Internationalization at home: Englishmedium instruction practices at Sino-Foreign Cooperative Universities

Helin Zhao

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctorate of Education

2022

Declaration of authenticity and author's rights

This thesis is the result of the author's original research. It has been composed by the author and has not been previously submitted for examination which has led to the ward of a degree.

The copyright of this thesis belongs to the author under the terms of the United Kingdom Copyright Acts as qualified by University of Strathclyde Regulation 3.50. Due acknowledgement must always be made of the use of any material contained in, or derived from, this thesis.

| Signed: | | | |
|---------|--|--|--|
| | | | |
| Date: | | | |

Acknowledgements

There are numerous people who deserve appreciation for their support and help throughout my four years of doctoral studies and thesis writing. I must express my gratitude to my supervisors first. My research would not have been possible without my principal supervisor, Professor David Kirk's patient instruction, unwavering support, efficient feedback, persistent encouragement, and abundant empathy. His instruction during my first year of EdD study showed me how knowledgeable and accepting he is, and although our research directions did not coincide, his enthusiasm and professionalism in supervising doctoral students and his breadth of knowledge of research methods provided a solid foundation for me to begin my formal EdD research journey and kept me on track without giving up throughout this research journey. His care, patience, tolerance, empathy, and sense of humour helped me through many of the dark moments of these four years, particularly during Covid-19 when I was dealing with a series of financial crises, mental health crises, and other stresses, and his presence allowed me to grow as a researcher through a variety of changes.

I also owe a great debt to my co-supervisor, Dr. Alan Huang. I would like to thank him for his guidance and support in my studies and life, for helping me find solutions to my problems and overcoming them, for providing me with constructive feedback and advice, and for providing me with affirmation and comfort when I doubted my abilities, so that I was able to progress day by day. Throughout the study process, I was guided in my thinking and writing by his inquisitive nature and insightful remarks.

In addition, I would like to express my gratitude to Ms. Joanna McPake for her willingness and kindness to discuss my research, for the very helpful advice she provided me during our annual reviews, and, most importantly, for her constant affirmation and understanding, which made me feel understood and encouraged throughout the lengthy research process.

I am also very grateful to everyone who participated in my research, and to the potential participants I communicated with. Although I was not able to interview them face-to-face or give them anything in return due to the impact of the Covid-19, they still took time out of their busy schedules to participate in my research and patiently answered my questions and shared their views. Without their contributions, I would not have been able to complete this study.

My sincere thanks also go to the other Strathclyde staff. Firstly, I would like to thank Prof. Douglas Brodie, who gave me the opportunity to study in Glasgow. He encouraged me again and again with his experience, affirmed me, helped me, gave me many opportunities and made me feel that the internationalisation of education and the internationalisation of thinking is really reflected in the individual, thanks to him, I have been a beneficiary of the internationalisation of education.

I would also like to thank Prof. Kate Wall and Dr. David Roxburgh, who were the first persons I contacted when I learned I could apply for the EdD four years ago. I never imagined our friendship would endure so long. In the four years since, they have always been there for me when I was confused and anxious, providing me with a new perspective on a challenging situation and altering my perception of stress; in addition, they have made me feel indispensable by requesting my assistance in communicating with Chinese students, thereby making me feel valued.

I would also like to thank Dr. Xi Liu from the School of Psychology for his professional mental support when I was feeling depressed and anxious, for providing me with many effective ways to relieve my stress, and for allowing me to participate in academic research projects, which made me feel recognized.

I am extremely grateful to Mrs. Fan Lin for introducing me to the work on university's China partnerships. I am grateful to her not only for the work I have done to develop my working skills, but also for the trust, recognition, and understanding she has given me in completing each task, as well as the soothing sensation that she always says "don't worry" when things become difficult. I don't think my life would have been as full, my experiences as rich and my growth as rapid without the strength she gave me.

In addition, I would like to thank my fellow students at the University of Strathclyde for their academic and social support. I am very grateful to Yuanyuan Jia, Jushuai Song, Yan Wang, Miaomiao Chang, Shiyun Zhao and Jingsi Li, who, despite coming from different departments, have shared many delightful and stressful moments with me throughout my ups and downs, and have provided me constant support and encouragement through the four years, almost never leaving me when I needed it most. They have given me the confidence and courage to continue with my studies and have made me feel that I am not alone on this path.

I would also like to thank my former colleagues and leaders, Prof. Yong Zhen, Prof. Huajun Ye, Dr. Ray Cheung, and Dr. Zhijian Bai. As leaders and colleagues, they supported and encouraged me to pursue my studies, and their constant concern made me feel at home in another place, and their advice on my future career gave me the courage to face the unknown.

Lastly, I would like to express my gratitude to my family, particularly my parents. Their unconditional love and support are the greatest gifts for me. They have loved me unconditionally, raised me, supported me, and cared for themselves so that I have nothing to worry about. As an only child in my family, my parents were lonely while I was away, especially during the three years following the Covid-19 outbreak, and I have not returned to my country or to my parents in over two years. But they did not fault me for my determination and bravery in pursuing a doctoral degree overseas. Their global perspective and forethought gave me the opportunity to leave a small, impoverished town and explore the larger world.

Abstract

English-medium-instruction (EMI), an emerging phenomenon brought about by the accelerating trend of internationalization in higher education, has become a well-established area of study during the past few years. Numerous studies have investigated various facets of EMI, including the ideology and policymaking behind it, as well as the implementation at the classroom levels in a variety of internationalized settings. The benefits of EMI to students' language acquisition and content understanding have been recognised by various studies (e.g., Tsang, and Li 2021), but it is widely recognised that engaging in EMI can be an intellectually and emotionally challenging experience for university students for different reasons. One contributing factor identified by several studies is the EMI teaching practices including the pedagogical approaches adopted by EMI teachers and the language proficiency of teachers. Several EMI scholars (e.g. Zhang and Pladevall-Ballester, 2022; Thompson et al. 2022) have set out to systematically investigate students' perspectives towards EMI to better understand and address the challenges.

This research, however, seeks to understand and address the issues and challenges of EMI teaching practice from the perspective of EMI teachers. Specifically, this study is an exploration of EMI teachers' experiences and perceptions in the adoption of EMI for the achievement of internationalization at home (IaH) at two Sino-foreign Cooperative universities (SFCUs) in China. Research data were generated through semi-structured interviews with 20 EMI teachers from these two SFCUs and through classroom observations of two of the interviewees, using a qualitative approach within a constructivist paradigm.

The findings showed that EMI teachers interviewed agreed that there are numerous areas for improvement in the implementation of EMI in China's SFCUs, and each offered their ideas of tackling the challenges. They did, however, raise issues at various stage in the EMI implementation process and the different stakeholders involved in EMI practice. For instance, they shared their perspectives and experiences on EMI practice in relation to EMI teacher recruitment, professional learning, and pedagogical strategies. Moreover, they offered suggestions for enhancing the effectiveness of EMI from the viewpoints of EMI administrators, teachers and the recipients of EMI teaching, i.e. EMI students. One of the essential findings include the necessity for more stringent screening of EMI teacher candidates at the point of teacher recruitment, more in-service professional learning

opportunities and more reasonable evaluation approaches for EMI teachers, in order to improve their teaching effectiveness. Another significant finding is that the mental stress caused by the EMI dual goals of acquiring subject content knowledge and improving English proficiency is not negligible. Such mental health problems may be exacerbated by the pandemic-related regulations in China during the Covid-19 period.

In addition to this, some of the pedagogical accommodation strategies adopted by EMI teachers and the main challenges in achieving the dual goals of EMI as perceived by EMI teachers are also discussed in this research.

According to the research, there are a number of improvements that should be made to successfully realize IaH using EMI. For example, adjustments are needed from the ideology embedded in China's EMI policies to the enactment of EMI policies in China. Additionally, communication and collaboration between different EMI stakeholders should be maintained to ensure that EMI is effectively practiced and promoted at SFCUs and across higher education in China more broadly, so as to properly broaden students' international perspectives, improve students' language and subject knowledge, and achieve successful IaH in China.

Abbreviations

EMI English medium instruction

EME English medium education

CMI Chinese medium instruction

SFCU Sino-foreign Cooperative University

SFCE Sino-foreign Cooperative Education

SFCP Sino-foreign Cooperative Programme

IaH Internationalization at home

ELF English as a lingua franca

EFL English as a Foreign Language

EAP English for Academic Purpose

WTO World Trade Organization

MoE Ministry of Education

CEFR Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

NESB Non-native English-Speaking Background

NESTs Native-English-Speaker-Teachers

LESTs Local-English-speaker-Teachers

ELC English Language Centre

L1 First language

L2 Second language

SLA Second language acquisition

Table of Contents

| Declaration of authenticity and author's rights | 2 |
|---|----------|
| Acknowledgements | 3 |
| Abstract | <i>6</i> |
| Abbreviations | |
| Table of Contents | |
| Chapter 1: Introduction | |
| 1.1 Setting the scene | |
| 1.2 Positioning myself—My professional experience | |
| | |
| 1.3 Research purpose and questions | |
| 1.4 Thesis Structure | |
| Chapter 2: Literature Review | 18 |
| 2.1 The background, definition, and policy of EMI | 18 |
| 2.1.1 The background to the rise of EMI | 18 |
| 2.1.1.1 Neoliberalism and marketisation in Higher Education | |
| 2.1.1.2 Englishization, English as a lingua franca and English-medium Instruction | |
| 2.1.1.2.1 Englishization | |
| 2.1.1.2.2 The relationship between English as a lingua franca and EMI | |
| 2.2 Definitions and policies of EMI | |
| 2.2.1 EMI definitions | |
| 2.2.2 EMI policies | |
| 2.2.2.1 EMI policies in mainland China | |
| 2.2.2.1.1 Education opening-up policy in China | |
| 2.2.2.1.2 Language policy relevant to EMI | 29 |
| 2.2.2.1.3 Policies relevant to Sino-foreign cooperative education in China | 30 |
| 2.3 EMI teacher recruitment and professional learning | |
| 2.3.1 The recruitment criteria of EMI teachers | |
| 2.3.2 The EMI recruitment process for EMI teachers | |
| 2.3.3 EMI teacher professional learning | |
| 2.3.3.1 The lack of professional learning programmes for EMI teachers | |
| | |
| 2.4 EMI pedagogy and teacher evaluation | |
| 2.4.1 EMI pedagogy | |
| 2.4.1.1 Students' preference on EMI pedagogy | |
| 2.4.1.2 Theoretical framework adopted in Elvir pedagogy research | |
| 2.4.2.1 Translanguaging | |
| 2.4.2.2 Code-switching | |
| 2.4.3 The disciplinary difference in EMI pedagogy | |
| 2.4.4 EMI classroom discourses | |
| 2.4.5 Suggestions for EMI pedagogical practice | 53 |
| 2.5 EMI teacher evaluation | 54 |
| 2.6 EMI Student foundation's impact on EMI effectiveness | 55 |
| 2.7 EMI teachers' and students' perception of EMI effectiveness-dual goal achievement | 57 |

| 2.7.1 The enhancement in subject knowledge acquisition | |
|--|-----------------|
| 2.7.2 The improvement of English proficiency | |
| 2.7.3 The dual-goal achievement of EMI | 59 |
| Chapter 3: Methodology | 60 |
| 3.1 Introduction | 60 |
| 3.2 Research rationale and paradigm for a qualitative approach | 60 |
| 3.2.1 Rationale for selecting qualitative research | |
| 3.2.2 Constructivism | |
| 3.3 Research Design | 65 |
| 3.3.1 Research sites | |
| 3.3.2 Research tools | 68 |
| 3.3.3 Data collection | 69 |
| 3.3.3.1 Sampling | |
| 3.3.3.2 Participants | |
| 3.3.3.4 Research methods | |
| 3.3.3.4.1 Semi-structured interviews | |
| 3.3.3.4.2 Classroom observation | |
| 3.4 Data Analysis | 77 |
| 3.5 Reflexivity | 82 |
| 3.6 Ethical considerations | 84 |
| 3.7 Trustworthiness | 85 |
| development of EMI teachers | |
| 4.2 Entry requirements and the teacher recruitment process at SFCUs | could screen |
| 4.2.2 Deficiencies and challenges of EMI teacher recruitment process | |
| 4.2.3 EMI teachers' attitudes and suggestions toward EMI teacher recruitment internationalize | |
| 4.2.3.1 Internationalised Academic degree and language proficiency | |
| 4.2.3.2 Recruitment process and the importance of evidence of teaching competence | 101 |
| 4.3 Professional learning of EMI teachers in the context of IaH | 104 |
| 4.3.1 In-service professional learning forms/modes in SFCUs | |
| 4.3.2 EMI teacher's attitudes and suggestions towards in-service professional learning in EMI | universities110 |
| Chapter 5: Understanding the EMI dual-goal achievement through EMI teaching: strategies, evaluation and challenges | |
| 5.1 Introduction | 115 |
| 5.2 Teachers' perceptions on students' preferences for EMI pedagogical approaches | 115 |
| 5.3 Accommodation strategies for effective EMI teaching | 120 |
| 5.3.1 Pedagogical practice | |
| 5.3.1.1 Translanguaging and Code-switching | |
| 5.3.1.2 Adjust the English used in classrooms—Simplify English and slowdown | |
| 5.3.1.3 Visualizing and exemplifying | 126 |
| 5.3.1.4 Teachers' support and adaptation to students | |
| 5.3.2 Language support | |
| F. 2.2 Mandal hasalah mandalan and relavious summark | |
| 5.3.3 Mental health problem and relevant support | |

| 5.4 EMI Teacher evaluation | 143 | |
|--|-------------|--|
| 5.5 Challenges for the dual-goal achievement through EMI teaching | | |
| 5.5.1 Adaptation of EMI learning | | |
| 5.5.2 Students' foundation as a key factor for learning enhancement at SFCUs | | |
| | | |
| Chapter 6: Discussion | 160 | |
| 6.1 Introduction | 160 | |
| 6.2 EMI Policy | 160 | |
| 6.2.1 Gaps in the vision and implementation of EMI Policy | 160 | |
| 6.2.2 Specific Aspects of the EMI policy that need improvement | | |
| 6. 2.2.1 EMI policy ideology | | |
| 6.2.2.2 EMI policy practice | | |
| 6.2.2.2.1 Teacher recruitment policy | | |
| 6.2.2.2.3 Student Admission policy | | |
| 6.3 EMI Supporting System | 174 | |
| 6.3.1 Language support system | | |
| 6.3.1.1 More discipline-specific EAP (English for academic purposes) courses | | |
| 6.3.1.2. More targeted EAP courses with different aspects of language skills | | |
| 6.3.2 Mental health supporting system | 178 | |
| 6.4 Limitations for this study and directions for future research | 179 | |
| 6.5 Conclusion | 182 | |
| References | 186 | |
| Appendices | 20 5 | |
| Appendix 1: Interview outline for EMI teachers | 205 | |
| Appendix 2: The questionnaire for EMI teachers | 206 | |
| Appendix 3: Key characteristics of 20 teacher participants | | |
| Appendix 4: Classroom Observation | | |

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Setting the scene

In a world that is becoming increasingly globalised, internationalisation has transformed the global higher education landscape. Internationalisation has become a global imperative in higher education, receiving increased attention through national policies, institutional policies, and mission statements (Knight, 2015), and being implemented in a variety of approaches depending on the national and regional environment (Tamtik & Kirss, 2016). In addition, as English has become the lingua franca of academia around the world, China has speedily adopted the global trend of English as the medium of instruction, driven by reform and opening-up, economic globalisation, and academic internationalisation.

In the past decade or so, numerous non-English-speaking nations, notably China, have witnessed a tremendous shift in the role of English in education, especially higher education. The spread of English Medium Instruction (EMI) in higher education has been especially rapid (Macaro et al. 2018). Since China began establishing Sino-foreign cooperative programmes (the first programme appeared in 2004), the medium of instruction has evolved from bilingualism in higher education (Feng, 2007) to 'full-English'. These types of programmes and universities have moved from starting with bilingual teaching to switching to English-only teaching (Hu,2008). EMI does not have a fully unified and universal definition globally. There are different interpretations, implementations, and arguments for EMI in higher education in different bilingual and multilingual educational contexts and backgrounds (Macaro et al. 2018). However, today it is irrefutable that the pace of EMI implementation in higher education institutions (HEIs) is accelerating globally in different contexts, including in Asia, Africa, Europe; EMI is spreading so rapidly it has been described as a 'pandemic', an 'unstoppable train' (Macaro, 2015, p7). In China, especially in the post-pandemic era, because of the awareness of the epidemics and China's stringent epidemic prevention policies, internationalisation at home (IaH) has been the order of the day. EMI has become one of the tools to internationalise the language of instruction and teaching approaches in the IaH context.

During the past two decades, the number of EMI programmes offered by Chinese HEIs has increased significantly (Hu & Lei 2014; Jiang et al. 2019; Rose et al. 2020). Scholars believe that there are a

number of causes for this increase. The most significant of these are internationalisation, university rankings, and the benefits of language and subject learning (Hu 2019; Rose et al. 2020). These factors have contributed to the expansion of EMI in universities, particularly at the Sino-foreign Cooperative Universities (SFCUs) and some other prestigious institutions. While universities in China have multiplied the number of EMI programmes, empirical research remains relatively weak, in particular, there is a lack of research and discussions related to the role of EMI in IaH. Given the robust top-down Government initiatives universities have received over the past two decades (e.g., Hu & Lei, 2014; Li et al., 2019; Macaro & Han, 2020), there is a need to evaluate the 'what' and 'how' of implementation procedures of EMI at all levels of the policy landscape.

In China, 'studying abroad without leaving the country', 'educational Internationalization at home', 'EMI', 'direct access to prestigious overseas universities, "improve your English and subject knowledge at the same time" and 'fully prepare students for academic studies and professional work' are the rhetoric often used to attract students to enrol in SFCUs. It is clear from this that under a neoliberal ideology, China is also pursuing efficiency and effectiveness and results-oriented education. For example, in China, when the SFCUs are promoted to attract more applicants, admission officers tend to explain the reason for the high tuition fee is that, for the same four years of undergraduate study in a Chinese language university, SFCUs students could be instructed additionally in the medium of English language, which allows these students to improve both their English proficiency and obtain high-quality subject teaching. SFCUs are known for their high tuition fees, which are more than 10-20 times the tuition fees of ordinary universities, and some of these programmes are seen as a commodity that can be profitable and a key to securing a private financial advantage for students, which is in conflict with the idea of Chinese higher education as a public good.

But whatever its original intentions and however desirable its goals, EMI in practice in China is thought to have not achieved the desired results. While the use of EMI may appear to be a natural and neutral academic activity, the implementation of EMI has revealed numerous social and academic issues for both students and teachers (Rose & McKinley, 2022); inequitable advancement chances, unequal access to EMI classes, inadequate learning outcomes, and poor teaching quality are examples of these issues.

English is perceived and promoted as an undeniably valuable tool in Chinese higher education, but the resources for accessing and delivering high quality EMI courses are largely restricted to SFCUs and a few top universities, resulting in an already unequal source of facilities between universities. Questions about the nature and influence of EMI that, at first glance appear obvious and uncontroversial, require the development of new conceptual frameworks and a variety of research approaches. It is necessary to conduct research on the actual implementation of EMI and how one of the key stakeholders, EMI teachers, perceive this process. It is also worth exploring how EMI practice could be improved in the context of IaH to combat issues arising from the rapid expansion of EMI rather than risking superficial internationalization. By understanding the perceptions and recommendations of EMI frontline staff, i.e. EMI teachers, it will help EMI teachers, EMI education administrators and policy makers to understand the promotion of EMI in the Chinese context.

1.2 Positioning myself—My professional experience

After three years working as an administrator/manager that needs to manage different affairs including student recruitment, teacher recruitment, parents communication and coordination with university management at an SFCU in China, I have experienced and have an in-depth understanding of the application, approval, operation and evaluation of such universities. I have been involved in and managed the entire recruitment and professional development process for teachers, as well as the admissions process for students and the administration of students once they are enrolled, and have developed close relationships with the key stakeholders—government, university management, teachers, students and parents. I realised the significance of EMI in China, especially in light of the IaH-whether it be policy makers, administrators, teaching staff, students, or parents, all of whom desire an efficient method for students to acquire cutting-edge knowledge and improve their proficiency in a more international language at the same time.

From the perspective of administrators, I was unable to tie all aspects of EMI teaching practise to the dynamics of the international and local Chinese society. These dynamics can be observed in the interconnection of the international economy, and they are likely to be influenced by several crises, such as the influence of home campus country on EMI teaching practice, the intercultural background of the teachers in educating students, etc.

Even though I completed my master programme in the UK and have had some exposure to foreign languages, education, and cultures, I recognise that my background in psychology leaves a gap between my understanding of British education, the teaching of the English language, and the use of English as a medium of instruction as a teaching method and my actual work. This has aroused my desire in pursuing further study abroad so that I can observe the field of EMI from outside my own context. My experience as an SFCU administrator has taught me that EMI in the context of IaH in China is a complex phenomenon and that its understanding is socially and empirically contextualised. This has led me to use a qualitative research approach to learn more about EMI and IaH from the perspective of EMI teachers, an important stakeholder in EMI practise.

I believe that some of my experiences as an administrator at SFCU, such as recruiting EMI teachers, organising EMI teacher training, recruiting EMI students, and communicating with groups such as EMI parents, supported in my comprehension of the narratives of the research participants, the language they employed, and the nuances and subtexts of their statements (Lewis, 2003).

1.3 Research purpose and questions

In response to the necessity for more effective EMI implementation, which includes qualified, competent and internationalised EMI teachers, and efficient EMI teaching, and its central role in IaH, the purpose of this study is to investigate one of the EMI stakeholders, i.e. EMI teachers' experiences and perceptions on EMI practice in the context of internationalization at home at two SFCUs. Specifically, this study addresses the following three main research questions.

- 1. What are SFCU EMI teachers' views on and experiences of their recruitment and professional learning and development for the achievement of internationalization at home?
- 2. What are SFCU EMI teachers' perceptions of the students' pedagogical preferences, accommodation strategies and evaluations of EMI teaching in the context of internationalization at home?
- 3. What are SFCU EMI teachers' perceptions of the dual-goal achievement for EMI in the context of internationalization at home?

Supported by a constructivist paradigm, this study values the socially and empirically constructed perspectives of the research participants. My data collection involved two main methods: semi-structured interviews with EMI teachers and classroom observation. Twenty EMI teachers from two SFCUs participated in one-to-one semi-structured interviews. They were willing to discuss in detail their teaching experiences and how they regarded factors in the implementation of EMI. Furthermore, they actively provided suggestions for future EMI policy and practice at SFCUs and in China more broadly. I also observed two EMI teachers' lessons, which provided me with a clearer understanding of what the EMI teachers discussed in the interviews. All data were analysed using a thematic approach (Braun & Clarke, 2022) discussed in detail in Chapter 3¹.

These were three main benefits of exploring with the EMI teachers EMI implementation based on their teaching experiences. Firstly, interviews with EMI teachers and observations of two teachers' classrooms yielded important information about the teachers' subjective experiences as well as some of the issues observed by me as researcher and professional in the EMI field; for example, how EMI teachers' perceptions of EMI have shaped their teaching, and what challenging issues need to be addressed in the context of IaH. Secondly, the inclusion of EMI teachers' perspectives provides us with the opportunity to better understand EMI on the ground and on the inside of EMI practice. Thirdly, by showing the different perspectives and practices of subject experts and language specialists among the EMI teachers, we are able to gain some insights into the extent to which EMI meets the dual goals of English language development and subject matter expertise.

Building on these three benefits, my aspiration is to explore possibilities for the improvement of EMI as a key component of IaH at universities in China.

1.4 Thesis Structure

The structure of the dissertation is as follows:

Chapter 2 provides detailed background information for this study, presenting existing research on EMI and IaH, particularly in relation to EMI teaching and teachers, and focusing on the policy and

.

¹ Besides the data used in this thesis, I have also generated data from a student questionnaire, focus group interview with students, and interviews with parents. However, due to the word limits, I am not able to use those data in in this thesis. I will discuss it in Chapter 3.

practice aspects of EMI teaching in China. Chapter 3 explains the rationale for a qualitative study, describes the research design, and outlines how data were analysed, researcher reflexivity, and ethics for the study. Chapter 4 describes SFCU EMI teachers' perceptions and experiences of the teacher recruitment and professional learning for teacher internationalization at home. Chapter 5 highlights the SFCU teachers' perception of students' pedagogical preference and accommodation strategies adopted by EMI teachers to tackle the challenges in the context of IaH, as well as their perspectives and suggestions for the dual-goal achievement through EMI. Chapter 6 discusses the important findings of the preceding two chapters, their implications and recommendations for policy, research, and practice, as well as a summary of the limitations and suggestions for further research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

In this chapter, I review the background to the adoption of EMI worldwide (i.e. the rise of neoliberalism, the trend towards economic globalisation and education internationalization, and the phenomenon of English as a lingua franca (ELF), the different definitions of EMI by scholars in this field, and also focus on the specific forms that IaH has taken in mainland China, and how the mainland Chinese government has progressively adopted and implemented EMI-relevant policies to respond to this trend.

- 2.1 The background, definition, and policy of EMI
- 2.1.1 The background to the rise of EMI

2.1.1.1 Neoliberalism and marketisation in Higher Education

Neoliberalism is a contemporary western political philosophy that has dominated the political, economic, cultural, and educational life of western societies throughout the 20th and early 21st centuries. It originates from the economic sector and was used to refer to the capital expansion of the developed capitalist countries during past decades. On the basis of the competitive equilibrium model developed by Adam Smith, the fundamental idea of neoliberalism is to resuscitate the laissez-faire capitalism of the nineteenth century (Piller & Cho 2013). Neoliberalism was accepted as a system of economic and political practices favouring laissez-faire economic policies, free market trade, decentralization, deregulation and privatization combined with minimal government interventions in business and reduced public expenditures on social services (Majhanovich, 2014).

To a certain extent, the neo-liberal trend has had a negative impact on the reform of education systems and on the ideological and political education in universities in terms of political, economic, cultural, and personal growth. In particular, the neoliberal ideology of creating a small state in order to guarantee the full freedom of the market has penetrated into the field of education, forming a neoliberal view of education. With the development of international monopoly capitalism, especially after the emergence of the Washington Consensus in 1990, neoliberalism began to spread globally, and the neo-liberal view of education became popular worldwide (Zhang & Ji, 2021). The neo-liberal concept of education aims 'to introduce market competition into the field of education, to transform the state (public) schools, to bring into play the active role of the private sector in education, and to

improve the quality and effectiveness of schooling' (Zhang, 2014). Specifically, this view of education is reflected in the three aspects of the marketisation, privatisation and decentralisation of education.

When it comes to the marketisation of education, it is necessary to mention Hayek, a leading representative of neoliberal theory. His educational advocacy mainly includes opposing the government monopoly on public education; urging the government to deregulate education and promote the marketisation of schools, especially the corporatisation of universities; advocating free school choice and the voucher system; opposing common ground and common standards, and advocating pluralism, individualisation and individualism. Hayek advocated that higher education should be privately provided and managed (Gray, O'Regan & Wallace, 2018). The neoliberal economic theory of marketisation of higher education is echoed in the new public management theory and globalisation theory (Zheng, 2010).

Western scholars are generally in agreement with the trend of marketization of higher education based on s mature market economy; recent studies have mainly focused on the problems and reflections of higher education in the process of marketization (Chen, 2013). In in China, on the other hand, the marketization of higher education is still controversial in academic circles (Lin, 2020). Nevertheless, higher education in China is undergoing gradual marketisation. Unlike the idea of market entry accompanied by government exit, the marketisation of higher education in China has taken on a localised character, with the market becoming an effective tool for Government to manage higher education. While introducing market mechanisms, the Government still dominates the process of higher education development (Chen, 2013).

In this context of neoliberalism and education marketisation, HEIs globally are taking steps to enhance their international rankings and competitiveness as well as increase their income to relieve the national financial burden (Nguyen, Hamid & Moni, 2016). Developing countries such as China are making efforts to improve university education quality, attracting more international and domestic students. Building international partnerships with universities of high education quality and international rankings in some developed countries (or regions) is one of the key strategies currently being pursued (Wit & Altbach, 2021).. In such a contemporary society where the international political and economic integration of different countries and nations is increasing, education is also

bound to be affected by the wave of internationalisation. It is in this context that Sino-foreign cooperative education (SFCE) has emerged and is growing.

While internationalization involves travel between countries, Weimer, Hoffman, and Silvonen (2019) assert that international mobility is not the only approach to improve international and intercultural competencies. Their initiative investigates whether and how students, teachers, researchers, and other HEI personnel acquire international and intercultural competencies and views at their home institution without participating in international mobility, referred to as IaH hereafter. In China, the basic concept of SFCE is to introduce advanced educational resources from foreign universities or educational institutions, so as to promote and lead the change and development of higher education (Zeng, 2016). It is the most in-depth and substantial form of international cooperation and exchange in education, introducing foreign quality educational resources and organizing international education in China without student mobility, providing domestic students with the experience of studying abroad without leaving the country and cultivating practical high-quality talents with an international perspective.

Currently China, **SFCUs** independent personalities there are ten with legal (https://www.crs.jsj.edu.cn/). Two of them cooperate with British universities, three of them with Hong Kong universities, three with American universities, and another two with Israeli and Russian universities, respectively. From their websites, we can see that all of these SFCUs are promoting second-language-medium instruction, and apart from the two universities cooperating with Israel and Russian universities, the other 8 SFCUs adopt English as the medium of instruction. Through the construction of EMI courses, SFCUs implement a developmental strategy that places equal emphasis on the cultivation of theoretical and practical talents, meet the challenges of the international situation and satisfy the increasing demands of Chinese students. In today's increasingly competitive global education environment, a number of top universities in China are also promoting and strengthening EMI courses, to speed up their integration with international standards (Li, 2020).

In this section, I focused on how the trends of neoliberalism, economic globalisation and the marketisation of higher education have led to the emergence of SFCE as a form of internationalisation of higher education in China. In the next section, I summarise how the phenomenon of ELF in the

context of economic globalisation has driven many non-native English-speaking countries to adopt EMI in higher education.

2.1.1.2 Englishization, English as a lingua franca and English-medium Instruction

2.1.1.2.1 Englishization

Beginning with globalisation, global migratory movements have substantially facilitated the mobility of student populations in recent years, to the extent that HEIs in the twenty-first century are more international than ever (Dafouz & Smit, 2016; Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2013). Through economic, political, and strategic alliances, scientific, technical, and cultural collaboration, multinational enterprises, and the internationalisation of professional and personal fields of activity, globalisation promotes the comprehensive use of English for communication. As long as there are economic, political, and cultural forces that push and pull in that direction, the global spread of English is, according to Coleman et al. (2018), inevitable.

Arguably, English is the dominant international language globally and, as Boussebaa & Brown (2017) propose, there is mounting evidence that it is displacing non-Anglophone organisational languages. This is likely most apparent in the business sphere, as multinational corporations increasingly expect non-Anglophone employees to communicate in English (Neeley, 2012; Piekkari, Welch, & Welch, 2014). A similar phenomenon can be observed in the field of higher education: while English has long been the dominant language in this sector, indigenous languages have been gradually replaced by English in universities around the world in recent years (Hultgren, Gregersen, and Thgersen, 2014; Truchot, 2002). According to Altbach (2007, p. 3608), 'national academic systems [now] enthusiastically welcome English as a key means of internationalising, competing, and becoming 'world-class'.'

Similarly, the internationalisation of higher education has been accompanied by the permeation of English into all aspects of its work. There are various facets of internationalisation in higher education, including the internationalisation of curriculum design and content, teaching techniques and pedagogy, teaching facilities and technology, and student and staff mobility (Knight, 2004). Language permeates all aspects of internationalisation. As a result, the term 'Englishization' was created in

response to the internationalisation movement. Englishization comprises the use of English as a lingua franca and the translation of local-language content into English in international corporations and other organisations. However, the meaning of Englishization has been contested. Some researchers use the term 'Englishization' to describe the spread of English as the medium of instruction in non-Anglophone countries' HEIs. Recently, the global expansion of EMI programmes in higher education has been explored more frequently in terms of Englishization (Gabriels & Wilkinson, 2021).

2.1.1.2.2 The relationship between English as a lingua franca and EMI

In the last few decades, ELF has been strengthened by expanding globalisation (Graddol 2006; Van Parijs 2011). English is increasingly adopted as a medium of instruction for non-language subjects at universities in traditionally English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) countries around the world (Bjorkman 2011; Wilkinson 2005), as a result of the recent intensification of internationalisation and marketization of higher education worldwide (Doiz et al. 2014). In the context of ELF, HEIs in Englishspeaking countries are more likely to appeal to Chinese universities to form partnerships and branch campuses to make 'internationalisation at home' possible (Zhang, 2018). The neoliberalization of higher education (HE), which began in earnest approximately three decades ago, and the global spread of English, which began earlier, have both contributed to an exponential increase in the number of universities around the world that offer English-medium instruction (EMI) as a key component of their internationalisation policies. This increase has been driven by the combination of these two factors (Block, 2022). Chinese HEIs view internationalisation and EMI as an opportunity to enhance their worldwide reputation and the employability of their graduates. Although China is a multilingual country and Mandarin Chinese is the main language, English is nevertheless highlighted for its significance in China's 'Four Modernization' plan, which supports and encourages the teaching of English in order to realise the modernization of science and technology (Feng, 2009). China's universities are eager to embrace internationalisation. Branch campuses have introduced EMI, in which topic knowledge is taught in English. The tendency of utilising English to teach subject matter may also be observed in nations other than China. In European countries, the term ' Content and language integrated learning '(CLIL) is used to describe such teaching and learning policies, although in Canada and the United States, the terms 'Content-based learning/education' (CBL or CBE) are commonly employed. Asian HEIs employ EMI more frequently.

Wilkinson (2018) argues that adopting EMI has facilitated access to knowledge, fostered international research collaboration, and enhanced English language skills in general. Regarding English, the evaluation and perception of this language among its speakers has also evolved. This change involves a shift from a learner-centred perspective (English as a Foreign Language) to a user-centred perspective (English as a Lingua Franca) in which communicating a message trumps grammatical accuracy (Hynninen, 2016; Jenkins, 2014) and multilingual practises and speakers are highly valued. In many countries, EMI has contributed to the commercialization of the English language. In East Asia, for instance, EMI university degrees charge higher tuition fees. Typically, the textbooks used in EMI programmes and universities are purchased from abroad, and the teaching faculty is either from English-speaking nations or were educated in English-speaking countries. Both public and private universities attempt to recruit international faculty and students. As higher education becomes increasingly globalised and commoditized, the expansion of EMI becomes inevitable and normal (Wang, 2021).

2.1.1.3 Internationalization at Home

The phenomenon of IaH is closely related to both internationalization and ELF, as mentioned earlier in this section.

Regarding internationalization, it can be categorised from several perspectives, and it would be quite challenging to establish a globally recognised definition that encompasses all circumstances. Internationalization is how a country, including HEIs, responds to the effects of globalisation. And globalisation can be viewed as the movement of technologies, economies, knowledge, people, values, and ideas beyond national borders (Knight, 1999). Globalization is the trigger while internationalisation is the proactive response to it (Knight & De Wit, 1997).

Internationalisation is then a broad topic, which leads to questions broader than only academic spaces. To better understand internationalisation, Nilsson came up with this IaH concept in 1998 (Nilsson 2003). During the turn of the new millennium, Knight added to the IaH concept, which was further refined by Leask.

To emphasise the importance of globally focused curricula, Knight (2008) extended the idea of laH to include the university's functions of teaching, research, and community service. When it comes to integrating cross-cultural, multinational, and global learning opportunities into an organization, Leask (2013) emphasised that most universities today are looking for approaches to bring the world to their home campuses and their home campuses to the world.

In IaH, the social and cultural components extend beyond the educational context and promote integration in formal and informal extracurricular activities, thereby fostering contributions to the local community through the promotion of respect for diversity and diverse social skills. All of these sharing circumstances occur at home, fostering a local cosmopolitan outlook (Knight, 2008; Beelen & Jones, 2015; Wit et al., 2015; Baumvol & Sarmento, 2019).

IaH is a complete paradigm for curricular and co-curricular learning that, according to Plestch (2021), aims to provide global, international, and intercultural learning opportunities to all students. Through both formal and informal experiences, IaH highlights the importance of a student's learning outcomes being linked to the university's overall strategic and operational goals and mission. With the IaH strategy, all parts of the student's experience are taken into consideration regardless of whether they are an international or domestic student.

IaH is a method that deals with globalisation affects more precisely by promoting local engagement in the internationalisation process and fostering a global vision (Knight, 2008; Beelen & Jones, 2015; Wit et al., 2015; Baumvol & Sarmento, 2019). Baumvol & Sarmento (2016) says IaH occurs at domestic institutions, not in international education. In the framework of HEI, IaH takes languages as a basic cornerstone, notably (but not just) the English Language. As I elaborate in section 2.2, EMI can be broadly defined as the use of English as a teaching tool in higher education, taking into account the language's contemporary status as a global lingua franca (ELF) and the English language is viewed as vital to provoking and improving IaH.

When 'abroad' and 'overseas mobilities' emerge to drive the desires and aspirations of IHE and many of its stakeholders, people question whether the 'at home' label sounded enticing and desirable. So here is another interesting point of IaH that it is considered a normative movement addressing

concerns of quality and justice in higher education. The purpose is clearly expressed in the definition of IaH by Beelen and Jones (2015, p69):

Internationalization at Home is the purposeful integration of international and intercultural dimensions into the formal and informal curriculum for all students within domestic learning environments.

Such an effort for quality and equity, however, doesn't appear to mute the divide that the term invokes when it comes to international mobility. IaH appears to be a solution for individuals who lack the time or financial means to travel abroad.

However, in the post-COVID era, some new elements need to be considered. COVID-19 shed light on the wide-ranging impacts of mobility on human health, which were previously less easy to comprehend. The physical mobility and its conditions can no longer be taken for granted in the wake of COVID 19. China, traditionally seen as a *sending* country, is now emerging as a new and robust actor in IaH. There are already 10 IaH-type universities in China, and EMI is the choice of most of them. In the post-pandemic era, IaH looks set to become more popular in China, and EMI looks set to be more widely adopted.

In this section, I have reviewed the background and reasons that have driven the adoption of EMI in the higher education sector. The next section provides a review of the definition of EMI, which has not been standardised, and the policies of EMI in some countries, particularly China, to see how EMI is being adopted and implemented by a growing number of universities with policy support.

2.2 Definitions and policies of EMI

2.2.1 EMI definitions

There are different definitions to the concept of EMI in the research literature. The most frequently referenced is Macaro's (2018), where he defines EMI as 'the use of the English language to teach academic subjects (other than English itself) in countries or jurisdictions where the L1 (L1) of the majority of the population is not English.' (p. 19). In EMI programmes, the primary focus is frequently content acquisition, and the majority of students speak English as a second, foreign, or additional

language (L2). Although Macaro's (2018) definition is used in a range of circumstances, other definitions have emphasised the term's intricacy and the range of methods for this type of instruction (Galloway et al., 2020). Taguchi (2014) presents a definition of EMI with specific language learning goals: EMI programmes are defined as 'curricula using English as a medium of instruction for basic and advanced courses in order to enhance students' academic English ability (Taguchi, 2014, p.89). This definition of EMI brings it closer to CLIL than Macaro's (2018) concept, which does not include language acquisition as a course objective. Other scholars (e.g., Humphreys, 2017; Jenkins, 2019; Pecorari & Malmstrom, 2018) have argued that the definition of EMI should be expanded to include Anglophone contexts (e.g. US, UK, Australia) in addition to non-Anglophone settings, as the number of L2 English speakers in many Anglophone countries has increased due to global migration and student mobility in higher education. In both Anglophone and non-Anglophone contexts, the number of overseas students enrolled in degree programmes at universities has increased; scholars (e.g., Baker & Huttner, 2016; Jenkins, 2019) have suggested that the increasing number of international students at universities in Anglophone countries has generated multilingual educational contexts comparable to many EMI settings. Other researchers (e.g., Dafouz& Smit, 2016; 2017; 2020) have responded to the increase in the number of international students in HEIs by suggesting definitions that emphasise English medium education (EME) above instruction. In accordance with the multilingual structure of many universities, EME emphasises 'the unique significance that English plays as an academic language of teaching and learning and a means of worldwide communication' (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p. 399). In addition, because EME is a broad term, its definitions encompass aspects of teaching, learning, research, and programme administration in university settings that go beyond instruction. For instance, the expansive scope of EME includes student contact and the job of programme administrators, neither of which would be classified as an instruction.

However, EMI is a geographically pervasive phrase that is typically but not entirely related to higher education. The global picture is therefore exceedingly complex and occasionally perplexing. In this thesis, I employ the term EMI and Macaro's (2018) definition. Based on this definition, it appears that many EMI initiatives target non-native English speakers. A primary goal of EMI is to ensure that all students have ample opportunities to acquire English alongside their subject matter expertise.

2.2.2 EMI policies

As a result of the trend toward globalization and the widespread use of English around the world, there is an inevitable demand for mastering the English language (Zacharias, 2013). Meanwhile, with the integration and globalization of the world economy and wide acceptance of neoliberal ideology, more and more countries have viewed higher education as a commodity, and international or transnational/cross-border education has been treated as a crucial element of national commercial behaviour (Wen et al., 2014).

Such development has brought various opportunities as well as challenges. So as to rise to meet these challenges, national governments promote the strategy of higher education internationalization to cultivate their citizens to meet the needs for developments in the globalized world. Relevant policies dealing with higher education internationalization have also emerged. These policies are not limited to the teaching and learning plans, curriculum and assessment design, and educational administration, which can be counted into the internal educational system reforms. The policies also include the adjustment of national-institutional relationships in larger contexts of economic development, and cultural and diplomatic strategies (Wen, 2018). Since the English language is currently prominently present in education systems around the world, policies regarding language, language education and medium of instruction are also published by numerous countries (Hornberger & Vaish, 2009).

As mentioned in section 2.1, recent decades have witnessed dramatic changes to the global landscape from political, economic, to educational developments. Education internationalization and the implementation of international cooperative programmes are typical tangible results of globalisation. In East Asian countries, as elsewhere in the world English is adopted by an increasing number of universities as the means of instruction, as either developed or developing countries are aware of the importance of English for both political and economic competitiveness (Ferguson, 2013). As this study focuses on the implementation of EMI adoption in SFCUs in mainland China, in the next section I will focus on a review of current EMI policies in mainland China and a critical analysis and evaluation of these policies.

2.2.2.1 EMI policies in mainland China

EMI policies are not limited to the language policy only, the Chinese government has three dimensions of policies promoting EMI implementation in China, which provides a policy foundation for IaH. In this section, I will review the policies of supporting the opening-up of China's education, the policies of promoting EMI, and the policies of encouraging and regulating SFCUs.

2.2.2.1.1 Education opening-up policy in China

Since 1978, with the adoption of the Reforming and Opening-up policy, China has undergone profound transformations, including political participation in the world, economic integration into the global economy, and educational internationalisation. The four decades since China's opening-up have witnessed a trend toward the internationalisation of higher education in China.

In 2010, the Ministry of Education (MoE) in China issued *The National Outline of Medium and Long-term Education Reform and Development Plan* (2010-2020) and proposed education opening-up as essential in China's plans (MoE, 2010). There are two chapters focusing on higher education reform and development. In chapter 7, the document's authors demonstrate national planning for building world-class universities and improving the quality of higher education; and in chapter 16, they make a case for educational internationalization through cultivating talented people with a global vision, strengthening international collaboration, importing textbooks of high quality, and introducing excellent overseas researchers and teachers to attract more inbound international students.

In 2019, the central government issued *Chinese Education Modernization 2035*. One of the eight vital goals of this policy is to enhance Chinese higher education competitiveness significantly. In addition, in implementing the measures of this policy, the strengthening of mutual reference to culture and education experiences, deepening exchanges, and cooperation in sports, arts, and humanities, are emphasized (MoE, 2019). Overseas students can be included in many types of educational exchange and cooperation, while positive implementation of the policy can help to achieve both political and cultural goals (Ahmad & Shah, 2018).

Besides these policies for encouraging education opening-up and internationalization in China, there are some policies promoting EMI as well.

2.2.2.1.2 Language policy relevant to EMI

Wen (2018) has outlined the linguistic ideology incorporated in China's globalisation policy since the founding of the People's Republic of China. She stated that the ideology underlying China's internationalisation cannot be explained by a single theory because at least four strategies explain the logic behind China's policies. These are neoliberalism, the developmental-state theory, the soft power strategy, and the cultural strategy. Particularly since the turn of the twenty-first century, the Chinese government has embraced a cultural strategy to legitimise China's soft power in the international arena. It is consistent with Shohamy's (2006) assertion that political, rather than pedagogical, factors frequently govern the swings of language education policy.

After joining the World Trade Organisation (WTO) in 2002, the Chinese government produced numerous education measures to conform to WTO requirements (Wen, 2018). The cultivation of an English-proficient workforce became an essential concern (Beckett & Li, 2012). The MoE (2001) issued a decree mandating that five to ten per cent of degree programmes be taught in English within three years in response to these changes. Since then, EMI programmes have expanded significantly in universities. Also, according to *Requirements for Strengthening the Undergraduate Teaching to Enhance Education Quality* (MoE, 2001), the use of a foreign language as the medium for instruction, especially English, is encouraged. In addition, bilingual education is encouraged to motivate teachers using half Chinese and half English to teach in undergraduate classrooms. The MoE published another important notice in promoting the EMI in 2005. According to *Requirements for Continuing to Strengthen the Undergraduate Teaching* (MoE, 2005), there are some important topics such as promoting higher education quality through teacher education, quality assurance, international cooperation and exchange, and college English reform. In this document, students' and teachers' English proficiency is emphasized for the development of undergraduate education.

By 2006, 132 of 136 mainland Chinese universities offered EMI courses (Wu et al., 2010). As a result of the publication of numerous significant national policies in 2007, EMI programmes were further stimulated. The notification by the MoE and Ministry of Finance (2007) titled *Undergraduate Teaching Quality and Teaching Reform Projects in Universities* called for the introduction of foreign expertise into Chinese higher education, the promotion of bilingual education, and the substantial improvement of Chinese university students' English proficiency. In addition, the MoE issued a *Notice*

on Launching the 2007 Bilingual Teaching Model Course Construction Project with the objective of establishing 500 bilingual model courses in Chinese institutions between 2007 and 2010. These regulations resulted in an explosion of EMI programmes in a short period of time, a situation described by Hu as 'a runaway juggernaut tearing throughout the country with ferocity' (2008, p. 195). Despite these rapid developments there were no specific, scientifically sound implementation guidelines to ensure the effective and efficient practice of these policies.

2.2.2.1.3 Policies relevant to Sino-foreign cooperative education in China

In addition to the above-mentioned policies on education opening-up in China to the outside world and the promotion of English language teaching, the Chinese government has also taken a bold step in regulating and reforming the field of SFCE to adapt to the trend of internationalization and to address some of the constraints and challenges that arises in the process of IaH.

In January 1995, the MoE issued the *Provisional Regulations on Chinese-Foreign Cooperative Education*. The promulgation and implementation of these regulations has contributed to the rapid development of Sino-foreign cooperative education. When China joined the WTO it made commitments to some aspects of the education services sector and revised the relevant policies, gradually opening up the education services sector in a step-by-step manner. Since then, China's SFCE has developed rapidly in terms of scale and size.

Since 2003, SFCE has entered a phase of steady development in terms of standardisation and legalisation. In June 2004, the MoE issued the *Implementation Measures for the Regulation of the People's Republic of China on Sino-foreign Cooperative Education* which clarified that in SFCUs, a foreign language can be used as the medium of instruction, and the foreign language should be used at least one-third of the whole medium of instruction. But according to the promotion information of the SFCUs, they always promote themselves as 'English-only' or 'Full-English' mode, which is different from the national policy.

