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„Internationalisation and
English-medium instruction (EMI) in tertiary education:
lecturers' beliefs at the FH Campus Wien“

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A university is not, thank heavens, a place for vocational instruction,
it has nothing to do with training for a working life and career,
it is a place for education, something quite different.

STEPHEN FRY

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1. Introduction

Undoubtedly, internationalisation has become a ubiquitous term in many areas, including higher education. In the discussion surrounding the development towards more global universities was often described as "complex," "multifaceted," "diverse," "controversial," "changing," and "challenging" (Knight 2008: 12). Over the last few decades, institutions providing tertiary level education have come under increasing pressure to adapt to the demands of a more internationally oriented education. In addition, a neo-liberal market with international competition poses further challenges to the traditional university sector. A central role in any internationalisation endeavour is usually ascribed to the English language and indeed "internationalisation must be taken as one of the main reasons for using English as a medium of instruction across universities in Europe" (Smit and Dafouz 2012: 3). The beliefs, opinions and motivations of the stakeholder involved in the processes of internationalising a university are of paramount interest "in order to raise awareness and enable practitioners to make more informed choices in their practices" (Hüttner et al. 2013: 270). Nowadays, the perspectives of students and teachers are well-investigated in this context, but for some time the research focus was strongly put on secondary education. In recent years numerous publications also concerned themselves with the experiences of university lecturers and students (e.g. Wilkinson and Walsh 2015, Symon and Weinberg 2015, Dafouz et al. 2013, Airey 2012, Thøgersen and Airey 2011). About 15 years ago, no relevant publications or studies on the role of English as language of university teaching and research in Austria could be found too (de Cilla and Schweiger 2001: 365). Since then several papers (e.g. Unterberger 2012, Tatzl 2011) and university theses (e.g. Vogler 2014) further confirmed a substantial interest in the topic.

In order to tackle the above introduced issues, this thesis combines a thorough theoretical basis with an elaborate empirical part including a case study. A focus is placed on the beliefs of lecturers of university level English-medium instruction courses at an Austrian university of applied sciences. The majority of institutions investigated in previous studies on this matter were traditional universities. However, in recent years, universities of applied sciences, which frequently have a significantly different educational focus, have attracted a high number of students. These institutions also have to deal with the challenges of internationalisation and the accompanying introduction of EMI courses, possibly in a different way. This is why one such university was chosen for this project. The FH Campus Wien is the largest university of applied sciences in Austria and finds itself at the beginning of comprehensive internationalisation processes. The fact that EMI courses do yet play a minor role in the curricula

of nearly all offered study programmed underlines this claim. In this context, seven lecturers who had already been teaching a part of their subjects in English were interviewed in order to eliciting their beliefs regarding internationalisation and EMI in general and their personal experiences at the FH. It was further attempted to find out whether certain findings could be attributed specifically to the particular type of institution.

Despite the clear limitations of the study such as its limited number of participants and local character, the combination of the interview findings and further research on the university a fairly comprehensive picture could be developed. The results may not only be useful for the FH Campus Wien itself, but, together with some previous findings, indicative of the general situation at universities of applied sciences in Austria. In any case it was able to shed some more light on the beliefs of content teachers who are faced with teaching in their and/or their students' second language.

The first chapter of this thesis consists of a general introduction to the phenomenon of internationalisation in tertiary education. After a discussion of the often confused terms 'internationalisation' and 'globalisation' a detailed consideration will be given to the factors involved in internationalisation of universities including the controversially discussed marketisation of universities. The final sub-chapter of this section will provide a brief overview of the corresponding situation in Austrian tertiary education. The subsequent chapter provides the theoretical underpinning for the second central topic EMI. It outlines positive and negative views regarding the role English plays in internationalised higher education and academia, followed by a detailed consideration of forms and impacts of EMI as well as more critical voices. A survey of experiences with content teaching in English across European higher education providers completes the theoretical considerations on EMI. The last theory section provides reasoning for focussing on teachers as stakeholders in internationalisation processes and EMI implementation. Subsequently, the first half of the empirical part introduces the case study with a distinction between traditional universities and universities of applied sciences, followed by a description of the site of the study, the research outline and a first glimpse into the situation regarding internationalisation and EMI at the FH Campus Wien. Finally, chapter six deals with the main empirical project, the lecturers' beliefs. Firstly, the data collection is outlined, followed by an explanation of the coding process. The findings on internationalisation and EMI are discussed in the following sub-chapters, organised according to the identified themes. Eventually, the conclusion provides a summary of the thesis' main ideas and findings and a brief outlook.

2. Internationalisation in tertiary education

2.1 Internationalisation and globalisation as inescapable phenomena

The concept of internationalisation is without a doubt of considerable importance in the present cultural, political and economic discourse. Before focussing on the relevance of this process for the field of university education some more general definitions and implications shall be considered. It is, however, also crucial to include the concept of globalisation in this discussion since it is often used interchangeably with internationalisation in both, the practical world and academic contexts. Despite being closely related and also influencing each other, it may be claimed that the terms are referring to “two different phenomena with different rationales, objectives and effects” (Yang 2002: 81-82). At this point it is important to note that both processes do play a role in current developments of the tertiary education sector and are praised or blamed for various significant alterations and innovations.

Due to the current prevalence of discussions about internationalisation, it sometimes is overlooked that it is not a new topic. In non-Western countries problematic labels such as ‘westernisation’ or ‘modernisation’ are also often associated with it (Yang 2002: 83). Indeed, there is no one all-encompassing definition of internationalisation. It may, for example, refer to “the implementation of specific measures to tackle the global context (Doiz et al 2013: 1407) or the fact that “large numbers of people all over the world now also participate in networks which go beyond the local” (Block and Cameron 2002: 1). According to Knight (2008: 1) the central driving forces for internationalisation can be identified as the rapid advancement of technology and communication, the influence of the knowledge society, an increasingly international labour market, liberal trade policies as well as restructuring of education funding. These forces may even result in a

compelling pressure to internationalize, owing to the instantaneity in communication and rapid advances in transportation, which result in an increased need for intercultural and international understanding and knowledge (Bartell 2003: 49).

The question whether globalisation is a decidedly positive or negative phenomenon is a subject of heated debates. There is also little consensus on how far in time it can be traced back, opinions range from the 15th to the 17th century to the first major fuel crisis in the 1970s (Block and Cameron 2002: 2). Moreover, for some, globalisation is basically a ‘done deal’, while others see it as exaggerated or an even invented process (Block and Cameron 2002: 2). As with internationalisation, a number of definitions exist to describe globalisation. It may be “the intensification of worldwide social relations which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa” (Giddens 1990: 64 in Block and Cameron 2002: 1) or “the flow of people, culture, ideas, values,

knowledge, technology, and economy across borders resulting in a more interconnected and interdependent world” (Knight 2008: 4). The driving forces of globalisation are remarkably similar to those of internationalisation; still, globalisation is hardly ever seen as a neutral concept (Knight 2008: 4-5). The expectation of a development towards extreme uniformity and a “worldwide standardisation of lifestyles” rather than a synergetic relationship between the global and the local, usually leads to overwhelmingly negative feelings (Block and Cameron 2002: 3). However, very few commentators would doubt the high relevance of the topic, in Fidel Castro’s words “[g]lobalization is an inevitable process. It would be pointless to oppose a law of history” (Bamgbose 2001: 357).

With regards to tertiary education it may be claimed to a certain extent that “globalisation is influencing universities world-wide [...] and radically changing the face of the university as an institution” (Yang 2002: 82). Here, a close link to the concept of the ‘internationalised university’ can be established, since internationalising higher education includes significantly ‘global aspects’. Internationalisation has without a doubt become a “strategic high priority” for a majority of universities in North America and Europe (Bartell: 2003: 49). While internationalisation of tertiary education will be thoroughly investigated in the following sections of the thesis, it may be said that, again, a broad range of ideas about what is or should be included in this process can be identified.

For some people, it means a series of international activities such as academic mobility for students and teachers; international linkages, partnerships, and projects; new international academic programs and research initiatives. For others it means delivering education to other countries using a variety of face-to-face and distance techniques and such new types of arrangements as branch campuses or franchises. To many, it means including international, intercultural, and/or global dimension in the curriculum and teaching learning process. Still others see international development projects or, alternatively, the increasing emphasis on trade in higher education as internationalization (Knight 2008: 1).

For these internationalised educational aims as well as in a broader cultural and economic context the issue of language is of considerable practical importance since global communities do not only require shared channels for communicating but also a shared linguistic code (Block and Cameron 2002: 1). English is the first language to be thought of against this background, as its status as lingua franca is seldom challenged. Still, tensions between different languages may also occur. In the context of international higher education, for example, these include the local language(s), English as a lingua franca, and/or the home language(s) in the case of international students (Doiz et al. 2013: 1407). All in all, the most challenging issue in the current developments involving internationalisation and globalisation, regardless in which cultural, political, economic or educational field is “how to achieve the most appropriate bal-

ance of interests and needs among local, national, regional, and international levels” (Knight 2008: 7). In how far institutions of tertiary education are able and try to contribute towards this ‘balance’ and which challenges they face in the process will be investigated in the following section.

2.2 Internationalisation of universities

2.2.1 What does internationalisation of higher education mean?

Knight (2008: 2-3) phrases it appropriately when she claims that higher education has been faced with a “transition period marked by turmoil, competition, and anxiety” in recent years, but also that “the international dimension [...] has become a formidable force for change, perhaps *the* central feature of the higher education sector”. Institutions have been experiencing additional pressure for they are required to adapt to volatile social, technological, economic and political situations. In this context, the international dimension of higher education has been of growing importance. The terminology describing this phenomenon has undergone some change in the course of time. In the 1960s, “international cooperation” was a preferred term, referring to development projects or international and cultural agreements. “Internationalisation” was used in the 1980s to also describe activities such as study abroad, language studies or institutional agreements. A clear change of emphasis took place in the 21st century; however, away from development activities and more towards academic mobility as well as market-driven endeavours (Knight 2008: 3).

As it was made clear in the previous section, internationalisation is not an entirely clearly defined and completely understood concept. In the higher education context, Bartell (2003: 46) describes it as

a complex, all encompassing and policy-driven process, integral to and permeating the life, culture, curriculum and instruction as well as research activities of the university and its members.

Internationalisation may also be specified in terms of the “impact of increased commercial crossborder education on the purpose, role, and values of higher education” which results in “traditionally fundamental values as academic freedom, collegiality, and institutional autonomy [...] being closely examined” (Knight 2008: 13). The relevance of the intercultural perspective is emphasised by Yang (2002: 83) since a university should be aware of and put into action “interactions within and between cultures through its teaching, research and service functions, with the ultimate aim of achieving mutual understanding across cultural borders”.

Regarding the involved parties of university internationalisation, it has to be pointed out that international relations work on multiple levels using different channels of communication such as university partnerships, guest lectures, foreign students etc. (Ludescher and Waxenegger 1999: 117). Knight (2008: 10-11) provides an overview of the “actors involved in the internationalization of higher education” who are acting at different levels (national, bilateral, sub-regional, regional, interregional, international). One problematic aspect in this context may be that frequently certain members of the university community are not taken into consideration in the process; Doiz et al. (2013: 1408) refer here in particular to administration personnel. Needless to say, the implementation of internationalisation policies also implies a number of other challenges.

Major organisational adaptations are required from a university, together with a “shared vision, a willingness to understand the organization and its environment” (Bartell 2003: 45). In addition, internationalisation needs to be integrated in all core functions of a university in order to result in a comprehensive strategy (Pellert 1999: 34). In this context, a paramount role is played by the curricula. Knight (2008: 7), too, emphasises the importance of new ways to internationalise the curriculum, together with the learning process and scholarly activities. Ludescher and Waxenegger (1999: 120) suggest the following indicators for an internationalised curriculum

Entwicklung durch ein internationales Projektteam, internationale Orientierung in Bezug auf die Lehrinhalte und Lernziele, internationale bzw. multikulturelle Zusammensetzung der Studierenden bzw. Vorkehrungen für Studierendenmobilität, Programmstruktur (Modulform), internationale Zusammensetzung des Lehrkörpers und Mobilität der Lehrenden, Einsatz von Fremdsprachen, Anwendung bestimmter Lehr- und Lernmethoden (z.B. Fernunterrichtselemente).

The adaptation of curricula may also include aspects which in the past may have not appeared compatible with traditional values of academia. More economically-oriented commentators, for example, see the promotion of the development of a more entrepreneurial mindset as a fundamental aspect of forward-looking higher education (Adamson and Flodström 2013: 144).

