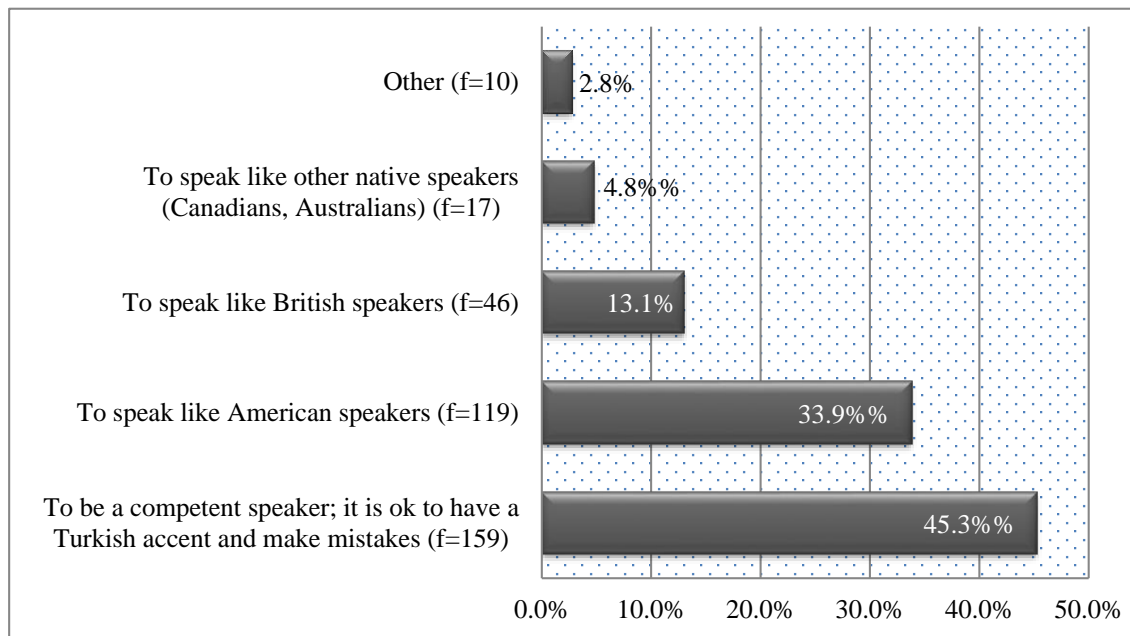
Student ID	Goals
S43 Boğaziçi IR	to write the best way I can with only some mistakes
S71 METU H	I have excellent writing skills so I don't want to be like natives. I am more than them
S81 METU ME	to express my ideas correctly
S149 Bilkent H	it's not ok to make some grammatical mistakes but other than that, I don't need to write LIKE somebody else
S183 Bilkent ME	to make it acceptable in terms of academic fields
S229 Bilkent H	I believe that except bilinguals, it's really hard to write like a native speaker. Of course it's possible to improve it a lot, but my goal is not writing like a native speaker. It's OK for me to write without grammatical mistakes while I'm improving my writing in terms of the way it is expressed by the natives (the way language is used can be improved a lot, but difficult to capture a native's expressions in a short time).
S247 Boğaziçi H	to write without any grammatical error
S257 Boğaziçi IR	When It comes to writing, i don't mind whether it's British or American but I mind how beautiful and grammatically correct it is.
S268 Bilkent IR	It's a good writing as long as there is a big range of vocabulary and good grammar. You do not have much advantage if you are native when it comes to writing.
S320 Boğaziçi ME	It does not matter as long as I avoid mistakes and state my ideas clearly.
S344 Boğaziçi IR	to write like any native English speaker
S346 Boğaziçi ME	I don't need to write like Native speakers. However, my writings should be simple, haven't any simple grammatical mistakes, and to read and understand them should be easy.

Compared with lecturers, students appear to have given similar responses in their identification of goals for written English, despite the slight differences in the order of targeted goals in respect of the percentages. The most remarkable similarity between students and lecturers was the strong orientation shown towards AmE in their goal-setting process. However, the most striking difference turns out that students showed considerably more positive attitudes towards BrE than did lecturers.

#### 6.4.2.4 Students' goals for spoken English

In regards to their goals for speaking, a somewhat more different picture emerged in students' responses than the picture seen in writing (Figure 13). Not unsurprisingly, there was a small decline in the percentage of students who wished to have the linguistic competence of British speakers whilst the percentage of students aspiring to AmE and other native English varieties slightly increased. The most dramatic increase occurred in

the proportion of students wishing to be a competent English speaker, not bothered by maintaining their own accents and making mistakes providing that they can carry out effective communication. However, those showing preference to accomplishing competence of a native speaker still constituted the majority by a small margin.



**Figure 13.** Students' goal in speaking academic English

The responses of students who picked the *other* option are given in Table 20. From their accounts, it became obvious that achieving effective communication by speaking fluent English (S43, S63, S221, S320) carried more weight to some students than others who, as well as being competent, had a desire of speaking English without any grammatical mistakes (S185), but, even so, tolerated having a non-native accent (S283). Merely one student (S158) aimed at a native model (i.e. Irish English), clarifying further that he would spend some time in the country where this type of English is spoken. All in all, the findings revealed the broad desire among students to attain native-like competence in writing and speaking. What is also notable is the high number of students who intended to be successful communicators who do not aspire to speak or write as NESs do. Interestingly, the disposition among students towards native-like English appears to be just a bit more favourable when it comes to writing, but less favourable in speaking. Possible reasons for students' overall tendency towards native-like English and reasons behind their setting different goals for writing and speaking will be more thoroughly explored and discussed later in the following chapters.

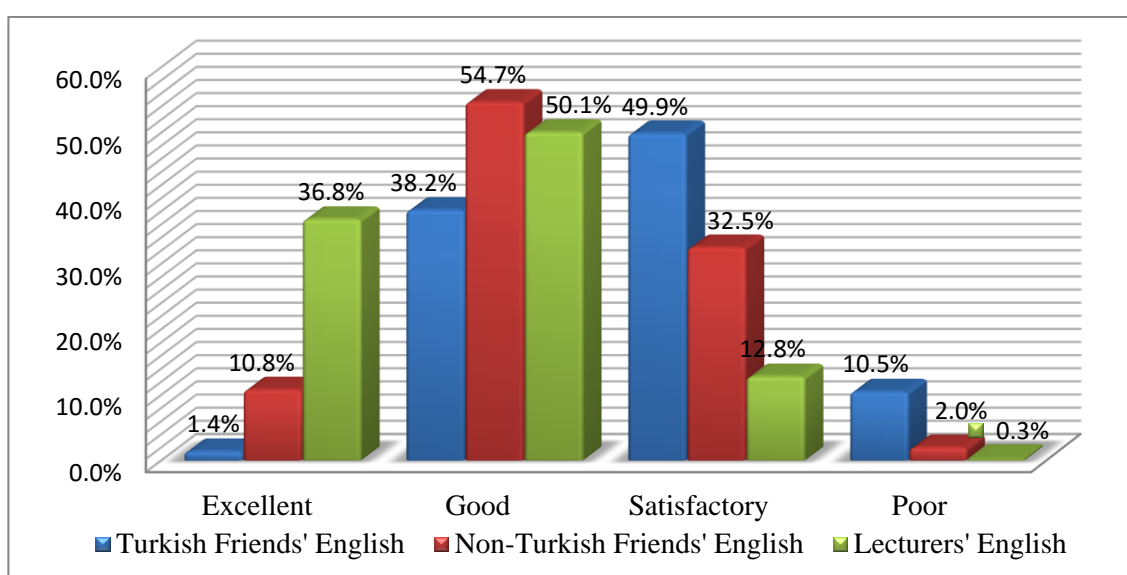
**Table 20.** Students' own descriptions of goals for spoken English

Student ID	Goals
S43 Boğaziçi IR	to speak fluently so that I can explain myself
S63 METU IR	[to] communicate people
S158 Bilkent ME	to speak like an Irish, I'm about to go to Ireland for exchange program
S185 Boğaziçi H	to be a competent speaker, that is, it's OK to have a Turkish accent as long as there is no grammatical mistakes
S221 Bilkent H	To be a fluent speaker
S283 Boğaziçi H	i can have accent but i should not do grammatical mistakes
S320 Boğaziçi ME	to speak fluently and to be understood not only by native speakers but also the foreigners

There were marked differences between lecturers' and students' goals in speaking English. Lecturers are seen to be largely geared towards being a competent speaker whereas a vast majority of students expressed that they would like to speak like a NES. In addition, lecturers harboured rather negative attitudes towards native English varieties, particularly to the goal of speaking like British speakers.

#### 6.4.2.5 Students' perceptions of their friends' and lecturers' English proficiency

As shown in Figure 14, students' perceptions of their lecturers' English, and Turkish and non-Turkish friends' English were substantially different.

**Figure 14.** Students' evaluation of their friends' and lecturers' English ability

The differences observed in students' ratings proved statistically significant when the mean ranks between the three groups were compared through the Kruskal-Wallis test [ $\chi^2(2) = 251.143, p < .05$ ]. It is evident from the distribution of the percentages by the groups that students rated their lecturers' English more often in the *good* to *excellent* range than they did their Turkish and non-Turkish friends' English. Post hoc analysis with Mann-Whitney U tests showed that students' perceptions regarding overall English of lecturers and Turkish students [ $U = 23519.5, p < .05$ ] and lecturers and non-Turkish students [ $U = 39297.5, p < .05$ ] were significantly different as seen in Table 21.

**Table 21.** Difference in students' perceptions of their lecturers' and friends' English

Groups	$\bar{x}$	SD	$\Sigma_{\text{rank}}$	$X_{\text{rank}}$	U	P
Lecturers' English	3.23	.67	415.04	145679.5	39297.5	.000
Non-Turkish friends' English	2.74	.66	287.96	101073.5		
Lecturers' English	3.23	.67	459.99	161457.5	23519.5	.000
Turkish friends' English	2.30	.67	243.01	85295.5		
Non-Turkish friends' English	2.74	.66	407.15	142909.5	42067.5	.000
Turkish friends' English	2.30	.67	295.85	103843.5		

On the other hand, there was a slight difference in students' ratings of Turkish and non-Turkish friends' English proficiency. More precisely, students were not as positive about their Turkish friends' English as they were about their non-Turkish friends' English. Again, the difference students showed in rating their Turkish and non-Turkish friends' English was statistically significant [ $U = 42067.5, p < .05$ ]. This finding suggests that students were significantly less positive about their Turkish friends' English compared to that of their foreign friends. As already discussed before, there might be a couple of reasons for this discrepancy. For instance, they can be more aware of their Turkish friends' language acts and consequently what they do wrong, or they might find it less favourable and more embarrassing when their Turkish friends speak in the L2.

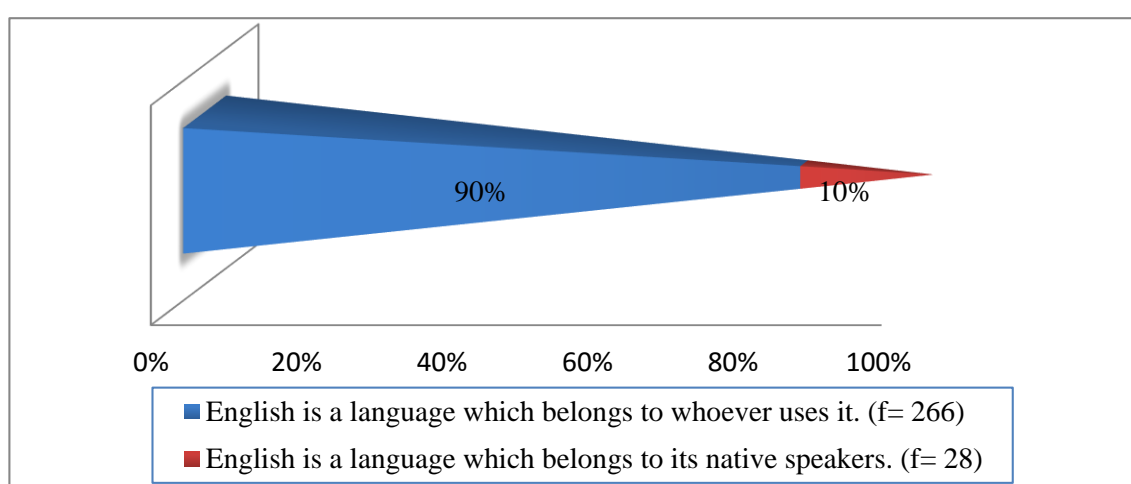
To recap, students expressed the most positive attitudes towards their lecturers' English. This finding was in accord with lecturers' own perceptions of their English. As for their friends' English, students showed more positive attitudes towards non-Turkish students' English than Turkish students' English, thus displaying a nationality contrast when assessing their friends' English. As with lecturers, students appeared to have feelings of negativity towards Turkish students' English. It is worth further investigating what factors play a part in both lecturers' and students' deficit orientation to the English

ability of the students who share the same nationality with them. I will thus explore the factors behind their deficit views in Chapter 8 on student interviews.

### 6.4.3 Students' perceptions of global uses and users of English

#### 6.4.3.1 Students' perceptions of the ownership of English

Similar to lecturers' responses, students showed a strong agreement on the view that the ownership of English is no longer restricted to those who speak it as their mother tongue. By contrast, it was only a small of percentage of participants who did not challenge the conventional ownership of English by its native speakers.



**Figure 15.** Students' views on ownership of English

These results indicate that an overwhelming majority of students did not perceive English as the property of its NESs. It seems to me that such a perception of English may affect students' attitudes towards English and its use in a way that allows them to use English in their own right without feeling the compulsion to conform to a typical variety of English. Again, this is a point which will be further explored through qualitative data analysis.

#### 6.4.3.2 Students' perceptions of English varieties and accents

As can be seen in Table 22 below, a vast majority of students showed high agreement on the importance of being aware of the English spoken by non-native speakers (S1,  $\bar{x}=2.96$ ) as well as by its native speakers (S4,  $\bar{x}= 2.82$ ), of the cultural differences in the use of English (S3,  $\bar{x}=3.06$ ), and of the international features of English which can be understood at a broad linguistic level (S2,  $\bar{x}= 3.35$ ). Based on these results, it can be

surmised that students' attitudes towards the kinds of Englishes used both in the Anglophone and non-Anglophone contexts were fairly positive and liberal.

**Table 22.** Students' views about the knowledge of English varieties and accents

No	N	S. agree		Agree		Disagree		S. disagree		Mean	SD
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	$\bar{x}$	s
S1	350	62	17.7	216	61.5	70	19.9	2	.6	2.96	.63
S2	350	146	41.6	185	52.7	17	4.8	2	.6	3.35	.60
S3	350	90	25.6	195	55.6	61	17.4	4	1.1	3.06	.68
S4	351	58	16.5	185	52.7	98	27.9	10	2.8	2.82	.72

**S1.** It is important to be aware of the English spoken by other non-native speakers.

**S2.** It is important to learn about the features of English which can be understood internationally, not just in one or two countries.

**S3.** It is important to know that different cultures use English differently.

**S4.** It is important to know about other national varieties of English besides British and American English (e.g. Australian, Canadian English).

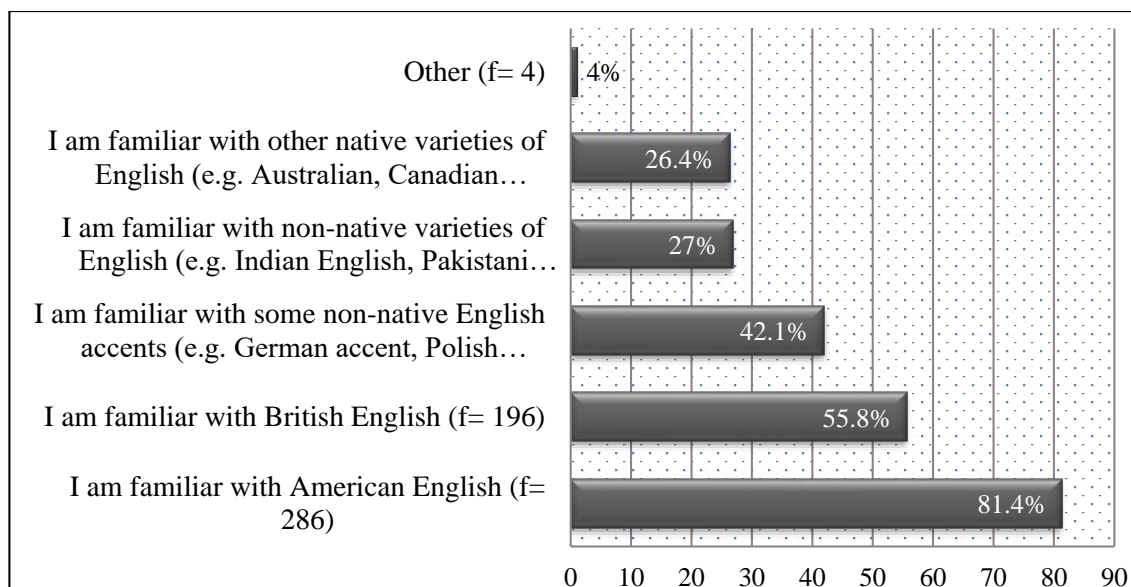
From the comparison of students' responses with those of lecturers, it becomes evident that both groups expressed very similar views on the importance of being aware of English varieties and accents spoken not only in the English speaking countries, but also around the globe. Even the mean scores of their responses to the statements were fairly close. The most obvious difference in their perceptions is students' higher level of agreement on the importance of being informed about the native English varieties apart from AmE and BrE. In other words, lecturers were a bit more pessimistic about having an awareness of the non-dominant native kinds of English, e.g. Australian English.

Considering that there might be disciplinary differences in students' perspectives on the issue of developing awareness about accents and varieties of English other than the well-known standard forms of ENL, the Kruskal-Wallis test was run on the data, and no statistically significant difference emerged ( $p > .05$  on each statement).

Similarly, employing the Mann-Whitney test, I looked at whether overseas experience made any significant impact on students' perspectives. However, no significant difference between students with and without overseas experiences was detected ( $p > .05$ ; see Appendix 14, p. 294).

### 6.4.3.3 Students' familiarity with English varieties and accents

To determine students' perceptions on the significance of being aware of various kinds and accents of English, their familiarity with these varieties and accents were explored.



**Figure 16.** Familiarity with English varieties and accents (multiple responses possible)

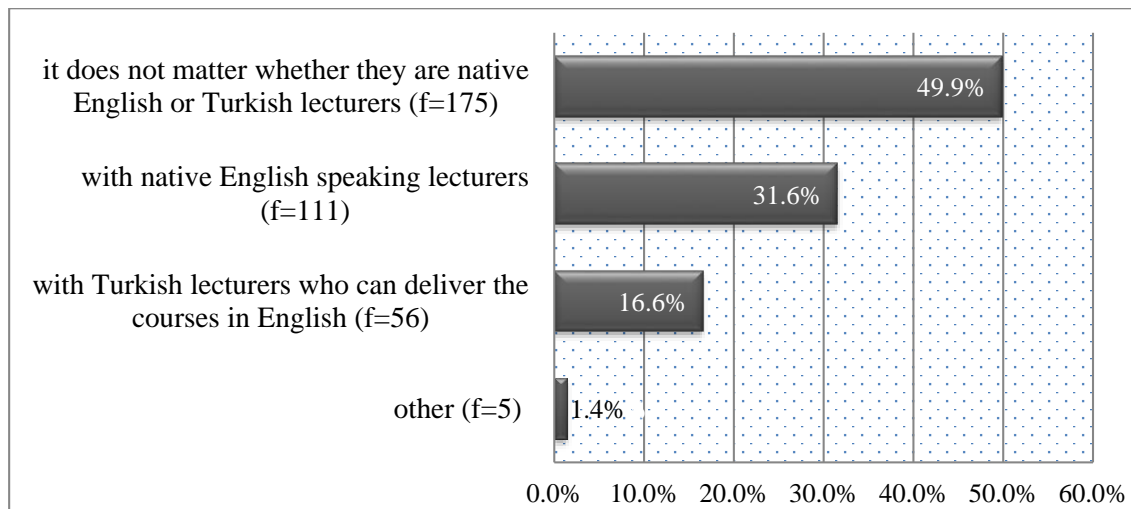
A substantial number of students claimed greater familiarity with the two prominent kinds of ENL, i.e. AmE and BrE. It is notable that students seem to be more familiar with non-native accents, in other words, EFL accents than other native (ENL) and non-native (ESL) varieties of English. Surprisingly, the least familiarity students claimed was with varieties of ENL countries, except for those of Britain and America. Furthermore, in comparison to lecturers' responses, the order of students' familiarity with these varieties and accents is exactly the same as that of lecturers, but in terms of the degree of familiarity, lecturers seem more familiar with the given varieties and accents than students are.

### 6.4.4 Students' perceptions of the ideal teacher

Upon the question of who they regard as the ideal teacher in teaching subject courses via English, Figure 17 indicates that around half of students were neutral about the nationality of their lecturers. Nevertheless, slightly less than one third subscribed to the NES standard by pinpointing them as the ideal teachers in EMI. It is important to note that about one-fifth of students preferred disciplinary courses to be delivered by Turkish



lecturers. Overall, the disposition towards NESs among students appeared to be much stronger than their disposition towards Turkish lecturers.



**Figure 17.** Students' views on the ideal teacher for EMI courses

Just a few students described their understanding of ideal teachers in their own words, making further clarifications (see Table 23). One student (S43) preferred to take courses from Turkish lecturers providing that their English should be comprehensible. Of the two students who favoured NESs, one (S68) accentuated the importance of having pedagogical skills, implying that being a native speaker alone does not assure teaching courses effectively. Nonetheless, the other student (S305) did not mind having Turkish lecturers if their English is fluent although a native speaker was her first priority.

**Table 23.** Students' descriptions of the ideal teacher

Student ID	Description of ideal teacher
S43 Boğaziçi IR	turkish "as long as the Turkish lecturer is understood"
S68 Bilkent IR	native speakers who can teach
S185 Boğaziçi IR	it does not matter as long as they are competent
S305 Boğaziçi IR	Although I prefer a native speaker as a lecturer, it is still okay for me if the Turkish lecturer is fluent in English because then I would have less concentration issues during the lecture

Notable differences arose between lecturers' and students' perceptions of the ideal teacher. In both groups, although the view that teachers' being a Turkish or a NES is not an issue of concern was predominant, the proportion of lecturers agreeing with this view was quite higher than that of students. The most apparent difference, however, emerged in their orientations to NES teachers. While NES teachers seemed to be the choice of

many students for the delivery of university courses, lecturers exhibited the least interest in them. The main reason for this difference might spring from the possibility that lecturers do not want to relegate themselves to a lower status by noting that NES teachers will be a better option. For students, however, there might a multitude of reasons for preferring NES teachers, but it is most likely that linguistic advantages are the primary reason. This issue will be further discussed in more detail in the ensuing chapters.

#### 6.4.5 Students' perceptions of language policies and practices

Students' perceptions on their universities' language policies and practices are presented across three groups which band together statements about similar topics. The statements in the first group, as displayed in Table 24 below, are concerned with the pre-faculty language support (i.e. the preparatory school) of the universities and English language entry tests.

**Table 24.** Perceptions of language policies about preparatory school and entry tests

No	N	S. Agree		Agree		Disagree		S. disagree		Mean	SD
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	$\bar{x}$	S
S1	331	67	19.1	167	47.6	81	23.1	16	4.6	2.86	.78
S3	323	80	22.8	199	56.7	40	11.4	4	1.1	3.09	.64
S4	350	140	39.9	162	46.2	37	10.5	11	3.11	3.23	.76
S11	314	50	14.2	146	41.6	103	29.3	15	4.3	2.73	.78
S5	333	54	15.4	157	44.7	88	25.1	34	9.7	2.69	.86
S7	322	68	19.4	196	55.8	51	14.5	7	2.0	3.00	.67
S12	326	132	37.6	150	42.7	33	9.4	11	3.1	3.23	.76

**S1.** The preparatory school of the university attempts to teach students native English (e.g. British or American English).

**S3.** The materials (e.g. dictionaries, textbooks, etc.) used in the prep school promote British or American English as the legitimate kinds of English.

**S4.** English preparatory school helps students improve their English skills before starting their degree programs.

**S11.** The materials (e.g. dictionaries, textbooks) used in the preparatory school promote native English speakers as the ideal speakers.

**S5.** The university's own English proficiency exam measures students' English skills in British or American English.

**S7.** International proficiency exams (i.e. TOEFL, IELTS) test students' proficiency in native (British or American) English.

**12.** It is fair that all non-native English students should take the proficiency exam to study in this university.

The above results show students' broad agreement on the view that it is native English that university preparatory schools aim to teach students (S1,  $\bar{x}= 2.86$ ), and that this type of English is promoted through different teaching resources (e.g. dictionaries, textbooks, and audio-visual aids) used in the teaching of English (S3,  $\bar{x}= 3.09$ ). On another matter relating to the materials, a slight majority of students believed that through the materials utilized in these EAP programs, NESs are by implication featured as ideal speakers of English (S11,  $\bar{x}= 2.73$ ). Despite all, the preparatory school is still thought to be useful by a large majority of students in enhancing their English skills (S4,  $\bar{x}= 3.23$ ).

Turning to the policies germane to the proficiency exam, what I found interesting is the high level of agreement among students who regarded the policy that requires NNEs students to prove their English proficiency as sensible (S12,  $\bar{x}= 3.23$ ). Additionally, many students are seen to indicate a high level of agreement on the views that the institutional entry test (S5,  $\bar{x}=2.69$ ) and the international entry tests (S7,  $\bar{x}= 3.00$ ) measure students' English in native English.

Following the descriptive statistics, I used inferential statistics to be able to make judgments about the possibility of a difference between students' responses and their universities. Due to the probability of differences in the universities' language policies and practices, students may differ in their views on the above statements. Applying the Kruskal-Wallis, I found a significant difference between students' views and their universities in relation to the following two statements: *The materials (e.g. dictionaries, textbooks) used in the preparatory school promote native English speakers as the ideal speakers* [ $X^2= 11.282$ ,  $p< .05$ ] and *The university's own English proficiency exam measures students' English skills in British or American English* [ $X^2= 13.414$ ,  $p< .05$ ].

Regarding the views on the preparatory school materials, multiple comparisons made via the Mann-Whitney tests showed that the difference lies between Bilkent and METU students [ $U= 5188.0$ ,  $p=< .05$ ]. It was Bilkent students who showed a higher level of agreement with the view that their preparatory school lauds NESs as the model speaker by means of its teaching materials and resources. Concerning the views on universities' in-house language proficiency exams, a significant difference emerged between Bilkent and METU students [ $U= 5031.5$ ,  $p< .05$ ], and Bilkent and Boğaziçi students [ $U= 4945.5$ ,  $p< .05$ ]. That is, the mean scores of their responses show that Bilkent students

had the most significant agreement reached on their institutional language test's being grounded in native English while no difference was confirmed between METU and Boğaziçi students (see Appendix 15, p. 296).

In the second group, the statements concerning lecturers and universities were grouped together. In the main, the statements are about the qualities of lecturers' English, and lecturers' and universities' expectations in relation to students' English and language practices.

**Table 25.** Perceptions about language policies concerning lecturers and universities

SN	N	S. agree		Agree		Disagree		S. disagree		Mean	SD
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%		
S6	351	54	15.4	133	37.9	120	34.2	44	12.5	2.56	.89
S13	324	26	7.4	155	44.2	128	36.5	15	4.3	2.59	.70
S14	330	61	17.4	190	54.1	68	19.4	11	3.1	2.91	.71
S15	333	171	48.7	130	37.0	24	6.8	8	2.3	3.39	.72
S10	326	69	19.7	147	41.9	95	27.1	15	4.3	2.82	.81

**S6.** It is important for lecturers to have native English proficiency in order to teach departmental courses in English.

**S13.** Lecturers expect students to conform to native academic English in terms of their spoken English.

**14.** Lecturers want students to write their assignments and exam papers in native or native-like English.

**15.** Lecturers should also take a proficiency test to prove that they can teach departmental courses in English.

**10.** The university prefers students to use either British or American English in their study rather than other kinds of English.

As shown in the table above, students were, surprisingly, in a comprehensive agreement on the idea that lecturers need to provide evidence of their English proficiency to prove their eligibility for EMI courses (S15,  $\bar{x}$  = 3.39). However, there was no general consensus on whether lecturers need a native-like English proficiency to be able to teach content courses, but students supporting the importance of having native-like English for lecturers had a slight majority (S6,  $\bar{x}$  = 2.56). In the case of lecturers' expectations from them in language use, while around half of students agreed that they were expected to conform to native English in speaking (S13,  $\bar{x}$  = 2.59), a relatively higher number of students expressed that their lecturers expect them to comply with native English norms in writing tasks (e.g. course work, exam papers, reports, etc.) (S14,  $\bar{x}$  = 2.91).

These findings indeed suggest that students feel urged by their lecturers to conform to NES norms in writing more than they do in speaking. Equally, a large proportion of students feel that their universities also force certain standard varieties of ENL (AmE & BrE) on them (S10,  $\bar{x}$ = 2.82). In addition to these findings, according to inferential tests utilized, no significant difference existed between students' responses and their universities. That is, no matter which university the students attended, their perspectives on the above statements were very much alike.

The third group discusses students' responses to the statements which address issues of academic writing and language support.

**Table 26.** Perceptions about language policies concerning academic writing

No	N	S. agree		Agree		Disagree		S. disagree		Mean	SD
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	$\bar{x}$	s
S2	338	100	28.5	184	52.4	52	14.8	2	0.6	3.13	.67
S8	351	55	15.7	184	52.4	99	28.2	13	3.7	2.80	.74
S9	333	119	33.9	169	48.1	38	10.8	7	2.0	3.20	.71

**S2.** In the university, good academic writing should be identified in terms of intelligibility (i.e. comprehensibility) rather than writing like native English speakers.

**S8.** It is important to write either in American or British English in exam papers and assignments.

**S9.** It is necessary to get language support from the university (e.g. from academic writing centres) to be able to write good English.

Table 26 shows that a large number of students concurred that good academic writing should be characterized in relation to establishing intelligibility rather than achieving native-like level of English in writing (S2,  $\bar{x}$ = 3.13). By contrast, the students who agreed with the importance of conformity to BrE and AmE in their written tasks constituted a large proportion of the sample (S8,  $\bar{x}$ = 2.80). Further, the highest level of agreement emerged among students with respect to the need to get language support for their written English (S9,  $\bar{x}$ = 3.20). It was also notable that Boğaziçi and METU students significantly differed in their perspectives on the importance of conforming to native English in written tasks ( $U= 4931.5$ ,  $p< .05$ ). That is, students from Boğaziçi considered compliance with the conventions of native English to be more essential for written English than did METU students.

## **6.5 Summary and conclusion**

The results from the questionnaires have partly offered answers to both sets of research questions except for the two sub-questions (1d & 1e, p. 75). In addition, the results have provided useful background information about participants' overall approach to issues related to English and its global status as well as their experiences with and awareness of the language policies and practices. This background information has helped identify important aspects that cannot be fully explained by quantitative analysis, which can, however, be further investigated in detail through qualitative analysis. While going back and forth between quantitative findings and qualitative findings, such background information can also help establish links between the findings of the quantitative and qualitative analyses, providing a comprehensive understanding of their perceptions, beliefs and feelings about English.

In relation to RQ1a, the results show that both lecturers and students were positive about their English ability levels. Lecturers, on the other hand, were not as positive about Turkish students' English as they were about non-Turkish students' English. Likewise, students harboured more negative attitudes towards their Turkish friends' English than their non-Turkish friends' and lecturers' English. Both groups held similar perceptions about some aspects of their English (e.g. correctness, pronunciation, accent), but lecturers were a bit more positive about speaking correct English. More importantly, the results indicate the tendency among lecturers and students to positively characterize their English, particularly their accents and pronunciations, without referring to a native English benchmark. Partly relating to RQ1c, more elaborate analysis revealed that lecturers' perceptions of their English ability and pronunciations differed to a significant extent across their disciplines. Moreover, some educational and language background differences among students appeared to cause differences in perceptions of their English ability and its various aspects.

The analysis of their perceived language use, which partially answers RQ1a, indicates lecturers' and students' positive orientation to AmE when describing their English use, but lecturers seemed more positively oriented than students. In contrast to lecturers, students were more positive about their English having its own characteristics. It should be noted, however, that students' attitudes towards BrE in the description of their English use were not very favourable. More detailed analyses indicated a correlation

between lecturers' characterization of their English use and the kinds of English they had long-term familiarity with. According to this correlation, more lecturers having had long stays in the USA for study purposes perceived their English as closer to AmE, and more lecturers having spent their time in the UK tended to associate their English with BrE.

In relation to RQ1b, the results show a marked tendency among the lecturers and students to attempt at achieving a NES writing competency, but most preferably that of American speakers. However, students turned out to be more native English-oriented in their goals for written English, and lecturers showed much more interest in being competent writers on their own, showing tolerance to making mistakes, but if they can, managing to keep their written English intelligible. Furthermore, in both groups, but more among lecturers, those elucidating their goals in their own words opted for being competent writers but emphasized the importance of grammatical correctness. These findings can be also related to the first part of the RQ2 for the reason that the strong preference for NESs and the emphasis on grammatical correctness might be because of lecturers' and students' language ideologies (e.g. native English ideology, standard language ideology). To fully answer this question, more detailed analysis is needed. The following chapter will deal with this more exhaustively.

The results, however, identified some differences between students and lecturers concerning their goals in speaking. Lecturers seemed less native English-oriented in speaking English, whereas most students targeted native English, especially AmE for academic speaking. Lecturers stressed the importance of retaining intelligibility and the futility of obsession with correctness in communication. Among lecturers and students who made free comments regarding their goals in speaking, some accentuated issues such as competency, fluency, and comprehensibility for effective communication while only a few raised their voices against speaking with non-native accents and mistakes. As stated previously, their language ideologies might have played a part in setting their goals, but this still calls for further examination. What also merits further exploration is the underlying reasons behind the difference in their goals for written and spoken English.

The analyses of participants' views on the issues around global uses and users of English partially deal with the first part of the RQ2, and help specify lecturers' and

students' outlooks on the concepts concerning the global status of English. The data reveals that the belief English is no longer under the custody of its NESs was predominant among lecturers and students, many of whom now feel that English can be owned by whoever speaks it. Furthermore, both lecturers and students considered it immensely important to be aware of the features of non-native English accents, cultural differences in the use of English, and non-mainstream native varieties of English, along with the features of English which have a broader comprehensibility around the world. However, lecturers' disposition towards non-mainstream native varieties of English was weaker compared to that of students.

Lastly, lecturers' and students' familiarity with English varieties and accents yielded a similar hierarchy in which, not surprisingly, AmE and BrE sat at the top, but surprisingly were followed by non-native English accents. The least familiarity they had was with the non-mainstream native English varieties, which might account for their, particularly lecturers', low-level agreement on gaining awareness of the features of the non-mainstream native English varieties. It was vital to be informed about their degree of familiarity with the English accents and varieties because previous research has shown the impact of familiarity/unfamiliarity on language users' attitudes (e.g. Genç, 2012; Suviniitty, 2009).

As to their ideas about the ideal teacher to teach EMI courses, lecturers' and students' responses produced a different pattern. Lecturers, in the main, preferred to remain broadly neutral about this issue. In sharp contrast, students appeared to be more biased towards native English lecturers, assuming they would do better in teaching content courses, despite the high proportion of those adopting impartial perspectives. It seems that NES ideology can lie behind students' such favourable attitudes towards native English lecturers. It is also possible that other factors such as their previous language learning experiences affect their attitudes. However, this issue calls for more detailed analysis to investigate what actually underpins their attitudes. Moreover, this section considered lecturers' and students' preference for an ideal teacher concerning teaching academic content courses only. It is, however, highly probable that their characterizations of the ideal teacher might change once it comes to teaching language courses offered in the preparatory school, and in their degree programs. Again, this issue will be more thoroughly scrutinized in the next chapters.