In response to this series of EMI-related policies and their implementation, a number of scholars have conducted in-depth studies. A study conducted by Rose et al. (2019) found that there has been a

recent shift in policy away from bilingual models of EMI toward English-only programmes in China. However, students and teachers still view bilingualism as normal practice in most EMI classrooms, while English is the dominant language used for course delivery, and Chinese is predominantly used for interaction. Hu and Alsagoff (2010) present an alternative perspective on China's current EMI policy. Their research indicated that EMI is a misguided language education approach in China for both majorities and minorities. The existing policy initiatives are not feasible due to the significant lack of resources necessary for their strict implementation. In addition, the current EMI policy has been or will be implicated in the creation and perpetuation of distributive inequity, as it benefits exclusively the privileged segment of Chinese society.

On the other hand, as Macaro (2017, p272) noted, the 'EMI phenomenon is an unstoppable train which has already left the station' So while EMI scholars are divided over the practice of EMI in China, a growing number of Chinese universities (both SFCUs, and some of the top public universities) are trying to adopt EMI in order to improve their teaching quality and international reputation. It is undeniable that there is still much to be done to improve EMI practice in China, and in fact the changes made by EMI teachers and administrators can be seen in studies over the years.

After a comprehensive investigation of China's EMI policy, Rose et al. (2019) give some suggestions on the future EMI development. They emphasize the evaluation systems and quality assurance mechanisms for EMI implementation and advised universities to provide flexible models of EMI depending on students' needs, and to incentivize EMI course creation via a workload model that accurately reflects the real-time demands placed on EMI teachers. Hu & Alsagoff (2016) also stress that systematic actions have to be taken to ensure that students are properly counselled about their subject choices and that such decision-making should involve parents, subject teachers and language education experts.

The preceding is an overview of the Chinese government's EMI-related policy in three areas. There is limited policy research, and it mainly focuses on government-level macro policies rather than the micro policies of practice. Additionally, throughout these decades of China's policy on the opening-up of education, English teaching, and SFCE, the state has encouraged the implementation of EMI and the internationalisation of education, and thus the internationalisation of education has become an irreversible trend. Over time, China's policy on English language instruction has undergone some

adjustments. According to the curriculum programme and curriculum standards for compulsory education in China published by the MoE in April 2022, the proportion of English lesson time has reduced, but the proportions of moral and ethical education, physical education, and art education have grown (MoE, 2022). English was originally a subject with the same weight as the Chinese language and mathematics; however, due to the rebalancing of subjects, English may no longer be a significant subject, and its weight may be lower than that of physical education.

Such a change will possibly affect EME in China. As I will discuss in chapters (chapters 4 and 5), some EMI teachers have discussed the issue of students' language skills, which, in their opinion, has an impact on the teaching of English prior to university education, and some have even proposed adding English language requirements to SFCU admissions criteria. If the new compulsory syllabus is changed in this way beginning in September 2022, I think there will be new challenges for SFCU administrators and EMI teachers alike.

This section reviews the historical origins and context of EMI, as well as the Chinese government's development of EMI policy and related scholarly research on EMI-related policies in China.

As mentioned in the policy section, some scholars (Hu & Alsagoff, 2010) have pointed out in their research that requiring EMI to be in English only may not be suitable for Chinese students. However, there is little debate that the quality of teachers and teaching is central to the success of EMI. In the next section, I will review previous research on EMI teachers' recruitment, professional learning, pedagogical approaches, evaluation, and their perceptions of EMI implementation.

2.3 EMI teacher recruitment and professional learning

EMI teachers are important stakeholders in the EMI implementation process. As such, they are a group that has been extensively studied by scholars in the field of EMI. In this section I will focus on reviewing research on the recruitment of EMI teachers and the professional learning programmes associated with EMI teachers, starting from the early stages of EMI practice to understand the research findings related to EMI teachers.

2.3.1 The recruitment criteria of EMI teachers

A number of researchers (Ball & Lindsay, 2013; Zhang & May, 2019) have raised problems in EMI teaching and student satisfaction with EMI teachers and teaching. For example, Ball & Lindsay's (2013) reported that the English language proficiency of EMI teachers has become a problem to some extent and may affect the learning outcomes of EMI students. This and other studies (e.g., Esther & Alicia, 2021) show that both researchers and EMI administrators are concerned about the language skills of EMI teachers. Moreover, these problems exist in different countries, with similar concerns occurring in universities implementing EMI both in China (Botha, 2016, He & Chang, 2016) and in some other Asian and European countries (e.g., Dimova & Kling, 2018, Campagna & Pulcini, 2014).

For example, Botha (2016) and He & Chang (2016) found that some international students (neither native-English-speakers nor native-Chinese-speakers) at one SFCU are dissatisfied with the EMI teaching quality because of their EMI teachers' English proficiency. Since local students are enrolled in the same programme, lecturers prefer code-switching to explain or manage the class. Additionally, although most EMI teachers hold PhD degrees from overseas universities, these studies suggest they lack good English proficiency and capacity to implement EMI pedagogies appropriately. These concerns led international students to comment that they find it difficult to communicate with lecturers and that they lose interest in learning the subject content. It is unsurprising that, in turn, teachers found it challenging to engage with international students, given that both sides lacked adequate English proficiency.

Such problems are not unique to China. Since internationalization has been central to the strategic development of foreign language education in most European universities, EMI courses and degree programmes have been implemented alongside instruction in the national and/or local languages. The rapid expansion of EMI programmes has posed several challenges for non-native-English-speaking EMI teachers (Dimova & Kling, 2018). Research suggests that EMI lecturers must make additional efforts to compensate for language-related, pedagogical, and pragmatic challenges (Airey, 2011; Tange, 2010; Westbrook & Henriksen, 2011). Apart from the lack of language proficiency in some contexts (Campagna & Pulcini, 2014; Dafouz & Camacho-Minano, 2016), the discourse of EMI lecturers tends to be limited in terms of academic and general vocabulary (Tange, 2010), formal and dry as it resembles written communication (Thogersen & Airey, 2011), and lacks sophistication and

humour (Tange, 2010; Wilkinson, 2005). Additionally, Bjorkman (2011) argues that a high level of proficiency in English is insufficient for effective EMI classroom communication because it requires pragmatic strategies relevant to its multilingual, multicultural context. Due to these issues, university management teams in some European universities have become concerned about the quality of EMI teaching and learning and mandated the establishment of quality assurance measures, mostly in the form of English proficiency assessments for lecturers (Kling & Staehr, 2012).

However, although academics and administrators in the field of EMI are aware of these issues, there is not much research on how EMI teachers should be rigorously screened at the source, i.e. at the recruitment and selection stage, in order to improve the quality of EMI teaching. The research I am currently aware of includes Robert's (2018) study of several European universities, he mentioned that there are considerable concerns about the competencies and qualifications of teachers who teach subjects courses through English. His survey findings confirmed that such concerns have led many universities to introduce accreditation systems for their EMI teachers. Robert (2018) also revealed significant differences in accreditation processes among these universities. Many institutions do not have any formal accreditation process and rely on the evidence of teachers' communicative competence. In contrast, others require that teaching and linguistic competence be demonstrated through the completion of a formal evaluation process.

A recent EMI study revealed that administrators at a Spanish university are aware of the problem with teachers' language proficiency during the recruitment process (Esther & Alicia, 2021). The university has set the language requirements for new lecturers at a minimum level of B2 according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), which is a basic indication of the teacher's ability to communicate in English, but this is not an officially recognised standard for EMI teaching. A wide range of exams provided by both public and private institutions are recognised, and the Centre for Language of the university also provides professional learning and accreditation to this end. In addition to this minimum language requirement, the university also requires candidates to demonstrate their English language proficiency by producing relevant documents, such as participation in international conferences and research and the publication of academic articles in English, which, from my viewpoint, only represents an ability to conduct research in English rather than to teach in English. Respondents to this study also mentioned EMI certificates. There are already some requirements for EMI certification in some European universities, but most of these are

language tests only, and do not assess teaching approaches or professional competence. The Department of Modern Languages in this Spanish university can validate lecturers' language level after examining evidence presented by the candidate, such as publications written in English, participation in international conferences and research, and teaching abroad.

Given the diversity of classroom settings (large lectures, small seminars, lab sessions, etc.) in higher education and the divergence of academic topics and teaching traditions across academic disciplines, it could be argued that it is more appropriate that these certification procedures focus on language and the linguistic aspects of pedagogy (pragmatics, intonation, rhetorical signalling) rather than the behavioural, i.e. classroom-management aspect of pedagogy (student involvement, eye contact, uses of visuals) (Hoekje & Williams, 1992). To address issues raised in the field regarding whether and to what degree teaching styles and specific disciplinary content are tested, research by Dimova, & Kling (2018) investigated whether behavioural pedagogy and disciplinary content affect raters' behaviour when assessing lecturer performances in an oral English assessment for university lecturers based on a stimulating lecture, as well as the characteristics and perceptions of their domain-specific vocabulary. The concern was that this additional testing based on stimulating teaching performance may lead to bias in language assessment, this research concludes that given EMI lecturers' teaching experience and disciplinary expertise, as well as diverse teaching traditions across the disciplinary areas, evaluation of pedagogical skills and topical, i.e. disciplinary, knowledge is redundant. According to a study conducted at European EMI universities, assessment and certification of language proficiency are sufficient for EMI teachers to teach. However, some research investigating teachers' perspectives on developing EMI certification in China still needs to be considered.

Macaro & Han (2020) have also conducted a study of EMI teachers in China in the same period. Interviews were conducted with a selection of teachers and EMI administrators with different qualifications to find out their views on EMI certification. The teachers interviewed mentioned the key role of English language proficiency and teaching skills in EMI teaching, especially when EMI teachers are not native English speakers, and that good teaching methods can compensate for language deficiencies. However, there are no standard criteria for how these two skills should be accredited. The majority of respondents in this study felt that the implementation of an EMI certification system and the criteria for 'certification to teach' were not applicable in China.

Therefore, we can see from the few relevant studies that have been conducted that there is no formal method for setting entry criteria for EMI teachers, including how their language ability and teaching skills should be measured. These methods are also difficult to standardise because of the different contexts and objectives of different universities. In my research, I will explore EMI teachers' perceptions of the entry criteria and use their views to understand whether some of the current criteria and screening methods at SFCUs are effective in selecting EMI teachers.

2.3.2 The EMI recruitment process for EMI teachers

Compared to the number of studies on the selection criteria for EMI teachers, studies on the recruitment process of EMI teachers are few and far between. In the literature I have read, only Dimova & Kling (2018) have explored the trial lecture as part of the EMI teacher selection process to understand the teaching skills and expertise of EMI teacher candidates. They argue that such a session is redundant in terms of examining the level of teaching skills and expertise. Rather than having a trial lecture session, they argue that it would be better to provide systematic professional development training for selected teachers after they have joined the profession. Their research suggests that teachers of specialist subjects are generally confident in their professionalism, that there is no need for a trial session on a particular topic, but the problems these teachers may have are more likely to be related to the English language. A trial lecture is not a true test of their language skills, and teaching skills can be improved through in-service professional learning programmes.

Apart from this, I have not found other researchers who have conducted systematic studies on the selection process of EMI teachers. Because of various factors, such as the time and geographical constraints of doctoral research during the pandemic, I also conducted research in only two of the ten SFCUs in China for this study. Moreover, the research presented in this thesis is limited to teachers engaged in EMI teaching activities and does not include relevant personnel such as administrators responsible for recruitment, so an in-depth and detailed study of this issue has not been conducted.

However, I believe that improving the quality of the EMI teaching community can start with the selection process. By comparing the recruitment requirements and methods of different countries and universities with the corresponding university student satisfaction and student learning

outcomes in EMI, researchers in the field of EMI could explore a set of reference standards and processes for university administrators adopting EMI in different countries in order to optimise the selection process in the future.

2.3.3 EMI teacher professional learning

From previous studies (Farrell, 2020; Chen & Peng, 2019; Lu, 2020), it can be seen that 'EMI teacher training' 'EMI teacher education' and 'EMI teacher professional development' are frequently mentioned in research on EMI. Additionally, students' perceptions and experiences in previous research also suggested that teachers' training and professional development for EMI teaching is urgent and important as teaching quality is one of the most essential factors that affect students' academic success. Although most of the teacher participants are aware of the necessity of EMI teachers' professional development or training for their future careers, not all universities with EMI programmes have provided relevant programmes for EMI teachers specifically.

I will then review the research on EMI teachers' professional learning in two parts. The first is a review of research that has found a significant lack of professional learning for EMI teachers, with scholars from Europe and Asia finding similar problems; the second is a review of research into existing EMI teacher professional learning programmes.

2.3.3.1 The lack of professional learning programmes for EMI teachers

In a general study of EMI in Italy, Costa & Coleman (2013) found that 77% of the universities in their survey provided no teacher training. This high figure may reflect the fact that the programmes have been only recently implemented, that the universities do not feel the necessity of training for EMI teachers, or they cannot afford such training during a period of crisis. 15% said they had provided a language course for EMI teachers. Only 8% said they provided methodological training. Costa & Coleman (2013) indicated that this figure is quite low given the need for improving and updating EMI teaching.

Similarly, in the research on EMI teachers in China's HEIs, Macaro & Han (2020) stated that since EMI teachers have their own perception about teacher competencies and certification, the professional development should be designed on the basis of these. In Macaro & Han's (2020) research, only 33.1%

EMI teachers investigated had been involved in any pre- or in-service training for EMI. It revealed that the majority of EMI teachers have to develop their abilities based on individual experience rather than professional development programmes organized by universities. This finding would suggest that it becomes even more important to comprehend teachers' understanding of the competencies required by an EMI teacher in the Chinese context.

2.3.3.2 The type and content of professional learning programmes for EMI teachers

Many EMI teachers report they had minimal to no prior professional learning in effective teaching approaches in their L1, a situation replicated when they are required to teach in English (Dearden, 2018). The challenge with pedagogy is that it is studied in different EMI contexts. Though context varies, research on EMI in Europe suggests that student-centred classrooms are more conducive to effective EMI delivery (Wilkinson, 2013). Wilkinson argues that a student-centred approach can benefit both EMI teachers and students when the emphasis is on students taking responsibility for their learning. For EMI teachers, it means that students would rely less on the teacher's linguistic competence as they become active in the learning process. For students, they would have opportunities to develop their productive language competencies when the pedagogy turns from a teacher-centred lecturing style to a student-centred interactive style. Research suggests that despite the common perception that improving EMI teachers' language proficiency is the key, their actual pedagogical approaches are often more influential to EMI effectiveness (Dang & Vu, 2020; Ball & Lindsay, 2013).

Similarly, Tatzl (2011, p254.) indicated that 'practical lecturing skills are not directly proportional to high linguistic proficiency', arguing for more methodological awareness among teaching faculty. Pedagogical challenges are often exacerbated by a lack of sufficient planning and preparation time for EMI teachers. Airey (2011, p.44) reports on situations where academics in Sweden were required to teach via EMI at short notice and expected to 'automatically do it well without any professional learning education at all'.

Just as EMI's dual goal is to enable students to acquire subject knowledge while improving their English language proficiency, the professional learning of EMI teachers focuses on two related areas. In addition to the aforementioned professional learning in pedagogical learning, which is related to

the delivery of professional knowledge, language professional learning for EMI teachers is also a topic that has been studied and discussed.

Several studies suggest that a focus on improving EMI teachers' English language competence must be combined with developing their pedagogical competence (Macaro et al., 2018; Dang & Vu, 2020). However, even in European countries where EMI professional learning programmes are well established for English language professional learning for teachers, and despite the points made by Tatzl and Airey, the professional learning programmes on pedagogy are still lacking (O'Dowd, 2018). Herington's study (2020) revealed that when EMI professional learning programmes include peer observation, some participants limited pedagogical competence may make observations less productive. The potentially intrusive and challenging nature of observation may also lead to academics being reluctant to engage in peer observation.

Robert (2018) observed EMI teacher professional learning programmes at some European universities. Intriguingly, while the majority of courses (77%) focus on the development of teachers' language skills and provide supervised feedback on teaching practice sessions, less than half (49%) of the courses deal with aspects of bilingual education methodology, and even fewer (29%) focus on the development of academic language for various disciplines. The absence of bilingual or EMI techniques in more than half of these courses confirms a widely held opinion among university policymakers that language proficiency alone is sufficient for professors to instruct subjects in another language (Dafouz et al. 2007; Dearden 2015). However, it is also possible that universities already offer pedagogical courses in their native language and, as a result, do not deem it necessary to include pedagogical sessions in their EMI courses.

In the case of Chinese EMI universities, Dang, Bonar & Yao's (2021) study showed that Chinese universities tend to send EMI teachers to universities in English-speaking countries for short-term professional study programmes, mainly to improve their English language proficiency. Similarly, Mu's (2017) study of five universities in China found similar results, with Chinese universities tending to provide intensive and short-term language training for teachers and expecting that this would improve EMI teachers' language proficiency (He & Chiang, 2016; Jing, Zhang & May, 2019).

However, EMI teachers have their own views on the content of the training. Jiang, Zhang and May's (2019) study reveals that teachers' perceptions of EMI undermined prospective students' linguistic gains as the emphasis on subject content in combination with students' inadequate English proficiency negatively impacted the classroom discourse. EMI teachers' unwillingness to emphasise linguistic improvement leads to their negative attitudes toward EMI professional learning programmes that focus on the English language. Because of the way EMI teachers of professional subjects position themselves, some of them do not believe that they should do further training and learning in languages. They generally believe that their priority is to teach subject knowledge rather than the English language (Jiang & Zhang, 2019; Qiu & Fang, 2022).

From these studies, it can be seen that the EMI administrators who organise EMI teachers' professional learning and the EMI teachers themselves do not share the same views. EMI administrators identified issues with teachers' English fluency from student feedback and arranged short-term programmes to improve English language skills, while EMI teachers themselves preferred to receive professional learning programmes related to pedagogy for their improvement. This is not unrelated to their concerns about the challenges they may encounter in EMI teaching.

For example, in the study conducted by Guarda and Helm (2017) in Europe, just 10% of teachers reported having no concerns with EMI teaching. The remaining 90% expressed an interesting diversity of concerns, with pedagogical approaches being the most frequently highlighted. Following the concerns on pedagogical approaches comes a considerable number of lecturers who identified aspects related to oral skills as another cause of difficulty in the classroom. Tange (2010) observed in a study conducted in Denmark that EMI teachers' lack of confidence in their communicative competence during informal communication with students was a cause for concern. Similar results were reported by Lehtonen and her colleagues (2003), who discovered that teachers lacked confidence while speaking English for informal classroom interactions. The difficulty of EMI pedagogy is also addressed in the research conducted in Japan by Bradford (2016). According to the findings of his study, problems exist for faculty members in Japan's EMI classrooms, and these challenges create potential barriers to classroom engagement.

So, from these studies on EMI professional learning, it is undeniable that EMI professional learning is still lacking. Many universities have adopted EMI but do not yet have a mature and structured

professional learning programme for EMI teachers. However, where programmes do exist, the specific content and format are not widely recognised either.

2.4 EMI pedagogy and teacher evaluation

Following the phase of teacher recruitment and professional learning, my review will focus on research related to the stage of EMI teachers' teaching practice, which includes research on theoretical frameworks of EMI pedagogy, studies that focuses on pedagogical strategies, disciplinary differences, and research relevant to EMI classroom discourse. Another issue related to EMI teachers' teaching practice is the evaluation of teachers' teaching, and I will also review the relevant research in this section.

2.4.1 EMI pedagogy

As I mentioned the last section, EMI teachers' concerns about the challenges in EMI teaching have mostly focused on pedagogy, so it is also not surprising that researchers in the field of EMI have also conducted some studies on the pedagogy of EMI (Evans, 2008). In the 1980s and 1990s, mixed-mode education was widely adopted in EMI classrooms as a result of EMI-specific pedagogical difficulties (Johnson, 1983; Lin, 1990; Pennington, 1995; Shek et al., 1991). While some teachers welcomed the concept and built EMI pedagogy, others found it challenging to handle bilingualism (Wang, 2009).

Since the 1990s, giving lectures in an L2 has been a popular activity. Most of these studies cited difficulty in content comprehension as a result of the language of instruction employed by teachers. These studies have identified obstacles connected with lecture discourse, including English proficiency, vocabulary issues, cultural concerns, and pragmatic issues (Flowerdew, 1994; Thompson, 1994; Kirkpatrick, 2000; Morell, 2004).

However, a majority of research has been undertaken in the setting of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms rather than EMI classrooms, where there are dual pedagogical goals in language growth and subject knowledge acquisition. Even if EMI pedagogy research is scarce, we can still locate relevant studies from Sweden, Germany, Japan, Hong Kong Special Administrative Region, and mainland China. Similar concepts, such as code-switching (Canagarajah, 2012), metrolingualism (Otsuj and Pennycook, 2010), continua of biliteracy (Hornberger, 2003), and translanguaging, were

developed in these works to represent the complexity of multilingual reality in diverse situations and social domains (Hornberger & Link, 2012; García, and Li 2014; Li, 2014). Translanguaging, according to Wiley and García (2016), is one of the emerging notions that necessitates adaptable instructional practices in foreign language education. Li (2011, p1223) described translanguaging as the process of utilising one's entire linguistic repertoire 'to gain knowledge, make sense, articulate one's thoughts, and communicate about language.'

Previous study on EMI pedagogy has shown that different lecturers in EMI classes employ different kinds of language, including the students' first language (L1) when that language is also shared by the lecturer (Sahan, 2020). Sahan et al. (2021) also found that L1 was commonly incorporated into EMI lecturers and the majority of code-switching instances were initiated by teachers. This has been brought to light by several studies. Research has also brought to light the fact that the pedagogical approaches of some EMI teachers shift when they are working in EMI settings, which are distinguished by less interaction (Pun & Macaro, 2019) and impoverished discourse (Lo & Macaro, 2012). It has been argued that universities need to address these problems through professional development (PD) opportunities in order to improve the delivery of EMI (Macaro, Akincioglu, & Han, 2020). Furthermore, it has been stated that this PD needs to go far further than only improving students' English language ability (Bradford, 2018). Sahan et al (2021) also highlighted the need for institutional-or context-specific PD programmes, as 'one size fits model' of teacher training is unlikely to meet the needs of all teachers in all contexts.

Macaro (2018) proposes four models of language support for EMI programmes: the multilingual model, in which students are given access to L1 Mol alongside their EMI courses; the concurrent support model, in which students receive additional English support courses (typically as ESP or EAP classes); the preparatory year model (PYP), in which students enrol in an intensive English programme before beginning their EMI courses; and the selection model, in which students are given priority enrolment in the EMI programme.

From the above studies, it can be seen that research on EMI pedagogy is still mainly focused on how to solve the problems caused by language in the teaching of specialist subjects using flexible teaching approaches. But there is still some research focusing on the theoretical framework of EMI pedagogy, pedagogical differences between different disciplines, and the discourse in EMI lectures, as well as

the suggestions for future EMI pedagogical approaches adopted in EMI classrooms. I will then focus on a review of research related to translanguaging and code-switching.

2.4.1.1 Students' preference on EMI pedagogy

Concerns related to language proficiency usually overlap with pedagogical issues in the EMI classroom, particularly with teacher-student interaction levels. Gundermann (2013, p.266) has noted that EMI classrooms are not 'culture-free' contexts, suggesting that language proficiency is often conflated with cultural differences in expectations of teaching and learning. She has argued that cultural problems are often framed as linguistic problems, resulting in student criticism of a lecturer's English proficiency to mask complaints about teaching style. Ball and Lindsay (2013) suggest that EMI teaching, in contrast to lecturing in the L1, requires a re-evaluation of the teaching methods used. Sahan et al. (2021) have indicated that relatively higher levels of student participation can be achieved in EMI university classes through student-centred pedagogical techniques. Other scholars have similarly indicated that student-centred learning is an effective pedagogical approach in EMI classrooms because it encourages students to use English actively to display content knowledge (Wilkinson, 2013). This also echoes effective pedagogical practices in science classrooms that show teacher-student interaction as a core part of the learning process (Mortimer & Scott, 2003).

While research has underlined the benefits of dialogical approaches to teaching in EMI contexts (Navaz, 2020), studies have found that EMI classrooms are less interactive than L1 learning environments (e.g., Lo & Macaro, 2012; Pun & Macaro, 2019). Lo & Macaro (2012) investigated the effects that language of instruction (L1 medium or EMI) had on classroom interaction in schools in Hong Kong, concluding that L2 instruction resulted in more teacher-centred classrooms with 'fewer opportunities for negotiation of meaning and scaffolding'. Moreover, EMI classes contained shorter interaction sequences and fewer opportunities to scaffold content. Similarly, Inbar-Lourie and Donitsa-Schmidt (2013) have suggested that the structure of EMI courses is typically characterised by input-based instruction.

2.4.1.2 Theoretical framework adopted in EMI pedagogy research

There are two theoretical frameworks which are widely adopted by researchers: cognitive and psycholinguistic theories and sociocultural approaches.

Based on psycholinguistic theories, Lo & Macaro (2015) investigated the nature of teacher-student interaction in Hong Kong's EMI classrooms. They identified two theoretical approaches as the basis of their analysis, namely psycholinguistic and sociocultural, as comparable to Nikula, Dalton-Puffer and Llinares García (2013), who contend that both perspectives have structured their research on language and content learning.

Input, interaction, and output are major areas of investigation within the psycholinguistic framework. Interest in input has centred on how to improve its understandability for L2 learners (Krashen 1982). Negotiation of meaning leads to deeper, more individual comprehension, according to studies of interaction dating back to Long (1983). Research on student output modified by interaction has shown how speakers obtain more effective expressions (Ellis and He 1999). (Ellis and He 1999). Data for the claims made by all three studies—that comprehension and modified output contribute to acquisition—exists for vocabulary learning (Ellis and He, 1999), but for morphosyntactic acquisition, the evidence is scant (Mackey and Oliver 2002).

Lo & Macaro (2015) looked at the difference in classroom dynamics between those who began EMI sooner and those who began it later. They observed that, first and foremost, it is important to note that, in both contexts, there was a preponderance of teacher dominance and the employment of triadic IRF (initiation-response-feedback) sequences. They analysed 15 lessons and found that in classrooms where EMI had just begun, teacher-student interactions were more uniform: teachers dominated lesson discussion, students struggled to articulate their ideas in L2, and question and answer sequences were confined. They said that in order for pupils to acquire an L2 level at the operational level and teachers to build abilities to engage students in extended language dialogue, more time was needed to implement the integrated approach to topic and language acquisition. The outcomes of this study have substantial implications for the successful deployment of EMI in different contexts.

As just mentioned, in Lo & Macaro's (2015) study, they also applied to another theoretical framework, namely sociocultural framework. A strong theme offered by the sociocultural framework is that

cognitive development occurs, at least initially, in social settings (e.g. classrooms) and that language, when used in social activities, can serve as a mediating tool for higher-order mental processing, such as problem solving (Di Camilla and Antón 2012). Learning can be facilitated through social interaction by allowing students to articulate and reorganise their ideas in the context of the activity (Rojas-Drummond and Mercer 2003). Interaction also provides the opportunity to "scaffold" students so they can make progress within their "zone of optimal growth" (Vygotsky 1978). Based on this framework, Mercer and his colleagues have concluded that students' reasoning skills and their ability to learn mathematics and science as a whole benefit from high-quality interaction in the classroom, in which teachers provide support for and encourage students' use of their own reasoning during class discussions.

Dang & Vu's (2020) employed Vygotsky's socio-cultural theoretical perspective, they conceptualise English as a tool suitable for academics to mediate their teaching and explore the communicative and pedagogical challenges and strategies for non-native English-speaking background (NESB) academics in EMI universities. According to Vygotsky's sociocultural theory, cultural artefacts play a pivotal role in mediating different types of human thought and growth within the framework of social relationships (Vygotsky, 1978, 1981). In his theory of cultural mediation, Vygotsky proposes that culturally produced artefacts like tools, symbols, and more sophisticated symbol systems like language can facilitate the development of higher-order processes like learning to teach in the context of EMI.

Evidence from this study confirms that top-tier NESB academics employ the medium of English as a means of mediation in their pedagogical and research endeavours (Vygotsky, 1978). They found that focusing on themselves as educators was the most fruitful strategy in this EMI environment. Students are viewed as the primary audience and objectives for instruction when utilising English as a pedagogical instrument (Grossman et al., 1999). This outcome is in line with Wilkinson's (2013) contention that ELT in non-English language higher education contexts requires a learner-centred strategy.

Having reviewed the two theoretical frameworks summarised in the EMI pedagogy research, I will next review two pedagogical strategies that have been more frequently cited in EMI teaching practice.

Having reviewed the two theoretical frameworks summarised in the EMI pedagogy research, I will next review two pedagogical strategies that have been more frequently cited in EMI teaching practice.

2.4.2 EMI pedagogical strategies

2.4.2.1 Translanguaging

Translanguaging is a widely discussed and accepted pedagogy in EMI research and practice. The concept translanguaging was proposed by Williams (1996) to describe a kind of purposeful language teaching where the input is given by teachers in one language or mode, such as speaking, while the output is required in another, for example, writing. García (2009, p140) extends the definition to 'the act performed by bilinguals of accessing different linguistic features or various modes of what are described as autonomous languages, to maximise communicative potential'. As mentioned in the literature review (See in section 2.4.3.1), this term has been widely adopted as the generalisation of the various cross-language practices in multilingual contexts (Canagarajah 2013; Creese and Blackledge 2010; García and Li 2014).

According to Li (2011), translanguaging stems from the psycholinguistic idea of languaging, which transfers language from the noun to the verb form. He emphasised that translanguaging is a continuous psycholinguistic process:

'Translanguaging is both going between different linguistic structures and systems, including different modalities (speaking, writing, signing, listening, reading, remember- ing) and going beyond them... The act of translanguaging then is transformative in nature; it creates a social space for the multilingual language user by bringing together different dimensions of their personal history, experience and environment, their attitude, beliefs and ideology, their cognitive and physical capacity into one coordinated and meaningful performance and make it into a lived experience' (Li, 2011 p1223).

Translanguaging is initially a psychological and linguistic phenomenon. However, García and other academics viewed translanguaging as a sociolinguistic and ecological phenomenon and employed it as a pedagogical tool to support bilingual teaching practises. By employing this educational technique,

students are able to utilise their native language repertoire freely and completely to assist second language acquisition (SLA) (García and Kleyn, 2016).

Due to the transformative aspect of translanguaging, it is increasingly being acknowledged as a pedagogical practice. Baker (2011) defined translanguaging as the process of 'making meaning, shaping experiences, gaining understanding and knowledge through the use of two languages.' Translanguaging as pedagogy emphasises that students utilise all available language resources to maximise their learning and comprehension. In the process of translanguaging, all languages can be used 'in a dynamic and functionally integrated manner to organise and mediate mental processes in comprehending, speaking, literacy, and last but not least, learning,' according to Lewis, Jones, and Baker (2012). Palmer et al. (2014) argued that translanguaging allowed students to engage in sensitive and significant classroom subjects and encouraged students to express themselves. Translanguaging is a natural occurrence in bilingual or multilingual classrooms and cannot be stopped by monolingual education methods, according to recent studies (Creese & Blackledge, 2015; García & Li, 2014).

Adinolfi & Astruc (2017) noted, despite several studies on translanguaging in SLA, that translanguaging as a pedagogical practice is neither systematically explored, nor is its application systematically and thoroughly developed. Shin, Dixon, and Choi (2020) discovered that the majority of current research on translanguaging focuses on the instructional languages used in the classroom rather than the objective of the lesson, despite the fact that translanguaging is widely accepted as a tool to build on bilingual students' language practises in order to learn academic content as well as new languages.

After reviewing the notions of translanguaging, we may also uncover several sorts of translanguaging strategies classified by earlier scholars. Cook (2010) has characterised translanguaging based on the L1 functions in L2 learning and provided a three-dimensional framework to analyse the role and use of L1 in translanguaging classrooms: (1) instructors utilise L1 to convey meaning; (2) instructors use L1 for classroom management; (3) students use L1 within the classroom. According to García & Li (2014), there are two types of translanguaging strategies: (1) 'teacher-directed translanguaging' to give voice, clarity, reinforce, control the classroom, and ask questions; and (2) 'student-directed translanguaging' to participate, elaborate ideas, and ask questions.

Wang & Curdt-Christiansen (2019) argued that translanguaging techniques may be broadly classified into four categories: bilingual label quest, simultaneous code-mixing, cross-language recapitulation, and dual-language evidence. Bilingual label quest refers to the teaching of terminologies, concepts, or fixed phrases in one language by eliciting equivalent labels from another language, enabling 'the teaching to be carried out bilingually' (Martin, 2005). Simultaneous code-mixing refers to the simultaneous requirement for and use of both languages (English and Chinese in this study) during the meaning-making process. According to Creese and Blackledge (2010), 'each language is used to convey a different informative message, but the complete message is conveyed through the bilingualism of the text.' Cross-language recapping involves teaching the same course material in two different languages. Occasionally the contents taught in both languages were identical, and sometimes one language was more specific than the other. Dual-language substantiation refers to the co-construction of discipline-specific knowledge with contributions or insights from both languages. This translanguaging approach frequently exemplifies teachers' efforts to localise subject-matter knowledge in an L2 by providing concrete examples or cases from the local environment.

García et al. (2016) stated that in addition to treating translanguaging as a pedagogy, teachers who adopt it in their lectures must have a translanguaging stance. They have defined 'translanguaging stance' as the philosophical perspective from which teachers design a multilingual classroom. When educating bilingual students, teachers who have a translanguaging stance will inform all aspect of their profession, from how they view students and their dynamic bilingual performances and cultural practices to how they design instruction and assess students.

From the above studies, it can be seen that there has been a lot of research on translanguaging and it is relatively mature, but not much research has been done specifically on teaching practices in EMI universities. There are many points that can be further investigated in the teaching and learning of EMI universities.

For example, García & Kleyn (2016) mentions the translanguaging stance, which could be explored in more depth with regard to the philosophy and teaching practices of EMI teachers themselves. And from these studies, it can also be found that translanguaging may not only happen in EMI teaching; when EMI teachers start to use translanguaging, does it affect students' language performance, and

do they also naturally use translanguaging to communicate and interact with their teachers? I think these are all directions worthy of further research.

Code-switching is another pedagogical approach that has emerged more frequently in studies of the EMI setting than translanguaging. Next, I will review the definition of code-switching and the research on this approach in the related field.

2.4.2.2 Code-switching

Some linguists view code-switching as a natural, intelligent, and socially significant linguistic process and define it as the shifting between two languages within or between utterances (Blom & Gumperz, 1972; Jaffe, 2007). With this definition, educators believe that code-switching should not occur in bilingual education classrooms, as the explicit goal of bilingual education is to increase students' intellectual competency in both languages, not only their linguistic ability. It is not surprising, given the meaning of code-switching, that this concept is frequently confused with translanguaging. Translanguaging comprises all sorts of discursive practises students and teachers engage in, including code-switching but not restricted to it.

Different classifications of code-switching have been suggested by researchers. Christie (2002) did research on code-switching in CLIL classrooms in Germany. For regulatory and instructional purposes, he divided the data he collected into two categories: classroom and task management (CTM) code-switching and behaviour management (BM) code-switching. CTM code-switching refers to any majority language intervention by the teacher that facilitated the creation of a conducive learning environment. It comprises providing directions, making announcements, beginning and closing lessons, supervising the taking of the floor, reminding students of their homework, and distributing handouts. BM code-switching includes any intervention by the teacher in the majority language for interpersonal and rapport-building purposes.

Even though there is a long-lasting disagreement between linguists and educators on code-switching, this strategy has been adopted widely in EMI classrooms. Sahan, Rose & Macaro's (2021) mention that most code-switching situations are initiated by teachers. There is also a growing body of research

that suggests that code-switching is an increasingly frequently used coping strategy in EMI classrooms (Aizawa & Rose, 2019, Evans, 2008, Lo & Macaro, 2012).

Although codeswitching has been identified as common classroom practice, some research has suggested that L1 use is related to the low L2 proficiency of teachers (Hu & Lei, 2014). A study by Lasagabaster (2017) on CLIL teachers' beliefs on L1 use in Spain found that more experienced teachers reported using English-only to maximise students' exposure to the L2. In contrast, the least experienced teacher said using L1 and L2 interchangeably. The study also found that some teachers opposed language mixing for instructional or assessment purposes. Other research into CLIL and EMI has suggested that teachers' L1 and L2 use proportion varies considerably. These findings indicate that teachers' language practices may differ across EMI institutions.

Code-switching can be easily confused with translanguaging. Linares, Morton & Whittaker (2012) has categorised instructive classroom code-switching into three types: content-focused (CF) code-switching, word-focused (WF) code-switching and deficit-focused (DF) code-switching. CF code-switching means code-switching by teachers to ensure the conceptual understanding and development of content knowledge. WF code-switching refers to the code-switching used as a bridge between language learning and conceptual development, for example, teachers' translation of any expected lexical problems. DF represented any code-switching by teachers that dealt with their linguistic shortcomings. As mentioned before, teachers' English proficiency is a severe problem in EMI practice. Thus, DF code-switching is frequently and widely adopted by EMI teachers.

According to Sahan, Rose, and Macaro's (2021) study, the L1 was also frequently used in EMI lectures. Not surprisingly, considering the teacher-centric nature of many of the classrooms observed, the vast majority of codeswitching incidents were started by teachers. These results contribute to the expanding body of literature indicating that native speakers of the target language are frequently employed in EMI classes (Aizawa & Rose, 2020; Evans, 2008; Lo & Macaro, 2012); and that EMI does not imply teaching and learning exclusively in English. Significant variations in Turkish use and in teacher-student interaction were also found amongst university types (e.g. elite and small universities). These results may indicate significant variation in EMI provision among top schools.

In learning situations comparable to those in our study, in which all or the vast majority of students share an L1, Sahan, Rose, and Macaro (2021) proposed that the L1 might be a helpful pedagogical resource when used to enhance student participation and engagement in EMI classes. Higher levels of student participation can be gained in EMI university classes by using student-centred educational strategies, according to research by Sahan, Rose, and Macaro (2021). Although there is not a large amount of research on pedagogical approaches, some scholars have proposed that student-centred instruction is more likely to be successful (Wilkinson, 2013).

In addition to presenting these common pedagogical approaches, I next summarise the disciplinary differences in EMI pedagogy, examines the discourse of the EMI classroom and gives some suggestions for the future of EMI pedagogy.

2.4.3 The disciplinary difference in EMI pedagogy

The disciplinary difference has been mentioned in previous studies. The most frequently mentioned disciplinary differences are found mainly in the humanities and social sciences and the sciences.

It is apparent that academic disciplines employ different vocabulary, syntax, and discourse. For instance, the vocabulary employed in humanities and social sciences areas is relatively 'narrative,' indicating concrete time, place, and action linkages. In science topics, such as Mathematics, 'analytical' language is typically employed, which communicates abstract concepts, logics, and phenomena (Lemke, 1990; Martin, 1991). These variations in subject discourses may influence teacher-student interaction patterns in the classroom. Take humanities classes as an example; students can gain content knowledge from both textbooks and teacher presentations. Teachers in the humanities often explain complex concepts and phenomena by comparing them to their students' everyday lives (Short, 1994). Students will have greater motivation and opportunity to express themselves, as well as a better interaction with their professors. In a mathematics or science class, however, students frequently use additional resources, such as symbolic devices and manipulatives in addition to textbooks, and the teacher's presentation in order to grasp complex concepts more thoroughly (Lemke, 2000). The other forms of semiotic materials will diminish the literacy requirements of students and reduce their opportunities to engage in dialogue with teachers (Macaro, Tian & Chu, 2020).

With regard to translanguaging, subjects with more abstract concepts may be ideal for early stages of the process. Lewis et al. (2020) monitored 100 bilingual lessons in Wales and found that translanguaging was most prevalent in the teaching of arts and humanities rather than mathematics, science, and other more practical topics. Lewis et al. (2020) discovered that teachers of humanities and arts topics appear to favour translanguaging, whereas teachers of mathematics and science cannot engage in translanguaging approaches.

I think we can find from these studies that teaching approaches are an aspect that is not easy to carry out in a unified way. Not only do teachers of different subjects have different teaching methods, but differences in target audiences and the background of the EMI teachers themselves all influence the teaching methods adopted.

Thus, if, on this basis, EMI teachers still want some training in EMI pedagogical approaches, then I think the content and format of the training will be more demanding.

2.4.4 EMI classroom discourses

There is a large number of studies on teacher-student interactions in both EFL and EMI classrooms in countries and regions outside mainland China. The research on EMI classroom discourse in Chinese HEIs begun only recently. Previous research on EMI classroom discourse in mainland China HEIs always adopted a systematic functional linguistic perspective to analyse the thematic structure and information organization of EMI classes. Teachers in Chinese EMI programmes still tend to have one-way delivery mode and Chinese language is frequently used during the lesson (Tong & Tang, 2017). Hu & Li (2017) found that the medium of instruction did not affect the linguistic complexity of student responses but had a clear effect on the cognitive complexity of student responses, with Chinese-medium responses being more complex than English-medium ones.

Studies conducted in other countries and regions also investigated the questions and responses in EMI lessons. As suggested in previous studies (Flowerdew & Li 2007; Hu & Lei 2012), there is greater epistemological separation of ideas and language in hard disciplines than soft ones. As I noted above, while language tends to play a more important role in the construction of meaning in the classrooms

of soft disciplines, teachers and students in hard disciplines can draw on other semiotic resources to construct understanding (Lo 2014). For example, Macaro et al. (2018) found that some Turkish physics lecturers hold the view that 'the language needed to put across the subject [is] quite minimal,' while a mathematics lecturer believed that 'little or no language is needed beyond the mathematical code.' The only two empirical studies on disciplinary differences have conflicting findings. Dafouz and García's (2013) conducted a small-scale study of three EMI lectures collected from the disciplines of business, physics, and engineering in three Spanish universities. They found more commonalities than differences in the distributions of question types (ie. display questions, referential questions, confirmation checks, and self-answered questions). In contrast, Lo (2014) found some clear disciplinary differences in the functions of teacher talk and the frequency and length of student responses to teacher questions in her study of Hong Kong secondary school EMI lessons of humanities and science subjects.

Hu & Duan (2019) reviewed research on EMI classrooms and found that there exist two questions to be addressed. Firstly, given the widely observed phenomenon that EMI teachers and students tend to be much less proficient in English than their first language as a medium of instruction, there is a reason to expect instructional media to impinge on the cognitive and linguistic complexity of questioning and responding in EMI classrooms. However, with the exception of Hu and Li (2017), research in China did not examine this issue directly or from a comparative perspective. Second, little extant research explored potential disciplinary influences on the cognitive and linguistic complexity of questions and responses in the EMI classroom.

From this part of the study, the first thing that can be found is that there is relatively little research on EMI classrooms in mainland China that focuses on teacher-student interaction and how the language of instruction affects its interactive language and efficiency. The second thing that can be seen is that EMI classroom language and interaction is also influenced by disciplinary differences. Part of this study that I was not able to present in this thesis is the classroom observation of some EMI lectures of different courses at the two SFCUs.

2.4.5 Suggestions for EMI pedagogical practice

From the above review we can see that several aspects of EMI pedagogy have been studied by researchers. These researchers have also made many constructive suggestions for the future of EMI pedagogical practice.

Previous research has indicated that some EMI teachers may have been practising translanguaging quite frequently but know little about this concept. Thus, it is vital for governments and universities to provide guidance to the EMI teachers, otherwise their translanguaging practice may not be correctly implemented. Without teachable translanguaging strategies, teachers cannot conquer the challenges in EMI classes in HEIs. With more and sufficient theoretical direction and practical training, teachers will be able to teach with greater confidence and fewer difficulties. Integrated professional development workshops could be essential tools, implemented via systematic efforts, to assist instructors and students with this objective (Zhao & Macaro 2016,). Effective teacher development workshops could incorporate the following: (1) integrated reflective development, (2) theoretical development, (3) open conversation among varied groups, and (4) cultural development (Shin, Dixon & Choi, 2020).

In addition to macro-level recommendations, research has provided recommendations for EMI teachers. First, teachers will be asked to co-teach in order to effectively apply current pedagogical approaches, as they no longer have sole control in the classroom. This would necessitate a different type of educator, one who is willing to confront hierarchical thinking and ideological limitations by providing voice to all language resources (Wang, 2019). After giving L2 inputs in a variety of formats, teachers could provide translation in the context of EMI classes. Illustration, definition, repetition, and paraphrase are examples. Students would thus have additional opportunities to develop their critical thinking, ability to negotiate meaning, and communication abilities (Viakinnou-Brinson et al. 2012). Teachers' offer of translation in L1 at the conclusion of an explanation could aid students in acquiring a precise grasp in L1 (Shin, Dixon & Choi, 2020). Thirdly, translanguaging methodologies might be more actively engaged and implemented in a variety of ways based on topic matter, task type, and student proficiency and linguistic abilities (Shin, Dixon & Choi, 2020).

2.5 EMI teacher evaluation

Having looked at a range of studies related to EMI pedagogy, I think one question that cannot be avoided is how these EMI teachers' teaching abilities and approaches, and even their effectiveness, should be objectively evaluated. The reason for the importance of EMI evaluation is that it plays a key role in improving EMI teaching and also whether IaH could be effectively implemented.

However, not much research has been done in this area, although many researchers have recognised the importance of evaluating EMI teaching (Huang & Singh, 2016). However, as it is not easy to evaluate EMI teachers' teaching fairly, this is a difficult and challenging area for EMI scholars. In their study, Macaro & Han (2020) also noted that there is no consensus on the issue of evaluating EMI teachers, and that more research is needed on who should be the authority to evaluate EMI teachers and in what form and what content should be evaluated.

According to Copland et al. (2016), learners and parents believe that Native-English-Speaker-Teachers (NESTs) will improve their/their children's speaking and listening skills faster, although currently there is no empirical evidence to support this belief. But as a result of such belief, parents and students have more demand on NESTs rather than local-English-speaking -teachers (LESTs), and students' responses and attitudes in class are significantly different in different kinds of teachers' classes. Thus, it can be inferred that teacher evaluation is compounded not only by the differences in disciplines, but also by the L1 teachers have, which make it more difficult to assess EMI teachers in an impartial and objective way.

2.6 EMI Student foundation's impact on EMI effectiveness

A recurring finding of much higher education research is that EMI as it is planned in educational policy differs from EMI provision in practice. A study by Aizawa and Rose (2020) at a bilingual Japanese university found stark differences in EMI policy diffusion by stakeholders. For example, interviews with EMI managers and teachers revealed that English proficiency admission requirements to enter EMI courses, which were set out by the university, were not enforced in practice. As a result, students were entering EMI courses under the recommended proficiency threshold, and teachers were resistant about future plans to further enforce the threshold. The study also revealed some resistance to policies that required EMI courses to be taught entirely in English, and a preference for more

multilingual pedagogical practices such as translanguaging, which could be applied according to the needs of the students and subject matter.

An issue that has perplexed EMI practitioners is the English proficiency of the students (Beckett and Li, 2012; Han and Yu, 2007; Hu et al., 2014). Han and Yu (2007) speculate that the majority of students in Chinese universities (75% of the leading universities and 80% of the ordinary ones) do not arrive at a proficiency level deemed adequate for EMI, even after two years into their university studies. The scenario is even more worrying since the general English education that students receive may leave them ill-prepared for the field-specific academic English required for learning in an EMI environment (Galloway and Ruegg, 2020). Concerns over students' English competence has raised some researchers' doubts over the quality of learning of subject content as well as the presumed language gains (Hu and Duan, 2020; Hu et al., 2014; Hu and Li, 2017).