From a linguistic standpoint it may be briefly added that Zegers and Wilkinson (2005: 5) claim that an internationalised institution should not automatically be regarded as a multilingual one. Additional languages are not necessarily taught or used as medium of instruction; it can merely be assumed that the university “is not vested in a national system” (ibid.). In reality, however, the dominance of the English language in areas such as teaching and publishing in this context cannot be denied and will be discussed in a later section. The next part is going to present a detailed discussion of central factors involved in the internationalisation

of higher education. The focus will be put on Europe where the Bologna declaration can be considered a milestone in this regard.

2.2.2 Factors involved in the internationalisation of universities: Bologna, and so forth

While the term ‘factors’ might be considered somewhat unspecific and vague, it was, nonetheless, chosen on purpose. The reason for that is that the subsequently discussed elements simply cannot be labelled straight forwardly in the context of university internationalisation. They may be desired outcomes as well as driving forces, requirements or side effects, depending on the point of view or the strategies or the actors involved. In any case, they are significant aspects which are often discussed and referred to by insiders and external parties in equal measure. Before focussing on three central aspects of internationalisation, namely mobility, knowledge exchange and employability, the Bologna Process, one of the greatest innovations in European higher education in recent decades, and its impact will be briefly reviewed.

According to Knight (2008: 7), “Europe’s Bologna Process is the most striking example of major regionwide reform”. Together with the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) it was initiated in 1998 through a cooperation of the ministers of education from France, Germany, the UK and Italy. In 1999, the process was further formalised via the Bologna Declaration (Adamson and Flodström 2013: 136). In Austria and most of Europe, ‘Bologna’ was mostly associated with the structural changes it caused. The new two cycle model (Bachelor’s and Master’s) as well as the “length of time for degrees (especially master’s degrees) and the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS), for a long time took most of academia’s attention - this was for many the Bologna Process” (Adamson and Flodström 2013: 139). The reform, however, included a much more fundamental issue, a reorientation of tertiary education. Weyers (2013: 271) refers to it as “a dedicated attention to ‘The Student Experience’” where a learning outcome- and competency-based approach is assumed which supports the development of curricula that encourage active, student-centred learning. In some disciplines it could also be described as a shift away from imposing codified content knowledge onto learners and a striving for fulfilment of student and societal needs (Adamson and Flodström 2013: 137).

The goal is to develop students with an integrated view of research, education, innovation and business, combined with the spirit to transform ideas into business and to make a societal difference (Adamson and Flodström 2013: 146).

Despite facing some very harsh criticism, the Bologna Declaration led to a “remarkably effective process in driving the development of European higher education systems” (Adamson and Flodström 2013: 136) and

has been a great step forward towards creating a curriculum and educational systems that are congruent with the needs for the knowledge society; one where national borders are losing their importance and distance is measured in time and access to communication tools rather than in kilometres or miles (ibid.: 150).

Interestingly, internationalisation is not explicitly mentioned as one of the goals of the Bologna Process, although the two certainly seem strongly connected. Mobility for students and staff, on the other hand constituted a key Bologna component from the start (Adamson and Flodström 2013: 137).

Mobility of students appears to be an immensely important aspect of internationalisation for many, with “the number of foreign recruits and exchange students on a given campus” being one indicator to “measure the extent or level of the process of internationalisation of universities” (Bartell 2003: 57). The growing numbers of international students support this significance with “over 4.1 million tertiary students studying outside their countries of citizenship, representing a fivefold increase in the last thirty-six years and a 99 per cent increase since 2000” (Kandiko 2013: 3). In a Spanish study by Doiz et al. (2013: 1412) students also stressed the benefits of having international students at their universities and claimed to be highly interested in participating in mobility programmes themselves. On the other hand, the same study revealed that administrative staff were not as enthusiastic about participating in such programmes, the main reason being a lack of foreign language skills (ibid.: 1413).

However, mobility does not only refer to temporary exchange programmes such as the popular ‘Erasmus+’¹ (formerly ‘Erasmus’) but also to longer term international students migrating to foreign countries to complete a whole degree. In this context, English-taught study programmes are essential since they allow international students who would otherwise be deterred by language barriers to enrol at foreign universities (Gnutzmann and Lipski-Buchholz 2008: 149). Fully acknowledging the central role of mobility in university education, Pellert (1999: 32) notes that internationalisation should by no means be reduced to mobility alone. In addition, despite all efforts, participating in a mobility program remains somewhat ‘elitist’; therefore, international experiences also need to be provided to those students who are, for whatever reason, not sufficiently flexible. ‘Internationalisation at home’ activities, such as those provided by the FH Campus Wien described later in this thesis, are a valuable option to tackle this challenge. As indicated before, the factors described in this section are closely connected, and mobility cannot be seen in isolation from career or employability aspects or academic knowledge exchange.

¹ Detailed information about the new Erasmus+ programme, including participant numbers and background, can be found at http://ec.europa.eu/programmes/erasmus-plus/index_en.htm.

Mobility obviously plays a significant role in the cross-border, collaborative cooperation in knowledge production (Pellert 1999: 25). Some commentators have even detected a shift in importance from mobility to a focus on knowledge trade:

Whereas the initial aim of internationalization was to increase student and staff mobility, at present the key objective is to strengthen the competitive position of higher education in an international perspective: the export of knowledge (Vinke et al. 1998: 384).

The “increase in the crossborder movement of scholars, experts, and teachers/professors” can influence the higher education sector of a country by either moving in or out, therefore causing brain gain or brain drain (Knight 2008: 15). In an optimum situation, this international activity can be described as a ‘cooperative exchange’ (*kooperativer Austausch*) with all involved parties acting in a benevolent manner and aiming for mutual benefit (Pechar 1999: 47). While the collection of fees from international students is frequently presented as main motive, universities often have far more intrinsic, academic reasons for advancing internationalisation. The pool of potential partners for quick, informal exchange of research results and possible research cooperation has expanded immensely and the world-wide collaboration of leading researchers raises academic productivity (Pechar 1999: 61). In Maiworm and Wächter’s (2014: 52) frequently cited survey on European higher education securing ‘brain gain through the “recruitment of international academic staff and top talents, e.g. PhD students” was given as a major strategy pursued by universities.

Apparently, international interests and intentions are heavily present in academia; but problems arise if those interests create a tension field with insufficient language skills (Gnutzmann and Bruns 2008: 12). Increasing Anglophone tendencies will be closely examined in section 2.3.1, but in the present discussion it has to be added that participants in the academic discourse are strongly affected by the English dominance, not only in international publication. They may profit from English as a catalyst of research exchange. They may, however, also experience drawbacks, for example the dominance of Anglo-American norms or the impoverishment of their native languages (Gnutzmann and Bruns 2008: 14-18).

Referring again to mobility, international experience has been an important employment criterion on the academic job market for quite some time (Ludescher and Waxenegger 1999: 112). Employability is also clearly mentioned in the Bologna declaration since “[h]igher education should serve as preparation for the labour market and for life as active citizens in a democratic society” (Adamson and Flodström 2013: 137). Internationalisation in the form of mobility can be closely linked to students’ career prospects in another way, as

the recruitment of international students and international staff, which English facilitates, leads to enhanced institutional prestige, greater success in attracting research and

development funding, and enhanced employability for domestic graduates (Coleman 2006: 5).

It is not a new idea that, tying in with career-driven internationalisation plans, the adoption of a foreign, predominantly the English, language as medium of instruction is motivated by the aim to prepare students for an internship or even a permanent employment abroad (Vinke et al. 1998: 384). In addition, a somewhat more abstract “global competence” is required from students preparing for their careers in order to “function effectively as citizens and in their work lives” (Bartell 2003: 66).

As higher education has expanded, there has been increased emphasis on the skills students need once they complete their degrees. These skills are considered crucial for employability and include communication (written and oral), time management, information technology, problem solving and teamwork; furthermore business and entrepreneurial skills are also now considered crucial in the new knowledge economy (Weyers 2013: 272).

Universities are more and more acknowledging their responsibilities regarding the future employability of their students. “[T]o make domestic students fit for the international labour markets” is one of the central priorities of Bachelor programmes in Europe (Wächter and Maiworm 2008: 69). The general opinion nowadays is that English-taught university programmes prepare their students particularly well for an internationally-oriented professional life which requires cross-border, comparative knowledge (Gnutzmann and Lipski-Buchholz 2008: 153). In addition, “students can prepare themselves for a society in which multilingualism plays an increasingly important role” (van Leeuwen and Wilkinson 2003: 7). As previously indicated, however, the concept of ‘multilingualism’ should be interpreted with some caution since it frequently solely means ‘a local/native language plus English’.

The drive for academic mobility facilitated through the EU-wide introduction of more transparent degree structures is sometimes feared to lead to a potential loss of regionally relevant topics in favour of internationally valued knowledge (cf. e.g. Gnutzman and Bruns 2008: 11). Still, it is often celebrated as a move towards a more comprehensive exchange of knowledge and an increase of international cooperation. Furthermore, a beneficial impact on students’ and researchers’ career prospects could also be observed. Apart from these predominantly positively perceived aspects of the internationalisation of higher education, a more controversial outcome is the growing competitiveness within the European higher education area (Wilkinson 2008: 169). This development entails fundamental changes in the self-perception and self-presentation of most European universities which now overwhelmingly resort to distinct marketing strategies in order to position themselves on a vast ‘education market’. Due to its significant role in the internationalisation process, also in connection with the introduction

of English-medium instruction courses, these currently ubiquitous marketing efforts of universities are discussed in depth in the next section.

2.2.3 Marketisation of university education

With the increasing presence of internationalisation processes at institutions of higher education, “[t]he development of an internationally reputed university has become the goal of many academic presidents, rectors or vice-chancellors” (Yang 2002: 90). A market for higher education has been clearly visible in the US and UK for many years, but now Continental Europe is also moving in this more competitive direction (Barnett 2011: 40). Over the last two decades a majority of European universities seem to have entered the marketing world in an attempt to firmly secure a place for themselves within the wide-ranging offer on tertiary education. While 15 years ago Pechar (1999: 52) merely noted that universities need to be more business-oriented, a few years later Coleman (2006: 3) already claims that “[u]niversities are no longer institutions but brands”.

The marketisation interests of universities are apparent, yet of a very vague nature, including diverse intentions and values of numerous parties; “competitiveness and universality are all evident at once even in a single activity” (Barnett 2011: 40). The new, more competitive perception of universities is not welcomed by everybody. Academic staff in particular frequently feels alienated by the views and discourse of marketisation (Sauntson and Morrish 2011: 75). This discomfort may be related to the general “angst, tensions and unpredictable nature of the outcome of marketisation” (Scullion et al. 2011: 235) or the seeming incompatibility with academic values,

[f]or connected with a conception of higher education as a personal good lie concepts of freedom, autonomy, authenticity, democracy and criticality (Barnett 2011: 45).

It was mentioned before that marketisation of education is not a new phenomenon, but why has it become such a debated issue in Europe over the last decades?

It is indeed worthwhile to take a closer look at some reasons or developments that lead to the emergence of marketing in higher education. A frequently identified reason is the need for universities to generate funds, often by recruiting (international) fee-paying students. This necessity is a result of recent cuts in public funding for higher education and research in numerous countries across Europe (Knight 2008: 8, Sauntson and Morrish 2011: 74, Maringe 2011: 142, Kandiko 2013: 13). In this economic discourse, neoliberalism plays a significant role. This theory is based on “individual economic rationality” and the claim that the state’s involvement should be kept at a minimum while privatisation should be heavily promoted

(Kandiko 2013: 14). Such global economic forces which favour business-oriented approaches and emphasise customer orientation are also hard to resist for universities and as a result,

HE [higher education] became a tradable service, based on demand and supply laws under which students became key consumers while universities and their staff were the providers (Maringe 2011: 142).

A logical consequence of this development is that more and more universities demand the right to enter into the competition for the best students, with the most important and numerous “full fee paying students” originating from Asia (Pechar and Pellert 2004: 321, Pechar 1999: 60). In addition to immediate financial benefits through fee-paying students, the recruitment of international students and staff contributes significantly to the prestige of a university. This, in turn, facilitates research funding and, tying in with the previous discussion, enhances domestic graduates’ employability (Coleman 2006: 5).