The results on the last section of the questionnaire indicate that lecturers are not satisfied with the language test they are required to take for promotion due to their doubts about the predictive value of the test in measuring their skills. Despite their dissatisfaction with the test, interestingly, many supported that lecturers' English should also be certificated. Such a support for certification of English language qualities by lecturers might result from participants' concerns about some of their colleagues' poor English skills. The results suggest that lecturers feel channelled to follow native English norms by the university policy mandating them to publish in English. Regarding their language practices, it seems that lecturers have strong confidence in their written English, needing no support except proofreading. Their inclination to get proofreading services can actually originate from their efforts to meet the language demands of the journals. On the policies concerning students, lecturers are seen to find the pre-faculty language support and language entry policy useful despite agreeing with the international entry tests' being grounded in native English. Despite their view that students need not have native-like English to follow courses, lecturers appear to expect them to adhere to native academic English in writing. This expectation seems to be behind their strong belief that students should get language support to improve their writing. Lastly, lecturers are seen to emphasize the importance of achieving effective communication in speaking, and ensuring intelligibility in writing rather than linguistic correctness and conformity to native English.

Turning to the analysis of students' responses in the last section of the questionnaire, students seem to have a general awareness of the fact that the language policies implemented in their universities are largely founded on native English. However, the majority still consider taking such entry tests important, particularly for NNES students, displaying a deficit view on their English skills. For their language improvement, they broadly agree on the usefulness of the preparatory schools. In respect of lecturers' and universities' expectations' regarding their language practices, the results demonstrate students' common belief that they are expected to conform to the conventions of native English in their oral, but more strongly in their written practices. Surprisingly, students appear unsatisfied with their lecturers' English as can be inferred from their belief that lecturers should take an English proficiency test to prove their English, but students note that having native-like English is not a prerequisite for lecturers. On the issue of academic writing, it is seen that despite their conceptual agreement on the importance of

intelligibility in good writing, the students consider conformity to native English in their written practices (e.g. exams, assignments) rather important. In parallel with this, they stress the importance of getting language support for their academic writing.

Before closing the chapter, I should note that quantitative data analyses fail to go beyond surface-level analysis and heavily hinge on the responses of the majority. Thus, while linking the results to relevant questions during the analysis, I avoided asserting that the results would fully answer the research questions, but instead I preferred to hedge, using *partly*, *in some degree*, and *related to*. Moreover, the central purpose of questionnaire studies is to capture the general snapshot and trend in relation to a particular sample, relying on the mean scores which represent the majority. This is, however, one of the biggest pitfalls of questionnaires as the voices of the minority are silenced and less represented in the results. What these less-heard minorities would have to say at the individual level about the issues under investigation can be more important and useful than what the majority say. Namely, as well as finding out the general tendency or trend among people, it is vital to look for details about what they think and feel about the issues at hand. The following chapters will, therefore, attempt to complement and supplement the results of the questionnaires by exploring the issues which have not been fully determined in this section, and the nuances related to the topic of the research at the individual level.



## **CHAPTER 7: FINDINGS FROM LECTURER INTERVIEWS AND DISCUSSION**

### **7.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the results from the interviews with lecturers. The data presented here expands on the questionnaire findings in order to elaborate on some important aspects generically addressed in the questionnaires. It also complements the questionnaire findings by exploring relevant issues to the research which emerged during the interviews. It firstly introduces the analytical methods and procedure of the data analysis, followed by the presentation of the results. Overall, the data gives insights into lecturers' perceptions of English proficiency, English language use, English language policy and practice, and the place of English in their institutions. The data therefore answers all the research questions, but in particular RQ2 (i.e. What language attitudes and ideologies are prevalent among participants, and what factors are involved in the formation of these ideologies?).

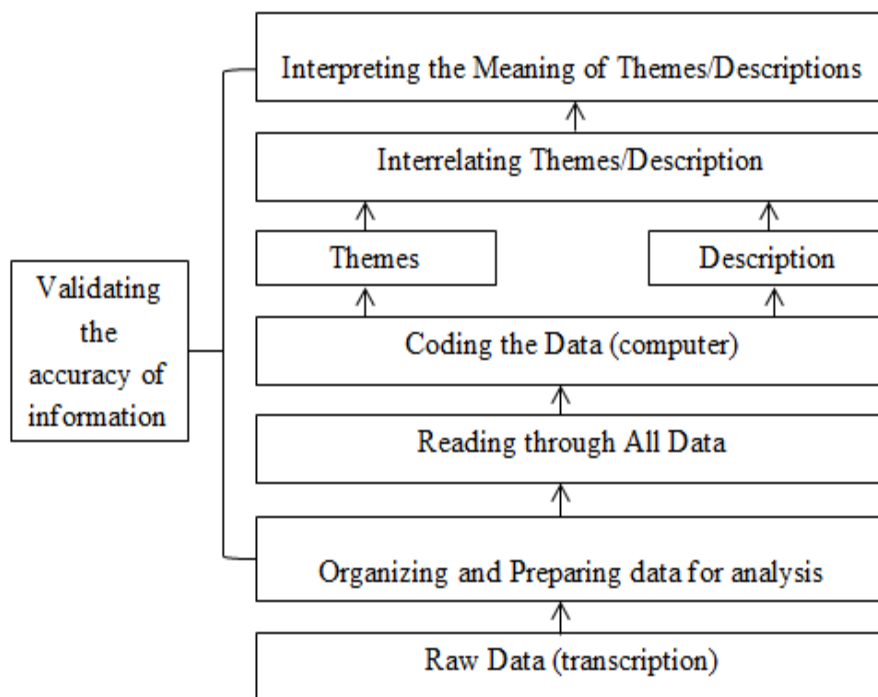
### **7.2 Analytical methods of qualitative data analysis**

Due to the descriptive nature of my qualitative data, I decided to use QCA as the main method of data analysis. However, my second research question addresses language ideologies, and analysing the data via QCA alone would be inadequate to unveil their ideologies embedded in their discourse. On this matter, Schreier (2012) proposed discourse analysis as the method of choice to tackle the issues of ideology, inequality, and power. I will hence use discourse analysis as the secondary analytic tool so as to explore how the content is offered by my participants. Both methods will be explained in the following sections by specifying in what aspects they complement each other.

#### **7.2.1 Qualitative content analysis (QCA)**

QCA can be broadly described as “a research method for the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns” (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005, p. 1278; see also Schreier, 2012, p.1). The purpose of QCA is, as the preceding definition implies, to reduce copious amounts of data to a manageable size, i.e. what is of most interest and significance to the researcher (Cohen et al., 2011; Seidman, 2006) “in order to explore the meanings underlying [the] physical message” (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009, p. 308).

QCA can be done at two levels: manifest level and latent level (Dörnyei, 2007; Elo & Kyngäs, 2007; Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). The former deals with the “descriptive account of the surface meaning of the data” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 245) while the latter “concerns a second-level, interpretative analysis of the underlying deeper meaning of the data” (p. 246). Schreier (2012) underlined that “the focus of QCA is on latent meaning, meaning that is not immediately obvious” (p. 15). My analysis will also attempt to decipher the latent meaning of the content. Dörnyei (2007) proposed four phases to be followed during the analytical process of content: (1) transcribing the data, (2) pre-coding and coding, (3) growing ideas and (4) interpreting the data and drawing conclusions (see pp. 246-257). Likewise, Creswell (2009) listed a series of detailed steps, which overlap with Dörnyei’s (2007) phases. In my analysis, I will follow the following steps:



**Figure 18.** Steps followed in the analysis of qualitative data (Creswell, 2009, p. 185)

Following the above steps, I firstly transformed the verbal data (i.e. interviews) into textual data by fully transcribing them. However, I only translated the relevant segments of the transcribed data into English to be included in the results section. Therefore, when transcribing the data to be presented in the analysis, I paid particular attention to include the minimal transcription features, including some noticeable prosodic features, such as pauses, overlaps, emphasis, and laughter, following Richards’ (2003) suggestion. My aim was at least “to create the ‘feel’ of the oral communication in

writing” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 247) as much as possible and to show how these features affect the intended meaning. I did not, however, transcribe all the prosodic features, such as intonation because my central concern was the content of my participants’ responses. Overall, the transcription process allowed me to scan the data, get familiar with it, and arrange it for the actual analysis. Below is the transcription convention I used in the data analysis. See also Appendix 16 (p. 297) for the interviewee profiles.

**Table 27.** Transcription conventions (adapted from Jenkins, 2014; Mauranen, 2006b; Richards, 2003)

<b>Symbols</b>	<b>Explanations</b>
(.)	Pause of about one second or less
(2)	Pause of about two seconds, etc
XXX	Unable to transcribe (unintelligible word or words)
CAPS	Stressed word
@	Laughter (length indicated by a number of @)
A	Ali (the researcher)
L1, L2, L3	EMI lecturers
S1, S2, S3	EMI students
[ ]	Overlapping utterances
=	Latched utterances
uh-huh	used to indicate affirmation, agreement
/.../	speech not included in the example as material is irrelevant
< >	my additional information to make meaning clear
<i>I</i>	italics are used to highlight issues under discussion in the extracts

After importing the transcriptions into QSR NVivo 10 for storage and facilitating the analysis, I moved on to reading through all data, i.e. pre-coding “to obtain a general sense of the information and reflect on its overall meaning” (Creswell, 2009, p. 185). During this step, I took some notes and recorded my thoughts about the data, creating memo links and annotations in NVivo to the corresponding part of the data. These notes became very useful in the main coding by letting me explore the ideas my participants conveyed, the tone of their views, and the usability of the information they provided, i.e. what is relevant and what is not. Thus, the pre-coding practice reduced my burden and saved my time in the main coding; otherwise, a straight coding would have generated hundreds of codes which might not be easily arranged into a meaningful framework.

The coding of the data was the next step. While Seidman (2006) cited how coding is criticized by some scholars who claim that it echoes the link to quantitative paradigm, Dörnyei (2007) argued that “qualitative data analysis invariably starts with coding” and coding has proved to be useful for “reducing or simplifying the data while highlighting special features of certain data segments in order to link them to a broader topics or concepts” (p. 250). In line with Dörnyei (2007), and in accordance with my research aims and questions, I started coding the transcripts by following my interview topic guide (see Appendix 4, p. 275), with a focus on language proficiency, language use, and language policies and practices. Seeing as my qualitative data were collected through semi-structured interviews, I did my coding in two ways: in a bottom-up way with emergent (data-driven) codes and in a top-down way with pre-established codes. Some codes were pre-established because I had already determined them based on my interview guide before undertaking my interviews. The emergent codes, though, were created based on my participants’ own utterances, were related to the research focus and questions, and brought up new and interesting ideas and points which had not been informed by or included in my topic guide.

At the end of the coding process, I identified a total of 65 free codes, which were, however, too many to be put into a framework. Thus, I ran a second-level coding, with a special focus on how related and similar these codes were to each other in terms of expressing certain concepts. This sort of coding helped me reduce the number of final codes to 32 (see the bulleted phrases in Appendix 17, p. 298). These final codes were then clustered together as categories in terms of their relevance to the topics in the interview guide and the topics that emerged from the data during the interviews. These categories were finally combined under four main overarching themes, which are the following:

- 1) Perceptions of English proficiency (i.e. their own & others)
- 2) Perceptions of English language use (e.g. goals, expectations, the underlying reasons for their goals and expectations)
- 3) Perception of English language policies and practices (e.g. whose English is imposed, usefulness of the policies, language support, entry tests, etc.)
- 4) Perceptions of the role(s) of English in the university

Here, I should note that under each theme, there are also several sub-themes consisting of several categories of codes. These main categories of codes were further divided into sub-categories of smaller overarching codes depending on their relationships between them. The most extensive group of codes was under the theme of *English language use* while the least extensive was related to *the roles of English in the university* (see Appendix 17, p. 298, for the detailed breakdown of main themes and sub-themes). The data is presented in the order of the main themes and sub-themes.

### **7.2.2 Discourse analysis**

Before talking about discourse analysis, I should note that in the main analysis, discourse analysis is not used on an equal footing with QCA, the primary method of analysis. Discourse analysis is performed only when I think discourse features used in the participants' utterances bring additional meaning to the surface meaning of the content of their utterances. Due to this reason, much of the analysis draws largely on QCA.

Here, it is of vital importance to clarify what *discourse* means in discourse analysis. Despite its numerous interpretations by researchers from many disciplines, it can be thought, in the discipline of linguistics, as “the social activity of making meanings with language and other symbolic systems in some particular kind of situation or setting” (Lemke, 2005, p. 5). Its analysis is done “by examining aspects of the structure and function of language in use” (Johnstone, 2008, p. 4). Evidently, discourse analysis examines not only the details of language structure in use, but also how language is used in the construction and expression of views, ideas, and themes. Better put, it precisely “deals with meaning in social, cultural, and political terms” (Gee, 2011, p. ix).

According to Schreier (2012), discourse analysis, regardless of its several types, can be done descriptively or critically. She further argued that any type of discourse analysis which is primarily descriptive remains limited to the analysis of language structure, and often to the sentence level. An analysis of discourse done critically is yet more judgmental and interpretative, primarily focusing on “the relationship between language, the process of producing, receiving, and disseminating language, and the larger context in which this takes place” (p. 46). This does not mean that doing analysis of discourse critically involves no description. Descriptive devices can still be used, but to a smaller extent. Moreover, Schreier (2012) maintained that discourse analysis can



reinforce QCA in the analysis of qualitative data because QCA alone remains confined to the descriptions of what is uttered through language, and cannot analyse the process of discourse formation, i.e. how language is used and how it is not used.

For the purposes of my research, my analysis will be essentially critical or more precisely a critical analysis of discourse. When used along with discourse analysis, to Blommaert (2005b), “‘critical analysis’ stands for performing analysis that would expose and critique existing wrong in one’s society” (p. 6). However, it needs to be noted that the version of discourse analysis to be employed in this research differs in focus from the widely known critical discourse analysis (CDA). Therefore, I prefer to use the term *discourse analysis* that is being critical with a lower-case c as in cDA to differentiate it from CDA, which is regarded as an approach to the study of discourse rather than a method (see, Fairclough, 1995). My choice for cDA lies in the fact that I do not feel that the methodology called CDA can appropriate the notion of critical for discourse analysis. As I see it, any researcher can be critical in their use of a particular method. I thus believe that what makes discourse analysis critical is the way in which the analysis is done. The version of discourse analysis (cDA) I intend to apply in my data analysis can be better described as:

a form of DISCOURSE ANALYSIS that takes a critical stance towards how language is used and analyzes texts and other discourse types in order to identify the ideology and values underlying them. It seeks to reveal the interests and power relations in any institutional and socio-historical context through analyzing the ways that people use language (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 133; capitals in original)

This definition is particularly relevant to my research as I endeavour to discover what language ideologies are prevalent among my participants regarding their perceptions of English. The study of ideologies occupies an important place in discourse analysis in that discourse may be created to serve either as a means or home for producing and reproducing ideologies (Blommaert & Bulcaen, 2000). Through discourse analysis, it is thus possible to discern whether my participants abide by dominant discourse “(also called ‘hegemonic discourse’)” and the beliefs transmitted through it, or create alternative realities (“subordinate-counter discourse”; Schreier, 2012, p. 46) on the research topics discussed. Yet, to this end, several scholars suggested that various levels of context in which discourse is rooted should be taken into account once studying discourse features in the qualitative data (Abell & Myers, 2008; Wodak, 2008).

Discourse analysts generally agree that analysis of a particular discourse can be done at three levels of context, i.e. the co-text, the intertextual context, and the socio-political context (Abell & Myers, 2008; Blommaert & Bulcaen, 2000; Wodak, 2008). The co-text, where discourse is analysed as a (internal language) text, looks at the relationship of an utterance with its surrounding text, i.e. what comes before and after it. The application of analysis in this immediate context is hence restricted to the sentence level in which, for instance, vocabulary patterns and choices, grammar, cohesion, and text structure can be analysed. The analysis tends to be relatively descriptive at this level.

The analysis of intertextual context profoundly engages in how instances of a discourse are produced, distributed, and consumed by individuals, paying attention “to speech acts, coherence and intertextuality – three aspects that link a text to its context” (Blommaert & Bulcaen, 2000, pp. 448-449). Intertextuality here refers to the ways of relating texts to other texts. Wodak (2008) brought forth a number of ways in which relations between texts can be built, such as “through continued reference to a topic or main actors; through reference to the same events; or by the transfer of main arguments from one text into the next ... i.e. *recontextualization*” (p. 3; italics in original). Furthermore, Johnstone (2008) added that “[t]exts can be *interdiscursively* related to prior texts” (p. 166; italics in original). The notion of interdiscursivity refers to the manners in which features of a discourse are linked to other (previous) discourses. That is, individuals do not randomly employ certain lexico-grammatical features and discourse structures, but prefer certain forms over others, intentionally or unintentionally. In the analysis, it is therefore vital to consider a range of heterogeneous constituents of texts, including generic conventions, discourse types, register, and styles because of their pivotal role in the production, distribution, and consumption of discourse (Blommaert & Bulcaen, 2000). The analysis is done more judgmentally in this context.

The analysis of discourse features in the social-political and historical context treats discourse as a social practice in which the aim of analysis is to question “what sorts of knowledge and power relations” are presumed in participants’ language use (Abell & Myers, 2008, p. 151). As it is understood, the issues of power and ideologies lie at the heart of discourse analysis that considers the socio-political and historical contexts. It is because any discourse embedded in such contexts is likely to be laden with ideologies and influenced by power relations. In relation to my research, an instance of this can be

the way certain accents, dialects, or varieties of English is perceived as privileged or under-privileged over others by my participants for various reasons (e.g. personal experiences, beliefs, aspirations, and others' expectations). It may be further said that the analysis at this level is explanation-focused.

As shown so far, discourse analysis can be done, at least, at one of the three levels of context. For my analysis, each contextual level is of equal importance, since both micro and macro contextual elements contribute to a holistic analysis of discourse. Through this holistic approach to discourse analysis, discursive elements, such as features of vocabulary, metaphors, discourse markers, and ideologically loaded and marked words spoken in the immediate, intertextual, and socio-political contexts can be incorporated into the analysis. In this way, researchers can “look at elements of the text at both *micro* lexical-grammatical level, as well as consider the impact of such choices at more *macro* semantic and societal levels” (Hyatt, 2006, p. 115, italics in original).

### **7.3 Analysis of the lecturer data**

#### **7.3.1 Perceptions of English proficiency**

##### **7.3.1.1 Lecturers' perceptions of their English proficiency**

Although I addressed how lecturers perceived their English proficiency in the preceding chapter, there were some interesting aspects I identified to further discuss with my participants in one-to-one interviews. These aspects are the following: (a) why and in what aspects many lecturers associate their English with a particular native English variety and (b) what a small number of the lecturers who described their English as Turkish-influenced think about their English. In this section, firstly, I will present the reasons cited by lecturers when explaining their identification of their English with native English, particularly AmE. The main reasons given were twofold and closely interrelated: **long term exposure to/familiarity with the variety**<sup>59</sup> with which they affiliate their own English and **the influences of their previous educational experiences**. The following extracts well represent the accounts of the lecturers who viewed their English as closer to a standard version of native English.

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<sup>59</sup> The sub-themes are written in **bold** so that the transition from one sub-theme to another would be easily noticeable to readers.

Example 7.1:

1. A: sir then erm i was going to ask you something (.) i was going to ask you in what
2. aspects you see your English as close to American English but=
3. L1: =i mean i actually see <my English> closer to Canadian English after all i
4. studied in the university in Canada and so on much of my English use in terms
5. of academic <language use> is closer to Canadian English (.) it is indeed think
6. of it as something “middle of the Atlantic” in short (.) it <Canadian English>
7. is between England <British English> and the United states <American English>
8. after all (.) although they <Canadians> speak in the form of American <English>
9. they spell everything in the <British> English style

Before discussing the above extract, I should note that L1 viewed his English as similar to AmE in the questionnaire study. This was most likely because, as he mentioned in our talk, he lived in the USA for several years when he was a child. However, his response (11.3-5) to my question reveals that he actually distinguishes his general English from his academic English. While it is apparent that he perceives his general English to be like AmE as a result of his early contact with it, it still seems a bit vague why he shifts to Canadian English to define “much of” his academic English (1.4). A possible explanation for this might be that Canadian academic English was the kind of appropriate English where he studied for his master’s and PhD. Most presumably, he was required to use this kind of academic English in his academic language practices. Another possible explanation might be concern with academic publishing. Talking about this issue, L1 remarked:

when you look at the journals i publish in there are some things <author>  
guidelines rules they lay down in general i conform <to Canadian English> to write  
in accordance with them

From L1’s remarks, it can be inferred that publishing requirements influence researchers’ writing practices as well as the way they perceive their academic English.

Another recurrent subject in the interviews was that the type of English several lecturers perceived to have was indeed what was taught to them in language classes when they were learning English. This point was more clearly indicated in the following exchange, which occurred while I was discussing with L5 the factors which made her think that her English is akin to AmE.

Example 7.2:

1. A: you are already a graduate of a university <Boğaziçi> that teaches in English
2. medium mrs. [name]=
3. L5: =yes i am *also i'm a graduate of Üsküdar American high school*
4. A: i see you also received education through English in high school=
5. L5: =i received education through English in high school
6. /.../
7. A: /.../ was it a school associated with America or was the school's name (.)
8. American high school
9. L5: /.../ *these <such private colleges> are truly (.) erm American Colleges more*
10. *than 50% of its teachers are foreign /.../* after that there are two headmasters one
11. Turkish and one foreign in most of these schools and for example especially
12. in the preparatory <school> when you start you just learn English only for a whole
13. <academic> year between 11-12 years old (.) at that time *all our teachers (.) erm*
14. *were people from different parts of the world who speak English as a first*
15. *language <this situation> creates an abundance of accents there* because as you
16. see you would meet teachers coming from many erm different countries ranging
17. from Canada to New Zealand or people from different regions of America who
18. pronounce words differently

What is interesting to note in Example 7.2 is that although I was wondering the role of her education in Boğaziçi in relation to her perceived AmE, she clarified that her acquaintance with EMI dated back to her high school years, with a detailed account about the school she attended (ll.9-18). Obviously, the message she wanted to communicate was that she acquired AmE as a result of her language immersion experiences in the American college long before her studies at Boğaziçi. She also positively referred to the diversity of accents (“an abundance of accents”, l.15) at the school because more than half of the teaching staff were “foreign.” Reading between the lines in her discourse, it became evident that what she meant by “abundance of accents” is the abundance of native English accents, and “foreign” teaching staff is a euphemism for NES teachers “from different countries ranging from Canada to New Zealand” and “from different regions of America.” As one might see quite easily, behind L5’s favourable disposition to AmE lay her previous educational experiences through which, I believe, she probably developed a sense of EFL understanding, which promotes the idea of achieving near-native competence, and of using English with its native speakers (see Jenkins, 1998, 2006a, and 2009 for a similar discussion).

Turning to the aspects of most lecturers’ perceived native-like English, it emerged that several participants mentioned two linguistic aspects in their discussions: **their native-like pronunciations** and **accents**. In other words, their emphasis was on how close their

accents were to native English accents, predominantly North American accent, and how correct their pronunciations were. One lecturer, for example, remarked “i have a little bit American accent @@ more precisely they say so” (L8). Her evasion of fully labelling her accent with AmE and her laughter indicated that she did not wish to sound too arrogant. This is partly related to Turkish culture in which people themselves do not want to articulate their perceived favourable qualities, as this is not very well received in the society. Probably, this is why she referred to others (“they say so”) to verify that she indeed has an American accent, and by “they,” she possibly referred to her students and colleagues. Later on, she explained that she did not make an extra effort to attain an American accent, but as a result of “residing in the USA it <her accent> naturally became so plus <it is> a matter of interest.” The point she made is that being exposed to AmE for long years, particularly in the USA, and her particular interest in AmE led her to acquire an American accent.

Similarly, another respondent, L2, referred to her pronunciation and how her American teachers praised her pronunciation. She described her English, saying “i substantially use correct pronunciation actually the American teachers there <in the university> told this my pronunciation was so good i can speak fluently.” Judging from the way she described her English, it seemed that in L2’s view, speaking AmE was positively connoted with the notions of “correct pronunciation” and fluent speech. Her remarks further indicated her assumption that correct English is Standard AmE. What is surprising in her accounts is that she perceived her American teachers as the authority who could legitimately judge whether her English pronunciation is “relatively correct.” That is, she felt the need to rely on her American teachers as the benchmark to substantiate her claim that her pronunciation is “correct” according to AmE norms. It could be argued that she relied on her American teachers because she believed, as the native speakers of English, they had ownership of English and thus could make authoritative judgements on her English, namely NNEs’ language production.

Another participant, L13, talked of his previous experiences in an American college, (Robert College) and added “the education i had there perhaps helped me reduce my <non-native> accent a bit”. What he felt is that his English, particularly his accent became more like AmE upon attending the American college. As far as I am concerned, the recurring mentions of “accents”, “pronunciations,” and “fluency” in several participants’ discourses suggest that these linguistic aspects are considerably salient in

their minds when affiliating their English with a particular variety. In relation to L13, as well as the others (e.g. L2 & L8) who foregrounded “correct pronunciation” and “native-like accent” in their perceptions of their own English, I would like to argue that they have been under the influence of the ideology of authenticity (Woolard, 2005; see p. 45 above for arguments for authenticity), which incites speakers to attempt to sound more like those who are perceived as being valued and authentic speakers of the language, i.e. NESs, by removing the traits of their L1 from their English.

Having said this, I will now turn to how the lecturers who did not associate their English with a native English variety perceived their L1-influenced English. The following examples illustrate what aspects of their English such lecturers featured in their descriptions.

Example 7.3:

1. A: in the questionnaire you told me that your English was Turkish-influenced (.) it has
2. its own style most of your colleagues considered their English close to American
3. English how do you view your English
4. L4: /.../ well *i have no trouble giving lectures* <in English> erm (.) i think *there is*
5. *no problem with my English* i get such feedback from students i mean *they find*
6. *erm my English intelligible they tell i'm using plain English* /.../

Example 7.4:

1. A: generally speaking how do you view yourself in terms of <your> English (.)
2. both in terms of social and academic <English> lecturing in the university
3. L10: i am not a bilingual=
4. A: =uh-huh
5. L10: but (2) er::m it <my English> *is fluent and i have a sufficient level of*
6. *English proficiency especially to be able to give a lecture on subjects related to*
7. *my own field namely engineering* (.) and natural sciences

The examples above made it evident that L4 and L10 were concerned much about what their English was like in real life situations and how their English looked in terms of **communicative aspects** and **academic language performance**. In other words, their benchmark for describing their English was not based on the abstract concepts of language (i.e. correct pronunciation and native-like accent or fluency). Rather, their accounts on their English were communication-oriented, i.e. what they could do using English. Thus, they did not decouple English from what they communicate through it, i.e. the contents of the lecture material. It seems that it is for such reasons that these lecturers attached more importance to their English being “intelligible” and “plain”

(L4), and good enough to convey content knowledge in their “own field” (L10). The conclusion to their positive comments about their L1-influenced English is that they do not seem to consider it a barrier to using English effectively as a vehicle for academic purposes.

Following my discussion on lecturers’ perceptions of their own English, I brought up the subject of their colleagues’ English. Many did not appear willing to talk about it. This lack of willingness gave me the impression that they did not hold positive views of their colleagues’ English, and did not want to reveal their genuine feelings to me. My speculation was, however, confirmed later on by some lecturers who spontaneously expressed **unfavourable views** on their Turkish colleagues’ English when we were discussing other issues. For example, during my talk with L11 about the trainings offered to teaching staff, he complained “there are a vast number of lecturers who have never attended a seminar.” He then noted that “i can say here <at METU> there are a lot of lecturers whose English is not sufficient enough to teach in English-medium.” The issue debated by L11 is that although the university offers trainings and seminars to the teaching staff to enhance their lecturing and English skills, many lecturers, especially those whose English L11 perceived as deficient have not benefited from such services. Therefore, he believed, such lecturers’ English was still below the required level for teaching in English-medium.

Likewise, L4 expressed his concerns about his colleagues’ English when he remarked “speaking for myself I have no trouble with English (.) but some of my colleagues even at METU might have problems with language.” The interesting point in L4’s comment is that he distinguished his English from that of some of his colleagues by constructing a positive self-representation and negative other-representation (Woodak, 2006). It is also obvious from his discourse (“even at METU”) that L4 expected lecturers in fully EMI universities to have “no trouble” with English at all. However, he did not clarify what he meant by “no trouble”. Despite his lack of clarity, it is quite likely that the teachers he considered to have language problems were those who had their postgraduate studies in Turkey. Taken together, the comments quoted by L11 and L4 above can partly explain why many lecturers did not favour Turkish lecturers when asked in the questionnaires who they thought might be an ideal teacher in EMI programs.



### 7.3.1.2 Lecturers' perceptions of students' English

The data from the questionnaires showed that lecturers, in the main, took a deficit approach to Turkish students' English as compared with English of non-Turkish students. With the purpose of discovering the causes of lecturers' negative attitudes towards Turkish students' English, I further addressed this matter in the interviews. A common point which surfaced in the comments of several lecturers was their concern with Turkish students' **deviant linguistic elements** (e.g. their heavily L1-influenced English, non-standard linguistic forms), particularly in terms of their writing and speaking. It seems that for students' L1-influenced English was not perceived as close to what many lecturers considered to be the standard; they judged the kind of English Turkish students have as deficient. The following example, extracted from my talk with L1 on Turkish students' English, illustrates the typical views among lecturers who problematized students' English.

Example 7.5:

1. A: /.../ what are the language problems the main language problems with your
2. students' <English> you have noticed (.) i mean you have observed during
3. the lectures
4. /.../
5. L1: *er:m (3) grammatical errors <in> written <English> i mean Turks make too*
6. *many syntactical and grammatical errors when writing they are unable to*
7. *determine where to use 'the' (.) i mean since there is no such a concept*
8. *in Turkish students find it difficult=*
9. A: =mmm it is also a major difficulty for me
10. L1: *uh-huh (.) other than this sometimes they are unable to pronounce certain*
11. *words <correctly> in their talks (.) but i mean this is a natural thing because*
12. *English has no rules like those of Turkish because not each letter is pronounced*
13. *er:m (.) no doubt such things <errors> occur*

The above exchange shows that L1 benchmarked students' English on the norms of StE as he considered the differences in their writing from this kind of English to be "errors" (ll.5-7). It is interesting that he even perceived students' English as deficient due to their misuse of the definite article *the*, although he was aware that the Turkish language lacks articles. As to students' speaking, similarly, he highlighted their inability to "pronounce certain words <correctly>." What is remarkable is that L1 seemed to recognize that the differences in students' pronunciations result from the differences between the nature of oral English and Turkish (ll.11-13), yet he still viewed such differences from native-like pronunciation as errors. The conclusion I have drawn from L1's comments alongside

some of his colleagues' views (e.g. L7: "they have trouble speaking English"; L13: "all kinds of problems exist in their English") is that by "language problems" and "troubles," they referred to the linguistic elements and forms of students' English which are perceived as deviant from standard native English.

As discussed in the literature review, such orientations to students' English actually typify language teachers' perspectives. The emergence of similar perspectives in many content lecturers' discourse further corroborates the inevitable influence of language ideologies on their judgments of students' English. Since their point of reference is solely grounded in standard native English in their evaluations, they seem to be blindly attached to the deficit view, thereby not even considering the possibility of alternative views (e.g. considering L2 learners/users in their own right; see Jenkins, 2006a). The fact that such deficit perspectives were articulated mainly by lecturers who perceived their English to be native-like signals the possible impact of their previous educational influences on their perceptions.

In contrast, the lecturers who were more positive about students' English tended to focus on students' academic performance, particularly their **successful use of English in academic tasks**. That is, they were more concerned with whether students' level of English was satisfactory enough to deal with academic tasks than how close their English was to a particular variety. To illustrate typical comments, one interviewee stated "they <students> read textbooks listen to the lectures no one has difficulty nobody has told me so far they have had trouble except for few" (L4). The same view was expressed by another respondent who noted "i can't say there is a serious problem <with students' English> in terms of following courses their English is adequate enough to follow courses do readings" (L12).

From what has been said about students' English so far, it should be clear that the underlying reason why lecturers perceived students' English differently is that they benchmarked students' English against different criteria. The lecturers who evaluated students by comparison with their success to meet the requirements of academic tasks adopted an optimistic and positive attitude. However, other lecturers who judged students' English by a native English yardstick held a substantially pessimistic and negative attitude because they perceived that students' English was far from conforming to the established norms of what they set as a benchmark in their minds. So far, this

section has looked at the issues relative to lecturers' perceptions of English. The next section takes up a number of issues discussed by lecturers concerning academic English use.

### 7.3.2 Perceptions of English language use

In the questionnaires, I explored lecturers' orientations to using English for academic purposes, asking what their goals were for academic spoken and written English. From the analysis, it emerged that lecturers' goals for written English were different from their goals for spoken English. To find out what led lecturers to have different orientations to written and spoken English, I discussed this matter in the interviews in more detail. In the discussions, participants frequently alluded to their concerns and expectations about their own and students' academic written and spoken English.

#### 7.3.2.1 Lecturers' expectations about their own academic English

Lecturers' comments on their concerns and expectations about their academic written English demonstrated that the majority held normative expectations of their own written English. What lies behind such expectations seemed to be their belief that **conformity to the norms of StE in academic writing is important**. Moreover, some respondents conceived standard written English to have **wider intelligibility** for readers. The following example clearly illustrates this point.

Example 7.6:

1. A: i looked at (.) your goals for speaking and writing in the questionnaires /.../
2.       for speaking you were a bit (.) more relaxed and said like it was satisfactory
3.       to be (.) a competent [speaker but
4. L2:                               [uh-huh
5. A:   when it comes to writing it is a bit more like <American speakers>=
6. L2: =hah with regards to expectations of students <their English use>=
7. A:   =no in terms of [your own English
8. L2:                               [my English i see i see erm well of course *i think when*
9.       *writing one has more time er:m when writing we can write as much*
10.      *intelligible as possible by thinking over what we have in our mind for a*
11.      *longer time /.../ therefore i had thought perhaps readers could more*
12.      *easily understand what you write even if their English is broken*

The above exchange occurred while I was discussing with L2 why she had set different goals for academic written and spoken English. In the questionnaire, she expressed her wish as to have American speakers' competence in writing; however, she did not wish

to sound like Americans when speaking English. For her adherence to AmE in writing, the underlying reason seems to be that she believes when people conform to native English, they are likely to write “as much intelligible as possible” due to the abundance of time, which probably allows people to monitor their writing. Additionally, if written in native English, as she perceives, one’s writing could be intelligible even to those whose “English is broken” (ll.13-14). It is clear from her remarks that she believes what makes academic writing intelligible is the degree of conformity to native English.

Almost all of the lecturers who had normative expectations seemed to be concerned with the notion of correctness in their writing. As understood from their accounts, the main cause of their concern with correct writing stems from external factors such as the **publishing requirements** of journals, which, as L2 argued, tended to reject the papers they perceived as “poorly written,” i.e. the papers not written in accordance with standard native English. The participants mostly mentioned proofreading as the key strategy they pursued to fulfil the language requirements of journals. For example, one lecturer, L6, argued “we get criticized on the grounds that this <paper> has been written by someone who is not a native speaker.” In such cases, as several lecturers said, journal reviewers make comments, such as “the paper has been written in poor English it would be better if you let a native speaker proofread it” (L7). Judging from journals’ requirements and **reviewers’ negative reviews** on non-native written English, it seems that the belief that writing in non-standard English is inappropriate in academic writing is strongly enforced on lecturers by external forces.