While, in terms of the students' language foundation, there are two previous studies focusing on the relationship between English language foundation and EMI quality of transnational higher education in China, and on the admission requirements on language in different transnational universities in China, respectively. Hu et al. identified four prominent factors that affect EMI quality, and one of the four factors is the low foreign language proficiency among students. In the 122 self-appraisal reports from this study, more than half of the programmes involved were affected by the low foreign language proficiency among students, and according to the Chinese host universities, this factor can be related to their secondary education. Coincidentally, as I mentioned earlier in this section, the poor EMI quality might be a problem with the system and approach to teaching foreign language in China at the fundamental and secondary education levels. Hu et al. (2019) also revealed that the universities in his research expressed the most desired solution is to reform the foreign language teaching in schools in China.

Following the research by Hu et al. (2018), Mckinley, Rose & Zhou (2021) revealed that SFCUs requiring students to enter foundation-style courses. These courses can be delivered in different formats (i.e. led by language specialists as well as in collaboration with subject-specialists, or within-discipline writing courses being trialled) to prepare students for EMI. Besides such foundation-style courses, some other SFCUs even have requirements on the Gaokao score to ensure students had the requisite proficiency upon admissions. From the SFCUs in this study, we can find that the universities

themselves have realised the importance of students' foundation for EMI learning and teaching, so they set the benchmark as well as provide more support and even set foundation year for EMI students to help them build a good foundation.

2.7 EMI teachers' and students' perception of EMI effectiveness-dual goal achievement

The above sections provide a brief review of the research on the recruitment, training and post-induction teaching practice and assessment of EMI teachers. But how these teachers perceive their teaching outcomes and the problems that arise in their teaching, and how they think they should be addressed, is also an important step in achieving the dual goals of EMI. In this chapter, therefore, I will mainly review research related to EMI teachers' perceptions of EMI learning.

As we can see from the definition of EMI in Section 2.2.1, the dual aim of EMI is to achieve both an enhancement in students' knowledge in a specialist subject area and an improvement in their English language skills through such a teaching approach. The rest of the review will focus on these aspects.

2.7.1 The enhancement in subject knowledge acquisition

As mentioned in the previous section, in a study of EMI classrooms (Hu & Li, 2017), the use of English as the language of instruction was found to have a significant impact on the cognitive complexity of students' responses, with responses in Chinese as the medium of instruction being more in-depth and complex than those in English.

Similarly, in China, a number of studies have shown that the use of EMI by EMI specialist teachers, especially when teachers' English language skills are lacking, can lead to a decline in teaching quality (Hu & Lei, 2014). The use of EMI for teaching when both teachers and students are not native speakers of English also leads to less interaction between teachers and students, thus affecting the quality (Pun & Macaro, 2019)

These are clearly at odds with the dual objectives of EMI that were mentioned in the introduction chapter, in which the subject content and the English language are required to be mastered simultaneously, rather than at the expense of one or the other (Kym, 2014). This is not only the case

in China but has also been found in studies of EMI programmes in Korea and Japan (Joe & Lee, 2013; Rose et al., 2020).

Of course, not all research in this area is negative about the impact of EMI on specialist subject knowledge, and some research supports EMI and suggests that it does not make EMI teachers sacrifice any aspect of specialist subject content or language (Alhamami, 2021).

2.7.2 The improvement of English proficiency

As I mentioned in 2.1, one of the reasons why EMI has become an increasingly accepted teaching method in more and more countries and universities is that the globalisation of the economy has led to the internationalisation of education, along with the Anglicisation of both. The trend towards English as a world language has contributed to the birth and development of EMI. It is not surprising, therefore, that the EMI model includes the development of English language skills as one of its objectives.

However, the question of whether EMI is good for improving the English language skills of EMI students is controversial. For example, in Collins' (2010) study of a university in Turkey and Tatzl's (2011) study of EMI teaching at an Austrian university, it was found that students felt that EMI had a positive effect on their English language skills. The improvement of English language skills was even considered to be the greatest benefit and most obvious gain of EMI teaching.

Similarly, in some Asian countries, EMI is recognised for its role in improving English language skills. For example, in Lee's (2014) study of the EMI programme in Korea and Yeh's (2014) study of the EMI programme in Taiwan, the students strongly recognised the role of EMI in improving their language skills and considered the EMI practice to be successful in their universities.

However, similar to the views on subject learning, different studies have given mixed reviews on the impact of EMI on English language proficiency. In addition to some of the positive perceptions mentioned above, there are also some studies that point out that EMI does not have a positive impact on students' English language proficiency (Hu, 2014; Chapple, 2015).

2.7.3 The dual-goal achievement of EMI

Because previous research on EMI has shown very different views on the two aspects of improving subject studies and language proficiency respectively, the research is also polarised as to whether EMI in practice at different universities has been successful in achieving the dual objectives.

In a study that critiqued the implementation of EMI as not being as effective as it could be, Airey'(2012) in Sweden identified an important reason for the unsatisfactory implementation of EMI, namely the orientation of EMI teachers towards their role. EMI subject experts generally focus on delivering content knowledge and do not see language teaching as a task they need to fulfil, let alone the integration of English language related knowledge with subject content.

Along with some mixed reviews, some researchers have asked whether the effectiveness or quality of EMI practice should be judged in terms of the achievement of dual goals (Macaro et al., 2018). Although they have raised these questions, this issue has not been well addressed.

Even when judged by the achievement of these two goals, there is no detailed research that indicates how accurately one should measure whether either is effectively being improved, or whether EMI students are improving their language proficiency more than they are in programmes in which the native language is the medium of instruction.

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter explains the research methodology I adopted and the rationale behind it. I begin the chapter by describing the research paradigm and the rationale for conducting qualitative research. Following this, I discuss and justify my research design, which is a study comprising of semi-structured interviews and classroom observations employing a qualitative research design informed by a constructivism stance. Along with a discussion of data collection methods, I also present pertinent information about the participants involved in this study. In addition, an elaboration of the data analysis strategies I chose and the data analysis process are elaborated upon.

In this chapter, I will also describe how my personal experiences and cultural background influenced my data analysis and interpretation. I then briefly describe the additional efforts I have made for this research, which cannot be discussed in depth in this research. At the end of this chapter, I conclude by describing the trustworthiness of the data generation and analysis and ethical concerns that arose from during the research process.

3.2 Research rationale and paradigm for a qualitative approach

3.2.1 Rationale for selecting qualitative research

Based on my research interests, work experience, and having read a large number of academic articles on the topic of EMI in China, I planned to conduct a more in-depth study of EMI teacher as a stakeholder at SFCUs. I initially formulated a research question to investigate the perspectives of EMI teachers on the implementation of the EMI teaching model in SFCUs, as well as their own experiences and recommendations in teaching practice, in order to discover a possible way to optimise the team of EMI teachers and their teaching. Such a research question, after my first year of the EdD programme, led me to believe that using a qualitative research approach would better examine the areas and topics of interest to me.

This decision was strengthened when I was completing my systematic review of the field of EMI, and I counted 20 of the dozens of articles I had read that referred to research methods. Of these, three

were quantitative, five were mixed-methods and 12 were qualitative, indicating that qualitative research methods were used in more than half of the EMI-related studies. In 12 qualitative studies, interviews (including semi-structured interviews, in-depth interviews, and focus group interviews), classroom observation, document analysis, and self-report (including student reports, student reflection, and student learning stories) are used individually or in combination. This laid the foundation for my decision to conduct qualitative research. I then gained a deeper understanding of the research paradigm and related research design of qualitative research methods, and data analysis methods. Following is an explanation of the relationship between the research paradigm of qualitative research and my research questions and objectives.

Research paradigms serve a crucial role in assisting researchers in comprehending the nature of social reality and the philosophical assumptions upon which research is based. A paradigm is the underlying belief system or worldview that underlies academic studies (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). In turn, the worldview determines the methodology, and researchers with different worldviews observe reality and approaching challenges in different ways. (Huff, 2009).

As my overarching research question is to ask what the EMI teachers' perspectives and insights on the EMI practice at SFCUs are. Building on this question, my primary research objective is to investigate the experiences, opinions and suggestions of EMI teachers regarding EMI teaching practices and to develop an implementation framework for SFCU administrative managers and teaching staff so that the quality of EMI teachers' teaching is ensured from the point of teacher recruitment through to their training and teaching practice, thereby enhancing the effectiveness of EMI. I think the constructivist research paradigm best fits my research phenomenon, research questions and research objectives.

This is because a constructivist research paradigm allows me to describe the philosophical assumptions underpinning my research questions and the data collection procedures, I've employed in order to answer the questions. Creswell & Poth (2016) outlines four philosophical assumptions, including beliefs regarding ontology (what is reality), epistemology (what is the truth, i.e. the nature of knowledge and its justification), axiology (what is intrinsically valuable and ethical), and methodology (i.e. how to conduct research). I will discuss the nature of each of these components of a constructivist paradigm in Section 3.2.2.

My research aims to investigate the effectiveness of the adoption of EMI in SFCUs, as I noted in Section 2.1.1.3, as a form of IaH, and how EMI teachers, one of the stakeholders of EMI practice, perceive the practice and effectiveness of EMI. It is envisaged that their opinions and suggestions would result in a framework for EMI practice that can be used as a reference for achieving the dual objectives of knowledge acquisition and English language development that EMI practice was originally meant to achieve. To address my research question, a qualitative research approach as one of the four components of constructivism, the initial selection of research methods from my previous reading of previous research, was appropriate for my study. Creswell & Poth (2016) emphasises that the purpose of qualitative research is to provide a holistic account of the problem in its natural setting, based on the perceptions of the participants in the study, as well as the researcher's personal experiences and interpretation. These are essential features of qualitative research. Denzin and Lincoln (2011) described qualitative research as activities that are situated in the social world and are made visible through human voices and behaviours. They contended that these voices and behaviours could be communicated through interviews and other particular qualitative research methods, thereby rendering the object of investigation significant and meaningful. Based on this account, I believe my research can be considered a qualitative study.

3.2.2 Constructivism

In accordance with the constructivist paradigm, meaning and truth are said to be formed by social actors through their interaction with both their own and others' lived experiences (Lincoln, Lynham, & Cuba, 2011). Schwandt (2000) stated that researchers who follow the constructivist paradigm look at diverse individual experience that shape numerous realities to gain a deeper understanding of complicated phenomenon. In this paradigm view, knowledge is an experience constructed through different modes of interaction and meaning. This implies that knowledge is generated by humans as they attempt to make sense of the world (Leavy, 2017).

According to Guba and Lincoln (1994), from the standpoint of ontology, constructivists argue that there are multiple realities of one phenomenon. This is due to the fact that various individuals construct these realities in their own circumstances based on their own experiences. The same social phenomenon will be interpreted and assigned diverse meanings by different people. The processes

of social actors' meaning construction, in which they engage directly with individuals and events in the social world, explain how social reality is constructed. In general, researchers select this paradigm to explain lived experiences and to explain the deeper meanings and insights that emerge from them.

As a result of my ontological assumptions, I am able to appreciate and comprehend the different perspectives of the participants (i.e. EMI teachers including language specialists and subject experts) who adopt EMI at SFCUs and have different experiences applying EMI in their teaching. As a researcher, I seek to shed light on the numerous viewpoints of EMI teachers from various backgrounds about the emergence of EMI in the context of internationalisation and globalisation in higher education. Also, I hope to explore the effectiveness of their EMI practices at SFCUs, the challenges they have encountered, and the recommendations they have found to effectively implement EMI at SFCUs.

Therefore, it is essential to recognise the subjectivity of knowledge, as social interaction can produce distinct realities. Patton (2002) asserts that constructivists agree on the premise that the world as individuals perceive it is built and does not exist as objective fact. This is because each individual's life experiences shape their perceptions of social phenomena and influence their capacity to develop new knowledge, Lincoln et al. (2011) explained. For instance, the EMI teachers who participated in my study have all had cross-cultural study or work experience, having been exposed to different countries' cultures and customs in terms of education systems, ideologies, and people's thinking and behaviour. In addition, they have interacted with locals in countries where they have academic or professional expertise. All of these factors have shaped their learning experiences and understanding of teaching and learning activities in various ways. These EMI teachers can also have unique perspectives of higher education internationalization and the widespread popularity of EMI, etc., as each of their different experiences can be reflected in their understandings and interpretation of these phenomena.

Knowledge is based on subjective interpretations that are socially and historically constructed by the subjects involved. However, knowledge is also derived from researcher's findings during the investigation. Constructivists believe that research findings result from the interaction between the researcher and participants (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Instead of being collected or gathered, data is made or generated. In this study, I adopt the suggestion of Mertens (2019), that paying attention to

the contexts of the data I generated with participants to support my interpretations. Consequently, I will provide direct quotations from my participants as is appropriate to understanding their contexts.

Axiology concerns that researchers must examine the importance, significance, and ethics of finding what is occuring in their pursuit of knowledge. According to Heron and Reason's axiological assumption (1997), human states of being can be valued solely for what they are. Lincoln et al. (2011) has claimed that research results are personally relevant and require a constructivist paradigm for comprehension. My research had personal importance to the participants involved since they were the ones who directly experienced the phenomenon. The phenomenon of EMI and higher education IaH is complicated, necessitating extensive research for an in-depth understanding due to the diversity of participant perspectives and approaches. Since trustworthiness, authenticity, reflexivity and reciprocity are the key components of a fruitful research process, I applied the constructivist paradigm's standards when conducting my own research (Mertens, 2019). Specifically, I developed fairness and compassion in the researcher-participant relationship by using semi-structured interviews and classroom observations to jointly construct my knowledge on higher education IaH and EMI implementation at SFCUs.

Methodology reveals the factors that influence the selection and implementation of the methods and strategies for data collection and data analysis, as well as explains how the research findings are linked to the research project's objectives (Crotty, 1998). To answer the research questions and achieve the research objectives, the methodology should account for the philosophical assumptions outlined above and how they influence the research design. The constructivist paradigm favours qualitative approaches, as noted by Angen (2000). From the aforementioned ontological and epistemological perspectives, the various life experiences of my research participants have constructed their different voices of the complicated and multifaceted phenomena of higher education IaH and EMI.

For data generation in my study, I adopted semi-structured interviews and classroom observations. However, of the two, the semi-structured interviews were the primary source of information, whereas classroom observations played a minor role. Due to the semi-structured nature of my interviews with the participants and the openness of the unstructured classroom observations, these

two approaches afforded me and the participants enough opportunities to fully engaged in a dialogue process of aimed at collaboratively constructing a meaningful reality.

The aforementioned approaches are also consistent with the axiology in constructivism. Consequently, the study findings should be applicable to participants' lives and the research itself should have intrinsic value. In the course of the interviews, meaningful reality has been formed from the participants' unique experiences and perceptions, as well as from my own interpretation and analysis. The dialogic construction of the investigation process allows me to access more information through a rich context, which can form the theme discourse for interpreting the meaning and identifying data from a constructivist perspective.

3.3 Research Design

In this section, I will describe the research sites, research tools, sampling process, participant information and the methods used for data collection.

3.3.1 Research sites

With the purpose of investigating EMI in SFCUs in China, two such universities were purposively chosen as the sites for this research. One is located in the east of China while the other is located in the south of China. Both of them have independent legal entity and adopt the British education systems.

The following explains why I chose these two SFCUs. First, they both advertise in their recruitment campaigns that they use EMI throughout the four years of undergraduate study. Second, there are a total of 10 SFCUs out of over 2,000 SFCPs in China, and their entire universities adopt the education systems similar to those used by the overseas universities they collaborate with, as opposed to some SFCPs that are built on a special presence in all-Chinese teaching universities. Comparing to the SFCPs, some of the SFCUs provide a more advanced and deeper level of EMI, and the two SFCUs I chose have been in operation for more than ten years (as of 2020, the year of my data collection, China has only 16 years of regulated SFCE), thus, I believe their practice in EMI teaching is even more representative than the EMI teachers at newly established SFCUs.

Additionally, there were two SFCUs collaborating with UK universities and three collaborating with Hong Kong universities whose teaching systems were all comparable to those of UK universities. Since I am pursuing my EdD at a UK university, such universities were my preferred choices. I contacted the two SFCUs collaborating with UK universities and two SFCUs collaborating with Hong Kong universities (one of the SFCU collaborating with Hong Kong university will not have undergraduate programmes until September 2023), and eventually one SFCU affiliated with UK and one SFCU affiliated with Hong Kong granted me permission to conduct research on my issue at their institutions.

Donghe University

Donghe University, located in east China, was selected as one of the two sites. It is an international joint venture university founded by a prominent Chinese university and another prestigious British university. As an SFCU, and a branch campus of the British university, it embodies the essence of both outstanding parent universities and is one of the earliest of its kind approved by the China's MoE.

There were around 17000 students and 1400 faculty and staff in Donghe University at the commencement of the fieldwork in September 2020. The students and teachers are from more than 50 countries and regions around the world. Donghe University now offers approximately 100 degree-programmes in the domains of science, engineering, business, finance, architecture, urban planning, language etc., which all are taught in English except for general and foundational courses. Currently, there are approximately 200 of the 1400 faculty and staff working in Donghe University's English Language Centre (ELC), which was established to support EMI in the university. All degree-programmes in Donghe University are taught in English, with a focus on critical thinking and independent learning. Moreover, according to students' academic performance and English language proficiency, different English courses are provided by the ELC are all for academic purposes (EAP), students receive intensive English training for academic purposes from the very beginning of their study in Donghe University. The goal of Donghe University for its graduates is to equip them with an international outlook and with proficient language skills. The ELC in Donghe University provides additional English courses for students in the first and second years of their undergraduate study.

In the first year, the English courses provided by Donghe University are based on the interaction and communication between teachers and students. These courses are designed to improve students'

capacity to use English in an academic environment on the basis of the language skills they learned from primary and secondary schools. Through teachers' lecturing, group discussion, delivering presentations and etc, students are expected to improve both their language input (listening and reading) and output (writing and speaking) abilities. In the second year, the English language centre (ELC) paid more attention to adopt and use English in students' own areas of expertise. By integrating teaching of English writing and reading, students learn to apply these English language skills to a variety of disciplines. Following two years EAP courses, students' English proficiency is expected to achieve the B2+ level in the CEFR, which is equivalent to the language level that students required to study in universities in English-speaking countries.

Nanjiang University

Nanjiang University, situated in the south China, was jointly founded by a university in mainland China and a university in Hong Kong. Its charter has been approved MoE with full support from the local authority. It aims to advance the internationalization of Chinese higher education and taking the lead in implementing liberal arts education in China. Since the first enrolment in 2005, Nanjiang University has grown into an international institution with cutting-edge educational approaches.

This university offers twenty-five undergraduate programmes in four divisions. The four divisions are the Division of Business and Management, the Division of Culture and Creativity, the Division of Humanities and Social Sciences, and the Division of Science and Technology. Currently there are more than 6000 undergraduate students from both mainland China, Hong Kong, Taiwan and overseas countries and regions. The faculty and staff are from more than 30 countries, which makes it possible to adopt EMI at Nanjiang University.

In order to help students adapt to EMI, Nanjiang University set up the ELC to provide English language courses to all students. The difference between the English language courses at Nanjiang University and Donghe University is that Nanjiang University provides English language courses across the whole four years' undergraduate study.

The English Language Centre offers required courses under the General Education Office. English I-III are designed to help Year 1 and Year 2 students to reach an acceptable English standard roughly on a par with those from HEIs in Hong Kong. English IV is tailor-made for Year 2 students in different

majors so that they can increase their vocabulary, refine their writing skills and be able to write term papers in English, enabling them to study their major disciplines more effectively. For Year three and four students, English courses include Project Presentation, Listen and Speak Up and Professional Communication. Meanwhile, during the orientation week, the ELC organizes a five-days English Enhancement Programme for the freshmen to better adapt to the EMI environment at Nanjiang University.

Besides these courses, a number of weekly clubs and regular workshops are organised to provide students additional English exposure to enhance their English proficiency. The objectives of ELC in Nanjiang University are similar to that in Donghe University. The primary objective of the English courses is to enhance students' general proficiency in English to a level appropriate for each university's EMI policy.

I think the aforementioned descriptions of these two SFCUs will not only provide a fundamental understanding of these two universities, but also demonstrate that they are the universities that fit my research questions and research intention.

3.3.2 Research tools

The research tool I used in the study presented in this thesis was an outline of a semi-structured interview (see in the appendix 1). Before developing this outline, I studied a number of articles on EMI research employing semi-structured interviews, picked a couple that were more pertinent to my research, and emailed their authors. The authors (Ernesto Macaro, Mustafa Akincioglu, and Shuangmiao Han) of *English medium instruction in higher education: Teacher perspectives on professional development and certification>* shared with me the interview outline they used in their research. Then, I took the overall structure of their interview outline and some of the interview questions, combined them with my own research questions at the time and my own experience of working at an SFCU to develop my initial outline.

Moreover, I also included the outline in the ethics application, which was reviewed by my two supervisors and the School of Education ethics committee, and I consulted my colleagues at the SFCU, where I had worked, for advice on my outline during my holidays back in China before the pandemic.

After combining all the suggestions, I finalised my outline and used it in my formal interviews. Not all teachers were asked the same questions, but the questions we discussed were based on my research topics and specific research questions. When they signed the informed consent form and PIS, all EMI teachers who confirmed their voluntary participation in this study were told about the major purpose of the study and the research topics. I confirmed the interview time with these teachers by email and Chinese social media software and emailed them the interview guidelines half an hour prior to the interview for their preparation.

Regarding the classroom observations, after the teachers confirmed their participation in my study, I sent them a link to a questionnaire (see in appendix 2) which was mainly used to collect some personal information about them, such as gender, highest level of education, graduation institution, EMI teaching experience (time), etc., and the final question in this questionnaire asked if they would be willing to allow me to observe their EMI classrooms. If any of the teachers were willing, I would then contact them by email or other means of communication to coordinate the specific arrangements for the classroom observation. The classroom observation plan was reviewed with my supervisors. After I had observed each classroom for the first time, I prepared a classroom observation report, and my supervisor examined the substance of the report and provided suggestions for improving my subsequent observations.

3.3.3 Data collection

3.3.3.1 Sampling

The study included semi-structured interviews and classroom observations at different stages. The target population was selected on the basis of different criteria.

Because this study is an exploration of EMI teachers and their teaching at two SFCUs, it requires participants who can provide detailed insight into the issue being investigated. The selection of 'information-rich cases' was logical for purposeful sampling as issues important to the purpose of the study could be highlighted from these sites (Patton, 2002, p. 230). Participants selected for purposeful sampling had characteristics relevant to the study and exhibited a degree of diversity that allowed exploration of the effects of characteristics of events (Ritchie, Lewis, & Elam, 2003). Purposeful sampling aims to recruit participants in a strategic manner so that those sampled are

highly relevant to the study and thus the core phenomena are understood (Bryman, 2012; Miles and Huberman, 1994).

For the EMI teachers, I approached them based on their nationality, years of teaching experience and subject matter for the purpose of diversity. Snowball sampling was also used when recruiting EMI teacher participants, as some EMI teachers referred me to other teachers. (See the sampling criteria in the table below)

| Sampling Criteria | |
|--|--|
| Inclusion Criteria | Exclusion Criteria |
| Aged 18 and over | Under 18 |
| working at either SFCUs | not working at these two SFCUs |
| In-service Teaching Staff at either SFCUs | Admin staff |
| Familiar with EMI mode | Know little about EMI mode |
| Good comprehension and expression skills in Chinese or English | Inability to understand or use either English or Chinese |
| Consent to participate in the research | Feeling hesitant to participate in this research |

3.3.3.2 Participants

Through connections from my previous job, I contacted with some teachers from both universities and had an initial conversation. After receiving approval for my research from the School of Education ethics committee, I eventually recruited 20 faculty members (See the key characteristics of the 20 participants in Appendix 3) for interviews at the two SFCUs. Thirteen of these were at Nanjiang University and seven at Donghe University.

These teachers came from different academic departments and faculties, but they all had a background of overseas study or work and had two years or more EMI teaching experience. The teacher participants included four native English speakers and 16 native Chinese speakers. Additionally, interviews were done with both subject experts and language specialists, as well as with some teaching assistants, in order to understand the practical experiences of the various individuals and how they saw the EME model at their universities.

Of these 20 EMI teachers, there are 12 female teachers and 8 male teachers. Eight of the 20 teachers have 2-5 years of EMI teaching experience, eight have 5-10 years of EMI teaching experience and four have more than 10 years of EMI teaching experience.

In addition, the 20 teachers come from a variety of disciplines including humanities and social sciences, science and engineering and business. 16 of the teachers are native Chinese speakers and 4 are non-native Chinese speakers.

I think this distribution of teaching experience, disciplines and languages gives a more comprehensive picture of the experience and interpretation of EMI teaching practices by teachers from different backgrounds at SFCUs. More detailed information about the teachers can be found in the appendix 3.

3.3.3.4 Research methods

3.3.3.4.1 Semi-structured interviews

The reason for choosing semi-structured interviews was also initially, as mentioned earlier, because it can help to answer my research questions. Meanwhile, I had collated some research methods from related articles when writing a systematic review on EMI. Of the 12 articles that used qualitative research methods, four adopted semi-structured interviews and two adopted focus-group interviews.

Another reason for this is that I learnt in my first year of the EdD course that interviews are considered to be the most fundamental method of data collection when it comes to human actions and affairs (Yin, 2014). Patton (2002, p.341) argues that previous actions, subtle feelings and deep thoughts about certain events or matters can be better understood through a dialogic inquiry, as the purpose of the interview is to reveal "what is in the minds of others and to gather their stories".

Later sections will go into further detail about the ways in which my background as a former SFCU administrator and current international student informed my approach to this research. However, I would like to imply that, while our life experiences could have shared some commonalities, those of the people who took part in my study were also significantly different from mine.

Learning about the EMI model from the perspectives of those who have experienced it first-hand and those who have studied it from afar can yield rich insights. This construct emphasises how individuals form interpretations of events based on their own experiences. Through their interactions with students, colleagues, and the varying cultures, viewpoints, and educational systems that everyone brings to the classroom, EMI teachers can give new meaning to EMI teaching and learning as well as the notion of IaH. Semi-structured interviews are ideal for discovering and imparting such meanings. Such interviews helped to reveal how the participants in this study felt during the IaH process, as well as their experiences, ideas, and suggestions for teaching EMI, and allowed me to capture the value of IaH through their own voices, and to draw abstractions for specific models of EMI teaching practice appropriate to SFCU, thereby improving the effectiveness of EMI practice. Seidman (2012) believes that in-depth interviews imply a desire to comprehend how respondents make meaning of their actual experiences.

In general, semi-structured interviews are considered qualitative interviews (Warren, 2002). In a semi-structured interview, the interviewer prepares a set of questions within the interview guide, but the interviewer is free to rearrange the questions based on the actual practise, as described by Bryman (2016). Furthermore, semi-structured interviews feature broader questions than their structured counterparts. In addition, if an interviewee provides an insightful response, the interviewer is free to ask more questions. "Interviews that try to gain a description of the interviewee's lifeworld in order to understand the meaning of the phenomena presented" is how Kvale and Brinkmann (2009, p3) define semi-structured interviews. This definition suggests that semi-structured interviews are relatively focused and flexible and are performed with a focus on reaching research objectives as opposed to being considered as a casual discussion. Simultaneously, the main focus on seeking the interviewee's description of the lifeworld implies the multiplicity and, consequently, the flexibility of semi-structured interviews, as different personal experiences and perceptions can lead to multiple descriptions and interpretations and can impact the ongoing dialogic process between interviewer and interviewee.

The semi-structured interview format makes use of an open-ended list of questions in the interview guide to ensure some degree of focus (Ayres, 2008). Interviews were conducted using both open-ended questions and my own research questions that were informed by the advice of several qualitative research books.

This was done as the literature suggested so that the information gathered from each participant was based on their answers to predetermined topics or questions, given the short length of the interviews (Bryman, 2012; Patton, 2002). Moreover, as case study interviews typically lasted an hour (Yin, 2014), researchers may cover every angle of the topic by paying just moderate attention to any one participant. Therefore, my interviews guideline showed to the participants that an interview will last for 45-60mins. Having a narrower scope might simplify data collection for certain types of questions, which in turn can speed up the researcher's work when analysing the collected data.

Interview questions in qualitative research should be tailored to elicit information relevant to addressing research questions without being unduly specific (Bryman, 2012). As previously explained, I developed a detailed plan for my interviews by consulting both the available literature and my own research questions, as well as the advice of my supervisors and former colleagues.

However, due to participants varied cultural backgrounds and life and work experiences, there may be wide variation in responses to any given issue. Because of the flexibility of semi-structured interviews, I paid close attention to the interviewee's comments at various points, rearranged questions as necessary, and prompted for additional inquiries to keep the conversation flowing in a way that felt natural and logical to me. After hearing answers that really stood out to me, I rephrased them to ensure that I had heard and understood them correctly, with the goal of subsequently using this technique to clarify key concerns that had arisen from the survey.

Importantly, the 'conversational' nature of the semi-structured interview is congruent with constructivism's naturalistic and collaborative approach to data collection (as stated in the preceding section on research paradigms). Constructivist researchers believe that they can learn more about the phenomenon they're investigating by interacting with the people who are the subject of their study, and that the phenomenon's meaning can be co-constructed through a dialogue-based strategy of inquiry (Wahyuni, 2012). Through semi-structured interviews, participants were able to describe their experiences with EMI and share their ideas, opinions, and recommendations.

Furthermore, unlike structured interviews, which represent the researcher and participants as coconstructors of narratives and information, semi-structured interviews are more conversational and participatory in nature. Specifically, researchers can make better use of the opportunities presented by dialogic inquiry, such as the greater depth afforded by open-ended inquiries and the broader latitude afforded in following up on what participants value most (Brinkmann, 2013). In light of these features, I decided to employ the semi-structured interview as data collection method for my study. Semi-structured interviews allow participants the option to select and discuss what they believe to be significant when responding to questions I've prepared in advance or when answering questions, I ask based on the course of the conversation.

On average, each of my interviews lasted approximately 40 minutes, which is typical as mentioned by Yin (2004), and interviews were audio-recorded, which is considered essential in qualitative research as nothing can replace the raw data (what real people say in their own words) captured during the interviews (Patton, 2002). Participants who did not wish to have their interviews recorded were kindly rejected during the screening process, since I could not obtain a complete picture of the unique perspectives provided by each participant without listening to the recordings.

In addition to the audio recordings, I took notes before the interviews based on the participants' basic personal information, and notes during and after the interviews on my thoughts and observations at the time. As Patton (2002) suggests, audio-recording does not eliminate the necessity to take notes in an interview. Besides the generic questions in the survey before interviews, I also visited the SFCUs' official websites to verify their personal information, including their graduation institution, major, work experience and research interests, etc. I took notes on what I considered to be essential to remind myself of issues in their background that were relevant to my research and needed to be explored further. For example, several of the participants had worked at several different SFCUs, which I would highlight prior to the interview, and I anticipated that their insights would differ from those of the teachers who had only worked at the current SFCUs I researched.

Throughout the interviews, I highlighted some of the significant or emerging issues raised by the participants so that I can ask more in-depth questions during subsequent conversations. At the end of the interview, I wrote down some of the insights I received or questions that arose, and I will remind myself to include my newly acquired information in the subsequent interview. Taking notes also improved my comprehension of the conversations I had with the participants and allowed me to properly transcribe and analyse the data.

However, there is a factor that I thought affected my interview effectiveness. It is the language issue including the participants' L1 and the language of the interview that influenced my interview processes.

As previously noted in the participant information section of this chapter, four of my interviewees had English as their L1, while the remaining sixteen had Chinese as their L1. I conducted the interviews with each group in their respective L1. It is important to acknowledge that because my L1 is Chinese, conducting the interviews in English and Chinese had an impact on my interview practice. For example, in Chinese, if the interviewee was not so talkative or did not initiate the conversation at the beginning, I could easily find a way to encourage them to talk more about their ideas. However, in English, I felt that if the other person was talkative, I could be motivated, while if they were not, I would be in an awkward position and the interview would be over relatively quickly. Using Chinese allowed me to get more information, whereas using English limited the depth and breadth of information I could get to a certain extent.

In addition to this, I was concerned about the accuracy of the interview in English, so I was prepared to use different expressions to explain what I wanted to say during the interview. However, I believe the interview went well overall, and where I was uncertain, I used my own words to express what the interviewee said. I wanted confirmation from the attendees that I had understood correctly. When reviewing the transcripts following the interview, I contacted the interviewees to confirm that I had accurately transcribed their statements.

Moreover, with regard to the control of the direction of the interview, I think the language issue also had a slight impact. From my own perspective, I was more mindful of how to politely remind the participants in Chinese that we needed to get back to the topic at hand, rather than deviating from it. But in English interviews, when I encountered the same issue, I feel embarrassed or unsure of how to respectfully request that the conversation be brought back to the topic at hand. This is probably one of the reasons why the English interviews are less effective than the Chinese counterparts.

3.3.3.4.2 Classroom observation

Classroom observation is a method in which the observer collects relevant information directly or indirectly from the lecturer's environment and conducts a classroom study based on pedagogical knowledge and training resources for a specific purpose. Observation in the classroom as a research method is extensively commonly employed in language acquisition studies (Dodiya, Kapadiya & Malvaniya, 2014). Van Lier (1988) stated that classroom researchers should identify, explain, and relate in intersubjective terms the actions and contributions of participants in the L2 classroom in order to appreciate their significance for language learning. In addition, Nunan (1992) argued that research on teacher-student interaction and teacher pedagogy should not be confined to classroom observations but should also include techniques such as teacher stimulated recall, teacher interviews, and teacher diaries.

I conducted classroom observations mainly to observe the students' responses when the teachers used the teaching approaches they mentioned, and to verify what the teachers said in their interviews. After communicating with the EMI teachers during the interviews, two of the teachers granted me access to observe their classrooms online with the approval of the university administration. Due to the epidemic control at the time, I was unable to access their campus and classrooms to conduct on-site observations. However, they adopted a hybrid online and offline approach for all classes in order to accommodate teachers and students who were unable to visit the campus, so I was able to conduct 19 online observations (see the observation schedule in Appendix 4) of three classes (Law, Mathematics and Financial management) of two EMI teachers (Milton and Jeremy).

In the classrooms, I focused on the teachers' use of language, the way the interaction with the students, teaching style, and the students' engagement. However, due to space constraints, there is only one finding in this thesis that mentions classroom observation. My classroom observations were conducted after I had finished interviewing Jeremy and Milton, but I was also still conducting interviews with other EMI teachers during the observations, which lasted over a month. Overall, the classroom observations had little impact on my interviews with other EMI teachers, as each teacher interviewed answered my questions in terms of their own teaching practices and classrooms, but it is important to acknowledge that in my own interpretation of what the other teachers mentioned, I sometimes associated it with the phenomena I observed in the classrooms. For example, I occasionally questioned the feasibility and popularity of the methods s that other teachers have

outlined for interacting with students or assisting them in understanding. It is also important to note that, due to the Covid-19 restrictions, all my classroom observations were conducted online and the teachers' lessons were conducted in a hybrid or purely online mode, which did not fully match the experiences that majority of the teachers interviewed shared about their on-site teaching, so observing such classes also affected my interpretation of what the teachers shared about their on-site EMI teaching experience. However, for these two teachers, I conducted further interviews with them following the classroom observations to further analyse the phenomena I had observed in the classroom and the problems that arose.

3.4 Data Analysis

Through semi-structured interviews and classroom observations, I was able to compile a textual dataset of participant-articulated realities. I used thematic analysis to investigate and analyse these numerous realities. This style of analysis is recognised as an effective strategy for elucidating 'the multiplicity of meaning inside a textual data set' and because it permits close engagement with and active interpretation of the numerous realities provided by my participants (Guest, Macqueen, & Namey, 2011). A theoretical understanding of the researched phenomenon was derived from common thematic units detected in the participants' textual input. The primary issues of thematic analysis are the focus on what participants have said and how the data acquired from them might be conceptually organised (Riessman, 1993).

Thematic analysis is frequently employed across various epistemological or theoretical perspectives; for instance, it is considered compatible with the constructivist paradigm, which requires analysis to include both the participants' accounts and the sociocultural contexts in which they are situated (Braun & Clarke, 2022). The theoretical flexibility of thematic analysis could be useful to me (especially as an inexperienced researcher) because it is an accessible method of study (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

The unit of text for analysis is flexible in the context of thematic analysis. There is no minimum text length required for coding (Charmaz, 2014; Floersch, Longhofer, Kranke, & Townsend, 2010). The flexibility in text length for coding could enable me to concentrate on identifying themes within each text or across texts, as opposed to only examining micro-units of text. In accordance with their

'substantive relevance,' themes were identified (Patton, 2002, p.467). The 'substantive significance' of themes is determined by the following criteria: consistent and strong evidence found within data from a single participant or across multiple participants for the intended purpose of the research; the potential to provide a greater understanding of the phenomenon under investigation; and the potential to deepen the understanding of existing knowledge about the phenomenon. I placed a prominent emphasis on the theme components that were significant for this study and theoretically contributed to the understanding of EMI at SFCUs in accordance with the principles of 'substantive significance.'

To extract meanings from the raw data, I conducted the thematic analysis in two phases: basic analysis and intensive analysis (or the informal analysis and the formal analysis). The formal analysis phase includes six further phases: Familiarising myself with the dataset; coding; generating initial themes; developing and reviewing themes; refining and naming themes; and writing up (Braun &Clarke, 2022).

Phase 1-is the informal analysis. The initial data analysis occurred during the data generation procedure. In many qualitative studies, it is deemed unavoidable and useful to begin analysis during the process of data creation, as it allows researchers to influence the ongoing process of data generation by refining interview questions and examining some critical or novel issues in depth (Pope, Ziebland, & Mays, 2000). In this study, the initial phase began with a preliminary (informal) examination of the data from the semi-structured interviews with the two supervisors. As 16 of the teachers I interviewed were native-Chinese-speakers, I conducted the majority of my interviews in Chinese so that the interviewees could express themselves more accurately and so that I, also a native-Chinese-speaker, could better comprehend what the interviewees were attempting to say. However, this increased the difficulty of my transcribing work, since I had to translate the texts into English and then analyse them.

As my qualification as a translator is recognised by the Chinese government, I translated the interview texts myself first, then another certified translator helped with checking the translation, and my second supervisor, who is also a native-Chinese-speaker but has excellent English fluency, reviewed my translations after I had translated a third of the documents. The translation procedure actually increased my familiarity with the manuscript.

As soon as I completed transcribing and translation of my interviews, I examined the transcripts with the field notes I had taken during the interviews to gain a comprehensive understanding of what my participants had stated. At the same time, I utilised highlighters to identify areas where there may have been pertinent information for in-depth interviews with teachers at SFCUs or potential trends for formal study. Throughout this process, I jotted suggestions for potential topics in the margins adjacent to the highlighted regions. This procedure may also be used to the unprocessed data that I transcribed from subsequent interviews with other EMI teachers, as it increased my sensitivity to the data set. I performed the transcription and translation as follows: after completing each of the three to five interviews, I first transcribed them using Iflyrec, a software developed by IFLYTEK which is a high-tech company in China. After completing all interviews, I then re-listened to all the recordings and checked the transcribed text and revised some of the transcription errors. This was followed by the translation of some of the transcripts. During this process, when I realised that there are connections or particular points that need attention, I marked them or write them down in 'memo to myself' to facilitate subsequent analysis.

Phase 2-formal analysis. I began the formal analysis after completing the transcriptions, translations, and preliminary analysis to familiarise myself with all the data. I re-read the transcribed and translated interview transcripts and where appropriate, re-listened to the audio recordings while re-reading the transcripts, paying close attention to the issues and themes that emerged and recurred in the dataset. I also reviewed the initial notes that were taken during the interview, transcribing and translating processes to refine or re-identify potential questions or topics.

However, given this was my first time conducting data analysis using a theme analysis approach, my supervisor provided me with support. He advised me to analyse each component separately and showed me some exemplar of coding. One might consider a code the most crucial aspect or piece of the original data or information, and it is also something that can be used to make an insightful evaluation of the phenomenological state (Boyatzis, 1998). In addition, I annotated some codes so that I can recall what a particular paragraph in the text is about, what the thought that may be behind it is, or the reason why I gave it a specific code. Throughout this process, my supervisor was continually assisted me in fixing my codes.

| Excerpts | Keywords | | |
|--|---|--|--|
| There are pre-service trainings for teachers, but not specifically for EMI. | Pre-service training | | |
| The pre-service training is just for a general introduction to the | ♦ Not specific | | |
| university, and get the new teachers being familiar with the university | Yes | | |
| environment as soon as possible. | | | |
| They didn't ask for it, but they said that the university's instruction | Doctorate holders | | |
| language is English so it is actually equivalent to requiring applicants to | Overseas university | | |
| have the ability to teach in English, which should be the most basic | ◆ Ability to teach in English | | |
| requirement for doctorate holders graduating from overseas | Yes | | |
| universities. | | | |
| because in fact such requirement cannot be one-size-fits-all, because | ♦ Cannot be one-size-fits-all | | |
| academic English for specific subjects <u>are</u> also different, it is difficult to | Subject difference | | |
| have a unified standard for each subject, not to mention that a subject | ◆ Difficult to unify standard | | |
| can have many branches. | Yes | | |
| No need for that, because firstly it is difficult to quantify the standards | Difficult to quantify standards | | |
| required in different subjects, and secondly, it is not necessary to have | Subject difference | | |
| unified standards. | Not necessary to unify standards - No | | |
| | Unified standards not necessary | | |
| Because some subjects such <u>as mathematics</u> , which do not require | ♦ Some subjects do not require high English | | |
| high English ability, people in this field also know that as long as | ability Yes | | |
| tudents can solve their problems, it is OK, that is to say, there is no Can solve problems is ok – no | | | |
| deliberate requirements for EMI teaching. | There is no requirement for EMI teaching | | |
| But generally, most of the doctoral students have teaching practices or have taught in some overseas schools before graduation | Doctoral students have teaching experiences | | |
| Also when recruiting EMI teachers, it is better to recruit some | Yes ◆ Experienced teachers better | | |
| experienced teachers, rather than fresh PhD holders who have just | Not fresh PhD graduates | | |
| graduated. | Yes | | |
| I have also become familiar and experienced in teaching after taught in | Teaching after one semester - No | | |
| an American university for one semester. Before that, my oral English | Familiar and experienced after teaching i | | |
| was poor, in fact, what we are familiar with are those English | America | | |
| terminologies relevant to our area of expertise. | English in area of expertise | | |
| Many of PhD holders have years of teaching experiences before they | Teaching experiences are improved in | | |
| | | | |

eYes, although they are all taught in English, the content and objects they faced are actually different, these are two different situations. In fact, adopting EMI means we are very familiar with English in our professional field, and there is no problem in articulating and expressing. But it doesn't mean that we can speak English of any field, Subject differences - no or teach any subjects in English well. Taching in English in other subject does not work for me. So this is really a big difference.

PhD holders have teaching experience

- Adopting EMI means familiar professional English - No No problem in articulating and expressing
- English in specialist field
- Teaching in English in another subject does not

Coding was done both inside each participant's text and between all texts in the dataset. It was generated manually in the texts, such as by highlighting potential areas for generating thematic patterns with Microsoft word highlighters, making marginal notes when ideas occurred, and using sticky notes to identify snippets of data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The coded excerpts, the codes, and

the comments on them are represented visually, allowing me to keep track of the codes I assigned the data, and the reasons for doing so.

For each section of the coding that I completed, I created a list and then analysed the data, bringing the coding to a higher level by segmenting, categorising, and organising the extracts and codes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). My coding list assisted me in reviewing and categorising my codes by compiling excerpts and codes from each participant and compiling excerpts that represented comparable topics. I was able to find a 'central organising concept' (Braun & Clarke, 2022) or a topic pertinent to my study via the aggregation of codes with similar characteristics or consistent patterns. Generally, I use a broader category to identify or describe a theme, but when the code itself is rich and sophisticated, I use a code or a slightly extended code to name the theme (Braun & Clarke, 2022).

| Keywords |
|---|
| Pre-service trainings on university's regulations and rules |
| No pre-service trainings for EMI teachers |
| Not specific trainings for language and pedagogy |
| Trainings on novice EMI teachers |
| Apprenticeship/ mentor scheme |
| Audit scheme |
| Trainings for EMI teaching assistant |
| Self-training or improving EMI teaching by teacher selves |
| EMI teacher training is difficult to carry out |
| Standard teacher training is impossible |
| Pedagogy training not necessary |
| EMI teacher wish to have trainings |
| EMI teachers need to be trained in regulations, procedures and syllabus |
| requirements but not their expertise. |
| Experiences are more important than trainings |
| |

| Codes | Keywords | Excerpts | Interview information |
|--|---|--|---|
| Pre-service training in EMI universities | Pre-service trainings on university's regulations and rules | There are pre-service trainings for teachers, The pre-service training is just for a general introduction to the university, and get the new teachers being familiar with the university environment as soon as possible. | Interviewee: Jack University: NU Date of interview: Sep.20. 2020 |
| | | We didn't have any training courses when I joined this university. Current training for novice teachers does not involve improving language things. The training is mainly to introduce the rules and regulations of the university or to get them familiar with the campus environment or give some handbooks, so that new teachers can be familiar with the university in general. | Interviewee: Terry University: NU Date of interview: Sep.20. 2020 |
| | No pre-service trainings for EMI teachers | No, we don't have such trainings. Basically, we adjusted ourselves and adapted to the environment. | Interviewee: Joanna University: DU Date of interview: Sep. 10. 2020 |
| | | No, there's no training courses, not mention for either language improvement or teaching methods. | Interviewee: Wendy University: DU Date of interview: Sep.12. 2020 |
| | | Absolutely no trainings were given before I taught Chinese students. | Interviewee: Irene University: DU Date of interview: Sep. 17. 2020 |
| | | Professional training for teachers? No, even we don't have the in-service ones. | Interviewee: Sherry University: DU Date of interview: Sep. 8.2020 |

Once I had compiled my initial list of codes and themes, I forwarded them to my supervisor for advice. My supervisor pointed out the necessity to go beyond the excerpt and the code and have a line-to-line analysis rather than a literal summary only. Following many rounds of revisions and refinements, I collated all the excerpts, grouped them into themes, then returned to the dataset to ensure that no themes had been overlooked and to add any new ones as they emerged. As a rich source of evidence for the subsequent step of writing up the results and helping establish a theoretical understanding of the phenomena under research, I compiled the relevant excerpts, codes, and comments in a table under the themes to which they related. In addition to presenting the results from the interview data, I believe it is important to interpret my understanding of the results and my perceptions in the context of my experiences and perceptions in this professional doctoral thesis, which is why I have added my professional reflection, a kind of discussion, after he my presentation of the data.

3.5 Reflexivity

Qualitative research is significantly impacted by the researcher, who is the instrument of study (Patton, 2002). In data collection, qualitative researchers facilitate their relationships with participants and serve as data interpreters (Poggenpoel & Myburgh, 2003). Therefore, qualitative research is greatly reliant on the researcher's expertise, experience, and passions (Given, 2008, Patton, 2002). In light of this, I believe it is essential to describe how my experience has affected the phenomena I am investigating.

As mentioned in the Section 1.2, after three years of working in an SFCU in China, I realised that the positive and negative effects of EMI on students in SFCUs are unavoidable. As an administrator, I frequently interacted with EMI students, parents and teachers. From their feedback, as well as from students' classroom performance and progression, I am convinced that not all stakeholders are satisfied with the teaching model and the results it yields.

But also, as I mentioned in Section 1.1, EMI is being propelled forward by the unstoppable and irreversible stream of the globalisation. Rather than wondering whether a new model of teaching should be found to replace it in an international context, it would be better to explore how to optimise the teaching force and improve the quality of teaching and learning in EMI from the perspective of administrators, so as to achieve the dual objectives originally envisioned for the EMI

model. Meanwhile, as a former master's student in the UK, I could also feel the difference between EMI and the English environment I studied in the UK, which motivated me to explore the phenomenon of IaH and EMI when I came to Scotland to begin my new academic journey.