The outcomes or effects of marketisation efforts of universities are fairly extensive and have far-reaching conceptual, but also more tangible consequences. One of these is the discussion surrounding the ‘student as consumer/customer’ metaphor. A consumer is rather passive and to a certain extent merely ‘consumes’ a service. A customer, on the other hand, has greater influence and is a powerful party in a market relationship since they can withdraw their custom at any point. Additionally, in the university context the student is not simply faced with a monopoly service, universities are in competition with each other and therefore students can “shop around” (Barnett 2011: 43-44). The implications for the teacher-student relationship are also under scrutiny in the context of a marketised university. Essential pedagogical concepts such as ‘responsibility’, ‘authenticity’ and ‘engagement’ are hardly compatible with the consumer metaphor, while they can be somewhat better associated with the customer concept. In general, the implications of the parallel existence of a pedagogical and a market relationship have to be questioned (Barnett 2011: 47).

Another area of impact of marketing activities is the ‘branding’ of universities and the accompanying development of mission statements. Interestingly, these were extremely rare for universities until the late 1980s, whereas, they are almost ubiquitous nowadays (Saunton and Morrish 2011: 75). Saunton and Morrish (2011) examined the current mission statements of several UK universities and analysed the potential influences of marketisation on wording and word choice. Overall, they identified a dominance of a “discourse of competitiveness, with assertions of world-leading quality, and boasts of ordinal ranking” (Saunton and Morrish 2011: 81) and found “mission statements to be dominated by neoliberal discourse which extols marketisation, commodification and globalisation” (ibid.: 83). Contributing to the ‘student as consumer’ debate, they conclude that

[t]he key purpose of mission statements appears to be an indefinable kind of 'branding' in which concrete purposes and achievements are replaced by a symbolic avowal of the values of business and industry. What we view as a re-packaging of students as (simultaneously) consumers and products of universities is a logical extension of this philosophy (Sauntson and Morrish 2011: 83).

For some universities, marketing their institution also drives them to change their language policies. At the Polytechnic University of Milan, for example, it was recently decided to introduce English as the primary language of instruction and administration. The rector justifies this somewhat drastic move with the university's need to stay competitive, since "[i]f an institution in Italy wants to be high quality, it's not conceivable now to focus only on the national market" (Williams 2013, <http://search.proquest.com/docview/1370714407?accountid=14682>), accessed 17.10.2014). Clearly, market forces are increasing the pressure on institutions regarding their reputation and offered 'services'.

Marketisation is an interesting factor of university internationalisation because it is far from uncontroversial. Many other facets of internationalisation are seen as neutral or even positive, e.g. mobility. The marketing of higher education, however, is often perceived rather negatively. The economic or competitive aspects may be considered as threatening to its "genuine values" and "cultural mission" (Yang 2002: 87, Bartell 2003: 44). Barnett (2011) outlines several detrimental effects which are believed to be caused by the introduction of the market dimension into the university sphere. Firstly, the status of students as 'customers' may have a harmful influence on the pedagogical relationship in higher education since. Due to the fact that students invest a significant amount of money, they might expect a satisfying outcome (grades, degrees) without really investing themselves (Barnett 2011: 42-43). More generally, some commentators "are concerned about the university as a social institution and believe that marketisation is corrupting the university as an embodiment of public goods" (ibid: 39). In addition, there are constant pleas not to include student fees in the funding options for tertiary education (ibid.: 45). Otherwise, universities could run the risk of degenerating into "factories for the production of degrees which students can purchase using real money and their brains" (Maringe 2011: 144).

Obviously, a wide range of people has uttered concerns about the increasing involvement of marketing aspects into university matters, including politicians, journalists. According to Scullion et al. (2011: 227), however, the only effective criticism can come from the university itself:

If we accept that one of the core roles of a university is to investigate phenomena in order to broaden our understanding of them, that universities are valuable to society because they may independently reflect on things, it is appropriate that critique of marketised HE comes from *within* — indeed it can only come from the academy.

Despite the considerable number of marketisation opponents, there are also numerous supporters of a more economic, competitive approach to higher education. One argument on to this end is, that due to reduced state funding, marketing is a necessary means for generating income (Barnett 2011: 39). By perceiving itself as a service provider in an international marketplace, universities would also place the consumer or customer, i.e. the student at the centre of their decision making which “helps to democratise the HE experience, increase accountability and contribute to enhanced quality of the HE experience” (Maringe 2011: 151). In addition, students, far from being passive consumers, may even show a heightened interest in their learning due to the presence of a market as they are presented with a wider choice of services and are comparing their options (Kandiko 2013: 16). Hence, introducing neoliberal aspects, such as providing the best possible product to a sophisticated customer, could indeed improve the university experience for students, but for teachers as well. Both, university students and teachers would possibly also show a greater level of engagement in their pedagogical relationship if an economic and customer satisfaction aspect was involved. This would clearly contradict marketing sceptics’ argument regarding an impoverished pedagogical relationship and that “so-called commodification of higher education leads to a denial of responsibility on the part of the student” (Barnett 2011: 46-48).

It is hardly possible to reach a conclusion whether the marketisation of higher education is an entirely positive or harmful development. Surely, this judgement strongly depends on one’s affiliations, since academics’, administrators’ and politicians’ views often differ. In general, it remains doubtful, however, if a strongly commercially-oriented approach to university education would have an exclusively positive impact. This may be particularly problematic for some disciplines where educational ‘outcome’ is not measured in employability and economic implementation.

Before the focus of this thesis is shifted to the discussion of English and English-medium instruction, one last aspect of internationalisation is investigated. The following short chapter will concern itself with internationalisation processes and issues in Austria, since in some respects the country reacted in a particular way to the Bologna Declaration and what followed. These Austrian ‘peculiarities’ are definitely very relevant for the present study, as it is an Austrian university which will be investigated in the empirical part.

2.2.4 Internationalisation in Austrian higher education

Generally, it can be said that, compared to other countries, there is little competition among Austrian universities, at least among the traditional, public institutions where around 75 per cent of Austrian students are enrolled (Statistik Austria. 2014. *Studierende in Österreich 2011/12-2013/14*). This may be explained by the fact that these universities are not required to compete for (international) students as they offer free and unrestricted access to almost all degrees and therefore rather struggle with overcrowded programmes. However, there are further reasons for a rather under-competitive and nationally-oriented higher education landscape. In Austria, the Humboldtian tradition with its ideal of a holistic, self-reliant education has had a fundamental influence on the (self-)perception of higher education the shaping of the curricula.

Until recently, there was one (long) *Diplomstudium*, which was not divided into an undergraduate and a graduate phase. The whole culture of teaching and learning is characterised by a *laissez-faire* policy with great freedom for both teachers and students. Students are seen as adults who do not need close supervision at universities (Pechar and Pellert 2004: 323).

The Bologna Process, with its stricter organisation and two cycle structure, therefore, appears to contradict the traditional Austrian approach to higher education quite heavily. The change from a teaching- to a learning-focussed system constitutes a significant novelty for many academics and lecturers. Austrian university-related peculiarities become even more obvious when compared to the Anglo-Saxon culture of teaching and learning. In those countries, universities feel much more responsible for their students and high drop-out rates, which are very common at Austrian universities, would be thoroughly investigated. In addition, “[t]he obligation for successful teaching and learning is felt more strongly by both students and teachers” (Pechar and Pellert 2004: 324). Furthermore, lecturers “do not find that their “teaching is not a by-product of their ‘real work’ (i.e. research), but a duty that requires a certain set of (different) qualifications” (ibid.).

Taking Austria’s second biggest group of tertiary education providers, the universities of applied sciences (FHs), into account the situation is somewhat different. Founded in 1994, this type of institution is comparatively new on the education market. Being considerably more job- and less academically oriented, their organisation and curricula are much more rigid, and therefore, the change to the Bachelor-Master system was less of an issue for this institution. Still, more international orientation is required in other areas such as curricula contents or the role of international experiences. The student body of most FHs does also lack diversity in this regards.

Traditional universities have had first basic approaches to internationalisation of teaching in the 1980s. Ludescher and Waxenegger (1999) investigated this process at three universities in their study. So despite the slightly slow implementation, internationalisation efforts were present, particularly because Austrian science policies were generally fairly supportive in this regard, while Austria's EU accession also had a beneficial impact (Ludescher and Waxenegger 1999: 111-112).

Still, several problematic aspects can be identified in the internationalisation process. Some traditional features of Austrian higher education appear incompatible with the Bologna Process, which resulted in a considerable pressure to reform in the first decade of the 2000s (Pechar und Pellert 2004: 317). The above introduced concept of the shared 'responsibility for successful teaching and learning' is frequently perceived as something rather alien and often pejoratively described as reverting to 'school-like' structures (*Verschulung*) (Pechar and Pellert 2004: 324). For some time it was debated how the new Bachelor and Master could be realised and whether these new programmes could really contribute to a more international education market. In addition, it was highly questionable if the completed Bachelor's degree would be accepted on the Austrian labour market at all (Ludescher and Waxenegger 1999: 124). Indeed, this remained an issue for quite some time. In 2004, Pechar and Pellert (p. 320) claim that the Bachelor was still regarded as an intermediate university degree rather than full degree. It is my personal impression that, even in 2015, this perception could not be completely eradicated yet.

Universities of applied sciences struggle with an additional problem. Their often very regional orientation regarding student and staff recruitment as well as curriculum contents and structure may be considered a further hindrance to the internationalisation process. On the other hand, it is argued that, despite not having included internationalisation as an explicit goal when FHs were introduced in the early nineties, an implicit focus always existed due to the institution's orientation towards the job market (Werner 2014: 167). Opposing the internationalisation trend, it has been subject to some debate to what extent this university type really requires internationalisation anyways (Brünner 2004: 52-53). Support for the continuing high topicality of these concerns can be found in the empirical part since some statements of interview participants strongly indicate a regional orientation of the education at universities of applied sciences.

At traditional universities in Austria, the awareness of the necessity of internationalising higher education is clearly present. Ludescher and Waxenegger reported significant internationalisation results at three Austrian universities with a real 'internationalisation boost' not

only in research but also in teaching already in 1999 (p. 122). In 2014, the University of Vienna states a clear and ambitious internationalisation strategy in their yearly international report:

As an internationally orientated leading European university, the University of Vienna considers the long-term implementation of the internationalisation strategy to be an essential element in achieving the following goals:

- Acquiring a position as one of the best research universities in Europe
- Raising its international profile in research and education
- Consolidating the international presence of its achievements in research and teaching (University of Vienna 2014: 6).

These developments are very much in line with the current orientation of higher education which implies that attending university automatically provides a certain degree of ‘international competence’ (van Leeuwen 2003: 22). This also includes language skills, and English obviously does play a central role in the international academic and working world. In the following chapter of this theoretical part will investigate linguistic aspects of university internationalisation with particular focus on the English language and how it is on its way to become the dominant medium of instruction.

3. English and English-medium instruction (EMI) as “symptoms” of internationalisation

3.1 The role of English in internationalised higher education and academia

As mentioned before, the English language does play a central role in all internationalisation efforts and plans, which is why this aspect will be the focus of this section. Discussing the impacts and developments of English as an international language or a lingua franca would obviously also be worthwhile. Due to the limited scope of this project, however, the ever increasing dominance of the English language will only be discussed in the context of higher education.

The preceding paragraph, and indeed the whole paper so far, gave the impression that one language is the unchallenged number one choice when it comes to internationalising tertiary education. This reflects the corresponding more general and global debate quite appropriately, since learning, teaching or offering ‘foreign languages’ in the context of internationalisation mostly means learning, teaching and offering ‘English’. This was not always the case. Around 1900, English did share its relevance as international language with French and German, which were roughly of equal importance. Due to several reasons including colonialism, technical advancements, and economic developments English then achieved dominance as language of science, leaving French and German far behind (Ammon and McConnell 2002: 11-13).

Nowadays, nobody would deny the dominance of English in education and despite an official promotion of multilingualism through EU policies

all the EU member countries have quietly made English the main foreign language of their school curricula, and often the only first foreign language (with French, German and Spanish or Italian as an obligatory choice as a second language) or even the only obligatory foreign language (Ammon and McConnell 2002: 6).

At university level, the natural sciences are usually described as particularly Anglified. Gnutzmann and Bruns (2008: 9) even refer to this situation as ‘hegemony of the English language’ (*Hegemonialstellung der englischen Sprache*). The degree of Anglification varies between different fields “with the first group being the most and the last group the least Anglified: (1) Theoretical, or “pure”, Natural Sciences, (2) Applied Natural Sciences and Social Sciences and (3) Humanities” (Ammon and McConnell 2002: 21). A more recent Swedish study underpins this categorisation with the claim that the extensive usage of English

may involve a relatively easy and straightforward language switch in the sciences, but present a greater challenge in the Humanities, Law and Social Sciences which rely more heavily on linguistic formulations, style of expression and typically deal with

more ‘local’ or at least nationally oriented areas of inquiry (Bolton and Kuteeva 2012: 443).