Not surprisingly, I found many lecturers convinced of this belief. As several of them averred, when acting as reviewers for journals, they also make similar comments on the manuscripts they consider to be written in poor English. Talking about this issue, L9 said he got his first negative review on his writing from his American supervisor who commented that L9’s writing was “very bad” and he needed to “absolutely write better in academic writing.” L9 found his supervisor to be “totally right,” and thus followed his supervisor’s advice. Now it seems that he is making similar reviews on others’ writing so that they can conform to what he considers “better academic writing.”

As far as I am concerned, the normative orientations of many lecturers to academic written English may be explained in this way: normatively-oriented lecturers as the members of an academic speech community have formed “a consensual ideology”

(Spolsky, 2004, p. 14) which is that standard native English is the appropriate kind of English to be used in academic writing and thus superordinate to non-standard (-native) Englishes. This is actually unsurprising considering that in other domains, people also hold on to StE when using English for formal writing. Therefore, such views have widespread acceptance, especially by people in the non-English speaking world.

As mentioned in Chapter 2, Spolsky (2004) also argued in relation to the language ideology component of his language policy framework that people tend to assign “values and prestige to various aspects of the language varieties used in it” (p. 14) while forming their beliefs about language and language use. It is evident that the linguistic aspect prioritized by many participants is the grammatical correctness of standard native English. I should also note the consensual ideology among the majority was consistent with the institutions’ ideology regarding the appropriate kind of English on their campus (see Chapter 5, e.g. Section 5.3.1.1). It is thus likely that the institutions’ language policies and practices might have played a role in lecturers’ formation of the ideology of superiority of native academic English to non-native English. I will further discuss this point when presenting the results on perceptions of language policies and practices.

In contrast, the lecturers with a more non-normative expectation of their academic writing, though small in number, considered deviations from native English norms to be acceptable in academic writing. Their primary concern was thus **intelligibility of the content** of their manuscripts, **the ability to use discipline-specific academic English**, and **fairness** in academic writing.

Of these lecturers, for instance, L12 said “frankly speaking for me whether it is written English or Turkish (.) intelligibility is more important than anything else this is my expectation in history.” Namely, as he expects his academic writing to be intelligible content-wise, he considers “anything else” apart from this (e.g. whether his “writing flows or not,” and is correctly written) a trivial detail. His formation of the same expectation for written Turkish shows that achievement of intelligibility of the content of the message is his general criterion in academic writing regardless of the language he will write in. He further emphasized how “important it is to use concepts appropriately use technical terms (.) in the right places and in the correct way” because “these are quite important things in terms of history.” From his concerns with intelligibility and

discipline-specific language use, it becomes evident that his priority is to communicate the content of what he writes to readers. He also seemed to translate this criterion into his practices as a reviewer. While explaining how he acted language-wise in his role as a reviewer, he implied, as seen in his own words below, that he does not see the local linguistic and cultural influences in authors' writing as a problem:

to tell the truth i do not pay attention to the flow of their <authors'> English (.)  
well things such as their lack of knowledge of grammar and i also believe as a  
reviewer this is not my responsibility either

With another respondent (L11), while discussing issues relating to publishing, I mentioned that some journals have started to be less normative in terms of their requirements of authors' writing. To illustrate this point, I gave the example of a journal (i.e. *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca*), saying that its editors do not expect authors to conform to native English norms, but expect their English to be intelligible to a wider, international audience. Upon hearing my example, L11 seemed to be already aware of such non-normative expectations in academia, and named this non-normative approach "the emergence of a second Academic English", which is firmly grounded in intelligibility. When I further probed into what he thought about this approach to academic writing, he replied, drawing on the issue of fairness:

well in practical terms this approach seems to me realistic i mean (.) now that  
people whose native language is not English are forced to publish in a language  
which is not their mother tongue then of course (.) intelligibility should be  
foregrounded erm i find this realistic

It is evident from L11's accounts, so far, that he conceives written English grounded in native English norms as the first and dominant academic English. The interesting point in his comment is that he does not appear to consider writing in line with native English norms realistic and fair, particularly for practical reasons and from the perspectives of NNEs writers. Consequently, with his priority being intelligibility in academic writing, he sided with what he called "the second Academic English."

The above comments suggest that a few lecturers have seen variation from native English in academic writing acceptable, by adopting a non-normative orientation. This may be actually indicative of reflections of an ideology which considers departures from native academic English legitimate. However, this speculation should be interpreted

with caution because it was only a handful of lecturers, especially from the engineering faculty who submitted themselves to this belief. Even if the reflections of such a liberal ideology are at the individual level, it is evident that some lecturers have started questioning the appropriateness of native English, and have been aware of some other alternative perspectives which give them freedom to write in their own ways.

Turning to the topic of academic spoken English, a very different picture emerged from my interviews with lecturers, whose expectations of spoken English on the whole seemed to be more non-normative and flexible, compared to their expectations about academic writing. Among my participants, those adopting a more non-normative position clung to the belief that **maintaining non-native accents** are **acceptable** providing that their accents do not obstruct effective communication or give rise to intelligibility problems to interlocutors. One respondent, for instance, explained at length how he came to take such an approach to speaking, as can be seen in the following extract.

Example 7.7:

1. A: what are your expectations with respect to <your> accent and pronunciation
2. L10: well er::m i had a supervisor (3) /.../ [name] he had an interesting idea i
3. very much welcomed it (.) he said okay erm (2) *English is the world's*
4. *language when you go to any university you give presentations in English i*
5. *am not giving it in Russian in German but in English but this (.) also gives*
6. *me (2) the right in a sense to liberate English from the hands of the British and*
7. *Americans at first blush i know it sounds weird how come native speakers*
8. *speak English by far the best (.) NO it's not so (.) inasmuch as you force me*
9. *a scholar from a different culture to use a certain language i then <can>*
10. *pronounce that language (3) in my OWN way provided it does not disrupt*
11. *the intelligibility*
12. A: yes actually it's logically sound=
13. L10: =er::m i mean for this reason (2) since you enforce this <using English> on
14. me let's speak English Mr [his supervisor's name] for practical reasons
15. *let's choose a convenient language what shall we choose let's choose*
16. *English (3) he says it's very funny well one is Russian (.) i am Turkish or one*
17. *is German i am Turkish we both try to speak English like a native speaker*
18. *(.) NO s/he will pronounce English as s/he wishes but should also try to*
19. *remain intelligible after all the aim is to communicate therefore he states it*
20. *is wrong to attempt to overly emulate British English or American English*
21. *(.) to attribute additional value to them erm (3) i am a person who widely*
22. *adopted this <view> i mean i will not necessarily pronounce like the British*
23. *or Americans*

The above quote indicates that the beliefs of L10's supervisor (a Turkish professor) about language, such as ownership of English (ll.3-7), had a profound influence on L10's taking a non-conforming position to spoken English. His supervisor's arguments about changing demographics of English speakers (i.e. more use of English between non-natives in academia, ll.3-5) made L10 convinced that the popular perception that "native speakers speak English by far the best" (ll.7-8) is not true. Also, his emphatic stress on "NO it is not so" (l.8) clearly showed his refusal of that assumption. What he perceived important was to ensure intelligibility for effective communication (l.19). L10 thus found his supervisor's views on spoken English realistic and fair, considering the large number of academics who come "from a different culture" (l.9) and use English as "a convenient language" (l.15), i.e. a common language. In brief, what actually affected L10's orientation to spoken English seems to be the lingua franca role of English in academia (ll.14-19) he heard from his supervisor. Here, I should also note that L10 made frequent silent pauses during his turns, which are I believe a result of information processing before he immediately gave vital information on the topic of discussion. It seems that his silent pauses conveyed his interest in the research topic, too.

Another recurrent argument made by several respondents in the interviews in relation to their flexible attitudes towards non-native accents was that people with non-native accents could also successfully use English. That is, they argued that **non-native accents do not impede effective communication** when the primary **focus is placed on communication** and **intelligibility** rather than linguistic forms. They based their arguments on their intercultural encounters and communication with people maintaining their own accents when speaking. For example, this view was echoed by L7 as follows:

i think it's not so important to eliminate <L1-influenced> accent i saw that when i lived there <in the USA> in the mechanical engineering there were many foreigners /.../ a vast majority of them retain their accents but some have rather heavy accents despite this they do not experience problems <in communication>

He further added that he did not have trouble understanding their accents either, owing to his intimate "familiarity," which facilitated his comprehension of such variant accents. It is clear from L7's comments that he does not consider that "foreigners" (i.e. NNEs) should remove their "foreign" accents unless they generate "intelligibility" problems in communication. The issues of familiarity and intercultural communication



experiences may also explain why the majority of the lecturers displayed positive attitudes towards non-native accents and varieties of English in the questionnaire.

The above accounts of lecturers' expectations in spoken English reflect their ideology that considers **maintaining non-native accents acceptable**. Especially, as seen above, a sense of ownership and factors such as familiarity gained as a result of intercultural communication seem to have contributed to the formation of this ideology. As Blommaert (2006b) argued, conceptions of ownership might influence the way people perceive and conduct their communicative acts. This seems to be the case for L10 in Example 7.7 who talked of liberating "English from the hands of British and Americans," and suggested people should use English in their own ways, especially in *lingua franca* settings.

However, not all lecturers made a similar sense of their intercultural experiences and considered maintaining non-native accents appropriate. Thus, some expressed negative attitudes towards non-native accents when expressing what they expected regarding spoken English. However, the number of respondents who had relatively normative expectations of not only their spoken English but also that of others was quite small as contrasted with the number of those whose expectations were considerably normative in written English. Their main argument was that **maintaining foreign accents is undesirable and unacceptable** for academic spoken English since speakers with a non-standard accent creates a bad image for themselves as language users. Additionally, they believed that speakers who retain their foreign accent place an intolerable burden on their listeners in communication. For instance, a respondent regarded non-standard accents as "a torture" (L5), referring to her experiences with her Chinese colleagues in the USA. She also suggested:

such people <with a non-standard accent> should stay in research-related positions or editorial positions for example these people can work in "science writing" they do not necessarily need to be in a branch of academic life where they are required to use oral language

It is evident that she expects academics who will lecture in English to have native-like accents. With this benchmark in her mind, it seems that she matched particular positions with particular people on the basis of their linguistic skills. Unsurprisingly, it is people with non-native accents that are underprivileged, as she considered them suitable for

desk jobs where they will barely speak English. Furthermore, L5 viewed intelligibility as a one-way phenomenon in which only those whose accents are non-standard should adjust their English to those with native-like English. Perceiving herself equipped with native English (see Example 7.2), she considered that her colleagues should strive to accommodate their English to her native-like English in order to make their English understood, or else she perceived any effort she has to make to understand her interlocutors' English as a "torture." Her use of such an ideologically loaded word also shows the strength of her negative attitude to non-native accents. I would also argue that submitting herself to the ideology that using native academic English is appropriate in academic spoken English, she rejected the "fair share of communicative burden" (Lippi-Green, 2012, p. 83) with her interlocutors whom she considered non-standard English speakers.

Likewise, a few lecturers drew attention to **the importance of correctness** and **native-like pronunciation** in speaking. For example, L13, who also considers his English close to native English, explained his expectations of a prospective teacher in English-medium as follows: "s/he should be able to use English almost like native speakers /.../ speak *perfectly* and *accurately*" (my italics). Judging from L13' descriptions, I conclude that what he expects in speaking is native-like performance, which he equates with "perfect" and "accurate" language use. What I further noticed about my respondents is that those who affiliated their English with AmE tended to take more normative positions in spoken English while others viewing their English as L1-influenced seemed to be more flexible and non-conforming.

Before moving to the next section, it should be noted that the difference in lecturers' orientations to written and spoken English may be partially explained with lower demands of their spoken English than written English. Their written English is subject to assessment by third parties, i.e. journal editors and reviewers, who tend to show less tolerance to their own local linguistic and cultural traces in their writing. However, such a control mechanism does not usually apply to their spoken English, which is often shown a high degree of tolerance, particularly when people use English as a *lingua franca*.

### 7.3.2.2 Lecturers' expectations about students' academic English

As far as lecturers' expectations of students' written English are concerned, it emerged that only a handful of them had normative expectations, expressing strong preference for conformity to native English. The main reasons cited for such preference were twofold. The first one was based on the argument that standard native English is **the ideal kind of English** to be used in academic writing. L1, for example, said:

ideally i expect students' English to fully conform to native English /.../ this is what is supposed to be in academic writing but there is the reality that they are non-native speakers

It is contradictory that although she seems to be aware of students' non-nativeness, she still expects their written English to "fully conform to native English," which reveals that she cannot abandon the thought of native English in judging written performance. Secondly, as L5 argued, it is **important to conform to native academic English**. She expressed her desire referring to assessment and noted "in assessment i don't mark students down for grammar mistakes but i correct their mistakes." Although it appears that L5 shows tolerance towards students' deviant English by not deducting their marks, she cannot help correcting their grammar mistakes. This indicates that she actually makes practical decisions on her students' writing by not deducting their marks, but she still does not regard their variations in writing as acceptable. Additionally, her accuracy-focused rather than meaning-focused error corrections provide evidence that her focus is not entirely on the content of students' work in assessment, but equally on the language.

It also emerged that some respondents were more worried about correctness of post-graduate students' writing compared to that of undergraduate students. The main reason cited for their concern with postgraduate students' writing was that post-graduates are perceived as early academics who will march into academia in the near future, and will be thus expected to write in a scholarly manner. For example, talking about the issue of correctness in students' writing, one respondent put this point as follows:

Example 7.8:

1. A: well do you deduct students' marks for (.) grammatical mistakes in the
2. examinations or so=
3. L12 =NO never I even don't take any notice of them let me put it plainly i don't
4. mind at all WHEN do I care about <mistakes> at the doctoral level=

5. A: =i understand
6. L12: er:m *at the master level we care much more about it once it comes to*
7. *dissertations or so well we expect for instance a master dissertation to be of*
8. *very high quality* (.) if there are mistakes related to English anyway it's out
9. of question in doctoral theses *if there are mistakes i want them as amended*
10. <corrected> i tell <students> i won't correct

As is evident above, L12 seems to have set different criteria for undergraduate and postgraduate students in the assessment of their work. The tolerance he shows to undergraduate students' grammatical mistakes in marking their written work does not apply to postgraduate students who are expected to produce "very high quality" texts. It is evident from his discourse that he equates "very high quality" writing with writing in compliance with the StE norms, e.g. correctness. Obviously, he subscribes to the ideology that StE is appropriate in academic writing. His tolerance to undergraduate students is probably not because he considers departures from StE acceptable. It is likely because he thinks they are still in the early stages of their academic life, and thus need time to get accustomed to conforming to StE conventions.

By contrast, the majority of the respondents held non-normative expectations of students' written English, expressing that they showed high tolerance towards their students' writing that varied from the norms of native academic English. In other words, they tended to consider variations from standard native English acceptable to the extent that such variations do not impair or reduce the intelligibility of students' written work. As many expressed, their primary focus was the **content and meaning** in students' writing. Thus, for such lecturers, the issue of language was not the very first requirement. It seemed to be a concern only when intelligibility was at stake and lecturers were unable to retrieve the meaning of the content. The following is a representative example of many respondents' non-normative orientations to students' writing.

Example 7.9:

1. A: /.../ er:m in terms of writing for example what do you expect from students
2. in their assignments or exams (.) in relation to language use [in short
3. L3: [hmm (.)
4. *intelligibility* (.) but what do i mean by this (.) *it is not in any case*
5. *perfect English in the sense of perfect grammar or perfect English in terms of*
6. *expression but reasonable intelligibility because as i said we are based in the*
7. *history department moreover here is not an English department in that sense*
8. *honestly i do not do things like deducting marks to* /.../ *honestly i do not*

9.       elevate my expectations in terms of language to a very high level erm because *if i*
10.      *set high expectations erm it will be difficult for me i mean as a lecturer (.) to*
11.      *practice my profession therefore* i'm trying to have reasonable expectations and
12.      intelligibility meets my requirement

Interestingly, although she instantly accounted her criterion as “intelligibility,” she felt a need to clarify that the intelligibility she had in mind is not grounded in using “perfect English,” with “perfect grammar” and “expression.” She probably felt obliged to make this clarification being aware that not everybody (i.e. her colleagues) perceives the concept of intelligibility in relation to content and meaning as she does (see Example 7.6). In addition, perceiving English as a vehicle to convey the content of the disciplinary knowledge, she prioritizes content and meaning over linguistic aspects (e.g. correct usage, perfect style) in assessment. Her use of the adverb “honestly” (l.8) as an exclamation also indicates her refusal of mark deduction penalty, which is perhaps applied by some of her colleagues. She also differentiates herself from language teachers, who, she believes, typically deduct students’ marks by prioritizing language over meaning (ll.6-8). However, her approach to students’ writing does not reflect an ideology which views non-standard English acceptable, but a decision she made for practical reasons (ll.8-11). She seems aware if she raises her expectations, students will fail to meet them, and she does not want to act like a language teacher, which will put extra burden on her shoulders. Thus, I believe, she just sympathizes with students, with a feeling to show some degree of tolerance to their deviant language practices. Similar findings regarding EMI lecturers who considered themselves subject experts rather than language teachers were reported elsewhere (Costa, 2013; Airey, 2012).

On the issue of grammatical mistakes, many drew attention to **the issue of fairness**, citing that they do not lower students’ marks for language mistakes since this will result in many students’ getting low marks, which they perceived as “unfair.” One respondent, L1, pointed to the fact “people in Canada also make mistakes.” By “people,” he actually meant his former Canadian students, and drawing on his time there as a member of staff, he considers the issue of correctness a global phenomenon, not only non-native students but also NES students suffer from. He, thus, seems to believe that content should be “at the top of the list” in assessment, but adding that if students’ writing is not comprehensible there is nothing he can do. Another lecturer took even a more flexible position and said:

we do not care much about grammar /.../ even the slightest effort to express themselves is adequate /.../ frankly sometimes some of them write even in Turkish i do not say you have written this in Turkish so i can't assess it (L6)

Such accounts also show that their tolerance to students' writing was due to practical reasons. This was evident considering the expressions of their expectations about their own English, where the majority did not show any tolerance to variations regarding their own language use.

As for lecturers' expectations of students' academic spoken English, it emerged that all of them seemed to hold non-normative expectations of students' spoken English, favouring **communication and intelligibility over native-like accent and correctness of pronunciation**. Therefore, they did not show any attachment to native spoken English. This was similar to Jenkins' (2014) findings about teaching staff's expectations of NNES students' spoken English. The common views lecturers echoed was that English is a means of communication in speaking. Thus, what they perceived as important in spoken tasks is students' communication ability, i.e. whether students can communicate their message in a comprehensible manner, with a good command of discipline-specific language use. Lecturers also argued that as long as students' can successfully carry out the required speaking tasks in their courses, **maintaining a non-native accent is acceptable**. The following extract well illustrates respondents' non-conforming position to spoken English.

Example 7.10:

1. A: do you have any expectations from students (.) on the whole
2. L8: *i have no expectation of <native-like> accent*
3. A: intelligibility of <students' English>=
4. L8: *=intelligibility well (2) er:m*
5. A: discipline specific=
6. L8: *=discipline-specific=*
7. A: =terminological [language
8. L8: [yes it is important for them <students> *to use discipline*
9. *specific terminology*
10. /.../
11. A: what about mistakes like i mean in terms of grammar [wrong word choice
12. L8: [well right *i "ignore"*
13. *them (2) because i used to correct them for a moment erm XXX my task is to*
14. *assess content=*
15. A: =i see
16. L8: *we therefore pay no attention to grammar and so forth (2) any longer*

Looking at the instances of latching in the above exchange, it is seen that L8 tends to affirm what I said in my turns as her responses to my initial question (l.1) by reiterating or emphasizing my points. Despite hesitating to produce her own utterances, she still intends to contribute to our exchange as can be understood from her cooperative overlaps, which clearly demonstrate her interest in our conversation. Judging from her responses, it is evident that L8 holds a rather flexible attitude to students' spoken English, especially maintaining their non-native accents. She seems to put her criterion for spoken English on intelligible speech and disciplinary linguistic skills (ll.3-9). Furthermore, her discourse in line 13 implies that she would correct students' grammar mistakes in oral language practices in the past (l.13), but she no longer follows this practice, as she now believes that her main concern should be with the content of students' speech. The collective pronoun ("we") she used in the final line shows that the precedence of content over correctness now appears to be not only her condition, but also her colleagues' as well. Her accounts also reveal reflections of an ideology which sees students' non-native accents as acceptable. However, as for grammatical correctness, it is implicit that she does not consider incorrect usage acceptable, but for practical reasons she just ignores it and focuses on content.

### **7.3.3 Perception of English language policies and practices**

#### **7.3.3.1 Perceptions of language policies and practices concerning lecturers**

As I remarked before (see section 5.4.), the universities under investigation do not say much about their content teachers and content courses in their language policy documents. Thus, I brought up the subject of universities' recruitment policies during my talk with lecturers, and asked them what kind of English language requirements they fulfilled in their applications for their current positions. Three main criteria for successful shortlisting emerged from their accounts: **evidence of English proficiency, work/research experience abroad and international publications**. By discussing these criteria with lecturers in the interviews, my overriding aim was to find out the kind of English universities require of their teaching staff, and the kinds of practices they follow in assessing candidate teaching staff's English proficiency. Additionally, I explored their views on such policies and practices to find out their attitudinal positions.

As for the practices taken by universities to determine whether the English proficiency of academic staff is adequate to work in English-medium, my respondents, in the main,

alluded to four types of practice: certification of English proficiency with a (national & international) test score, delivery of a micro teaching session, one-to-one interviews, and cross-translations. Concerning language tests, they pointed out that their universities recognize scores obtained from YDS (Yabancı Dil Sınavı)<sup>60</sup>, the national language test run by a government body, i.e. ÖSYM<sup>61</sup> and international tests (i.e. TOEFL & IELTS). Corresponding to the practice of micro teaching (e.g. a sample presentation, seminar, lecture), some reported that the committee not only evaluated their pedagogical content knowledge, but also language use (e.g. fluency, pronunciation, and grammar). Regarding the job interviews, it appeared that language teachers of the institutions' school of English conducted oral interviews with lecturers to assess their spoken English. Additionally, it emerged that the texts lecturers cross-translated (between Turkish and English) were checked by language teachers, too. Judging from the universities' practices for assessing lecturers' English proficiency, it appears that the kind of English they require of their academic staff is standard native English, as with the English proficiency of students (see Chapter 5). The following extract amply illustrates the points raised above:

Example 7.11:

1. A: from what i've heard i suppose (.) METU does not measure speaking in its
2. proficiency exam=
3. L3: =speaking was not being measured honestly i don't rightly know about this now
4. /.../ but here's the thing for example (.) *when i started working here erm (2) the*
5. *preparatory namely the school of foreign languages (.) evaluated whether i*
6. *could lecture through English via <a> "speaking" <test>*
7. A: the preparatory school=
8. L3: =yes
9. A: so madam=
10. L3: = *it was part of the job <requirement> that's it i provided a TOEFL test score*
11. *and it was KPDS at that time it's become YDS now there's foreign language test*
12. *<requirement> inevitably (.) then i showed its result /.../ well there were three or*
13. *four persons we sat all together in the school of foreign languages we had a*
14. *conversation in English for about 10 minutes they said (.) yes you could*
15. *lecture in English-medium madam @@@ i said alright /.../ there's something*
16. *funnier one of our colleagues a foreign national American then later on he*
17. *obtained Turkish citizenship he is still a member of our university (2) after*
18. *being a Turkish citizen he was subjected to the same condition <evidence of*

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<sup>60</sup> Yabancı Dil Sınavı means Foreign Language Exam.

<sup>61</sup> Ölçme, Seçme ve Yerleştirme Merkezi in Turkish, meaning Measuring, Selection and Placement Centre



19. language proficiency>
20. A: because he became a Turkish citizen
21. L3: now that he is a Turkish citizen the application procedures for Turkish citizens
22. are supposed to cover him as well *poor man he took the test <TOEFL> there is*
23. *no other way he also took KPDS @@@*

The above exchange occurred when we were discussing the lack of assessment of students' speaking skills in the university's proficiency exam. L3's accounts reveal that her institution is not as much concerned with students' spoken English as it is with that of its teaching staff mostly because, I believe, lecturers are certainly expected to use spoken English in lectures while students are not. It also appears that several measures (e.g. native-English grounded and StE-grounded tests, interviews with language teachers) are applied while assessing lecturers' English in order to ensure that they have what her institution considers to be the right kind of English, i.e. standard native English. Her anecdote (ll.15-18) about her American colleague makes it evident that the policy of language requirements is imposed solely on Turkish citizens. As she implied, it is such a rigid rule that even an American having become a Turkish citizen had to comply with it. It is likely that when the American teacher was first recruited, he was excused from certifying his English because of his NES status. However, upon becoming a Turkish citizen, i.e. a NNEs in official terms, he lost the privileges granted to NESs. Although L3 did not explicitly express her attitude towards these language policies and practices in the recruitment process, the discursive function of her laughter and word choices suggested that she was indeed negative about these policies.

Another respondent also made similar points, but particularly talked of the place of overseas experience, interviews, and cross-translations in the job applications.

Example 7.12:

1. A: sir is this <overseas work experience> (.) a requirement for being able to work at
2. METU or is it entirely at your discretion=
3. L6: *=it's a requirement of being entitled to work at METU (.) so if you wish to be a*
4. *lecturer here you will have to work abroad at least a year /.../ if you have done*
5. *your doctorate abroad (.) it erm satisfies the condition of working abroad /.../*
6. A: is the purpose of (.) this policy that since education will be in English-medium they
7. should practice <English> there or [are there any other reasons
8. L6: [yes it's so and also there is a concept what
9. we call "inbreeding" (.) to tell truth the stay of the PhD holders from METU
10. or of others recruited in the same universities (2) where they obtained their
11. doctorates is not considered appropriate in the academia /.../ well there is not
12. much "concern" in respect of language (.) it is considered here if one has graduated
13. from here <METU> or Bilkent (.) erm or so from a university in Turkey which
14. teaches in English-medium they have sufficient capacity to lecture content courses

15. through English-medium (.) but of course as this is not always the case here (2)
16. erm *when recruiting academic teaching staff here they are definitely subjected*
17. *to an interview what's more you are required to get a proficiency certificate*
18. *from the school of English which certifies you can teach courses in English-*
19. *medium (.) this is a erm condition following language exams /.../*
20. A: the interview is done orally isn't it=
21. L6: =orally yes in English three <language> teachers came there (.) from the department
22. of modern languages (.) i had an interview with them entirely in English /.../ apart
23. from that except for the interview when i got here there was this thing (.) well
24. again i think *it's a rule of the <engineering> faculty they give you a one-page*
25. *long (.) English text and Turkish text you cross translate them*

The above exchange shows that the logic behind the overseas experience condition is twofold: concerns about language (ll.6-8) and academic inbreeding (ll.9-11). It is also revealed in L6's remarks that the lecturers who obtained their postgraduate degrees abroad are privileged in the job applications over those who did not. I think this is because the university assumes that the lecturers with degrees from abroad (*abroad* usually refers to ENL countries) entertain better language skills, and above all that they already have the required kind of English as a result of their long stays in countries where English is spoken as a mother tongue. Furthermore, recruiting staff with overseas experiences is perceived to bring new minds to the university, which the university takes pride in. I will discuss this point in section 7.3.4 more elaborately.

In relation to the practices of measuring lectures' English (ll.16-19), it is interesting to note that the purpose of interviews seems to assess the use of English for the delivery of lectures; however, there are no examiners among interviewers to assess their disciplinary language skills, knowledge of content-specific terms and the like. Concerning the practice of cross-translation (ll. 24-25), it is very probable that much attention will be devoted by language teachers to linguistic aspects of lecturers' writing, such as grammatical and lexical errors in grading their translations, with the expectation of a high degree of accuracy.

Some respondents similarly described in detail what examiners care about regarding candidates' English during the assessment. L1 from Bilkent, for example, stated "you need to speak English *fluently* so this is a criterion." He further noted, referring to his own "job talk" that "they evaluate your *accent* and *such like* there." It is clear that lecturers' oral English competence is judged against native English benchmark (e.g. fluency, "accent and such like"), which is what each university seems to consider the right kind of English in their policy and website data. A respondent from Boğaziçi, L13,

previously involved in an assessment committee, maintained “it becomes evident there <in the sample seminar> whether s/he can speak good English.” What is certain in L13’s comment is that he and his colleagues particularly assess candidates’ oral English, expecting them to “speak good English”. However, it is too vague what he meant by “good English.” It seems likely that as argued by Mauranen et al. (2010) for those like L13 acting on the traditional assumptions, “good English” equals that of NES academics. Likewise, another Boğaziçi respondent said:

the language commission consists of two members from the department <history>  
and one member from the school of English (.) there was a native speaker [name]  
you saw earlier s/he was in the jury they check the translations of the texts (L12)

The presence of a NES teacher in the assessment committee signals that the candidates’ writing is measured according to native-speaker norms of English. Overall, lecturers’ remarks confirm the association between universities’ ideology (i.e. native English is appropriate) regarding the right kind of English and their efforts to translate this ideology into practices, as inferred from their practices in the recruitment of teaching staff.

Having talked about the language policies and practices in relation to the recruitment process, I went on to discuss what my participants thought about these policies and practices. It emerged that negative opinions outnumbered positive views on the above-mentioned policies and practices, especially language tests. Those who held **positive views** referred to two kinds of arguments: (a) policy practices (e.g. language tests, job interviews) are “somehow” useful for assessing lecturers’ English proficiency, and (b) they are “better than nothing.” For instance, with regard to the former argument, L11 said:

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

By contrast with language tests “which do not measure speaking skills or lecturing skills and the like,” L6 considers job interviews a more effective method of assessing lecturers’ English, especially oral English skills.

The lecturers having made the “better than nothing” argument seemed to have ambivalent views on language policies and practices. Despite not holding entirely negative views, they did not entirely hold positive views, either. The common view among them was that an EMI university should have a policy for quality control of its lecturers’ English as all the tasks (e.g. teaching, research, assessment) in the university are done through the medium of English. They further argued that even if the current policies and practices are not adequate to satisfactorily measure lecturers’ English proficiency, their implementation is preferable to the absence of such policies and practices for a range of reasons. For instance, L2 said “one is to prove his/her capability of publishing internationally,” i.e. in English, by fulfilling the English language requirements. Talking about the language tests, L6 maintained “if there are no better alternatives presented they are better than nothing.” It is worth noting here that the accounts so far reveal some degree of doubt about candidate teachers’ English, which is consistent with the questionnaire finding which showed many lecturers’ agreement that teaching staff should certify their proficiency of English.

By contrast, the lecturers who expressed **negative views** about their universities’ language policies and practices put forward three lines of arguments: they are inadequate to measure academic English proficiency, grammar-based, and not discipline-specific. The lecturers who considered the policies and practices inadequate for measuring their English skills mainly referred to the flaws of language tests. For instance, L3 stated “tests are always problematic things one can be very successful in the test with very little knowledge using test strategies and tactics.” Similarly, another respondent criticized the national test (YDS) as it is solely based on multiple-choice questions, and argued “a multiple-choice exam is not decisive particularly in terms of determining the ability of teaching in the university because speaking” is not part of the assessment (L4). Another common view, especially concerning written English was that even if the candidates get very high scores from the tests, it is still doubtful whether they can write professional academic papers. L7, for example, argued:

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

As far as the lecturers who criticized the language tests for their increased focus on grammatical competence are concerned, they commonly expressed the view that the language tests recognized by their universities assess English proficiency based on grammatical knowledge rather than performance-based proficiency skills. As such, they perceive that the language tests that chiefly evaluate correct and incorrect answers of the candidates remain incapable of giving an accurate measure of English skills, which would be required in an actual real-world situation, i.e. at the university and in academia. The next exchange nicely illustrates this point.

Example 7.13:

1. A: you mentioned before you have taken this YDS test
2. L12: *it's VERY misleading* (.) have you seen that test? /.../ *a very misleading test* i
3. mean now look *its reading comprehension part is very important* why it's at
4. least academic what's the aim there because one will apply for promotion to
5. associate professor [er::m
6. A: [to follow up <read> publications in the field=
7. L12: =*whether they can follow up the publications in their field* /.../ *BUT the*
8. *important thing is to be able to follow <read> research literature in the field*
9. A: right=
10. L12: =but i mean *whether I should use "OFF" or "ON" there i find it <which*
11. *prepositions to use> hard* now well (2) so what it's completely er:m a thing
12. <prepositions> in English which has no specific rules (.) then =
13. A: =as you said there are no rules we memorize <them>=
14. L12: =rote learning *if you knew rules so what there "responsible" goes with "for"*
15. *(.) how should i know "responsible" doesn't go with "of" (.) suppose you knew*
16. *these what would happen am i not able to comprehend it* (.) i mean there were
17. such questions particularly in the first section of the exam (.) prepositions grammar
18. what's the difference when you use "has been" or "had been" it's past tense OK
19. this is it *what's important is whether one can understand the paper* (.) i
20. *mean if one is going to study English language and literature that alters the*
21. *case* (.) of course but YDS is administered to anyone (.) therefore *it's a misleading*
22. *test*

It is evident that L12 is rather enthusiastic about sharing his experiences and views as can be understood from the lack of discernible pauses between our turns. L12's disfavour with the YDS test in terms of assessing academic English proficiency is obvious from the reiteration of the word "misleading" on three occasions (l.2; l.21) in his discourse, with an emphatic adjective (VERY) in one occasion (l.2). His accounts demonstrate that he considers the assessment of lecturers' academic skills they need to conduct actual academic tasks (e.g. lecturing, reviewing literature) more important than the assessment of their linguistic competence. It is probably for this reason he only finds

the “comprehension part” of the test useful (L3). As he approaches the test from the perspectives of those who give more weight to content and meaning over language, he does not perceive that grammar-based tests are suited for measuring content teachers’ English, but English of people who will study language-related disciplines in which more attention is given to linguistic knowledge. It is also worth noting that the lecturers who prioritized content over language appeared to problematize the language tests more than the others. Thus, it can be said that the ways people orient to language also affect the ways they view issues around language, as shown in the above occasion.

From the arguments of the lecturers who complained that the assessment is not discipline specific, the following view emerged: discipline-specific exams should be part of assessment in the recruitment process to assess a candidate’s disciplinary knowledge, content area, and the use of language for disciplinary purposes. Referring to this matter, L12 argued:

how we can be sure about a candidate’s pedagogical content knowledge who will train students in particular fields in the university (.) therefore discipline specific exam is a must

While talking about his job interview, another respondent provided some details about the content of his talk with interviewers:

i was not asked anything relevant to mechanical engineering there in my interview we generally chatted about daily life my university life where i did my PhD and so on (L9)

To summarize what has been said so far by lecturers, the universities are more concerned with the adequacy of their teaching staff’s English proficiency than their knowledge on course content and its communication. The results also indicate that those who expressed positive perspectives about the universities policies and practices seemed to implicitly hold deficit views of their colleagues, and thus saw nothing wrong with the language requirements grounded in native academic English. By contrast, those who were critical of such policies and practices argued their pitfalls in terms of performance-based and disciplinary language use, even criticizing the heavy focus on linguistic forms in the assessment, yet they remained in the minority as contrasted with those highly regarding native English-oriented recruitment policies and practices of their universities.