After becoming an international student again, I began to compare the three years of international education experience I had in China to the one year of international experience I had previously had in the UK for my master's degree. They both made me realise that EMI is complicated and difficult to implement effectively in China. This led me to hope that I could find a way to optimise EMI practices that would satisfy everyone as much as possible by conducting research with EMI stakeholders. So in my initial research questions, I posed research questions for all three parties, and in my research design, I also combined quantitative analysis, focus group interviews and other methods to explore the experiences and perceptions of the three stakeholders. However, for space limitations, I was unable to present the entire study in this thesis, so I have chosen to address what I believe is the most pressing issue of EMI teacher optimisation at the moment.

As I already noted in Section 3.3.3.4.1, I mostly utilised semi-structured interviews with teachers to understand more about internationalisation from the viewpoint of an EMI teacher insider. My three-years professional experience at an SFCU enabled me to comprehend the participants' narratives, their language, as well as its subtleties and subtexts (Lewis, 2003). Including my more than one-year experience as an online part-time IELTS teacher teaching Chinese students studying at SFCUs, I was able to understand the problems that some teachers mentioned that EMI students had with their language learning and how these problems affected their learning of subject knowledge. Particularly, many of the concerns mentioned by these EMI teachers are about students' comprehension of the subject content and the academic essays writing. If I only had experience as an administrator and overseas student, I would have a different perspective on these issues, but because I am a language exam teacher, I can understand the worries and complaints of these teachers and what they attempt to convey.

Throughout my qualitative study, I must admit that my own cultural background and life and work setting has influenced my interactions with participants, my judgement of themes or issues that requires deeper investigation, and my interpretation of participants' narratives. Having experienced the phenomenon under study, qualitative researchers are better able to ask pertinent follow-up

questions, re-establish rapport with study participants, and empathise with those being studied, and the appropriate knowledge claims can be made about the experiences shared by participants (Collins, 2000). The research topic I chose and the methods I used to generate and analyse data to answer research questions were, in this sense, profoundly influenced by my identity and how I conceptualised the object of my study. Reiharz (1997, p5) notes that researchers' perspectives are significantly influenced by the 'brought selves' they construct based on their own personal histories and social contexts. This argument implies that my own life experiences may be important for comprehending the research that underpins me.

3.6 Ethical considerations

The primary ethical considerations in qualitative research are frequently the participants' wellbeing and their right to privacy (Oliver, 2010). This study's topic and research objectives and questions are not intrinsically sensitive, and participants were not exposed to any potential risks or harms; yet, there are still considerations to be taken prior to, during, and after data collection.

Prior to participation, participants were informed about the study and its protocols. Before participants agreed to participate in the study, I provided them with a participant information sheet, informed consent form, etc., which had been approved by the School of Education's ethics committee and was presented in both English and Chinese so that native-Chinese-speakers could easily comprehend the information. These documents and interview outlines are available in both English and Chinese. I employed back-translation on the research documents for this research to improve precision and avoid translation faults (Brislin, 1970). In other words, I translated the participant information sheet, informed consent form, and interview outline from English to Chinese and then asked a certified translator to help to translate these back into English. I then compared that translation to the original English text to ensure that the meaning of both versions was same. I also conducted all interviews in the native language of the interviewees as I believe I am fluent and relatively accurate in both languages, and my second supervisor, who is fluent in both languages, reviewed my interview transcripts to confirm the accuracy of the translation of key concepts and to ensure consistency between the two languages (Squires, 2009).

Furthermore, there may be ethical concerns in recruiting participants for this study due to imbalanced power relations, which may be caused by socioeconomic class, power, gender, age, culture, or even physical appearance (Richards & Emslie, 2000). My participants were contacted through my personal connections, which existed with the management in both SFCUs. When some EMI teachers were contacted by the leadership, they may have felt obliged, or participated in my study in order not to offend the leadership. To ensure that their participation was voluntary, I informed them of their right to withdraw from my study at any time and that I would keep this information confidential so as not to harm the relationship between their colleagues or superiors and subordinates. In addition to this, the views of their colleagues may be mentioned in my interviews, so I am very cautious to be anonymous when discussing the phenomena I have learned about in my interviews with their colleagues.

Additionally, in qualitative research, researchers frequently use pseudonyms for participants' real identities to safeguard their anonymity. Even before the interviews began, I told my participants that I would protect their anonymity by providing them and their universities with pseudonyms so that they could not be identified in the thesis or future publications. These pseudonyms are English names that are pronounced similarly to their real names, making it easier for the reader to distinguish them and simulating the experience of getting to know a real person. In the informed consent form, I also outlined how the study's data will be utilised and preserved. Being open and honest about their privacy can reduce the feelings of mistrust or nervousness and fear they may have during the interview (Liamputtong, 2008).

Finally, I would like to emphasise that all my data collection was carried out with the approval of the ethics committee of the School of Education at the University of Strathclyde. Due to the pandemic, my research was conducted online and required a lot of online data storage, this information is saved via my university's cloud drive and I have password-protected all my folders to prevent them from being lost, damaged or hacked.

3.7 Trustworthiness

The trustworthiness of this study can be demonstrated in a variety of ways. Firstly, when compiling the interview outline and formulating the interview questions, I referred to the interview outline

used in the published article, whose first author is a prominent figure in the field of EMI research, and I thought that his interview questions would be relatively credible. In addition, my supervisors also reviewed my interview questions, and I invited my former colleagues, who are also EMI teachers, to provide feedback and suggestions on my interview questions, resulting in the outline of the interview. I believe this interview outline is reliable.

Secondly, my interviews were conducted in the L1 of the interviewees to ensure the accuracy of their representations. In addition, I transcribed the interviews using an intelligent machine transcription and then re-listened to the recordings myself to correct any inaccuracies in the machine transcription. The revisions were then read through before proceeding to the translation stage. The translation process was also reliable, firstly because I am a qualified translator, and secondly because I have read extensively on previous research in the field of EMI and had accumulated appropriate English expressions that are frequently used in EMI research. In addition to this, my second supervisor who is fluent in both English and Chinese, has thoroughly reviewed my translation to ensure that it is generally consistent with the meaning expressed in the original. My supervisor, a native-English-speaker, also ensured that the translations of my manuscripts were comprehensible and accessible.

Thirdly, in the coding stage, I systematically read Charmaz's coding approach of grounded theory, and then carefully studied Braun & Clarke's coding method of thematic analysis and chose the thematic analysis method that was more applicable for my research. I followed Braun & Clarke's guidance in the book and combined it with my supervisors' advice to begin coding. Throughout each round of my coding and identification of themes, the stringent supervision ensures the reliability of my coding process.

Chapter 4: Understanding the internationalization of EMI teachers at SFCUs-the recruitment and development of EMI teachers

4.1 Introduction

To better understand how EMI teaching are internationalised at SFCUs without much student or staff mobility, this chapter presents the perspectives of university teachers interviewed about the recruitment criteria and processes for EMI teachers and the related learning programmes for teacher professional development. From the interviews with EMI teachers, there are different views on the criteria for entry to EMI teaching across different disciplines, with the main points of contention being whether a doctorate should be the minimum qualification and whether the English language proficiency benchmark should be set as a criterion for recruitment. The controversy over the current recruitment process at the two SFCUs centred on whether there should be a trial lecture to assess their teaching ability and ability to teach in English in particular.

In addition to the problems with recruitment, the teachers also expressed their views on pre-service professional learning and in-service professional learning for EMI teachers. These views and suggestions are aimed at optimizing the quality of the teaching staff at SFCUs from the outset of recruitment, as well as enhancing teachers' teaching skills during their career development process and achieving the goal of internationalising EMI teachers 'at home' and cultivating them to be qualified for EMI teaching, which would be beneficial for the achievement of the dual goal of EMI practice.

- 4.2 Entry requirements and the teacher recruitment process at SFCUs
- 4.2.1 The concerns on EMI teacher entry requirements: whether current recruitment criteria could screen qualified EMI teachers effectively?

The entry requirements of EMI teachers at both universities are comparable. Generally, both require teachers to have overseas doctoral degrees or international work experience. Neither university, however, has explicit language proficiency standards for teachers or mechanisms to specifically measure teaching competence. Specific requirements vary depending on the positions and nationalities.

From my previous experience of working at an SFCU, we assumed that employees with international academic degrees or work experience had a sufficient level of English and relevant pedagogical knowledge to cope with EMI teaching. However, as outlined in Section (2.3.1), previous research (e.g., Ball & Lindsay, 2013, Jiang, Zhang & May, 2019) and my data indicated that the English level of EMI teachers has to some extent become a concern and that it may impair students' learning causing researchers and EMI administrators to be concerned (Jiang, Zhang & May, 2019).

From these past studies (Robert, 2018; Esther & Alice, 2021), the management of some European universities is aware of the language issues of EMI teachers and some solutions have been explored to tackle the problem, but the situation is different in the Chinese context. From my interviews, it appears that neither Chinese SFCU has established specific language requirements for EMI teachers. The teachers' opinions on this matter were varied. The subject experts felt that the existing requirements for degrees and work experience were sufficient to measure the language proficiency of EMI teachers, while there was still a proportion of teachers, mainly those who are native-English-speakers and English language specialists, felt that the current level of English of most EMI teachers still needed to be improved and that there should be a basic language requirement to test the language proficiency of the teachers at the interview stage.

According to the interviews and information from the recruitment advertisements, there are differences in these two universities' recruitment requirements in terms of the different types of positions. However, for professorship positions, all 20 interviewees from both universities stated that their universities require a doctorate obtained from overseas universities typically, as Jack said:

The most basic requirement is doctorate holders graduating from overseas universities. (Jack, NU, Professor in Finance Management)

Similarly, Helen from NU also mentioned that most of their teaching faculty are PhD holders:

We have PhD degrees, and just a tiny proportion of teaching staff have master's degrees, but it is a small proportion; I would say more than 95% of us have a PhD degree. But all our staff have a postgraduate degree from overseas countries. (Helen NU, Associate professor in Marketing)

There is only one exceptional case in my interviews. An interviewee from DU mentioned, however, that for native-English-speaker candidates, the university requires a master's degree only, which is not a high requirement. As Irene from DU stated:

They didn't require your PhD as a qualification. I had my master's degree in marketing and communication with new technologies from the Athens university of economic business. Once they saw that, they told me that I would have the ability to teach the course of introduction to marketing and business methodology. So no, there were no high-level qualifications that they required. (Irene, DU, Associate professor in Marketing)

Apart from the requirements for the academic degree, both universities have no explicit or specific requirements on EMI teachers' language proficiency. However, fourteen of the interviewees pointed out that the management of the two SFCUs consider themselves to be recruiting internationally, as they have transposed the foreign recruitment criteria directly into China to achieve a certain sense of IaH. As Joanna said,

No, they don't have specific requirements for language, but if we say our requirements are based on that in the main campus (where English is the L1 in the region), it means that we have language requirements. (Joanna, DU, Associate Professor in Global Business)

Professional reflection:

When the interviewees stated that the requirements in these SFCUs are consistent with those of the main campuses, this implies that there is an implicit requirement on language, since English is the medium of teaching for students from diverse backgrounds. As far as I see, the language requirement on main campuses can hardly be identical to that of these SFCUs. Taking one of the stakeholders in EMI example, students in SFCUs in China are almost from mainland China with Chinese as their L1, whereas on the main campuses, students are of different cultural and linguistic background, with some being native-English-speakers. Their understanding with English language, especially when English is used in the academic setting, is not the same. Moreover, the cultivation objectives vary. People adopting EMI in SFCUs would like to pursue a dual-goal of both improving language proficiency and subject knowledge, whereas the main campuses do not expressly mention the goal of improving their students' English language level.

Thus, I believe that although there would have some overlaps between the teacher recruitment requirements in the SFCUs and their main campuses, these requirements should not be the same due to the needs of different target-students and different targets of education in SFCUs. In the management dimension of IaH, including this aspect of teacher recruitment, internationalisation does not mean a straightforward copy, SFCUs need to make some adaptations to their respective audiences and contexts.

Despite unclear requirements in job adverts, fifteen of the interviewees stated that candidates' language proficiency could be evaluated during interviews. However, there also three interviewees who believed that as most interviews are conducted in Chinese, it may lead to a failure to test candidates' language proficiency properly. Helen expressed her concerns:

We cannot guarantee candidates' English proficiency, mainly because both interview panel and interviewees are all Chinese; they have the temptation to use Chinese for the interview. This is where we need to improve. (Helen NU, Associate professor in Marketing)

Besides these two requirements, another requirement of an EMI professional certificate was also discussed by interviewees. Over the past two decades, as mentioned in section 2.3.1, some European universities have mandated certification of all university teachers, ranging from doctoral students to professors, for teaching in EMI courses and programmes at traditionally non-Anglophone universities (Dimova & Kling, 2018). A number of states in the United States and Canada have had similar requirements for international teaching assistants oral English proficiency certification much longer since the 1980s and 1990s (Oppenheim, 1998). Nonetheless, debates still exist regarding what type

of assessment method is most relevant for language assessment for teaching purposes. On the one hand, language proficiency could be tested with a specific purpose test. In that case, the question remains, on the other hand, whether teaching behaviour and disciplinary content should be part of the assessment and the scoring rubric or whether the assessment should focus only on language. Moreover, when the focus is on language only, concerns are raised regarding the degree to which teaching strategies and the subject-specific content applied in the practical teaching, or teaching stimulation, affect the assessment if the raters are unfamiliar with the field.

As mentioned in the literature review chapter (see in Section 2.3.3.1), Macaro & Han (2020) explored EMI teachers' perspectives on competencies, certification, and professional development in China's EMI in the higher education sector. This study investigated EMI teachers' attitudes, what might be the critical competencies required for effective EMI delivery, and whether these competencies should be acknowledged by relevant certification. According to the results, the first and foremost competencies were the language ability to teach through English. Teacher participants also emphasised the ability of teachers to use English to explain difficult terminology and academic concepts. The second competency is general pedagogical skills and communication as a teacher. More importantly were the specific teaching skills as an EMI teacher. Teaching skills and communication skills are very important for teachers (both EMI and non-EMI), but as EMI teachers, teaching skills are crucial since many of them are teaching in an L2 rather than their L1 and they need to compensate for their language disadvantages through more scientific and rational pedagogical approaches. The last core competency was EMI teachers' expertise in the respective disciplines and whether they could 'translate' such knowledge in teaching academic subjects through L2.

Views on whether professional certificates should be set as an entry requirement for EMI teachers varied among interviewees. For twelve interviewers, it was undesirable to require such a certificate. Moreover, eight of them felt it is impossible to unify standards to examine EMI teachers, and it is not necessary to do that as well. They believe that there is no way to set a standardized certificate to measure the teaching ability of EMI teachers, since this requirement could become a barrier to entry for EMI teachers. As Rachel reported,

I think it isn't easy to unify the standards of EMI teaching. Take language standards, for example, and it should be fine only if students can understand them. Personally, I don't think it necessary to have such a professional certificate... Teaching is a continual process, and each course has its own characteristics and

content. Teachers need some guidance on pedagogical approaches, but I don't think getting such a certificate can guarantee teachers' teaching quality. (Rachel, NU, Lecturer in Accounting)

In contrast to Rachel's view, six interviewees in my research thought such a certificate is necessary for both employers and employees and particularly beneficial for novice teachers who have no EMI teaching experience before. According to Flora,

It is necessary to set a requirement for a certificate, especially in EMI universities. Such a certificate can help the university HR department filter resumes and choose those theoretically capable of adopting EMI teaching for interviews. It can improve recruitment efficiency. (Flora, NU, Lecturer in Mathematics)

Likewise, Helen and two experienced EMI teachers commented based on their own experience, Helen provides a breakdown of whether EMI teachers need a professional qualification/certificate:

Personally speaking, for a novice EMI teacher who pursues a perfect future or career development, it would be great to have such a certificate. Every professional learning course for them would be helpful, right? But for myself, you know my background, I have retired and was re-employed by the university, and I won't take any examinations to get such certificates as I have enough experiences to deal with EMI teaching. So, for me, personally, I don't need such credentials. (Helen NU, Associate professor in Marketing)

In conclusion, some teachers have pointed out the difficulties in setting up such examinations and certificates for EMI professional teaching. Still, most EMI teachers thought it necessary for novice teachers to earn EMI professional certificates through professional learning and examinations though some EMI teachers like Helen believe that they are experienced enough without needing a certificate to prove their competence or to improve their teaching skills through professional learnings and relevant examinations.

Professional reflection:

From my perspective, both the language requirement and the threshold of a teaching qualification are necessary but the internationalization or even standardization of EMI teacher recruitment and cultivation is difficult to achieve in China. Based on previous research and student interviews, the language issue does have an impact on EMI students' learning and those students are more likely to expect a teacher with a more intelligible pronunciation to teach them in an EMI environment. However, there is a wide range of courses at SFCUs in China, from science, technology, agriculture and medicine to humanities, social sciences and arts, and the needs of EMI teachers vary from subject to subject and from level to level. Forcing language standards and certification requirements will only make the already inadequate number of EMI teachers even more scarce. At this stage of the Chinese SFCU, I do not think it is necessary to set the clear and uniform language and certification standards, as the current student learning needs can be mostly met by degree and work experience requirements. However, in the longer term, when the quantity of EMI teachers tends to outstrip demand, I think that some criteria could be imposed to select teachers who are more in line with the EMI teaching model.

4.2.2 Deficiencies and challenges of EMI teacher recruitment process

In both SFCUs, EMI teachers are recruited by screening resumes and then conducting interviews, which is similar to the interviews in general enterprises. Surprisingly, there is no trial lecturing requirement at both SFCUs. Public universities in China always require trial lectures when recruiting lecturers. Still, in these two SFCUs, the interview panel asked some general questions to test candidates' language proficiency and to know their background and experiences rather than their teaching ability.

The challenges of EMI teacher recruitment have come to researchers' notice, but only a few research has been conducted to investigate the necessity of trial lectures in EMI interviews for teachers. As mentioned in the last section (p.63) on recruitment requirements, a study by Dimova and Kling (2018) has pointed out that evaluating pedagogical skills and disciplinary knowledge through mini-lectures is redundant.

Professional reflection:

Therefore, we can infer that the interview panels thought they could assess EMI teacher candidates' linguistic performance through the basic question-and-answer interviews, but disciplinary content and pedagogy aspects do not affect their evaluation. Such a conclusion could lead to a preference for native-English-speakers as they have no obstacles in speaking and communicating in English. Still, their pedagogical skills and disciplinary contents cannot be guaranteed to be higher and better than some non-native-English-speaker teachers. This would remain a problem for the EMI administrators to decide which aspect is more essential for them in EMI teaching, the language proficiency, the level of pedagogical skills, or the level of subject expertise? Additionally, I believed that researchers in the field of EMI should think about whether the teacher IaH simply means the ability of using an international language?

Coincidentally, Nieto, Esther & Alicia (2021) have pointed out that the challenges EMI presents are multifaceted and pertain to teacher professional learning and teacher recruitment, language accreditation, and teacher incentives. But the researchers did not pay too much attention to the necessity of trial lecturing in recruiting EMI teachers but discussed designing specific protocols for EMI, which should provide comprehensive guidelines regarding teacher recruitment and commitment for the long-term success of EMI programmes.

In the two SFCUs where I conducted my research, EMI teachers described the recruitment process and twelve of them expressed their views on the need for the trial lecture. As Wendy said,

In our interviews, we used English. The panel asked some general questions similar to those that would be asked in some enterprises, such as the work experiences, whether you have any teaching experiences, and some questions relevant to the knowledge of a specific major. (Wendy, DU, TA in Accounting programmes)

Regarding the trial lecture, Joanna and Charlie introduced the process they experienced, which is without any trial lectures and Joanna stressed again that the recruitment process is a global recruitment that is similar to that in the main campus, just as she described the recruitment requirement in the last section (p.85):

There certainly are some requirements. Our hiring is global; our recruitment requirements are almost exactly as the recruitment criteria given by the main campus. We do not have trial lecturing in the procedure of teachers' recruitment. (Joanna, DU, Associate Professor in Global Business)

I was interviewed in English, but there was no trial lecture. The whole interview was in English, and I only communicated briefly in Chinese at the end of the interview after the professional question and answer session.

So I believe that the interviewers were using the interview process to assess my professional knowledge and English ability. (Charlie, NU, Associate professor in Law)

Professional reflection:

These responses prompted me to reflect on why the EMI teacher interview appears to be easier or simpler than the CMI one, particularly given that the EMI teaching objectives are more stringent. Even though when the requirements are the same as the main campus, how can they be sure that this teacher can effectively teach students whose L1 is not English? From my experience, in public universities in China, one must pass a trial-lecture for a teaching job, and a trial lecture is required to obtain a teaching qualification for higher education. However, SFCUs do not have a specific process at present. When I was involved in the interview process as a recruiter, we were able to evaluate the candidates' teaching experience, learning experience and oral presentation from their resumes and short conversations during the interview.

For example, if we see that a candidate has experience as a teaching assistant during their PhD research at an overseas university, we will assume that they are qualified to use the EMI teaching model. I think this is due to a misunderstanding of the EMI teaching model by administrators, who equate it with the presentation of subject knowledge in English, without considering whether the students will gain accurate professional knowledge or improve their English skills. EMI teaching is more of a formality at the management level and a gimmick for recruitment. For native Chinese speakers, who are examined to teach in Chinese at public universities, recruiters are looking for teaching skills, language skills, and professionalism; however, at the two SFCUs where I did my research and the SFCU I worked, I found that these three areas were almost always weakened, and administrators were more interested in whether the candidate's background could be used as a selling point for admissions, such as their graduation institution, professional certification, work experience, and even their nationality.

These are the most essential factors that attracts students and their parents; while the quality of teaching and learning, which cannot be evaluated in a short time, is ignored. I have considered the reasons behind this, and it is partly because SFCUs are much less developed than public universities, and the assessment of all aspects is less mature. The administrators prefer to grow them quickly and have a propensity of increasing the number of students and teachers first, and then, when they reach a certain size and have sufficient resources, they can then screen the quality of teachers further.

My thoughts on this were reinforced by this comment from one of the interviewees--Milton. His viewpoint is about the 'demand and supply relationship' in the EMI teacher 'market'. According to

Milton, currently, the EMI teacher market in China is still in the stage of 'demand exceeds supply, it is not good timing to set language benchmark for EMI teachers within 5-10 years. As Milton said,

'Your question is really a good question. Perhaps 5-10 years later, there can be language requirements when recruiting EMI teachers. But currently, let us consider from the relationship of demand and supply, we don't have enough supply of EMI teachers now. That is to say, even though the employers have high expectations of EMI teachers' language proficiency, there are no sufficient qualified candidates in the teachers' market. Hence, the employers should level the standards to meet the quantity demand of EMI teachers...If EMI teachers have some problems in English proficiency, we can offer some language professional learning to encourage them to improve their language level. When doctoral education is popularised more, and we have more doctorate holders from English-speaking countries, which means when the supply exceeds demand, it is possible and reasonable to bring language proficiency into the entry requirements. Still, it is not the right time to include language proficiency as an entry requirement.' (Milton, NU, Assistant professor in Math and Financial management)

The existing recruitment standards and processes do have many shortcomings and challenges, probably because EMI in SFCUs is in a nascent stage of development. The teachers who participated in my interviews also provided their views and suggestions on the improvement of EMI teacher recruitment.

4.2.3 EMI teachers' attitudes and suggestions toward EMI teacher recruitment internationalization at home

EMI teachers' attitudes differ in the various aspects of EMI teacher recruitment. There was no dispute among EMI teachers about the requirement to have studied or worked overseas; there was little disagreement about the degree requirement, with most agreeing that a PhD was required, but views differed between teachers as to whether a certain level of English language proficiency was required of EMI subject specialists.

4.2.3.1 Internationalised Academic degree and language proficiency

All interviewees agreed that a postgraduate degree obtained from overseas/English-speaking countries is a reasonable entry requirement for EMI teachers. Meanwhile, fifteen interviewees believed that the doctorate requirement is also acceptable for professorship positions. They thought

it is a sufficient way to evaluate candidates' knowledge in both their area of expertise and language proficiency. Charlie gave his own thoughts in the interview:

I think it is enough to estimate a candidate's language and professional level through the degrees they obtained. Typically, if someone can obtain academic degrees from English-speaking countries, particularly a PhD degree, it means that one's English proficiency has achieved a certain level. They have to meet the language requirement by taking IELTS or TOEFL tests in admission. Such language tests include English listening, speaking, reading, and writing. I think passing these tests is sufficient proof of their language proficiency. So I think it is unnecessary to set another examination or test in interviews to evaluate candidates' ability. (Charlie, NU, Associate professor in Law)

From my interviews, most teachers agreed with Charlie that an overseas PhD (an internationalized degree) was an adequate indicator of one's level of language and professional studies. And it is common to see such a requirement in terms of the current recruitment practices for teachers in Chinese universities. This requirement is not too controversial when viewed in the context of teachers of specified subjects. However, some language specialists argue that a PhD is not a prerequisite to teach students English for academic purposes and that a teacher's strong language foundation, proficiency and excellent pedagogical approaches are more crucial.

However, it is evident from Irene's introduction to the university's degree requirements (see Section 4.2.1) that teaching a course does not always correlate with whether or not one has a PhD in the field. This reveals the current shortage of 'qualified' teachers at SFCUs. It also raises the question of whether the degree requirements for teachers should be loosened at this stage, so that some competent and experienced teachers who do not have PhDs can also have the opportunity to use EMI. The internationalisation of the teaching faculty at SFCUs should not be limited to the 'overseas degrees' and 'foreign nationalities' of the teachers. I think this is an issue worth exploring.

Apart from the requirement for a doctoral degree, Terry from NU expressed the importance of teachers' EQ in EMI teaching and talked about the relationship between a PhD degree and EQ. From his point of view, PhD holders can be considered to have a high IQ and have acceptable EQs to deal with communication problems. However, he raised his concerns regarding how to assess candidates' EQ through interviews:

Because our EMI teachers are PhD holders, so basically, the university believes that you are qualified for teaching. First, because universities like ours, generally when recruiting teachers, we assumed that you are eligible for EMI teaching. At least there is no problem with delivering lessons in English...Our university pays more attention to whether you are a PhD holder, emphasizing the IQ rather than the EQ... We should admit that people who can be awarded a PhD degree, their IQ and EQ are not bad, at least....EQ is essential in teaching. The EQ in teaching is whether you are willing to communicate with students. Student communication and interaction is critical in teaching... So, we say that EQ is a primary requirement for teachers....but it is difficult to assess one's EQ through an interview. (Terry, NU, Associate professor in Math)

Professional reflection:

I can understand what Terry meant when he stated that people who obtain a PhD should not be too bad intellectually and emotionally, as obtaining a PhD is not only a test of professional knowledge, of scientific research ability, but also of how to cope with the monotony and difficulties of life over a long period of time. For example, how to reconcile the relationship with supervisors, and how to balance research with personal life. But I do not believe these are sufficient competencies to confirm one's suitability for a career as an EMI teacher. The transition from PhD student to teacher, from university to workplace, etc. all require a higher level of emotional intelligence.

From Terry's comments, I think that although he appears to be raising the issue of the emotional and intellectual intelligence of EMI teachers, his concern is about pedagogical approaches. He said that emotional intelligence in teaching means whether you are willing to communicate with your students or whether you can interact well with them, which is part of the pedagogy. I can see from this that SFCUs are very deficient in the process of recruiting teachers for this part of pedagogy, not to mention if the candidates could employ the internationalised pedagogical approaches with some local focus to make their teaching more suitable to the IaH context. It could be seen that teacher participants in my interviews felt that they needed to consider this issue. However, this interviewee felt that it was difficult to accurately observe this during the short interview process. This perhaps confirms the necessity for a trial lecture, which can be prepared for, but in which the ability to respond and adapt can be observed. This allows administrators to see if the teacher can cope with unexpected situations and interact well with the students.

However, four interviewees from both universities still doubted the viewpoint that PhD holders are automatically treated as capable of teaching in English and speaking English well. Regarding language proficiency, Irene, the native-English-speaker teacher, said:

I can say that, as far as qualifications are concerned, in other words, the degree they need to have, yes, they are qualified. However, many of them are not qualified in language as far as fluency is concerned. (Irene, DU, Associate professor in Marketing and English language)

Also, Irene suggested that EMI universities need to set a language benchmark when recruiting EMI teachers:

Regardless, if they have a PhD or not, I still think there must be some kind of assessment or some kind of benchmark. As far as the fluency is concerned for them to, for the university to say yes, this person cannot teach in the English language, especially if it's English courses. That goes with any other language. (Irene, DU, Associate professor in Marketing and English language)

Similarly, regarding the teaching ability of PhD holders and master's degree holders, two teachers do not think PhD degree equals good teaching ability, as Tara explains:

I think a teacher's professional quality includes language proficiency and teaching ability. In terms of language level, even if a teacher has obtained a doctorate from an English-speaking country, their English level may not be higher than a teacher holding a master's degree. And regarding the teaching ability, some EMI teachers in our university who are PhD holders are more suitable to do research rather than teaching; they don't have much teaching experience and may not deliver a course well. (Tara, NU, Lecturer in Academic English)

Although interviewees have different comments and attitudes towards EMI teacher recruitment and entry requirements, what they have reached a consensus on is that they all agree that one-size-fits-all requirements or unified standards on teaching ability are not possible nor necessary to set in the recruitment process due to disciplinary differences and personalized pedagogical approaches. According to Sherry,

Every teacher has their teaching style, articulating style, and teachers teach different disciplines, their curricula are different. It is tough to unify standards in recruiting teachers. As long as teachers are conscious of teaching quality improvement and spare no effort to understand the subject content, there should be no need for unified standards in language level or teaching ability. (Sherry, DU, Lecturer in Consecutive Interpreting)

Professional reflection:

During the process of conducting the interviews, I also kept thinking about what a PhD really means. Does a PhD overseas mean good professionalism, excellent language skills and even good emotional intelligence, as most teachers say? From my past work experience and my current study, I don't think the answer is absolute. I have worked with many teachers who have PhDs and their professional competence is evident to all, but the teaching assignments in universities are not so well-organized. I agree with Milton that there is a 'demand exceeds supply' of EMI teacher market, so it is necessary for both scholars and policy makers to think about why, in a country as populous as China and with an increasing number of returnee PhDs, there are still not enough teachers who are qualified for EMI teaching. Also, it is of necessity to discuss at what stage should the cultivation of EMI teachers begin.

The shortage of qualified EMI teachers resulted in the phenomenon that the EMI management sometimes arrange for the fresh PhD graduates to teach both English language courses and math or business courses because they do not have enough teachers, even though English is not these novice teachers' specialty. The language skills of these teachers also vary depending on their individual educational backgrounds. Experienced and aged EMI teachers who are non-native-English-speakers are generally less proficient than younger ones, but this also varies according to their disciplinary background, for example, humanities and social sciences teachers tend to be more proficient in English than science and technology teachers; but again, this is not absolute.

Moreover, the emotional intelligence or teaching ability of EMI teachers is not directly related to their academic degrees. Many of the teaching assistants, or instructors with master's degrees, are better regarded and welcomed by students, and they are more flexible in adapting their teaching style to the student body and are more willing to polish their teaching skills and improve their professionalism.

Thus, I believe that a PhD neither promises nor guarantees anything. As we can set a criterion for a degree, I hope that there can be some basic test or threshold in terms of language. Particularly setting a language proficiency threshold in the context of IaH is even more necessary because it would be difficult to implement IaH effectively in education sector if teachers are not even competent to teach in English which is the lingua franca. Notwithstanding considerations about the supply meets demand and timing issues, I agree with many teachers that it is difficult to set a uniform threshold, but I think it is necessary to at least involve students, teachers, and management in a trial lecture to determine whether a teacher's language proficiency can be intelligible enough for different kinds of audiences he needs to encounter in an EMI environment, especially student audiences.

To summarize, all interviewees have a consensus on the requirement of study or working experience in overseas countries, and most of them accept the doctoral degree benchmark for professorship positions. At the same time, there are still a few interviewees who disagree with the perspective that an English-language doctorate signifies strong language proficiency and professional quality in teaching.

4.2.3.2 Recruitment process and the importance of evidence of teaching competence

The primary emphasis of the discussion on the recruitment procedure is whether trial lectures as evidence of teaching skill are required when recruiting EMI teachers. In the interviews, opposing perspectives on the importance of trial lectures emerged. A noteworthy finding from the interviews was that most of the EMI subject experts tended not to have trial lectures during the interview process. However, the language specialists believe that a trial lecture is necessary when recruiting EMI teachers.

One viewpoint held by five participants that trial lecturing is unnecessary as teaching experiences and lecturing skills can be acquired through teaching practices. This perspective implies that these teachers believe that an overseas PhD degree is a proxy for international language skills and professional competence, and that the experience of studying or working abroad is evidence of the ability to teach and master teaching approaches in an international context. According to Andy,

In the EMI teacher recruitment process, I don't think it necessary to arrange for trial lecturing...Only if you can clearly explain concepts, theories, models, and principles in your area of expertise to hiring committee members, I think it is enough to prove you can teach that subject in English. As is known to all, teaching is improved through practising, similar to learning by doing..It's like driving. The more you do, the more skilled you will become, right? (Andy, DU, Associate professor in Economics)

Another view held by three teachers is that adding trial lecturing in teacher recruitment is essential for undergraduate teaching, whose educational objectives are not to foster scientific research talents. It is essential that students can understand what that teacher is talking about; and as target audiences, students are best qualified to speak on whether that teacher delivers the course well. As Flora said,

It is necessary to add trial lecturing in undergraduate education. If the university management is not sure about a teacher's teaching ability before hiring them, it would be too late to evaluate their teaching quality according to students' examination results and feedback at the end of a semester. Thus, I think it necessary to

arrange trial lecturing during interviews. The audience for the trial lecture should include both interview panels and students in senior years who have some foundation on subject knowledge. These students also have been taught by other EMI teachers, and they can have comparisons and tell whether they can understand the EMI teacher candidate well. (Flora, NU, Lecturer in Mathematics)

This result is consistent with the conclusion reached by Dimova and Kling (2018) as mentioned in Section 2.3.1 regarding disciplinary content and vocabulary knowledge, so it can be concluded that lecturers are confident in their disciplinary domains, and the problems they experience tend to be related to general English vocabulary, which is needed to explain new and challenging disciplinary material. In other words, subject experts are confident in their levels of expertise, so they thought it unnecessary to have trial lectures on some topics within their subject expertise. While the language specialists are aware of EMI teachers' language problems, the raters also pay more attention to language proficiency when recruiting EMI teachers.

Professional reflection:

From my own thoughts, I don't entirely agree with Andy's view. In fact, there are several other teachers who share his view that if they can teach for a few years or a few cohorts of students, they will be very skilled at teaching and are getting better at it. For example, Helen stated how experienced EMI teachers do not need qualifications to prove their competence, nor do they need to engage in professional learning and exams to improve their abilities. Their view is that teaching ability is positively correlated with the level of experience and years of work. There is no denying that *good* 'practice makes perfect' and that hard work is essential to learning, but I think it is all based on the right method and direction of instruction. If the pedagogical approach itself is wrong and unsuitable for the pupils, and if the teacher's language itself is full of errors, the longer you teach, the more persistent such a pattern of behaviour and language will become, and the more likely it is that a vicious circle will form. However, for some early career teachers, I think it is necessary to have a trial lecture to the interview to point out the problems, and even if the teacher is hired, to correct as many mistakes as possible before he or she takes up the teaching post, and to supervise him or her as a kind of in-service professional learning, so that his or her level of teaching ability can be improved.

Additionally, I concur with Flora's view that by having a trial lecture during the interview process, it is possible to screen out PhD holders who may be more suited to research rather than teaching, and thus select teachers who are truly suited to EMI and who have the self-motivation to improve their teaching ability. By arranging a trial session with experienced teachers in the same field and some students who have a certain level of expertise, the management can evaluate a candidate's suitability for EMI teaching from a different perspective.

Another point I would like to emphasize about the pedagogy is that a teacher's mastery of international pedagogical approaches and the mastery of pedagogical approaches in the context of IaH are not equivalent, particularly in EMI settings. It has different objectives and target audiences than teaching international students in general. Therefore, special attention needs to be paid to these differences during recruitment and in the later stage of EMI teacher professional development.

But going back to Milton's point again, the imperfection of many systems nowadays may not only be due to some inherent perceptions of the PhD as a degree but also because the current market for EMI teachers is in short supply, so there are no very strict requirements in the recruitment process. Thus, it would be worthwhile to consider how the government and university could attract more teachers to scholars to EMI teaching.

4.3 Professional learning of EMI teachers in the context of IaH

In some articles, professional development programmes or professional learning are more frequently used (e.g. Farrell, 2019; Costa, 2015). Nonetheless, after analysing these transcripts, I would prefer to use the term 'professional learning' to refer to activities and processes that academics engage in to enhance EMI learning and teaching. Academic, professional learning is defined as 'activities and processes that academics engage in to ameliorate their academic performance and the impact of their performance on students' learning' (Saroyan and Trigwell 2015, p93.). These formative processes are 'intended to foster improved pedagogies and teaching'. They include the 'uptake of formal and informal learning opportunities that deepen and extend teachers' professional competence' (Richter et al., 2011, p.116). I believe 'professional learning' is a more appropriate term to represent the activities and processes mentioned by the interviewees.

4.3.1 In-service professional learning forms/modes in SFCUs

EMI-related research has been increasing steadily during the previous two decades. Recent studies have also identified the research gap in professional development for EMI (Halbac & Lazaro, 2015; Macaro et al., 2018). On this front, there is a well-documented paucity of evidence-based research tapping into in-service teacher professional learning, which is solidly grounded on previously diagnosed needs (researchers thought EMI teachers should have professional learning or professional learning programmes). There is equally sparse evidence of top-down push (promotion or dissemination of teacher professional learning in this way from a higher-level administrative body, such as the MoE, to all levels of education departments and universities, colleges, departments, and then to teachers) to homogenise EMI language and teacher professional learning policies within and across universities and countries.

As previously noted in Section 2.3.1, the challenges are commonly cited in the literature centring on a perceived lack of English language competence among non-native-English-speaking EMI teachers (Ball & Lindsay, 2013). As a result, researchers have suggested there is a need for professional learning programmes on developing EMI teachers' English language proficiency and communication skills. A longitudinal study of 60 EMI academics in Croatian higher education recommended that EMI

academics communicate the lesson content adequately. They should be proficient users performing at a level of at least C1 on CEFR for language (Dang, Bonar & Yao, 2021).

However, according to all the interviewees in this study, we can find that EMI universities do not provide official professional learning programmes that are open to all EMI teachers. Some schools and departments have their professional learning programmes for specific teachers, and EMI teachers have also organized workshops to improve their language and teaching abilities. Thirteen of the interviewed teachers believe that such professional learning programmes are not necessary, neither realistic nor possible due to discipline differences. Still, as we have seen, five of them thought novice EMI teachers can benefit from such programmes for their future careers. However, I believe that the notion that EMI teaching ability could be improved with experience is embedded in these claims. As one of the interviewees, Helen, claimed:

We held in-house professional learning workshop last year for the EMI teaching... Our teachers can teach via English, but EMI means we need to prepare some language knowledge during class. So our dean arranged a two-day in-house professional learning for us. The trainers are from the Chinese University of Hong Kong, department of education, they trained our language specialists, and then our specialists trained us for the EMI methods. However, I don't think it is useful for us experienced EMI teachers, it is beneficial for novice EMI teachers' career development. (Helen NU, Associate professor in Marketing)

As with other issues such as recruitment and certification, opinions on whether EMI in-service professional learning is necessary varied. Seven teachers insisted that such programmes are not realistic due to the differences in discipline and target audience, and they believed that teaching experiences are much more critical than professional programmes. As Wendy said:

I think it is hard to train EMI teachers. Such things are difficult to be trained and it is difficult to find someone to train as teaching is not the same as manipulating a machine or a device. I don't think it necessary to train pedagogical skills, I mean, it is challenging to train teachers from different subjects together, as teachers have different terminologies in their area of expertise. It is not practical to put them together to train. Also, the pedagogical approach is not something that can be improved rapidly through one- or two-weeks' professional learning programme, and it is good to see teachers have their characteristics in pedagogy. Pedagogical approaches can be improved through accumulating experiences, and teaching is a soft skill. Teachers can find what suits them best after teaching one or two cohorts of students. (Wendy, DU, Teaching assistant in accounting)

And Joanna said:

What pedagogical approaches to adopt depends on the students or audiences you face. Your target audiences are different. Because most of our EMI teachers taught students who were native speakers of English before, but now our audiences turned to be the students whose L1 is Chinese, we need to adjust our pedagogical approaches due to the differences of the target audience, which can hardly be trained. (Joanna, DU, Associate Professor in Global Business)

Professional reflection:

Both interviewees make good points about some of the challenges of teacher professional learning for EMI. Nevertheless, while acknowledging these points, we may also challenge some of their assumptions. Regarding professional learning in pedagogical approaches, I believe that difficulties such professional learning due to subject differences do exist, but this does not mean that there are no solutions.

The essence of teaching, regardless of subject, is to deliver subject knowledge and to use appropriate methods to enable students to absorb and use it. Appropriate and effective pedagogical approaches can make all the difference, thus believe that professionals in the fields of education and languages can see similarities between the teaching of different disciplines. As far as I know, there is such a professional learning programme for EMI teachers offered by Oxford University (https://www.oxfordemi.co.uk/). There are many SFCPs and SFCUs in China, with substantial demand for teacher professional learning. Future emphasis should be paid to this area and relevant professional learning programmes can be developed. With such programmes, the teaching staff IaH would be more likely to achieve.

While I reject the argument that professional learning in pedagogical approaches is unrealistic and unnecessary due to subject differences, I agree with Helen that young EMI teachers need such a programme in pedagogical approaches, and they undoubtedly can benefit from it. As mentioned above, students prefer the teaching styles of novice teachers, and these early career teachers are more willing to explore appropriate pedagogical approaches. Therefore, the professional learning and cultivation of young teachers should be a priority. In my experience, if there are short-term professional learning programmes in schools, most of them are led by experienced teachers, who lead novice teachers to learn and improve their teaching skills.

The 20 interviewees in this study happened to express similar views as reported in the research literature mentioned in section 2.3.3.2. EMI teachers in these two universities mentioned some methods of university management adopted to improve EMI teachers' teaching quality, such as a

mentoring scheme and an audit scheme in NU. The mentoring scheme involves senior and experienced EMI teaching faculty providing guidance and suggestions to novice EMI teachers on their teaching. The audit scheme is similar to the peer observation mentioned in Herrington's study. The difference is that in NU, a senior person will observe the class for teaching improvement purposes with teaching evaluation purposes combined. This is consistent with the study results of Farrell (2020) mentioned in 2.3.3.

Farrell's study shows how reflective practice can help EMI teachers critically analyse their practice to develop informed and instructional teaching. Farrell suggests that when EMI educators systematically consider what, how, and why of their practice, they can then make informed pedagogical decisions. This can be achieved by drawing on a range of reflective tools such as dialogue with peers, journal writing, observation of self and others, team teaching, action research and narrative. However, not all interviewees from NU agree with the audit scheme and mentor scheme, and an interviewee pointed out some shortcomings these schemes may bring to EMI teaching. According to George:

I don't like the idea of going around and checking on staff, what they're doing. They will be worried about that. Instead of being innovative and engaged with our class, they will try to play it very safe, which means you might not have innovative teaching in the class. It's like If somebody is always standing behind your back, you will always feel nervous about what you are doing. So I think we try to work openly and collaboratively. (George, NU, Professor in Accounting)

From George's description, having a senior person rather than peer teachers observe, judge or supervise an EMI teacher's teaching can put pressure on the teacher and make them feel nervous and like they are being assessed. Once teachers feel that their teaching is being assessed, they may not behave as naturally or as creatively as they would like, but rather teach in a more secure way that meets the expectations of the leader to pass the evaluation. But EMI teachers themselves do not want to teach for the sake of passing an evaluation.

Besides these schemes and short-term in-house professional learning, NU has also provided some EMI teachers with short-term professional learning programmes in collaborative overseas universities. Such programmes focus on the internationalization and improvement of pedagogical

ideas and approaches rather than language, which is different from previous research results. According to Stacy,

We have in-service short-term professional development programmes for some EMI teachers. We have opportunities to go to our partner universities in the UK. Still, the programmes are not specific for EMI teaching, but introduce the pedagogical ideology things in the western countries to us and give a brief introduction of their classroom management strategies, course design, etc. We select those native Chinese speaker teachers whose English are good, so there is no specific language improvement course in that programme. (Stacy, NU, Lecturer in Accounting)

Similar to previous research (Dang, Bonar & Yao, 2021) mentioned in Section 2.3.3.2, Chinese universities also sent EMI teachers to universities in English-speaking countries for intensive professional learning programmes, mainly focusing on language improvement. Mu's (2017) review of EMI professional learning programmes in five Chinese universities mentioned in Section 2.3.3.2 showed that EMI programmes in English-speaking countries are usually short and intensive, ranging from two to four weeks with a small cohort of EMI teachers. These programmes are all language courses for EMI teachers. However, no matter what focuses the programmes have, the trend of these professional learning programmes is more likely to be the westernization of pedagogical approaches and language, as the Chinese universities always send their teaching staff to western countries for development. It is unknown that whether these teaching staff would localise what they learn from these programmes to the teaching in their home country, to make their pedagogical approaches and language proficiency suitable for the IaH in China.

Apart from the professional learning programmes, both two universities' EMI teachers mentioned they are self-trained, in addition to attending some professional learning workshops or seminars that are given by colleagues in their schools or departments. Regarding the language professional learning, one interviewee from NU mentioned that the native-English-Speaking-teachers (NESTs) in their department organized English language improvement workshops for EMI teachers in their own department. According to Mike:

In our department (science and engineering), an Irish teacher organized English workshops for teachers whose L1 is not English to improve their English. Although almost all of us have a doctorate, we are not all proficient in English...But the university never provided any opportunities for language professional learning or other EMI teaching professional learning. (Mike, NU, Associate Professor in Computer Science)

Another three participants from the same university mentioned that their department (Accounting) provides some workshops for EMI pedagogical approaches. They have established a teaching and learning committee to organise the teachers some EMI teaching workshops and resources, as Jeremy mentioned:

We also have a teaching and learning committee which the dean set up. And this is to know, and they give a few workshops, resources. (Jeremy, NU, Assistant Professor in Law)

The situation is different in DU. Four interviewees there mentioned that they are self-trained through teaching and discussion with colleagues to solve the problems they met in EMI teaching. The EMI management in DU set up a department to collect feedback on issues and suggestions from teachers, then to make some adjustments in course arrangement or provide language and academic support to EMI students. According to Joanna:

After our entry to the university, we discuss with colleagues to adjust the pedagogical approaches, and we found problems after teaching and discussed them, then reported to the academic affairs office of the university, such as the academic centre for excellence (ACE), and the staff in ACE will adjust their academic support according to the feedback from teachers. Also, the academic office has some adjustments to the arrangement of the courses, as well. (Joanna, DU, Associate Professor in Global Business)

Such approaches are informal professional learning opportunities. In Dang & Vu's study (2020), as mentioned in 2.3.3.2, experienced EMI teachers shared their stories of ongoing self-driven efforts to improve their English proficiency, something they found crucial for overcoming initial EMI challenges.

As far as in-service professional learning is concerned, we can see that the approach varies from university to university, with NU offering significantly more professional learning opportunities for teachers than DU, and in more varied forms. I think this has a significant relationship with the philosophy and vision of management. This is because when I worked at an SFCU, we were able to arrange our own professional learning programmes for each faculty on top of the teacher professional learning programmes arranged by the university-wide HRM office. My college offered a lot of professional learning opportunities to teachers because the leadership focused on novice teacher development. These included professional learning programmes in the UK and the USA and inviting teachers from Hong Kong and Macau to the college for short-term professional learning. In other colleges, however, there are relatively fewer resources and opportunities provided by leaders and the professional learning provided by the university HRM office is mostly online and overly utilitarian for promotion.