Regardless of the field, academic publication has been following a strong Anglophone trend for some time (Gnutzmann and Bruns 2008: 14). These Anglification tendencies are, of course, not undebated. Acknowledging this situation, the following sub-sections will discuss arguments for the merits of this development as well as more critical views.

3.1.1 Merits of the Anglophone trend in higher education

According to Zegers and Wilkinson (2005: 4) multilingualism can either be “an institutional or societal construct”. In the context of internationalisation of higher education the institutional level is usually foregrounded. In non-Anglophone countries, this type of multilingualism mostly includes one or more local languages and English, which takes the role of the lingua franca. Clearly, the complexity involved in lingua franca usage must not be underestimated, since it

finds its reflection in complex language developmental processes, involving the development of the community's repertoire, learning specific language use and also changing individual repertoires (Smit 2010: 408).

The general benefit of a global language is also connected to the fact that “major political, economic, social, cultural, ecological, technological, and military issues are increasingly structured as global problems“ and “global concerns (e.g. the ecological question) are structurally non-territorial” and therefore may require one common language (Breidbach 2003: 14). In addition, despite a favourable stance towards plurilingual education, Breidbach (2003: 20) admits that “English itself may function as a direct mediator between participants in a discourse who would otherwise have to rely on translation or a third party”. From a non-European perspective, it could be argued that, rather than seeing English as a bothersome obstacle to university development and “a language of imperialism”, the English language “is a potent medium for international communication, and can become the servant of many people from less developed countries” (Yang 2002: 90).

As a result of its global relevance, the English language is involved in a process referred to as “the Microsoft effect” by Coleman (2006: 4): “once a medium obtains a dominant market share, it becomes less and less practical to opt for another medium, and the dominance is thus enhanced.” Indeed, frequently it is English which is seen as “the ‘natural’ medium of instruction’ at internationally-oriented universities (Jenkins 2014: 162). In her recent study, Jenkins (2014: 158) found that there is a strong consensus among university staff that

English is the language of the internationalization of HE and therefore the most appropriate language to serve as a common medium of instruction among speakers from different Lls.²

Hence, it is therefore not surprising that the majority of universities with serious internationalisation intentions introduce English into their teaching.

Their main reason for doing so has been the fear that they would otherwise be unable to attract foreign students or foreign scholars and scientists, since these individuals usually know English but are reluctant to learn still another foreign language for their studies or work at a university abroad (Ammon and McConnell 2002: 7).

Van Leeuwen and Wilkinson (2003: 10) additionally suggest that, in order to completely appeal to an international students and staff, administration should also be able to fully work in English. This was, for example, also recognised by the Polytechnic University of Milan. Introducing English as their official language in all areas, including teaching and administration, was “a core part of a strategy aimed at preserving the university's leading position in Italy (Williams 2013, <http://search.proquest.com/docview/1370714407?accountid=14682>, accessed 24 May 2015).

Different fields of academic research react differently to the dominance of English. The natural sciences, for example, are commonly characterised as culturally independent or strongly cross-culturally oriented and therefore are less connected to a national language (Gnutzmann and Lipski-Buchholz 2008: 155). Therefore, English is usually seen as advantage, even as catalyst for an improved communication and scientific advancement in these disciplines, also referred to as the ‘Anglophone sciences’ (Gnutzmann and Bruns 2008: 11). Indeed, all parties involved in the academic discourse may profit significantly from a ‘catalyst of research and knowledge exchange’ (*Katalysator des Forschungsaustauschs*) (Gnutzmann and Bruns 2008: 18).

The merits of English as means of communication are usually underlined by proponents and sceptics alike. European universities, e.g. in Scandinavia, with steadily increasing numbers of international students and members of staff have first-hand experience of this. More sceptical views are, however, also present and shall be discussed below.

² Another noteworthy finding, which unfortunately cannot be discussed further in the context of this project, is the widespread “assumption that native English, specifically 'standard' North American or British academic English, is widely seen as the most acceptable kind of English” (Jenkins 2014: 158).

3.1.2 *Critical voices on the dominance of English*

Critical views on the ever increasing dominance of English are numerous and diverse. In the university/internationalisation context two types of more or less negative views could be identified. Firstly, critique in terms of linguistic, and in connection also cultural, homogenisation and decreasing diversity. The other type of critique addresses concrete usage issues as well as insufficiently planned implementation and does not necessarily oppose the English language and Anglophone culture as such.

Despite English commonly being considered *the* international and global language, Shohamy (2007: 132) argues that “the real meaning of globalisation is multilingualism”. In partial accordance with this claim, a 2013 study at the bilingual University of the Basque Country found not only that there are “negative effects associated with the imposition of English as the hegemonic language of communication”, but that a number of students demand increased language diversity in tertiary education (Doiz et al. 2013: 1413-1415). Lecturers who were interviewed also complained that some local students were reluctant to speak English, even in courses with international students (*ibid.*). The same study revealed a considerable concern about the pressure that a wide-ranging introduction of English at the bilingual university may exert on the local minority language (Doiz et al. 2013: 1417).

In Sweden, a related debate about domain loss, diglossia and language protectionism led to the conclusion that both English and Swedish and possibly an “explicit national language policy” were needed in higher education (Airey 2012: 65, Bolton and Kuteeva 2012: 431). Higher education plays a particularly important role in this regard, since “in diglossic societies, the formal and prestigious functions [of the minority language] are the first to be lost” and this process is a potent trigger for top-down language death (Coleman 2006: 3). Thus, even if the acceptance of the dominance of English is inevitable, the need for other languages should not be disregarded (Bamgbose 2001: 357). This, however, results in a dilemma:

[H]ow can language education policies avoid Scylla and Charybdis of a market-driven tendency towards linguistic homogenisation on the one hand and communicative isolation within multilingual diversity on the other (Breidbach 2003: 15)?

Apart from solely linguistic challenges and consequences, members of traditionally non-Anglophone sciences such as the humanities are frequently wary of the potential danger of the increasing dominance of Anglo-American perspectives and opinions in their fields (Gnutzmann and Bruns 2008: 11). Relating to a somewhat similar linguistic and cultural domination in history, English has been termed “a new Latin” (Ammon and McConnell 2002: 25). The current development was also referred to as the “lingua franca trap” which, in the worst case

scenario could threaten “social inclusion and political participation, as it curtails the exercise of political, economic, social, and cultural rights” (Breidbach 2003: 19).

Notwithstanding all concerns regarding linguistic and cultural homogenisation, the majority of institutions in the tertiary education sector acknowledge the importance of English in the internationalisation process. Interestingly, those involved often have strong beliefs and ideologies about English which may influence the progress of its introduction. In this context, Jenkins criticises the frequently prevailing traditional, pre-internationalisation understanding of university English which hardly involves any awareness of English as a lingua franca (Jenkins: 2014: 162). Sufficient language proficiency is obviously a central issue in the discussion around English in higher education and academia, which is also supported by findings of this study. Lacking skills are sometimes a significant factor which at least creates tensions between interests and competences and at worst excludes academics from international research. On the whole it is frequently argued that non-native speakers of English are indeed discriminated when taking part in the international scientific discourse (Gnutzmann and Bruns 2008: 12-15).

But not only researchers may experience drawbacks from the dominance of English. In reaction to a recent complete switch to English as primary language of teaching and general communication, students and staff of the Polytechnic University of Milan argue that this measure “limits access to education and introduces ‘an element of linguistic discrimination’ against university employees” (Williams 2013, <http://search.proquest.com/docview/1370714407?accountid=14682>, accessed 24 May 2015). Their scepticism is not directed at the English language as such, which is regarded as highly necessary in order to compete internationally and prepare students for future employment. It is, however, argued that gradually introducing English to the university and developing consensus among all involved parties would yield more satisfying results (Williams *ibid.*).

With language competence being such a relevant factor, preparatory or parallel language courses appear to be an obvious strategy to increase students’ English skills. Hellekjar and Wilkinson (2003: 92), on the other hand, argue that this would only make sense if students perceived such a course as valuable addition to their main field of study, i.e. to their content courses. If no direct benefit for the students’ professional future is visible, motivation will usually remain rather low. Similar opinions can also be found in the interviews conducted for this project (see 6.3.2.1). Parallel language use of English and the local language has been suggested as a means to meet linguistic challenges in internationalised higher education. This, however, is only feasible if all involved parties have sufficient command of both languages

(Bolton and Kuteeva 2012: 432). In order to secure a satisfying level of English skills of their lecturers some universities are resorting to special proficiency tests. These tests, however, are only of limited suitability since they do not assess teaching skills in English (Wilkinson 2008: 175).

In conclusion, it may be said that language-related questions are diverse and so are expectations and experiences across Europe. Therefore, it is by no means certain “that there is a shared view of what constitutes a ‘significant’ language problem” (Wächter and Maiworm 2008: 79). The subsequent section will now concern a particular field in the process of the increasing introduction of English to higher education, namely teaching via English-medium instruction.

3.2 EMI: forms, developments and impact

In the course of this thesis, reference was occasionally made to the role of English in the context of university teaching. This section will concern itself with English-medium instruction in detail, focussing on its varied forms, definitions and the impact it has had so far.

When teaching through a foreign or second language is concerned, numerous terms come into play. These terms and their accompanying definitions frequently overlap and are not easy to keep apart. One of the most prominent is probably Language and Content Integrated Learning (CLIL). It can be described as “a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content *and* language” which are “interwoven, even if the emphasis is greater on one or the other at a given time” (Coyle et al. 2010: 1). CLIL does enjoy a very good reputation as contemporary approach to teaching since not only the content component is considered but “the self-confident and self-evident use of the foreign language and its ultimate appropriation by many CLIL learners [...] is regularly observed to be the most striking outcome of CLIL programs” (Dalton-Puffer 2011: 196). It is no surprise that “[t]he dominant CLIL language is English, reflecting the fact that a command of English as an additional language is increasingly regarded as a key literacy feature worldwide” (Dalton-Puffer 2011: 183). Whereas Dalton-Puffer (ibid.) furthermore claims that CLIL is mostly aimed at students who are “participating in some form of mainstream education at the primary, secondary, or tertiary level”, others suggest that this concept does not refer to university level teaching (e.g. Hellekjaer and Westergaard 2003: 66). One reason for this may be that

foreign language competence is viewed as a *requisite* rather than an expressed learning outcome, and consequently, most higher education contexts cannot be treated strictly

speaking as CLIL settings, since the (foreign) language issue seems to be largely overlooked (Dafouz et al. 2013: 225).

Apart from CLIL, several other labels refer to some form of non-L1 content teaching: ‘English-medium teaching’ (Coleman 2006), ‘Teaching through a Foreign Language (TTFL)’ (Hellekjaer and Westergaard 2003), ‘Foreign Language Mediated Instruction’ (ibid.) and ‘Integrating Content and Language (ICL)’ (Symon and Weinberg 2015). While these terms are used interchangeably in some publications, others insist on fine nuancing and stricter conceptualisations (Smit and Dafouz 2012: 4). For example, previous definitions of EMI put a strong focus on instruction, i.e. the teacher’s perspective, rather than the discourse between teacher and student (Smit and Dafouz ibid.). Still, it has to be noted that the interpretation of what constitutes a course or programme taught in English may also vary from university to university (Wilkinson 2008: 170). For the purpose of this project, however, the term English-Medium instruction (EMI) was used for both theoretical consideration and empirical research. As mentioned above, CLIL may better be reserved for primary and secondary education contexts and all other approaches to teaching university level content through a foreign language, i.e. English, shall be subsumed under EMI.

Having introduced some definitions and explanations of English-medium instruction in order to address the ‘what’ question, what remains to be answered is why these approaches to content and language teaching/learning are becoming increasingly popular. Although EMI was introduced in the Netherlands and Sweden in the 1950s, the genuine trend took off in the 1990s when universities in a range of countries from Western, Central and Eastern Europe discovered the relevance of offering courses in English (Coleman 2006: 6). Many universities saw and see the introduction of English degree programmes as their chance to keep up with the increasing significance of English as a lingua franca and to equip their students with the required linguistic and intercultural competences (Gnutzmann and Lipski-Buchholz 2008: 161). Dalton-Puffer (2012: 101-102) identifies three broad types of motives for the introduction of English-medium teaching. ‘Strategic motives’ are connected with the universities’ elitist aspirations. The aim to prepare students for an international job market counts towards ‘pedagogical motives’. Finally, the lack of L1 literature and the dominance of English in research fuel the ‘substantial motives’. Similarly, Wilkinson (2008: 169) indicates that the reasons for offering EMI “are diverse and depend on the institutional vision” and “may vary from the practical (...) to matters of institutional survival”. These claims are also supported by the findings of Wächter and Maiworm’s extensive study on English-taught programmes in Europe (2008, 2014). Here, the removal of language obstacles for foreign students and “the

improvement of international competences of domestic students” were found to be the main motives for offering EMI programmes (Wächter and Maiworm 2014: 53).