### 7.3.3.2 Perceptions of language policies and practices concerning students

The questionnaire results showed the agreement of the majority of lecturers with the view that the international tests (e.g. TOEFL, IELTS) measure non-native students' English against native-speaker norms. From further discussions on the language tests in the interviews, it emerged that the lecturers held **positive views** on the international tests recognized by their institutions, and thus did not problematize students' English being judged by native English-grounded tests. Quite the contrary, they supported this policy for two key reasons. The first one was that since lecturers consider such tests international in use, they believe that these tests have world-wide recognition. Thus, they approve of universities' recognition of these tests. In support of this view, L3, for example, argued:

of course universities *have to* offer something standard /.../ they surely *have to* recognize some of the international tests apart from their own tests

It is interesting that L3 does not say all international tests, but “some,” through which, I think, she means TOEFL and IELTS. The repetitive use of “have to” suggests that she perceives the acceptance of these tests as an external obligation most likely to compete with other Turkish EMI universities in recruiting more foreign students. Emphasizing TOEFL's international status in use, especially in contrast with the institutional language tests mostly taken by Turkish students, L7 remarked:

the exam called TOEFL is also an admission requirement at universities in the US  
if a <foreign> student can apply to a university in the USA with TOEFL s/he must  
be able to do the same here

Equally, L13 argued that the acceptance of international tests is specifically intended for non-Turkish students, adding “otherwise how an Iranian student can apply (.) they are supposed to come here for the university's proficiency exam.” The meaning underlying the above lecturers' accounts is that by recognizing external tests such as TOEFL and IELTS, the universities actually create opportunities for non-Turkish students to apply for their programs since they can take such tests in their home countries. However, the same convenience is not true of university language tests, which remain rather local in use compared to TOEFL and IELTS. This case was apparent in my student participants' demographic information which showed almost all of them took the language tests administered by their universities for admission to their current disciplines.

The second reason cited by several respondents was that international tests are better indicators of English proficiency, particularly compared to the language tests administered by their universities. I should remark that the word *international* here was not used to denote the widespread use of these tests, but as a euphemism for native English. Comparing the university tests to the international tests, L3 explained that productive skills, i.e. speaking and writing, highly required to deal with various academic tasks are not assessed in the language test of METU. She, thus, suggested students should pass “a test of spoken English such as that of TOEFL.” What she actually intended to say was that by not testing students’ productive skills, the language proficiency test of METU actually fails to determine whether students have the appropriate kind of English, i.e. native English. This is probably why she suggested the implementation of a spoken test, giving the example of TOEFL.

Some maintained that international tests more accurately measure students’ ability to use and understand English in academic settings. This point was raised by L13 who put:

i’ve seen some students sitting for the same exam at different times got different scores but for example with TOEFL this is not the case the same person nearly gets similar scores once taking it successively

It is evident from the above quote that TOEFL, L3 believes, is more reliable and sincere as a measure of English proficiency. It is probably for this reason that he prefers to “directly refer the non-Boğaziçi students applying for master and PhD programs to <take>TOEFL for proficiency just in case.” Based on what has been said above, it seems that the lecturers who share the consensual ideology that native English is superior to non-native English consider what they perceived as international to be better and more appropriate than what they perceived as local and non-standard.

Regarding the pre-faculty of EAP programs, most agreed in the questionnaires that these programs fail to equip students with the required academic English skills for their programs. The interviews with such lecturers provided information on why they had **negative views** about the preparatory schools in respect of teaching academic English. Mainly, there were negative comments about the program, with the claim that it gives more weight to general English than academic English. Some also expressed their disapproval of the curriculum, which, they believed, is not discipline-specific, and thus fails to adequately prepare students to use discipline-specific language. The next



exchange well summarizes the common perspectives on the pre-faculty EAP programs.

Example 7.14:

1. A: what are the deficiencies you've taken notice (2) regarding <the preparatory
2. unit> do you have any idea about this
3. L1: i think for instance *they don't properly teach how to write "essays"* i mean
4. (.) after all because the preparatory system or (.) exams like *TOEFL*
5. and *IELTS* are not discipline (.) discipline-specific in any case (.) *it's not the*
6. *same English an engineering and an international relations student should*
7. *learn* (2) *they are expected to write essays in our department but if students*
8. *don't know how to write an essay then there's a big problem /.../* after all if
9. the most important "assignment" of this field is to write an "essay" and
10. students do not know this (.) *they have to teach this at the preparatory*
11. *school /.../ they neither know "method" nor technique they even don't know*
12. *what an introduction a main body a conclusion is /.../*

The above extract shows that according to L1, the primary mission of pre-EAP programs should be to prepare students for their disciplines English-wise. Reflecting on the current teaching practices of the program, he considers the program insufficient in terms of teaching students academic English skills they need for various tasks in their disciplines. This failure is probably the main source of his dissatisfaction with the program. His final accounts suggest that when the EAP program cannot fulfil its mission, lecturers might have to take on the role of language teachers to reinforce students' disciplinary language use. I will discuss this point at length below when exploring the views on language support.

Because of similar concerns with the preparatory program, some lecturers, such as L3 proposed that:

the students enrolled in social sciences or in the departments such as history psychology should study English for two years instead of one

Relating to this proposal, L14 mentioned that it was possible at Boğaziçi to extend the preparatory program to two years beforehand, but now it has been fixated as one year. Defending the earlier practice, she strongly argued "it should be urgently restored." L6 made another point, arguing that it would be really better if the program is managed by foreign teachers. Clearly, he holds the idea that English is taught best by foreign, i.e. NES teachers.

The points made about the preparatory year so far actually remind me of Turner's

(2011) discourse of remediation argument in relation to the UK HE. The same discourse of remediation seems to apply more widely now in other contexts, such as Turkish HE where even content teachers not only refer to remediation as a solution to students' perceived language problems, but also suggest that the remediation activities in the pre-faculty EAP programs should be carried out by NES teachers, if possible.

Corresponding to another policy matter, i.e. language support, it emerged that almost all lecturers echoed the view that the EAP support practices do not adequately meet students' language needs for their studies. Several lecturers, thus, reported that they also provide language support to students in classes even if the provision of such support does not fall into their remit. For example, L3 said:

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

With such a role, it appears that some lecturers even engage in practices reminiscent of those of language teachers. On this point, L5 commented that if she notices mistakes in students' writing, she warns them. Likewise, L10 noted:

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

Judging from the above remarks, it is manifest that content teachers sustain remedial teaching even after students have already completed such a program to study in their degree programs, i.e. when they are officially no longer English language learners, but users. This again displays how deeply discourse of remediation is prevalent among lecturers who believe that students should conform to native English in their practices.

#### **7.3.4 Perceptions of the role(s) of English in the university**

During the interviews with my respondents, I discussed the perceived role of English in their universities, which was not addressed in the questionnaires. The respondents on the whole spoke of English as the primary internationalization strategy, thus believing that it is English which internationalizes their universities by letting them take place in international activities, e.g. partnerships, exchange programs, university rankings (see

Botha, 2013, for a similar discussion). It became obvious from many lecturers' arguments that they perceived Englishization as internationalization. Additionally, the lecturers under this perception frequently referred to various facts about their institutions to vindicate their argument. The most cited fact was the presence of **diverse student and staff population** on campus. The common view was that using EMI creates this diversity on the campus; otherwise, it is impossible. The below extract illustrates the prevailing belief among many lecturers.

Example 7.15:

1. A: i was going to ask you something overall in what aspects you define Bilkent
2. as an international university =
3. L7: *=we have foreign students* there are not too many foreign students in our
4. department < mechanical engineering> (.) but we have across the university (.) for
5. example *i suppose there are students from forty countries in other*
6. *departments in terms of this i believe we can define it /.../ they don't use their*
7. *own languages but they use English as the lingua franca* they don't learn
8. Turkish in a few years i mean they can't (.) so here *we now accept erm foreign*
9. *students to master programs if it is not English but Turkish they do not*
10. *come* i mean they can't come to study

As seen above, L7's understanding of the concept *international* seems to be limited to the presence of "foreign" students on campus, which is, he argues, enabled by the English-medium status of the university (ll.6-10). With an argument akin to that of L7, some lecturers talked of the high number of foreign staff in their departments in relation to the notion of *international*. In this regard, L12 explained "we have an international history department and 5 of 11 staff members are already foreign i mean half of the staff." His remark gives the impression that the determinant which makes his department "international" is the existence of non-Turkish lecturers among staff.

A few lecturers, such as L10 argued that they can take part in a number of **international activities** such as "European projects" and engage in research "collaboration with researchers from abroad" with the privilege of being a member of a fully EMI university. A different argument brought by L12 below further supported the idea that with EMI, both they and their universities can open up to the outside world:

all the universities that use Turkish-medium have become localized as a result of being set apart from the outside world /.../ such universities could not produce international publications organize international conferences follow the international research literature

It also emerged that **Turkish lecturers with degrees from abroad** are considered to contribute to the international profile of the institutions. As L1 explained, all lecturers are expected to have completed their masters or PhDs abroad because “it is Bilkent’s unsaid rule.” The word *abroad* was used by some to mean America, Canada, and European countries. L3 more precisely clarified METU’s unsaid rule, as follows:

there is no mention of Europe or America but if we read between the lines of the rule it actually means America Europe /.../ even if it’s not written

I wish to accentuate here that lecturers’ perceptions of the roles of English share close similarity with universities’ characterizations of English on their websites and in policy documents (even using the same words and terms, see Chapter 5) as the number-one tool which links them to outside world. This resemblance provides some evidence to suggest that the way universities portray English has influenced the perceptions of English among staff by leading them to equate Englishization with internationalization.

#### **7.4 Summary and conclusion**

In this chapter, I presented and discussed the qualitative data from the interviews with lecturers, which yielded answers to all research questions. I also addressed the issues that did not lend themselves to in-depth examination in the questionnaires. Regarding lecturers’ perceptions of English abilities and use, I found that many saw their English as native-like in respect to closeness of their accents and pronunciations to native English. Long-term exposure to native English varieties and previous educational experiences had a crucial role in their reference to native English when defining their English use. Some were negative about their Turkish colleague’s English mostly because of their perceived poor and incorrect English. The same negativity was shown to students’ English due to their perceived heavily L1-influenced English. For some, L1-influenced English meant deficiency. Such lecturers had a positive self-representation, believing that their own English is similar to that of those considered authentic and valued speakers. However, they had a rather negative other-representation of their colleagues and students, judging that their English does not resemble the English of the valued and authentic users, i.e. NESs.

The results also indicated that the small number of lecturers who identified their English use as L1-influenced were positive about their English. It was found that they did not pay much attention to whether the linguistic aspects of their English were close to those of

NESs. What they emphasized was that their L1-influenced English would serve their communicative purposes in academia, such as delivery of the knowledge to students. It was especially these lecturers who were more positive about students' English, judging their English against their academic performance, i.e. what they could do with their English in order to meet requirements of their programs.

This chapter also showed that overall, lecturers exhibited a rather normative approach to written English under the influence of the ideology that native academic English is superior to non-native English, and thereby what is appropriate in academic writing is standard native English. Moreover, external factors (e.g. university policies and practices) were found to impact lecturers' normative orientation to academic writing. Remarkably, lecturers took less a normative approach to students' writing than they did to their own writing. The reason was that most lecturers felt a need to show tolerance to students' writing for practical reasons. However, those who seemed to believe that variations from native English are acceptable in writing were rather small in number. Regarding spoken English, my participants were less native English-oriented, though. Many argued for maintaining their L1-influenced accents and did not consider grammatical correctness a serious matter in spoken English as long as effective communication was sustained. Namely, their priority was communication (content & intelligibility) over language (linguistic correctness & native-like accents). Additionally, many lecturers took a flexible approach to spoken English due to the belief that sees non-native English as legitimate rather than the practical reasons.

It was discovered that intercultural communication experiences, feelings of ownership and NNEs using English effectively contributed to the formation of such a belief, but not to a large extent, since not everybody having had intercultural communication experiences or met effective NNE users had a flexible approach to spoken English. A handful of lecturers who were more conformist in their orientations had the ideology of authenticity, believing that by speaking native-like English they would sound cool, be prestigious and valued. Above all, they thought what is standard is more appropriate in academic environments.

The results offered little evidence of disciplinary influences on my participants' orientations to written and spoken English. It was mainly the participants from the engineering faculty who were more tolerant of variations from native academic English

and more willing to label variations as acceptable. However, there were some lecturers from other disciplines who were also rather flexible and tolerant. There is thus no solid evidence to extrapolate the disciplinary differences to the whole population. One explanation why engineering lecturers tended to be more tolerant of and willing to accept variations might be because of the lower language demands in terms of speaking and writing in the field of engineering.

It emerged that universities under investigation require their teaching staff to prove their English proficiency in standard native English in their job applications. It was also found that language requirements only apply to NNEST staff, and NESs are exempt from language requirements. Probably they are deemed to have the desired kind of English. Although many held negative views of their universities' language policies and practices intended for measuring their English, only a few criticized these policies and practices for their native English-grounded nature. The lecturers supporting such policies and practices were uneasy about their colleagues' English, and thereby considered it necessary for teaching staff to provide evidence of English proficiency.

Similarly, the majority of lecturers were found to support their universities' native English-oriented policies and practices in evaluating students' English, particularly admiring the international language tests. The investigation of their views on pre-faculty and faculty EAP courses indicated their dissatisfaction with these programs, which were thought as inadequate to prepare students for their disciplines language-wise. Thus, several lecturers acknowledged taking up the role of language teachers by trying to help students improve their academic English, which resulted in the continuation of remedial teaching in disciplinary courses. What was more striking was the suggestion that the duration of remedial teaching in the pre-EAP courses should be more than one-year, and more foreign (i.e. NES) teachers should be employed in the programs.

The analysis identified that the lecturers bought into their institutions' ideology that English internationalizes the universities. They seemed to grasp the same arguments made in their universities' language policy data and websites, such as the diversity of students and teaching staff and international activities on campus, to name a few. Many believed that had English not been the medium of instruction, their universities would not be holding their current prestigious position within and across the country.

As it is seen above, the data from lecturers addressed several issues related to students from the lecturers' own perspectives. In the next chapter, I will more closely look at these issues and others concerning students only, by exploring the data from the student interviews.

## **CHAPTER 8: FINDINGS FROM STUDENT INTERVIEWS AND DISCUSSION**

### **8.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the results from the interviews with students. The data presented here expands on student questionnaire findings in order to further explore some of the points in depth. It also complements the questionnaire findings by exploring key issues which arose from the interviews. It firstly outlines the data analysis procedure and then presents the findings. The findings are presented according to the identified themes and sub-themes. Overall, the data gives insights into students' perceptions of English abilities, English use, English language policies and practices, and the place of English in their institutions. The data generated answers to all of the research questions but in particular RQ2 (i.e. What language attitudes and ideologies are prevalent among participants, and what factors are involved in the formation of these ideologies?).

### **8.2 Data analysis procedure**

In the analysis of the qualitative data from students, the same data analysis tools employed to analyse the qualitative data from lecturers were chosen. To avoid repetition, I would like to briefly reiterate here that the primary method was QCA, and it was supplemented by discourse analysis wherever necessary, i.e. where discursive elements in students' accounts bring new meanings to the literal meaning of their words (see section 7.2 for detailed accounts of the data analysis methods).

I prepared the student interviews (see Appendix, 18 p. 301, for interviewee profiles) for analysis by following the same steps I took in the analysis of the lecturer data. The data were coded in a similar fashion (see section 7.2.1, p. 169) as well. To avoid repetition and save space here, instead of providing a detailed account, I will summarize that the coding of student interview data was done with a combination of pre-established and emergent codes. Top-down coding was done when the highlighted parts of the data matched with the pre-established codes informed by the interview guide. Data driven coding was done by creating new codes to classify the data generated from the discussion of emerging points and issues.



In the end, I ended up with 71 codes, which were later reduced to 33<sup>62</sup> finalized codes by running a second-level coding. Based on the connection among these codes, categories of codes were formed and turned into sub-themes. The most extensive category of codes was under the theme of *Perceptions of language policies and practices*, and the least extensive one was under the theme of *Perceptions of the roles of English in the university* (see Appendix 19, p. 302, for the main and sub-themes; see also Appendix 20 for a sample translation of a student interview transcript, p. 305).

### 8.3 Analysis of the data

#### 8.3.1 Perceptions of English proficiency

##### 8.3.1.1 Students' perceptions of their English proficiency

In the questionnaires, many students were positive about their English skills, except speaking. I raised the subject of academic speaking during the interviews to uncover the reasons behind their negative orientation to their speaking skills. The majority, such as S1 in the following example, mentioned that they felt themselves weak at speaking, particularly speaking English fluently because their **concerns with conformity to the norms of StE** diminish their fluency.

Example 8.1:

1. A: how do you view your English in general (.) are you happy with <your
2. English> for instance accent pronunciation speaking fluently (.) how do you
3. view yourself=
4. S1: =hmm *it's good in terms of my accent but i have trouble with fluency i*
5. *mean when talking i always pause and think twice (.) so i sometimes lose*
6. *fluency (2) erm because of pausing to check whether what i say is*
7. *grammatically correct*
8. A: well so does this need for checking <your English> occur by itself or do
9. want it yourself
10. S1: <*i do*> *to be better understood* it's as if they will not understand me if i
11. don't construct the sentences correctly /.../ thus i care about <speaking
12. correctly> *i'm constantly trying to monitor my English so that they can*
13. *understand me*

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<sup>62</sup> The number of final codes in the student interviews was very similar to those identified for the lecturer interviews. This similarity might be a consequence of the fact that my discussion with the lecturers and students revolved around corresponding topics in EMI, which in turn led to the emergence of the same main themes in both datasets.

The above exchange clearly shows S1's belief that she can best achieve being intelligible to her interactants by speaking with correct grammar (ll.10-13). She seems aware that her conscious attempts to apply grammatical rules when speaking are the main factor which adversely affects her fluency, yet her belief that it is important to speak correctly to ensure intelligibility does not let her abandon screening her language use. Her insistence on grammatical correctness also demonstrates that she perceives herself to be a speaker of non-standard English, who should thus shoulder the burden in communication in order to make herself understood to her interlocutors (i.e. teachers, friends she perceives as users of StE) by following StE norms. A further discussion of this matter with another student revealed that practices of speaking correctly are mainly associated with students' previous language learning experiences. The following exchange with S12 shows this association.

Example 8.2:

1. A: do you think this <obsession with correctness> is connected to previous English
2. learning for example at secondary schools high schools=
3. S12: *=we always feared somehow if you know what i mean you know (2) erm perhaps*
4. *we're ashamed (.) we would speak incorrectly then what would people think of us*
5. *<our English> (.) for instance you said "could" instead of "can" by mistake you're*
6. *toast now you're in deep trouble /.../ we're mechanizing <English> /.../ so when*
7. *speaking to someone therefore people can't become fluent (.) when speaking to*
8. *someone formulating an interrogative sentence they <drills> swim before their*
9. *eyes*

The above discussion occurred after I asked S12 the potential role of his previous language instruction in his efforts to speak correctly. With this probe, I aimed to discover why he persists in beliefs about correctness although he considers it a barrier to speaking fluently. S12's overall discussion suggests that he has developed a strong attachment to grammatical correctness as a result of early language learning experiences (ll.3-5). It also seems that S12 has developed a fear of negative evaluation (e.g. being laughed at or judged as deficient) by "people" (e.g. teachers, friends) (ll.3-4). I also feel that the above exchange may also explain why, in the questionnaires, some students, positive about their L1-influenced English, wished to speak correct English (i.e. standard native English).

Moreover, it surfaced in the interviews that many students attributed their speaking's being poor to the **lack of speaking practice** because, as some stated, attention was exclusively devoted to the development of linguistic competence (e.g. how to use

grammar, syntax, and vocabulary) rather than communicative competence when they learned English at the schools and in the pre-faculty EAP programs. Several students, particularly from the engineering faculty noted that speaking is not required of them (e.g. S17: “if you can listen to lectures write in the exams that’s enough no one expects you to speak”). Based on students’ remarks on their English learning practices so far, it is fair to conclude that their previous education influenced them in two ways: it fixed in them beliefs about correctness, and did not help them use English in communication outside the classroom, i.e. in real life situations.

Interestingly, as a solution to compensate for their lack of speaking practice, a few students proposed “a long stay abroad”, for instance, as an exchange student, arguing that their friends who have lived abroad for some time now speak so well that “their English is indiscernible from that of a native speaker” (S2). It occurs to me that by *abroad*, what they have in their minds is an ENL country or a country where people speak native-like English. Such suggestions crystalize students’ beliefs that they should learn English for the purpose of speaking with their NESs and that they should, therefore, aspire to achieve the competence of a native-speaker.

#### **8.3.1.2 Students’ perceptions of their friends’ and teachers’ English proficiency**

The questionnaire study with students identified a deficit orientation to Turkish students’ English, but a rather positive attitude towards lecturers’ English. In the interviews, seeking to further understand why students held a negative view of their friends’ English, I revisited this matter for further discussion. It emerged that students mainly problematized their friends’ **low level of speaking ability** though being considerably favourable about their passive (receptive) skills (reading & listening) and writing. Students’ accounts indicated that the main drastic issues Turkish students confront in classes were low level of oral participation and greater propensity to “constantly use Turkish” or, what S16 called “Tarzanish” (i.e. Turkish peppered with English words, phrases, grammar constructions). His word choice (“Tarzanish”) to describe their friend’s English presumably refers to the cartoon character, Tarzan, raised in the jungles of Africa by apes. It is manifest that S16 displays a disrespectful attitude to his friends’ English, which is equalled to a language which can be spoken by someone raised by apes. Although such practices of using English as mixed with

Turkish words or phrases will most likely be seen as a communicative strategy (i.e. code-mixing) by sociolinguists, some students tended to describe them as signs of deficiency, with rather negatively loaded words.

Furthermore, some students, such as S13 in the following example, turned out to be more concerned with the **deviant (non-standard) linguistic features** of their friends' spoken English, with a focus on what they do wrong.

Example 8.3:

1. A: you said in the questionnaire your Turkish friends' English is not so good (.)
2.       what makes you think so=
3. S13: =*most students in my class have a poor "pronunciation" to tell the truth (.) they*
4.       *mispronounce even the "basic" words* but you see (.) i have started to
5.       mispronounce the words that i have never mispronounced before as a result of
6.       having been among them

S13 finds fault with most of her friends' English because of their incorrect pronunciation. There is some evidence that she is aware of her friends' language use, especially what "they *mispronounce*." What is worth noting is her displeasure for being in the same class with students who, she thinks, have "a poor pronunciation" for fear of her pronunciation is becoming bad or incorrect. In brief, she appears to believe that what makes one's English good is correct pronunciation. Unlike S13, S3 who has a long-term overseas experience, criticized his friends for their over-reliance on grammar when speaking since "it obscures intelligibility" and fluency. S3 perceives that his friends cannot focus on "getting things done" as they are often busy translating linguistic forms to their speech. Drawing on his experiences of intercultural communication with English users from different linguistic backgrounds, S3 asserted that over-reliance on grammar has no positive effect in a natural interaction, which is a point, he argues, his friends fail to consider when speaking due probably to their conceptually formed ideas of English use rather than experiential English use in real life communication.

Turning now to students' perceptions of lecturers' English, I would like to discuss students' distinctly positive attitudes towards lecturers' English. However, firstly, I should note that many students had their lecturers with a PhD from abroad in their minds while positively rating lecturers' English since they constituted the majority of teaching staff. Many students were positive about the teachers whose traits of English

they perceived as akin to the **traits of native-like English** (e.g. accent, fluency, pronunciation). As shown in the following examples, students appeared to evaluate teachers' English positively in terms of closeness of their English to native English.

Example 8.4:

1. A: well when you consider it in terms of your department how do you see your
2. Turkish teachers' English=
3. S10: =*my teachers' English in the department is very VERY good (.) incredibly <good>*
4. *really (.)* i don't know whether this is specific to mechanical engineering
5. department but all *my teachers' erm English is very good*
6. A: what do you mean by very good /.../ from what aspects=
7. S10: =*their English is intelligible their accents are very nice (.)* it's satisfactory in terms
8. of content (2) i don't know how to say (.) *i mean they fluently speak English like*
9. *[native speakers]*
10. A: [i see

Example 8.5:

1. A: do you notice for example (.) those who did PhDs abroad and who did in Turkey
2. during the lectures=
3. S5: =of course for example *we have our assistants they do their PhDs in our department*
4. *(.) they can't speak English /.../ i notice they mispronounce some of the words (.)*
5. they frequently pause with "erms" so *i mean there is no fluency*
6. A: [i see
7. S5: [*zero <fluency>* they can't speak for instance (.) they have a lot of trouble (.) so *it*
8. *becomes too obvious from their <foreign> accents* for example (.) *those who*
9. *studied abroad have good accent they acquired native-like accent* but these <who
10. studied in Turkey> can't speak <with native-like accent>

The above examples reveal that both students apply discursive strategies such as predication (i.e. "[l]abelling social actors more or less positively or negatively") and argumentation (i.e. "[j]ustification of positive or negative attributions"; Wodak, 2006, p. 180) in their descriptions of teachers' English. To illustrate, S10's repeated use of *good* and *very* (ll.3-5) reveals how positive she is about their teachers' English. In further lines, she uses *good* and *very* to qualify teachers' intelligibility, accents, and fluency (ll.7-8). From her final remarks, it becomes manifest that she interprets the notion of good English from the native English point of reference.

Similarly, S5 positively associated qualities such as fluent speech, correct pronunciation, and good accent with English of teachers who studied abroad. S5, however, chose negative descriptors (e.g. *mispronunciation*, *zero fluency*, *foreign accent*) when describing teachers' English who studied in Turkey. In other words,

positive and appreciative labels were attached to teachers whose English is perceived as native-like but negative and deprecatory labels to teachers whose English is seen as far from being native-like. What these results also imply is that it is teachers' perceived native-like English in respect of fluency, accent, and grammar that triggered positive attitudes among students. Here, the symbolic power of native-like English in terms of its effects on students' perceptions is understood clearly as well.

### 8.3.1.3 Students' perceptions of the ideal teacher

Half of the students in the questionnaires took a neutral position concerning the ideal teachers for EMI content courses. It is probably because they already considered many of their teachers' English to be native-like (see Examples 8.4 & 8.5 above). In the interviews, however, it emerged that students set different preferences depending on whether they thought of the ideal teacher in relation to content or language courses. When considered in terms of their disciplinary courses, students mostly indicated a **preference for Turkish teachers**. The most cited reason for this preference was that students can better understand the course content. As several students, such as S2 in the following example, explained, Turkish teachers speak English more slowly, use more familiar words during the lectures, and above all share the same L1 with students.

Example 8.6:

1. A: i have seen on the department's page there are foreign and Turkish lecturers
2. in the department who would you prefer more as to lecturing the courses
3. S2: i think (.) *if it is an engineering course (.) i would probably prefer a Turkish*
4. *lecturer /.../ last summer i took a course with an American teacher erm the*
5. *American teacher provides so many opportunities because of his overseas*
6. *academic network (.) but when i consider it from the aspect of their English and*
7. *comprehension i can understand <the courses> better if lectured by a Turkish*
8. *teacher (.) because the other one is a "native speaker" (.) he often speaks too fast*
9. *without realizing it /.../ especially he frequently uses unfamiliar terms*

According to S2, a Turkish teacher is a better option for the delivery of subject courses as he perceives to receive more benefits from him or her in terms of acquisition of the content knowledge (11.6-9). His use of a conditional clause ("if it's an engineering course") implies that he would not probably make the same choice if the courses in question are language-specific. It is also interesting that when talking of his American teacher, S2 did not refer to his linguistic advantages, but his overseas links (probably with the US academics and universities), perhaps thinking that he might be a good

reference for S2 in his further education. It is also striking that what is normally perceived as linguistic advantages of NES teachers seems to be perceived as disadvantages in the areas of content delivery (11.8-9). In brief, the main motive for preferring Turkish teachers in content-specific courses was students' concern with the comprehension of the content of course material rather than the language through which content is conveyed.

As to language courses (i.e. pre-faculty & faculty EAP courses), which students take as compulsory or optional courses within their departments, a rather different picture emerged on the issue of the ideal teacher. Almost all students explicitly indicated a **preference for NESs**, which yielded evidence for the existence of a clear idealization of the NESs among students. Once asked to comment on their preferences, most students referred to what they consider positive attributes of NES teachers (e.g. “authentic accent,” “nice accent,” and “fluent speech”), which, they thought, Turkish teachers of English often lacked. Their main idea was that once language courses are delivered by NES teachers at the pre-faculty and faculty EAP courses, their English will also acquire these positive qualities. The following example clearly illustrates this point.

Example 8.7:

1. A: /.../ what kind of the advantages would there be for students in your opinion when
2. <language> courses are delivered by foreign <native English> teachers what
3. difference do you think [it will make
4. S8: [at least er:m first of all *since English is their native*
5. *language you know (.) we try to speak with a native accent we're trying to use*
6. *language more effectively /.../ apart from these it's helped me speak English*
7. *fluently (.) besides as i said before i also believe it somehow contributed to me*
8. from social and cultural points /.../

Before looking at the above exchange, I should note that S8 had experience studying with NES teachers at Bilkent's EAP programs. In this short exchange, drawing on his past experiences, S8 seems to believe that taking classes with NES teachers creates opportunities for him and his friends (“we” 1.5) “to speak with native accent” and “to use language more effectively.” S8 appears to interpret effective language use in respect of approximating his language use to that of NES teachers, perceived as experts of the language and thus correct models to imitate.

Judging from S8's and S2's remarks (see Example 8.6), it seems that what affects their preferences are the differences in the course objectives. That is, if the emphasis of

course objectives is on the content of subject matters, Turkish teachers were favoured over NESs and other foreign teachers. Nevertheless, once the focus of the course objectives is on language learning as in the EAP programs, NES teachers were of first priority due to their assumed superiority over Turkish teachers.

### 8.3.2 Perceptions of English language use

#### 8.3.2.1 Students' expectations about their own academic English

As for academic written English, it was found in the questionnaires that around one-third of students wished to write English in their own ways, prioritizing intelligibility of the content over conformity to native English. However, most of the students I interviewed, inclined to have normative expectations of their academic writing, considering **conformity to standard native English norms important**. The argument behind their conformist orientation was that written English should follow “certain accepted standards in academic tasks such as exams and assignments.” Some students also mentioned **external factors** (e.g. teachers' expectations, penalty for mistakes, etc.) to defend their conforming position. The following extract is an illustrative example that clearly shows students' concerns and position in academic writing.

Example 8.8:

1. S11: i exert considerable effort while writing essays or assignments (.) i use the
2. dictionary a lot even to look up the words that i have already known (.) *my biggest*
3. *trouble is to find the most appropriate word to express a notion in relation to my*
4. *assignment* (.) i spend a lot of time for this (2) *i can say i am good <at writing> i*
5. *do not make basic mistakes in general* (.) *particularly it is unproblematic in terms*
6. *of grammar*
7. A: you pay attention to writing *correctly* then=
8. S11: =yes **ABSOLUTELY**
9. A: what is the reason for your tendency to make mistakes. sorry your avoidance of
10. making mistakes in writing (.) is it because of your lecturers' reactions or are there
11. other reasons?
12. S11: @ *i'm a perfectionist person* in general i am displeased with it (.) *i pay attention to*
13. *doing my best in everything i do @@ lecturers can be very harsh as regards*
14. *corrections* (.) *i do not want to get back my assignment filled with comments and*
15. *corrections* (.) **OF COURSE** *marking plays a significant role in my attention <to*
16. *correction> @@@ as i study through English-medium instruction i think i show*
17. *disrespect to myself if my writing is full of mistakes* (.) *it is like disrespect to my*
18. *efforts*



The above conversation occurred after I asked S11 what she thought about her written English. Her lengthy comment (Il.1-6) demonstrates that she is seriously concerned about academic writing, especially with appropriacy of word choice. In addition, her description of herself as being good at writing, and her successive statement that she does “not make basic mistakes in general” (l.5), particularly in grammar, shows that she interprets the notion of good writing according to the notion of correctness. When asked a suggestive question whether it really matters for her to write correctly (l.7), she latched to my question in the affirmative, with added intensity on the evaluative adverb “ABSOLUTELY.” Her emphasis on the adverb presents a presupposition of writing correctly as an accepted reality for her because she seems to be subscribed to the StE ideology. However, the loaded words I used such as “correctly” (l.7) might have influenced her answers.

When explaining why she is so concerned about correctness, she firstly links her stress on correctness to her personality trait, i.e. “a perfectionist person” who seeks to be the best in whatever she does (Il.11-12). Her ideologically loaded words (*correction*, *perfectionist*, and *best*) imply that writing correctly equals to doing her best in academic writing. Additionally, lecturers’ corrections made on papers and the possibility of penalty for mistakes in marking seems to lead S11 to use “correct” English. This point was raised by several students, such as S18 who remarked:

as assignments are written in English lecturers are attentive to the language we use  
as much as to the content of our assignments

It is apparent that lecturers not only evaluate what students write but also how they write it. It is also notable that these students appear to have internalized the kind of English imposed on them through external factors, and have made it their target in academic writing. Here, it is thus fair to assert that lecturers’ expectations on language use affect students’ perceptions of achievement and direct them to adopt certain ways of language use.

What is more striking in the above quote is that S11 develops a link between making mistakes and losing respect (Il.17-18). She construes herself as different from others who do not study in EMI, thus making mistakes seems to be firstly a “disrespect” to herself and secondly to her “efforts.” The reason is probably because making mistakes is at odds with her “perfectionist” character and her investment (i.e. efforts) in

conforming to grammatical standards. In short, S11 displays a rather normative approach to written English, and negative attitude to non-standard language use.

In addition to S11's arguments, some students strongly emphasized the importance of grammatical correctness in academic writing, arguing that deviations from standard linguistic forms put the intelligibility of their writing into jeopardy. They tended to justify their points by referring to the errors in the use of prepositions, articles, and tenses, and morphological errors. In one occasion, in response to an engineering student (S20) who said "the reason we care much about grammar is to ensure intelligibility for others <readers>," I argued that mistakes with prepositions and articles are likely to cause less confusion, and thus do not cause intelligibility problems at all. After I challenged his assumed positive connection between intelligibility and conformity to StE, he said:

i still care about correctness i'm sensitive in that regard erm i mean about writing  
(.) i want my writing to be very proper

It is understood that his insistence on the argument that writing with correct grammar maintains intelligibility is just an unsound assumption he has taken for granted. His belief in grammatical correctness was so deep-seated that even if his errors cause no harms in communication, he wants his writing to be grammatically correct, i.e. "very proper."

Unlike their expectations in academic writing, students' expectations about academic spoken English emerged to be more non-normative. Most students argued for maintaining their own (non-native) accents, clarifying that their main focus is on communication, and what makes it effective. For them, maintaining a non-native accent is not a threat to successful communication. They considered **maintaining non-native accents acceptable**, with the proviso that these accents should not adversely affect **intelligibility and meaning** of what they utter. Example 8.9 below presents an instance of students' non-normative orientation to spoken English.

Example 8.9:

1. S15: *i do not (.) aim for a native speaker accent i simply wish <my interlocutors> could*
2. *understand what i am saying and i could easily put across what i would like to*
3. *express (.) my English is that much sufficient=*
4. A: *=i get it*
5. S15: *otherwise imitating a native speaker accent becomes a bit contrived=*

6. A: =totally it loses its spontaneity a little more=
7. S15: =yes
8. /.../
9. S15: it looks very *ridiculous* from an objective view <trying to speak with a native
10. *speaker accent*>
11. A: besides it does not benefit <speakers> either so there is a settled prejudice
12. that if they can pretend <a native speaker accent> it sounds cool and is prestigious
13. and so on (.) from a social point of view to a degree, or else=
14. S15: =no i think it never sounds *COOL* in our university in general *almost all lecturers*
15. *studied abroad <in an English speaking country> but they all speak like Turks i*
16. *mean they do not attempt to mimic native speaker accents because lecturer's*
17. *purpose is to communicate something <knowledge to students> in other words=*
18. A: =i see all right=
19. S15: =there <in academic settings> *it is not their aim to make a show off <by speaking*
20. *with a native English accent> a lecturer is a good one to the extent that students*
21. *can benefit from him/her*

The above exchange occurred after a discussion with S15 about the difficulties he faced in speaking. It is manifest from his remarks (ll.1-3) that his prime goal is to interact with his interlocutors effectively by establishing mutual intelligibility. His explicit mention of “native speaker accent” as being not part of his goal reveals his belief that acquiring a native accent is, for him, not a prerequisite to engage in successful communication. In addition, S15 seems to hold pejorative attitudes towards those who attempt to imitate native English accents (e.g. his friends), as implied in his word choices in his description of English of such speakers (i.e. “contrived” in l.5; “ridiculous” in l.9). His strong reaction (“it never sounds COOL,” ll.14-15) to a common-sense assumption that native accents are by definition cool and prestigious is also an indication of his concern about communication over aesthetic features of native English. It is a sign of feeling of ownership as well, which allows speakers to make their own way in using English, as is done by his lecturers (ll.15-16). Lastly, reading between the lines in his resistance to imitation of native English accents, one can conclude that he is well aware of the role of English as a vehicle for academic studies in EMI courses. He, thus, assesses lecturers’ competence not based on their language use, but based on their teaching skills and subject matter expertise (ll.19-21).