It is also true that most of the professional learning programmes continue to focuse on pedagogical approaches. Language skills are difficult to achieve overnight and do not change overnight. But I don't think we should refuse to change it just because it is difficult. If we focus on improving teachers' pedagogical approaches without considering the impact of teachers' language skills on students' language proficiency, it is difficult to achieve EMI's dual objective.

4.3.2 EMI teacher's attitudes and suggestions towards in-service professional learning in EMI universities

Chinese universities have always adopted two strategies to tackle the language-related issues in EMI, sending EMI teachers to universities in English-speaking countries and providing intensive English language professional learning programmes locally. In section 2.3.3.2, Dang, Bonar & Yao (2021) showed that professional learning programmes in China tend to focus on the English language with minimal evidence of professional learning programmes to develop EMI teachers' pedagogical competence. However, this conclusion is quite different from the results from the two universities I studied. We can see from the interviews that no matter whether it is organized officially or privately, most of the professional learning programmes mentioned by the teachers interviewed focus on EMI pedagogical improvement, and only a few focus on language improvement.

Teachers' comments and attitudes to in-service professional learning vary. Regarding the general teacher professional learning programmes, two interviewees from DU are against such programmes

because of discipline and target audience differences, which have already been mentioned. Meanwhile, three interviewees hold the view that teaching experiences are more important than professional development programmes. Jack exemplifies this view in his comment,

I have never been trained for teaching, and one of my feelings is that the more I teach, the better I can teach. Because as your experience increases, the more you teach, the more familiar you will be with your teaching, and the better you will teach. (Jack, NU, Professor in Finance Management)

Thirteen interviewees are supportive of teacher professional learning programmes in their universities. But like EMI teachers elsewhere mentioned in section 2.3.3.2, EMI teachers in China generally believe that their responsibility is to teach subject knowledge rather than the English language and subject content is their priority (Jiang & Zhang, 2019; Qiu & Fang, 2019). In my interviews, though fifteen teachers support professional learning, nine of them thought pedagogical professional learning is more important than language professional learning, and language professional learning is nearly impossible. Jane emphasized the importance of improving pedagogical approaches as well as expressed her concerns in improving the language proficiency of EMI teachers:

It is almost impossible for EMI teachers to improve their English proficiency as it has already been set...The older you are, the ability to accept new things becomes weaker. So even if you arranged professional learning programmes for language improvement in English-speaking countries, it is not very possible that the teachers can improve their language proficiency.... I think the most important ability of an EMI teacher is their knowledge of their own area of expertise and their ability to deliver the knowledge. If you do not know how to teach the students, it is useless that you have good English proficiency. There could be only two reasons if students' learning outcomes are not acceptable, one is that the EMI teacher has no idea of how to deliver the courses well, and the other one is that the EMI teacher is not clear and professional with their own area of expertise. So, I believe that professional learning on pedagogy and expertise is more essential than language improvements. (Jane, NU, Assistant professor in Economics)

A difference was expressed by an EMI teacher who teaches translation and interpreting studies. She believes that for EMI teachers, although subject content is more important than language, students judge teaching from the teachers' language proficiency at first. As Sherry expressed:

Language training is also necessary, especially for speaking pronunciation and pace. It is as essential as pedagogical professional learning on how to deliver a course...Although subject content is more critical, accent leaves the first impression on students. So, it is also imperative. The pronunciation is not as important as subject

content, but if your pronunciation is too difficult to understand and has too many fillers and silent pauses, students who can hardly tolerate it will complain. (Sherry, DU, Lecturer in Consecutive Interpreting)

As already noted, some experienced EMI teachers thought that professional learning was necessary, particularly for novice EMI teachers. Four of them are aware that a doctorate from English-speaking countries can, to some extent, guarantee English language proficiency and their knowledge about western pedagogy, but such a guarantee is not sufficient. As Andy mentioned:

Personally, I wish to have teacher professional learning. As an EMI teacher, I cannot say my English is excellent, I can only say that PhD from English-speaking countries can, to some extent, provide some language proficiency, but it is not sufficient. Although we have experienced western pedagogical approaches, we still have some problems in EMI teaching, both from pedagogy and language perspectives... It will be great if universities can provide professional learning opportunities, for example, sending us to the partner university in the UK for professional development. (Andy, DU, Associate professor in Economics)

However, Andy contradicts himself on this topic. He mentioned not to have professional learning programmes for EMI teachers as the teaching quality will be improved as teaching experiences increased, but here he is aware that EMI teachers, especially the subject experts might lack specific teaching and language skills, and he is supportive to be provided with some professional learning opportunities.

Similarly, Mike admitted the shortage of knowledge on pedagogical approaches among EMI teachers, particularly subject experts:

In my opinion, doctorate holders should have been equipped with sufficient knowledge in their areas of expertise, but not very skilful and knowledgeable in pedagogical approaches. That is to say, and we have no idea about how to improve the teaching quality....It will be beneficial if the university can invite experts in pedagogy to give us some professional learning, especially for the fresh PhD holders....We lack the knowledge about how to deliver courses well and clearly, how to make our teaching more exciting and attractive, and how to communicate and interact with students.......I think it is a profound knowledge, and it will be of great significance if universities can provide such professional learning programmes. (Mike, NU, Associate Professor in Computer Science)

Meanwhile, Mike emphasized that teacher professional learning is necessary for EMI teachers as most SFCUs in China are teaching-oriented.

Another important reason why EMI teachers' professional learning is important is that universities are of different types, teaching-oriented and research-oriented...for teaching-oriented universities, like most SFCUs in China, the student's foundation is not as good as that in research-oriented universities, they rely more on teachers' teaching so that practical pedagogical approaches are far more essential in teaching-oriented universities. (Mike, NU, Associate Professor in Computer Science)

In contrast to Joanna's opinion that pedagogical professional learning is unnecessary and impossible due to target audience differences, both Trista and Flora expressed their belief that EMI teachers should be improved to accommodate the target-audience-difference in EMI teaching comparing to the teaching in a total international environment rather than in the context of IaH . As they said,

Such professional learning is necessary. Although the native-English-speaker teachers can speak English very well, and some non-native English speaker teachers have been taught in English-speaking countries before, they have minor problems in delivering courses in English, because their audience changed when they come to EMI universities in China. 99% of our students are Chinese whose L1 is not English. It is necessary to train these teachers about classroom management in China with Chinese students and teach in a totally different environment. (Flora, NU, Lecturer in Mathematics)

It is definitely necessary to have teacher professional learning for EMI teachers, particularly for those non-native-Chinese-speaking teachers. They lived, studied and worked in foreign countries and relocated to China to teach Chinese students. They may mistakenly use English to teach our Chinese students just like native-English-speaker students in English-speaking countries... They may have little knowledge about communicating and interacting with Chinese students. Thus, it is imperative to give these EMI teachers some professional learning to learn more about Chinese students and their ways of thinking. (Trista, DU, Teaching assistant in Mathematics and data analysis)

Not surprisingly, two teachers have very critical views on teacher professional learning. There is, according to Milton, the matter of standardization through professional learning.

Teacher professional learning to some extent, makes teaching standardised. Standardisation has both pros and cons. The pros are that teaching standardisation could guarantee teaching quality, and the cons are that standardisation would limit EMI teachers' teaching flexibility and autonomy. (Milton, NU, Assistant professor in Math and Financial management)

The attitude of the teachers interviewed towards EMI professional learning shows that only a few of them think that the relevant professional learning is unnecessary. Many teachers were supportive of EMI professional learning. However, some teachers felt that professional learning to improve the

language would be ineffective and was therefore unnecessary. Some teachers believed that the teacher's language skills were the first thing that students perceived and that students would judge the teacher's teaching ability by his or her language skills, so professional learning in the teacher's language skills was essential. Of course, some teachers believe that there are advantages and disadvantages to standardized professional learning, as uniform professional learning and requirements can ensure a certain level of quality but can also limit the teacher's own teaching characteristics.

Professional reflection:

Regarding professional learning in pedagogical approaches, I am more in favour of this medium ground. There is no doubt that good professional learning is effective in improving the overall standard and quality of teaching. However, teachers should be encouraged to explore teaching models that suit themselves, their universities and their students, in order to improve the quality of teaching and adapt to the IaH. As for language skills professional learning, I agree with Jane that it is very difficult to change language skills after a certain age. Particularly, it is very difficult to change through short-term professional learning. Rather than attempting to improve a teacher's language skills after they have joined the university, it is better to start with a good gatekeeper at the time of recruitment to lay the foundations for achieving the dual goals of EMI.

Chapter 5: Understanding the EMI dual-goal achievement through EMI teaching: pedagogical strategies, evaluation and challenges

5.1 Introduction

This chapter is an exploration of several important aspects of teachers' teaching practice, which is also a vital part of achieving IaH. This chapter not only presents teachers' perceptions on students' preferences on EMI pedagogy but also focuses on the pedagogical approaches used by EMI teachers, which include a range of accommodation strategies in terms of subject teaching, language support and mental health support. EMI teachers are mainly those subject experts who teach subject knowledge in English, but some of the subject experts also work hard to improve students' English in their own teaching, and some subject experts have also adapted their pedagogical approaches to reduce the psychological stress of their students.

Another inevitable issue in teaching practice is the management of EMI teaching which EMI teacher evaluation. Regarding the teacher evaluation, this component appeared to be as lacking in the interviews on the teacher professional learning mentioned in the previous chapter. In the evaluation of teaching at EMI, although both SFCUs evaluate EMI teachers through two dimensions, student evaluation and peer evaluation, the objectivity and validity of the methodology is open to question and there is no specific evaluation system for EMI teachers from the Chinese government level, currently participating and competing with teachers from other types of universities, which EMI teachers feel is biased.

Last but not least, the challenges that affect the achievement of dual-goal through EMI teaching are also illustrated by EMI teachers.

5.2 Teachers' perceptions on students' preferences for EMI pedagogical approaches

According to these 20 interviews with EMI teachers, there is no unified view on students' preferences for EMI pedagogy, and most of the teachers believe that EMI pedagogy cannot be unified, and they have their own personalized pedagogical approaches to adapt to different audiences.

In terms of students' preferences, consistent with Wilkinson (2013) mentioned in section 2.4.1.2, six EMI teachers mentioned that when taking subject lessons, students prefer traditional pedagogical approaches, in other words, teacher-centred lecturing. On the other hand, while when attending language lessons, they prefer student-centred classes. In other words, students' preference on pedagogy is not totally international nor traditional, the pedagogical approaches also need to be both internationalized and localised to achieve the educational objectives of EMI.

Stacy shared her experience when she delivered subject lessons:

'I have tried what I learned through the teacher professional learning programme in our partner university in the UK, but I found students are not interested in those pedagogical approaches, and students' engagement in class is not optimistic. The reason might be that Chinese students are more used to the traditional lecturing style they received from elementary education—they just listen to what teachers say. Even when I pushed them to have discussions or reflections with other classmates, they prefer to look for information by themselves and answer the question or topic I gave them all by themselves.' (Stacy, NU, Lecturer in Accounting)

From Stacy's words, we can see that students prefer what they get used to and lack the spirit of cooperation. However, from the language specialist, Tara, her teaching experience is different:

'I have used two distinct pedagogical approaches in my lessons. The traditional lecturing style is adopted in my Academic writing lessons, whilst the student-centred pedagogical approach, which requires more interactions with students, is adopted in my Academic speaking lessons. I found my students prefer the latter.' (Tara, NU, Lecturer in Academic English, language specialist)

It is not surprising that students have different preferences on pedagogical approaches for different subjects. When they are in the language courses, the only task for them is to learn the language well, but they have dual goals with learning new subject contents as well as improving English language proficiency in subject lessons. Thus, it is understandable that students prefer what they are accustomed to when they have dual challenges, while they are also willing to experience new ways of learning when they have only one challenge. All of the interviewees agreed that there are no absolute good or inadequate pedagogical approaches in EMI teaching, as Milton sympathized with this:

'I think it is fine to adopt the traditional way teachers deliver courses by lecturing. As far as I know, there are different pedagogical approaches in education studies, such as teacher-centred and student-centred

approaches. From my viewpoint, that is to say, from the teaching aspect, it is no good or bad in teaching models. But I can find that the student-centred approach is overendowed by some experts, and they criticize the traditional lecturing way. I think it really does come down to a matter of preferences rather than correctness.' (Milton, NU, Assistant professor in Math and Financial management)

Similarly, Helen from NU pointed out:

'Sometimes the western pedagogy is not suitable for our Chinese students, or EMI courses in China. Take my own experience, for example, I worked in an international school in Beijing before, and we used the method called 'everyday math' to develop our pupil's math performances. The reason why we asked our students to have maths exercises every day is that they cannot survive in maths competitions in China if they follow the western way. So, I would say it depends on the course content and teachers and your audience when considering which pedagogical style is more suitable in EMI settings. If our traditional lecturing style is more suitable for Chinese EMI students to a certain extent, why don't we adopt our own methods to teach? Our target is to have our students understand and master the subject knowledge. From my own perspective, discipline is a significant factor that affects what pedagogical approaches to use during class.' (Helen NU, Associate professor in Marketing)

From my own experience and perspective, I agree that so-called 'western pedagogy' is overly touted by some Chinese educators and institutions. When we promoted the SFCU in students recruiting fairs every year, we tended to say 'We are American/British teaching style with small class size. Our buildings and classrooms are built and designed in accordance with the foreign models, creating a very pure and excellent EMI environment for our students'. This set of words is commonly heard in recruiting fairs and seen in SFCUs' admission websites. Recruitment and Admission officers use these as highlights and selling points of an SFCU, suggesting that a number of parents and students are willing to pay for such a model. It also means that SFCUs tacitly assume that the foreign model equals superior model, and Chinese approaches equals the backward approaches.

However, in the data that follows regarding the EMI environment, many EMI teachers do not actually consider the current EMI environment to be competent, let alone a pure English-medium environment. Even if the current EMI environment is good enough, this does not mean that such model or approaches are suitable for Chinese EMI students. Therefore, I personally agree with Milton and Helen, and I also believe that teachers' teaching methods should vary from subject to subject, and from student to student, rather than adopting 'internationalized' or 'westernized' approaches without taking other factors into consideration. It is acceptable to learn from useful and appropriate foreign teaching models and methods, rather than following them blindly. Moreover, from my own experience of studying abroad, I do not think that the British education/teaching model means frequent interaction or small class sizes. The difference lies more in the teacher's philosophy and attitude towards learning and teaching. Thus, I think in China, several EMI administrators misunderstand the 'American/British model', and the complete replication of so-called 'westernized' or 'internationalized' teaching does not serve the purpose of IaH and EMI.

Besides the discussions on teachers' and students' preferences for student-centred or teacher-centred pedagogy, EMI teachers in this study also expressed their own appreciation for personalised pedagogy rather than a unified approach. There is a tendency of standardising pedagogy in one research setting for a more convenient and better evaluation and management. Still, EMI teachers I interviewed all disagreed with standardised or one-size-fits-all pedagogical approaches. As Terry said:

'One-size-fit-all approach is inadvisable. Every teacher has their teaching style. We cannot have a comprehensive approach and force out all other teaching styles. It is impossible for all teachers to unify their teaching style just like the standardization of McDonald or KFC...it is almost impossible to ask all teachers teaching following a same model. Education should allow all different kinds of flowers bloom together....' (Terry, NU, Associate professor in Math)

Wendy expressed a similar viewpoint on the personalized pedagogy of EMI teachers:

'It is good to see teachers have their characteristics in pedagogy. I think it's not a good idea to try to fit all teachers within one or a couple of different pedagogical techniques.' (Wendy, DU, Teaching assistant in Accounting programmes)

While most of the teachers thought standardised pedagogy is not suitable, Jeremy illustrated his views on personalised pedagogy by combining teachers' personalities, economy to teaching ideology and approaches:

'My reasoning is this, because teaching, I think, is a deeply personal endeavour. Each person has their teaching style.... It does not because of the language of the medium for instruction, but it is because of the teachers' personalities or teachers' ideas about how to educate people. But it can't just be from the teacher's personality or idea. It also has to be from your perception of how the economy will change how the world economy will change in the next several decades.' (Jeremy, NU, Assistant Professor in Law)

Professional reflection:

Jeremy's points have some similarities with other EMI teachers for the personalization of pedagogy, but the distinction is that he believes that teaching approaches should also be contextualized in the macro political and economic environment, but not just in relation to the individual teachers' philosophy and personality. I agree with Jeremy's view that the pedagogical approaches should be contextualized in the macro political and economic environment. The reason for China's pursuit of internationalization (or kind of westernization from the description of my interviews) is more or less due to the higher political and economic status that western countries have. Additionally, I believe that pedagogy is also influenced by traditional culture, or historical experience, at least in China. For instance, from the students' preferences mentioned earlier in this chapter, Chinese students particularly tend to prefer more traditional Chinese pedagogical approaches, and the EMI teachers I interviewed also agreed that it is a more appropriate way of teaching Chinese students in SFCUs to be competitive in today's world. I believe that's one of the things IaH is about. In the context of IaH, pedagogical approaches should be adapted accordingly to the stakeholders (e.g. teachers and students), the discipline and the wider context.

Concerns related to language proficiency usually overlap with pedagogical issues in the EMI classroom, particularly with teacher-student interaction levels, which was mentioned in Section 2.4.1.2.

In addition to the personalised approaches to teaching, EMI teachers have adopted different accommodation strategies to problems encountered in different specific teaching practices to help EMI students learning.

5.3 Accommodation strategies for effective EMI teaching

The strategies adopted by EMI teachers in these two SFCUs can be categorised into three different aspects—pedagogical practice, language support and mental health support.

5.3.1 Pedagogical practice

5.3.1.1 Translanguaging and Code-switching

The main accommodation strategies adopted by EMI teachers in these two EMI universities are, according to previous research mentioned in Section 2.4.4, widely adopted by EMI teachers from other contexts. The two main strategies are translanguaging and code-switching.

In this research, we can find that EMI teachers, subject experts in particular, applied different approaches to translanguaging and code-switching. The most frequently adopted way mentioned by fifteen participants is to add the L1 (L1) of students orally when giving lectures, and L1 is usually used when students have difficulty in understanding subject content in English. Sherry said:

'We are only allowed to use English during class, but sometimes we have to pause to translanguaging to students' L1 as they seemed to be confused about what we elaborated in English. Some students do have difficulties understanding subject content in the first and second year, if the whole lecture is conducted in English, so usually EMI teachers compromised to use Chinese to deliver parts of the course, if they can speak Chinese.' (Sherry, DU, Lecturer in Consecutive Interpreting)

Charlie also illustrated similar situations when he would orally switch the codes to guarantee students' understanding:

'I think it is necessary to use L1 to assist EMI teaching. I would repeat what I explained in Chinese again in English and tell students that these are what I explained in Chinese.' (Charlie, NU, Associate professor in Law)

Through the interviews with these EMI teachers, I also find that five teachers translate some contents of their teaching and learning materials to the students' L1, as a way of translanguaging to help students' understanding. As Jack admitted:

'I added some Chinese when delivering the courses and also wrote down some key points in Chinese on the blackboard or slides to help these students better understand the content of that course.' (Jack, NU, Professor in Finance Management)

Likewise, Terry told me such accommodation strategy is commonly seen in EMI teaching, and he himself spoke both Chinese and English during class, and sometimes put the Chinese translation in his slides to assist students' understanding:

'This is generally the case that we give students some Chinese translation of terminologies. It helps them to memorize important content. When there are some difficult points in a lesson, I may repeat my explanations in Chinese, and I would choose Chinese when I thought it was best for students to understand the subject content. As I am teaching Mathematics, I have some mathematical terminologies in my PPTs, and I always mark them in Chinese with parentheses.' (Terry, NU, Associate professor in Math)

The EMI teachers using translanguaging and code-switching mentioned above are native-Chinese speakers, they use the students' L1 to help understanding the subject content. Such a strategy is only possible at universities in the IaH context, which means that it could be hardly implemented in a pure international university or in an overseas university, as Chinese people call it. Thus, it could be said that such a coping strategy is also a product of the IaH context, even if it was firstly adopted in the classroom for SLA, it is still an attempt to achieve the 'internationalization' at 'home'.

The adoption of such a pedagogical approach to deal with the language problems emerge in EMI teaching is also an attempt by EMI teachers to achieve and balance the dual-goal. However, it is not without any controversy and has been questioned not only in terms of its impact on English proficiency improvement, but also in terms of how it might be adopted by EMI teachers whose L1 is different from that of their students.

Irene, whose L1 is English, gave the answer in my interview. She shared her experience which revealed that translanguaging and code-switching also happen when the EMI teacher is a native English speaker. Irene's experience demonstrated that although those EMI teachers cannot speak

the L1 of students, they can have the students with good English language proficiency code-switch for them and help the students whose English are weaker. Irene has introduced this way of codeswitching in the interview:

'It is very hard. Because you don't have the immediacy of code-switching into their language, solving the problem, explaining to them, and then continuing the lecture. I believe in code-switching makes teaching a lot easier; I believe that it reduces the stress of students and certain points during the lecture and the foreign language. sometimes you can use a student that is more fluent in English and have them code-switch for the students... And therefore, code-switching can actually happen within the group. That is a strategy also I use. It's not a big problem as long as they don't speak Chinese during the whole class because it will defeat the purpose.' (Irene, DU, Associate professor in Marketing and English language)

Thus, from the interviewees' teaching practice with translanguaging and code-switching, we can infer that EMI teachers have reached a consensus that understanding subject content is the priority for student, while blindly pursuing English-only has some side-effects for students' learning. It could be seen from the interviews that the EMI subject experts focus more on the subject content teaching than on the improvement of English proficiency in their teaching practice. Therefore, it could be inferred that for the EMI teachers, EMI dual goals are not 'dual' but of a primary and secondary nature.

Milton has pointed out similar views expressing that the pedagogical approaches and accommodation strategies EMI teachers adopted should meet the target of EMI teaching. He also stated that current English-only policy could be more detrimental than beneficial:

'We had meetings discussing these accommodation strategies. These courses are difficult to master even if we use students' L1 to teach, not to mention to adopt English as the medium of instruction. We, teachers, need to repeat again and again until students can understand the content. Thus, I think translanguaging into Chinese is necessary for our teaching process, particularly for challenging and abstract courses. If we insist on using English only for teaching, students would be completely confused about the content and lost in the class. Especially for students in years 1 and 2, English-only policy in EMI universities has more disadvantages than advantages.' (Milton, NU, Assistant professor in Math and Financial)

It is no coincidence that Terry also mentioned the side effects of English-only, which means no translanguaging and code-switching is allowed during lecturing, would sacrifice the subject content learning, in his interview:

'The efficiency will be lower, so the knowledge students acquire definitely less than that of teaching all in Chinese. In principle, it must be less than teaching all in Chinese, and the first is that its quantity is surely less than teaching Chinese. Secondly, his acceptance quality in the classroom is worse than that of teaching all in Chinese.' (Terry, NU, Associate professor in Math)

EMI teachers' consciousness on the necessity of using the students' L1 in teaching to improve EMI teaching efficiency has led to the current situation that translanguaging and code-switching are the most widely accepted strategies in EMI universities, it is also the reflection of IaH.

Although, as I have noted in 2.4.4, these two strategies are widely used in EMI contexts, what is interesting in my interviews is that the way teachers adopt code-switching display different practices. As one of the interviewees (Irene) is a native-English speaker, she could hardly switch the codes by herself. She organised students into different groups and asked students with better language competence to code-switch for her and explain to the rest of the students. She then used some examples to test whether these students have switched codes in correctly. This reminds me of the different strategies native-English speaker EMI teachers used and native-Chinese speaker EMI teachers used.

In one session of my classroom observation for this study, I heard a native English teacher try to say a few words in Chinese, some of them are conversational type Chinese, while some are the translation for certain terminology. In this way, when native English speaker teachers speak Chinese, they actually put more emphasis on the 'at home' part of IaH:

Teacher's behaviour

Language:

Since Jeremy is a native speaker of English, I didn't expect that he will speak any Chinese during the class. However, he spoke some Chinese when he introduced China's Court System and asked students whether his pronunciation is correct. Jeremy can see the whole class through Zoom but had few direct interactions with students. During the session, he frequently asked students 'ok?' 'All right?' 'Clear?' 'Sounds good?' 'if you have any questions, ask me 'are there any questions?' However, seldom did the student react back to Jeremy. Only when he tried to use Chinese to say: 'do you understand' (听懂没) did some students answer 'yes' in the WeChat group chat. (Course name: The legal environment, lecturer: Dr Jeremy Parker; observation time: 13:00-12: 15 CST, 30th Sep, 2020)

During my observation, I thought this was somehow translanguaging, but in a subsequent interview with that teacher, he told me he spoke some Chinese to liven up the class, getting the students' attention and keeping them focused on the class. However, I believe that although the immediate effect of this kind of translanguaging is to enable students to concentrate, the ultimate aim is the same as native Chinese EMI teachers', that is to improve EMI students learning efficiency. From the observation, it could be seen that the EMI teaching in the context of IaH places higher demands on teachers to localise their teaching to the students' learning at students' home countries, so as to help students achieve the dual goals of EMI learning.

Another confusion here is relevant to the EMI regulations in these two universities. As these teachers said, management in both universities does not allow bilingual teaching in EMI classrooms. They insist on an English-only policy in EMI teaching, especially in EMI classroom activities. However, it is obvious that teachers all tried to use students' L1 to explain complex conceptions and terminologies to make EMI learning and teaching more efficient. So now we can see that the macro-level policy from the government is that at least 1/3 classroom activities should be done in English, the meso-level policy from university management is English-only in EMI classrooms, while the micro-level policy from EMI teachers is that they adopt translanguaging and code-switching to make teaching efficient. That is to say, the policies and responses are different at all levels. The practice in classrooms matches more to government policy as at the classroom level, EMI teachers are doing their best to balance the requirements of government and the university. From my observation and interviews, the English EMI teachers use during lectures is well over the one-third ratio required by the government, but most of them are also unable to meet the 'Englishonly' requirement in the university policy that is inconsistent with the government one. I think at the national level (MOE), those administrators do not want English to completely replace Chinese in SFCUs, but at the university level, the management team treated English-only policy or so-called purely western education as one of the selling point to attract students, and finally EMI teachers who actually put this policy into practice found the difficulties when implementing 'English-only' policy, and responded with some measures to achieve the dual-goal of EMI.

5.3.1.2 Adjust the English used in classrooms—Simplify English and slowdown

Besides translanguaging and code-switching in EMI teachers' language practice during class, some EMI teachers mentioned adjusting the English they used in their lectures. To put it in detail, seven teachers have tried to simplify the English vocabulary they use and slow down the speed/pacing when speaking English. Both practices are adopted to help students understand the subject content delivered in English. Joanna shared her experiences of simplifying the English she used,

'When we express something relevant to the subject knowledge, we have to use the more academic English on the subject content, like terminologies. However, we will also use straightforward English to explain the terminologies.' (Joanna, DU, Associate Professor in Global Business)

Likewise, George, who is not a Chinese speaker, agreed with using simple language to make the content clear and understandable,

'Academic English is used more often, but I try to simplify for them. What I try to do is to explain the concept. Some of the concepts are difficult. So what's important is to simplify the concept for them to make it accessible. I can use a complex sentence if I want, but that will not be helpful even in Australia if I use a complex sentence.' (George, NU, Professor in Accounting)

Apart from simplifying the English teachers used for lecture delivery, Rachel mentioned another practice, which is relevant to the pacing of speaking and patience of teachers, to help students:

'I think the teaching pacing is quite important. If teachers use different ways to explain subject contents in a slower way, students would eventually understand...Teachers must be patient enough with students. If we teachers can be patient enough, and students are willing to learn, finally EMI can be effective.' (Rachel, NU, Lecturer in Accounting)

Similarly, Charlie shared comparable ways of slowing down the pace, but his speaking speed changes according to students' language proficiency:

'I usually adjust my speaking speed based on students' English level—if the students in that class have better English, I would use my normal speaking speed but would slow my speaking if I found students are weak in English listening.' (Charlie, NU, Associate professor in Law)

As mentioned in Section 2.4.4, with the expansion of EMI worldwide, many studies have examined language use in EMI contexts, typically focusing on teacher proficiency (Dimova & Kling, 2018). Some studies have found that EMI teachers tend to simplify their language to improve student

comprehension during lectures (Sert, 2008), which is consistent with my findings on EMI teachers' accommodation strategies for improving EMI students' learning. Others report that low teacher proficiency led to reduced quality of content teaching (Hu & Lei, 2014). Studies mentioned in Section 2.6.1 have revealed that a lack of interaction between students and teachers means students have little opportunity to produce content knowledge in English (Pun & Macaro, 2019) and take a largely passive role. Two of the most significant differences in EMI pedagogies merge the differences in the amount of L1 used in EMI classes and the amount of interaction between teachers and students. This is in line with what I mentioned earlier (See in Section 5.2) that students prefer different pedagogical approaches in different subjects, which resulting different amount and types of interaction.

Professional reflection:

It is clear from this section that some EMI teachers have realised that the reasons for their students' poor English include low levels of listening skill and a narrow range of vocabulary. Apart from translanguaging and codeswitching that are mentioned in the last section, slowing down the speed of speech or using some simple English to describe complex or academic knowledge can also help students to understand the subject knowledge in the moment. However, I think such practices might only be effective in the early phase of EMI learning, as it will at least make students feel that they can understand English. When advertising EMI in student recruitment, EMI is advertised as a high-end foreign mode of teaching so that EMI is very appealing to students and parents. However, there may be disadvantages in the long run, both for the improvement of students' language proficiency and for the development of the universities that expect to achieve the education IaH.

Nevertheless, I think in real teaching, students should be made to feel that it is not out of reach. It would be better if they could understand some English and acquire subject knowledge through it, particularly at the beginning stage of EMI learning. But for EMI teachers, I think what they need to bear in mind is the dual-goal of EMI. If it is just to improve students' mastery of subject contents, then it might be more efficient to adopt students' L1 as the medium of instruction. If EMI teachers also want to improve students' English proficiency, slowing down all the time, and simplifying English, is not a sustainable long-term strategy to cope with students' EMI learning problems. If students are only able to understand simple and slow English, then as a result, the so-called 'EMI teaching' should have little effect on their English improvement, then this defeats the purposes of EMI as it should be.

5.3.1.3 Visualizing and exemplifying

Apart from the strategies to adjust English used during lecturing, EMI subject experts also adopted other accommodation approaches, such as visualising the content, exemplifying the content by localising the examples, for students' better mastery of subject knowledge. Visualising the content was mentioned by five participants using different ways. George said,

'You need to visualise it. So I put a visual of the context words on the screen. And, for example, last semester, when we were teaching online, all my lectures, what I've done is, I had a transcript coming up on the screen. So like that, the student, even if they lose concentration for a moment or they don't hear the word, s they can see it. They can see what I'm saying. So it's for online teaching.' (George, NU, Professor in Accounting)

George's way of visualising the content is more likely to set transcripts for the lecturing, especially for online teaching during the pandemic. Moreover, he also mentioned how he applied multi-media devices during lecturing:

'I think the use of multimedia as well helps a lot when, for example, I can describe to the students, say, a problem in accounting or a case study. But if I show them a video clip of the case study, so the use of multimedia in terms of, text, graphics, as well as video helps a lot. You must also check with them.' (George, NU, Professor in Accounting)

Different from what George has done (visualizing content by setting instant voice to text for online teaching), Jane wrote and drew to visualize the content she delivered:

'...My student reminded me to visualize the content. At the very beginning, I thought the book we bought for students was quite good and classical, and the slides provided by the publisher were also self-explanatory. I thought it would be sufficient for students to acquire knowledge from textbooks and slides. However, some students suggested that if I could write about the key point on the white board, they could follow up my pacing and thoughts. Thus, after that, I started to write on the board, mainly drawing some graphs or diagrams to help students understand the content in another way. Actually from my own learning experiences, graphs and diagrams can be easier understood by students than words and formulas. Graphs make things simple, and when you can abstract the content into some graphs, language does not play as important role for students to understand subject knowledge. If the graph illustrates logic well, it is enough for students to understand the content even though you delivered them in English. I found this way quite effective.' (Jane, NU, Assistant professor in Economics)

Jane's visualisation is different from those George adopted, but they both find it effective in their teaching. This might have some relationship with the cognitive process, about human's understanding on graphs, in contrast to sentences or even sentences in another language. But I am not very sure about this, as little research in EMI has discussed this. Perhaps this can be found in some more general contexts, beyond EMI, as language is nationally different but graphics and logic are relative more borderless and interconnected among different culture and language contexts.

Another thing that caught my attention is that Jane's approach to visualize the content was suggested by her students, rather than starting it on her own initiative. This made me think that perhaps for some subjects, such as mathematics, or similar scientific subjects, logic is more vital than language, and is not dependent on verbal expression and understanding. The students may not have been aware of the differences between the subjects, but perhaps there were some differences in the subjects in the way they volunteered to write on the board and draw diagrams to facilitate their understanding in the lecture. However, it cannot be ruled out that students are limited by language issues and are able to look at visual illustrations to aid their understanding. Moreover, I have realised that such an approach may not necessarily be limited to use in the EMI context alone. Visualising abstract knowledge, or picturing it, might also appear in ordinary teaching. The difference is that in the EMI context, students will actively seek out and suggest ways in which they might be better able to take in, to overcome the negative impact of language barriers on the acquisition of subject knowledge.

In terms of exemplifying, EMI teachers have frequently mentioned the importance of appropriate examples in EMI teaching. They have emphasised giving as many examples as possible, localising the examples that students are familiar with, and giving examples that students are interested in.

Irene's focus was mainly on examples to help students understand, with an emphasis on quantity:

'How can it (EMI learning effectiveness) be improved? It can be improved by making sure that you explain the terminology well and that you also give examples in order for them to be able to comprehend and create an image in their mind of the terminology. It takes much work. But once they understand the terminology and use the words of the terminology, then the class can be conducted in a much easier way. After a while, you don't need to stop to explain the terminology......What you have to do is, number one, be patient, and number two, bring up as many examples as possible until the student actually is able to grasp the concept that you're trying to teach. It is difficult. But that is the only way you can do it. You can only do it by example.

If you don't know the student's language, give as many examples as possible.' (Irene, DU, Associate professor in Marketing and English language)

In terms of localizing examples, Flora and another three participants suggested using examples students are familiar with rather than the examples from original textbooks but unfamiliar to students directly:

'Take the Principle of Micro-Economics course, for example, when there are many cases to introduce to students for their better understanding, some teachers use the samples from the textbook published by the American press. The cases and examples in these textbooks happen in other countries, which are quite unfamiliar to students; students could feel confused about the instances, primarily when these cases are written in English, and further affect their content learning. Thus, our teachers should localise the examples for such courses to help students' understanding.' (Flora, NU, Lecturer in Mathematics)

Milton gives another perspective on what kind of examples he thought would help students better understand the subject content better. He emphasized that EMI teachers should keep up with trends, understand what students are interested in, and giving examples from students' interests:

'Teachers should firstly have good knowledge of students, at least the students in this generation. It will be helpful to know what students are interested in and then combine the interesting points to the subject content. By giving examples they are interested in, we can stimulate and motivate students' learning, students may find subject contents not boring but interesting and helpful in daily life.' (Milton, NU, Assistant professor in Math and Financial management)

From my interviews, I could see that EMI teachers were trying to find ways to give students an exemplary understanding of abstract concepts. This echoes what Rachel mentioned earlier about explaining through patience, slowing down the speech speed and using plain English. Explaining in different ways is like a reasoning process, while giving examples is like a process of laying out facts.

I observed that the teachers not only had the patience to give as many examples as possible but were aware of the need to give examples that the students could relate to and empathise with, especially those that would grab students' attention and interest them. These examples remind me of the terms 'edutainment', 'starting learning with interest', which are more frequently heard in elementary education rather than higher education (Chen, 2022). However, from my interviews, it seems that these approaches were picked up by EMI teachers in HEIs, and EMI students have completed a process of receiving abstract conceptions to absorbing concrete examples and then abstracting their own understanding of the concepts. Also, localizing examples, which is raised by Flora, is one of the things that makes IaH special. When the audiences in classrooms are almost domestic students whose L1 is not English, but have to learn in English, using some localized examples to explain the subject content will make it more understandable and hold students' attention more as well.

Furthermore, from the perspective of exemplifying, according to my observation, I can see that EMI teachers have more patience than teachers in other HEIs, and are more attentive to students' perspectives, which might align with the EMI philosophy. Such difference also reminds me of one of Milton's points that will be mentioned later, that treating EMI students as 'customers', consistent with neoliberal influences on higher education, and the thoughtfulness of the teachers now, as an example, can perhaps be seen as a service, where EMI teachers and administrators are trying to meet the needs of their customers and make them have a good consumer experience, that is, a four-year EMI learning.

5.3.1.4 Teachers' support and adaptation to students

As mentioned in the previous section the teachers felt that their teaching approaches would be adapted to the differences in the student body, teachers in this study are aware that apart from the students' adaptation to a new EMI environment, teachers themselves should support students as much as possible and try to accommodate students' different and preferred learning styles.

Regarding the support from teachers, George has talked about this from two different perspectives, teachers in NU providing support directly to students, and teachers arrange peer tutors to offer students support:

'We have the academic centre for excellence. It has got several teachers, students tutors and teaching assistants who have already graduated, but some students from senior year, and they help their younger colleagues. So there is peer support, but also there is expert support. (George, NU, Professor in Accounting)

As opposed to George's post-lecture support from both peers and teachers, where students are in a passive position, Jane offered some incentives to encourage students to interact and concentrate in class. Jane's approach makes students more likely to become active to interact. As Jane said:

'For Chinese students, even if we use Chinese to deliver our courses, they are unwilling to interact with us. So I learnt a way to encourage students from my colleagues. The way is that we give the student some incentive to interact with us; for example, we can give more credits for their classroom engagement. Students whose foundation is worse would be willing to engage themselves more in the class and interact with teachers to have more possibility to pass the exams though they may not have good performance in the final exam. Through this way, students can improve their ability of English expression, also they would concentrate on the class to follow with teachers' thoughts and the content.' (Jane, NU, Assistant professor in Economics)

From my interviews with the EMI teachers, I can see teachers like Jane and Milton and other relatively novice EMI teachers are more likely to have student-centred classrooms, not only in the way they deliver courses, but also in the way they provide teaching services that can be used to engage students from their point of view, such as drawing graphs and writing on boards, as Jane mentioned before. Here again she mentioned giving students some rewards for doing so. Other EMI teachers, such as George, focus more on what the university offered to students rather than on the ways in which they themselves can support students in their own classrooms. This reflects the impacts from the marketisation of higher education under the influence of neoliberalism as mentioned in Section 2.1.1. Some EMI teachers began to treat students as customers in the education market and teachers as 'service suppliers' in the education market. It is also a result of IaH, particular the establishment of SFCUs, with overseas university participate in the management of teaching and running of this kind of universities.

For myself, I think it is okay to give some incentives in the classrooms to get students to take the initiative, but it should not be used too much. In my previous working experiences, I have encountered EMI teachers who over-please their students. However, I can understand why they do so. As Milton mentioned in the post-observation interview, teachers give students the best possible service as teachers would be worried about failing their own teaching evaluation. If students give negative feedback in the teaching evaluation, then a novice teacher would have some pressure for their future career. Perhaps what Milton mentioned is also the reason why EMI teachers with more years of teaching experience are not so motivated to offer extra bonuses or incentives to their students, as most of them are already on tenured contracts and as long as there are no serious problems, student evaluations will not affect their careers too much.

These reminds me of one of the EMI parents I have talked to who said that she would prefer her children's EMI teachers to have titles of associate professors or professors. She felt teachers with such titles are more experienced, and more knowledgeable. However, in the two SFCUs where I conducted my research, what I can sense is that teachers of this seniority do not spend as much time and energy on their students as the more junior teachers. This creates a very contradictory situation that EMI parents tend to prefer senior EMI teachers, while in reality, those younger and more novice EMI teachers are more inclined to find ways to improve their teaching and facilitate their effective communication with EMI students in order to help students' learning.

Besides the micro or practical methods teachers adopted to support and adapt to students, Andy advised adjusting teaching schedules according to students' foundation and level of acceptance of the content. He said:

'It is the teachers that should adapt. We, teachers, need to adapt to students as well. Teachers cannot mechanically deliver the courses as planned at the beginning, and teachers cannot just stand on their own points thinking what, when and how should we teach certain contents. You cannot treat the students as native English speaker students. Our students have more challenges in learning than native English speaker students. Native English speaker students can read the textbook if they cannot understand what a teacher said, but our students also have difficulty in reading textbooks written in English. So I would suggest teachers to adjust their teaching plan or schedules according to their students' situations in different classes.' (Andy DU, Associate Professor in Economics)

Comparably, Mike was also aware of the necessity of identifying each students' strengths and weaknesses through one-on-one counselling with students. He said that EMI students who have problems in learning can go to the teachers' offices with appointments, and teachers could diagnose what the issues are in their learning and give correct 'prescriptions' to students:

'For the weak students, if they have a problem in EMI classes, we have the counselling time for students to seek help. Teachers would encourage them to use English to ask questions, but if they have difficulty in expressing themselves in English, teachers will retell their questions in another way to confirm whether they understand well; in this way, students can at least improve their English listening. Then teachers can diagnose what students' problems are and give them suitable 'prescriptions' to 'heal' their problems.' (Mike, NU, Associate Professor in Computer Science)

Andy and Mike's points about teachers being proactive in adapting to their students and using this approach to support EMI learning echoes what the EMI teachers said earlier about the impossibility and unreality to standardise pedagogical approaches they use, since when EMI teachers consider the needs of their students, they can see the difficulties and challenges that EMI students face.

5.3.2 Language support

As language proficiency has been viewed to be an essential factor that affects EMI effectiveness, both universities have taken measures to cope with the problems in students' language proficiency, which seems to be an inevitable step for SFCUs to realise IaH through EMI.

As outlined in the section 2.4.3, Macaro (2018) has proposed four models of language support in EMI programmes. The primary approaches in these two universities are similar, including intensive language professional learning programmes before or during student orientation, which is the period prior to the start of the academic year at a university where a variety of events are held to welcome and acclimate new students. and English for Academic Purposes courses arranged in the study plan. Aside from the two measures taken by the English language centre in both universities, the cooperation between language specialists and subject experts is also mentioned to improve students' language proficiency during acquiring subject content.

Both language specialists and subject experts mentioned the intensive language learning programmes before or during orientation, while these teachers held different opinions on such programmes. EMI teachers in DU all have positive attitudes towards intensive language learning programmes. As Wendy said:

'In order to deal with the language problem, we have an intensive language learning session for one week in the orientation. It aims to let students adapt to the EMI environment faster...Regarding the university's language learning courses for the students, our university also arranges the English learning sessions in the summer holiday before orientation in the English learning centre. Thus, students from developing cities can advance to familiarise the EMI environment, and when they start their regular courses, they can adapt faster.' (Wendy, DU, Teaching assistant in Accounting programmes)

Sherry also mentioned a similar programme before the orientation. Still, she added that the programme is more helpful for students from rural/remote areas in China:

'There is an English Language Centre in our university; they focus more on students' English communication and expression. The English language centre provides English listening, reading, writing and speaking courses and workshops to help students adapt to EMI learning. These courses and workshops are arranged throughout four years during the undergraduate study. What is worth mentioning is that there is a two-week English learning session before orientation, particularly for students who come from remote or developing areas in China. It can help the students who are weak at English listening and speaking to adapt to EMI environment sooner.' (Sherry, DU, Lecturer in Consecutive Interpreting)

However, as a counterpoint, Terry pointed out that such short-term professional learning programmes are 'useless' for improving students' language proficiency in NU:

'We have an English Language Centre. There is a week-long English Intensive programme provided by the ELC called the English Intensive programme during the orientation week for first-year students. This is actually useless. The effect is deplorable. In fact, it is useless for the students to take it.. I asked the students in private, and if this programme extended to one month, can it work better for them? They told me that one month is still not enough.' (Terry, NU, Associate professor in Math)

Professional reflection:

It is clear from this question that both universities recognized that students need to have a period of preparation and adaptation. The reasons for the difference between these two SFCUs might be as follows. Firstly, the students' language foundation is different. DU's admission scores are higher than NU's and the students generally have a better foundation in English, so that a one-or-two-week intensive course could be sufficient. An additional issue may be content differences in the intensive courses between these two SFCUs. DU's English language centre is well-known among the SFCUs in China, and they have always focused on improving students' language skills. Thus, the different attitudes towards preparatory intensive English courses might be explained by these factors.

Apart from the intensive programmes provided by the English language centre, both universities have added EAP courses at least in the first year for students to improve their English. All EMI teachers in these two universities I spoke with thought it necessary to have EAP courses for students' English improvement. As Wendy said:

'Other resolutions, we have English workshops in the first year that aim to improve student's English proficiency, but there are no English learning courses after the first year. To be honest, our students' English proficiency is relatively good, and it is more important for them to have a good foundation at the beginning. For example, they added some English courses in the first year as we have all found the language is a serious problem for students at the beginning. So now students can attend more English courses including listening, speaking, reading and writing to improve their language ability and skill gradually...considering the limited time, what we can do now is to add more English courses in the first semester. I think it is contradictory if we squeeze the time of major courses and spend a year in English language courses.' (Wendy, DU, Teaching assistant in Accounting programmes)

Although the measures are similar in these two universities, some differences exist as well. In DU, a writing centre is set up in the English language centre for students to access. There are one-to-one instruction opportunities in the English language centre in NU for students who want to improve

English language proficiency. Irene from DU talked about the writing centre in DU and emphasized the importance of immediate access:

'There is a writing centre, and I believe they definitely need this writing centre where students can access immediately to help with whatever part of the language, they are having a problem with. But the most important thing I believe is that there should be immediate access to help students with their English problems...It's the challenge of trying to decide how much help they should provide students as far as language is concerned. That's a challenge because language assistance needs to be ongoing until the student graduates.' (Irene, DU, Associate professor in Marketing and English language)

According to George, students received one-to-one instruction when they have problems with English in NU:

'So there is a peer support, also there is experts'. Experts in English can help the students with their English. There is 1 to 1 instruction to help them and to give them strategies to not just to help them, obviously with their work, but also with the language in terms of how to speak, how to listen. And I think that works well.' (George, NU, Professor in Accounting)

It is interesting to see in George's example that EMI subject experts have joined to help with students' language improvement. Apart from the pedagogical approaches mentioned in Section 5.3.1, subject experts also encourage students to use English more frequently and speak out confidently during lectures to improve their English language proficiency. Stacy, a subject expert from NU, introduced her way to help with students' English:

'In terms of language improvement, it is important to encourage students to express their thoughts in English. As you know, Chinese students are not active enough to speak out loud, and they tend to avoid expressing their own opinions in public. Thus, teachers ought to encourage them to express their own views during lectures, not only to improve their English speaking but also to improve the students' audiences' English listening...If the time during lectures is insufficient for students to share their views, we can have students speak more during tutorials.' (Stacy, NU, Lecturer in Accounting)

Subject experts in NU also participate in a mentor programme during orientation to help with students' English language and their adaptation to the EMI environment. Helen and Jane introduced how the mentor programmes they participate in can be beneficial to students' EMI learning, especially their English proficiency. As Jane said:

'...In the mentor programmes, we arranged several activities for students. For example, we gave students some topics, and they can design a poster for presentation with their team members. Through this, students can both know each other, know teachers as well as starting to use English to express their thoughts.' (Jane, NU, Assistant professor in Economics)

Similarly, Helen from NU also mentioned:

'Many students expressed their anxiety about English proficiency. We need to encourage students to overcome their fear and speak out. They were not confident initially, and they thought they needed to speak perfect English in EMI learning... So in the mentor programme, we need to change their thoughts and help them be confident in communicating with others in English....' (Helen NU, Associate professor in Marketing, 2020)

Professional reflection:

In this part of the interview, I could see that the language specialists and the subject experts at both universities were collaborating to improve students' language proficiency, particularly at the beginning of undergraduate English-medium education. There is a consensus among these EMI teachers that the language foundation is of vital importance and would affect the learning of subject contents. Not only do the subject experts use different forms of teaching to give students more opportunities to be exposed to English and use English, but they also recognized that students' limited expression in English is to some extent due to psychological factors such as speaking anxiety. This is why some EMI teachers in the interviews mentioned the necessity for themselves to support students' mental health. Such support was not limited to encouraging students to speak English, as mentioned earlier, but also relevant to how EMI teachers could deal with students' discomfort with EMI, frustration, and depression after a setback in EMI learning.