Overall, it can clearly be said that internationalisation is one of the major reasons for the ongoing spread of English as medium of instruction at universities all over Europe, while language learning as such is a secondary factor (Smit and Dafouz 2012: 3). Jensen and Thøgersen (2011: 14) go even one step further, claiming that ”‘internationalisation’ seems to be synonymous with English-medium instruction”. Then again, some argue that the increase in EMI courses does support the implementation of internationalisation policies, and not the other way round (Gnutzmann and Lipski-Buchholz 2008: 147). In any case, since nowadays internationalising is of paramount importance to most universities, the investment into EMI may well be worthwhile.

This opinion is obviously shared by numerous institutions as English-medium programmes have become tremendously popular over the last years. In 2007 around 2,400 English-taught programmes were offered across Europe; in 2014 this number increased to over 8,000. In the Nordic countries nearly 20 per cent of all study programmes are now provided in English (Wächter and Maiworm 2014: 48-49). There is, however, a clear divide across the levels and specialisations where EMI is offered, because 80 per cent are at Master’s level and roughly 75 per cent belong to the fields of business, law, (natural) sciences and engineering (Ferencz et al. 2014: 65-67).

Certainly, the introduction of EMI programmes has considerable consequences for a university. Wilkinson (2008: 172-176) identifies impacts on several areas of university organisation: programmes (deciding if they are offered completely in English), students (recruitment and enrolment), staff (teaching and administration), course design (topic choice), and assessment. In addition, “[e]stablishing EMI programmes involves considerable investment and should not be undertaken lightly” (Wilkinson 2008: 180). In this context he also suggests to follow ten essential principles in order to obtain a successful EMI program:

- Start small.
- Start new niche ventures.
- Use EMI Bachelor's programmes to build a range of specialist Master's programmes.
- Do not rely only on creating EMI Master's programmes: most universities will be doing this anyway.
- Recruit excellent students.
- Change the staff if necessary.
- Invest in language training, especially at the start of programmes; do not rely on linguistic assessments in entry qualifications (certificates) to guarantee competence in English.
- Invest in content and language integrated programmes.

- Rethink assessment practices.
- Clarify the institutional vision. (Wilkinson 2008: 179–180)

A successful implementation usually leads to mostly positive experiences for all parties involved. Indeed, studies have shown that “participants acknowledged both personal and academic gains derived from English-medium instruction” (Doiz et al. 2013: 1413). An “improved international profile”, “strengthening of cooperation with foreign partner universities” and “the improvement of assistance for foreign students” are also listed among the positive effects of introducing EMI (Ferencz and Maiworm 2014: 119). On a broader and slightly more ‘dramatic’ scale, it could be argued that through offering courses through the medium of English, universities contribute to preserving and expanding Europe’s competitiveness as ‘knowledge-based economic area’ (*wissensbasierter Wirtschaftsraum*) by recruiting foreign students i.e. potential scientific specialists (Gnutzmann and Lipski-Buchholz 2008: 162).

Despite numerous supporters of EMI and EMI-related courses, certain aspects remain under criticism. The following section will present a number of more sceptical views; although, it should be kept in mind that

the terms “proponents” and “opponents” in this context should not primarily be seen as different persons involved in the debate, but rather as different positions which the debater may take in the debate (Jensen and Thøgersen 2011: 21).

3.3 EMI: concerns and critique

It does not come as a surprise that the increasing introduction of EMI courses and programmes is not celebrated by everyone. The present section is going to discuss the most commonly voiced concerns affecting the three parties arguably most involved in and relevant to the discussion: the universities themselves, the lecturers and the students.

From the administrative point of view, some institutions did and do struggle with the sudden expansion of EMI. A group that is often neglected by universities in the discussion on introducing EMI programmes is general administrative staff. It is, however, important to address their concerns as those people frequently are key contact points for international students and staff who are not fluent in the local language (Wilkinson 2008: 176). Kurtán (2003: 146) questions in how far, for example, Hungarian universities are properly prepared for providing EMI programmes since those require particularly careful planning, implementation and evaluation by all parties involved. In addition, she doubts whether institutions are ready for “undertaking the education of multilingual, multicultural groups” (ibid.). Even after the successful introduction of an English-taught programme, a university has to bear in mind that

EMI programmes are not simply a one-off investment. Just as with mother tongue (L1) programmes, courses have to change. It may be that EMI programmes are more susceptible to change because of their greater exposure to the international environment. EMI programmes both affect and reflect the vision and rationale of the university, because they present its international face (Wilkinson 2008: 178).

The introduction of a whole study programme in English does involve considerable effort for an institution of higher education. In this context, Hellekjaer and Wilkinson (2003: 88-89) describe some major issues which are raised for universities. Firstly, comprehensive information for students regarding language requirements ahead of the start of the programme must be made available. Lecturers as well as tutors must possess adequate English skills. Finally, universities must decide on how to act regarding the broadening market of higher education, e.g. decide whether to offer fewer but more specialised MA programs.

Even if EMI programmes are not developed from scratch, but solely the teaching language of a few courses is changed, a number of challenges arise for universities. These include “selecting courses that could be taught in English; locating these courses in the existing study programmes; recruiting suitable teaching staff; and promoting student registration” (Symon and Weinberg 2015: 312). The sporadic, random implementation of English-taught courses is a popular measure for numerous institutions, including the university presented in this project. Unfortunately, the isolated and often unplanned introduction of EMI lectures for the sake of adding some English to a degree programme may be ill-advised since it was found not to contribute to the often desired improvement of language skills. Moreover, it may even have negative impact on the quality of the content teaching and learning. Problematic factors in this context include students’ insufficient language skills in connection with an unfamiliar subject (Hellekjaer and Wilkinson 2003: 83), reduced student participation (Doiz et al. 2011: 354) as well as slower speaking rates of lecturers (Thøgersen and Airey 2011).

But not all universities follow the EMI trend. In their recent study on English-taught study programmes in Europe, Wächter and Maiworm (2014: 61-62) also gained some insight into why a university might decide not to offer any EMI courses or programmes at all. One central reason given was lacking language proficiency of teaching staff and domestic students. But the type of university and discipline plays a role in this decision as well. This ties in with the earlier mentioned hierarchy of Anglification of subjects. Other arguments for refraining from EMI include insufficient international enrolment, lack of resources or legal obstacles (ibid.).

Returning to the groups affected by EMI, university lecturers, despite their central role in the success of a university programme, are frequently overwhelmed by the sudden expectation to teach in English. There is a “need for awareness raising among staff and particularly

university administrations to create a recognition that teaching in a foreign language in most cases does not mean business as usual” (Hellekjaer and Westergaard 2003: 79). The overwhelming majority of lecturers perceive teaching in their L2, i.e. mostly English, as more demanding (e.g. Doiz et al. 2011: 352). One reason for EMI not being an all-together pleasurable teaching experience is that “subject-matter teaching in English transgresses well-established disciplinary and system-inherent borders creating considerable insecurities along the way” (Dalton-Puffer 2012: 102). Interestingly, despite the more demanding nature of EMI lectures, very often no organisational changes are made when offering a course in English and not in the local language (Hellekjaer and Westergaard 2003: 71).

Naturally, language skills are a compelling issue for non-native lecturers and “[b]asic competence in English is considered necessary, but not sufficient [...] in order to be capable of communicating effectively in an English-medium instructional setting” (Vinke et al. 1998: 384). University lecturers experience that their “effectiveness of English-medium content teaching is influenced by language problems, in that the language seems to constrain teaching and instructional methods” (Wilkinson 2005, <http://www.palmenia.helsinki.fi/congress/bilingual2005/presentations/wilkinson.pdf>, accessed 25 February 2015).

For lecturers the language component of an EMI course is very often almost completely hidden behind the content aspects, especially in the context of language learning. Instead, “there seems to be an implicit view of the foreign language just being picked up through extensive exposure and use” (Hellekjaer and Westergaard 2003: 67). Also, many content lecturers see much more importance attached to their subject than to the ‘merely’ supportive role of the language teachers (Gnutzmann and Lipski-Buchholz 2008: 161). Despite this assumption of ‘automatic’ and coincidental language acquisition, a frequent concern for lecturers is about assessment in their EMI courses. They may feel under pressure not to assess their students’ work too harshly, particularly regarding their use of English (Wilkinson 2008: 178). In this context, the findings of the present study even revealed that some lecturers attempt to disregard language issues altogether in their assessment (see 6.3.2.3).

Insufficient language skills are indeed a major student-related concern since they “are also a relevant factor in classroom discourse and thus knowledge construction” (Smit 2010: 405). In their 2003 study, Hellekjaer and Westergaard (2003: 73-75) found that, while language issues experienced by staff were negligible, students of EMI courses had more severe problems and showed a particular lack of productive skills. This may also be reflected in their motivation to attend EMI courses and as a result European university students who initially were in favour of being taught in English, frequently changed their minds once subject matter

had become more complex (Doiz et al. 2013: 1415). Obviously, being taught in an L2 does provide sources of misunderstanding and additional difficulties for students. This becomes even more problematic if lecturers are not aware of students' struggles, especially the need for extra time for improving their English as well as studying academic content. According to Jenkins (2014: 163) this awareness is considerably lower among English native speakers teaching in EMI environments than among non-native lecturers.

Considerably differing levels of knowledge of English in a group of students is a particular problem of EMI courses. Several studies have reported that “[t]eachers observe nationality contrasts in English fluency among international students, and between local students and international students” (Doiz et al. 2011: 355). In general, it may be arguable whether students enter higher education with sufficient English skills for academic discourse in the first place (Doiz et al. 2013: 1414). Once at university, Symon and Weinberg's study (2015: 319) argues language skills can only be improved in EMI courses if a “suitable support framework” is present. This is rather problematic, since, frequently “there is an elitist assumption that international students should already come with perfect English language proficiency and that the university has little obligation to further support” (Kubota 2009: 614). On the other hand, the Bologna Declaration, together with government cutbacks, did result in a tight university structure which hardly leaves time or money for language support (van Leeuwen 2003: 34–35). This “double challenge of learning a conceptually and linguistically unfamiliar subject” should be taken into consideration by lecturers; otherwise increasing failure rates may be the result (Hellekjaer and Wilkinson 2003: 83).

Finally, apart from concerns regarding planning and implementation, universities are perceived as having a responsibility towards society which could be affected by introducing English. A discussion surrounding this issue included the following argument:

The Danish universities are publicly funded. The universities therefore have an obligation to Danish society. Researchers are required to disseminate their knowledge in the common language, that is Danish, so that new knowledge is not the exclusive property of those who speak English (Jensen and Thøgersen 2011: 20–21).

Concluding this section it can be said that while the number of EMI courses and programmes offered by European universities has increased significantly over the last decade, their development and implementation does generate numerous worries. Administrative and organisational issues, distinct challenges regarding teaching and learning, all areas and groups of a university are involved and may voice concerns. The next part of this thesis will provide an overview of how universities in different European regions experience the introduction of English as language of teaching.

3.4 Experiences with EMI in European higher education

Several times it has been emphasised so far that this project limits its investigations to Europe and especially Austria. The case study concerns itself with a Viennese university of applied sciences; therefore presenting a detailed context of Austrian higher education is surely understandable. But also a broader focus on EMI in Europe seems legitimate since

European countries feature historically deeply entrenched and well-developed higher education systems that have evolved in the respective national languages since the middle of the 19th century; this seemingly stable situation is being unsettled by the exponential growth of English-medium teaching in many institutions and subject areas (Dalton-Puffer 2012: 101).

Thus, this section is going to provide an overview of experiences and research regarding EMI in various European countries. As discussed above, an exceptional growth in EMI programs across Europe could be observed in recent years. Wächter and Maiworm (2014: 48), for example, found an overall increase of almost 240 per cent since 2007. Solely concentrating on the postgraduate sector, Brenn-White and van Rest (2012: 7) identified a similar development when analysing the educational website MastersPortal. However, a clear distinction was discovered between smaller countries, for example in Scandinavia, where the majority of postgraduate courses is taught in English and larger countries such as Germany and France which only offer a small percentage of their postgraduate programmes in English (Brenn-White and van Rest 2012: 7).