Among students who took a non-conforming position in academic speaking, several of them alluded to their experiences of intercultural communication with NNEs to justify why they prioritize “intelligibility,” “clarity,” and “ease of communication” over NES competence (e.g. accent, pronunciation, pace, and idioms). For example, an engineering

student (S2), who spent a couple of months in Europe under the exchange program, explained:

i saw many people particularly in Spain who speak English without <standard native> accent (.) i even heard people pronouncing sometimes as /'zʌn.taɪmz/ but you could understand it in the context of communication

Drawing on this experience, he further argued that if accents which depart from StE are still comprehensible, “neither native accent nor correctness matter” in speaking.

Another student (S13) made a similar argument, making reference to her experiences with some Arab students in the university hall of residence. She argued that linguistic errors bring no harm to communication and introduced the following account:

i had Arab friends and they used English to communicate with us (.) i could easily understand their English though they made a lot of grammatical mistakes

What was notable in her following argument was her opinion that her Arab friends had to take intensive English courses for a year just because of “their poor grammar.” It can be argued that among those students who were rather flexible about spoken English, there was a sign of ideology which sees non-native English as acceptable. It became evident from the above remarks of students that factors such as feelings ownership of English and intercultural communication with other NNEs contributed to the formation of this ideology.

I should also note that there were a handful of students who did not have fully non-normative, but less normative expectations in regards to spoken English. These students commented that on the one hand, they did not wish to sound like NESs or imitate their accents, but on the other hand, they could not give up grammatical correctness in speaking. That is, although they considered **maintaining non-native accents acceptable**, they considered **maintaining grammatical errors unacceptable**. For instance, S20 put his wish as follows:

i would like to speak without having to think about whether i should use past tense or present tense or whatever forms /.../ i can't help thinking about grammar rules when speaking /.../ they <teachers> never created opportunities for us to speak English but just taught us English grammar rules since grade four /.../ they kept teaching us present tense past perfect tense and suck like for years

Judging from his remarks, it is evident that previous experiences with English language learning fixed in him beliefs about correctness, and thus still affect his current spoken English practices despite his displeasure with this case.

In contrast, the conversations I had with students who held more normative expectations of their speaking indicated their concern with acquiring NESs' accents, fluency, and grammatical correctness. They considered **acquiring native-like English desirable** for spoken English. They rationalized their conforming position from the points of intelligibility, and aesthetic values by claiming that since everybody is familiar with native Englishes (i.e. BrE & AmE, "they are the standards"), speaking with their accents will facilitate communication, with increased intelligibility. Particularly for these reasons, they expressed that having native English accents (i.e. AmE and BrE accents) is more favourable than maintaining non-native accents. In short, they considered **maintaining non-native accents undesirable**. The following exchange shows an instance of positive attitudes and a normative position towards NESs and their accents.

Example 8.10:

1. S7: erm <my> strongest skill (.) is speaking i suppose because XXX
2. A: though you mentioned a little while ago but what would you like your speaking to
3. be like. when you consider the future <use of language>=
4. S7: =i'm not troubled with fluency <of my English> you see (.) *i wish i had a native*
5. *speaker accent and such like @@@ you know*
6. A: well let's suppose that you had a British accent or American accent what would be
7. the advantages <of having either of these accents> for you
8. S7: *i merely want <a native speaker accent> just because they sound cool @@*

S7 identifies her strongest skill as speaking (1.1). Her elaboration on her speaking shows that she has no difficulty as to speaking fluently, but what she desires is to have a native English accent. She laughs a while after her own utterances (1.5) despite the lack of an external stimulus. Her laughter might primarily serve to mitigate the meaning of the preceding utterance where she voices her wish for "a native speaker accent." To find out why she aspires to native accents, I asked her what advantages she would get if she had a native accent. As revealed later (1.8), her tendency towards native accents is based on an ideological position, and originates in her belief that native accents "sound cool." The adjective *cool* here is ideologically perceived with positive associations in relation to the notion of "native speaker accents." What she does not say but implies in her discourse is that she does not consider non-native accents cool.

In addition, one of the students, having argued for native English accents' being more familiar to anyone than other accents, particularly those of non-native speakers, put her reasoning as follows:

Example 8.11:

1. A: why would it be erm advantageous to have an American or British accent=
2. S10: =all in all any person let's say a Polish has heard American English more but
3. has not heard Turkish English at all (.) that's why it <American English> is a more
4. familiar kind of English for them (.) thus everyone's speaking with a similar
5. accent <native accent> make things intelligibility easier <in communication>

The above conversation took place following S10's discussion that retaining a Turkish accent is not desirable for her. Her remarks show that she believes AmE, as a dominant variety, is superior to other native and non-native kinds of English in speaking because of people's greater familiarity with it. The conclusion to her discussion is that maintaining non-native accents are likely to make things difficult in interaction, and thus, she does not desire to speak with a Turkish accent. However, contrary to S10's argument, a student from Boğaziçi university observed that he and his friends experienced trouble understanding courses due to their American teachers' "very native" English. As S12 put, "sometimes we ask a question he <American lecturer> doesn't understand us." Another participant (S14) pointed out that some of her friends who could not stand such troubles resorted to changing their classes in order to take the same course with a Turkish lecturer (see Ex. 8.6). Thus, there is some evidence that even being a NES does not always ensure intelligibility for effective communication, but some students submitted themselves to such an assumption owing to their conceptually formed views.

Unlike S10, some of the students who wished to speak correctly and with a near-native accent justified their orientations based on **external factors**, such as their fear of negative evaluation and teachers' normative expectations of their spoken English. Even worse, some students remarked that though being rare, there were instances where they were laughed at by their friends and frowned on by their teachers for their mistakes and mispronunciations. Similar reactions to students' English, especially their NNEs accents, have been reported elsewhere (e.g. Jenkins, 2007, the case of Japanese students). Such instances seemed to have a profound impact on students' language behaviours, as can be seen in the following exchange.

Example 8.12:

1. S6: well for example *one day one of my teachers said to me i had the worst*
2. *pronunciation she had ever heard in her life* (.) it was in the class whose size was
3. around 50 or 60 (.) i was 17 or 18 when i came here
4. A: did she tell this to you in the class
5. S6: *in the class in the lecture theatre she severely scolded <me> she was really mad*
6. *<at me>*
7. A: in English
8. S6: /.../ the teacher was Turkish i went to her office so that i would not misunderstand
9. her and could find out why she was angry with me *she scolded me there once again*
10. *complaining how i could speak such a bad English i'm a history student and how*
11. *could i mispronounce it for instance i should have said /'his.tər.i/ rather than*
12. */'his.tor.i/* (.) how dare i pronounced <it as> /'his.tor.i/
13. A: well does it make difference in meaning (.) did she not understand it=
14. S6: =she understands <it> actually
15. A: [well
16. S6: [but for example besides *it was not in an English class this happened in a subject*
17. *matter course* (.) we have both English courses and history courses (.) *history*
18. *teacher did this to me* (.) *since that day i have occupied myself with this <correct*
19. *pronunciation>* (.) every minute while speaking i try to correctly pronounce
20. <everything i say> (.) or *i don't know how to say i constantly keep thinking when*
21. *speaking such as was were which one to use* (.) and all of a sudden i find myself in
22. a mood saying i just do not want to speak anymore

S6's anecdote clearly indicates how her teacher's reaction to her non-standard accent led her to adopt a conforming position. However, against such reactions, Japanese students in Jenkins's (2007) study maintained an opposite position. The expectations of S6's teachers about academic speaking appear to be not grounded in the content and meaning, as understood from her comment (l.14). It is important to note that S6 seemed to be surprised at her history teacher's reaction to her deviant language use, probably because she did not expect such a reaction. She expects such reactions to occur in language classes (ll.16-18). It is also worth mentioning that such occasions might cause speakers to be over-concerned about how their English looks and sounds to others, particularly those who have some degree of control over their language use. However, I should note that S6's case was unique, and thus it does not reflect the general attitude of teaching staff towards students' speaking. The reason for presenting her case was to demonstrate how such instances can indeed impact students' language practices in the long term.

### 8.3.3 Perception of English language policies and practices

#### 8.3.3.1 English language entry tests

In the questionnaires, many students perceived their universities' language entry requirements to be based on standard native English norms. During the interviews, especially METU and Boğaziçi students explained in what terms they thought their institutions' proficiency tests measure their language proficiency in StE. Since speaking and writing are not included in the tests of METU and Boğaziçi, students from these universities pointed to the fact that the proficiency tests are mainly designed to measure **grammatical knowledge**. S11's comment - "students who have no background knowledge of grammar are unable to pass the test" - is a good illustration of the central place of grammar in the tests.

METU and Boğaziçi students were also negative about the institutional tests for the reason that these tests only measure **reading comprehension** and grammatical knowledge but pay **no attention to writing and speaking**. S17 remarked "we learn English when we start our programs everybody somehow passes the tests." It appears that passing the proficiency test does not mean that students are ready to study through English-medium. What is notable is students' expectation that they will "learn English" when they are placed in their programs, in which content courses are supposed to be the focus of learning.

Nevertheless, a couple of students from Bilkent, whose proficiency test is similar to TOEFL and IELTS, referred to the writing and speaking sections of the test, in which their performance is not only assessed by Turkish but also NES teachers. The **involvement of NES teachers in assessment** led some students to conclude that their English is evaluated against a native English benchmark. They, in the main, seemed to be worried about the possibility of their performance being underrated in assessment in fear that the examiners might sacrifice what they said and wrote at the expense of how they wrote and said it. The rest of Bilkent students were more positive about the proficiency test, claiming it assesses all four skills and in that respect it is very close to its international counterparts.

However, when I moved on to the international tests, i.e. TOEFL and IELTS, I found that the students, critical of their institutional tests, were more positive about the



international tests. Some mentioned that these tests are native-English oriented in the sense that they are designed in the USA and England and administered all around the world by their agencies. Apart from these aspects, they did not consider these tests to be predicated on NESs and their norms. The following extract shows an interesting explanation by a Boğaziçi student.

Example 8.13:

1. A: some students argued in the questionnaire these tests <IELTS &TOEFL> measure
2. students' English based on native speakers' norms (.) do you agree with this view
3. S17: i don't agree strictly speaking *i think with this education system no Turkish*
4. *<students> can get 7 or 7.5 out of 9 in an exam which measures their proficiency*
5. *in native English @@@ there's also the commercial aspect of it <testing> (.) in my*
6. *opinion they can't benchmark someone they charge 200 dollars against natives*

It should be noticed that S17 herself has not taken any of the international tests, but she seemed well aware of them by what she heard from her friends who took these tests.

What is ironic is that despite not taking any of these tests, she considers that they do not measure students' English in native English. She bases her argument on two reasons.

First, she does not deem it likely that Turkish students can get a very high score in a test that takes native English as a yardstick (Il.3-5). This actually indicates how she holds low regard of Turkish students' English. Second, she postulates that as test takers have to pay a great amount of money to take the tests, test developers cannot assess them at the level of a NES.

Also, a METU student (S3) who held a similar position on these tests noted that test takers specify whether they are NESs or NNESs in the exam form. Based on this, he thinks that the scoring professionals show more tolerance to NNESs in the assessment.

Furthermore, what I also found surprising was students' quite positive views on the international tests and the language policy which recognizes the test scores obtained from these tests. Overall, students maintained that it is a must for their universities to recognize the international tests firstly because these tests have **world-wide recognition**; secondly they are **indications of being international** (i.e. the international = western/ENL position), and thirdly they are **better indicators of language proficiency** than their institutions' language tests. The following examples well summarize students' points.

Example 8.14:

1. A: why do you think the university accepts international tests such as TOEFL
2. and IELTS while it administers its own proficiency test
3. S5: let me put it this way (.) they're already like a certain er:m *standardized system* in
4. the world you know *they already subsume the word international in their names* (.)
5. i mean *they cover everyone*

Example 8.15:

1. A: so why only TOEFL or IELTS <student's name> for example what might be the
2. reason behind [accepting these exams
3. S19: [because *these exams have already wide recognition* you see *these*
4. *exams have been adopted by the world* (.) people think such *systems* <exams> *can*
5. *assess people's true English proficiency*

Example 8.16:

1. A: what does the university actually imply by accepting the international proficiency
2. tests=
3. S15: =er::m they <universities> agree with that since *they* <tests> *are worldwide*
4. *examinations they have no doubt about their adequacy of measuring English*
5. *proficiency* (.) for that reason they have to recognize <the tests> because *other*
6. *universities accept them too it's like keeping pace with* <them>

As is evident from the above extracts, students tended to use words such as *standardized*, *international*, and *worldwide* to justify their view that it is inevitable for institutions to exclude the international tests from their language requirements. As some lecturers did, S15 felt that his institution is obliged to recognize these tests to be able to vie with other universities, most likely for recruiting international students (ll.5-6). Talking about this matter, some students expressed that the recognition of such tests is actually intended for non-Turkish students rather than Turkish students who mainly prefer to take the institutions' language tests.

In addition, students seem to laud these tests due to their assumption that they can measure students' "real potentials," and are thus better indicators of "true English proficiency" (S19). Particularly, comparing the international tests to the institutional tests, some, such as S14 argued that "IELTS and TOEFL are far more professional in respect of content and structure," and they are therefore "much more decisive exams" in measuring language proficiency. Moreover, as one student noted, they are designed and administered by "highly reliable organizations in terms of certification of English proficiency" (S18). Judging from such comments, it appears that some students have doubts concerning the reliability of their universities' tests as a measure of language

proficiency. It is also evident that most students perceived what is international in use and standard in measuring native English to be better and more appropriate compared to what is local and less standard with regards to language tests.

### 8.3.3.2 Pre-faculty and faculty EAP programs

The majority of students agreed in the questionnaires that the pre-faculty EAP programs attempt to teach students standard native English. When asked to comment on in what aspects they considered that the preparatory schools taught them standard native English, students generally referred to **materials imported from ENL countries**, usually the UK or the USA. What they meant by materials were dictionaries, textbooks, listening recordings, and English usage and grammar guides. Also, several students, especially students from Bilkent mentioned taking speaking and listening **classes with NES teachers**. Surprisingly, the majority seemed to find nothing wrong with the programs teaching standard native English. Conversely, many students articulated positive views on the imported materials and imported teachers while a few remained critical of them. The majority supported the programs' policies and practices, arguing that the imported teaching resources are of **very high quality**, and the "imported teachers", i.e. NES teachers, are **highly qualified** in respect of teaching "authentic English." Below is an instance illustrating the main arguments.

Example 8.17:

1. A: /.../ as you said universities especially the private universities prefer using
2. imported textbooks and other materials er:m recruiting foreign teachers (.)
3. what do you think about them=
4. S9: =i think er::m we used pearson erm we used the same textbooks in my high
5. school as well (.) *i consider those materials to have higher quality /.../ we had a*
6. *class when i was in the preparatory school i can't remember the name XXX it's a*
7. *speaking class /.../ that class was pretty fun (.) in fact our teacher that teacher was*
8. *more qualified than required he was erm a graduate of history he was American*
9. *his English was already like er::m (.) there was no defect in his English*
10. *he would speak very good English his class was also great fun /.../*

I should note before looking at S9' remarks that he previously studied in a private high school where the medium of teaching was English and spent a half term in Bilkent's preparatory program. Although he did not specify in his remarks in what sense he perceives the imported "materials to have higher quality," it seems to me that he compares these materials with the materials produced in Bilkent's textbook

development unit. It is also evident that while S9's American teacher had indeed no specialization in English language teaching (l.8), he was recruited by the university most likely because of his NES cachet. What is particularly interesting is that S9 seems to think that the teacher was "more qualified than required," probably to teach speaking due to his "very good English," implicitly referring to native English. My conclusion from S9's comments is that Bilkent's policy of recruiting NES teachers and its importation of materials from ENL countries seems to have left a positive mark on S9 and other students who were positive about the policies and practices of the program.

Talking on the issue of imported materials, some students particularly praised the listening materials produced by publishing houses, such as "Oxford and Cambridge," with positive terms because these materials expose them to native English accents. They also mentioned that some of their teachers occasionally used recordings of NNEs as well as of Turkish teachers in the listening exercises. However, they did not seem to be happy with these practices because of their fear that exposure to accents other than BrE and AmE accents can deflect them from acquiring a native-like accent. S8 below explains his concerns about exposure to non-standard English accents.

Example 8.18:

1. A: /.../ do you think (.) it might be useful to include more recordings by non-native
2. speakers in the listening recording in the coming yearss=
3. S8: *=i don't think it will be very useful (.) because firstly when you are learning English*
4. *you tune your ears to what you hear (2) your ears and brain perceive it so they get*
5. *attuned to it er:m think of this for the other accents if you keep listening to them*
6. *you will start sounding like them (.) but i know at first of course it's hard to*
7. *acquire British accent or Irish accent and such but i believe after a long while one*
8. *can acquire it*

The above conversation took place following S8's explanation that he had minute amount of exposure to non-native accents when he was in the preparatory school. His response to my follow-up question (ll.1-2) demonstrates that he does not favour students' being exposed to accents of NNEs since he believes overexposure to such accents might result in unintentional acquisition of them. It is evident that he considers NES accents to be the target in language learning and considers this target achievable in the long run (ll.6-8).

Some students also argued that it was really hard to understand speakers with non-standard accents. However, similar criticisms were levelled against NES teachers, too. It

came to my notice that concerns such as those of S8 above were among the contributing factors that led many students to have more normative expectations about their own and others' spoken English, with the worry of sounding less intelligible. For many, sounding unintelligible was a symbol of deficient language speakers.

Nevertheless, a couple of students were negative about **the lack of exposure to different accents**, and thus argued that listening materials should contain a wide range of speakers from different linguistic backgrounds. To justify their views, these students, such as S5 in the next example, usually referred to the sociolinguistic demographics of international students on their campuses, and stressed the importance of familiarity with accents of various speakers from different cultures in communication.

Example 8.19:

1. A: alright what will you tell about the listening materials i mean (.) should there be
2. uniform English with native English speakers or various [speakers
3. S5: [in my opinion *it is a must*
4. *there should be various speakers there <listening materials> (.) because we do not*
5. *always encounter with Americans in day-to-day life* for example someone <with a
6. different accent> comes to you whoops of [panic about
7. A: [@@
8. S5: [what he's saying what he's saying so
9. *let's say you encounter with an italian he's speaking with a totally different accent*
10. *for that reason it reflects positively in communication /.../ besides you become*
11. *familiar with them /.../ if we've met such people we can understand what they*
12. *mean XXX when i consider the students i encounter at METU they are not native*
13. *English but Arab (.) those speaking English here are either Arab Bangladeshi*
14. *Cambodian Malaysian or Indonesian* these are the students on campus (.) *they all*
15. *have their own accents*

According to S5, the listening materials should include not only mainstream native English accents, but also other accents, particularly those of the international students present on the campus. His rationale for this is based on the role of familiarity, which he perceives as facilitative for effective communication since it positively contributes to the comprehensibility of people's speech. It is important to note that while expressing his views on the benefits of accent familiarity, S5 particularly considers his very own sociolinguistic environment, i.e. the university campus, where it is less likely to "encounter with Americans" on a daily basis (l.5), but more likely to meet with NNEs (ll.12-15).

Another student from Bilkent, who also considered familiarity with various accents to be “useful for communication,” mentioned how she could easily understand Pakistani students while working as a student assistant during the registrations. Having observed her Turkish friends struggling when communicating with international students at that time, S18 thinks:

it is really impossible for someone who has never heard accents of speakers from other languages to comprehend them

Taking on board the facilitating role of accent familiarity in actual communication, she argued that it would be useful if teachers expose students to various accents when teaching pronunciation. This might explain why so many students, in the questionnaires, wished to be aware of the ways people from different L1s and cultures speak English.

Apart from the imported materials and NES teachers, students also brought the topic of assessment to exemplify that their teachers wanted to teach them StE. In this regard, many students spoke of language teachers’ accuracy-focused feedback on their written and spoken English, often with dissatisfaction. The following example illustrates several students’ points on teachers’ approach to their writing in language-based courses:

Example 8.20:

1. A: what about the second phase=
2. S4: =in the second phase i mean (.) let’s say the second draft *the essays we wrote were*
3. *assessed this time in terms of grammar mistakes* again of course they were looking
4. at “minor” “major” <ideas> (.) *they would mainly correct grammar mistakes they*
5. *noted down <our>weak areas in grammar> describing how it <essay> should be*
6. *written* they would give us feedback

The above conversation shows that students’ assignments were assessed in two phases, the first of which deals with the organization of their papers in respect of ideas and coherence. The second phase, he explains, is solely devoted to linguistic features of students’ writing. What he gets is thus a grammar-based feedback, full of teachers’ corrections and notes about his weak areas in grammar. The evidence so far suggests that teachers wanted students to comply with StE conventions in their writing. Relevant to this matter, a student from Boğaziçi made the following accounts about her teachers’ error correction practices in the faculty EAP courses.

Example 8.21:

1. A: are teachers stricter about writing for example how do they provide feedback
2. S14: *it is usually done using red pen @@ teachers have become obsessed with this erm*
3. *last term when i was taking 101 <English and composition> /.../ we would tell the*
4. *teacher not to do so (.) she would circle the mistakes in a speech bubble write*
5. *down comments next to them such as "oh really" put question marks cross out*
6. *them and so on (.) we asked her not to do so erm we said we're afraid of such*
7. *comments it's turned into an obsession we've developed a phobia (.) thanks God*
8. *she understood us <our concerns> and stopped doing those things /.../ this is all*
9. *about their obsession i mean they become too much obsessed with it*

The above discussion provides sufficient evidence to say that language teachers act in line with the program policy that implicitly aims to teach standard native English to students. S14's comments shows how teachers' grammar-focused feedback (11.2-6) became a source of stress for her and her friends ("we're afraid of such comments", 1.6). It is obvious that scribbling students' writing with red ink and harsh comments has a negative connotation, probably as a sign of deficiency students are reminded time after time. Students' accounts in the discussion recall what Marshall (2009) called "a deficit remedial ESL identity" (p. 41) in relation to Korean student's experiences in a Canadian university's language course. It seems that S14 developed a similar identity as a result of her language teachers' practices, which give an implicit impression to students that their English is poor and deficit.

It also emerged that students face some official sanctions in case of failure in the preparatory program. METU and Bilkent students are allowed for **repeating the program** one year more if they fail. If they fail again in their second year, as several students explained, students lose their legal ability to remain in the university as a full-time student, and thus **lose student privileges**, until they pass the exam. One Bilkent student (S9) noted that many of his friends moved to other universities that use Turkish in instruction upon multiple failures to pass the final test. He also referred to a private university in Ankara, explaining that "it is full of students who failed in the Bilkent preparatory school". Unlike Bilkent and METU, it appeared that Boğaziçi students do not have a second chance to repeat the program upon failure. A Boğaziçi student who failed in the preparatory school explains the university policy against such students as follows.

Example 8.22:

1. A: is what you mean by “remedial” the preparatory school
2. S12: no (.) *i meant the times when i failed in the preparatory school the name of those*
3. *who fail in the preparatory school at Boğaziçi is not a student but a remedial*
4. A: i see /.../ i think this is a name you came up with=
5. S12: =no *it's a name completely given by the university* (.) our school do not quite treat
6. the “remedials” namely those who failed to pass the preparatory school as
7. students
8. A: how strange erm so what happens to remedial students [when they fail again
9. S12: [you become disheartened
10. *with life what else do you expect* (.) there's no right to take courses to stay in the
11. dorms it's torture after torture until you pass the exam

The above exchange occurred when I enquired into how the university deals with students who fail in the pre-faculty programs. S12's accounts manifest the university's deficit orientation to students who are unable to meet the minimum requirements of the (StE-oriented) exit exam at the end of the program. I find it interesting that Boğaziçi officially labels students who fail in the test with a derogatory term “**a remedial student**” to distinguish them from those who pass the test. As is evident from S12's remarks (11.9-11), this practice seems to have psychologically affected him.

Similar issues were raised by other Boğaziçi students who referred to their own and friends' experiences. As one student put it, “being a remedial student is *the last thing* a student wants to be at Boğaziçi university” (S20). Another said “remedial students are the *stepchildren* of Boğaziçi” (S19). Such accounts show how these students felt left out by their universities due to the fact that their English does not match the required kind of English on the campus.

#### 8.4 Perceptions of the role(s) of English in the university

Students' perceptions of the role of English in the university surfaced when I asked them why they chose an EMI university instead of a Turkish-medium one which offers the same program they were enrolled in. Many students pointed out the medium of instruction being English as the very first reason for choosing their current universities. Putting it differently, it is often not the university itself which appeals to students, but its reliance on EMI in teaching. Furthermore, such students tended to describe theirs and other EMI universities as “the most prestigious and top-ranking universities” of Turkey. They also added that the number of fully EMI universities is restricted to a handful of universities in Turkey, and theirs are either the first or one of the first EMI universities.



Hence, for some, it is “a privilege” to be a member of one of these universities.

According to these students, what makes their universities prestigious and popular is the use of EMI in their education.

In addition to their above perception of English in the university, almost all students used the words *English* and *international* interchangeably while talking about their universities, particularly in terms of student and staff demographics, research collaborations, scientific activities (e.g. seminar, conference), and academic rankings, to name a few. As most lecturers did, students, in the main, subscribed to the belief that English is the main actor that internationalizes their universities. They, thus, tended to characterize their universities as international, referring to the high number of international students and academic staff (i.e. **diverse student and staff population**), **international activities** (e.g. partnerships with overseas universities) on their campus, **high ranking in the national and world university league tables**. What is particularly attention-grabbing is students’ assumption that none of these would be possible had English not been the language of instruction. The following extract from a Bilkent student (S18) shows how she conceives the use of English in her institution:

*as i see it Bilkent is in a sense like “Oxford” positioned in Ankara (.) its use of a foreign language in teaching has a very influential role in its current position /.../ i mean a foreigner in no way would come and lecture here (.) if it was Turkish used in education /.../ as i told you before think of Bilkent like Oxford or Harvard positioned in Ankara*

It is clear that for students, “the use of a foreign language,” i.e. English (as is often equated in other countries) acts as the main catalyst for the international status of the institution. What is quite remarkable is the analogy S18 drew between Bilkent and Oxford to emphasize the current place of Bilkent in Turkey. S18 seems to believe that Bilkent is Turkey’s “Oxford or Harvard” in its capital mostly because it offers courses in English only. It should be mentioned here that the ideologies of anonymity and authenticity I discussed earlier in Chapter 3 by referring to Woolard (2005) are represented in S18’s accounts. On the one hand, she seems to perceive English as the global language, but on the other hand, she links it to America and the UK in her analogy of Bilkent and Oxford/Harvard. Moreover, S18 perceives that it is by virtue of English that Bilkent can recruit international faculty (most of whom are Americans).

Similar to the perceptions of lecturers, students' perceptions of the place of English in their universities' current perceived positions (i.e. international, prestigious, and top) share similarity with the ways the institutions display themselves on their websites and in their policy documents (see Chapter 5). Therefore, it is fair to conclude that the ways the institutions have depicted themselves English-wise seem to be translated into students' ideology that English internationalizes their universities.

## **8.5 Summary and conclusion**

This chapter discussed the analyses of interviews with students by re-exploring the issues that did not lend themselves to in-depth examination in the questionnaires and the emerging issues in the data. As to students' perceptions of English abilities and use, the data revealed that factors such as the obsession with correctness in speaking and lack of speaking practices were the main causes of many students' deficit orientation to their speaking skills. The ideology that speaking correct English ensures intelligibility was the main motivation for the students who could not give up monitoring their speaking in order to preclude mistakes from their speech. The formation of this ideology among many students seemed to be triggered by their past language learning experiences (e.g. being laughed at by their friends, corrected by their language teachers, and pinpointed as deficient learners) and education, heavily geared towards improving students' linguistic rather than communicative competence.

The current chapter also showed that overall, students exhibited a rather normative approach to written English under the influence of the consensual ideology that native academic English is superior to non-native English, and thereby what is appropriate in academic writing is standard native English. Moreover, the external factors that affected students' orientations to writing were content teachers' normative expectations and negative sanctions imposed on them, such as mark deductions for deviant language use from standard native English.

However, students were less native English-oriented once it came to spoken English. Many argued for maintaining their L1-influenced accents and did not consider grammatical correctness a serious element in spoken English as long as effective communication is sustained. Namely, the priority was communication (i.e. content & intelligibility) over language (i.e. linguistic correctness, native-like accents). Compared to their orientations to written English, many students' flexible approach to spoken

English seemed to not arise due to the feeling of being tolerant but the belief that sees non-native English as legitimate, particularly among NNEs. It was found that intercultural communication experiences, feelings of ownership, and NNEs' using English effectively contributed to the formation of such a belief, but not to a large extent, since not everybody having had intercultural communication experiences or met effective NNEs had a flexible approach to spoken English. A handful of students who were more conformist in their orientations attributed positive values to dominant native Englishes (i.e. BrE & AmE), arguing that they sound "cool," and are intelligible to a wider audience.

The results offered some evidence of disciplinary influences on students' orientations to spoken English. It was mainly the engineering students who were more tolerant of variations from native academic English and more willing to accept variations as acceptable in spoken English, but there were also some students from other disciplines who were rather flexible and tolerant. There is thus no solid evidence to extrapolate the disciplinary differences to the whole population. One explanation why engineering students tended to be more tolerant of and willing to accept variations might be because of the lower language demands in terms of speaking in the field of engineering.

The results of students' perceptions of language policies and practices showed that most were critical of their universities' language tests as they do not assess productive skills and are primarily based on testing reading comprehension and grammatical competence. However, their views on international tests were rather positive though they agree such tests are native-English grounded. Instead of problematizing such tests for their dependence on native English norms, they found these tests more reliable, professional, and inclusive compared to the tests designed by their institutions.

Many students were also in favour of imported materials to be used in their language courses and recruitment of NES teachers, in the hope that they will learn authentic English and sound authentic, i.e. native-like. These students were also harshly against the inclusion of NNEs in the listening materials, arguing that exposure to such accents might adversely affect their acquisition of authentic accents. However, a couple of students favoured the idea that various speakers from lingua-cultural backgrounds should be included in the recordings and visual aids by referring to the richness of accents on their campus enabled by foreign students. Familiarity with various accents

was argued to create ease of communication among speakers and this argument was based on students' personal intercultural communication experiences.

Another major finding was that the EAP programs and language teachers acted in accordance with the implicit ideology of their institutions that standard native English is to be used on campus. Especially language teachers directed students to use StE through their practices such as accuracy-focused feedback, and interventions in students' language use when departures from StE occur, among many others. Also, the discourse of remedial teaching and remedial students was vastly prevalent in some lecturers' discourse.

Overall, the analysis identified that students bought into their institutions' ideology that English internationalizes the universities. They seemed to grasp the same arguments made by their institutions in their language policy documents and websites, such as the diversity of students and teaching staff and international activities on campus, to name a few. Many believed that had English not been the medium of instruction, their universities would not be holding their current prestigious position within and across the country.

Having presented the findings from lecturers in the preceding chapter and the findings from students in this chapter, I will bring together these findings along with the questionnaire findings and summarise them in accordance with my research questions in the next chapter. In doing so, I intend to consider the relevance of the findings to previous literature and the implications of the findings for theoretical and practical matters, in particular surrounding English language teaching and the notion of EMI.



## **CHAPTER 9: CONCLUSION**

### **9.1 Introduction**

This final chapter ties together the main areas which guided the current research with a look back and gives a final judgment on them with a look forward. It summarizes and discusses the findings by revisiting research questions and previous research. It then talks of limitations and offers suggestions for further research. Finally, it considers contributions of this research to existing knowledge in the relevant literature, and discusses ideological and practical implications drawn from the findings.

### **9.2 Overview of research findings**

This study, as mentioned before, set out to explore how non-English-major Turkish lecturers and students perceive English used as a medium of instruction. The following is a synthesis of the findings from the study in relation to the individual research questions and previous research.

#### **9.2.1 RQ1: Perceptions of English medium of instruction in higher education**

This question was divided into five sub-questions in order to obtain deeper insights into the participants' perceptions of English and language policies and practices from different angles.

##### **9.2.1.1 RQ1a: Perceptions of language abilities and language use**

Participants' perceptions of their own and others' English abilities were explored both quantitatively and qualitatively. To start with lecturers, the questionnaire results revealed that they were substantially positive about their English skills although many did not deem their accents and pronunciations native-like. These results sharply differ from the results of earlier studies in other settings in which lecturers were overwhelmingly negative about their English, especially their spoken English (e.g. Ball & Lindsay, 2013; Chang, 2010; Cots, 2013; Doiz et al., 2011; Klaassen & Graaff, 2001; Jensen & Thøgersen, 2011; Tange, 2010). It is likely that the variation between the results of this study and those of earlier studies stems from the fact that my participants were from long-established fully EMI universities while the participants in earlier studies were from the universities that have more recently shifted to EMI and only partly in most cases. English language was a must for the lecturers in my research as

discussed in Chapter 7, since the universities tend to only hire lecturers whose English they find appropriate after taking several measures of assessment. English language assessment was possibly not required of the lecturers taking part in previous studies as they would normally teach in the medium of their domestic tongue.

Moreover, the questionnaire data showed that most lecturers were seen to deem their English akin to AmE, whereas a small number described their English as L1-influenced. A significant correlation emerged between affiliations of their English with AmE and their long-term stay in the USA, which indicates that long-term exposure to this variety contributed to the acquisition of certain features of AmE. By re-exploring the above issues in the interviews, I found that previous educational experiences and long-term exposure to AmE were the two key factors contributing to the construction of the idea among many lecturers that their English is close to AmE. Another finding was that the lecturers with L1-influenced English felt content with their English, judging their English from a communicative and usage-based perspective. That is, they believed that they could effectively fulfil the tasks in real life situations with their L1-influenced English.

Turning to lecturers' perceptions of students' English, it emerged in the questionnaires that many lecturers had very negative views about Turkish students' English compared to that of non-Turkish students, which broadly aligned with previous studies showing lecturers' derogatory perceptions of students' English from the same nationality backgrounds (see, e.g. Cots, 2013; Doiz et al., 2011). Interview results revealed that most lecturers constructed a positive self-representation of their English, and a negative representation of that of others in their institutions (i.e. Turkish colleagues and students). The main reason in their negativity emerged to be that L1-influenced English of their colleagues and students was perceived to depart from the kind of English they consider appropriate. However, the lecturers who were positive about others' Turkish-influenced English tended to be more attentive to their actual language performance and whether they could fulfil the required tasks.