5.3.3 Mental health problem and relevant support

As a consequence of the fact that students suffer at the early stage of EMI learning (see chapter 6), mental health problems emerge among overwhelmed students due to the dual-pressure brought by dual-goal of EMI. Most EMI teachers proactively mentioned this when talking about the difficulties they encountered in EMI teaching, and EMI teachers are aware of increasing psychological problems among EMI students. This aspect was particularly evident in the context of Internationalization at home where EMI is commonly adopted. Many of the teachers I interviewed referred to varying degrees of student well-being issues.

Jack, who had two students drop out because of depression and schizophrenia, pointed out the 'vicious circle' of EMI learning:

'This is a vicious circle--- students perform worse and worse academically. Eventually, they may either drop out or transfer to another university. EMI learning may also cause psychological problems, which are common phenomena in SFCUs...Because students' English are not good, if we force them to use English in their study, in the end, students can't understand anything in the class or the whole course. You can find what a mess their English are from their dissertation. Students can tolerate this for one semester at most. If they continue adopting EMI, students will lose confidence.' (Jack, NU, Professor in Finance Management)

Terry and Charlie also mentioned similar problems. They both suggested that university management and EMI teachers should all pay attention to such problems as they know students are too stressed at the beginning of their courses. They said:

'About 70% of students can handle it. Our courses in year-1 are not too difficult, however, even if it is not difficult, the pressure on the students is still quite heavy. If the student's self-discipline and self-management are weaker, he or she will lose confidence in the first semester, and then this student will lose confidence for future study.' (Terry, NU, Associate professor in Math)

'Students need to digest a giant load of learning content in both language and subject in the first year, and they might be stressed out and feel reluctant or resistant to carry on. I think all teachers, including language specialists and subject experts, as well as admin staff and university management, should pay attention to such problems and spare no effort supporting and helping students.' (Charlie, NU, Associate professor in Law)

Joanna combined Chinese students' characteristics with the mental health problems:

'Chinese students are not very proactive in studying. So we have to push the Chinese students, which may lead to some pressure on them. At the same time, we also need to pay attention to their endurance for the psychological pressure, and we cannot make them feel overwhelmed and drive them crazy.' (Joanna, DU, Associate Professor in Global Business)

Compared to DU, EMI teachers from NU mentioned students' mental health problems more frequently. This might have something to do with the students' foundation difference between these two SFCUs. As mentioned earlier, NU students have a poorer foundation than DU, according to their Gaokao admission requirements (total score and English score), thus, it is not surprising that students in NU might experience more challenges and difficulties in their study, and as a result, they may be more likely to have mental health problems. In the next chapter, I will analyse the impact of students' academic foundation on the achievement of EMI dual goals, but from the interviews I conducted, it is also clear that in addition to the logical thinking, learning ability and language proficiency, factors related to emotional intelligence, such as stress tolerance and psychological regulation, also affect students' performance when they transfer to undergraduate study from high schools.

Therefore, it is also obvious that IaH may save on financial cost for student mobility but it actually increases the other pressures that students face. It cannot be denied that there are academic and language pressures associated with studying directly overseas, which is what I have experienced as an international student. However, in overseas study, language enhancement does not commonly exist as an educational objective as there is already language benchmark/requirement prior to entry. On the contrary, at the SFCUs where EMI is adopted, there does not exist a benchmark for student admission but have a more rigorous language test to push students to achieve the dual goals of EMI, the mastery of subject knowledge and improvement of English proficiency are of equal importance.

Especially when the EMI management requires the use of 'full-English' mode for the sake of gimmicks in advertising SFCUs and EMI but with a poorer language environment than overseas study, implement IaH through EMI has to some extent alleviated the financial stress but increased the mental pressure. Therefore, the effective practice of EMI in the context of IaH requires a combination of high education quality (including subject content and language) and the well-being of students, which from my viewpoint is crucial to the sustainability of EMI implementation in China.

With the outbreak of Covid-19 in early 2020, and the continuous strict epidemic control measures in China, the impact of the pandemic on the higher education sector is far more dissipated. EMI students in SFCUs have also experienced varying degrees of lockdown, and the traditional on-site teaching approaches have had to be changed. It is not known if the problems that have already existed in the previous face-to-face situation will be mitigated with hybrid teaching and learning, and it is also not clear whether online teaching and learning will bring new mental health concerns. These are worthy of further study.

In addition to the paucity of previous research on EMI students' EMI mental health, the mental health problems of EMI students exposed by these teachers are only the tip of the iceberg. Perhaps it is also one of the reasons why there is not so much academic research covering this aspect. Just from my own experience, I have witnessed students' depression, bipolar disorder, borderline personality disorder, schizophrenia and suicide among other problems, which is also a very stressful situation for EMI teachers and administrators, and I have had colleagues who have resigned because they could not cope with such pressure.

In many cases, students choose to enrol in SFCUs simply because their parents are convincing them that such a model of education will allow them to study in China and have access to advanced educational resources abroad, or they simply choose SFCUs because they charge much higher fees than regular public universities and parents and students feel that there is less competition for enrolment and better chances of acceptance. Some of them have not fully considered the problems that EMI may cause. When problems do arise, students do not know how to seek help from others. For a long time, the SFCUs I worked in did not have a professional counselling teacher, and when we did invite one, we found that one teacher simply could not meet the counselling needs of the students, and that the match of resources in terms of mental health support was not nearly enough.

Again, because of the special nature of SFCUs from the stage of admission, students studying at SFCUs have little option to transfer to other public or general education institutions. Ministry of Education regulations, differences in entry requirements from city to city and province to province, and a completely different curriculum have forced many students to stay at SFCUs even though they already struggle and feel overwhelmed. So, as with academic issues, more institutional and policy improvements are necessary, in addition to universities guiding students to seek help and solve problems.

Mental health support in these two universities consists of peer support and teachers' support. Surprisingly, peers have more support than we can see on the websites. We can find peer mentors on the universities' websites to support first-year students in the mentor programme during orientation period. However, we can also consider that there are peer students support each other in other ways in NU and below, we can also see how George supported students' learning and mental health through collecting formative feedback during his teaching. Also, he was aware of pressure on students during EMI learning, so he has some suggestions, such as confirming with students' understanding and arranging fewer quizzes, to lessen students' stress:

'Do you know, sometimes we get the students to repeat some of the things talked about to confirm whether they understood. Also we get them figure out the lecture and encourage them to read. Some teachers have quizzes for students every week, so students always put that subject on the top. But I don't, students will feel very stressed if there are quizzes every week. (George, NU, Professor in Accounting)

Professional reflection:

As we can see here, George is the only teacher who shared his own experience about what the university and himself have done for relieve students' pressure to support students' mental health. But in the section on EMI students' learning challenges, we can see that many EMI teachers are aware of students' mental health issues, such as depression, schizophrenia, etc. While it cannot be said that EMI is necessarily the root cause of these mental health problems, some EMI teachers believe that the discomfort with EMI can exacerbate or trigger the onset of the disorder.

Even if this is the case, it seems that the EMI teachers have not identified effective ways of intervening in mental health problems. However, I do not believe that it is the obligation of EMI teachers to acknowledge these problems, and perhaps to have provided some help to alleviate anxiety and depressed emotion within their own sphere of responsibility. Instead, I think it is the EMI management that should actually develop their responses or enhance mental health education for students.

More importantly, as many teachers have suggested in their advice on EMI implementation, it is important to select students who are truly suitable for EMI, or who are genuinely willing to accept English medium education, rather than lowering the bottom line to earn more tuition income. As SFCUs are not public education institutions in China, the marketization of EMI cannot be avoided to some extent. I think the current problems exposed in these teacher interviews reveal some drawbacks of EMI in China. When educators or education administrators start to pursue profit, there are some students who may become victims in a sense.

However, though the mental health problems among EMI students are increasingly severe and the EMI research community was aware of this, there is little literature on this aspect. According to Zhu (2021), while an increasing number of research studies have shed light on EMI at the tertiary level, very few have investigated the influence of EMI students' negative emotions (e.g., anxiety) on their attitudes towards EMI. Zhu (2021) also found that 'perceived peer pressure' (p.96) appears to be an important predictor for EMI attitudes of students. This indicate that attention should be drawn to students' mental health regarding their overall anxiety in EMI learning, in which assistance concerning peer culture improvement should be considered.

As EMI students have the dual goal of English learning and subject knowledge acquisition, and both SFCUs adopted an English-only policy from the meso level, students could suffer from foreign language anxiety as well. According to Zhou, Xi and Lochtman (2023), language competence and specific language abilities in L2 are closely related to the willingness to communicate, but other language-related psychological factors such as foreign language anxiety may also play a role. Anxious individuals are more vulnerable to task-irrelevant stimuli or distractors, which may in turn lead to less willingness to initiate communication in the target language. Thus, for the EMI students in these two SFCUs, they all face the challenge of foreign language anxiety, and it is not surprising that some of them would face mental health problems in such an environment.

Moreover, with the continuation of the Covid-19 outbreak and the strict pandemic prevention and quarantine measures have kept a large number of people in isolation and affected many aspects of people's lives. It has also triggered a wide variety of psychological problems, such as panic disorder, anxiety, and depression (Qiu et al. 2020). Chi et al. (2020) also revealed high prevalence rates of PTSD, anxiety, and depressive symptoms as well as PTG among Chinese university students during the COVID-19 Pandemic. It also identified specific risk factors for poor mental health outcomes during stressful COVID-19 pandemic.

Professional reflection:

Thus, we can infer that students at SFCUs, may need more mental health support in the era of pandemic, and both EMI teachers and management need to explore effective ways to safeguard the mental health of their students, particularly when these students are faced with the dual-challenge of EMI learning and the uncertainties associated with the pandemic. This would be an inevitable problem to tackle for a sustainable laH.

Despite the lack of attention to the mental health of students in SFCUs and little research focused on the specificity of the mental health state of EMI students as a group, these are some of the adjustments and efforts made by EMI teachers in the two SFCUs I studied to address the difficulties and challenges that arose in English medium education. However, some problems do not only occur in the Chinese context, but they are also evident across the higher education sector globally, more research should be done to solve such problems in EMI settings.

5.4 EMI Teacher evaluation

Since SFCUs are more student-centred than traditional public university in China, the way such universities evaluate teachers' teaching is mainly through students' feedback and peer review. Besides the forms of teacher evaluation, some interviewees in this research also referred to the embarrassment of teacher evaluation in this kind of universities.

In terms of the evaluation approaches, these two SFCUs adopted similar methods for teacher evaluation, basically, EMI teachers' performance is evaluated from students' feedback and peer reviews. However, I thought the self-evaluation mentioned by Cheng (2013) and Chien (2012) has some referential value for today's EMI implementation. It can help teachers to reflect on their teaching practice and thus improve EMI teaching effectiveness and quality.

According to the twenty participants, both universities' EMI teachers are evaluated through students' feedback and peer reviews. Irene thought that these are the only two ways teachers needed to be evaluated:

'What they need, if they are fresh PhDs, is experience. They may be evaluated, just like any other professor may be evaluated at the end of the semester. Peer evaluation and evaluations from the students. But that is the only kind of assessment I think they would need.' (Irene, DU, Associate professor in Marketing and English language)

However, these EMI teachers have different attitudes towards evaluating through students' feedback. Half of the interviewed teachers held positive attitudes towards students' feedback and reckoned that students' feedback was reliable. As George said:

'I think what you have to remember is the students will tell you, if everything is being taught in Chinese because they're not paying for the Chinese degrees, they are paying for British degrees. So we tend to get feedback from the students themselves.' (George, NU, Professor in Accounting)

Charlie affirmed that students' feedback is an effective way to evaluate teachers' teaching practice:

'At least in our college, there is a teaching evaluation from students' feedback every semester. There are questions asking students' feelings and their learning progress. I think it is a good way to both evaluate teaching and get to know students' learning...in the student feedback survey, there is a question about what language does the lecturer used for delivering courses...students may have complaints in the feedback if they are not satisfied with the medium for instruction....' (Charlie, NU, Associate professor in Law)

However, EMI teachers do not commonly hold such positive attitudes. Terry and four other participants thought students' feedback is too subjective as it might be 'GPA-related' and xenocentric, which is consistent with the findings of Copland et al (2016) summarised in Section 2.5:

'All courses are taught in English, in the teaching evaluation, students were specifically about what language the teacher uses, so if the student says it is Chinese, the department and university will assume that there existed some problems of this teachers' teaching behaviours...Sometimes, students' evaluation is blind, differentiating between Chinese teachers and foreign teachers. Both students and parents are kinds of xenophilia...Another case is that students evaluate teachers based on how much GPA they can get from that teacher's course. If they did not get a satisfactory score from that teacher, they would negatively comment on that teacher. So personally speaking, the evaluation results from students can be for reference only, but you cannot 100% believe that they are not objective...Students are childish----for example, they think that the teachers are so strict that their score is low, they will give the teacher a low score in their evaluation; or they believe that a teacher tells jokes and looks humorous, most students share positive comments, but you won't know whether their professionality and expertise are good enough.' (Terry, NU, Associate professor in Math)

Professional reflection:

Regarding students' feedback, I think it is understandable that some EMI teachers thought it reasonable to take student feedback into consideration and even some of them thought it is enough to just consider student feedback, as EMI teaching tends to be student-centred. Students are the direct teaching targets; they have the most say on whether the teacher's teaching is satisfactory and suitable for them. However, as Terry said, students' views are not necessarily factual nor necessarily objective, because students could be easily attracted by foreign teachers' ways of teaching which might just have some superficial entertainment activities while regardless of the benefits that real professional teaching would bring, although that might be less interesting and entertaining. Apart from the complaints from Terry, this also reminds me of Milton's comments on the relationship between student feedback and young EMI teachers' career. He said he would try to find ways to solve students' problems, cater to students' preferences and even provide some other services to students just to make the student feel happy and give him some positive feedback to ensure his career development.

It might bring some advantages if student feedback is a big part of the picture as teachers will seek more appropriate ways to teach different students, while things might also go to another extreme that some EMI teachers might not necessarily take EMI teaching seriously, but find ways to cater to students and please them in ways that are not relevant to teaching, which is not good for EMI students' learning in the long run, nor is it conducive for EMI implementation. Moreover, it is obvious that the idea of treating students as client and provide educational service to students does not mean to 'pleasing the students', and is not the objective of education internationalization. However, during the process of realising IaH, the lack of appropriate and well-developed approaches for teacher evaluation leads to the idea of pleasing the students among some of the EMI teachers.

Therefore, while I believe that student feedback is necessary and important, there are more aspects that need to be considered when measuring EMI teachers' teaching performance. EMI administrators need to look critically at student feedback and adjust the proportion of student feedback so that teachers can be motivated to improve their own teaching, without trying to cater to and please students in a sideway. Another thing is that I think EMI administrators should give more job security to young EMI teachers and give them the opportunity to make some mistakes during teaching, in this way, novice/young EMI teachers could focus more on how to develop their pedagogical skills and professionalism.

Unlike the differential attitudes on students' feedback, six EMI teachers are neutral on the peer review for teaching evaluation. Sherry mentioned that they have teaching supervisors audit their class for teaching evaluation, and Terry gave more detailed information on peer review:

'The evaluation should not be only from students, but just as I mentioned, should include peer review, right? Peer review is of necessity for evaluating teachers' teaching. The so-called 'peer review' means the programme directors or the teachers in the same area of expertise can go to observe the class. Because students and teachers have benefit entanglements, when students have an unsatisfied score on certain examinations, they may give the teacher negative comments due to their vengeance. At least some senior faculty should have a panel or team to evaluate teachers' teaching, right? It sounds more reasonable, right? These faculty will comment on you from their professional perspective, right? If there is a peer review committee, they will look at whether teachers are patient enough, whether they teach well or just tell jokes but did nothing relate to the content knowledge.' (Terry, NU, Associate professor in Math)

Professional reflection:

From Terry's description, I found that the so-called 'peer review' is actually a senior teacher or manager's assessment and supervision of teachers. As mentioned in the section on EMI professional learning, some teachers treat this type of audit, or we say, observation and subsequent feedback as an opportunity for self-improvement, but others, such as George, have mentioned that he does not like the feeling of being scrutinised when the observation/audit of the lesson is also a kind of evaluation.

So it is a challenge to evaluate the teaching performance of EMI teachers. In addition to the two aspects mentioned by these EMI teachers so far, I am also wondering if teaching outcomes should be considered, and if so, how should the outcomes be measured? Is it a subjective measure of students' perception or an objective measure of students' score improvement? It will take time to find a way to satisfy all three EMI stakeholders—EMI students, EMI students, and EMI management—especially with the diversity of teachers in SFCUs and the complexity of factors that management need to consider.

Apart from the attitudes towards these two different teacher evaluation methods, Terry provided more information on the problems that exist in teacher evaluation and the embarrassment they faced. As mentioned in the section of concerns on EMI teacher entry requirements, Terry thought EQ should be taken into consideration in EMI teacher recruitment. Terry also suggested that teachers' emotional intelligence, or EQ and mental health should also be included in teacher evaluation to

guarantee teaching quality. These two aspects can hardly be authentically assessed in recruitment interviews.

With these problems in current teacher evaluation, Terry pointed out that it is challenging to evaluate EMI teaching in China fairly, and the government and university's policy for teacher evaluation is ineffective. The reason why EMI teaching can hardly be evaluated is that teaching is a more qualitative behaviour rather than a quantitative one. As public universities tend to be research-oriented, they can evaluate their faculty and staff through quantitative evidence. In contrast, EMI universities are more likely to be teaching-oriented, the way to evaluate teachers adopted by public universities can hardly be effectively applied to transnational universities. Terry mentioned:

'In fact, hardly can we have an evaluation on EMI teaching, not only EMI teaching, actually it is hard to evaluate teaching in China. Why would our dean like to set up a teaching committee and ask me to chair that? The reason is that he wants me to think about some ways to evaluate and improve the teaching quality. So there does have some problems in how to evaluate teaching. I think there's no good method in the whole of China. How can we evaluate whether a teacher is professionally good or not? You need to synthesise different evaluations. It is quite complex.' (Terry, NU, Associate professor in Math)

Not only Terry but the MoE in China was aware of the problems in teacher evaluation in international universities, even in the higher education sector. Teachers in international universities are at a disadvantageous situation in teacher evaluation. But no appropriate policy or method was found to solve the problem:

'Currently, the MoE is also working on the teaching evaluation. They raised a considerable title for 'Jing Shi', which means high-quality courses and high-level teachers. In the policy regarding 'Jing Shi', the MoE asks teachers to focus on teaching only. They give a very high status and reputation for elite teachers who have high-quality courses and require universities to give them proper treatment as the full professors...The MoE does not find good ways for improving research in China, so they began to improve teaching quality in China. But they never say how to evaluate the teaching performance. The current evaluation of teaching is, in essence, evaluating the research. They evaluated whether you have any excellent courses whether you have published any books relevant to excellent courses. However, whether a book can be published is relevant to the resources of universities. You can see those teachers in NU did not publish any books, right?... When it comes to evaluating teaching, if you are teaching top universities which have good and numerous resources, you will do research more and just do the teaching perfunctorily....' (Terry, NU, Associate professor in Math)

The difficulties in evaluating EMI teachers have been brought to the attention of the educational research community, and the study on the necessity for EMI professional certificates that are mentioned in my previous chapter was because it was found to be difficult to objectively assess the qualifications of EMI teachers. According to Macaro and Han (2020), the practicality of EMI teacher evaluation leading to certification is a noticeable challenge. There seems to be no consensus on what kind of evaluation should be done, or by whom. This situation is further complicated by the fact that subject content and subject genres play an important role and this role may be overlooked in an EMI context. Moreover, the evaluation of subject content delivery through EMI makes the already complicated procedure even more difficult.

Similarly, Huang & Singh (2014) were also aware of the importance of teacher evaluation in EMI universities to improve the EMI teaching quality. They thought that an appropriate evaluation framework is desirable for establishing teacher professional learning and certification programmes. But what is different from my research findings is that Cheng (2013) and Chien (2012) thought providing a teacher self-evaluation can be embedded in university efforts to improve EMI programme quality. The mode of self-evaluation is not mentioned by the participants in my study.

Professional reflection:

While regarding the necessity of EMI teacher evaluation, as far as I am concerned, what Terry is saying is that apart from the fact that quality assurance of EMI is an issue that needs to be addressed urgently, the issue of EMI teacher evaluation, or the teacher evaluation in higher education, institutions has also been brought to the attention of all levels of management. From department heads to the administrators of the Ministry of Education, there exists an awareness of the necessity for a proven evaluation method. But some of the solutions that have been proposed so far do not appear to be applicable to SFCUs. The existing EMI teacher evaluation approaches are still somewhat unsuitable in the context of IaH in China, particularly when university simply pursue better international rankings for educational internationalization at home rather than enhance the education quality in to an international standard. In the current situation of Chinese universities' pursuit of high rankings, research-oriented teachers are treated more favourably by universities, whereas teachers who are deeply involved in teaching struggle to be evaluated and rewarded in a way that matches their efforts.

Such a trend will discourage teaching-oriented teachers, and as a result, may affect the quality of teaching, which is ultimately detrimental to students. I think since the majority of SFCUs are still heavily weighted towards undergraduate teaching, the management at all levels should develop appropriate evaluation methods for undergraduate teaching, EMI undergraduate teaching in particular. So that there could form a virtuous cycle in SFCUs teaching.

However, it is also clear that the evaluation of EMI teaching in the context of SFCUs is much more complex than in public universities in China.

5.5 Challenges for the dual-goal achievement through EMI teaching

5.5.1 Adaptation of EMI learning

According to the interviews, EMI students' academic problems do not last for the full four-year undergraduate study. All EMI teachers I have interviewed thought that students had difficulty understanding subject content, mostly in the first year, but most students can adapt to EME gradually from the second year with their motivation and effort on EMI learning, as well as with EMI teachers' support.

Regardless of the English foundation students have prior to undergraduate study (see in Section 2.6.3), EMI teachers from both universities recognised the difficulties students have in adapting to EMI at the initial stage and believe that as EMI teachers, they need to offer students enough help to build solid academic and language foundations so that students can have better attainments in English medium education.

For example, Terry from NU, who is quite experienced in teaching freshmen mathematics, admitted that all students have some difficulties in adapting to EMI in the first year, no matter what level of English foundation students have in their secondary education. He said:

'Because I have been teaching first-year students for more than 10 years, I have taught in not only our division of science and engineering but also DBM (Division of Business and Management) and DHSS (Division of Humanities and Social Sciences).. I feel that the current first-year year students are basically all having difficulty in adapting to EMI.... But we can't say that we can use Chinese in all courses in the year-1 for the reason of student satisfaction and academic regulations. But in my own class, I can find students complained and struggled a lot from reading textbooks, they feel that vocabulary and concepts are all barriers to them. However, normally, when this course finished, students feel that they can learn a lot from the course. So my feeling is that this process is similar to teaching kids to swim---we throw a kid to the pool, and they know nothing about swimming, they will surely struggle for some time, but with some practice, they can adapt to that situation.' (Terry, NU, Associate professor in Math)

Professional reflection:

Although students in the university where Terry works have a lower level of English (in terms of Gaokao English scores) than students in the other SFCU where I conducted my research, I can understand why the university management does not allow the adoption of Chinese for the whole lecture at the beginning to ease the students' discomfort on EMI. From my own perspective, it is not due to student complaints, regulatory control, etc., but simply because I think that even with CMI for the early stage of EMI learning, students will still face problems adjusting afterwards. With earlier struggles, adjustments can be made sooner. Likewise, those students who are unable to adapt to EMI can also find out earlier that they are actually not suitable to such an education mode.

As Terry said, students felt that they have gained a lot at the end of a course, so I believe that in most cases, students will also find they have grown a lot by the end of the four years of English medium education. However, I do not agree with Terry about that EMI teaching can be similar to teaching a child to swim according to his experience. First of all, teaching swimming should not be about throwing the learner into the water directly without any scaffolding. Although this kind of teaching approaches are quite common in China, such approaches should not be preached and should not be applied to EMI teaching. As will be mentioned later, some EMI teachers have pointed out the necessity to adjust the curriculum and course design, so that the university could prepare students better for EMI. Not only the swimming but also EMI teaching should be adjusted to more appropriate ways rather than just putting students in a stressful and discomfort environment directly. This actually meets what Mike said before, that if SFCUs could recruit enough qualified EMI teachers, the dual goals of EMI could be achieved more easily.

In the other research site, Joanna, Trista and Cina from DU also have similar opinions, though their students have better English foundations. They said:

'Yes, the tier-one students do struggle, they do struggle. And tier-two students struggle much more than the tier-one student, but it's not impossible to overcome those problems. Some students actually adjust and improve their English within six months very well, but that first semester is a struggle... So usually, students struggle most in the first academic year. If we can help them adapt to EMI in the first year, EMI can be easier and more comfortable for them in their later study.' (Joanna, DU, Associate Professor in Global Business)

'We think they actually do struggle, including the students whose Gaokao English score is 130-140/150. The reason is that in China's language education system, listening and speaking are not emphasised in language examinations. So students' English listening and speaking are weak, particularly those from remote areas in China. They feel they struggled at least in the first semester.'

(Trista, DU, Teaching assistant in Mathematics and data analysis)

(Cina, DU, Teaching assistant in Mathematics)

The unbalance of English learning in China's primary and secondary education can be seen from the number of studies on English language education in these two stages in China. According to Shen & Hong (2021), in the five-year period 2016-202, there were 369 programmes and studies focusing on the teaching of English reading and writing, but only 31 programmes were set for English listening and speaking, which is less than one-tenth of the number of studies related to reading and writing.

Wendy shared her experiences of teaching year-2 students:

'To be honest, our students' English proficiency is relatively good, and it is more important for them to have a good foundation at the beginning. However, the courses I follow as a teaching assistant are all arranged in year-2 or later, I didn't teach the fundamental courses, so my students do not have big problems in EMI.' (Wendy, DU, Teaching assistant in Accounting programmes)

The native-English-speaker EMI teacher, Jeremy, also witnessed students' struggle and adaptation process during the four years:

'I would say they struggle, during first-year and in sophomore years, EMI reading, writing, and speaking on time and on time situations...Now you ask me about students' current English level, I believe it's good enough. However, it is absolutely critical in their first year, and sophomore year to improve their writing and speaking skills, that's fundamental. I think they are good enough now as I gave them a lot of work. It's not easy. And they all seem to be well in other than a couple of students.' (Jeremy, NU, Assistant Professor in Law) Thus, as we can see here, regardless of the students' preparedness in English, there is some discomfort/struggle when students first enter SFCUs, and teachers mostly assume that students will feel uncomfortable at least in the first semester. This is the consensus among the teachers.

Professional reflection:

While Trista and Cina attributed such phenomenon to the foreign language education system in China where more emphasises are laid on reading and writing in the English language education in primary and secondary schools, here I am reminded by Jeremy's and Jack's comments about the improvement of students' language proficiency. Despite Jeremy thought students' English is good enough to accomplish the tasks he assigned, he still pointed out that students' English are still limited after some years of EMI learning, especially in the aspect of academic writing in his answers to the question of whether students have improved their language proficiency. Similarly, Jack has also mentioned in the previous sector that there are many problems with the wording of students' dissertations. Meanwhile, many EMI teachers felt that the students had more improvement in English listening and speaking through EMI.

When I see commonalities among some of the different EMI teachers' views, I feel that there is a contradiction here. It is clear that prior to the higher education phase, the focus of English teaching was on reading and writing and the neglect was more on listening and speaking, but in the end, the EMI students' weakness was writing, and the improvement was more on speaking and listening. This is perhaps due to the differences between teaching English as a subject and using EMI.

I think that if we look deeper into this issue, it may be questions with the system and approaches to English language teaching in China's fundamental and secondary education, and when the implementation of IaH should be started, which is not the field of my current research. However, from the points mentioned by these EMI teachers, it seems that the foundation of English prior to undergraduate study has a very essential and powerful impact on students' adaptation to EMI, both in terms of the initial discomfort in listening and speaking, and in terms of the shift in thinking patterns later on. It might be the reason that the two aspects of English listening and speaking have not received too much Chinese-style education and relevant habit and thinking were not developed into Chinese style, so after the education in SFCUs, these two aspects could be improved faster; while when it comes to reading and writing, particularly writing, because the thinking mode of English writing has been cultivated into Chinese style which is for the purpose of passing examinations for a long time, it is difficult to change the Chinese EMI students' English writing style, thinking and wording into the style in line with the rules and habits of academic English. This might be the reason why the writing, which is emphasized in secondary English teaching, is criticized by EMI teachers.

Thus, in summary, the teachers in both universities believe EMI students struggle in the early phases of EMI learning, whatever English foundation they have. However, they also believe students can gradually adapt to EMI. Most of those with better English language can at least adjust well even in the second year, and those students who can persist in studying in EMI university till the fourth year can adapt well to the EMI environment in the end.

Besides the current problems of EMI academic learning that were pointed out by EMI teachers, some EMI teachers also analysed the possible reasons, particularly the students' source and foundation, for the apparent low effectiveness of EMI learning and teaching.

5.5.2 Students' foundation as a key factor for learning enhancement at SFCUs

'Students' foundation', 'Gaokao English score' and 'Tier-2 students' 'Tier-1 students' are frequently mentioned by the EMI teachers I interviewed. They have found a correlation between students' foundation and EMI learning efficiency. Fifteen EMI teachers compared students' sources in different transnational universities in China and thought current tier-2 students' academic and English foundation is too weak to have good EMI learning performance.

Jack, who has taught both Tier-1 and tier-2 students during his 10 years' plus EMI teaching experience, thought himself qualified to speak to this problem:

'For Chinese undergraduate students, especially in some tier-2 universities, undergraduate students' academic performances are poor...Particularly, for students with a poor English foundation, EMI not only fails to improve their English level but also affects their subject learning. I think the loss outweighs the gain...I used Chinese sometimes to teach students, but they couldn't understand the content in Chinese, either. I think they are not working hard enough in learning, and they don't have good foundations. Their foundations are too weak.' (Jack, NU, Professor in Finance Management)

Terry also expressed a similar opinion as Jack, worrying about students' source and quality in EMI universities:

'There is a conception in the internationalisation of our SFCUs, called 'glocal' (global and local). If 'Glocal' is aimed at students whose academic and language levels are similar to students in Sun Yat-sen University (a top-10 university in China), it will be fine. It is very demanding on the source of students if we want cultivate students in SFCUs into Glocal talents...There exist lots of problems in EMI teaching, especially the target audience of my lecture. I think I am teaching better and better, but the students' quality is getting

worse and worse. Perhaps, EMI teaching should focus on the students whose English level is similar to those in top universities. It is very difficult if the students' quality is poor and the university still adopts EMI for their undergraduate study.' (Terry, NU, Associate professor in Math)

Not only do the eight teachers in NU realise the influence students' foundation has on EMI learning, but Joanna and her six colleagues who works in DU, also admitted that Tier-2 students struggle more than Tier-1 students in EMI learning and found the correlation between students' foundation and EMI learning effectiveness:

'Tier-1 students suffered sometimes, but for Tier-2 students with poor English foundation, EMI not only fails to improve their English level but also affects their content learning. I think the loss outweighs the gain.' (Joanna, DU, Associate Professor in Global Business)

Above are the opinions of subject experts. Tara, the language specialist, also holds a similar view that the current students' foundations are not good enough to undertake EMI learning:

'However, I don't think our students' language foundation is sufficient for EMI learning, especially on subject content. The current situation is that their English foundation is too poor, especially in English grammar. Their grammatic system is fragmented. In this case, it is difficult for them to learn English and subject knowledge simultaneously.' (Tara, NU, Lecturer in Academic English, language specialist)

Students' sources and foundations not only affect EMI students' learning but also have influences EMI teachers' teaching practice. Several EMI teachers I interviewed complained that the unstreamed students' foundations makes EMI teaching more difficult.

Jack expressed the difficulty he met in his teaching, he thought EMI teachers are faced with students who have a wide range of experiences and abilities:

'When those students whose academic and language levels vary are in the classroom, it is difficult for you to teach, because their foundations are very different as if you are teaching students from the second, third, fourth and fifth grade at the same time. This will affect the quality of university teaching and the quality of university education, so we have to admit that many educational reforms, including promoting EMI, of the Ministry of Education, have actually failed.' (Jack, NU, Professor in Finance Management)

Flora also mentioned that the most challenging thing is that students' levels differ so much. She said:

'The most challenging thing in EMI teaching, for me, is the mixed level of EMI students. Supposing there could have been replacement tests at the beginning to stream students into different classes according to their academic and language performance, EMI teachers can teach students according to their general levels. If

students are mixed, especially when there are both tier-2 and tier-1 students in a class, the teaching efficiency will be affected. Though we deliver the same subject content to students, different students receive/digest them at different levels. As a result, students' academic performances vary because of their foundation.'

Though the majority of EMI teachers (sixteen) I interviewed are not satisfied with their own students' foundation, George thought students' quality is getting better along with time:

'Also, I can see that even the fresher ones that are coming in the first year, their level of English is better than previous cohorts. They've already got bilingual schooling because many of the kids probably come from private schools rather than public ones. I went to a school in Guangzhou for student recruitment promotion, which is one of the biggest private schools in Guangzhou, and I was very impressed with the students' level of English, I talked to them about bitcoin technology, and they were very, very impressive, and I spoke to them afterwards. (George, NU, Professor in Accounting)

With regard to the academic issues in EMI learning, previous studies has focused more on the academic performance differences in EMI programmes and non-EMI programmes, with only a few studies concerned with the student admission benchmark and student foundation for EMI programmes.

Professional reflection:

However, I believe that the impact of the language foundation on EMI learning can also be seen when comparing the differences in academic performance originating from the two different languages of instruction. Since most Chinese undergraduates are native Chinese speakers, if the difference in academic performance between students at universities using Chinese-medium of instruction and those at SFCUs using EMI is not significant, it suggests that language or language foundation does not have a significant impact on learning the subject knowledge. Whereas the difference is significant, and students in CMI universities perform better than those in SFCUs, it is also reasonable to assume that language foundation has a profound impact on subject knowledge learning. However, there is actually no unified conclusion reached from the following comparison of the academic performance in EMI and non-EMI programmes in different contexts.

Moreover, what can also be seen from the above is that previous research has focused on the different academic performances between EMI and non-EMI teaching and the changes in academic

performance of students as the level of 'E' in EMI becomes higher. This was covered in my interviews, and the issue of type and level of English in SFCUs was widely discussed by teachers, especially the level issue.

According to my interviewees, most colleges in SFCUs require 'English-only' (Terry, Trista, etc.), though the MoE does not have such requirements. However, teachers have difficulty implementing this policy in practice, not only because students have some difficulty understanding the subject knowledge in English, but also because, as Rachel mentioned, some teachers have gone from 'English-only' to bilingual and finally to Chinese-only in their classes. Teachers who insist on 'English-only' give the treason that they are wary of student feedback in teaching assessments, even though they do not really believe that 'English-only' is the best way to go. Helen also mentioned that it is difficult to achieve 'English-only' because English is only used in the classrooms, and there is no guarantee that all the students will speak English after class, so there is no English-immersion environment, and they cannot call such implementation 'English-only'.

As I mentioned earlier in this section, the teachers I interviewed also agreed that at the beginning of the four years of EMI undergraduate teaching, there is a need to take into account the students' receptiveness and make adjustments so that they do not fail to build a good foundation for their major courses at the beginning.

Professional reflection:

I myself share this view. During my own three years at an SFCU, many parents and students initially complained that students could not understand the lessons, and we arranged tutorials with teaching assistants who are native Chinese speakers to help students solve problems they did not understand during the lectures. At that time, I thought about what is the point of adopting EMI and reducing the efficiency of subject learning if we still end up using Chinese to make students understand the content knowledge? So, I think that if students need to achieve the dual goal of EMI, especially if, as Macaro says, they can't sacrifice their content knowledge, then I think there needs to have an adjustment in the curriculum, to scaffold the EMI learning, rather than make the students adjust to EMI all by themselves, it is not a good way to 'throw the children directly to the pool to learn swim', such an approach is commonly seen in China, but should not be applied to English medium instruction, nor be perpetuated in China's education. Otherwise, the idea of IaH would be superficially implemented and would not be beneficial to improve China's education quality in order to bring it into line with international standards.

As a result, one of the EMI teachers, Helen, suggested, the early years of EMI should focus on language learning, with some general education courses scheduled in the first year, so that students can slowly transit from their comfort zone in CMI to EMI during this year, and the more difficult subject courses can be placed after the students have settled into EMI so that they are more comfortable with studying the subject courses in English.

While taking the SFCU where I worked for example, the four-year curriculum is not entirely tailored to the student's learning needs. In the implementation of setting up a four-year programme of study, the regulations of the Chinese and foreign partner universities and government departments need to be taken into account, and in some cases, there are changes in the teaching staff when arranging the curriculum for each year or semester. For example, I have experienced a semester where the university did not have enough teachers who could teach statistics in English, and as a result, in that semester, students were taking courses that should have been placed at a later stage of their studies, and they had to take more difficult and demanding courses before they had completed their prerequisites, which would definitely affect their learning outcomes.

One of the SFCU's I investigated requires an English language benchmark in the college entrance examinations, but as the college entrance examinations in China are not uniform across the country and different regions have different emphases, there is no guarantee that students will be able to adapt to EMI at an early stage. The teachers interviewed at both universities? were therefore concerned and complained about the problems encountered by their students, and the current lack of academic performance of EMI students is not just a matter of language foundation or learning ability as mentioned by the EMI teachers.

In my opinion, besides setting the benchmark of the students' foundation to improve students' sources, SFCUs need to be improved in terms of administration, teaching management and teaching practice so that students can adapt better to EMI and achieve better academic attainments. Moreover, it is also necessary to make some changes to the education system, content and other aspects of education starting with primary education, in the long term as mentioned in last section.

Chapter 6: Discussion

6.1 Introduction

This chapter will discuss the experiences and perceptions of EMI teachers of the implementation of EMI at SFCUs in China from two perspectives, and draw some insightful suggestions from them, in the hope that a complete framework can be developed to help EMI achieve its goals and make IaH as effective as possible. These two perspectives are EMI policy and EMI support system. From the perspective of EMI policy, I will discuss the ideology of policy development at the SFCUs I studied considering previous research and theory, as well as the problems of policy practice and the improvement needed in policy management. From the perspective of the EMI supporting system, I will discuss the language support and mental health support that are of necessity for effective practice of EMI.

6.2 EMI Policy

6.2.1 Gaps in the vision and implementation of EMI Policy

In my literature review (Section 2.2.2), I elaborated the changes in education policy, language policy and implementation regulations in relation to EMI in mainland China that the state is increasingly strengthening the teaching of English at policy level and is also increasingly promoting Sino-foreign cooperative education and regulating its mode of operation and behaviour. In the first section of literature review, it was also mentioned how EMI came into being in a neoliberal context by drawing from Zhang's (2018) analysis of the ideology, practice and management measures related to EMI in Chinese HEIs and Spolsky's framework on language policy and the possible gap between the envisaged policies and their effects and timing.

The gap between policy and reality was also identified in my research. Such a gap is evident according to the participants as they expressed their views on EMI learning comparing with the 'English-only' or 'full-EMI' as it is called in the official website of the two SFCUs. The monolingual ideology that exists behind the 'English-only' policy and the implementation of EMI's multilingual reality on SFCUs' campuses is in conflict. In Findings (Section 5.3.1.1) I mentioned that some teachers felt that such a model of teaching would do more harm than good, particularly in subject content learning. The fact

that many teachers have adopted translanguaging, code-switching and other accommodation strategies suggests that they are trying to find a balance between policy and the reality of teaching practice.

However, from my analysis of universities' admissions brochures and websites, it appears that both SFCUs are still promoting an 'English-only' approach, which contradicts the wider policy in the country (MoE, 2003). According to the policy, Chinese should be the base, with Chinese courses taught in standard Chinese and foreign courses taught in English, and the proportion of foreign courses should be no less than one-third of the overall programme content. It is clear from this that the Ministry of Education's regulations on the language of instruction at SFCUs do not require a 'Full-EMI' approach, but at the university level at SFCUs they have adopted a more stringent policy on the language of instruction.

A similar phenomenon has occurred in some countries other than China that have adopted EMI. Piller & Cho's (2013) study of a Korean university found that universities were trying to transform themselves and improve their international ranking by competing in the global knowledge economy. One of their strategies was to implement EMI policies. Karim et al., (2021) and Rahman & Singh (2022) have shown that HEIs have taken to changing their language of instruction or mode of teaching to improve their rankings, while countries where these HEIs are located can also improve their international image and attract more international students and teachers to study and work in their countries if they have more top-ranked universities. This in turn will encourage HEIs to chase higher world rankings and, in turn, push them to practice a stricter full-EMI policy.

However, both from past research (Huang, 2018; Yuan & Li 2021) and the current study, there is a gap between EMI policy assumptions and policy implementation. As already noted, the language for instruction policy at the macro national level is not as strict as the language policy at the university level. So, what drives some SFCUs and universities of similar nature in other countries to adhere to a model like 'full-EMI'? Apart from the pursuit of higher rankings, I suggest it is the high tuition fees that can be charged under the banner of 'English-only' that acts as one of the driving forces for SFCUs to continue to promote this approach. From the information on the website of the Regulation of Sino-Foreign Cooperative Schools, I can see that the tuition fees of the two SFCUs I conducted research on are 16-20 times higher than those of ordinary public institutions, and that English is in

fact both a driving force and the vehicle for the realisation of neoliberalism (De Costa et al., 2022). Such a view is derived from my professional experience as an administrator at an SFCU. In student recruitment campaigns, the high tuition is commonly justified by the need for adopting EMI and the cost for implementing EMI at SFCUs to pursue a dual-degree with one from a university in English-speaking countries.

While it is undeniable that more income from tuition fees could be used to improve the conditions of the universities and recruit more qualified teachers with EMI teaching skills, such a high fee charging model might exacerbate educational inequities in China. For example, there are already some educational inequities between different provinces due to their different levels of economic development and different college entrance exam papers. If such a high-fee tuition rate is added to the mix, the educational inequality and injustice could be exacerbated. From what was said by most teachers interviewed in this study about EMI learning and their suggestions for EMI entry criteria, it is evident that the students they believe are suitable for the EMI model should be those with a good foundation in English language, not just those who can afford the high tuition fees. If the two criteria (good English foundation and ability to afford for high tuition fees) were to be added together, then the target students for SFCUs would be reduced, educational inequality would be exacerbated, and the income from running SFCUs would be reduced accordingly.

Based on the gap between EMI policy ideology and practice, I think that EMI policy management should be adjusted accordingly, and such adjustments should be made at several levels. For example, from the macro language policy of the national authorities to the language policy of HEIs and the management of classroom policy by EMI lecturers, all need to be improved accordingly. In the following section, I will write about how the macro policy ideology and the specific policy practice should be aligned to facilitate the effective practice of EMI at SFCUs, a form IaH, in China.

6.2.2 Specific Aspects of the EMI policy that need improvement

Based on what my interviewees said about their suggestions for EMI improvements, I think there are some specific areas that could be improved at the policy level according to Spolsky's language policy framework.

6. 2.2.1 EMI policy ideology

Firstly, the language policy ideology at the national level needs to be reconsidered. Currently in China, there is still the advertising and promotion of 'Full-EMI' in SFCUs and some SFCPs, which looks like the pursuit of internationalisation of education, but in reality, is more like, according to Altbach, Reisberg, & Rumbley (2009) the pursuit of westernisation under the guise of internationalisation. SFCUs advocate the practice of western educational philosophies, the adoption of western educational resources, and the use of western instructional languages to enhance the quality of their education and thus further improve the internationalisation of their universities and their international rankings. From my interviews (Interview with Joanna and Mike) and my professional experience, I found that EMI stakeholders such as EMI management and teachers tend to believe that a western model of knowledge and education is seen as a guarantee of quality in higher education. Furthermore, SFCUs administrators' understanding of internationalisation seems to be framed within the idealistic ideology of Stier (2006), which sees western academic standards as the norms they must learn. This type of university in China, on the other hand, promotes and emphasises western education to ensure quality, suggesting the existence of a new form of colonial discourse of internationalisation (Remirez, 2014).

Thus, I would suggest that the first thing to do at government level is to change the perception that internationalisation is a flow from the West to the East (China) and not the other way round. Such westernisation under the guise of internationalisation is found to be prevalent at SFCUs in China from both academic research (Mok ,2007) and the current status of the 10 SFCUs in China.

As Mok (2007) argues, the concept of internationalisation is taken for granted in many Chinese universities and westernisation is often labelled as internationalisation. In a model such as Sinoforeign cooperative education, the emphasis on 'foreign' and the weakening of 'Chinese' is not really in line with the government's original intention of encouraging this mode of education. A potential danger in these arrangements is that the Chinese model of education is positioned as inferior, while the western model is superior and advanced. The dominance of the West in education and knowledge generation is typical of the neo-colonial discourse prevalent in Chinese higher education (R. Yang, 2014). As a form of internationalisation at home, SFCUs adopt the teaching model, syllabus,

curriculum, language of instruction and recruitment criteria of the western partner institutions, which is typical of the western model of education becoming dominant in Chinese universities.

Moreover, the trend towards westernisation can be seen in the countries where these 10 SFCUs partner institutions are located. As mentioned in the methodology chapter (See in Section 3.3), there are currently 10 SFCUs in China, and 8 of them collaborate with universities from the UK, Hong Kong (whose educational system is similar to the UK), and the U.S., the other two SFCUs with Russia and Israel respectively. Given these numbers and the locations of these partners, it might be argued that western countries predominate. Judging from this distribution, I would suggest that in the eyes of Chinese university and government administrators, the excellent, advanced, and worthwhile models of higher education come primarily from western countries. In other words, the internationalisation that is now being pursued is more accurately viewed as a process of westernization.

However, contrary to the assumptions that appear to underpin EMI at university level, I did not see in my interviews that many EMI teachers were bent on upholding beliefs or assumptions about the superiority of western education. Their critical attitude towards the current EMI teaching model can be found in chapter 5.

Yet, where the belief and perception of some SFCU administrators and EMI teachers that the western model of education is superior exists, it does not appear out of thin air. I believe that such a tendency has also been constructed by the Chinese government through national policies. In addition to the educational and language policies aimed at opening up China mentioned in the literature review (Section 2.2.2), the government has also encouraged a shift from the more traditional teachercentred approach in China to the student-centred approach of the western model in the national curriculum reform (MoE, 2001), as well as borrowing teacher performance pay policies from the US (Apple, 2011). The diffusion and spread of western models and policies in China in this way indicates an unequal relationship. This is exacerbated when the discourse of internationalisation in higher education is constructed at the highest level (i.e., the Chinese government) and can lead to a skewed understanding of internationalisation in education by Chinese higher education administrators and teachers... These changes, including the change in the language of instruction (i.e., the adoption of EMI in SFCUs and SFCPs) is likely to be a reflection of the opening-up of Chinese education to pursue a greater degree of internationalisation. These phenomena echo the neo-liberal influence on China's

educational reform, which has pushed for the marketisation, industrialisation and commercialisation of higher education to reform the higher education sector. None of the ten SFCUs in China are public universities, but rather private universities run by public universities in partnership with overseas universities. Though these universities are developing forms of IaH, they adopt a western language of instruction, western teaching models, and western management systems. This approach to internationalization-at-home means that, to some extent, the economic logic and laws of economics are applied more to higher education in these types of universities than in traditional public universities in China.