Irrespective of a country's or region's number of EMI courses, a wide range of experiences from highly rewarding to more negative is reported in different studies. Starting with the Nordic countries, which are the undisputed 'EMI model students', these experiences will be presented for different parts of Europe; the South, Central Europe and Austria in particular.

3.4.1 Nordic universities: EMI pioneers and model students

Europe's Nordic countries are usually described as the most diligent pursuers of university internationalisation and English-medium teaching. Already in the 1950s Sweden and the Netherlands offered some EMI courses at tertiary education level (Coleman 2006: 6). At the beginning of the century, Nordic universities saw the benefits of introducing English as language of instruction in order to recruit international students and foster international cooperation (Hellekjaer and Westergaard 2003: 69). Interestingly, surveys showed that university staff did not have drastic language problems in this context, students, however, struggled somewhat more at first (Hellekjaer and Westergaard 2003: 73-75). Today, Finland and Sweden have the highest share of institutions which offer EMI programmes in Europe (Wächter and Maiworm 2014: 39).

As it is the case at most universities, English is much more used in Swedish postgraduate programmes than at lower levels, “although this is by no means problem-free” (Bolton and Kuteeva 2012: 443). One problematic aspect is the frequently fairly random nature of EMI implementation. Several Swedish university programmes include indications that courses will spontaneously be held in English if so required (Airey 2008: 153). A significant reason for Swedish universities to offer EMI courses is the presence of international students to the extent that “one overseas student can force a whole course originally taught in Swedish to be taught in English” (Airey 2012: 66). Airey attributed this approach to the fact that non-European students have been charged tuition fees for some years which has led to dwindling numbers. “[A]necdotal evidence suggests that if overseas students are forced to pay for their tuition then many would rather study in a fully English-speaking environment” (Airey 2012: 66).

Denmark is already following this trend, showing the highest proportion of university programmes fully taught in English (38%) and 12 per cent of its students enrolled in one of these programmes (Wächter and Maiworm 2014: 39). At undergraduate level, it still is common to teach in Danish with English being introduced in the final year. Reading materials, however, are frequently exclusively English irrespective of the language of instruction (Dimová and Kling 2015: 62). Despite the high percentage of EMI degrees, Danish universities do still experience very basic problems such as ensuring that the teaching staff has satisfying language skills in order to maintain a high quality of English-medium degrees and courses (Haarstrup 2008: 205). The University of Copenhagen, like many other institutions in northern Europe, addresses issues regarding language proficiency requirements of scientific staff with strategic policies (ibid.: 63-64). These policies include the language assessment for teaching and are now spreading beyond Scandinavia. As part of their language policies, Copenhagen introduced the TOEPAS (Test of Oral English Proficiency of Academic Staff), an assessment tool to verify “whether lecturers had the necessary English skills to cope with the communicative demands of teaching EMI courses” (Dimová and Kling 2015: 64).³ In their study on consequences of L2 use in university lectures Thøgersen and Airey (2011: 212) found that even a Danish lecturer with satisfying language skills takes significantly longer to deliver a presentation in English compared to Danish which is due to his speaking rate which is on average about 23 per cent slower in English. This, however, was not necessarily per-

³“A TOEPAS result is reported as an overall holistic score on a scale from 1 to 5, which is derived from analytic descriptors of the following criteria: fluency, pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar and interaction skills” (Dimová and Kling 2015: 65).

ceived as a problem since it might as well be a case of the lecturer accommodating to his students (ibid.: 214).

Despite Denmark's pioneer status and forward-looking approach, the increased use of English in university teaching is not welcomed by the whole of the society. Critics raise several points against current developments including the endangerment of the Danish language and supposedly poorer learning outcomes if both teacher and student are English non-native speakers (Jensen and Thøgersen 2011: 20–21). Regarding future developments in Denmark, Jensen and Thøgersen (2011: 30) predict a general change in attitude concerning EMI.

The change will come from two sides: more English-positive generations will replace more sceptical generations, and the general increase in the number of courses conducted in English will make teachers more comfortable using English, which again will lead to a more positive attitude (Jensen and Thøgersen 2011: 30).

Finally, EMI pioneers cannot be discussed without addressing the Netherlands' activities (which, for the purpose of this discussion, are counted as 'Nordic country'). EMI is deeply entrenched in the Dutch tertiary education system with, for example, Maastricht University (UM) has been offering EMI courses for almost three decades (Wilkinson 2008: 170). In addition, one can also find a comparatively long research history regarding different aspects of EMI programs. Vinke et al. studied the effects of EMI in 1998 and revealed that

a change of instructional language tends to reduce the redundancy of lecturers' subject matter presentation, lecturer's speech rate, their expressiveness, and their clarity and accuracy of expression (Vinke et al. 1998: 392).

As a result, they suggested a number of measures on how to facilitate a change of the teaching language without the loss of educational quality (Vinke et al. 1998: 392–393).

In the 21st century, Maastricht University is still an avid provider of EMI programmes since their “policy of internationalization [...] implies education through English. (Zegers and Wilkinson 2005: 1). Attempting the often lamented balancing act, Maastricht does, however, also “provide an important place for Dutch” by promoting introductory language courses for international students (van Leeuwen and Wilkinson 2003: 9). Since Maastricht can look back on a fairly long tradition regarding EMI, they have extensive experience and therefore seem to be particularly open towards innovative approaches and improvements. Hence, CLIL ideas are not a novelty there:

Our perspective entails the integration of content and language within academic education. In this way the bilingual construction can become feasible, without the language component becoming too expensive or too time-consuming (van Leeuwen and Wilkinson 2003: 8).

Still, like most other universities, Maastricht needs to ensure linguistic quality of its teaching staff. It tries to tackle the challenge predominantly by “recruiting competent teaching staff

from outside” and relying on a “pool of talent among PhD students” (Wilkinson 2008: 175) as well as internal and external evaluation processes (Wilkinson 2013: 17). In addition, the UM aims to put more focus on the language aspect of their EMI programmes in general, “which will range from actively upgrading lecturer and student language proficiency to letting the language aspect influence teaching and course design” (Hellekjaer and Wilkinson 2003: 90).

3.4.2 EMI in South Europe

Without aiming to serve prejudices, it must be said that universities in the South of Europe rank rather low when it comes to offering programmes or courses in English. According to Wächter and Maiworm (2014: 39) “[n]o remarkable differences can be observed between France, Portugal, Spain and Italy”, Cyprus, on the other hand has outstanding proportions of EMI programmes (26%). Doiz et al. (2011: 348) suggest sociolinguistic differences as reason why “southern European countries such as Italy, Greece and Spain have been slower off the mark” since “the presence of English is much greater in some countries than in others”. However, the rector of the Polytechnic University of Milan, for example, claims that a complete switch to English in teaching was “the only option for institutions such as his to retain Italy's best and brightest” (Williams 2013, <http://search.proquest.com/docview/1370714407?accountid=14682>, accessed 17 October 2014).

Generally, most of the research on EMI in South Europe is available from Spanish universities. Doiz et.al investigated the effects of internationalisation on the University of the Basque Country and how the university deals with linguistic strains. A significant problem exposed by the study, was the lack of support provided by the university authorities for EMI courses and programmes (Doiz et al. 2013: 1419). The university's administration personnel were particularly in favour of EMI because they considered it indispensable for students' employability and academic mobility (ibid.: 1414). Faculty and students, too, highly valued the offered EMI courses, although all three bodies complained about personal linguistic shortcomings. Therefore, students were happy to participate in EMI courses as they felt that “[j]ust one hour of English-medium instruction is worth three hours of English as a subject” (Doiz et al. 2013: 1414), an impression which is called into question by other studies (e.g. Symon and Weinberg 2015).

Many Spanish universities acknowledge the importance of implementing multilingual education, which usually means including English as teaching language. This is also the dominant opinion among lecturers at the Universitat Jaume I in Castelló/Valencia, although they appear doubtful and uncertain about the actual process of implementing EMI.

Some of the features depicted are common to many universities intending to introduce an additional language of instruction like the problems in language competence and the low self-esteem shown by some lecturers facing the challenge of teaching for the first time in another language; or the difficulties in collaborating with other lecturers due to different pedagogical strategies, a fact many teachers are unaware of (Fortanet-Gómez 2012: 61–62).

Dafouz et al. (2013) compared the performance of students attending the same courses both in English and Spanish at the Complutense University of Madrid. Their results showed that both cohorts received very similar overall marks as well as coursework assessments and exam grades (Dafouz et al. 2013: 232). This leads to the conclusion that “the use of English as language of instruction does not seem to have a negative effect on students’ academic performance” (ibid.).

3.4.3 EMI in Central Europe and Austria

According to Wächter and Maiworm (2014: 39-40) Central Europe, including countries such as Austria, Germany, Switzerland and Hungary, is overall in middle-range regarding the number of EMI courses and institutions offering them. The decision to introduce international study programmes with not German but English as primary language of instruction was somewhat criticised within Germany at the beginning of the century (Ammon and McConnell 2002: 5). Today, about 43 per cent of tertiary level education providers offer EMI programmes, still only 6 per cent of all programmes are completely in English (Wächter and Maiworm 2014: 40). In Central Eastern Europe Hungary leads the ranking with 35 per cent of all universities offering English-taught programmes. Despite a considerable enthusiasm regarding the matter, institutions struggled in the beginning with the sudden expansion of EMI, particularly in terms of teacher preparation (Kurtán 2003: 146-147).

At the end of the 1990s, internationalisation in higher education was also recognised as a matter of central importance in Austria; still, explicitly internationalised curricula were sparse (Pellert 1999: 32). It was around that time when responsible parties realized that “‘German only’ is no longer a realistic option” (de Cilla and Schweiger 2001: 381). De Cilla and Schweiger’s survey from the late 1990s revealed that

Without doubt English is used as a language of instruction at Austrian universities, albeit on a very small scale. In most cases adequate language policies are practically non-existent (de Cilla and Schweiger 2001: 373).⁴

⁴ Some awareness developed over the preceding decade. In 2015, a B2 level in German is demanded for the enrolment for Bachelor and Diploma programmes at the University of Vienna, while numerous Master’s and PhD programmes set individual language requirements, mostly English (Student Point - University of Vienna, <http://studentpoint.univie.ac.at/zum-studium/>, accessed 10 June 2015).

Despite developing some linguistic flexibility, Austria's higher education sector still does not have a clear rationale yet and it can still be said for the majority of institutions that

no comprehensive plans in that direction, but rather a number of uncoordinated initiatives on the level of specific subject matters and individual efforts by the teaching personnel (Ammon and McConnell 2002: 34).

Like all over Europe, the extent to which English is introduced as language of teaching in Austrian higher education depends on the subject area. Already 15 years ago a clear distinction was visible between traditionally Anglophone and non-Anglophone disciplines (de Cilla and Schweiger 2001: 373- 375). Nevertheless, even rather English-savvy disciplines such as mathematics claimed an unquestioned necessity of classes to be taught in German (de Cilla and Schweiger 2001: 382).

It appears rather indicative that, when investigating Austria in their survey of the use of English in European university teaching, Ammon and McConnell found that “[t]here is no comprehensive overview available, but only bits and pieces of information” (Ammon and McConnell 2002: 34). This problematic situation regarding EMI at Austrian institutions of higher education still does not seem to be resolved; nonetheless, several institutions have found useful approaches for themselves to how to tackle the increasing demand and necessity of English-taught programmes and courses.

In 2011, Tatzl published a paper on EMI Masters' programmes at a university of applied sciences in Styria. This questionnaire study is very relevant to this project and will be referred to on occasion since it is the only publication found which also concerns itself with this particular type of institution of tertiary education. The FH Joanneum met the challenge of English-taught programmes and courses by assigning an English language trainer with faculty status to the respective departments in order to facilitate the cooperation between language and content teachers (Tatzl 2011: 253). On the whole, teachers and students at the FH Joanneum are very much in favour of EMI. Among the most commonly mentioned reasons are once again “the global employability of students and the international attractiveness of the degree programmes”. Students also said to benefit in the form of linguistic improvement. Still, all parties involved claimed that teaching and learning in English respectively is a very demanding endeavour which, particularly for the students, increases the workload of a course (Tatzl 2011: 262–263). On the positive side, people's perceived need for support in English-medium courses was found to be more reduced than expected (Tatzl 2011: 263). In conclusion, in order to facilitate the future implementation of EMI in university settings, Tatzl recommends a focus on the three levels relevant to lecturers and students: institutional, departmental, and individual.