Regarding students, the questionnaire study revealed that they were also positive about their English, but identifying their speaking as the weakest skill. This result resonated with those obtained by researchers, such as in Denmark (Jensen et al., 2011) and in Turkey (Kırkgöz, 2005) as their participants were also negative about their speaking. It was, however, inconsistent with those obtained in Spain (Doiz et al., 2013b) and in

Taiwan (Chang, 2010) as students in these settings were dissatisfied with their English. Notably, many students in this present study did not regard their accents as native-like and correct, but still described their English in positive terms. Another important finding was that quite many students considered their English close to AmE. This could be because it is the main variety taught and promoted through various means in Turkey. However, more than 40% reckoned that their English has unique linguistic traits, with visible L1 influences. It was further found that students were fairly positive about their lecturers' English albeit being very negative about Turkish friends' English. These results do not match those observed in previous research in which students harshly criticized their lecturers' English (e.g. Byun et al., 2010; Jensen et al., 2013), but complies with the findings of some others (see, e.g. Suviniitty, 2009).

The follow-up interviews concentrated on why students negatively oriented to their speaking. It emerged that troubles primarily originated from their conscious attempts to speak English in line with grammatical rules and because of lack of speaking practice. The fundamental factor behind their insistence on applying grammar rules in speaking turned out to be their previous language learning experiences and the ways their teachers approached speaking. In addition, several students considered their friends' English deficient in the sense that their friends tended to frequently code-mix between Turkish and English, and thus departed from standard ways of using English. This was read by many as a sign of deficiency. The results also revealed that the perceived near-native English of the lecturers doing a PhD abroad prompted positive attitudes among students towards those lecturers' English. This result echoes the findings of Byun et al. (2010) showing Korean students' more favourable perceptions of their teachers' English with a PhD from US universities compared to that of those who got their PhDs from Korean universities.

#### **9.2.1.2 RQ1b: Orientations to written and spoken English**

The questionnaire study showed that lecturers and students were more native English-oriented in their goals for written English than spoken English, with a greater tendency towards AmE. With respect to spoken English, lecturers were more willing to be a competent user who uses English in their own terms as contrasted with students who predominantly wished to speak like AmE speakers. This confirms the favourable impression AmE, being taught as the model variety and advertised by pop culture (e.g.



movies, television, toys, games), has had on students in setting goals for their oral practices (e.g. H. Lee, 2012; Kitazawa, 2013).

To uncloak the factors that might have given rise to differences between their orientations to written and spoken English, participants' expectations about written and spoken practices were explored in a much more open way via qualitative tools. It emerged that the lecturers and students who had normative expectations about written English equated "good writing" with correct English. The common view among them was that writing in standard native English makes their writing more intelligible, and that it is the ideal model for written English. Further, the overall idea among normatively-oriented respondents was that conformity to norms of StE in writing helps lecturers obtain easier acceptance of their papers for publications and helps students get higher marks in their assignments and exams, since language was reported to have an important bearing on the assessment of their written work. As was found in the previous studies (e.g. Jenkins, 2014), lecturers, on the whole, had more normative expectations of students' writing than their speaking for the similar reasons cited in the preceding lines.

However, the majority of participants appeared to be less normative and more flexible corresponding to their expectations about academic speaking. Many respondents considered non-native linguistic features in their speech not to be a hurdle for effective communication. This result further supported the idea which emerged in earlier studies that what matters most in spoken English is achieving successful communication, with a major focus on content and meaning (e.g. Björkman, 2008b, 2009; Hynninen, 2010; Pilkinton-Pihko, 2010; Sercu, 2004; Smit, 2007). In this connection, most lecturers were flexible towards students' spoken English, seeing the variations in their speech as acceptable within the framework of fairness. This result partly resonated with Jenkins' (2014) findings of the questionnaire study with teaching staff. Another finding revealed that maintaining non-native accents was not seen as acceptable by some participants, which shows the prominence of accents in people's setting goals for speaking and judging others' English (Björkman, 2008b, 2009; Inbar-Lourie & Donitsa-Schmidt, 2013; Sercu, 2004). As discussed in Chapter 7, it was likely that differences in orientations to academic writing and speaking were caused by the degree of language demands which are considerably higher in written tasks by contrast with spoken tasks, and by the much greater influences of external factors (e.g. language policies, guidelines for publication) on written English.

### **9.2.1.3 RQ1c: Differences in perceptions across disciplines**

In the questionnaire study, the differences in lecturers' perceptions of their English skills emerged to be statistically significant. The lecturers from the discipline of history held significantly higher perceptions of their English, especially their pronunciations than the lecturers from engineering and international relations. Most probably, the history lecturers held higher perceptions because history, as a discipline, "is usually of an individual interpretative nature, valuing creativity and fluency of expression" (Kuteeva & Airey, 2014, p. 537); however, more applied disciplines, such as engineering, do not require much oral language use, and thus have lower language demands on users. Nevertheless, no disciplinary differences emerged in students' perceptions of their English, largely because, as I understand from their remarks, they tend to be rather passive and quiet during lectures irrespective of their disciplines.

The interviews with lecturers identified that the influences of disciplinary differences on their orientations to their own and students' language use were small, with the engineering lecturers tending to be a bit more open to variations in their own and students' written and spoken English than the lecturers from other disciplines. This result supports previous findings (e.g. Jenkins, 2014) that provided "little evidence of different orientations to English across disciplines" (p. 163). The interviews with students indicated that disciplinary differences could also slightly affect their orientations to their English. As with lecturers, it was mainly but not exclusively engineering students who were positive about their L1-influenced English, and had less desire to conform to StE norms, particularly in speaking, while students from international relations and history were more normative-minded and less tolerant of variations.

### **9.2.1.4 RQ1d: Influences of intercultural communication on perceptions**

The answers to this question were solely sought in the interviews. It was found that roughly half of the students' orientations to spoken English were influenced by their intercultural communication experiences with speakers from various languages and cultures; however, as for lecturers' orientations, it was only a handful of lecturers. In other words, engaging in intercultural communication was an eye opener for many students whereas an eye closer for many lecturers. The difference in the degree of influences of intercultural communication on students and lecturers may be partly

related to the fact that they had different levels of intercultural awareness (Baker, 2011, 2015). With more focus on communicative practices, students appeared to hold a high level of intercultural awareness and hence made more gains out of their actual experiences by grasping the implications of the current socio-linguistic demographics of English speakers and displaying more openness to variations and fluidity in the use of English. However, many, but not all, lecturers seemed to have only a basic level of cultural awareness, and thus conceived of the variations and hybridity in their interlocutors' English as marks of deficiency, elements to be removed from one's speech, and barriers to leaving a good impression on others.

#### **9.2.1.5 RQ1e: Influences of language policies and practices on perceptions**

The questionnaire study with lecturers did not find any influence of language policies and practices on their perceptions of English, but demonstrated that they were aware of the stated and unstated policies and practices. However, the questionnaires with students found that their experiences with language policies and practices (e.g. studying in the pre-faculty EAP programs) had a statistically significant impact on their perceptions of English ability. That is, the students having taken intensive English courses prior to their admission to degree programs were more negative about their English, which provides evidence of the possible effects of such remedial programs on the development of deficit views among students, as discussed in Chapter 8.

The qualitative study was more illuminating in terms of determining the impacts of the language policies and practices on participants' perceptions of English. In the interviews with lecturers, it emerged from their considerable support for universities' standard native English-oriented policies and practices (e.g. in the recruitment of teaching staff, admission of students, obligatory international publications) that such policies and practices substantially influenced many lecturers' orientations to English. Similarly, it became evident from many students' favourable stance on universities' normative language policies and policy mechanisms, as well as lecturers' normative practices/expectations that most students' orientations to English were relatively affected by such policies, practices and normative-minded policy performers.

#### **9.2.2 RQ2: Language ideologies and attitudes affecting perceptions**

In the investigation of the ideological basis of participants' perceptions of English, both quantitative and qualitative data served the purpose. The results identified four main

language ideologies along with several sub-ideologies which guide participants' perceptions of English and language use. These ideologies were also interrelated with each other. Additionally, the results demonstrated the roles of these ideologies in constructing certain attitudes towards several matters at the centre of the notions of English and EMI. The most influential ideology guiding many participants' perceptions of their and others' English and language use was StE language ideology. This result mirrors the findings of previous research investigating language ideologies of students and lecturers in HE (e.g. Hu, 2015; Jenkins, 2014; Pilkinton-Pihko, 2010, 2013) and research studies in the ELT profession with learners and teachers (e.g. Liou, 2010; Jenkins, 2007). The lecturers and students holding this ideology had the following ideas:

- The determining factor of whether one has a good or bad English depends on how close one's English is to standard (i.e. native) English, in particular how correct their English is.
- Standard (i.e. native) English is correct, legitimate, and equated with native English; and non-standard English is deficient, illegitimate and equated with non-native English. Thus the former is the most appropriate kind of English for written and spoken English whereas the latter is unacceptable.
- Linguistic correctness guarantees mutual international intelligibility and hence paves the way for communicating clearly in writing and speaking.

The participants having acted upon the tenets of StE ideology were seen to hold the following attitudes:

- positive attitudes towards English of lecturers and students perceived to speak standard native English
- favourable attitudes towards standard native English accents, particularly North American accent and grammatically correct English usage
- favourable attitudes towards universities' standard native English-oriented policies and practices (e.g. entry requirements, EAP practices, job requirements)
- negative attitudes towards non-native accents and variations in the use of English triggered by mother tongue traits
- pejorative attitudes towards those who maintain their non-native accents and depart from standard native English conventions in their practices

On the other hand, the lecturers and students who did not submit themselves to this ideology, though being in minority, put their emphasis on communicative aspects of language use, such as comprehensibility, clarity and plainness of their English, especially in regards to spoken English. Thus, their attitudes towards variations and non-native accents were not disrespectful, and they were critical of StE-based policies and practices of their universities. Similar results were obtained with NNEs from academia, service, and business sectors whose orientations to English were not shaped by StE language ideology, especially in spoken English (e.g. Björkman, 2008b; Ehrenreich, 2010; Kankaanranta & Planken, 2010; Kitazawa, 2013) as well as language teachers and learners, with positive experiences of language use outside the school environment, i.e. in lingua franca communication (e.g. Cogo, 2010; Erling, 2007; Kalocsai, 2009; Ranta, 2010).

Another ideology informing many participants' perceptions and practices of English and related to the previous one was the ideology of ownership of English placed on ENL countries, primarily the USA and UK. Intriguingly, in the questionnaire study, a huge number of participants agreed that English belongs to anyone who uses it; however, the qualitative data indicated that this idea remained only in their thoughts because many were disinclined to put this idea into their language practices, i.e. appropriating English for their own specific use, with their own linguistic and cultural resources. This result mirrors other research which found a consensus among students, teachers, and non-linguists on the ownership of English by ENL speakers (e.g. A. W. Lee, 2012; Hynninen, 2010; Liou, 2010; Matsuda, 2003; Öztürk, Çeçen & Altınmakas, 2009; Sifakis & Sougari, 2005; Zacharias, 2005). The ideology of ownership of English by ENL countries seemed to inculcate the following beliefs in most participants:

- NESs provide a linguistic reference point for NNEs, who should, thus, depend on native English norms in their language behaviours.
- NESs speak a standardized version of English and therefore are speakers of a legitimate variety.
- NESs have the right to use English innovatively while NNEs do not.

The placement of ownership of English on ENL countries seems to lead to the birth of other ideologies. One common ideology that emerged among many lecturers and students who attached the ownership of English to its native speakers is the ideology of

the NES. This ideology was clearly reflected in their goals for and orientations towards written and spoken English, representations of the ideal teacher for content and language courses, and opinions about the policies and practices, as found in recent research into EMI (e.g. Inbar-Lourie & Donitsa-Schmidt, 2013; Jenkins, 2014; Kuteeva, 2014; Suviniitty, 2007). The participants under the guidance of this ideology seemed to hold the ideology of authenticity, and anonymity, as well (Woolard, 2005). The following were the dominant ideas articulated by those who subscribed to these ideologies:

- The English spoken by NESs is by definition authentic, correct, and good, and thus the most suited model for language learners and users.
- Those who are able to speak native-like English gain value and prestige among their speech community.
- NES teachers are expert users of English, and their linguistic supremacy in all areas of language make them better language teachers; therefore, they should be given priority in the job market.
- Acquisition of native/native-like competence or proficiency is the ultimate end for speakers/learners of English.

The results from the qualitative data revealed that the above ideologies played a greater role in participants' attitude formation towards particular issues surrounding English, its use, and teaching. The widely held attitudes echoing many participants' ideologies were as follows:

- positive attitudes towards native English, NESs, and Turkish lecturers and students whose English is perceived to be native-like
- positive attitudes towards language policies which support the employment of NESs for content, but in particular language courses, and which endorse the use of imported teaching materials grounded in native English in EAP courses

However, a handful of lecturers and several students who moved away from these ideologies were less concerned with nationality of the speakers they described as good users of English. Rather, they were more attentive to professional qualities, such as clear explanations and pronunciations, sensitivity to meaning and content, and interlocutors' needs and problems in the use of English. Some students were less

favourable towards NESs and their English, especially when considered for teaching content courses. According to them, the positive traits (e.g. fluency, idiomatic language use, high degree of vocabulary knowledge, accents, and pronunciations) that NESs are thought to possess in the ELT profession actually create troubles in the comprehension of the content of the courses and interactions with students. This is why their English may be scorned rather than admired once judged from the points of clarity and intelligibility.

The last ideology that emerged from many participants' discussions of the contributions of English and EMI to their universities was the ideology of internationalization as Englishization, which has been translated into most participants' beliefs about English as follows: the use of English in instruction makes their universities international (Botha, 2014). In brief, this ideology embodies the belief that whatever factors and activities add to the internationalization of their institutions, they are rendered possible through English only. This ideology among participants was manifested in their meta-linguistic discussions of the roles of English. Many maintained that as an upshot of using English in instruction, their universities can:

- accommodate international academic staff and students from various countries
- partake in collaborations and projects with universities from abroad, and exchange students and staff
- host international conferences, seminars, and workshops on their campuses and become members of international educational associations
- make their names listed on most world university rankings
- import high quality learning materials and textbooks widely used by top universities across the world

The participants with the above beliefs displayed rather positive attitudes towards language policies and practices that facilitate and boost internationalization activities on their campuses. For example, their attitudes were positive to:

- commercial tests, such as TOEFL and IELTS, recognized in the admission of students and recruitment of teaching staff
- diversity of students and staff members, in particular recruitment of Turkish lecturers who have done PhDs abroad, i.e. America, Canada and UK

- importation of teaching materials and textbooks which are not available in any other languages but English

Corresponding to the second half of the RQ2, (i.e. What factors are involved in the formation of language ideologies among participants?) it emerged from the data that several factors contributed to the formation of this ideology among participants. The most influential factor singled out was the previous language education, where they were exposed to language ideologies through the education policy which promoted ownership of English by ENL speakers and offered a limited range of models of English, more precisely two, i.e. AmE or BrE norms. Other educational tools that sowed the seeds of these ideologies among participants were teaching/learning materials, e.g. grammar and usage books, dictionaries (Gal, 2006; Milroy, 2001; Wolfram & Schilling-Estes, 2006), traditional teaching approaches (e.g. grammar translation method, audio-lingual method), testing practices, and teachers' ways of teaching English. In brief, these educational tools correspond to Shohamy's (2006) policy mechanisms, which, she argued, "are [all] forms of marketing language ideologies" to language learners and users (p. 57).

In addition to the previous education, the social and educational contexts where participants were exposed to English for a long period of time seemed to strengthen their ideologies. It is very likely for this reason that the ideologies of standard language and native-speakerism were more prevalent among lecturers and students who had attended EMI secondary and high schools, such as Robert College and Üsküdar American College, compared to participants who had studied in Turkish-medium public schools. Similarly, the lecturers who had spent several years in the ENL countries, such as America and Canada in the pursuit of a postgraduate degree, held a broader array of ideological views in their accounts than the lecturers who did not.

Additionally, the results confirmed that in submitting themselves to these ideologies, many lecturers, as policy agents, were also involved in the reproduction and inculcation of existing ideologies in students by compelling them to embrace particular ways of language use in accordance with their own normative expectations. A further factor which fed the existing ideologies was universities' native English-oriented language policies and practices. Other than these main factors, certain factors specific to



individuals, e.g. personal characteristics and interests, future goals, and having an EMI identity, seemed to predispose them towards holding certain ideologies, as well.

In contrast, the accounts of the participants who did not fully submit themselves to the aforesaid language ideologies pointed to several other factors which urged them to challenge and resist the existing ideologies permeating their social surroundings. These factors, some of which were unveiled in previous studies (e.g. Björkman, 2008b; Ehrenreich, 2010; Erling, 2007) are primarily the following:

- positive experiences from intercultural communication with NNEs
- observations of lecturers who modelled a non-normative language use in lectures, with perceived effective use of English
- increased awareness of implications of the widespread use of English,
- a developing sense of ownership of English which allows for appropriation of English for individuals' own particular use, relying on their local and cultural linguistic resources
- revision of traditional goals with more gravitation towards setting more communication-grounded goals, with priority placed on content and meaning
- reflections of an ideology in relation to Turkish which sees variations as natural and acceptable

### **9.3 Limitations and suggestions for further research**

Within each research project, limitations are inevitable. It is thus imperative to be aware of these limitations. This study accepts the following limitations. Firstly, the research setting is limited to three EMI institutions which entirely use English in teaching.

Consequently, any conclusions drawn from the data cannot be directly applicable to institutions partially offering EMI courses. This does not mean that this project fails to benefit the research community and relevant stakeholders in other EMI institutions across Turkey. Individuals in other EMI institutions sharing similar educational experiences and backgrounds with the participants might also obtain useful insights of their own circumstances and reflect on and question their own language use and their institutions' language policies/practices in light of the issues explored and discussed in this research. It might be even more useful if further research is carried out to explore the differences in language policies and practices and people's perceptions of English in institutions which have adopted different versions of EMI.

Another limitation concerns the sampling and the number of the participants because individuals were only sampled from three disciplines (i.e. mechanical engineering, international relations, history), and the number of lecturers was small in the survey questionnaires. However, this is not considered to be a grave issue since the research does not look for generalizations of the results. Rather, it draws an elaborate description of the English language policies/practices and language use from the perspectives of individuals sampled from the aforesaid disciplines. Moreover, the research looks into the EMI related linguistic issues and implications at the tertiary level. As such, although EMI has become a hotly debated topic for investigation and discussion in secondary education as well, any inferences drawn from the findings primarily have to do only with EMI at the tertiary level. Based on these limitations, it becomes evident that what is now needed is research into disciplines (e.g. archeology, music, and fine arts) which were side-lined in previous EMI research. As key actors of EMI, decision and policy makers, including administrative staff, should be included in further research.

The data on participants' attitudes and ideologies were collected through quantitative and qualitative methods which rely on what people report on the questionnaires and say in the interviews, i.e. their self-reports and accounts rather than what they actually do in language use. This was due to the difficulty of access to a range of classrooms for observations. Thus, one could argue that the data might have been different had other methods of data collection (e.g. participant observations) been applied. Also, the methods that elicit individuals' own accounts inherently bear the risk of some biases, e.g. social desirability bias and acquiescence bias that may contaminate the data, and result in unreliable findings. Taking some steps, such as the triangulation of the research methods and the fact that participants had no previous intimate acquaintance with me helped, to some extent, lessen the influence of such biases on the data. However, I might have still affected participants' responses, particularly during the interviews as I noted while discussing the issues of reflexivity in section 4.9 (see, p. 99). There is still a need for more observation-based and longitudinal research on similar issues, if possible by researchers from the institutions under investigation, who have easy access to research site(s) and participants.

Moreover, even though I collected a large amount of data, I only examined the impacts that certain variables (i.e., university language policies, intercultural communication experiences, disciplinary differences, etc.) had on my participants' perceptions of

English in my analysis. Since the data that I had obtained was relatively rich, I believe that other researchers could use the same data in order to explore the impacts of other variables as well, such as gender, social class, and regional background on the participants' orientation to English. Examining these variables might yield interesting results seeing as my participants — particularly the students — come from different institutions (state and private), as well as different socio-economic and regional backgrounds.

However, I believe some of the limitations mentioned above can, in some respects, be regarded as strengths of this research. For example, in much of the EMI research, the sample of participants is limited to either lecturers or students and generally from only one discipline in a single institution. This research expanded the participant sample with both lecturers and students from three disciplines of three EMI universities, and thus it entertained the opportunity of investigating the effects of differences in disciplinary background on the responses of the participants, and comparing their views considering the disciplinary variations in the use of English. Furthermore, unlike much of previous research (e.g. Jensen et al., 2013; Tange, 2010; Tatzl, 2011), a mixed methods research design was used, which broadened the scope of the study by scrutinizing the research topic from multiple perspectives. However, the document analysis dealt with website and policy data exclusively written in English. It is thus necessary to further explore the Turkish version of these documents and website data to see how policies and practices are conveyed to domestic and international addressees.

#### **9.4 Significance and contributions**

This research contributes to existing knowledge in the fields of language policy, language attitude, and ideology research, especially with regards to research into EMI in university settings within and outside Turkey. As pointed out earlier in section 2.6, EMI research around the world and in Turkey has so far tended to exclusively study the notions of medium of instruction, i.e. MI of EMI, by chiefly considering cultural, political and pedagogical issues. Thus, the notion of E, which is more concerned with the theme of language (i.e. language policies and practices), has been pushed aside in previous EMI research until recently, culminating in a gap in EMI research on linguistic issues, especially in non-Anglophone settings. This is also true for Turkey where the existing body of research is currently rather limited and has been done by non-Turkish

researchers unfamiliar with the context (e.g. Jenkins, 2014). In this regard, Doiz et al. (2013c) argued for the need for contextualized in situ studies to be carried out by people who know the context. This is precisely what I have attempted in this research by producing the first large work of this kind in a Turkish university context, which has provided valuable insights into language policies and practices of EMI institutions in respect to the perspectives of key actors, i.e. teaching staff and students, thereby generating responses to many unanswered questions.

The study has also gone some way towards enhancing one's understanding of language attitudes and ideologies. As was highlighted in section 3.5, past language attitude research has paid little heed to the effects of the larger social context and the pervading ideologies in those contexts, which are likely to shape attitudes. Thus, much language attitude research has not considered the likely impacts of language ideologies on their participants' attitudes. Not following suit, I included language ideologies in my theoretical framework to explore how and what language ideologies play a role in guiding my participants' attitudes and overall perceptions.

Furthermore, unlike previous studies in which attitudes have been explored via statistics-based methods, e.g. the verbal guise technique, this research adopted a more direct and discourse-based approach to the analysis of language attitudes within the frame of mentalist theory of attitudes. It is also notable that I avoided referring to the conventional framework of language attitudes widely adopted in previous studies, where attitude objects (e.g. accents, varieties, speakers) are seen as stable and fixed categories, equally represented in people's minds. Only little research has considered the role of interaction in attitude formation and how the attitude objects are conceived and interpreted by participants themselves at the time of talking (e.g. Liebscher & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009; Jenkins, 2014). The findings obtained from the qualitative studies extended the knowledge of how the participants perceived and interpreted their own and others' English abilities and practices along with language policies, which provides evidence that statistics-based studies alone are likely to produce misleading results. It is because people's conceptualizations of an attitude object widely differ depending on various dynamics. However, the impacts of such dynamics are dismissed from consideration in research that merely examines attitudes with statistical measures.

The present study has proven to be particularly valuable to its participants as well by increasing their awareness of the situation in which many of the language issues seem to have been taken for granted and thus have remained unproblematized thus far. The study has drawn their attention to the linguistic issues marginalized in English language policy by administrators in positions of influence. This attempt to benefit research participants amounts to what Cameron et al. (1993) called researching *with* people versus researching *on* people and researching *for* people with respect to types of research based on relationships between researchers and the people they are researching. They called the type of research which is on, for and with people, and which recognizes and addresses people's own agendas empowering research. I am resolutely of the belief that this research has been somewhat empowering as it has not only benefited from the data yielded by the participants but also has given back to them by reducing their lack of awareness of what it means to use English in a context where the majority of speakers are from the same L1 group and to a lesser extent speak English as a lingua franca. This is of particular importance given that the norms and taken-for-granted assumptions governing people's traditional orientations to English go hand in hand with lack of awareness.

Lastly, the present research makes contributions to knowledge in the fields of EAP and ELT. The results underlined the role of previous ELT and EAP practices on the participants' monolithic perceptions of English and their aspired native-English norm-dependent language use, particularly amongst students who were found to be more prone to the influences of their language/EAP teachers and the linguistic market (e.g. textbooks, dictionaries, usage guides). Furthermore, the results showed, based on what students said about their previous EAP and ELT teachers' practices, that ELT and EAP practitioners' approach to English and their perspectives on (academic) English was a rather conforming one (see Jenkins, 2014, pp. 48-49, for a well founded grouping of the approaches to academic English/EAP). Those approaches towards (academic) English/EAP were, as reported by many students and lecturers, not fruitful in terms of preparing speakers for real-life language use and, more specifically, for high-stakes communication situations--such as in academia which is now characterized by linguistic diversity.

Unlike previous studies, in this research, such conforming approaches to English and EAP are problematized and questioned since these approaches help the privileged status

of NESs and their norms to be preserved among NNES users of English--not only in Turkey but also around the world--and prevents other alternatives from being considered. Against this backdrop, this research has approached the concepts of (academic) English, ELT and EAP through a new lens which rejects conforming to the conventions of certain inner circle speakers and their norms (thereby aligning more with an ELFA approach), but instead has challenged such traditional approaches to English/EAP and their old-fashioned conceptualisations of linguistic terms (e.g. language (in general), variety, (good) English--both written and spoken--, and the notions of user and learner. Such an approach to ELT and EAP has, of course, implications for these fields as well as their practitioners. These will be discussed at length in the following sections.

## **9.5 Implications**

The implications of the findings are presented in two categories as ideological and practical implications.

### **9.5.1 Ideological implications**

The findings of this study have raised important questions about the conceptualization of some key notions pertaining to English (e.g. proficiency, language use and language policy). The concepts which stood out quite frequently in the discussions are good English, appropriate English and user-vs-learner dichotomy. Of course, these notions might be interpreted in various ways depending on several factors, such as the types of context (e.g. educational, business, service, etc.) and the individual person who interprets these terms. In this research, *good English*, to many of the participants, meant *correct English* or *native-like English*, and *appropriate English* was covertly characterized as standard native English, especially in policy and website data. These findings add further support to the need to distinguish good English from correct English and native-like English in a setting where English is not the end itself, but the means to the end, i.e. a tool for effective fulfilment of academic tasks and requirements. Such a distinction was made almost two decades ago by Greenbaum (1996), who explicated the differences between the two concepts as follows:

Good English is sometimes equated with correct English, but the two concepts should be differentiated. *Correct English is conformity to the norms of the standard language. Good English is good use of the resources available in the language.* In that sense we can use a non-standard dialect

well and we can use the standard language badly. *By good English we may mean language used effectively or aesthetically: language that conveys clearly and appropriately what is intended* and language that is pleasing to the listener or reader (pp. 17-18; my italics).

Similar distinctions to that of Greenbaum (1996) have been widely drawn in the works of ELF(A) researchers, with some modified interpretations of good English (e.g. Björkman, 2011, 2013; Jenkins, 2014; Mauranen et al., 2010; Mauranen, 2012). A broad consensus among them is that good English is not associated with correctness or conformity to native speaker norms. What they suggest instead is that good English should be taken as effective usage of English both in speaking and writing by people who can make use of the linguistic resources at their disposal for the sake of achieving their desired outcomes. Correctness cannot entirely be dismissed, though. As the findings of this study point out, for many participants, grammatical accuracy becomes a matter of concern once the lack of it in language use leads to confusion and ambiguity in the comprehension of the content and meaning. Overall, though, the findings suggest a change of mentality from equating good English with correctness among people who will use English in high-stakes communication situations where correctness and adherence to native speaker norms are less important than getting the job done in an efficient manner (such as in academia).

The second notion which came to the fore in the accounts of the participants and in the examination of language policies and practices was related to the status of speakers in EMI settings. The general portrayals of the EMI stakeholders, notably the students indicated the dominance of deficit approach to non-native language users of English, still treated as learners of English and deficient/failed native speakers. The evidence from this study suggests that the mindset of the traditionalists who assume that “[t]he native is the ‘speaker,’ while the non-native is eternally the ‘learner’ ” (Mauranen, 2005, p. 272) is wrong and should thus be abandoned, particularly in the use of English international contexts, for which EMI is a good example. This entrenched mindset should be challenged mainly because it is one of the main detrimental factors hampering individuals’ successful language use. The replacement of this deficit approach with a more post-normative one has been strongly argued by ELF(A) researchers. They argue for a movement from the NES ideal to a more communication-based perspective on NNEs in which they will be seen, for example, as a “skilled English user” (Jenkins, 2011, p. 931), “effective communicator” (Björkman, 2011, p. 1), or “intercultural

speaker” (Baker, 2011, p. 4) within their disciplinary domains. Despite the variations in researchers’ naming of the successful user, what they seem to concur in their descriptions of these terms is that a successful language user is someone armed with the skills to modify and adapt their language behaviours in accordance with the communicative needs of their interlocutors and the interactional settings by using appropriate pragmatic strategies and their own lingua-cultural resources.

### **9.5.2 Practical implications**

The findings of this research provide insights for some practical issues germane to the use of English for academic purposes in EMI. Firstly, the results of the study offer important implications for policy makers and content teachers in Turkish HE as a consequence of the observation that institutions’ language policies, practices and content teachers had high degree of influence on participants’ normative orientations to English. The following tentative recommendations are particularly offered to policy makers who make decisions on language issues and content teachers who have some degree of control over students’ language production:

- English language policies and practices in Turkish HE should be revised in light of the current sociolinguistic reality of English use by welcoming not only cultural diversity, but also linguistic diversity.
  - More appropriate tests need to be designed for the assessment of people’s language proficiency.
  - More appropriate teaching materials need to be designed and used in the teaching of academic English in pre- and within-faculty EAP courses.
  - More discipline-specific academic support is needed for students to improve their disciplinary and academic literacy skills rather than to achieve a native-like proficiency.
  - Speaking should be devoted more attention both in the entry requirements and EAP courses.
- Lecturers should reconsider their normative expectations/demands of students’ written and spoken practices and question their own practices.
  - More tolerance is needed towards students’ non-native ways of ‘doing’ English.



- In the assessment of students' written coursework and oral performance, more focus needs to be placed on content and meaning, and their Englishing, i.e. what they can do/achieve by using English (Hall, 2014), and students' oral performance should not be evaluated against written standard norms.
- Intercultural awareness and skills of lecturers need to be increased through courses and trainings so that they can have a change of heart about English, its current use, and users (Baker, 2011, 2015).

The research found that apart from the language policies and content teachers, previous educational experiences and language learning experiences in the university EAP programs had some degree of impacts on the ways the participants oriented to English. On that note, this research has also implications for ELT and EAP instruction and language teachers in Turkey as well as in other similar settings. The most overarching implication is that ELT/EAP practices should be aligned with the present sociolinguistic reality of English use, taking notice of learners' current and future communication purposes and needs. The first step to teach English in a way that is in compatible with its current status and widest use is to question, re-examine, and revise the domineering NES model in the field of ELT and traditional EAP policies and teaching practices as this model becomes less critical in situations where English will be used predominantly by its NNEs. What is needed instead is to raise learners' awareness of the other alternatives, and let them make their own choice out of the available options.

Another important point is that language users should be linguistically, culturally, and pragmatically equipped with the skills to be able to communicate in a range of diverse settings with speakers from various L1 backgrounds. A final note is that since most of the students that are enrolled in EMI programs in non-English dominant countries such as Turkey and China (see, e.g. Hu, 2015) are from the same L1, the use of L1 as well as others available in students' language repertoire should not be seen as a sign of deficiency by teachers but a powerful linguistic resource of bi/multi-lingual students. Therefore, the likely influences of students' first and other languages on or, in Jenkins's (2015b) words " 'language leakage' " (p. 79) into, their English use should not result in mark reduction in assessment.

Any revision in the target model naturally necessitates adjustments of the teaching materials. As the results indicated, the teaching materials had a key role in people's normative orientations to English, as these materials were reported to be promoting native English as the only legitimate variety and NESs as ideal speakers. More realistic materials need to be designed, in particular for listening, with the inclusion of non-native English accents and non-standard native English accents. In this regard, Kitazawa (2013) argued that exposing users to different varieties/accents might be the first step in the right direction to raise their awareness, but what is more effective is to put them in an "open engagement with differences across uses, users and contexts of English" (p. 261).

Above all, any change in the traditional ELT/EAP practices can be realized by teachers' openness to change in their approach to language. As was found in this research, as key policy actors and role models for students, teachers have the power of leading students to hold particular views of English and to adopt certain ways of using English. In this way, they can also perpetuate the existing educational ideologies of English as to how it should be used, conceptualized, approached, learnt, and taught in the classroom environment. At the abstract level, my research demonstrates that there is thus a need for teachers to reflect on and question their ideas, approaches, expectations, and practices in regards to English. Teachers should also think about how relevant their approaches and expectations are to their immediate context of language teaching and for their students and students' communicative needs. At the practical level, the research implies that they also need to revise their normative expectations and practices. For instance, the findings clearly suggest that teachers abandon representing StE as a model for students and show more tolerance to variations in students' language production, especially in regards to students' spoken English. Regarding spoken English, Pilkinton-Pihko (2013) concluded in her research on assessment of successful communication in EMI settings that there should be "a comprehensibility goal over native-likeness for assessing spoken professional English in an international context" (p. 3). To this end, a crucial step teachers may take is adopting error correction techniques which are primarily meaning-focused rather than accuracy-focused (Weekly, 2015). Similarly, in assessment, as Jenkins (2006b) argued, teachers need to be more attentive to the content and meaning than ENL correctness, which was reported by some lecturers and several students to contribute less to mutual intelligibility than they believed.

## **9.6 Summary and conclusion**

This research was born out of a need to address the linguistic issues around the concept of EMI in Turkey at a time when globalization and internationalization have been extensively articulated in research discourse in HE but with a lack of consideration of language, language use, and pedagogic practices. These issues were addressed from the perspectives of teaching staff and students with an eye to exploring the ways they gravitated towards issues around the use and teaching of English in HE.

Based on the accounts, feelings, and views of the participants, the research has successfully shown that their perceptions of linguistic issues, including their own and others' English abilities and use, were largely under the influence of the abovementioned educational ideologies relating to English, its teaching, and its use. Furthermore, the link between the intended practices implied in the university policies, and the desired practices described in the participants' words indicated the university managements' role in upholding the existing ideologies among most lecturers and students by conveying a monolithic view of English in their policy documents and practices. The research has also shed light on the role of policy actors (i.e. content and language teachers) in further instilling these ideologies in students through their own practices and the demands they make of their students' language use. Furthermore, the research has managed to identify several factors that expounded how some participants could resist these educational ideologies. I should note that some of the conclusions relating to language policies and ideologies are by no means idiosyncratic to Turkey, but rather ones which can be found across much of the globe today — as I noted above (see Section 9. 2) whilst presenting the extended summary of the research findings.

All the achievements of this research have had a number of implications, as discussed at greater length earlier. Although what has been achieved in this research might be a single drop in the ocean of EMI research, especially in Turkey, I feel that the research has at least taken, in Jenkins's (2014) words, "a step in the right direction" (p. 207) at a time when language has not been made a central category of analysis in EMI research, despite its timeliness in the context of internationalization of HE. It is thus my hope that the implications drawn from the exploration of the linguistic issues at the centre of EMI will culminate in universities' integration of genuine international perspectives in their policies and practices, especially in Turkey/Turkish HE and elsewhere with similar HE

institutions (e.g. Greece, Italy, and Spain). I also hope that the practical implications will lead to a change in universities in the traditional ELT and EAP policies and practices to better equip students with skills required in real life situations, i.e. for communication in global settings. Finally, it is my hope that this research will benefit people who use English as a vehicle in various domains by prompting them to think about what they have taken for granted regarding English and accordingly set more realistic goals that can be achieved and are relevant for effective language use.