Additionally, although neoliberalism is common in educational practices and policies in many western countries, and although China may not fully embrace all neoliberal values (e.g. rights are not fully devolved and the 'market' is not decisive and absolutely dominant.), Ong (2007) and Tan (2012) argue that neoliberal logic and policies are being used by the Chinese government to develop talent for the knowledge economy (Ong, 2007; Tan, 2012). Within the neoliberal logic, the Chinese government emphasises the importance of quality-oriented education in developing human capital and ensuring the country's competitiveness in a global society (MoE, 2010). As I noted earlier, since the concept of global ranking of universities becomes more entrenched, many universities are looking to develop the competitiveness and status of their universities (Wang, 2014). In China, expressions such as academic quality are being improved through the internationalisation of higher education; building world-class universities and developing world-class disciplines have appeared frequently in education policies issued over the past three decades (Wang, 2014). I would argue that these statements indicate that at the level of the Chinese government they have structured the system in such a way that they want to improve the world status of their universities by learning international practices from western countries that are more experienced in related fields.

Therefore, given the possibility that internationalization may result in westernization, I would like to emphasise once again that the 'Chinese' part should not be overlooked in favour of the 'foreign' aspect of Sino-foreign cooperative education, and IaH should not promote the westernization of higher education in China. Since the ideology that equates internationalisation with westernisation has been created and spread because of the implementation of government systems and policies, I think it is also important to change this 'deep-rooted' view from the government level, so as to adjust the EMI stakeholders' relatively uncritical views of the western model. In this regard, the Chinese

government has now made some changes at the compulsory education level in terms of language learning. For example, in the Compulsory Education Curriculum Proposal (MoE, 2022) promulgated in April 2022, the proportion for the subject of English language is significantly lower than other subjects such as Chinese language, Mathematics, Physical Education and Arts. In the new proposal, the subject of English will only account for only 6-8% of the curriculum. This reform has caused much discussion in China, and in September 2022, the MoE responded to the controversy over the decreasing weight of English. Its reply talked about how it is necessary to learn English, but it is not necessary to take up so much time and importance.

From the above statement by the government, it seems that the Chinese MoE has realised that in the past, too much emphasis was placed on English and has now made some policy adjustments at the fundamental education level. However, at the tertiary level, there is no new policy regarding the proportion of English for the time being. As analysed in Section 5.5.1, some EMI teachers have suggested that if EMI is to be better implemented at the higher education, the English teaching needs to be strengthened from the primary and secondary levels (compulsory level) in order to lay a solid foundation for EMI learning. But according to the current policy for compulsory education, English language learning will not be strengthened but weakened. Additionally, as the current policy for regulating SFCUs does not require for full-English when adopting EMI, I would suggest that SFCU management adjust its 'monolingual' ideology as a result of policy adjustments by its regulator and changes in the mindset of its 'target clients', thus setting a more scientific and practicable EMI policy to suit its multilingual reality.

6.2.2.2 EMI policy practice

Following the restructuring of language ideology, I argue more concrete policy improvements from the perspectives of EMI teacher recruitment, professional learning, evaluation, and EMI student admission are needed at the level of HEIs.

6.2.2.1 Teacher recruitment policy

As I mentioned in Section 2.3.1, there has been very little research on this area, and little research has focused on the selection and recruitment of EMI teachers. From my research, I can say that

teachers have different views on EMI recruitment criteria, processes, and other teacher recruitment systems. As I showed in Section 4.2.3, some teachers believe that the current recruitment system is sufficient to judge whether a person is competent to teach in EMI, while others believe that the system is unable to fully examine a teacher's language skills and teaching abilities. From the recruitment criteria they described, as well as the recruitment information presented on the websites of the two SFCUs, it appears that study abroad and a PhD are the basic requirements for teaching positions. From the statements of the teachers interviewed, such criteria imply that a person who can carry out teaching tasks in English in their field of study and who understands overseas education models is competent to undertake EMI teaching.

The current interviews for teaching positions at SFCUs, from the information provided by the interviewees, do not include a trial-lecture, which then means that the management of SFCUs judges the language ability through a simple English interview conversation and again judges the level of expertise of the candidate through their degree and some questions and answers about their expertise. However, I would argue that a high level of expertise might not equate to good teaching ability, and a brief interview cannot provide sufficient information to allow a judgement about teaching ability; similarly, having experienced a western education model does not mean that one is well placed to practice an 'international' teaching model in a Chinese context, let alone that their preferred teaching model may not be the most suitable for Chinese students at the moment.

In summary, it seems clear that the management of SFCUs could develop a more rigorous and rational recruitment system, taking into account the ideology of the language policy that may evolve. In addition, they could make innovations in the system of recruiting teachers in order to do a good job of quality assurance from the recruitment stage, so that teachers who are already capable of EMI teaching can improve in their future work and thus better improve the effectiveness of EMI teaching. However, from my research and my professional experience, there are multiple reasons why management appears not to have made changes.

Firstly, in my follow-up interviews with two teachers after conducting classroom observations (See in Section 4.2.2), Milton mentioned to me that the more realistic issue that there is currently a 'demand exceeds supply' phenomenon of EMI teachers. These few not-so-strict rules and a simple interview are not enough to meet the growing demand for SFCE, so to improve the quality of the

English teaching force, the country needs to cultivate more teachers who meet the minimum requirements and then select the best from the best when there is an 'oversupply'. Thus, I think that if we are to improve the quality of EMI teachers at the source, it is not only important to start with the improvement of recruitment system and policy, but it is also important for the Chinese education sector to purposefully cultivate student teachers for EMI.

Moreover, from my own comparison of SFCUs and public universities, it's not just that China did not cultivate enough EMI teachers, it is also because the resources available to teachers in the two different systems are somewhat different, which led to some teachers who are capable of EMI teaching choosing to teach in public universities in CMI. For example, in terms of teaching evaluation, as I will mention later, although teachers at SFCUs mainly have teaching workload rather than research, it is difficult for teachers at SFCUs to gain recognition from the government for their teaching, which results in disadvantages when competing for state-recognized titles² in China. This will also affect them to receive research funding from the government or some research institutions, as achieving promotion is ultimately measured by the research results on teaching. For new teachers who have returned from study abroad in particular, it is more beneficial to their career development to obtain national and provincial projects and funding in public institutions. These lead to the fact that teachers at SFCUs may appear to be well paid, but the restrictions on applying for research projects and the lack of access to benefits associated with the title may lead some teachers who are capable to choose to teach at CMI public universities.

There are, of course, other reasons why it can be difficult for EMI management to make the recruitment criteria for EMI teachers more rigorous. For example, as mentioned earlier, SFCUs are private universities and there is little or no government financial assistance for the operation of these types of universities, so recruiting teachers who are more capable of teaching EMI may incur higher labour costs and thus affect the budget that the university spends on other areas. Moreover, for the time being, there is also the issue of epidemic control in China. This is because, as is well-known, China's borders are still not open and domestic controls are still very strict. This has led to many

² The state-recognized titles and university-recognized titles have differences in the following five aspects: regulation to be followed; levels of social acceptance and recognition; levels of job stability; source of salary; and scope of promotion. The state-recognized titles are better than university-recognized ones in mainland China.

foreign experts who are qualified and experienced for EMI teaching choosing to leave China, or choosing not to go to China for employment, which has fed the 'demand exceeds supply' situation.

Overall, simply asking EMI management to be more rigorous in recruiting EMI teachers may not be easily achievable and effective at this time for these few reasons alone, which is also agreed by Dimova et al (2018) that better recruitment process may not as efficient as professional development programmes for in-service EMI teachers to improve the teaching quality. In future EMI research, it may be necessary and worthwhile to study EMI management in greater detail to find out more about their reasons for working with the current EMI teacher recruitment model, so that the problem of EMI teacher recruitment can be addressed at source in a targeted manner.

6.2.2.2.2 Teacher professional learning and evaluation policy

As I noted in Section 2.3.3, EMI teacher professional learning has now attracted the attention of an increasing number of scholars in the field of EMI. For example, some studies have explored the practice and effectiveness of professional development programmes from the perspective of EMI teachers (Macaro et al., 2020; Yuan, Chen & Peng, 2022), while others have looked at the impact of interdisciplinary collaboration on EMI teacher professional development (Lu, 2020); and in a study of EMI teacher professional development in China, Macaro & Han (2020) explored Chinese EMI teachers' perceptions of EMI teaching competency certification and teacher professional development, among others. The mixed attitudes of EMI teachers towards professional learning as reflected in these studies are largely consistent with my findings.

In my study, as shown in Section 4.3.2, EMI teachers with lesser teaching experiences had different views on teacher professional development from those with more teaching experience. According to the interviews, the more controversial points focus on these issues, namely that some EMI teachers believe that teaching methods varied from person to person, from subject to subject, and from student to student depending on the level of their audience; and that teachers' language skills could not be uniformly improved in a short period of time due to their subject differences and educational background.

In more detail, in studies where several teacher professional learning programmes have been implemented, it can be seen that the majority of teachers give more positive feedback on this type of programme. For example, in Yuan, Chen & Peng (2022) study, a professional learning programme for EMI teachers at a university in mainland China was perceived by the teachers to have improved their understanding of the nature and content of EMI and to have provided a supportive learning community for EMI teachers through this programme. In addition to this, Lu (2020) found in a study of EMI teachers' professional development in Taiwan that interdisciplinary teacher collaboration could lead to a more positive attitude towards teaching English among subject experts and could also combine their own expertise to support language teaching.

In contrast, a study in Korea (Kim, Kweon et al, 2021) found that EMI teachers at the universities they studied were mostly negative about EMI teacher professional development programmes, mainly because the leadership at the universities they worked at valued the teachers' research output more than their teaching.

The findings of both Yuan, Chen & Peng (2022) and Lu (2020) are not surprising, as the EMI teachers in my interviews who had positive attitudes towards EMI teacher professional learning also found such projects necessary and helpful. The feedback from the few teachers who had participated in different forms of teacher professional learning was that they found them beneficial, as shown in Section 4.2.3.

However, the findings of Kim, Kweon et al. (2021) were enlightening for me. I believe this issue, that both the teachers and management, in a similar fashion to westernized HEIs, value research output over teaching activities, is also present in many universities in China. Nevertheless, because the two SFCUs I investigated are teaching-oriented universities, I did not mention for the time being that they did not consider teacher professional development to be meaningful due to the greater weighting of research outputs in their evaluation. However, this brings me back to Terry's (See in section 5.4) repeated comments in the interviews that the current evaluation system for EMI teacher is very poor, and that one of the reasons for this is that research outcomes are more easily assessed quantitatively and objectively, but teaching outcomes are more difficult to assess objectively. In Section 5.4, Terry mentioned that there is a desire at the national level to focus on undergraduate education and teaching, and that a series of policies have been introduced to encourage university teachers to do

more teaching, but it is difficult to put this into practice as the final evaluation criteria will still fall back on the quantitative evaluation of research activity. EMI teachers at SFCUs have less time to devote to research than their counterparts at CMI universities. In addition, research funding is more heavily weighted towards the top local universities and SFCUs teachers have less of an advantage when it comes to research projects. Therefore, the national standards for teacher evaluation are difficult to implement. What is worse, the university-level evaluation criteria for EMI teachers are hardly reflective of their ability to teach and their achievements, according to Terry. Because the evaluation at Nanhai university is mainly based on student feedback, Terry believes that students are inclined to give better ratings to teachers who seem to be funny and humorous, also those who are native-English speakers (He called this a kind of xenophilia, see in section 5.4, without considering what they can learn from the lessons.

But I would argue that EMI teaching can be evaluated not only by how much knowledge the teacher is able to pass on to the students, but also by whether the teacher is able to make the learning process more effective in terms of how the students learn, how to learn or enjoy EMI. EMI teachers and scholars who study EMI need to understand why students give higher and more positive ratings to certain teachers. Hence, Terry's point is that the evaluation system does not make sense from his own point of view, but the evaluation system cannot be adjusted only to suit the views of individual teachers.

The lack of a professional learning policy and the absence of a systematic and scientific professional learning programmes for EMI teachers can be seen in both previous research and my own study. Moreover, in the previous studies that I have read about, there are none that specifically focus on the evaluation of EMI teachers, which also reflects the fact that the evaluation system of EMI teachers needs more exploration (Rose, 2019) as mentioned in the literature review (see in Section 2.5). I believe that in future EMI research, it is possible to synthesise the teaching evaluation approaches of universities in other countries that have adopted EMI, and to explore how to optimise the assessment of EMI teaching from the perspective of different EMI stakeholders.

6.2.2.3 Student Admission policy

In relation to EMI student recruitment and admissions, McKinley, Rose & Zhou (2021) conducted research at two transnational universities in China (which are equivalent to SFCUs in this study) and six Chinese universities offering EMI programmes. Their research shows that the stakeholders at these eight universities believe that the 'English-only' policy can be adopted at these universities, and the two transnational universities rely heavily on adding language courses in the first year of undergraduate study or simply offering a foundation year of language courses to acclimatise students to EMI teaching, while the other six Chinese universities mainly use their Gaokao results to screen students for EMI teaching.

Similarly, some of the supportive policies that were mentioned in my research were the setting up of ELC (See in Section 3.3.1), the inclusion of EAP courses in students' curricula, or the provision of short, intensive English language enhancement courses at the time of entry, to name a few. From the current supportive policies and programmes, there is no doubt that the management and faculty at SFCUs are aware of some of the challenges that students may face in transitioning from CMI in high school to EMI in universities. However, it is also clear from the recommendations of my participants that some of these policies and programmes do not do a good job of addressing the difficulties students face in adjusting to EMI learning. This is why some EMI teachers have suggested the necessity to set a language score threshold for student admissions to try to ensure that students can adapt quickly to such an approach.

Although my own experience and the research of Mckinley, Rose & Zhou (2021) reveal that most Chinese university administrators and teachers believe that GaoKao scores reflect a student's ability to learn and that having a good Gao Kao score reflects that a student can overcome many difficulties on his or her own, I propose that this is not a very reasonable way to screen students for admission to SFCUs. As I mentioned earlier in this chapter, one of the problems with educational inequality in China is that the GaoKao exam questions and admissions criteria vary from province to province. This is also shown in chapter X that students from different provinces have a wide range of academic and English language skills due to the different levels of difficulty and focus of the Gaokao exam. According to my personal experience, I can also see that there are differences in the admission practices of the same school in different provinces. In some provinces in China, a university could

have a tier-1 admission ³process, while in others, such as SFCUs own province, it may be a tier-2 admission process in order to guarantee the enrolment rate of higher education in its own province, while in other provinces it may use a tier-3 admission process due to national preferential policies for remote minority areas. Thus, I would argue that it would be difficult for SFCUs to set a uniform language standard as a condition for admission.

Another inequality is that the level and quality of foreign language teaching varies from province to province in China, and the resources available to students vary greatly. As Trista and Cina mentioned in their interviews (see in Section 5.5.1), students from some less developed areas speak and listen less well, and they will have more difficulty adapting to EMI than students from developed areas. If a one-size-fits-all language standard is set for the Gaokao, it is likely to exacerbate this educational inequality. The idea that EMI leads to educational inequality has been addressed in Hu et al. (2014). They had found that the potential benefits that could arise from enrolling in an EMI programme or university were largely restricted to the elite of Chinese society, such as those students who were already proficient in English, whose families usually had the resources to develop their language skills from an early age, and who could also afford to pay tuition fees that are several times higher than local university when applying to universities. Thus, while setting benchmarks for admissions may be beneficial in alleviating the pressures on EMI teaching, I related in chapters X and Y, they may lead to more 'inequality' (McKinley, Rose & Zhou, 2021).

Apart from the lack of education equality, I think it remains to be seen whether Chinese Gaokao English is a good reflection of students' academic English proficiency, and whether Gaokao English scores should be used as a threshold must be approached with caution. In summary, I think it may not be the most reasonable and effective way to directly set a threshold for Gaokao scores. I would prefer to explore a relatively fair model for screening students for SFCUs in the future, so that students who are admitted to SFCUs are well-grounded in the language and can reduce many difficulties arising from language problems and adapt better to EMI teaching. However, this approach may be difficult to achieve as well. particularly in the early years of SFCUs operations for the following reason.

_

³ Tier-1 and tier-2 are always used in university admission after the Gaokao (National college entrance exam). Tier-1 university means the first batch of universities for students to apply for and tier-2 universities mean the second batch of universities for students to apply for. The second batch of universities is the one that starts selecting candidates after the tier-1 universities. Tier-1 universities are generally better than tier-2 universities.

The reason goes back to the influence of neoliberalism on Chinese higher education. I mentioned earlier in this chapter that SFCUs are private, more market-oriented universities, and the economic logic and laws are more evident in these universities than in Chinese public universities. Thus, setting too many thresholds will result in insufficient enrolment, which means that insufficient tuition fees will be collected, and the university's operating costs may be affected. Especially in the early years of operation, without adequate government support, the management of SFCUs may need to sacrifice the quality of teaching and learning by lowering student admissions standards to ensure sufficient income to run the school. However, it is undeniable that this is often criticised by EMI teachers in my professional experience, as EMI managers and EMI teachers are not, so to speak, on the same page. So there is a need for collaboration between EMI managers and EMI teachers to find more suitable admissions criteria and approaches to EMI after successfully navigating the difficult initial period of running the school.

Overall, given the current state of education in China and the way SFCUs are currently run, it is neither realistic nor effective to raise and standardise the entry criteria for student admission. I think it should be necessary to consider the criteria for admissions, but in the event that this aspect cannot be effectively addressed in the short term, EMI researchers need to investigate other aspects to find more practical ways of improving EMI effectiveness.

6.3 EMI Supporting System

In this section, I will focus on how the support systems provided by SFCUs enable EMI teachers to practice EMI more effectively and enable EMI students to achieve better learning outcomes. I will present my views according to previous research and points that have emerged from my research that are worth pursuing.

6.3.1 Language support system

6.3.1.1 More discipline-specific EAP (English for academic purposes) courses

In the last section I mentioned a study by McKinley, Rose & Zhou (2021) which found that two transnational universities had a foundation year to ensure that students' language skills prepared

them for EMI. Such measures as offering language courses alongside subject courses were also found in two of the SFCUs I studied. The most frequently mentioned courses were the EAP courses and some specialised courses for academic writing. Most of the teachers interviewed felt that such courses were necessary and helpful, and some felt that they had to be offered throughout the four years of university study.

However, in Galloway & Ruegg's (2020) study it was found that teachers and students in EMI universities were critical of the relevance of such discipline-specific EAP courses to EMI. This does not really surprise me. Firstly, when my participants talked about their perceptions of the difficulty of setting uniform language standards in the recruitment of EMI teachers, the difficulty of having a uniform curriculum in the professional learning and development of EMI teachers, the difficulty of having a more uniform approach to teaching in EMI, and the difficulty of having uniform language proficiency standards in the assessment of EMI teachers, they all referred to 'disciplinary differences'.

In fact, the degree and frequency of use of English varies greatly between students in different disciplines, as well. The issue of disciplinary differences was also mentioned in my literature review, so I was relieved to see that students and teachers were critical of the lack of targeted EAP programmes. Finally, someone is aware of such issues. From my experience of working with SFCUs, what is offered to students is indeed some of the most basic academic English courses, and I personally don't think it helps that much to supplement the acquisition and learning of specialist subject knowledge. As my interviewee Jack said (See in Section 5.3.3), the students' English was still 'a mess' from their exams and final dissertation, which may also reflect the fact that SFCUs provides such language support in form rather than substance. The two language specialists I interviewed (Irene and Tara, see in Chapter 5) also did not mention language teaching specifically for subject learning when describing their own teaching. Moreover, Tara mentioned her confusion about how to better equip her students with academic writing when talking about teaching English writing. In the student writing assignments she corrected, she felt that the students' writing was still unimpressive after a period of learning writing skills.

So I think that the language support currently provided by SFCUs does not reveal itself to be specific to EMI teaching. It also reflects the fact that the administrators of SFCUs are aware of the need to have some language support, but specifically, how these language courses should be set up and what

kind of teachers should be better equipped to provide language courses that are appropriate for EMI students are not well addressed.

6.3.1.2. More targeted EAP courses with different aspects of language skills

In addition to the subject-specific nature of language courses, previous research has identified the need for language courses to be more focused on different aspects of language enhancement. The areas of writing and speaking may be the more serious language problems faced by EMI students.

For example, Abouzeid (2021) conducted a study at a Lebanese university on EMI teachers' perceptions of their students' academic writing proficiency. This study revealed that EMI psychology teachers at this university were generally dissatisfied with the written English proficiency of their students, who they perceived to face a triple challenge in academic writing. The first was vocabulary, grammatical structure and accuracy, the second was interference from other languages, and the last was lack of specialized terminology. Problems with students' use of vocabulary emerged in their assessments, such as problems with the accuracy of terminology expressions and the correct use of academic vocabulary. Problems in sentence formation included mainly errors in punctuation and errors in tense. In this study, Abouzeid (2021) argues that more improvements are needed to build on the existing language courses to make the English language courses more appropriately designed and to lay the foundations for future learning in the EMI subject courses. Similar views also appeared in my interviews. As noted earlier, Jack said that even after four years of EMI teaching, these students' graduation papers were still 'a mess' and many grammatical mistakes would not even be made by junior and senior high school students. Likewise, Jane also mentioned the need for a dedicated writing workshop, and Irene also stressed the importance of having a writing centre. All of these, I think, are indicative of the need for supplementary English courses to focus on the writing aspect of English.

Apart from the EMI students' writing proficiency, there was also research into EMI students' spoken English. Chou (2018) conducted a study on students' communication in English in EMI classrooms at a university in Taiwan. Chou (2018) argued that using English to communicate verbally in EMI classrooms is a challenge for EMI students. Speaking a foreign language is a complex process which will involve language proficiency, speaking skills and the use of some communication strategies. His

research focuses on students' anxiety, strategies and difficulties in speaking English in EMI contexts of varying degrees (full or partial). His study showed that students in partial EMI showed higher levels of language anxiety, lack of confidence and negative feelings about learning English, while students in full-EMI contexts fared better than those in partial EMI. When compared to partial EMI, full EMI ensures that students hear more native speakers and produce more 'native-like' speech (Chou, 2018). The results of Chou's (2018) study corroborate those of Chang and Huang (2010) and Y.-P. Huang (2009), showing that EMI fosters an interactive English environment in which students practise, to varied degrees, speaking English with classmates and teachers. When placed in authentic EMI situations, students were found to use a variety of rehearsal strategies to improve their English fluency, including mimicking native speakers, seeking out opportunities to speak with native speakers, starting conversations frequently, and talking about topics with which they were unfamiliar. This also leads me to think that one of the reasons why EMI management has been active in adopting 'full-EMI' beyond the government's requirements may also include the positive role that full-EMI may play in students' spoken English expressions.

In my study, both SFCUs claimed to be full-EMI, and the EMI teachers were more than satisfied with the improvement in their students' speaking. However, there has been some criticism of the students' writing skills as I just noted in this section. I think this is something that makes SFCUs' stakeholders, especially EMI teachers and SFCU administrators, think about how to balance Full-EMI with the difficulties that can arise in actual teaching practice, and how to measure the benefits and drawbacks of Full-EMI, and what kind of language support system can be used to target improvements. students' listening, speaking, reading and writing skills in the English language.

In addressing the issue of English writing in EMI, Abouzeid (2021) mentions that in the construction of full English language teaching in psychology, a field-specific word frequency list of psychology (Safari, 2018) can be used to equip students with some of the most frequently used psychological terms. I think that other disciplines could also have standardised word lists, so that not only can students learn some of the common vocabulary and expertise in the course, but also provide some direction for EAP language teachers to teach to students in different disciplines. So the EAP course needs to be improved not only in relation to the subject, but also in relation to the different directions of listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Overall, the language support system for SFCUs arguably needs further optimisation. The issue of matching EMI subject experts and language teachers and how EMI subject experts can act as language teachers in the classroom at the same time has been mentioned in previous studies; it is clear to see that EMI researchers are aware of the problems of language support in the EMI model. However, this is not an easy problem to solve. As mentioned earlier, the current recruitment and selection of EMI teachers is not rigorous, and the professional learning of EMI teachers are not well developed, resulting in EMI teachers (both subject experts and language teachers) not being fully equipped to deliver high quality teaching in the particular context of an EMI university, and these are also difficult to improve and see results in the short term. Thus, in terms of language support alone, I believe that students' English language skills can be improved, and their EMI studies aided by improving the content of language classes, i.e. by targeting different English language teaching to students in different disciplines, or by targeting different aspects of the English language.

6.3.2 Mental health supporting system

In this section above, I mentioned Chou's (2018) research about EMI students' speaking anxiety. This is not only a reflection of the need for more targeted speaking lessons in the language courses at EMI universities, but also of the fact that, in the EMI model, students are prone to anxiety. One's optimal learning potential and academic performance may be affected by negative emotions such as anxiety, fear or stress (Ellis, 2008). Because the dual goal of EMI is to improve English proficiency while acquiring knowledge of subject courses, there is no doubt that students whose L1 is not English will face 'foreign language learning anxiety'. This anxiety stems from the low level of competition for language performance, anxiety about exams and communication, and fear of negative evaluation (Ellis, 2008). Such a foreign language learning anxiety, when present in EMI teaching, can also affect students' learning in their subject courses.

In my research, a number of interviewees mentioned the issue of students' mental health (See in section 5.3.3). The words that were often mentioned when talking about mental health issues were 'maladjustment' and 'double stress'. Maladjustment refers to the fact that most EMI students are moving from the CMI model of high school to the EMI model of university, and that there is inherent maladjustment in the transition from high school to university student status, and the EMI model adds a variable to such 'maladjustment'. The 'double pressure' corresponds to the double goal of EMI.

In my previous work, I have often been asked by EMI students and parents about 'what should I do if my child doesn't fit in with the EMI teaching', 'I feel more tired than a senior in high school now, what should I do if I'm stressed', and so on and so forth. Such doubts and anxieties reflect the difficulties and challenges that EMI students encounter in the learning process. Apart from the teachers taking some teaching measures and schools providing some language teaching support as mentioned in the findings chapter, I think that in the post-epidemic era, Chinese universities, which still have strict control over the epidemic, need to pay more attention to the mental health of EMI students.

Furthermore, one point that I think needs special attention here is that researchers in the field of EMI should perhaps work with EMI teachers to explore a pathway for EMI teachers to help alleviate the mental health problems of EMI students. Because there are always a limited number of counsellors in a school, and the causes of many of the psychological problems that EMI students develop are similar, I wonder if it might be possible in future research to explore ways in which EMI teachers could help to resolve psychological problems? For example, how can they improve their teaching methods so that it is not so difficult for students to master the subject and improve their language, or how can they integrate mental health content into their curriculum so that students can help themselves and seek help from others when they are under stress or have negative emotions? Overall, there is a paucity of research on the mental health of EMI students, and I hope that this aspect will be brought to the attention of EMI administrators and EMI researchers.

To summarize, it is clear from the discussion in this chapter that going about improving EMI teaching is by no means just a matter of adapting the pedagogical approaches and content of EMI teachers, especially those subject experts. From a macro perspective, the implementation of the EMI model in China also requires adjustments in government and university policies, particularly in the areas of policy ideology and policy practice. From a micro perspective, the optimisation of language support systems and mental health systems should not be overlooked in the future development of SFCUs.

6.4 Limitations for this study and directions for future research

The main limitation of this study is its small sample of teacher participants from two SFCUs. The findings of the small sample are difficult to generalise to the larger group of EMI teachers and to other groups of teachers in China. Future researchers could improve on the breadth to cover as many SFCUs as possible, as stated in the introduction, there are currently 10 SFCUs in China, and research could be conducted on the EMI colleges and universities where undergraduate teaching takes place, which would better represent EMI practice in the context of IaH in SFCUs in China.

Another limitation is that the majority of the participants in my study are subject experts in EMI teaching, with only a few being language specialists, who are also direct practitioners of the EMI teaching, but they come from different backgrounds, have different responsibilities and priorities, and therefore have a different understanding of EMI practice and Internationalisation at home may not be understood in the same way. Without including enough language specialists and any administrator participants in the study, it is difficult to get a full picture of the different stakeholders in the practice of EMI at SFCUs, their views and suggestions on the practice of EMI, and their evaluation of the implementation of IaH in the university. Although my study covered as many teachers from as many disciplines as possible and analysed the perceptions and recommendations of administration and language teaching in the eyes of these teachers, it is important that future studies of EMI teachers include subject experts, language specialists and administrators in order to provide a broader perspective on the opportunities and challenges of EMI teaching in the context of IaH.

In addition to these issues, there is still a lack of diversity in the selection of the sample. The majority of this study was conducted with EMI teachers whose L1 is Chinese, but there is no shortage of EMI teachers whose L1 is English in SFCUs, and in my study there were only three teachers whose L1 was not Mandarin. Understanding the ways in which EMI teachers from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds approach teaching and learning, and their views and suggestions on how to view EMI practice, will provide more insight into the teachers' real views and suggestions on how to internationalise teachers, teaching and learning in a global and multicultural context, and in the context of China's attempts to practice IAH. This limitation also highlights the potential for future research and the development of a more thoughtful plan for the recruitment of teacher subjects in the future.

Moreover, I have encountered difficulties in contacting research sites, teachers and conducting interviews in this study due to the strict control measures in China during the data collection period when the COVID-19 situation was at its peak. Because Chinese universities did not allow outsiders on campus at that time, all courses were changed to online or Hybrid format, and I could only observe the courses online, which was different from the previous in-person delivery. However, most of the teachers interviewed talked about their in-person experiences and perceptions of EMI teaching. So this resulted in no good way to match some of the statements made by the teachers during the classroom observations.

In addition, the classroom observation and the interviews were conducted in parallel, so when I had not yet analysed the impact of disciplinary literacy on EMI teaching which is founded in the interviews, I had already finished observing the lectures. Thus, the disciplinary literacy, which looks important from the interviews, did not become the focus of my classroom observation. In future research, classrooms of different subjects can be observed and how differences in disciplinary literacy affect teachers' teaching and students' learning could be focused, so that it would also be beneficial for seeking for reasonable models of teacher professional learning as well as teacher evaluation. Both aspects are worth exploring in greater depth in future research.

Additionally, regarding EMI learning, from my research, I can see that teachers have not formed a uniform standard for evaluating the effectiveness of EMI learning, but are only judged by their IELTS scores, or the universities they have been admitted to. However, there are no reliable comparisons with students in schools or programmes that teach in their native language. Such comparisons can be made, for example, to determine whether EMI teaching is superior to CMI, both in terms of the acquisition of specialist knowledge and the improvement of language skills. Future research could include similar comparisons to see whether EMI teaching in the context of IaH can truly help to raise the level of internationalisation of education to international standards.

Finally, in my professional reflection, I mentioned several times about what I have seen in my work with EMI parents, that because of the specificity of the traditional Chinese culture, most students go to university, especially to high fee universities like SFCUs, paid for by their parents, and many of them decide whether to enrol in such universities. I believe that it would be worthwhile to explore the views of EMI parents in future research, as this would help EMI administrators in the IaH context

in terms of both student and teacher recruitment as well as university management, and gradually improve the teaching and management of SFCUs so that the Chinese public, especially parents, would be more accepting and satisfied with the way governments and universities adopted to achieve the IaH.

6.5 Conclusion

Focusing on the experiences and perceptions of EMI teachers at SFCUs in China on their EMI teaching practices, this study aims to improve the effectiveness of EMI practice and seek efficient ways to the achievement of the dual-goal of EMI by proposing a multi-level and multi-faceted approach to understanding and tackling the challenges in EMI implementation. Specifically, this study analyses the ideology underlying EMI policies, beginning with the gap between the initial intention and actual practice of EMI policies. Also, this study examines the differences in the ideology upheld by EMI policymakers at different levels.

Through the interviews and observations of the EMI teachers, I believe I can now answer the three research questions raised in Section 1.3.

For research question 1:

 Teachers' views on their experiences of their recruitment and professional learning and development for the achievement of internationalisation vary.

The main points of contention in the recruitment criteria are the necessity of having a doctorate, the language benchmark and the necessity for trial lectures.

- The main differences in opinion regarding the need for a doctorate are in the case of subject experts and language specialists. The subject experts tend to believe that a doctorate is necessary to assess a teacher's professionalism and pedagogical skills, whereas the language specialists believe that a doctorate is not necessary to improve language teaching in EMI context and that having a doctorate does not imply an advantage in terms of teaching ability, especially language teaching ability.
- Whereas the disagreement over setting the language benchmark existed mainly for EMI NESTs
 and LESTs, with LESTs generally believing that having studied abroad, and in particular having
 anoverseas doctorate, implying the ability to teach through English, it was also evident here

that the majority of LESTs' subject experts did not see themselves as taking responsibility for improving their students' English; while NESTs believed that the current their LESTs colleagues need to improve their English language skills and that many LESTs subject experts are only capable of conducting research in English but lack the ability to teach effectively.

 Regarding the necessity of a trial lecture during the recruitment process, there was also disagreement. Despite the fact that not all teachers believed that trial lectures were necessary and effective, some still believed that this is an efficient means of screening and selecting EMI teachers.

The 20 participants also had different views on professional learning. The main differences of opinion were the need for professional learning, the content of professional learning and the necessity for a certificate to be passed.

The teachers who already had extensive EMI teaching experience did not think they needed to take part in the professional learning programme, nor would they take the relevant assessment to obtain the certificate; however, they thought that such a programme and assessment would be beneficial to young EMI teachers. Novice teachers tended to recognise the need for professional learning and indicated that they would be willing to undergo professional learning courses and assessment with certificates to improve their EMI teaching skills. However, teachers' views differed as to whether the content of professional learning should focus on improving language skills or pedagogical skills.

For research question 2:

- The teachers interviewed had mixed views on the EMI pedagogy students preferred,
 pedagogical strategies teachers adopted and evaluation system SFCUs have.
- Regarding students' preferences for EMI pedagogy, the subject experts felt that students still preferred the traditional teacher-centered classroom. The language specialists felt that in the speaking classes, students preferred a more interactive, student-centered classroom, but not in the writing classes, where students still preferred a teacher-centered approach similar to the previous writing classes at secondary level.
- The majority of subject experts' accommodation strategies to the effectiveness of EMI in the classroom focus on translanguaging and codeswitching, which are widely adopted approaches.

For LESTs, translanguaging and code-switching are relatively easy and efficient because they have the same L1 as the students, but for NESTs, their L1 is different from that of the students, so they need to adopt some other ways of translanguaging and code-switching. For example, visualizing the content, giving subtitled translations, or having students with a better proficiency of English to assist in this process. In addition to translanguaging and code-switching, teachers also mentioned methods such as adjusting the difficulty and speaking pace of the English they use to help students adapt to the EMI environment and teaching better.

- In addition to the accommodation strategies mentioned by the subject experts, the language specialists also talked about some of the support courses and projects they offer to students. For example, EAP courses, writing centers, etc. There were also suggestions from the subject experts on language programmes, such as setting a foundation year for language improvement. These are in line with the four modes of teaching mentioned by Macaro (2018) and are useful for students to improve their language skills and build a foundation for their professional studies.
- Apart from the support strategies for content learning and language learning, the teachers interviewed also mentioned the necessity and urgency of support for the mental health aspects of EMI students who are under double pressure due to the dual goal of EMI learning.
 This is an area that needs to be explored more in the future.
- In terms of teacher evaluation, most teachers interviewed agree with current methods for evaluation, but some disagree that it is not a good measure of EMI teachers' teaching, especially in the context of nativespeakerism, where students may have more preferences for NESTs, and this affects the evaluation of EMI teaching.

For research question 3:

- Although some of the teachers in this study were from the same university, or even the same department or faculty, different teachers had different views on how well EMI students met the EMI dual goal. Some of the teachers also analyzed the factors that affect students' achievement of dual goals and the challenges they face in achieving them.
- The adaptation of EMI students to the EMI environment and learning is the first challenge,
 while students foundation is another. Overall, EMI students had difficulties adapting to the

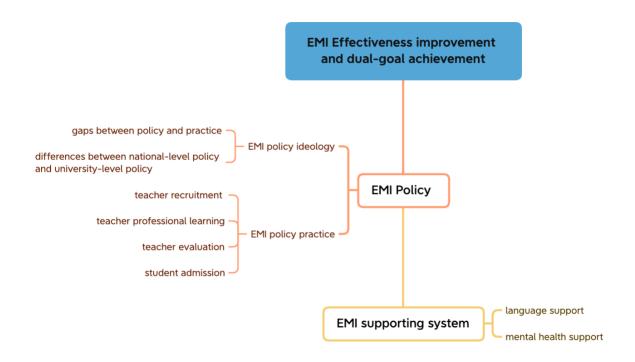
EMI environment, as both universities encourage an English-only policy, so it was clear to the teachers that there were adaptation problems for students at the beginning of their EMI learning. Another challenge was the student foundation, not only in terms of student English proficiency, but also in terms of student learning/academic ability. Not all EMI students at these two universities have a good foundation in secondary school, which also creates challenges for them to engage in EMI studies. However, due to the marketisation of education in the context of neoliberalism and the policies of China's progression system, SFCUs will need to build up more to recruit students with a good foundation to adapt to full English teaching.

Student recruitment and teacher recruitment at SFCUs actually present similar challenges.
 The recruitment of students with a better foundation and teachers with better backgrounds and abilities needs to be balanced with the marketisation of education and China's education policies to better achieve the goal of effective internationalisation at home.

In the light of the problems and challenges identified in this study, recommendations for future EMI practice and research from the standpoint of EMI policy are made (see the diagram at the end of this section). While this study reflects on the necessity and significance of policy innovation based on the results of EMI practices, it also offers constructive suggestions for the future implementation and promotion of EMI at SFCUs, particularly in terms of enhancing EMI teaching to increase the EMI effectiveness and facilitating students' achievement of EMI dual goals. Specifically, suggestions for improving EMI teaching are presented throughout the EMI implementation process, beginning with the enhancement of EMI teacher recruitment process, proceeding with the improvement of professional learning for in-service EMI teachers, and making clear of the necessity for rational and reasonable EMI teacher evaluation approaches. Meanwhile, EMI teachers offered their perspectives on the student admission issues exist in EMI implementation.

Based on the EMI teachers' experiences and perceptions, this study suggests the necessity for specific targeting optimization of existing EAP courses for the achievement of EMI dual goals, and stresses that EMI students' mental health issues, which partly resulted from the pressure caused by the dual goals, should not be ignored. The necessity for EMI teachers to support students' mental health through EMI teaching is also highlighted.

This study is a further refinement of current EMI research, and it has some original contribution to EMI research, although there is still room for the improvement in this study, particularly in the research methods, by incorporating the researcher's professional experiences, which have been less studied.



References

- Abouzeid, R. (2021). Aligning perceptions with reality: Lebanese EMI instructor perceptions of students' writing proficiency. *English for Specific Purposes*, 63, 45-58.
- Adinolfi, L., & Astruc, L. (2017). An exploratory study of translanguaging practices in an online beginner-level foreign language classroom. *Language Learning in Higher Education*, 7(1), 185-204.
- Aguilar-Pérez, M. (2021). EMI Lecturers' and Students' Perceptions: Can EMI Contribute to Enhancing Intercultural Competence?. *In Teaching language and content in multicultural and multilingual classrooms (pp. 65-96*). Palgrave Macmillan, Cham.

- Aguilar, M., & Rodríguez, R. (2012). Lecturer and student perceptions on CLIL at a Spanish university. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 15(2), 183-197.
- Ahmed, M. (2018). Policy-relevant education research: A study of access, quality and equity in Bangladesh. *In Engaging in Educational Research (pp. 21-38)*. Springer, Singapore.
- Airey, J. (2011). The relationship between teaching language and student learning in Swedish university physics. Language and learning in the international university, 3-18.
- Aizawa, I., & Rose, H. (2019). An analysis of Japan's English as medium of instruction initiatives within higher education: the gap between meso-level policy and micro-level practice. *Higher Education*, 77(6), 1125-1142.
- Aizawa, I., & Rose, H. (2020). High school to university transitional challenges in English Medium Instruction in Japan. System, 95, 102390.
- Alhamami, M. (2021). English as the Medium of Instruction (EMI) in Undergraduate Engineering Programmes. *IEEE Transactions on Education*, 65(1), 93-100
- Altbach, P. G. (2007). The imperial tongue: English as the dominating academic language. *Economic and political Weekly*, 3608-3611.
- Altbach, P. G. (2011). The academic profession: The realities of developing countries. *In Leadership for world-class universities (pp. 223-241)*. Routledge.
- Altbach, P. G. (2011). The past, present, and future of the research university. Economic and Political weekly, 65-73.
- Angen, M. J. (2000). Evaluating interpretive inquiry: Reviewing the validity debate and opening the dialogue. *Qualitative health research*, 10(3), 378-395.
- Apple, M. W. (2011). Global crises, social justice, and teacher education. Journal of Teacher Education, 62(2), 222-234.
- Baker, C. (2011). Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism. Multilingual matters.
- Baker, W., & Hüttner, J. (2019). 'We are not the language police': Comparing multilingual EMI programmes in Europe and Asia. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 29(1), 78-94.
- Ball, P., & Lindsay, D. (2013). Language demands and support for English-medium instruction in tertiary education. Learning from a specific context. *English-medium instruction at universities: Global challenges*, 4466.
- Baumvol, L. K., & Sarmento, S. (2016). Internationalization at home and English as a means of instruction. ECHOES: Further reflections on language and literature. *Florianópolis: EdUFSC, 65-82*.
- Baumvol, L. K., & Sarmento, S. (2019). Can the use of English as a Medium of Instruction promote a more inclusive and equitable higher education in Brazil?. *Simon Fraser University Educational Review*. Burnaby, BC, Canada. Vol. 12, n. 2 (Summer 2019), p.[87]-105.
- Beckett, G., & Li, F. (2012). Content-based English education in China: Students' experiences and perspectives. *Journal of Contemporary Issues in Education*, 7(1).
- Beelen, J., & Jones, E. (2015). Europe calling: A new definition for internationalization at home. *International Higher Education*, (83), 12-13.

- Beelen, J., & Jones, E. (2015). Redefining internationalization at home. *In The European higher education area* (pp. 59-72). Springer, Cham.
- Björkman, B. (2010). So you think you can ELF: English as a lingua franca as the medium of instruction. *HERMES-Journal of Language and Communication in Business*, (45), 77-96.
- Björkman, B. (2011). English as a lingua franca in higher education: implications for EAP. Ibérica, (22), 79-100.
- Björkman, B. (2011). Pragmatic strategies in English as an academic lingua franca: Ways of achieving communicative effectiveness?. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43(4), 950-964.
- Blanco Ramírez, G. (2014). Trading quality across borders: Colonial discourse and international quality assurance policies in higher education. *Tertiary Education and Management*, 20(2), 121-134.
- Block, D. (2022). The dark side of EMI?: a telling case for questioning assumptions about EMI in HE. *Educational Linguistics*, 1(1), 82-107.
- Blom, J. P., & Gumperz, J. J. (1972). Social meaning in linguistic structures: Code-switching in Norway. In J. J.
- Gumperz & D. Hymes (1972) Directions in sociolinguistics (pp. 407–434). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Botha, W. (2016). English and international students in China today: A sociolinguistic study of English-medium degree programmes at a major Chinese university. *English Today*, 32(1), 41-47.
- Boussebaa, M., & Brown, A. D. (2017). Englishization, identity regulation and imperialism. *Organization Studies*, 38(1), 7-29.
- Bradford, A. (2016). Teaching content through the medium of English: Faculty perspectives. *Focus on the learner*, 433-438.
- Bradford, A. (2016). Toward a Typology of Implementation Challenges Facing English-Medium Instruction in Higher Education: Evidence From Japan. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 20(4), 339–356.
- Bradford, A. (2019). It's not all about English! The problem of language foregrounding in English-medium programmes in Japan. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 40(8), 707-720.
- Brinkmann, S. (2013). *Qualitative interviewing*. Oxford university press.
- Bryman, A. (2016). Social research methods. Oxford university press.
- Bryman, A., 2012. Social research methods 4th ed., New York: Oxford University Press.
- Byun, K., Chu, H., Kim, M., Park, I., Kim, S., & Jung, J. (2011). English-medium teaching in Korean higher education: Policy debates and reality. Higher Education, 62(4), 431-449.
- Campagna, S., & Pulcini, V. (2014). English as a medium of instruction in Italian universities: Linguistic policies, pedagogical implications. *Textus*, 27(1), 173-190.
- Canagarajah, S. (2012). Translingual practice: Global Englishes and cosmopolitan relations. Routledge.
- Canagarajah, A. S. (Ed.). (2013). Literacy as translingual practice: Between communities and classrooms. Routledge.

- Cancino, L. Dam, & K. Jæger (Eds.), *Policies, principles, practices: New directions in foreign language education in the era of educational globalization*, 2011, 188-212.
- Chang, S. Y. (2021). English Medium Instruction, English-enhanced instruction, or English without instruction: The affordances and constraints of linguistically responsive practices in the Higher Education Classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 55(4), 1114-1135.
- Chapple, J. (2015). Teaching in English Is Not Necessarily the Teaching of English. *International Education Studies*, 8(3), 1-13.
- Charmaz, K. (2014). Constructing grounded theory. London: Sage.
- Chen, L. (2020). Problematising the English-only policy in EAP: a mixed-methods investigation of Chinese international students' perspectives of academic language policy. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 41(8), 718-735.
- Chen, T (2013). 中国高等教育市场化进程中的问题与对策 (Problems and countermeasures in the marketisation of higher education in China). *Journal of Fujian Jiangxia University*, 3(5), 25-30
- Cheng, Y. C. (2013). School effectiveness and school-based management: A mechanism for development. Routledge.
- Chi, X., Becker, B., Yu, Q., Willeit, P., Jiao, C., Huang, L., ... & Solmi, M. (2020). Prevalence and psychosocial correlates of mental health outcomes among Chinese college students during the coronavirus disease (COVID-19) pandemic. *Frontiers in psychiatry*, 11, 803.
- Chien, C. W. (2012). Use of Graphic Organizers in a Language Teachers' Professional Development. *English Language Teaching*, 5(10), 49-57.
- Chou, M. H. (2018). Speaking anxiety and strategy use for learning English as a foreign language in full and partial English-medium instruction contexts. *Tesol Quarterly*, 52(3), 611-633.
- Christie, F. (2005). Classroom discourse analysis: A functional perspective. Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Clarke, V., & Braun, V. (2021). Thematic analysis: a practical guide. Thematic Analysis, 1-100.
- Coleman, J., Hultgren, K., Li, W., Tsui, C. F. C., & Shaw, P. (2018). Forum on English-medium instruction. *TESOL Quarterly*, 52(3), 701-720.
- Collins, A. B. (2010). English-medium higher education: Dilemma and problems. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 10(39), 97-110.
- Collins, P. H. (2002). Black feminist thought: Knowledge, consciousness, and the politics of empowerment. Routledge.
- Cook, G. (2010). Translation in language teaching: An argument for reassessment. Oxford University Press.
- Copland, F., Davis, M., Garton, S., & Mann, S. (2016). Investigating NEST schemes around the world: Supporting NEST/LET collaborative practices.
- Costa, F. (2015). EMI teacher training courses in Europe. Ricognizioni. *Rivista di Lingue e Letterature straniere e Culture moderne*, 2(4), 127-136.