More recently, Unterberger (2012) and Vogler (2014) investigated the role of English in teaching at Austrian universities. Unterberger focussed on Austrian business faculties and how they design and implement their EMI programmes. As is frequently the case across Europe (cf. Wächter and Maiworm 2014: 59), no Bachelor's programmes are offered entirely in English. In this particular context, it can be presumed that this may be an attempt not to attract too many international students in order to combat severe overcrowding due to the absence of entrance restrictions and tuition fees (Unterberger 2012: 84-85). Still, English-medium business programmes are becoming more common on the Master's level. Between 2009 and 2012 a veritable boom could be detected which most likely is related to the official launch to the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) in 2010 (Unterberger 2012: 85).

Interestingly, the findings, especially at the University of Economics and Business (WU) reveal fairly different opinions and approaches compared to related studies across Europe. Regarding the motivation for introducing EMI programmes, for example, the directors of studies responded somewhat differently, stating that the introduction of English was, "on the one hand, a direct consequence of the very specific foci of their programmes and, on the other, a necessity to achieve the high standards of academic excellence they pursue" (Unterberger 2012: 89). A number of the EMI classes themselves, surprisingly, include some explicit language learning aims, most frequently enhancing presentation, discussion and negotiation skills as well as improving academic reading and writing. This clearly contradicts widespread assumptions which claim language to be a mere vehicle for content teaching (Unterberger 2012: 93). Furthermore, in contrast to previous findings, interviews with program managers at the University of Economics and Business revealed that they feel that teaching in English is a natural choice and does not increase their workload at all. Quite the contrary, due to the main body of literature on their subjects being published in English, lecturing in German required more effort (Unterberger 2012: 94). Finally, considering teachers' language skills, interviews with lecturers also revealed

a socio-cultural particularity about the Austrian context in which the expertise of a renowned university professor stands in direct relation to his or her language competence. In other words, questioning the teachers' language competence would also mean challenging their professional knowledge (Unterberger 2012: 97):

Most recently, Vogler (2014) conducted a case study as part of his diploma thesis, combining questionnaires and interviews at the Faculty of Chemistry at the University of Vienna. At this faculty, EMI currently appears to be an issue only relevant "if exchange students or teachers without sufficient German-language skills are present in a course" (Vogler 2014: 83). Nonetheless, among students growing awareness regarding the necessity of a good command of

English for employability reasons was revealed. For this purpose “[m]any of them are [...] in favour of using more English in their study programmes both in form of English-medium teaching and extra language courses” (Vogler 2014: 83). Still, as it is frequently the case, EMI is introduced somewhat unplanned and merely as reaction to certain circumstances. In addition, language, neither German nor English, is never directly addressed as an issue in the courses (Vogler 2014: 85).

This overview revealed a wide range of opinions and assumptions on EMI at universities across Europe. Most of these findings are related to different groups involved in the process of planning, introducing and executing English-taught courses and programmes. The focus of the empirical part of this project will be on one of these parties, namely the content lecturers, and in particular their beliefs on internationalisation and English-medium instruction. Therefore, the following brief chapter shall discuss why it is relevant to investigate the topic from this point of view and which angles may be considered.

4. Investigating teachers' beliefs on internationalisation and EMI

Since the focus of the empirical part of this project lies on lecturers' beliefs and opinions regarding internationalisation and EMI, this section provides a rationale on why it actually is a worthwhile area of investigation and some insights into what previous research has contributed.

Teachers or lecturers have a particular position at an institution of higher education. Their profession puts them right in the middle of the university 'hierarchy' with students 'below' them and faculty directors as well as university boards and rectorate 'above' them. Therefore, they are usually aware of the struggles and experiences of all stakeholders. Generally, it can also be said that "[t]eaching is the activity where new scientific developments are made understandable in content and their consequences for the educated public are explained" (Ammon and McConnell 2002: 25). Within the university, lecturers are arguably "the central social agents for educational policies to become reality; their beliefs should thus be heard and taken into consideration" (Fortanet-Gómez 2012: 60). Beliefs, in this context, may be understood as "propositions individuals consider to be true and which are often tacit, have a strong evaluative and affective component, provide a basis for action and are resistant to change" (Borg 2011: 370-71). A more inclusive view suggests that

beliefs are lay theories of teachers and learners and constitute the complex cluster of intuitive, subjective knowledge about the nature of language, language use and language learning, taking into account both cognitive and social dimensions, as well as cultural assumptions (Hüttner et al. 2013: 269).

As such, beliefs have an influence on teachers' behaviour, particularly in the classroom and addressing these pre-existing assumptions plays a central role when attempting to implement changes as it the case with internationalisation policies as well as EMI (Hüttner et al. 2013: 269-270).

It has already been discussed that the introduction of English as language of instruction has a certain potential for conflict. However, lecturers are again especially affected since teaching in a second language "has a direct impact on the most important tool in any teacher's toolkit – language – and has significant implications for the core of a teacher's professional self" (Moate 2011: 344). More specifically, "subject- matter teaching in English transgresses well-established disciplinary and system-inherent borders creating considerable insecurities along the way" (Dalton-Puffer 2012: 102).

At the end of the 20th century, the effects that the introduction of a different language of instruction, mostly English, had on university lecturers had hardly been investigated (Vinke et al. 1998: 385). Today, a number of studies with different approaches provide an insight into

lecturers' EMI experience, using either questionnaires (e.g. Jensen and Thøgersen 2011, Wilkinson 2005), interviews (e.g. Airey 2012), a combination of both (e.g. Vogler 2014, Airey 2011) or additional methods such as group discussions (e.g. Doiz et al. 2013). Irrespective of research focus and methodology the findings generally can be classified according to how positively or negatively the EMI experience was evaluated (Dafouz et al. 2013: 225).

Overall, results of studies concerning lecturers' beliefs and experiences often present a mix of positive, neutral and negative findings. Airey (2011: 43–48) identified nine dominant themes when analysing questionnaires and interviews about lecturers' experiences with EMI:

1. [having to teach first EMI course on] Short notice.
2. No training [for teaching in English].
3. More preparation [needed for EMI].
4. Less detail [in English presentations].
5. Less flexibility [in EMI courses].
6. Less fluency [when teaching in English].
7. No correction [of students' English].
8. Few differences [compared to teaching in their native language].
9. Confidence boost [from tackling EMI challenge].

Relatable findings can also be observed when studying EMI at a university of applied sciences in Austria, where the following hypothesis were broadly confirmed by lecturers' and students' answers.

- Teachers and students generally favour English-medium instruction.
- Teachers and students believe that English-medium instruction promotes students' linguistic skills.
- Teachers and students feel that English-medium instruction increases their workload.
- Teachers and students feel that English-medium instruction poses linguistic challenges to them.
- Teachers feel that English-medium instruction has impacts on course contents. (Tatzl 2011: 262–263)

In the context of problematic implementation issues and the general necessity of EMI at university, Jensen and Thøgersen (2011: 26) found that, on the whole, lecturers at the University of Copenhagen are in favour of increasing the number of EMI courses in order to attract more international students and academics and that Danish will, in the long run, disappear as technical language in their field. They are, however, convinced that Danish researchers must also disseminate their findings in Danish and that “students learn best when they are taught through their mother tongue” (ibid.). Airey suggests that in certain subjects the enthusiasm for EMI also depends on factors such as the size and educational focus of a university. In his study on physics lecturers he observed that

[L]ecturers in the smaller universities seemed to see their students as future teachers or engineers, whilst those in the larger universities seemed to view their students exclusively as future physicists [...]. This division led to lecturers at the larger universities

using a larger proportion of English language disciplinary materials due to an emphasis on physics for the academy (Airey 2012: 71).

Regarding negative experiences, already in one of the first studies on teachers' beliefs and experiences, Vinke et al. (1998: 391) encountered the issue of "an increased workload in terms of preparation time and (mental) energy". A number of more recent studies have shown EMI courses to still be much more effort for non-native English speaking lecturers than teaching in their native languages (e.g. Airey 2011, Doiz et al. 2011, Doiz et al. 2013). Doiz et al. (2011: 353) even encountered participants who refused to teach in English because it was "too much of a mess". There are, however, also lecturers who firmly deny any increase of their workload due to L2 teaching, which surely depends on several factors such as the respective subject area or the course type. Those lecturers who decide to tackle the messy challenge of EMI often do not feel the need to change their general style of teaching but simply change their language of instruction (e.g. Wilkinson 2005, <http://www.palmenia.helsinki.fi/congress/bilingual2005/presentations/wilkinson.pdf>, accessed 25 February 2015). In the same paper, Wilkinson also reveals that teaching staff feel that EMI does have a negative impact on the quality of the content as well as the general execution of a course, including time management, coursework design and feedback.

Besides increased workload, a recurring issue involves content lecturers' denial of language teaching or learning responsibility. This usually refers to the English language, though some of Airey's (2012: 64) study participants even extended this to all language skills, including disciplinary L1 knowledge, i.e. Swedish. The physics lecturers he interviewed uniformly believed not to teach language, except the technical 'language' of mathematics (Airey 2012: 71-75). This could be linked to what Bernstein (1999: 162) refers to as the 'hierarchical knowledge structure' of natural sciences which mostly aim to integrate new knowledge into already existing structures aiming at the creation of general theories which include lower level knowledge. Therefore, content lecturers from this area often place minor importance on language since they do not expect disciplinary knowledge to change only because the language of instruction is altered (Airey 2012: 76). But even if this approach is assumed, it remains problematic that the teachers' own language skills frequently are not beyond question. While some lecturers seem to be rather generous with the evaluation of their own language skills (Gnutzmann and Bruns 2008: 15), others are more insecure and welcome language support offered by some universities, as one interviewee in Airey's study (2011: 40) puts it: "I have the knowledge of the subject – but the English is 'homemade'!".

Ending on an important competence-related note, this section aimed to underline the relevance of investigating lecturer's beliefs but it also affirmed the fact that EMI and internationalisation issues are highly complex topics and that

[i]t is possible to be “sceptical” towards English when it comes to certain aspects of the debate, [...], and still be “positive” towards English when it comes to internationalisation (Jensen and Thøgersen 2011: 30).

Having completed a comprehensive survey of relevant theoretical concepts and previous investigations, the following chapter shall now introduce the actual case study of this thesis. To begin with, the two major types of higher education providers in Austria, traditional universities and universities of applied sciences will be distinguished.

5. Case study: The FH Campus Wien

5.1 Universities of applied sciences vs. traditional universities

Until now, the distinction between traditional universities and universities of applied sciences was somewhat taken for granted in this paper. For the analysis, and especially discussion in the empirical part, it is, however, very important to clearly define both types of institution and establish in how far they differ regarding their background, ideologies and aims. This chapter shall provide some insight into two different approaches to tertiary education, but detailed descriptions of organisation and structure will only be included to the extent of their relevance to the present discussion.

Prior to the introduction of universities of applied sciences (*Fachhochschulen*, i.e. FHs) in Austria, a decline in relevance of the term *Bildung*, referring to (more theoretical) education, in favour of *Ausbildung*, i.e. vocational training or professional education could be observed. The latter particularly emphasises the economic and society-compliant usability of university graduates' knowledge (Dieterstorfer 2008: 104). In response to these requirements, and in order to prepare Austria for its EU accession in 1995, the first Austrian FH was founded in 1993. The development of this new sector was characterised by a distinct bottom-up approach. All study programmes were newly founded; none were adaptations, as it was of central importance to offer innovative education at tertiary level (Unger et al. 2005: 10). The accompanying innovative legislation was considered very lean and therefore offered possibilities for entrepreneurial endeavours, an approach largely absent from Austrian higher education until then (Unger et al. 2005: 9). The new university type had already existed in other EU countries but was particularly well-accepted in Austria and expanded quickly (studieren.at, *Fachhochschulen in Österreich - Ein Überblick*, <http://www.studieren.at/fachhochschulen>, accessed 18 March 2015).