## Appendices

### Appendix 1: Sample size by data collection method, universities and faculties

#### Data collection method

Group	Number of participants by data-collection method		
	Questionnaire Survey	Interview	Focus Group
Students	351	20	9
Lecturers	72	14	N/A
Total	423	34	9

#### University

Data collection method				
Lecturers		Questionnaire survey	Interview	Focus group
University	Bilkent	24	4	-
	Boğaziçi	22	3	-
	METU	26	7	-
	Total	72	14	
Students				
University	Bilkent	132	7	5
	Boğaziçi	106	7	4
	METU	113	6	-
	Total	351	20	9

#### Faculty

Discipline					
Lecturers		International Relations	Mechanical Engineering	History	Total
University	Bilkent	11	12	1	24
	Boğaziçi	6	7	9	22
	METU	7	15	4	26
	Total	24	34	14	72
Students					
University	Bilkent	38	63	31	132
	Boğaziçi	36	26	44	106
	METU	32	49	32	113
Total		138	106	107	351

## Appendix 2: Student Questionnaire

Dear Student,

This questionnaire has been designed to explore your perceptions of English. More specifically, it aims to find out what you think about your English ability, and English language policies in the university. Please note that all the information you provide will remain confidential and anonymous. Thus, please, feel free to express whatever you think about the items. I am very interested in finding out **your own opinions** on the items. The participation in the study is voluntary and you can withdraw at any time.

Thank you very much for your cooperation and help!

Ali Karakas (contact me at ak16g11@soton.ac.uk)

### SECTION 1: Background information

#### Personal Details

1. Your age: 18-24 [ ] 25-32 [ ] 33+ [ ]
2. Your gender: male [ ] female [ ]
3. Your university: [ ]
4. Your department: [ ]

#### Language information

5. Have you ever **visited**, **studied** or **lived** abroad? YES [ ] NO [ ]

If you answered YES, please specify by completing the following chart.

Where	For how long?

6. Have you taken any **English proficiency test** before starting your degree in the university? YES [ ] NO [ ]

If yes, which test did you take?

TOEFL [ ] IELTS [ ] University's English exam [ ] other [ ] \_\_\_\_\_

7. Have you attended university's preparatory school? YES [ ] NO [ ]

8. Have you ever studied in an English-medium school prior to your studies in the university? YES [ ] NO [ ]

9. Would you be willing to participate in an interview to discuss your answers to the questions?

YES [ ] NO [ ]

If yes, please provide your email:

## SECTION 2: Perceptions of English Ability

A. Please mark the best option that characterizes the level of your academic English. **O**

	poor	satisfactory	good	excellent
My <b>writing</b> ability is	1	2	3	4
My <b>listening</b> ability is	1	2	3	4
My <b>vocabulary</b> knowledge is	1	2	3	4
My <b>speaking</b> ability is	1	2	3	4
My <b>general English proficiency</b> is	1	2	3	4

B. Please show how much you agree or disagree with the following statements with a tick.

The following statements relate to what you think about different aspects of <b>your academic English skills</b>	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. I have an adequate vocabulary to write in English.				
2. My speaking is free from grammatical errors.				
3. My English (accent) sounds like native English.				
4. I can communicate successfully in English.				
5. I have a good English pronunciation				
6. My English is easy to understand.				
7. I have fluency in English.				

C. Please mark the best option that characterizes what you think of your friends' and lecturers' English

	poor	satisfactory	good	excellent
1. My non-Turkish friends' English is (except native English)	1	2	3	4
2. My Turkish friends' English is	1	2	3	4
3. My lecturers' English is	1	2	3	4

### SECTION: 3 Views of English / English use

1. Which of the two statements below comes closer to your views of English?

- ☐ English is a language which belongs to whoever uses it.
- ☐ English is a language which belongs to its native speakers.

2. What is your goal in speaking academic English? Please choose only one with a tick

- ☐ to be a competent speaker, that is, it's OK to have a Turkish accent and make some grammatical mistakes as long as I am understood
- ☐ to speak like British speakers.
- ☐ to speak like other native speakers (e.g. Australians, Canadians, etc.)
- ☐ to speak like American speakers.
- ☐ other \_\_\_\_\_

3. What is your goal in writing academic English? Please choose only one with a tick.

- ☐ to be a competent writer, that is, it's OK to make some grammatical mistakes as long as my writing is understood.
- ☐ to write like British speakers.
- ☐ to write like other native speakers of English (e.g. Australians, Canadians)
- ☐ to write like American speakers.
- ☐ other \_\_\_\_\_

4. What do you think about the English you use? Please **choose only one** with a tick ✓

- ☐ It has its own characteristics with influence of the Turkish language
- ☐ British English (BrE) / closer to BrE
- ☐ American English (AmE) / closer to AmE
- ☐ Other: \_\_\_\_\_

5. Which varieties of English are you familiar with? **You can choose more than one.**

- ☐ I am familiar with some non-native English accents (e.g. German, Polish accent)
- ☐ I am familiar with other varieties (e.g. Indian English, Pakistani English)
- ☐ I am familiar American English.
- ☐ I am familiar with other native varieties of English (e.g. Australian English, etc.)
- ☐ I am familiar with British English
- ☐ Other: \_\_\_\_\_

6. What do you think is the ideal way for students in your department to learn the content courses in English? Please, **choose only one** with a tick (✓)

- ☐ with Turkish lecturers who can deliver the courses in English.
- ☐ it does not matter whether they are native English or Turkish lecturers
- ☐ with native English speaking lecturers.
- ☐ other \_\_\_\_\_



**B.** Please show how much you agree or disagree with the following statements. Tick a box for each statement.

What do you feel about using English?	Strongly agree	Agree	disagree	Strongly disagree
<b>a.</b> It is important to be aware of the English spoken by other non-native speakers.				
<b>b.</b> It is important to learn about the features of English which can be understood internationally, not just in one or two countries.				
<b>c.</b> It is important to know that different culture use English differently.				
<b>e.</b> It is important to know about other national varieties of English besides British and American English (e.g. Australian, Canadian English.)				

#### SECTION 4: ENGLISH AND LANGUAGE POLICIES

1. Please show how much you **agree or disagree** with the following statements. Tick a box for each statement.

The following statements concern English language policies of the university.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. The preparatory school of the university attempts to teach students native English (e.g. British or American English).				
2. In the university, good academic writing should be identified in terms of intelligibility (i.e. comprehensibility) rather than writing like native English speakers.				
3. The materials (e.g. dictionaries, textbooks, etc.) used in the prep school promote British or American English as the legitimate kinds of English.				
4. English preparatory school helps students improve their English skills before starting their degree programs.				
5. The university's own English proficiency exam measures students' English skills in British or American English.				
6. It is important for lecturers to have native English proficiency in order to teach departmental courses in English.				

7. International proficiency exams (i.e. TOEFL, IELTS) test students' proficiency in native (British or American) English.				
8. It is important to write either in American or British English in exam papers and assignments.				
9. It is necessary to get language support from the university (e.g. from academic writing centres) to be able to write good English.				
10. The university prefers students to use either British or American English in their study rather than other kinds of English.				
11. The materials (e.g. dictionaries, textbooks) used in the preparatory school promote native English speakers as the ideal speakers.				
12. It is fair that all non-native English students should take the proficiency exam to study in this university.				
13. Lecturers expect students to conform to native academic English in terms of their spoken English.				
14. Lecturers want students to write their assignments and exam papers in native or native-like English.				
15. Lecturers should also take a proficiency test to prove that they can teach departmental courses in English.				

Please use this space if you would like to provide me with feedback and suggestions.

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THANK YOU

### Appendix 3: Lecturer Questionnaire

Dear Faculty Member,

This questionnaire has been designed to explore your perceptions of English, more specifically what you think about your English ability and language use, and English language policies in the university. Please note that all the information you provide will remain confidential and anonymous. Thus, please feel free to express whatever you think about the items. I am very interested in finding out **your own opinions** on the items. The participation in the study is voluntary and you can withdraw at any time.

Thank you very much for your cooperation and help!

Ali Karakas (contact me at ak16g11@soton.ac.uk)

#### SECTION 1: Background information

##### Personal Details

1. Your age : 30-39 [ ] 40-49 [ ]  
50-59 [ ] 60 + [ ]
2. Your gender: male [ ] female [ ]
3. Your university:
4. Your department:
5. Your title :

6. How many years have you been teaching in English?

7. Have you ever **visited**, **studied** or **lived** abroad? YES [ ] NO [ ]

If you answered YES, please specify by completing the following table.

Where	For how long?

8. Where did you get your academic degrees?

Degree	Country	Name of the university	Language of instruction
PhD			

9. Would you be willing to participate in an interview to discuss your answers to the questions? YES [ ] NO [ ]

If yes, please provide your contact information:

Email:

## SECTION 2: Perceptions of English Ability

A. Please mark the best option that characterizes your academic English.

0

	poor	satisfactory	good	excellent
1. My <b>writing</b> ability is	1	2	4	5
2. My <b>listening</b> ability is	1	2	4	5
3. My <b>vocabulary</b> knowledge is	1	2	4	5
4. My <b>speaking</b> ability is	1	2	4	5
5. My overall <b>English</b> proficiency is	1	2	4	5

B. Please show how much you agree or disagree with the following statements with a tick.

The following statements relate to how you think about different aspects of <b>your English skills</b> .	Strongly agree	Agree	disagree	Strongly disagree
1. I have an adequate vocabulary to write in English.				
2. My speaking is free from basic grammatical errors.				
3. My English sounds like native English.				
4. I can communicate successfully in English.				
5. I have fluency in English.				
6. I have good English pronunciation.				
7. I have a native-like accent.				

C. Please mark the best option that characterizes **what you think of your students' English**.

	poor	satisfactory	good	excellent
1. My Turkish students' English proficiency is	1	2	3	4
2. My non-Turkish students' English (except native English students) is	1	2	3	4

### SECTION 3: Views of English / English use

A. Please choose the option that best represents your view

1. Which of the two statements below comes closer to your views of English?

- ☐ English is a language which belongs to whoever uses it.
- ☐ English is a language which belongs to its native speakers.

2. What is your goal in speaking academic English? Please choose only one with a tick

- ☐ to be a competent speaker, that is, it's OK to have a Turkish accent and make some grammatical mistakes as long as I am understood
- ☐ to speak like British speakers.
- ☐ to speak like other native speakers (e.g. Australians, Canadians, etc.)
- ☐ to speak like American speakers.
- ☐ other .....

3. What is your goal in writing academic English? Please choose only one with a tick.

- ☐ to be a competent writer, that is, it's OK to make some grammatical mistakes as long as my writing is understood.
- ☐ to write like American speakers.
- ☐ to write like other native speakers of English.
- ☐ to write like British speakers.
- ☐ other

4. What do you think about the English you use? Please **choose only one** with a tick ✓

- ☐ It has its own characteristics with influence of the Turkish language
- ☐ British English (BrE) / closer to BrE
- ☐ American English (AmE) / closer to AmE
- ☐ Other:.....

5. Which varieties of English are you familiar with? **You can choose more than one.**

- ☐ I am familiar with some non-native English accents (e.g. German, Polish accent)
- ☐ I am familiar with other varieties (e.g. Indian English, Pakistani English)
- ☐ I am familiar with American English.
- ☐ I am familiar with other native varieties of English (e.g. Australian English, etc.)
- ☐ I am familiar with British English.
- ☐ other:.....

6. What do you think is the ideal way for students in your department to learn the content courses in English? Please, **choose only one** with a tick (✓)

- ☐ with Turkish lecturers who can deliver the courses in English.
- ☐ it does not matter whether they are native English or Turkish lecturers
- ☐ with native English speaking lecturers.
- ☐ other

**B.** Please show how much you agree or disagree with the following statements. Tick a box for each statement.

What do you feel about using English?	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
<b>1.</b> It is important to be aware of the English spoken by other non-native speakers.				
<b>2.</b> It is important to learn about the features of English which can be understood internationally, not just in one or two countries.				
<b>3.</b> It is important to know that different cultures use English differently.				
<b>4.</b> It is important to know about other national varieties of English besides British and American English (e.g. Australian, Canadian English).				

#### SECTION 4: English Language Policies

1. Please show how much you **agree or disagree** with the following statements. Tick a box for each statement.

The following statements relate to English language policies of the university.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
<b>1.</b> The language proficiency test (YDS) fail to sufficiently measure the level of lecturers' academic English skills.				
<b>2.</b> The preparatory school helps students improve their English for studying content courses in English.				
<b>3.</b> Students' academic writing should conform to either American or British English in their exam papers and assignments.				
<b>4.</b> Communicative success is more important than speaking correctly in oral contexts (e.g. presentations, discussions).				
<b>5.</b> International proficiency tests (e.g. TOEFL, IELTS) test students' proficiency in British or American English.				
<b>6.</b> Lecturers tend to write in Turkish first, and then make their papers translated into English for publishing.				
<b>7.</b> Lecturers should be more tolerant towards students' English as long as their English is intelligible				

(comprehensible).				
8. Students should get language support from the university (e.g. from academic writing centres) to be able to improve their writing skills.				
9. The university wants lecturers to use British or American English in teaching rather than other kinds of English.				
10. It is reasonable that lecturers should also take a proficiency test to prove that they can teach in English-medium programs.				
11. Good academic writing should be identified in terms of intelligibility (comprehensibility) rather than writing like native English speakers.				
12. It is important for students to have native English proficiency in order to learn departmental courses in English.				
13. It is fair that all non-native English students should take the proficiency exam if they are not graduates of English medium schools.				
14. The university enforces native English on lecturers by forcing them to publish their papers in English.				
15. Lecturers often get their papers proofread in order to avoid rejection of their papers by journals.				

Please use this space if you would like to provide me with feedback and suggestions.

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.....

.....

THANK YOU

## **Appendix 4: Sample Interview Guide**

**A. Warm-up topics:** Previous studies; motivation to teach/study though English

### **B. Perceptions of English language skills**

- ❖ Own English
- ❖ Turkish/non-Turkish Students' English
- ❖ Lecturers' English skills

### **C. Use of English for academic and social purposes**

- ❖ Goals in spoken academic English
- ❖ Expectation of their spoken English
- ❖ Goals in writing academic English
- ❖ Expectations of their written English
- ❖ Expectations from students' written and spoken English
- ❖ Conceptualization of Good English (speaking & writing)

### **D. Views on the Status & Use of English**

- ❖ With who they communicate more successfully
- ❖ Ownership debate
- ❖ Other varieties of English & English used by NNEs
- ❖ English in Turkish Higher Education

### **E. Views on English Language Policies and Practices**

English language policies of the university/department

- ❖ English preparatory school
- ❖ English language entry requirements (tests)
- ❖ Types of English tested in the exams
- ❖ Exemptions from the tests
- ❖ Proficiency test for lecturers
- ❖ Language support for Students & Academics
- ❖ Types of language support available
- ❖ English Language requirements for academics
- ❖ Tests for promotion, publishing, expectations of journals
- ❖ Type of English required



## Appendix 5: Ethics and Research Governance Online (ERGO) Sample Forms

### Anket Onay Formu (ver. 1):

### Questionnaire Consent Form (ver. 1):

**Çalışmanın başlığı:** İngilizce Eğitim veren Üniversitelerdeki Türk Öğrencilerin ve Hocaların İngilizce Algıları

**Study title:** Turkish University Students and Lecturers' Perceptions of English in English-Medium Instruction (EMI)

**Araştırmacının adı:** Ali Karakaş

**Staff/Student number:** 24466956

**Researcher name:** Ali Karakas

**ERGO referans no:** 8403

**Öğrenci numarası:** 24466956

**ERGO reference number:** 8403

*Aşağıdaki ifadelere katılıyorsanız lütfen kutucukları paraflayınız.*

*Please initial the box(es) if you agree with the statement(s):*

Bilgi formunu okudum ve anladım ve çalışma hakkında soru sorma fırsatım oldu.

☐

1. I have read and understood the participant information sheet and have had the opportunity to ask questions about the study.

2. Bu projeye katılmayı ve bilgilerimin çalışmanın amaçları doğrultusunda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.

☐

I agree to take part in this research project and agree for my data to be used for the purpose of this study

3. Çalışmaya katılımımın gönüllü olduğunu ve yasal haklarımın etkilenmeksizin çalışmadan çekilebileceğimi biliyorum.

☐

I understand my participation is voluntary and I may withdraw at any time

#### *Verilerin Korunması*

*Bu çalışmaya katılımım sürecinde tarafımdan toplanan bilgilerin şifre korumalı bir bilgisayarda saklanacağından ve bilgilerin sadece araştırmanın amacı doğrultusunda kullanacağını anlıyorum. Kişisel bilgiler içeren tüm dosyalardan kişilerin kimlikleri silinecektir.*

#### *Data Protection*

*I understand that information collected about me during my participation in this study will be stored on a password protected computer and that this information will only be used for the purpose of this study. All files containing any personal data will be made anonymous.*

Katılımcının adı / Name of participant (print name).....

Katılımcının imzası / Signature of participant.....

Tarih / Date

## Anket Katılımcı Bilgi Formu (ver. 1)

### Questionnaire Participant Information Sheet (ver. 1)

**Çalışmanın başlığı:** İngilizce Eğitim veren Üniversitelerdeki Türk Öğrencilerin ve Hocaların İngilizce Algıları

**Study Title:** Turkish University Students and Lecturers' Perceptions of English in English-Medium Instruction (EMI)

**Araştırmacı:** Ali Karakaş

**Etik no:** 8403

**Researcher:** Ali Karakaş

**Ethics number:** 8403

Bu araştırmada yer almak için karar vermeden önce bu bilgileri dikkatlice okuyun. Eğer katılmak isterseniz bir onay formu imzalamanız istenecektir.

**Please read this information carefully before deciding to take part in this research. If you are happy to participate you will be asked to sign a consent form.**

#### 1. Bu çalışmanın konusu ne?

Ben Ali Karakaş, Southampton Üniversitesinde doktora öğrencisiyim. Bu çalışma doktora çalışmam çerçevesinde yürütülmektedir ve Southampton Üniversitesi tarafından desteklenmektedir. Amacım İngilizce Eğitim veren üniversitelerdeki öğrenci ve hocaların genel olarak İngilizce ve İngilizce kullanımları ile alakalı görüşlerini incelemek ve ayrıca üniversitenizin İngiliz Dil politikaları ile alakalı algılarını saptamak.

#### What is the research about?

I am Ali Karakaş, a doctoral student at Southampton University, UK. This research has been designed as part of my PhD project and sponsored by the University of Southampton, and it aims to explore Turkish university students and lecturers' perceptions of English, more specifically what they think of their academic English proficiency and language use, and how they perceive English language policies in the university.

#### 2. Neden ben seçildim?

Çalışma İngilizce eğitim veren üniversitelerdeki lisans öğrencileri ve üniversite hocaları ile yürütüleceğinden dolayı, sizin okulunuzdaki İngiliz dil politikaları ve uygulamaları ve dil kullanımınızla ilgili görüş ve deneyimleriniz çalışmam için en uygun verileri oluşturacaktır.

#### Why have I been chosen?

As my research is aimed to be conducted with Turkish students and lecturers in English-medium universities, as you are currently based in one of these universities, you are in a position to provide the most appropriate data for my research in terms of your views of the universities' English language policies and practices, and perceptions of your English use and desires.

#### 3. Çalışmada yer alırsam bana ne olacak?

Çalışmada yer almayı kabul ederseniz, sizden size verilen 4 sayfalık ve tamamı kapalı uçlu sorulardan oluşan bir anket doldurmanız istenecektir. Anketleri doldurmanız yaklaşık 10-15 dakika sürecektir. Anket size İngilizceniz, İngilizce kullanımınız ve üniversitenizin İngiliz dil politikaları ve uygulamaları ile ilgili sorular sormaktadır.

#### **What will happen to me if I take part?**

When you agree to participate in the study, you will be given a 4-page questionnaire which totally consists of close-ended questions and be asked to complete that questionnaire. It will take you roughly 10 to 15 minutes to complete it. The questionnaire asks you questions with respect to your English skills and use, and your university's English language policies and practices.

#### **4. Benim çalışmada yer almamda herhangi bir yarar var mı?**

Çalışmada yer almanız üniversitenizde İngilizceye yaklaşımlarla alakalı sizi bilgilendirecektir. Ve elde edilen veriler sizin bu yaklaşımları sorgulamanızı ve üzerinde düşünmenize yardımcı olabilir. İstedığınız takdirde çalışma bulguları sizinle paylaşılacaktır.

#### **Are there any benefits in my taking part?**

Your participation in this research will raise your awareness of different approaches to English in the university. And the data gathered might help you to question and ponder on these approaches. Upon your request, the summary of the findings may be shared with you.

#### **5. Herhangi bir risk var mı?**

Tahmin edilen herhangi bir risk yok.

#### **Are there any risks involved?**

There are no anticipated risks involved in this research.

#### **6. Katılımım gizli olacak mı?**

Bu çalışma Southampton üniversitesinin Etik ilkeleri doğrultusunda yürütülecek ve katılımınız ve verileriniz tamamen anonim olacak ve bilgiler şifre korumalı bir bilgisayarda muhafaza edilecektir. Çalışma sonunda tüm bilgiler yok edilecektir.

#### **Will my participation be confidential?**

This research is conducted by abiding by University of Southampton's ethical policy and thus your participation and the data will remain completely confidential. The data will be stored in a password-protected computer, and at the end of the study the data will be completely deleted from the computer.

#### **7. Fikrimi değiştirirsem ne olur?**

Çalışmadan istediğiniz an sebep sunmaksızın çekilebilirsiniz

#### **What happens if I change my mind?**

You have the right to withdraw from the study, without having to provide any reason.

## **8. Herhangi bir sıkıntı olursa ne olacak?**

Herhangi bir sıkıntı ya da problemle karşılaşmanız durumunda Southampton Üniversitesi Fakülte Etik Kurulu başkanı Profesör Chris Janaway ile irtibata geçebilirsiniz ([c.janaway@soton.ac.uk](mailto:c.janaway@soton.ac.uk), +44(0)23 8059 3424). (İrtibat dili olarak İngilizceyi kullanmanız gerekebilir.)

## **What happens if something goes wrong?**

In the unlikely case of concern or complaint, you can contact the Chair of the Faculty Ethics Committee at the University of Southampton, Professor Chris Janaway ([c.janaway@soton.ac.uk](mailto:c.janaway@soton.ac.uk), +44(0)23 8059 3424). (You might need to use English to be able to contact Prof. Chris Janaway.)

## **9. Nereden daha fazla bilgi edinebilirim?**

Çalışma ile daha fazla bilgiye ihtiyaç duyarsanız Ali Karakaş ile tereddüt etmeden irtibata geçebilirsiniz, [ak16g11@soton.ac.uk](mailto:ak16g11@soton.ac.uk)

## **Where can I get more information?**

Should you need further information about the research, you can contact Ali Karakas without hesitation at [ak16g11@soton.ac.uk](mailto:ak16g11@soton.ac.uk)

## Appendix 6: METU research ethics committee approval

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ  
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER



ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ  
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Sayı: 28620816/

03.12 2013

Gönderilen : Prof. Jennifer Jenkins  
Uygulamalı Dilbilim

Gönderen : Prof. Dr. Canan Özgen  
IAK Başkanı

İlgi : Etik Onayı

Danışmanlığını yapmış olduğunuz Uygulamalı Dilbilim Bölümü öğrencisi Ali Karakaş'ın "Turkish University Students and Lecturers' Perceptions of English in English-Medium Instruction (EMI) (İngilizce Eğitim Veren Üniversitelerdeki Türk Öğrencilerin ve Hocaların İngilizce Algıları)" isimli araştırması "İnsan Araştırmaları Komitesi" tarafından uygun görülerek gerekli onay verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.

Etik Komite Onayı

Uygundur

03/12/2013

Prof.Dr. Canan Özgen  
Uygulamalı Etik Araştırma Merkezi  
(UEAM) Başkanı  
ODTÜ 06531 ANKARA

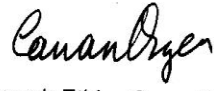


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Sayı: 28620816/

03.12.2013

To : Prof. Jennifer Jenkins  
Faculty of Humanities  
Modern Languages  
Southampton University

From : Prof. Dr. Canan Özgen   
Chairperson of Human Research Ethics Committee

Subject : Ethical Approval

The study titled "Turkish University Students and Lecturers' Perceptions of English in English-Medium Instruction (EMI)." was approved by "Human Researches Ethics Committee".

Sincerely,

Ethical Committee Approval

Approved

03/12/2013



Prof.Dr. Canan ÖZGEN  
Applied Ethics Research Center  
( UEAM ) Chairperson  
ODTÜ 06800 ANKARA

## Appendix 7: Boğaziçi University research ethics committee approval

**BOĞAZİÇİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ**  
**İnsan Araştırmaları Kurumsal Değerlendirme Kurulu (İNAREK) Toplantı Tutanağı**  
**2013/6**

---

16.12.2013

Ali Karakaş,  
Faculty of Humanities, Modern Languages, Southampton University,  
Highfield Road, Southampton, Hampshire SO171BJ, UK.  
ak16g11@soton.ac.uk / akarakas@mehmetakif.edu.tr

Sayın Araştırmacı,

"İngilizce Eğitim veren Üniversitelerdeki Türk Öğrencilerin ve Hocaların İngilizce Algıları" başlıklı projeniz ile yaptığınız Boğaziçi Üniversitesi İnsan Araştırmaları Kurumsal Değerlendirme Kurulu (İNAREK) 2013/70 kayıt numaralı başvuru 16.12.2013 tarihli ve 2013/6 sayılı kurul toplantısında incelenerek etik onay verilmesi uygun bulunmuştur.

Saygılarımızla,



Prof. Dr. Hande Çağlayan (Başkan)  
Moleküler Biyoloji ve Genetik Bölümü,  
Fen-Edebiyat Fakültesi, Boğaziçi Üniversitesi,  
İstanbul



Yrd. Doç. Dr. Özgür Kocatürk  
Biyo-Medikal Mühendisliği Enstitüsü  
Boğaziçi Üniversitesi,  
İstanbul



Prof. Dr. Betül Baykan-Baykal  
Nöroloji Bölümü, İstanbul Tıp Fakültesi,  
İstanbul Üniversitesi,  
İstanbul



Yrd. Doç. Dr. Özlem Hesapçı  
İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi,  
İşletme Bölümü, Boğaziçi Üniversitesi,  
İstanbul



Prof. Dr. Yeşim Atamer  
Hukuk Fakültesi, İstanbul Bilgi Üniversitesi,  
İstanbul



Yrd. Doç. Dr. Ekin Eremsoy  
Psikoloji Bölümü, Doğu Üniversitesi,  
İstanbul

**Appendix 8: Lecturers' perceptions of general English ability and their disciplines****Kruskal-Wallis Test**

<b>Ranks</b>			
Discipline		N	Mean Rank
General English	International Relations	24	29.73
	Mechanical Engineering	34	36.94
	History	14	47.04
	Total	72	

<b>Test Statistics<sup>a,b</sup></b>	
	General English
Chi-Square	8.597
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.014

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: Discipline

**Mann-Whitney Test**

<b>Ranks</b>			
Discipline		N	Mean Rank
General English	International Relations	24	16.17
	History	14	25.21
	Total	38	

**Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

	General English
Mann-Whitney U	88.000
Wilcoxon W	388.000
Z	-2.859
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.004
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.015 <sup>b</sup>

a. Grouping Variable: Discipline

b. Not corrected for ties.



Mann-Whitney Test

Ranks			
Faculty	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Mechanical Engineering	34	22.51	765.50
General English History	14	29.32	410.50
Total	48		

**Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

	General English
Mann-Whitney U	170.500
Wilcoxon W	765.500
Z	-1.982
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.048

a. Grouping Variable: Discipline

Mann-Whitney Test

Ranks			
Discipline	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
International Relations	24	26.06	625.50
General English Mechanical Engineering	34	31.93	1085.50
Total	58		

**Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

	General English
Mann-Whitney U	325.500
Wilcoxon W	625.500
Z	-1.493
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.136

a. Grouping Variable: Discipline

**Appendix 9:** Lecturers' perceptions of having good pronunciation and their disciplines

<b>Ranks</b>			
	Discipline	N	Mean Rank
S1. I have an adequate vocabulary to write in English.	International Relations	24	34.13
	Mechanical Engineering	34	35.35
	History	14	43.36
	Total	72	
S2. My speaking is free from basic grammatical errors.	International Relations	24	35.63
	Mechanical Engineering	34	33.40
	History	14	45.54
	Total	72	
S3. My English sounds like native English.	International Relations	24	36.42
	Mechanical Engineering	34	33.34
	History	14	44.32
	Total	72	
S4. I can communicate successfully in English.	International Relations	24	32.77
	Mechanical Engineering	34	36.06
	History	14	43.96
	Total	72	
S5. I have fluency in English.	International Relations	24	36.79
	Mechanical Engineering	34	33.21
	History	14	44.00
	Total	72	
S6. I have good English pronunciation.	International Relations	24	36.92
	Mechanical Engineering	34	31.76
	History	14	47.29
	Total	72	
S7. I have a native-like accent	International Relations	24	34.25
	Mechanical Engineering	34	34.47
	History	14	45.29
	Total	72	

<b>Test Statistics<sup>a,b</sup></b>							
	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7
Chi-Square	3.117	4.325	3.261	4.228	3.837	6.997	3.762
df	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Asymp. Sig.	.210	.115	.196	.121	.147	.030	.152

a. Kruskal Wallis Test    b. Grouping Variable: Discipline

Mann-Whitney Test

Ranks				
Discipline		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
I have good pronunciation	International Relations	24	31.79	763.00
	Mechanical Engineering	34	27.88	948.00
	Total	58		

#### Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>

	I have good English proficiency.
Mann-Whitney U	353.000
Wilcoxon W	948.000
Z	-.996
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.319

a. Grouping Variable: Discipline

Ranks				
Discipline		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
I have good pronunciation	International Relations	24	17.63	423.00
	History	14	22.71	318.00
	Total	38		

#### Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>

	I have good English proficiency.
Mann-Whitney U	123.000
Wilcoxon W	423.000
Z	-1.504
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.133
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.180 <sup>b</sup>

a. Grouping Variable: Discipline

b. Not corrected for ties.

Ranks				
Faculty		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
I have good pronunciation	Mechanical Engineering	34	21.38	727.00
	History	14	32.07	449.00
	Total	48		

**Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

	I have good English proficiency.
Mann-Whitney U	132.000
Wilcoxon W	727.000
Z	-2.813
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.005
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	132.000

- a. Grouping Variable: Discipline  
b. Not corrected for ties.

**Appendix 10:** Lecturers' perceptions of English and the English they were exposed to during their PhD

<b>The type of English in the PHDcountry*Perceived English use Crosstabulation</b>						
PHD country		Perceptions of the English used				Total
		Turkish-influenced	British	American	other	
USA	Count	5	0	36	0	41
	% within PHDcountry	12.2%	0.0%	87.8%	0.0%	100.0%
Turkey	Count	7	0	8	0	15
	% within PHDcountry	46.7%	0.0%	53.3%	0.0%	100.0%
UK	Count	1	7	0	0	8
	% within PHDcountry	12.5%	87.5%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Canada	Count	1	0	2	0	3
	% within PHDcountry	33.3%	0.0%	66.7%	0.0%	100.0%
Other	Count	1	0	3	1	5
	% within PHDcountry	20.0%	0.0%	60.0%	20.0%	100.0%
Total	Count	15	7	49	1	72
	% within PHDcountry	20.8%	9.7%	68.1%	1.4%	100.0%

<b>Chi-Square Tests</b>			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	84.487 <sup>a</sup>	12	.000
Likelihood Ratio	55.474	12	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.966	1	.161
N of Valid Cases	72		

a. 16 cells (80.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .04.