- Costa, F., & Coleman, J. A. (2013). A survey of English-medium instruction in Italian higher education. *International journal of bilingual education and bilingualism*, 16(1), 3-19.
- Creese, A., & Blackledge, A. (2010). Translanguaging in the bilingual classroom: A pedagogy for learning and teaching?. *The modern language journal*, 94(1), 103-115.
- Creswell, J. W., & Poth, C. N. (2016). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. Sage publications.
- Crotty, M. J. (1998). The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process. *The foundations of social research*, 1-256.
- Cummings, W. K. (2003). The institutions of education: A comparative study of educational development in the six core nations. Symposium Books Ltd.
- Curle, S., Yuksel, D., Soruç, A., & Altay, M. (2020). Predictors of English medium instruction academic success: English proficiency versus first language medium. *System*, *95*, 102378.
- Dafouz, E., & Camacho-Miñano, M. M. (2016). Exploring the impact of English-medium instruction on university student academic achievement: The case of accounting. *English for Specific Purposes*, 44, 57-67.
- Dafouz, E., & García, D. S. (2013). 'Does everybody understand?': Teacher questions across disciplines in English-mediated university lectures: An exploratory study. *Language Value*, (5), 129-151.
- Dafouz, E., & Smit, U. (2016). Towards a dynamic conceptual framework for English-medium education in multilingual university settings. *Applied Linguistics*, 37(3), 397-415.
- Dafouz, E., & Smit, U. (2017). A sociolinguistic approach to the multifaceted roles of English in English-medium education in multilingual university settings. *Applied linguistics perspectives on CLIL*, 287-306.
- Dafouz, E., & Smit, U. (2020). ROAD-MAPPING English medium education in the internationalised university. London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Dafouz, E., Camacho, M., & Urquia, E. (2014). 'Surely they can't do as well': A comparison of business students' academic performance in English-medium and Spanish-as-first-language-medium programmes. *Language and Education*, 28(3), 223-236.
- Dafouz, E., Núñez, B., Sancho, C., & Foran, D. (2007). Integrating CLIL at the tertiary level: teachers' and students' reactions. Diverse contexts converging goals. Content and language integrated learning in Europe, 4, 91-102.
- Dang, T. K. A., & Vu, T. T. P. (2020). English-medium instruction in the Australian higher education: untold stories of academics from non-native English-speaking backgrounds. *Current Issues in Language Planning,* 21(3), 279-300.
- Dang, T. K. A., Bonar, G., & Yao, J. (2021). Professional learning for educators teaching in English-medium-instruction in higher education: A systematic review. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 1-19.
- De Costa, P. I., Green-Eneix, C. A., & Li, W. (2022). Problematizing EMI language policy in a transnational world: China's entry into the global higher education market. *English Today*, 38(2), 80-87.
- de Wit, H., & Altbach, P. G. (2021). Internationalization in higher education: global trends and recommendations for its future. *Policy Reviews in Higher Education*, 5(1), 28-46.

- De Wit, H., Hunter, F., Howard, L., & Egron-Polak, E. (2015). Internationalisation of higher education.Brussels: European Parliament.
- Dearden, J. (2014). English as a medium of instruction (EMI). ELT Journal, 1–11.
- Dearden, J. (2014). English as a medium of instruction-a growing global phenomenon. British Council.
- Dearden, J. (2018). The changing roles of EMI academics and English language specialists. In *Key issues in English for specific purposes in higher education* (pp. 323-338). Springer, Cham.
- Dearden, J., & Macaro, E. (2016). Higher education teachers' attitudes towards English medium instruction: A three-country comparison. *Studies in second language learning and teaching*, 6(3), 455-486.
- Deem, R., Mok, K. H., & Lucas, L. (2008). Transforming higher education in whose image? Exploring the concept of the 'world-class' university in Europe and Asia. *Higher education policy*, 21(1), 83-97.
- Del Campo, C., Cancer, A., Pascual-Ezama, D., & Urquía-Grande, E. (2015). EMI vs. Non-EMI: Preliminary analysis of the academic output within the INTE-R-LICA Project. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 212, 74-79.
- Diezmas, E. N. M. D., & Barrera, A. F. (2021). Translanguaging and Language Mediation in EMI Contexts: Emotional Stances and Translation Issues. *In Mediating Specialized Knowledge and L2 Abilities* (pp. 17-34). Palgrave Macmillan, Cham.
- Dimova, S. (2020). Language assessment of EMI content teachers: What norms. In Language perceptions and practices in multilingual universities (pp. 351-378). *Palgrave Macmillan*, Cham.
- Dimova, S., & Kling, J. (2018). Assessing English-medium instruction lecturer language proficiency across disciplines. *TESOL Quarterly*, 52(3), 634-656.
- Dodiya, P., Kapadiya, J., & Malvaniya, M. (2014). *Classroom observation: A critical analysis of different methods*. Conference Paper.
- Doiz, A., Lasagabaster, D., & Sierra, J. (2013). Globalisation, internationalisation, multilingualism and linguistic strains in higher education. *Studies in higher education*, 38(9), 1407-1421.
- Echevarria, J. A., & Graves, A. (2006). Sheltered content instruction: Teaching English language learners with diverse abilities (3rd ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon
- Ellis, R. (2015). *Understanding second language acquisition 2nd Edition-Oxford applied linguistics*. Oxford university press.
- Evans, S. (2008). Classroom language use in Hong Kong's reformed English-medium stream. Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 29(6), 483-498.
- Farrell, T. S. (2020). Professional development through reflective practice for English-medium instruction (EMI) teachers. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 23(3), 277-286.
- Feng, A. (2007). Bilingual education in China. Multilingual Matters LDT.
- Feng, A. (2009). English in China: Convergence and divergence in policy and practice. AILA Review, 22(1), 85-102.

- Ferguson, G. (2009). What next? Towards an agenda for classroom codeswitching research. *International journal of bilingual education and bilingualism*, 12(2), 231-241.
- Ferguson, G. (2013). English, development and education: Charting the tensions. *English and development: Policy, pedagogy, and globalization*, 21-44.
- Floersch, J., Longhofer, J. L., Kranke, D., & Townsend, L. (2010). Integrating thematic, grounded theory and narrative analysis: A case study of adolescent psychotropic treatment. *Qualitative Social Work*, 9(3), 407-425.
- Flowerdew, J. (Ed.). (1994). Academic listening: Research perspectives. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Flowerdew, J., & Li, Y. (2007). Language re-use among Chinese apprentice scientists writing for publication. *Applied linguistics*, 28(3), 440-465.
- Gabriëls, R., & Wilkinson, R. (2021). Two types of reflections about English as a medium of instruction. *European Journal of Language Policy*, 13(2), 161-181.
- Galloway, N., & Rose, H. (2021). English medium instruction and the English language practitioner. *ELT Journal*, 75(1), 33-41.
- Galloway, N., & Ruegg, R. (2022). English Medium Instruction (EMI) lecturer support needs in Japan and China. *System*, 105, 102728.
- Galloway, N., Numajiri, T., & Rees, N. (2020). The 'internationalisation', or 'Englishisation', of higher education in East Asia. *Higher Education*, 80(3), 395-414.
- García, O. (2009). Emergent Bilinguals and TESOL: What's in a Name?. Tesol Quarterly, 43(2), 322-326.
- García, O., & Kleyn, T. (2016). *Translanguaging with multilingual students. Learning from classroom moments.* New York, London, Routledge.
- García, O., & Wei, L. (2014). Language, bilingualism and education. In Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism and education (pp. 46-62). Palgrave Pivot, London.
- Gibbons, P. (2002). Scaffolding language, scaffolding learning. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Given, L. M. (Ed.). (2008). The Sage encyclopedia of qualitative research methods. Sage publications.
- Graddol, D. (2006). English next (Vol. 62). London: British council.
- Gray, J., O'Regan, J. P., & Wallace, C. (2018). Education and the discourse of global neoliberalism. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, 18(5), 471-477.
- Grossman, P. L., Smagorinsky, P., & Valencia, S. (1999). Appropriating tools for teaching English: A theoretical framework for research on learning to teach. *American journal of Education*, 108(1), 1-29.
- Gu, M. M., & Lee, J. C. K. (2019). 'They lost internationalization in pursuit of internationalization': Students' language practices and identity construction in a cross-disciplinary EMI programme in a university in China. *Higher Education*, 78(3), 389-405.
- Guarda, M., & Helm, F. (2017). A survey of lecturers' needs and feedback on EMI training. Sharing perspectives on English-medium instruction, 167-194.

- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. *Handbook of qualitative research*, 2(163-194), 105.
- Guest, G., MacQueen, K. M., & Namey, E. E. (2011). Applied thematic analysis. sage publications.
- Gundermann, S. (2014). English-medium instruction: Modelling the role of the native speaker in a lingua franca context (Doctoral dissertation, Dissertation, Albert-Ludwigs-Universität Freiburg, 2014).
- Guo, H., Tong, F., Wang, Z., Min, Y., & Tang, S. (2018). English-vs. Chinese-medium instruction in Chinese higher education: A quasi-experimental comparison. *Sustainability*, 10(11), 4230.
- Halbach, A., La fuente, A., & Pérez, J. (2010). *La acreditación del nivel de lengua inglesa en las universidades españolas.*British Council.
- Han, J., & Yu, L. (2007). A study to determine Chinese college students' English proficiency required for bilingual education. *Modern Foreign Languages*, 30(1), 65-72.
- He, J. J., & Chiang, S. Y. (2016). Challenges to English-medium instruction (EMI) for international students in China: A learners' perspective: English-medium education aims to accommodate international students into Chinese universities, but how well is it working?. *English today*, 32(4), 63-67.
- Hernandez-Nanclares, N., & Jimenez-Munoz, A. (2017). English as a medium of instruction: Evidence for language and content targets in bilingual education in economics. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 20(7), 883-896.
- Heron, J., & Reason, P. (1997). A participatory inquiry paradigm. Qualitative inquiry, 3(3), 274-294.
- Hornberger, N. H. (2002). Multilingual language policies and the continua of biliteracy: An ecological approach. *Language policy*, 1(1), 27-51.
- Hornberger, N., & Vaish, V. (2009). Multilingual language policy and school linguistic practice: globalization and English-language teaching in India, Singapore and South Africa. *Compare*, 39(3), 305-320.
- Hu, G. (2008). The misleading academic discourse on Chinese–English bilingual education in China. *Review of Educational research*, 78(2), 195-231.
- Hu, G. (2019). English-medium instruction in higher education: Lessons from China. Journal of Asia TEFL, 16(1), 1.
- Hu, G., & Alsagoff, L. (2010). A public policy perspective on English medium instruction in China. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 31(4), 365-382.
- Hu, G., & Duan, Y. (2019). Questioning and responding in the classroom: A cross-disciplinary study of the effects of instructional mediums in academic subjects at a Chinese university. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 22(3), 303-321.
- Hu, G., & Lei, J. (2014). English-medium instruction in Chinese higher education: A case study. *Higher Education*, 67(5), 551-567.
- Hu, G., & Li, X. (2017, July). Does EMI kill two birds with one stone? Asking and answering questions in the classroom. In The 18th World Congress of Applied Linguistics.

- Huang, D. F., & Singh, M. (2014). Critical perspectives on testing teaching: reframing teacher education for English medium instruction. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 42(4), 363-378.
- Huang, H. T. D., & Hung, S. T. A. (2013). Comparing the effects of test anxiety on independent and integrated speaking test performance. *Tesol Quarterly*, 47(2), 244-269.
- Huang, Y. P. (2009). English-only instruction in post-secondary education in Taiwan: Voices from students. *Hwa Kang Journal of English Language & Literature*, (15), 145-157.
- Huang, Y. P. (2018). Learner resistance to English-medium instruction practices: A qualitative case study. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 23(4), 435-449.
- Huff, A. S. (2008). Designing research for publication. Sage.
- Hultgren, A. K., Gregersen, F., & Thøgersen, J. (Eds.). (2014). *English in Nordic universities: Ideologies and practices* (Vol. 5). John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Humphreys, P. (2017). EMI in Anglophone nations: Contradiction in terms or cause for consideration?. In *English medium instruction in higher education in Asia-Pacific* (pp. 93-114). Springer, Cham.
- Hynninen, N. (2016). Language regulation in English as a lingua franca. In Language Regulation in English as a Lingua Franca. De Gruyter Mouton.
- Inbar-Lourie, O., & Donitsa-Schmidt, S. (2013). Englishization in an Israeli teacher education college: Taking the first steps. *English-medium instruction at universities: Global challenges*, 151-173.
- Ishikura, Y. (2015). Realizing internationalization at home through English-medium courses at a Japanese university: strategies to maximize student learning. *Higher Learning Research Communications*, 5(1), 11.
- Jaffe, A. (2007). Minority language movements. *In Bilingualism: A social approach* (pp. 50-70). Palgrave Macmillan, London.
- Jenkins, J. (2014). Global Englishes: A resource book for students. Routledge.
- Jenkins, J. (2019). English medium instruction in higher education: The role of English as lingua franca. Second handbook of English language teaching, 91-108.
- Jiang, L., Zhang, L. J., & May, S. (2019). Implementing English-medium instruction (EMI) in China: Teachers' practices and perceptions, and students' learning motivation and needs. *International Journal of Bilingual Education* and Bilingualism, 22(2), 107-119.
- Joe, Y., & Lee, H. K. (2013). Does English-medium instruction benefit students in EFL contexts? A case study of medical students in Korea. *The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher*, 22(2), 201-207.
- Johnson, K. (1983). Talking Shop: The Communicative Teaching of English in Non-English-Speaking Countries. *ELT Journal*, 37(3), 235-42.
- Jones Martin, M. (2007). Bilingualism, education and the regulation of access to language resources. In *Bilingualism:* A social approach (pp. 161-182). Palgrave Macmillan, London.

- Kamaşak, R., Sahan, K., & Rose, H. (2021). Academic language-related challenges at an English-medium university. Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 49, 100945.
- Karim, A., Kabilan, M. K., Ahmed, Z., Reshmin, L., & Rahman, M. M. (2021). The Medium of Instruction in Bangladeshi Higher Education Institutions: Bangla, English, or Both?. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education*, 1-15.
- Kim, E. G., Kweon, S. O., Lee, J. A., & Park, S. (2021). Professional development for science and engineering professors offering English-medium instruction. *Language Teaching Research*, 0(0).
- Kirkpatrick, A. (2000). The disadvantaged monolingual: why English alone is not enough. *Australian Language Matters*, 8(3), 6-7.
- Kirkpatrick, A. (2011). English as an Asian lingua franca and the multilingual model of ELT. *Language teaching*, 44(2), 212-224.
- Kling, J., & Hjulmand, L. L. (2008). PLATE—Project in language assessment for teaching in English. *Realizing content and language integration in higher education*, 191-200.
- Kling, J., & Stæhr, L. S. (2012). The development of the test of oral English proficiency for academic staff (TOEPAS). University of Copenhagen.
- Knight, J. (1999). Issues and trends in internationalization: A comparative perspective. In *New world of knowledge:* Canadian universities and globalization. IDRC, Ottawa, ON, CA.
- Knight, J. (2004). Internationalization remodeled: Definition, approaches, and rationales. *Journal of studies in international education*, 8(1), 5-31.
- Knight, J. (2008). Higher education in turmoil: The changing world of internationalization. Brill.
- Knight, J. (2011). Five myths about internationalization. International higher education, (62).
- Knight, J., & de Wit, H. (Eds.). (1997). Internationalization of Higher Education: A conceptual framework, in Internationalization of Higher Education in Asia Pacific Countries, pp. 5–19. Amsterdam: European Association for International Education.
- Koenraad, T., Hajer, M., Hootsen, G., & van der Werf, R. (2008). Towards a linguistically scaffolded curriculum. How can technology help?. *Realizing Content and Language Integration in Higher Education*, 64.
- Krashen, S. (1982). Principles and practice in second language acquisition. New York: Pergamon
- Kuteeva, M. (2020). Revisiting the 'E'in EMI: Students' perceptions of standard English, lingua franca and translingual practices. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 23(3), 287-300.
- Kvale, S., & Brinkmann, S. (2009). *Interviews: Learning the craft of qualitative research interviewing*. sage.
- Kym, I., & Kym, M. H. (2014). Students' perceptions of EMI in higher education in Korea. Journal of Asia TEFL, 11(2).
- Lasagabaster, D. (2017). Integrating content and foreign language learning: What do CLIL students believe?. *Journal of Immersion and Content-Based Language Education*, 5(1), 4-29.

- Leask, B. (2013). Internationalizing the curriculum in the disciplines—Imagining new possibilities. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 17(2), 103-118.
- Leavy, P. (2022). Research design: Quantitative, qualitative, mixed methods, arts-based, and community-based participatory research approaches. Guilford Publications.
- Lee, G. J. (2014). Why Students Don't Participate in English Medium Instruction Classes in a Korean University: A Case Study. *English Teaching*, 69(1).
- Lehtonen, T., Lönnfors, P., & Virkkunen-Fullenwider, A. (2003). Teaching through English: A university case study. *Multilingual approaches in university education: Challenges and practices*, 103118.
- Lemke, T. (2001). 'The birth of bio-politics': Michel Foucault's lecture at the Collège de France on neo-liberal governmentality. *Economy and society*, 30(2), 190-207.
- Lewis, G. N., Wartolowska, K. A., Parker, R. S., Sharma, S., Rice, D. A., Kluger, M., & McNair, P. J. (2020). A higher grey matter density in the amygdala and midbrain is associated with persistent pain following total knee arthroplasty. *Pain Medicine*, 21(12), 3393-3400.
- Lewis, G., Jones, B., & Baker, C. (2012). Translanguaging: Developing its conceptualisation and contextualisation. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 18(7), 655-670.
- Lewis, J. (2003). Design issues. *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers*, 47-76.
- Li Y. (2020). 高等教育国际化背景下全英文课程建设的目标模式与路径 (A Target Model and Pathway for the Construction of All-English Courses in the Context of Internationalisation of Higher Education). *Journal of Heilongjiang Institute of Teacher Development*, 39(5) 14-23.
- Liamputtong, P. (2008). *Doing cross-cultural research: Ethical and methodological perspectives* (Vol. 34). Dordrecht: Springer.
- Lin, A. (1990). *Teaching in two tongues: Language alternation in foreign language classrooms.* Department of English, City Polytechnic of Hong Kong.
- Lin, A. M. (2012). Towards transformation of knowledge and subjectivity in curriculum inquiry: Insights from Chen Kuan-Hsing's 'Asia as method'. *Curriculum Inquiry*, 42(1), 153-178.
- Lin, S (2020). 高等教育市场化的弊端及其对策 (The drawbacks of marketisation of higher education and its countermeasures). Journal of Huzhou Vocational and Technological College, 1(5),39-45
- Lin, T., & He, Y. (2019). Does bilingual instruction impact students' academic performance in content-based learning? Evidence from business school students attending bilingual and L1 courses. *Sustainability*, 11(1), 263.
- Lin, T., & Lei, J. (2021). English-Medium Instruction and Content Learning in Higher Education: Effects of Medium of Instruction, English Proficiency, and Academic Ability. SAGE Open, 11(4), 215824402110615
- Lincoln, Y. S., Lynham, S. A., & Guba, E. G. (2011). Paradigmatic controversies, contradictions, and emerging confluences, revisited. *The Sage handbook of qualitative research*, 4(2), 97-128.
- Llinares, A., Morton, T., & Whittaker, R. (2012). The roles of language in CLIL. Cambridge University Press.

- Lo, Y. Y. (2014). L2 learning opportunities in different academic subjects in content-based instruction—evidence in favour of 'conventional wisdom'. *Language and Education*, 28(2), 141-160.
- Lo, Y. Y., & Macaro, E. (2012). The medium of instruction and classroom interaction: Evidence from Hong Kong secondary schools. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 15(1), 29-52.
- Long, M. H. (1983). Native speaker/non-native speaker conversation and the negotiation of comprehensible input1. *Applied linguistics*, 4(2), 126-141.
- Loyd, G. E., & Koenig, H. M. (2008). Assessment of learning outcomes: summative evaluations. *International Anesthesiology Clinics*, 46(4), 97-111.
- Lu, Y. H. (2020). A case study of EMI teachers' professional development: The impact of interdisciplinary teacher collaboration. *RELC Journal*, 0033688220950888.
- Macaro, E. (2015). English medium instruction: Time to start asking some difficult questions. *Modern English Teacher*, 24(2), 4-7.
- Macaro, E. (2019). Exploring the Role of Language in English Medium Instruction. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 1–14.
- Macaro, E., & Han, S. (2020). English medium instruction in China's higher education: Teachers' perspectives of competencies, certification and professional development. *Journal of multilingual and multicultural development*, 41(3), 219-231.
- Macaro, E., Curle, S., Pun, J., An, J., & Dearden, J. (2018). A systematic review of English medium instruction in higher education. *Language Teaching*, 51(1), 36-76.
- Macaro, E., Tian, L., & Chu, L. (2020). First and second language use in English medium instruction contexts. *Language Teaching Research*, 24(3), 382-402.
- Majhanovich, S. (2014). Neo-liberalism, globalization, language policy and practice issues in the Asia-Pacific region. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, 34(2), 168-183.
- Martin, H. E. (2005). Code-switching in US ethnic literature: multiple perspectives presented through multiple languages. *Changing English*, 12(3), 403-415.
- Martin, J. R. (1992). Genre and literacy-modeling context in educational linguistics. *Annual review of applied linguistics*, 13, 141-172.
- McKinley, J., & Rose, H. (2022). English language teaching and English-medium instruction: Putting research into practice. *Journal of English-Medium Instruction*, 1(1), 85-104.
- McKinley, J., Rose, H., & Curdt-Christiansen, X. L. (2022). EMI in Chinese higher education: the Muddy water of 'Englishisation'. *Applied Linguistics Review*.
- McKinley, J., Rose, H., & Zhou, S. (2021). Transnational universities and English Medium Instruction in China: how admissions, language support and language use differ in Chinese universities. *RELC Journal*, 52(2), 236-252.
- McMillan, B., & Turnbull, M. (2009). Teachers' use of the first language in French immersion: Revisiting a core principle. In First language use in second and foreign language learning (pp. 15-34). *Multilingual Matters*.

- Mertens, D. M. (2019). Research and evaluation in education and psychology: Integrating diversity with quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods. Sage publications.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook. Sage.
- Ministry of Education of China. (2001). The Guidelines for Curriculum Reform of Basic Education (the trial version). Retrieved from http://old.moe.gov.cn//publicfiles/business/htmlfiles/moe/moe 309/200412/4672.html.
- MoE. (2001). Requirements for Strengthening the Undergraduate Teaching to Enhance Education Quality. Retrieved April, 2019, from http://www.moe.gov.cn/s78/A08/gjs left/s5664/moe 1623/201001/t20100129 88633.html
- MoE. (2005). Requirements for Continuing Strengthen the Undergraduate Teaching. Retrieved April 2019, from http://www.moe.gov.cn/s78/A08/moe-734/201001/t20100129-8296.html
- MoE. (2010). The National Outline of Medium and Long-term Education Reform and development planning (2010-2020). Retrieved April, 2019, from http://www.moe.gov.cn/jyb_xwfb/s6052/moe-838/201008/t20100802-93704.html
- MoE. (2016). Promoting and strengthening higher education collaboration and exchanges with Belt and Road countries. Retrieved April 2019, from http://www.moe.gov.cn/srcsite/A20/s7068/201608/t20160811_274679.html
- MoE. (2019). Chinese Education Modernization 2035. Retrieved April, 2019, from http://www.moe.gov.cn/jyb/s6052/moe/838/201902/t20190223/370857.html
- Mok, K. H. (2007). Questing for internationalization of universities in Asia: Critical reflections. *Journal of studies in international education*, 11(3-4), 433-454.
- Morell, T. (2004). Interactive lecture discourse for university EFL students. English for specific purposes, 23(3), 325-338.
- Mortimer, E., & Scott, P. (2003). Meaning Making In Secondary Science Classrooms. McGraw-Hill Education (UK).
- Mu, G. M. (2019). Teacher professionalism, teacher agency, and student resilience in Chinese inclusive education: A sociological perspective. *The Sage handbook of inclusion and diversity in education*, 338-350.
- Mu, P. 2017. '全球化背景下高校全英文教学的现状及启示 [The Status quo and Enlightenment of College English Teaching Under the Background of Globalization].' *China higher education research* 9: 99–104.
- Navaz, A. M. M. (2021). Analysing Lecturer-Student Interaction in EMI Undergraduate Lectures: A Sri Lankan Perspective. Modern Perspectives in Language, *Literature and Education* Vol. 4, 109-125.
- Neeley, T. (2012). Global business speaks English: Why you need a language strategy now.available at: https://hbr.org/2012/05/global-business-speaks-english (accessed 26 April 2020)
- Nguyen, H. T., Hamid, M. O., & Moni, K. (2016). English-medium instruction and self-governance in higher education: The journey of a Vietnamese university through the institutional autonomy regime. *Higher Education*, 72(5), 669-683.
- Nieto Moreno de Diezmas, E., & Fernández Barrera, A. (2021). Main challenges of EMI at the UCLM: Teachers' perceptions on language proficiency, training and incentives. *Alicante Journal of English Studies*, 34, 39–61.

- Nilsson, B. (2003). Internationalisation at home from a Swedish perspective: The case of Malmö. *Journal of studies in International Education*, 7(1), 27-40.
- Nunan, D. (1992). Sociocultural aspects of second language acquisition. Cross Currents, 19(1), 13.
- O'Dowd, R. (2018). The training and accreditation of teachers for English medium instruction: An overview of practice in European universities. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 21(5), 553-563.
- Oliver, P. (2010). The student's guide to research ethics. McGraw-Hill Education (UK).
- Ong, A. (2007). Neoliberalism as a mobile technology. Transactions of the Institute of British Geographers, 32(1), 3-8.
- Oppenheim, N. (1998). *Undergraduates' assessment of international teaching assistants' communicative competence.*[Paper presentation]. The annual meeting of the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Seattle, WA, United States
- Otsuji, E., & Pennycook, A. (2011). Social inclusion and metrolingual practices. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 14(4), 413-426.
- Palmer, D. K., Martínez, R. A., Mateus, S. G., & Henderson, K. (2014). Reframing the debate on language separation: Toward a vision for translanguaging pedagogies in the dual language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 98(3), 757-772.
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). Qualitative research & evaluation methods. Sage.
- Pecorari, D., & Malmström, H. (2018). At the crossroads of TESOL and English medium instruction. *TESOL QUARTERLY*, 52(3), 497-515.
- Pennington, M. C. (1995). Pattern and variation in use of two languages in the Hong Kong secondary English class. *RELC journal*, 26(2), 80-105.
- Piekkari, R., Welch, D., & Welch, L. S. (2014). Language in international business: The multilingual reality of global business expansion. Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Piller, I., & Cho, J. (2013). Neoliberalism as language policy. Language in society, 42(1), 23-44.
- Pletsch, C. (2021). EMI teacher development in the internationalization at home process at university.
- Poggenpoel, M., & Myburgh, C. (2003). The researcher as research instrument in educational research: A possible threat to trustworthiness?(A: research_instrument). *Education*, 124(2), 418-423.
- Pope, C., Ziebland, S., & Mays, N. (2000). *Analysing qualitative data*. Bmj, 320(7227), 114-116.
- Pulcini, V., & Campagna, S. (2015). Internationalisation and the EMI controversy in Italian higher education.
- Dimova, AK Hultgren, & C. Jensen (Eds.), English-Medium Instruction in European Higher Education (pp. 89–114).
- Pun, J. K. (2021). Research conducted on classroom interaction in the English Medium Instruction context. In *Research Methods in English Medium Instruction* (pp. 16-31). Routledge.

- Pun, J., & Macaro, E. (2019). The effect of first and second language use on question types in English medium instruction science classrooms in Hong Kong. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 22(1), 64-77.
- Qiu, D., Li, Y., Li, L., He, J., Ouyang, F., & Xiao, S. (2020). Policies to improve the mental health of people influenced by COVID-19 in China: a scoping review. *Frontiers in psychiatry*, 11, 588137.
- Qiu, X., & Fang, C. (2022). Creating an effective English-Medium Instruction (EMI) classroom: Chinese undergraduate students' perceptions of native and non-native English-speaking content teachers and their experiences. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 25(2), 641-655.
- Rahman, M. M., & Singh, M. K. M. (2022). English Medium university STEM teachers' and students' ideologies in constructing content knowledge through translanguaging. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 25(7), 2435-2453.
- Raymond, E. (2000). Cognitive characteristics: Learners with mild disabilities. Needham Heights: Allyn& Bacon Com.
- Reinharz, S. (1997). Who am I? The need for a variety of selves in the field. Reflexivity and voice, 3-20.
- Richards, H., & Emslie, C. (2000). The 'doctor' or the 'girl from the University'? Considering the influence of professional roles on qualitative interviewing. *Family practice*, 17(1), 71-75.
- Richter, D., Kunter, M., Klusmann, U., Lüdtke, O., & Baumert, J. (2014). Professional development across the teaching career: Teachers' uptake of formal and informal learning opportunities. In *Teachers' professional development* (pp. 97-121). Brill.
- Riessman, C. K. (1993). Narrative analysis (Vol. 30). Sage.
- Ritchie, J., Lewis, J., Nicholls, C. M., & Ormston, R. (Eds.). (2013). *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers*. Sage.
- Rose, H., Curle, S., Aizawa, I., & Thompson, G. (2020). What drives success in English medium taught courses? The interplay between language proficiency, academic skills, and motivation. *Studies in Higher Education*, 45(11), 2149-2161.
- Rose, H., Macaro, E., Sahan, K., Aizawa, I., Zhou, S., & Wei, M. (2021). Defining English medium instruction: striving for comparative equivalence. *Language Teaching*, 1-12.
- Safari, M. (2018). Do university students need to master the GSL and AWL words: A psychology word list. *Journal of Modern Research in English Language Studies*, 5(2), 101-122.
- Sahan, K. (2021). In conversation with Ernesto Macaro on English medium instruction. RELC Journal, 52(2), 334-341.
- Sahan, K., Rose, H., & Macaro, E. (2021). Models of EMI pedagogies: At the interface of language use and interaction. System, 101, 102616.
- Saroyan, A., & Trigwell, K. (2015). Higher education teachers' professional learning: Process and outcome. *Studies in educational evaluation*, 46, 92-101.
- Schwandt, T. A. (2000). Three epistemological stances for qualitative inquiry: Interpretivism, hermeneutics, and social constructionism. In *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 189-213). SAGE Publishing.

- Seidman, I. (2006). *Interviewing as qualitative research:* A guide for researchers in education and the social sciences. Teachers college press.
- Sert, N. (2008). The language of instruction dilemma in the Turkish context. System, 36(2), 156-171.
- Shek, C. K. W., Johnson, R. K., & Law, E. H. F. (1991). Survey of the language policy and practice in 193 Hong Kong secondary schools. *New Horizons*, 32(10).
- Shin, J. Y., Dixon, L. Q., & Choi, Y. (2020). An updated review on use of L1 in foreign language classrooms. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 41(5), 406-419.
- Shohamy, E. (2006). Language policy: Hidden agendas and new approaches. Routledge.
- Short, D. J. (1994). Expanding middle school horizons: Integrating language, culture, and social studies. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28(3), 581-608.
- Söderlundh, H. (2013). Applying transnational strategies locally: English as a medium of instruction in Swedish higher education. *Nordic Journal of English Studies*, 12(1), 113-132.
- Squires, A. (2009). Methodological challenges in cross-language qualitative research: A research review. *International journal of nursing studies*, 46(2), 277-287.
- Stier, J. (2010). International education: trends, ideologies and alternative pedagogical approaches. *Globalisation, Societies and Education*, 8(3), 339-349.
- Taguchi, N. (2014). Pragmatic socialization in an English-medium university in Japan. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 52(2), 157-181.
- Tamtik, M., & Kirss, L. (2016). Building a norm of internationalization: The case of Estonia's higher education system. Journal of Studies in International Education, 20(2), 164-183.
- Tan, C. (2012). The culture of education policy making: Curriculum reform in Shanghai. *Critical Studies in Education*, 53(2), 153-167.
- Tange, H. (2010). Caught in the Tower of Babel: university lecturers' experiences with internationalisation. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, 10(2), 137-149.
- Tarnopolsky, O. B., & Goodman, B. A. (2014). The ecology of language in classrooms at a university in eastern Ukraine. Language and Education, 28(4), 383-396.
- Tatzl, D. (2011). English-medium masters' programmes at an Austrian university of applied sciences: Attitudes, experiences and challenges. *Journal of English for Academic purposes*, 10(4), 252-270.
- Thøgersen, J., & Airey, J. (2011). Lecturing undergraduate science in Danish and in English: A comparison of speaking rate and rhetorical style. *English for Specific Purposes*, 30(3), 209-221.
- Thompson, S. (1994). Frameworks and contexts: A genre-based approach to analysing lecture introductions. *English for specific purposes*, 13(2), 171-186.
- Tong, F., & Tang, S. (2017). English-medium instruction in a Chinese university math classroom: An observation study of classroom discourse. In *English-medium instruction in Chinese universities* (pp. 128-144). Routledge.

- Tran, T. H. T., Burke, R., & O'Toole, J. M. (2021). Perceived Impact of EMI on Students' Language Proficiency in Vietnamese Tertiary EFL Contexts. *IAFOR Journal of Education*, 9(3), 7-24.
- Truchot, C. (2002). Key aspects of the use of English in Europe. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.
- Van Lier, L. (1988). The classroom and the language learner: Ethnography and second-language classroom research.

 London: Longman.
- Van Parijs, P. (2011). Linguistic Justice for Europe and for the World. Oxford University Press.
- Vinke, A. A. (1995). *English as the medium of instruction in Dutch Engineering education*. Doctoral dissertation, Delft University of Technology, the Netherlands
- Vygotsky, L. S., & Cole, M. (1978). *Mind in society: Development of higher psychological processes.* Harvard university press.
- Vygotsky, L. (1981). The Genesis of Higer Mental Functions In JV Wertsch. *The concept of activity in Soviet psychology* EC3. Armonk, NY: ME Sharpe.
- Wächter, B., & Maiworm, F. (2008). English-taught programmes in European higher education. ACA Papers on *International Cooperation in Education*. Bonn: Lemmens.
- Wahyuni, D. (2012). The research design maze: Understanding paradigms, cases, methods and methodologies. *Journal of applied management accounting research*, 10(1), 69-80.
- Wang, C. (2021). The Relationship Between Teachers' Classroom English Proficiency and Their Teaching Self-Efficacy in an English Medium Instruction Context. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 12, 2342.
- Wang, L. (2014). Internationalization with Chinese characteristics: The changing discourse of internationalization in China. *Chinese Education & Society*, 47(1), 7-26.
- Wang, W., & Curdt-Christiansen, X. L. (2019). Translanguaging in a Chinese–English bilingual education programme: A university-classroom ethnography. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 22(3), 322-337.
- Wang, Y., Sung, M. C., & Vong, K. I. P. (2019). The foreign moon is fuller: Chinese academics' perception of internationalisation. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, 50(6), 827–843
- Warren, C. A. (2002). *Qualitative interviewing*. Handbook of interview research: Context and method, 839101, 103-116.
- Wei, L. (2011). Moment analysis and translanguaging space: Discursive construction of identities by multilingual Chinese youth in Britain. *Journal of pragmatics*, 43(5), 1222-1235.
- Wei, L. (2014). Translanguaging knowledge and identity in complementary classrooms for multilingual minority ethnic children. *Classroom Discourse*, 5(2), 158-175.
- Wei, L., & Martin, P. (2009). Conflicts and tensions in classroom codeswitching: an introduction. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 12(2), 117-122.

- Weimer, L., Hoffman, D., & Silvonen, A. (2019). *Internationalisation at home in Finnish higher education institutions and research institutes*. Helsinki, Finland: Ministry of Education and Culture.
- Wen, W. (2018). Inbound international student policies in China: a historical perspective. *Asian Education and Development Studies*, Vol. 7 No. 2, pp. 174-183
- Wen, W., Luo, Y., & Hu, D. (2014). Bridging the gap between Western and Chinese evidence in the international education market. *China & World Economy*, 22(6), 87-102.
- Westbrook, P., & Henriksen, B. (2011). Bridging the linguistic and affective gaps. the impact of a short, tailor-made language course on a Danish university lecturer's ability to lecture with confidence in English. In R. Cancino, L. Dam, & K. Jæger (Eds.), Policies, principles, practices: New directions in foreign language education in the era of educational globalization, 2011, 188-212.
- Wiley, T. G., & García, O. (2016). Language policy and planning in language education: Legacies, consequences, and possibilities. *The Modern Language Journal*, 100(S1), 48-63.
- Wilkinson, R. (2005). The impact of language on teaching content: Views from the content teacher. *Konferencebidrag, Bi-and Multilingual Universities—Challenges and Future Prospects*. Helsinki, Finland.
- Wilkinson, R. (2013). English-medium instruction at a Dutch university: Challenges and pitfalls. *English-medium instruction at universities: Global challenges*, 324(10.21832), 9781847698162-005.
- Wilkinson, R. (2018). Content and language integration at universities? Collaborative reflections. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 21(5), 607-615.
- Williams, C. (1996). Secondary education: Teaching in the bilingual situation. *The language policy: Taking stock*, 12(2), 193-211.
- Williams, J.N. (1996). Is automatic priming semantic? European Journal of Cognitive Psychology, 8 (2), 113-162
- Woolfolk, A. (2005). Educational psychology: Active learning edition (9th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson Allyn & Bacon
- Wu, P., Wang, S., Jiang, X., Zeng, D., Guan, Y., & Li, X. (2010). 高等学校双语教学的现状研究和实践探索 [An exploratory study of English-medium instruction in Chinese higher education]. *Beijing: Higher Education*
- Yang, R. (2014). Going global: Contemporary international networking in Chinese mainland universities. *Chinese Education & Society*, 47(1), 27-43.
- Yeh, C. C. (2014). Taiwanese students' experiences and attitudes towards English-medium courses in tertiary education. *RELC journal*, 45(3), 305-319.
- Yin, R. K. (2009). Case study research: Design and methods (Vol. 5). Sage.
- Yuan, R., Chen, Y., & Peng, J. (2022). Understanding university teachers' beliefs and practice in using English as a medium of instruction. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 27(2), 233-248.
- Yuan, R., Zhang, T., & Li, M. (2022). 'EMI is like a durian': Chinese students' perspectives on an ideal English-medium instruction classroom in higher education. *Language and Education*, 1-17.
- Zacharias, N. T. (2013). Navigating through the English-medium-of-instruction policy: Voices from the field. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 14(1), 93-108.

- Zhang, H. (2018). What makes an effective English-medium course in China? Experiences and perspectives of international undergraduates. *RELC Journal*, 49(3), 353-368.
- Zhang, N. &Ji, Z. (2021). 新自由主义治教观的批判与应对策略(Critique of the neoliberal view of governance and rrelavant dealing strategies), *Journal of Wuling*, 46 (2), 56-64.
- Zhang, W (2014). 高等教育市场化: 内涵、原因与限度 (Marketisation of higher education: connotations, causes and limits), Forum of Contemporary Education, 6 (264), 234-245.
- Zhang, Z. (2018). English-medium instruction policies in China: Internationalisation of higher education. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 39(6), 542-555.
- Zheng, X (2010). 西方教育市场化观点对中国高等教育的启示 (Implications of Western views on the marketisation of education for Chinese higher education), 10(3), 89-100.
- Zhou, L., Xi, Y., & Lochtman, K. (2023). The relationship between second language competence and willingness to communicate: the moderating effect of foreign language anxiety. Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 1-15.
- Zhu, W. (2021). University Students' Attitudes Toward EMI in the Chinese Mainland: A Study of the Moderating Variables. *International Journal of TESOL Studies*, 3(4), 96-113.

Appendices

Appendix 1: Interview outline for EMI teachers

Duration of interview: 45-60 minutes Method of recording: Audio recording

Language: Chinese, English

Topics and questions:

1. EMI teacher professional development

- Do you know the entry requirements of EMI teachers in the university you are working in?
- Did you participate in any pre-service training programs before you started your job as an EMI teacher in China?
- Does your employer provided any opportunities for in-service training programs for EMI teachers?
- If a combined test of academic and non-academic English, leading to EMI certification were available, would you be willing to take the test and why?

2. <u>Teachers' perceptions of EMI teaching and learning</u>

- Could you please talk about your understanding about the dual goals of EMI, i.e. improvements
 of both academic subject knowledge and skills and English proficiency?
- What kind of accommodation strategies will you use during your EMI teaching to help students' understanding and study?
- Do you think the way of teaching has to change when going over to an EMI context from a first language (L1) medium context? Why?

3. EMI policy implementation in branch campuses and future suggestions

- Do you know whether there's any polices related to the teaching language of academic subject classes in your university?
- Do you think generalizing EMI in branch campuses in China will have negative effects on Chinese traditional culture?
- According to your previous and current teaching experience and observation, do you have any suggestions to EMI implementation in China's branch campuses?

Appendix 2: The questionnaire for EMI teachers

Date:

The questionnaire below invites you to introduce some basic information about your EMI teaching experiences.

Instructions:

- 1. Please answer all the following questions
- 2. Please tick your choices in the box as \square .
- 3. If you have any difficulty in filling in the questionnaire, please do not hesitate to contact the researcher.

Thank you very much for your time and participation.

- <u>Demographic information</u>
- 1. What's your gender?
- male female prefer not to say
- 2. What's your first language?
- Mandarin Chinese
- English
- Others

Please specify:

- 3. Which university are you working in?
- Donghe University
 Nanjiang University
- 4. Where did you receive your last degree?
- Universities in China
 Overseas University
- 5. What's your last degree?
- Doctoral degree Master's degree Bachelor's degree
- 6. Can you specify your degree programme? Course name:

- EMI teaching experiences information
- 1. How many years have you been practicing EMI at SFCUs?
 - 0-3 years
 - 3-5 years
 - 5-10 years
 - 10 yeas and above
- 2. What is your current position at the SFCU?
 - Professor
 - Associate Professor
 - Assistant Professor
 - Instructor
 - Teaching assistant
- 3. What subject do you usually teach at the SFCU? Please specify:
- 4. Are you willing to provide the researcher an opportunity to observe your EMI class?
 - Yes No

Appendix 3: Key characteristics of 20 teacher participants

| No. | English Name | Research sites | Gender | First Language | Subject | Degree | Where did you receive your last degree | EMI Teaching Experience (till 2022) | Position |
|-----|--------------|----------------|--------|-----------------------|----------------------------|---------------------------------------|--|--|---------------------|
| T1 | Jack | NU | Male | Madarin Chinese | Finance | PhD in Finance | Overseas university | 10 years and above | Professor |
| T2 | Terry | NU | Male | Madarin Chinese | Statisctis | PhD in Statistics | Overseas university | 10 years and above | Associate Professor |
| Т3 | Joanna | DU | Female | Madarin Chinese | Global Business | PhD in Literature | Overseas university | 10 years and above | Associate Professor |
| T4 | George | NU | Male | English | Accounting | PhD in Accounting | Overseas university | 0-3 years | Associate Professor |
| T5 | Jeremy | NU | Male | English | Law | PhD in Law | Overseas university | 3-5 years | Assistant Professor |
| Т6 | Milton | NU | Male | Madarin Chinese | Math & Financial Managemet | PhD in Accounting | Overseas university | 3-5 years | Assistant Professor |
| T7 | Jane | NU | Female | Madarin Chinese | Math & Economics | PhD in Economics | Overseas university | 3-5 years | Assistant Professor |
| Т8 | Charlie | NU | Male | Madarin Chinese | Law | PhD in Law | Overseas university | 0-3 years | Associate Professor |
| Т9 | Trista | DU | Female | Madarin Chinese | Math and Data Analysis | MSc in Supply Chain | Overseas university | 0-3 years | Instructor |
| T10 | Cina | DU | Female | Madarin Chinese | Math | MSc in Finance Mathmatics | Overseas university | 0-3 years | Instructor |
| T11 | Stacy | NU | Female | Madarin Chinese | Accounting | MSc in Accounting and Finance | Overseas university | 0-3 years | Instructor |
| T12 | Flora | NU | Female | Madarin Chinese | Math | MSc in Mathematics Education | Overseas university | 5 years | Instructor |
| T13 | Rachel | NU | Female | Madarin Chinese | Accounting | MSc in Accounting | Overseas university | 5 years | Instructor |
| T14 | Tara | NU | Female | Madarin Chinese | English Language | MSc in English education | Overseas university | 0-3 years | Instructor |
| T15 | Sherry | DU | Female | Madarin Chinese | Consecutive Interpretation | Msc in Translation and Interpretation | University in China | 0-3 years | Instructor |
| T16 | Wendy | DU | Female | Madarin Chinese | Accounting | MSc in Accounting | Overseas university | 0-3 years | Instructor |
| T17 | Irene | DU | Female | Greek and English | Marketing | PhD. in English Literature | Overseas university | 5-10 years | Associate Professor |
| T18 | Andy | DU | Male | Madarin Chinese | Economics | PhD. in Economics | Overseas university | 3-5 years | Associate Professor |
| T19 | Helen | NU | Female | English and Cantonese | Marketing | DBA | Overseas university | 10 years and above | Associate Professor |
| T20 | Mike | NU | Male | Madarin Chinese | Computer Science | PhD. in Computer Science | Overseas university | 5-10 years | Associate Professor |

Appendix 4: Classroom Observation

| Classroom Observation Schedule | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------|-----------------|--|---|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| Course Name | Course lecturer | Course content | What to observe | Observed dates | | | | | |
| Business Mathematics | Milton | Part 1: Mathematics of Finance Simple & Compound interest Time value of money Annuities, future values and sum of an annuity Present value of an annuity and internet rate of return and mortgages Cost benefit analysis Part 2: Business calculus Linear functions Exponential and logarithmic functions Limits, vertical and horizontal asymptotes Continuity of a function Differentiation Higher order derivatives; increasing and decreasing functions | This course will be presented by teacher's lecture both in real classroom and online sessions. I can observe both real classroom activities, teachers behaviour, students engagement as well as the online interactions (questions and responses) between students and the teacher; and language used by both students and teachers. | 11:30-13:00 2020 Sep. 29 11:30-13:00 2020 Oct. 6 11:30-13:00 2020 Oct. 13 11:30-13:00 2020 Oct. 22 | | | | | |
| Financial Management | Milton | 1. Introduction to Financial Management 2. Key Ideas in Financial Management 3. Financial Instruments 4. Financial Systems 5. Various financial statements and reports 6. Risk and Rates of Return 7. Risk Hedging and Speculation by Derivatives 8. Time value of Money 9. Capital Budgeting Decision Rules | This course will be presented via student presentations. The teacher will give comments and have discussions at the end of each session. Similar to the maths course, this course will be held in real classroom and also some students will take online sessions simultaneously. I can observe both types of students' engagement, also teachers' behaviour and accommondation strategies and language adopted will be observed as well. | 15:30-17:00 2020 Sep. 28 14:00-15:30 2020 Sep. 30 14:00-15:30 2020 Oct. 7 15:30-17:00 2020 Oct. 12 14:00-15:30 2020 Oct. 14 | | | | | |
| The Legal Environment | Jeremy | This course emphasizes the nature of legal systems and processes. Topics include agency, contracts, common law and civil law systems, warranties, accounting regulations, and business structure (selection of a business entity). Part I, legal traditions and systems Part II, legal environment of business Part III, ideals – rule of law in the West Part IV, Chinese and Western accounting laws Part V, legal principles Part VI, avoiding court – dispute resolution | Online teaching: three tech platforms are used this semester: Zoom, to hold live class sessions, WeChat, to display class notes during class, hold office hours, and post course documents and announcements, and Blackboard, to submit assignments and run SafeAssign tests. I plan to join in the live class sessions of this courses: firstly, I will have a general summary of the content of each session; secondly I will observe how the EMI teacher teach in online sessions, what are the teaching behaviours, and what strategies he will use; thirdly, I plan to observe the student engagement in both class sessions via zoom and their engagement in the wechat group sessions for sharing the notes and teachers' office hours. | 13:00-14:15 2020 Oct. 19 13:00-14:15 2020 Oct. 21 13:00-14:15 2020 Oct. 26 | | | | | |