**Appendix 11:** Lecturers' perspectives about English accents and varieties and their disciplines

Kruskal-Wallis Test

<b>Ranks</b>			
	Discipline	N	Mean Rank
<b>S1.</b> It is important to be aware of the English spoken by other non-native speakers.	IR	24	30.81
	ME	34	37.63
	H	14	43.50
	Total	72	
<b>S2.</b> It is important to learn about the features of English which can be understood internationally, not just in one or two countries.	IR	24	31.85
	ME	34	38.16
	H	14	40.43
	Total	72	
<b>S3.</b> It is important to know that different cultures use English differently.	IR	24	29.23
	ME	34	41.44
	H	14	36.96
	Total	72	
<b>S4.</b> It is important to know about other national varieties of English besides British and American English (e.g. Australian, Canadian English).	IR	24	32.94
	ME	34	38.16
	H	14	38.57
	Total	72	

<b>Test Statistics<sup>a,b</sup></b>				
	S1	S2	S3	S4
Chi-Square	4.124	2.438	5.812	1.283
df	2	2	2	2
Asymp. Sig.	.127	.296	.055	.526

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: Discipline

**Appendix 12:** Students' perceptions of English proficiency and attending preparatory school, having overseas and previous EMI experience

<b>Ranks</b>				
	Preparatory School	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
General English proficiency	Yes	283	162.99	46127.00
	No	68	230.13	15649.00
	Total	351		

**Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

	General English proficiency
Mann-Whitney U	5941.000
Wilcoxon W	46127.000
Z	-5.545
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

a. Grouping Variable: Preparatory school attendance

<b>Ranks</b>				
	Overseas experience	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
General English proficiency	Yes	201	190.52	38294.50
	No	150	156.54	23481.50
	Total	351		

**Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

	General English proficiency
Mann-Whitney U	12156.500
Wilcoxon W	23481.500
Z	-3.512
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

a. Grouping Variable: Overseas experience

<b>Ranks</b>				
	Previous EMI experience	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
General English proficiency	Yes	105	190.89	20043.00
	No	246	169.65	41733.00
	Total	351		

**Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

	General English proficiency
Mann-Whitney U	11352.000
Wilcoxon W	41733.000
Z	-2.032
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.042

a. Grouping Variable: EMI high school attendance



**Appendix 13:** Students' perceptions of sub-skills and having overseas and previous EMI experience

Mann-Whitney Tests

Skills school	Prep	n	X	SD	X <sub>rank</sub>	Σ <sub>rank</sub>	U	Z	P
S1. Adequate vocabulary	Yes	283	3.14	.56	166.42	47098	6912	-4.254	.000
	No	68	3.44	.67	215.85	14678			
S2. Speaking without errors	Yes	283	2.54	.65	163.89	46380.5	6194.5	-5.015	.000
	No	68	3.04	.78	226.40	15395.5			
S3. Native-like accent	Yes	283	1.97	.74	162.15	45889.5	573.5	-5.682	.000
	No	68	2.66	.94	233.63	15886.5			
S4. Successful communication	Yes	283	3.06	.65	162.49	45985	5799	-5.704	.000
	No	68	3.54	.63	232.22	15791			
S5. Good pronunciation	Yes	283	2.76	.70	160.52	45428.5	5242.5	-6.327	.000
	No	68	3.39	.71	240.40	16347.5			
S6. Easy to understand	Yes	283	3.19	.54	169.22	47888	7702	-3.020	.003
	No	68	3.41	.60	204.24	13888			
S6. Fluent English	Yes	283	2.65	.73	161.00	45563.5	5377.5	-6.052	.000
	No	68	3.30	.77	238.42	16212.5			

**Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7
Mann-Whitney U	6912.000	6194.500	5703.500	5799.000	5242.500	7702.000	5377.500
Wilcoxon W	47098.000	46380.500	45889.500	45985.000	45428.500	47888.000	45563.500
Z	-4.254	-5.015	-5.682	-5.704	-6.327	-3.020	-6.052
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.003	.000

a. Grouping Variable: Preparatory school attendance

Skills		n	X	SD	X <sub>rank</sub>	Σ <sub>rank</sub>	U	Z	P
Overseas									
S1. Adequate vocabulary	Yes	201	3.27	.62	188.09	37806.5	12644.5	-3.048	.002
	No	150	3.10	.54	159.80	23969.5			
S2. Speaking without errors	Yes	201	2.74	.74	188.66	37921.5	12539.5	-2.975	.003
	No	150	2.50	.63	159.03	23854.5			
S3. Native-like accent	Yes	201	2.24	.89	190.59	38308.5	12142.5	-3.397	.001
	No	150	1.92	.69	156.45	23467.5			
S4. Successful communication	Yes	201	3.31	.63	197.33	39662	10788.5	-5.110	.000
	No	150	2.94	.67	147.42	22113			
S5. Good pronunciation	Yes	201	3.03	.75	193.71	38935.5	11515.5	-4.108	.000
	No	150	2.69	.70	152.27	22840.5			
S6. Easy to understand	Yes	201	3.30	.53	185.40	37266	13185	-2.375	.018
	No	150	3.14	.59	163.40	24510			
S6. Fluent English	Yes	201	3.00	.78	202.03	40608	9843	-5.960	.000
	No	150	2.49	.70	141.12	21168			

#### Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>

	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7
Mann-Whitney U	12644.500	12529.500	12142.500	10788.500	11515.500	13185.000	9843.000
Wilcoxon W	23969.500	23854.500	23467.500	22113.500	22840.500	24510.000	21168.000
Z	-3.048	-2.975	-3.397	-5.110	-4.108	-2.375	-5.960
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.003	.001	.000	.000	.018	.000

a. Grouping Variable: Overseas experience

**Appendix 14:** Students' perceptions of English varieties and accents, and disciplinary differences and difference in having overseas experience

Kruskal-Wallis Test

Ranks			
	Department	N	Mean Rank
<b>S1.</b> It is important to be aware of the English spoken by other non-native speakers.	ME	138	180.12
	IR	106	174.61
	History	106	170.38
	Total	350	
<b>S2.</b> It is important to learn about the features of English which can be understood internationally, not just in one or two countries.	ME	138	176.70
	IR	106	178.97
	History	106	170.47
	Total	350	
<b>S3.</b> It is important to know that different cultures use English differently.	ME	138	171.43
	IR	106	167.98
	History	106	188.32
	Total	350	
<b>S4.</b> It is important to know about other national varieties of English besides British and American English (e.g. Australian, Canadian English).	ME	138	175.30
	IR	106	173.82
	History	107	179.06
	Total	351	

*Note: ME stands for mechanical engineering, IR international relations, H history*

**Test Statistics<sup>a,b</sup>**

	S1	S2	S3	S4
Chi-Square	.755	.520	3.118	.185
df	2	2	2	2
Asymp. Sig.	.686	.771	.210	.912

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: Disciplines

# Mann-Whitney Test

## Ranks

	Overseas experience	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
<b>S1.</b> It is important to be aware of the English spoken by other non-native speakers.	Yes	200	181.85	36369.00
	No	150	167.04	25056.00
	Total	350		
<b>S2.</b> It is important to learn about the features of English which can be understood internationally, not just in one or two countries.	Yes	200	181.06	36211.00
	No	150	168.09	25214.00
	Total	350		
<b>S3.</b> It is important to know that different cultures use English differently.	Yes	200	182.11	36422.50
	No	150	166.68	25002.50
	Total	350		
<b>S4.</b> It is important to know about other national varieties of English besides British and American English (e.g. Australian, Canadian English).	Yes	201	183.24	36830.50
	No	150	166.30	24945.50
	Total	351		

## Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>

	S1	S2	S3	S4
Chi-Square	13731.000	13889.000	13677.500	13620.500
df	25056.000	25214.000	25002.500	24945.500
Asymp. Sig.	-1.563	-1.343	-1.574	-1.700

a. Grouping Variable: Overseas experience

**Appendix 15:** Students' perceptions of English language policies and practices, and their universities

**Ranks**

	University	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
<b>S11.</b> The materials (e.g. dictionaries, textbooks) used in the preparatory school promote native English speakers as the ideal speakers.	Bilkent	115	118.89	13672.00
	METU	106	102.44	10859.00
	Total	221		
<b>S5.</b> The university's own English proficiency exam measures students' English skills in British or American English.	Bilkent	122	124.96	15245.50
	Boğaziçi	104	100.05	10405.50
	Total	226		
	S5a			
	Bilkent	122	127.26	15525.50
	METU	107	101.02	10809.50
	Total S5	229		

**Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

	PrepMatNE S11
Mann-Whitney U	5188.000
Wilcoxon W	10859.000
Z	-2.234
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.025

a. Grouping Variable: University

**Test Statistics<sup>a</sup> Bilkent & METU**

	S5
Mann-Whitney U	5031.500
Wilcoxon W	10809.500
Z	-3.221
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.001

a. Grouping Variable: University

**Test Statistics<sup>a</sup> Bilkent & Boğaziçi**

	S5
Mann-Whitney U	4945.500
Wilcoxon W	10405.500
Z	-3.069
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.002

a. Grouping Variable: University

**Appendix 16:** The lecturer interviewee profiles

Lecturers	Gender	University	Discipline	PhD country
L1	Male	Bilkent	International Relations	Canada
L2	Female	METU	Mechanical Engineering	America
L3	Female	METU	History	America
L4	Male	METU	International Relations	UK
L5	Female	Bilkent	History	America
L6	Male	METU	Mechanical Engineering	Turkey
L7	Male	Bilkent	Mechanical Engineering	America
L8	Female	Bilkent	History	America
L9	Male	METU	Mechanical Engineering	America
L10	Male	METU	Mechanical Engineering	Turkey
L11	Male	METU	Mechanical Engineering	America
L12	Male	Boğaziçi	History	America
L13	Male	Boğaziçi	Mechanical Engineering	America
L14	Female	Boğaziçi	History	America

## **Appendix 17:** Teaching staff interview main and sub-themes

### 1. Perceptions of English proficiency (e.g. their own & others)

#### 1.1 Perceptions of their own English proficiency

##### 1.1.1 Reasons for identification of English ability with native English

- Long-term exposure to and familiarity with the variety
- Previous educational experiences

##### 1.1.2 Linguistic aspects associated with native English

- Native-like pronunciation
- Native-like accent

##### 1.1.3 Linguistic aspects prioritized by those with L1-influenced English

- Focus on communicative aspects
- Focus on academic language performance

##### 1.1.4 Perceptions of their Turkish colleagues' English

- Unfavourable views

#### 1.2 Perceptions of students' English proficiency

##### 1.2.1 Reasons for deficit approach to students' English

- Deviant linguistic features seen as signs of deficiency

##### 1.2.2 Reasons for positive approach to students' English

- Successful use of English in academic tasks

### 2. Perceptions of English language use

#### 2.1 Lecturers' expectations about their own academic written English

##### 2.1.1 Normative expectations

- Conformity to the norms of standard native English important/desirable
- Equating standard written English with wider intelligibility
- Conformity justified by external factors, e.g. publishing requirements, editors/reviewers' negative attitudes towards non-standard English

##### 2.1.2 Non-normative expectations

- Focus on content and meaning rather than language
- Importance of the ability to use discipline specific English

- Fairness issues

## 2.2 Lecturers' expectations about their own academic spoken English

### 2.2.1 Non-normative expectations

- Considering non-native accents not a barrier to effective communication
- Focus on communication & intelligibility rather than language
- Maintaining non-native accents acceptable

### 2.2.2 Normative expectations

- Maintaining non-native accents undesirable/unacceptable
- Importance of correctness and native-like pronunciation

## 2.3 Lecturers' expectations about students' academic written English

### 2.3.1 Normative expectations

- Considering standard native English ideal in academic writing
- Conformity to the norms of standard native English important/desirable

### 2.3.2 Non-normative expectations

- Focus on content and meaning rather than language
- Fairness issues

## 2.4 Lecturers' expectations about students' academic spoken English

### 2.4.1 Non-normative expectations

- Communication and intelligibility rather than correctness/native-like accent

### 2.4.2 Flexible approach to spoken English

- Maintaining non-native accents acceptable

## 3. Perceptions of English language policies and practices

### 3.1 Perceptions of language policies and practices concerning lecturers

#### 3.1.1. Language policies and practices regarding English language requirements

- Evidence of English proficiency
  - Certification of English proficiency with a (national & international) test
  - Delivery of a micro teaching session
  - One-to-one interviews and cross-translation.
- Work/research experience abroad
- International publications



### 3.1.2 Views on language policies and practices

- Positive views
  - Somehow useful for assessing language proficiency
  - Better than nothing
- Negative views
  - Inadequate to measure academic English proficiency
  - Not discipline-specific
  - Overly grammar-based

## 3.2 Perceptions of language policies and practices concerning lecturers

### 3.2.1 Views on international tests

- Positive views
  - World-wide recognition
  - Better indicators of English proficiency

### 3.2.2 Views on EAP programs

- Negative views
  - Focus on general English
  - Ignorance of students' academic English and disciplinary language needs

## 4. Perceptions of the role(s) of English in the university

### 4.1 Englishization as internationalization

- Diverse students and staff population on campus
- International activities, e.g. taking part in European projects, research collaboration, joint publications abroad, exchange programs, etc.
- A high number of Turkish teaching staff with a degree from abroad

# Appendix 18: The student interviewee profiles

S	G	University	Discipline	Visit abroad	Proficiency test	Study at preparatory school	Studying in EMI before
S1	F	METU	IR	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
S2	M	METU	ME	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
S3	M	METU	History	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
S4	M	METU	ME	No	Yes	Yes	No
S5	M	METU	ME	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
S6	F	METU	History	No	No	Yes	No
S7	F	Bilkent	IR	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
S8	M	Bilkent	ME	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
S9	M	Bilkent	IR	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
S10	M	Bilkent	ME	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
S11	F	Bilkent	History	Yes	Yes	No	No
S12	M	Boğaziçi	ME	No	Yes	Yes	No
S13	F	Bilkent	History	No	Yes	Yes	No
S14	F	Boğaziçi	IR	Yes	Yes	No	No
S15	M	Boğaziçi	IR	No	Yes	Yes	No
S16	M	Boğaziçi	IR	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
S17	F	Boğaziçi	ME	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
S18	F	Bilkent	History	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
S19	M	Boğaziçi	ME	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
S20	M	Boğaziçi	ME	Yes	Yes	Yes	No

Note: S= students, G= Gender, IR= International Relations, ME= Mechanical Engineering

## **Appendix 19:** Student interview main and sub-themes

### 1. Perceptions of English proficiency (e.g. their own & others)

#### 1.1 Perceptions of their own English proficiency

##### 1.1.1 Reasons for negative orientations to their speaking

- Concerns with conformity to StE norms in speaking
  - Speaking correctly important to ensure mutual intelligibility
  - Fear of negative evaluation
- Lack of speaking practice
  - Focus on linguistic competence at schools/in the EAP programs

#### 1.2 Perceptions of their friends' and teachers' English proficiency

##### 1.2.1 Deficit orientations to Turkish students' English

- Low levels of speaking proficiency
- Deviant (non-standard) linguistic elements of Turkish students' spoken English (e.g. non-accent, non-native-like pronunciations,)

##### 1.2.2 Positive orientations to Turkish teachers' English

- Teachers' perceived native-like English proficiency, e.g. native-like accents, fluency, pronunciation.

#### 1.3 Students' perceptions of the ideal teacher

##### 1.3.1 Ideal teacher for departmental courses

- Preference for Turkish teachers
  - Better communication and understanding of the course content
  - The advantage of speaking the same L1

##### 1.3.2 Ideal teacher for language courses

- Native English teachers
  - Linguistic superiority to Turkish/non-native teachers
  - Positive attributes attached to them (e.g. valued and authentic speakers) and their English (e.g. real/authentic and prestigious English)

### 2. Perceptions of English language use

#### 2.1 Students' expectations about their own academic written English

##### 2.1.1 Normative expectations

- Conformity to the norms of standard native English important/desirable
- Conformity justified by external factors, e.g. teachers' expectations, mark deductions, fear of negative evaluation

## 2.2 Students' expectations about their own academic spoken English

### 2.2.1 Less normative expectations

- Maintaining non-native accents acceptable, but grammatical correctness

### 2.2.2 Non-normative expectations

- Maintaining non-native accents acceptable
- Communication and intelligibility rather than correctness/native-like accent

### 2.2.3 More normative expectations

- Acquiring native-like English (e.g. accent, fluency, pronunciation) desirable
- Maintaining non-native accents undesirable
- External factors, e.g. fear of negative evaluation, teachers' normative expectations

## 3. Perceptions of English language policies and practices

### 3.1 English language entry tests

#### 3.1.1 In what aspects institutional tests grounded in native English

- Focus on measuring grammatical knowledge
- Involvement of native English teachers in assessment

#### 3.1.2 Negative views on institutional tests

- No measurement of productive skills (writing and speaking)
- Heavy focus on reading comprehension and grammar

#### 3.1.3 Positive views on international tests

- World-wide recognition
- Indications of being an international institution
- Better indicators of English language proficiency than the institutional tests

### 3.2 Pre-faculty and faculty EAP programs

#### 3.2.1 How native English is taught

- Use of imported materials
- Recruitment of native English teachers for language classes
- Native English oriented assessment

### 3.2.2 Positive views on the materials and NES teachers

- High quality materials
- Highly qualified teachers

### 3.2.3 Negative views on the materials

- Lack of exposure to diverse accents

### 3.2.4 Sanctions in the case of failure to pass preparatory school

- Repeating the program
- Losing student privileges
- Becoming a remedial student

## 4. Perceptions of the role(s) of English in the university

### 4.1 Englishization as internationalization

- Diverse students and staff population on campus
- International activities & publications
- High ranking in the national and world university league tables

## Appendix 20: Sample translation of an interview transcript

1. A: firstly (name) i'll ask you one thing i mean overall are you satisfied with your
2. English
3. S8: i'm (.) well i consider myself to be at a rather good level i can easily
4. communicate with people i mean from foreign nations
5. A: compared to other skills in writing you rated your writing at a lower level
6. S8: uh-huh writing so
7. A: what sorts of troubles are there with it or
8. S8: well very general issues you know i concentrate on the required subject in
9. general this does not work for each <type of> writing i mean from this
10. standpoint my style is usually to start from the general and to go into the
11. specifics of the given subject therefore i mean i do not think i am as successful
12. as i wish to be and i have never been interested in it either
13. A: how is it like from a linguistic aspect in terms of language use such as
14. accuracy correctness
15. S8: it is generally free of mistakes in terms of language use but there are few and
16. far between
17. A: do lecturers have particular a expectation on this issue for example yet your
18. discipline is mechanical engineering isn't it
19. A: they don't in respect of language but of course they expect different things as
20. to writing well they are a bit more different from those in the preparatory school
21. they expect a thing more appropriate for academic English other than this
22. A: for example you write in English in the exams
23. S8: sure
24. A: well do your teachers also care about language while grading students or do
25. they warn you beforehand about how to write
26. S8: they ignore minor mistakes such as typos misused words but apart from
27. these they look for comprehensibility clarity
28. A: is the criterion to ensure intelligibility indeed
29. S8: yeah ensuring intelligibility
30. A: like conveying the content
31. S8: yes i have never seen mark deduction because of grammatical mistakes
32. A: i see
33. S8: i don't think <they will> all sorts of things can happen at the time of exams
34. A: well do they allow you to use dictionary at the time of exams for instance
35. S8: erm dictionary usually no usually no
36. A: let's say during the exam you know the content but can't recall the word at
37. that moment
38. S8: sometimes they help but they don't help in English classes <i mean> when
39. writing essays but apart from this for all I know for example in maths while
40. trying to explain an equation you know the Turkish term but you don't know its
41. English equivalent you ask the teacher they help you in that matter
42. A: alright what grade are you in

43. S8: i'm a second-year student

44. A: a sophomore er:m are there any academic English support courses for

45. instance while following disciplinary courses i think there are some for first-year

46. students

47. S8: well aside from English 101 English 102 there is nothing extra

48. A: what do you in those courses you called 101 102

49. S: we write three essays in English 101 during the term there is a particular topic

50. a topic is given in the class they ask a few questions in relation to that topic i

51. mean one question for each single essay they expect you to develop an argument

52. and support it develop counter-argument put forward anti-thesis

53. A: there are types of writing such as argumentative

54. S8: uh-huh we are writing argumentative essays

55. A: i understand who evaluates it <is it> a lecturer from the discipline or a teacher

56. from the preparatory school

57. S8: someone with English major but preparatory school and English department

58. are separate in our university those in the preparatory school offer courses in the

59. preparatory school <they> assess essays written by preparatory school students

60. A: the discipline has its own language teachers too

61. S8: an English faculty called faculty of foreign languages

62. A: i see

63. S8: there are teachers offering language courses in the faculty of English for

64. example other teachers from the discipline are also offering language courses for

65. instance i got English 102 from a philosophy teacher a teacher offering

66. delivering the philosophy 242 well overall i articulate positive remarks about

67. teachers

68. A: uh-huh you mentioned essay is there any oral language support in 101 or 102

69. S8: there is an end-of-term speaking tests in 102 well what you have done during

70. the term time

71. A: is it a face to face <oral exam> with the course teacher or

72. S8: with other teachers

73. A: um with other teachers

74. S8: there come two teachers one is listening while the other is asking questions

75. to you they get you to talk with themselves to measure your fluency and so on

76. A: i understand they absolutely make assessments when you write essays

77. S8: sure

78. A: do they give you feedback on your writing saying you wrote this way

79. S8: sure

80. A: what kind of feedback do they provide in respect of content in respect of

81. Language

82. S8: we initially write the first draft that's the first version it's not being marked

83. they just check out what mistakes erm grammar mistakes you've made and how

84. efficiently you've presented your argument how you've developed a counter

85. argument and also whether you've used your sources properly

86. A: what you meant by “sources” are the references from other secondary sources  
87. aren’t they  
88. S8: references of course from the texts books they’re just checking to what  
89. extent you use them or not their feedback talks of these  
90. A: i see it think you attended the preparatory school  
91. S8: i did half a term  
92. A: did you passed through it in half a term  
93. S8: uh-huh i passed through it in half a term  
94. A: earlier i talked to a student who attended Bilkent but later switched to METU  
95. she said she had great difficulty in the preparatory school have you had such an  
96. impression  
97. S8: let me put it this way i have never had any difficulty in English until now  
98. even at the preparatory school at the time when i passed the university exam i  
99. went abroad for a holiday that time just coincided with the period where there  
100. were things like courses to be exempt from studying in the preparatory school  
101. A: uh-huh  
102. S8: since they coincided the same period with them <exams> i did not have the  
103. opportunity to attend any preparation courses i did not have such a chance i  
104. directly took the test this way with whatever i’ve known i had no idea about the  
105. format of the preparatory exemption exam i took it i did well but i was told that i  
106. did not do well enough to be able to be exempt from the preparatory school i  
107. started from the final level passed through it  
108. A: half a term  
109. S8: in half a term  
110. A: how was the staff profile there were teachers Turkish or foreign  
111. S8: teachers were Turkish but some of my friends had classes with foreign  
112. teachers but mine were all Turkish  
113. A: but you had none would you like to have had courses from foreign teachers  
114. S8: um sorry there was i had a foreign teacher er:m it was like this right right i  
115. was confused for a while one would teach for three days the other for two days  
116. A: um i see  
117. S8: the Turkish would teach for three days the foreign for two days the foreign  
118. one was like how they say worldly-wise he was not old lived in Thailand China  
119. and so forth  
120. A: was he British or American  
121. S8: British  
122. A: yep he was British  
123. S8: he’s British well he was like someone who tasted all kinds of cultures he was  
124. a person trying to add to us by sharing his experiences  
125. A: for instance when you compare him with Turkish lecturers which one would  
126. you prefer i mean which one or if you’re given a chance to choose for courses  
127. S8: er::m with reference to content courses i would go for Turkish but when it  
128. comes to stuff like chit-chat i would opt for foreigners because i feel they would



129. contribute a lot to me <they> would communicate more stuff but in respect of  
 130. course conduct and lecturing i'd prefer the Turkish one  
 131. A: what would be the advantages of having courses from a Turkish lecturer  
 132. S8: well above all a Turkish teacher could at least intervene in Turkish when i  
 133. have failed to grasp a point other than this erm or of course foreign teachers have  
 134. some degree of experience in the Turkish context but since Turkish teachers can  
 135. understand Turkish people i mean local people better i think they become more  
 136. effective otherwise this contributes to me from the points of language and the  
 137. delivery of courses  
 138. A: i understand what kind of advantages would there be for students in your  
 139. opinion when <language> courses are delivered by foreign <native English>  
 140. teachers what difference do you think it will make  
 141. S8: at least er:m first of all since English is their native language you know (.)  
 142. we try to speak with a native accent we're trying to use language more  
 143. effectively aside from this when it comes to speaking we'd put more effort to  
 144. advance it even asking a question to the teacher i mean when we're in a difficult  
 145. situation feel the need to ask a question to foreigners i need to use something  
 146. other than Turkish apart from these it's helped me speak English fluently (.)  
 147. besides as i said before i also believe it somehow contributed to me from social  
 148. and cultural points through such as his narration of stories how can i say his own  
 149. experiences and so on  
 150. A: have you also had goals such as native-like accent or speaking as fluent as  
 151. they are  
 152. S8: i haven't as for accent but i think i could easily communicate as long as the  
 153. tasks are not too formal or academic additionally if i can grasp an opportunity or  
 154. a chance of course it's my goal to live abroad for a long period of time or to  
 155. pursue a master PhD degrees and such things  
 156. A: do you have a specific country in your mind for these future resolutions  
 157. S8: as of now there's not a target country because i've recently got used to  
 158. courses in the discipline i've got the basic courses therefore there's not been a  
 159. certain country yet  
 160. A: you say it does not matter well probably Europe  
 161. S8: right now it does not matter but yes Europe possibly Europe  
 162. A: however does it matter whether English is spoken in the country you will  
 163. head towards  
 164. S8: i mean things have come to such a pretty pass that it's not almost like there  
 165. is no place people speak English  
 166. A: in fact you mentioned you've been to seven countries through interrail  
 167. S8: i went through interrail  
 168. S8: how was it like there (name) you used English with different people i mean  
 169. how was it like  
 170. S8: English has opened everything every door there we've seen the benefits of  
 171. Turkish as well we've met a few Turks there

172. A: alright during your trip have you ever met people whose mother tongue is  
 173. English or have you just spoken to Europeans whose first language is not  
 174. English but who knows English  
 175. S8: few and far between there were native English speaking people but overall i  
 176. mean when you go to a restaurant or cafe naturally you see local people for  
 177. example in France people spoke English with a French accent we had at first  
 178. trouble understanding but afterwards that English became intelligible to us due  
 179. to the increased familiarity  
 180. A: from this point for example i'd like to move on to preparatory education have  
 181. you been exposed to such different accents when in the preparatory school or  
 182. any effort taken in terms of gaining familiarity with such accents or  
 183. S8: very rare very rare indeed scarcely any  
 184. A: do you think it might be useful to include more recordings by non-native  
 185. speakers in the listening recordings in the coming years  
 186. S8: i don't think it will be very useful (.) because firstly when you are learning  
 187. English you tune your ears to what you hear your ears and brain perceive it so  
 188. they get attuned to it er:m think of this for the other accents if you keep listening  
 189. to them you will start sounding like them (.) but i know at first of course it's  
 190. hard to acquire British accent or Irish accent and such but i believe after a long  
 191. while one can acquire it  
 192. A: well in schools such as the preparatory or other universities do you think a  
 193. standard version of English or a uniform English should be taught only like  
 194. British English or American English  
 195. S8: well American yes i think so when American English is taught at least  
 196. everyone will have a standard what comes after is the thing anybody adds up to  
 197. that standard  
 198. A: what follows it is individual's own  
 199. S8: i mean there must be a certain fundamental everyone will be at the same  
 200. level to a certain degree the rest is bound to be determined by individuals  
 201. themselves  
 202. A: well when you consider the materials used for example were they locally  
 203. produced materials or imported from abroad course books listening materials  
 204. S8: abroad from abroad  
 205. A: including like what we call audio visuals  
 206. S8: almost all from abroad  
 207. A: by abroad do you mean native English speaking countries  
 208. S8: it's probably American and so on i don't know where exactly they're from  
 209. most probably from America  
 210. A: i asked this for the reason that yesterday when i was interviewing a student he  
 211. told me he would see names such as Jane when they were role-playing in the  
 212. form of dialogs he said he used to be Jane there was nothing pertaining to the  
 213. Turkish culture he talked of something calling it the great trio namely Big Ben  
 214. from London London eye Hyde Park and so forth he said he would call them

215. the great trio there was nothing pertaining to our own culture was it so in the  
 216. case of your materials other cultures and the like  
 217. S8: it was yes Turkey is in Europe as a country connecting Asia to Europe or  
 218. else it was not a text book specifically produced for Turkish students  
 219. A: do you think such textbooks should be produced for Turkish students or for  
 220. other countries  
 221. S8: well it might be quite useful of course i don't think it's quite necessary as  
 222. they call such people pro-American  
 223. A: @ @ @  
 224. S8: mine is such a mindset  
 225. A: right of course it's everyone's own viewpoint there's no wrong or right in  
 226. here what i wonder is what you think about  
 227. S8: i don't think there will be a very big benefit  
 228. A: there're some counter arguments for example they have different reasons  
 229. S8: for chances such as to better learn to better describe one's own culture and  
 230. so on  
 231. A: yesterday for instance one student told me the books mention Halloween  
 232. Christmas but nothing related to our national or religious festivals  
 233. S8: such as the feast of sacrifice youth and sports day  
 234. A: he was saying for example none of these is included and so forth it's  
 235. debatable  
 236. S8: someone using English effectively can talk of these i don't think it is  
 237. necessary to convey these things there  
 238. A: i understand  
 239. S8: the purpose there my opinion is that if you do not read about Halloween or  
 240. Christmas you won't know about them or you will have some question marks in  
 241. your mind i think we are at least learning about them  
 242. A: well (name) i'd like to turn to the thing er:m your teachers' English when you  
 243. consider in general your Turkish teachers in the discipline  
 244. S8: 95% of teachers in the discipline sorted it out as to English well they speak it  
 245. as if it's their native language it's so much so that while speaking Turkish they  
 246. can't recall <Turkish terms> at times they're so focused on speaking English  
 247. that they continue to speak English or while continuing with English they notice  
 248. they become fully absorbed in it and it's far beyond a level that we can  
 249. understand immediately they can switch to Turkish they constantly adapt it i  
 250. mean they can comfortably adjust it  
 251. A: i also looked at the university website most of the lecturers did their PhDs  
 252. abroad such as England but predominantly in the USA or Canada regarding  
 253. Bilkent  
 254. S8: it's probably the case in our school besides teachers obtain their masters  
 255. PhDs or how do they call it  
 256. A: bachelor's degree  
 257. S8: i suppose they recruit teachers with the proviso that they should obtain at

258. least one of their degrees abroad  
 259. A: of course the medium of instruction is English as a matter of fact  
 260. S8: true  
 261. A: they are obliged to check it presumably there must be certain  
 262. S8: criteria exist  
 263. A: an exam or possibly a criterion should be i suppose when i interviewed  
 264. students at METU many for instance were complainant about their teachers  
 265. because most were graduates of METU  
 266. S8: i see  
 267. A: they obtained their bachelors' master's there they spent some time abroad but  
 268. staying abroad like for four or five years is quite a big deal in terms of language  
 269. S8: to illustrate if i speak in relation to our discipline our head of department  
 270. (name) a man who was hired in 2009 to launch the department and before 2009  
 271. he stayed in the USA for long years and a man crowned with the title lord  
 272. professor i mean on the issue of English he's at a distinguished level anyway he  
 273. would give M101 introductory machinery course the course was erm like he  
 274. would even want us to ask questions in English in particular for instance i have  
 275. never witnessed this in other classes but he particularly wanted us to use English  
 276. in asking questions in order to support our use of English when we asked  
 277. questions in Turkish he would say NO it was like that  
 278. A: how about foreign teachers them  
 279. S8: foreign teachers well they  
 280. A: any experience of communication breakdowns for example between students  
 281. and teachers in respect of comprehending lectures or teachers  
 282. A: very few cases they're not even worth mentioning sometimes they pause for a  
 283. while buy time you start explaining it in a different manner that's it problem's  
 284. solved  
 285. A: you mean there are no communication breakdowns occurring  
 286. S8: i have never had any trouble so far  
 287. A: well i'll ask you why you chose Bilkent because the same discipline is  
 288. offered by other universities but why Bilkent  
 289. S8: in fact i opted for electronics and mechanical engineering rather i was  
 290. thinking so before i took the exam afterwards i realized the electronics would not  
 291. be possible because of my scores and METU mechanical engineering was on  
 292. margin there's a high possibility of failure to enter it then it came to Bilkent  
 293. mechanical engineering but after that now i say fortunately i was not admitted to  
 294. METU mechanical engineering because Bilkent's facilities and its overseas  
 295. connections particularly its English support and education were what fascinated  
 296. me i came to notice them after starting to study here i was not aware of them  
 297. before that  
 298. A: well when you graduate where and with who do you think you will use  
 299. English for instance considering your career prospects  
 300. S8: apart from my colleagues if i can be successful, i'd like to use it everywhere

301. i go abroad because they say it's universal thus i think English's spread all  
 302. around the world and can be used anywhere  
 303. A: then do you think we can say English has a role in Bilkent's being so popular  
 304. do you think Bilkent would be so popular if it offered Turkish medium education  
 305. S8: no definitely no well English medium has a vital role in its popularity to a  
 306. certain degree but apart from this since it's a private university it enjoys more  
 307. resources i think we should also take this into account  
 308. A: well do you see Bilkent as an international university when you consider it in  
 309. general terms  
 310. S8: personally i don't know much but i could at least speak for Ankara as for me  
 311. Bilkent is an international European American model in terms of its engineering  
 312. faculty  
 313. A: well as far as you're concerned what are the factors which make a university  
 314. International  
 315. S8: well the use of English in almost all across the university the very effective  
 316. role of English and its American- and European-oriented education system for  
 317. example using the grading system A minus A BB CC and so on  
 318. A: how about master's it lasts a year here i think  
 319. S8: masters' i don't know exactly it's probably so it's a bit longer a bit more  
 320. different probably  
 321. A: well is the number of foreign students quite high for instance on the Bilkent's  
 322. campus or in your classes  
 323. S8: i think it's slightly fewer compared to METU but there are almost two three  
 324. students in each discipline in some disciplines there are more students i see them  
 325. overall the number of foreign students is not so small  
 326. A: i see well i've a final question for example some universities have programs  
 327. offering language support you said earlier there are some courses such as  
 328. English 101 102 apart from these courses is there any unit which provides  
 329. students with language support under the guidance of teachers when students  
 330. feel a need regarding problematic areas do you know of anything related to this  
 331. or  
 332. S8: to be honest even if there are i don't know since i myself did not need  
 333. language support  
 334. A: you haven't had any need  
 335. S8: i don't know but i believe there must be such a support if there's already not  
 336. there should be  
 337. S8: which language aspects should be addressed in your opinion i mean in an  
 338. English medium instruction university  
 339. S8: at least the intelligibility of language and in both types i think it must be  
 340. intelligibility in respect of both listening and speaking  
 341. A: when you consider your friends how do you view their English on the whole  
 342. S8: well when they finish preparatory school everybody's English really reaches  
 343. beyond a certain level it's fairly sufficient to comprehend the lectures in fact i

344. had some doubts before the exam such as whether i could understand the courses  
 345. after the exam but you get used to it it's simple indeed  
 346. A: well as part of your discipline you deal mostly with numerical processes do  
 347. you experience hardships in regards to verbal issues for instance mechanical  
 348. engineering is a branch of hard science i don't know much but as far as i've  
 349. heard and students told me the students i talked with at METU said there was not  
 350. much room for activities such as group discussions and the like in classes  
 351. S8: you're right sure such things do not occur in our discipline such activities  
 352. occurs in disciplines like international relations philosophy more in social  
 353. sciences but i don't think it will be a problem i believe there'll be other activities  
 354. in which everyone can take part and speak  
 355. A: well lastly i keep saying lastly but this is definitely the last i'll ask you what  
 356. you think of good English once it comes to academic English be it from the  
 357. perspectives of students and teachers how should good academic English be like  
 358. in your view  
 359. S8: principally  
 360. A: criterion main criterion  
 361. S8: although it's a system based on rote learning first of all it's important to  
 362. grasp the tenses grammar after this comes the issue of vocabulary later on the  
 363. rest i mean reading writing are the things which develop in course of time i  
 364. believe it will be more effective by firstly learning sentence structures and  
 365. building vocabulary on them and further producing dialogs on the vocabulary as  
 366. you get practice speak for example fluency improves you are to speak in such a  
 367. way that you expect to hear from others  
 368. A: i understood  
 369. S8: if you ask me  
 370. A: what are your criteria as regards writing for instance  
 371. S8: concerning writing one should know what to defend and how to defend it it's  
 372. important to use a variety of words different <words> but appropriate words this  
 373. is what i think about writing  
 374. A: (name) that's all i wanted to ask i would not take so much of your time but  
 375. any last words you'd like to add if so i can listen to you  
 376. S8: honestly this is a significant study as far as i'm concerned i mean English  
 377. can be brushed aside in general at universities and our university in particular it  
 378. does not happen a lot in Bilkent but in other universities as well as professional  
 379. success i believe the education in English one gets in a university has an  
 380. important bearing to be able to move up the career ladder in the future in this  
 381. regard this education seems to be a project which will strengthen such work and  
 382. move to a better state this is at least for me a useful regulation  
 383. A: thank you  
 384. S8: good luck with it  
 385. A: i'll share something with you very briefly i talked to a few lecturers at METU  
 386. yesterday they hold different opinions some for example claimed students

387. become successful despite English i've have never heard others saying this they  
 388. see English as an obstacle for students in the acquisition of content knowledge  
 389. they think if the medium of instruction were Turkish students would learn more  
 390. effectively but these are of course their personal views  
 391. S8: in such a case they can compete with others around the world they would be  
 392. just good engineers in Turkey good academics but  
 393. A: their argument is that courses should not be delivered through a foreign  
 394. language but foreign languages should be taught intensively this was their  
 395. argument this issue is in fact often debated for example some such as oktay  
 396. sinanoğlu has books on this issue arguing that education through foreign  
 397. languages is a colonial practice and so on  
 398. S8: bye bye Turkish  
 399. A: uh-huh such as bye bye Turkish but when you consider in some respects  
 400. S8: very extreme but his opinions are rather extreme  
 401. A: indeed  
 402. S8: for example he derives strange Turkish terms  
 403. A: he's himself studied in the USA he had lots of achievements his PhD and so  
 404. on he became a professor at a rather young age  
 405. S8: he became a professor at the age of 26 that is one of the youngest professors  
 406. i particularly followed him <i> read his books some of his opinions general  
 407. opinions are very extreme they are things unlikely to happen  
 408. A: yes they're extreme but they are his personal views he has also some wishes  
 409. in this regards he pays much importance to Turkish  
 410. S8: it's essential it should be paid heed to but the world has come to such a point  
 411. that it's not easy to compete with other countries civilizations without English  
 412. it's not that possible the country's becoming like a closed box if the country is  
 413. not dependent on outside sources in some way i mean even though dependence  
 414. on English does not seem to be a pleasant situation it has at least reached a point  
 415. where it cannot be ignored anymore  
 416. A: considering the time you've spent in the university so far or you have still  
 417. two years more to go when you consider the initial phase do you think the  
 418. proficiency test you took in the preparatory school contributed to your English  
 419. S8: sure well everything was in English we would speak English everyday listen  
 420. to English it's impossible to have not benefited from it  
 421. A: i understand (name) that's all  
 422. S8: thank you  
 423. A: thank you for sparing so much of your time  
 424. S8: good luck

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