Regarding the study contents and structure, but also the organisation, FHs are considerably different from the traditional, public universities. Universities usually offer a primarily academic education with a strong focus on theory and research. FHs, on the other hand, generally place more importance on career-oriented and job-related contents (studieren.at, *Die verschiedenen Hochschulformen in Österreich - Ein Überblick*, <http://www.studieren.at/verschiedene-hochschulformen>, accessed 12 March 2015). Traditional non-private universities depend on government money which leads to increasing struggles with under-funding. FHs rely on private investors, usually an association or private foundation which receives supplementary public funding. In addition, most FHs make use of their right to demand tuition fees. The more entrepreneurially-oriented position of FHs also becomes obvious through the fact

that students actually have to sign an education contract with the provider (studieren.at, *Fachhochschulen in Österreich - Ein Überblick*, <http://www.studieren.at/fachhochschulen>, accessed 18 March 2015). Studying at an FH means following more rigid structures with much less individual freedom and flexibility. For example, while universities allow students to start their studies also at the beginning of the summer semester, enrolment at FHs is only possible in autumn. On the other hand, FHs frequently offer a number of part-time programmes which facilitates the arrangement of working and studying (Feucht and Friesl 2014: 79). Contrary to traditional (public) universities, where hardly any admission restrictions are in place, study places at FHs are limited and the number of beginners of a programme is set by the Agency for Quality Assurance and Accreditation (AQ Austria). In case of a surplus of applications, entrance exams are held.

Due to the rigid, more ‘school-like’ and less self-reliant organisation of FH programmes, sceptical voices have described the FH sector as “school system for 20-year-olds” where diligent clerks are raised instead of independently-thinking, responsible people who aim for leading positions (Dieterstorfer 2008: 104). Other criticise such statements, claiming that a tighter structure and more school-like approach increases the level of care with which students plan their study year as well as students’ and lecturers’ mutual responsibility for study success (Pechar and Pellert 2004: 324).

Through the introduction of the Bologna system, the university and FH system have become more similar over the last decades. Yet their core approaches to higher education and learning cultures still differ considerably. Despite the re-structuring of public university education due to the Bologna process, students are still required to organise their timetables on their own and study independently (studieren.at, *Universitäten in Österreich - Ein Überblick*, <http://www.studieren.at/universitaeten>, accessed 18 March 2015). However, in some areas a change is noticeable; for example, the manager of a German accreditation agency claims a more practical approach particularly in the humanities (Mersch and Fricke 2008, <http://www.spiegel.de/unispiegel/studium/uni-contra-fachhochschule-wo-studiert-man-besser-a-577419.html>, accessed 12 March 2015). Another significant characteristic of traditional universities is their strong focus on research and academic discourse which is inseparably linked to teaching. As a result, it is of central importance for students to acquire sound analytical argumentation and critical thinking skills. Furthermore, studies at university are commonly more theoretical and lecturers teach more detailed and profound contents rather than giving broad overviews (studieren.at, *Universitäten in Österreich - Ein Überblick*, <http://www.studieren.at/universitaeten>, accessed 18 March 2015). It is no secret that the Bo-

logna process did “‘attack’ many culturally ingrown habits and concepts of higher education’ (Pechar and Pellert 2004: 328). It appears that this change of focus from teaching to learning was much less problematic for the younger institution than the time-honoured university (ibid.).

The practical approach of FHs with the aim of a science-based professional education is explicitly stated in the FH studies act (§3 Abs 1 FHStG) (Brünner 2004: 25). Another particularly valuable aspect of an FH education is the compulsory internship which every student has to complete (Brünner 2004: 33). FHs also concentrate increasingly on research. However, it is not surprising that they follow more applied methods and place particular importance on quick implementation and sustainability in industry and society (Kastner 2014: 204). This practice-oriented approach, in connection with a close cooperation with the economy is regarded as a promising formula for business success (ibid.: 211).

A study among graduates of the different institutions showed that common assumptions are also backed up by individual student perceptions. Thus, 73 per cent of university graduates felt that self-study played a significant role during their studies, but only 49 per cent of FH graduates did so. On the other hand, 86 per cent of former FH students found team projects to constitute a central part of their degree, while solely 48 per cent of university graduates agreed (Schomburg 2014: 101). The limited relevance of profound theoretical and methodological knowledge in favour of practical usability may also hold a disadvantage for FH graduates if they decide to switch to a traditional university for a PhD programme. Frequently, they do not have a clear understanding of the requirements of a PhD and struggle considerably with methodology (Dieterstorfer 2008: 102–103).

Outside of the academic world, differing information can be found on the career prospects, employer satisfaction and earning power of university graduates compared their FH colleagues. Clearly, the most typical characteristic of an FH education is its practical and specialised orientation. In the past, this was also the most commonly stated reason for the high satisfaction of graduates and potential employers (Brünner 2004: 34). Schwindsackl’s 2011 (p. 168) study investigated communication degrees at different Austrian universities and FHs and could confirm common assumptions regarding the two institutions. While students felt that studying communication at an FH equipped them with more practically-oriented skills, the general view was that central qualifications such as independence and proactive working methods are acquired more successfully at university. Due to the closeness to the job market and the practice-oriented nature of their education, it is assumed that FH graduates appear to have less troubles with integrating themselves into the world of work, also because many are

already working while studying part-time (Schmid 2014: 96). A survey among several thousand graduates in Austria revealed that 82 per cent of FH graduates felt that they completed a career-oriented degree which prepared them well for the job market, only 23 per cent of graduates from traditional universities agreed with this statement (Schomburg 2014: 101). Indeed, according to the 2012 statistics provided by the Austrian Public Employment Service (AMS), merely 0.7 per cent of FH graduates are registered as unemployed while it is 4.3 per cent among university graduates (Feucht and Friesl 2014: 79). It has to be kept in mind, though, that FHs do not offer any heavily theory-based or more abstract subjects such as philosophy or literature which are traditionally much more difficult to apply in an economically-oriented job market.

The significant practical orientation of FHs can also have negative effects, if, for example, only the current job market is considered and not enough thought is given to future societal and economic demands (Brünner 2004: 36). Another problematic issue for FHs is that for quite some time their graduates were considered as second-rate academics who met considerable resistance from potential employers, the economy, and particularly the public service (Dieterstorfer 2008: 109). Contrary to Brünner's claims above, it appears that for many graduates the FHs could not keep their promise of easy integration into the job market. In certain areas such as engineering, graduates from traditional universities were still preferred by employers a few years ago. A probable explanation for this could be the highly specialised education of FH students, which may limit their ability to look beyond the horizon and think critically (Eder 2009, <http://derstandard.at/1246541893282/Studie-Uni--gegenueber-FH-Absolventen-im-Vorteil>, accessed 12 March 2015). A 2014 newspaper article also identified a slight advantage in terms of salary for graduates of university Diploma and PhD programmes. Regarding BA and MA students, however, there is no noticeable income gap between university and FH, except for degrees in technical subjects where university graduates earn marginally more (Wiener Zeitung 2014, http://www.wienerzeitung.at/themen_channel/bildung/uni/636992_Kaum-Gehaltsunterschiede-zwischen-FH-und-Uni-Absolventen.html, accessed 12 March 2015). Other sources, in contrast, claim a significant advantage for FH graduates in terms of income, naming them the clear top earners among all graduates of institutions of higher education, with 46 per cent earning over 2.400 Euros per month (Aigner 2012, http://diepresse.com/home/bildung/universitaet/1259500/Arbeitsmarkt_FH-Absolventen-haben-bessere-Chancen, accessed 12 March 2015). A recent investigation, however, revealed that university graduates still make more money, with the exception for graduates of FH MA programmes in economics who, with three to five years' work experience, earn the same

amount or even more than university graduates (Ostermann 2014, <http://derstandard.at/1389860169112/Was-Uni--und-FH-Absolventen-verdienen>, accessed 12 March 2015).

Regarding the important topic of internationalisation, there does not seem to be a considerably different approach at universities or FHs. Some traditional universities already experienced a veritable but less organised internationalisation boost in the 1990s (cf. Ludescher and Waxenegger 1999). Nowadays, the University of Vienna, for example, has clearly outlined internationalisation goals (University of Vienna 2014: 6, also see section 2.2.4 of this thesis). Other relevant factors in this context are the size of the respective university and the field of study concerned. Internationalisation was not explicitly included goal when FHs were introduced in the early nineties, but an implicit focus existed due to the institution's orientation towards the job market (Werner 2014: 167). Commentators on FH education claimed in the past that, despite its undoubted necessity, the institution as such does not support unlimited internationalisation due to the tight structure and the job-oriented nature of the programmes. In addition, the high number of part-time students often does not favour stays abroad or similar international ventures (Brünner 2004: 55). Still, about ten years ago, a first strong demand for internationalisation of FHs could be observed. The previously emphasised regionality of FH education has increasingly moved to the background over the last years, in favour of new, more internationalised objectives. Thereby, problems with the recruitment of qualified teaching staff and inscrutable niche politics could also be tackled (Brünner 2004: 52–53).

Without a doubt, both tertiary education providers have specific characteristics which make them “Kinder des Zeitgeistes” (‘children of the spirit of the time’), i.e. are justifiable by the different times in which they developed (Dieterstorfer 2008: 104). Despite their often somewhat competitive past, traditional universities and universities of applied sciences need to find their respective niches in the current tertiary education market, since it appears unlikely that they will evolve into identical institutions (Dieterstorfer 2008: 117). Nonetheless, it remains to be seen if, as a result of the demands of the economically-oriented knowledge society one of the two will gain the upper hand in this higher education rivalry.

5.2 The FH Campus Wien: general information on the site of the study



Figure 1 Logo of the FH Campus Wien (registered word-image trademark)

It was already mentioned that universities of applied sciences are still scarcely investigated in the context of teacher beliefs, English-medium instruction and internationalisation. Only one similar case study could be found in the research

process, Tatzl's 2011 article on 'attitudes, experiences and challenges' regarding English-medium masters' programmes at the FH Joanneum in Styria. Relevant findings from this, and other, studies will be picked up in the discussion part of this thesis in order to draw parallels and reveal possible differences to the findings at the site of this case study, the FH Campus Wien.

The FH Campus Wien is indeed a very worthwhile site for investigating beliefs and reactions regarding the internationalisation of higher education and the introduction of EMI. It was founded in 2004 and, with over 5,000 students, it is the biggest university of applied sciences in Austria.⁵ This rather young but highly successful tertiary education provider finds itself at the beginning of its internationalisation process, which allows observing and analysing early ideas, approaches and developments. In addition, comparisons to other studies will also provide interesting insights into how the FH Campus Wien is approaching the issue.

On the whole, the FH is clearly extremely motivated when it comes to tackling the challenges of internationalising their institution in connection with offering more EMI courses. This increased enthusiasm for EMI and, more recently, additional English language support for students and teachers is associated by most members of the FH with the election of the current rector Arthur Mettinger, a professor of English studies himself and former member of the English Department at the University of Vienna. In 2012, he replaced the first rector Heinz Schmidt who had presided the institution since 2004 when it was granted the status of 'University of Applied Sciences' (*Fachhochschule*) (FH Campus Wien. *Chronologie - FH Campus Wien*. <https://www.fh-campuswien.ac.at/fh-campus-wien/die-fh-campus-wien-im-fokus/chronologie.html>, accessed 21 March 2015). As is often the case with FHs, the range of programmes and courses increased continuously over the years and the current study offer of the FH Campus Wien includes 25 Bachelor and 16 Master degree programmes as well as nine Master degree programmes for advanced professional training. These pro-

⁵The total number of students at universities of applied sciences in Austria has been steadily increasing over the last years and was just over 45,500 in the academic year 2013/14. In comparison, more than 300,000 students were enrolled at traditional public and private universities (Statistik Austria 2014, http://www.statistik.at/web_de/statistiken/menschen_und_gesellschaft/bildung_und_kultur/formales_bildungswesen/universitaeten_studium/index.html, accessed 10 July 2015)

grammes are situated at six departments: Applied Life Sciences, Building and Design, Health, Public Sector, Social Work, and Engineering (FH Campus Wien. *Studien- und Weiterbildungsangebot - FH Campus Wien*. <https://www.fh-campuswien.ac.at/studium/studien-und-weiterbildungsangebot.html>, accessed 21 March 2015).

Regarding their mission statement, the university provides a very characteristic approach to tertiary education. In the style of a marketised university in a neo-liberal environment key terms such as ‘entrepreneurially managed university’ and ‘future-oriented study programmes’ are important slogans. In addition, the frequently discussed asset of providing a career-oriented as well as science-based education is also emphasised. This, as well as the cooperation with other universities and, in particular, businesses in combination with a strong focus on research and development serves the aim of enabling graduates to “perform innovatively in their professional fields” (FH Campus Wien. *Leitbild - FH Campus Wien*. <https://www.fh-campuswien.ac.at/fh-campus-wien/die-fh-campus-wien-im-fokus/leitbild.html>, accessed 21 March 2015). As an enterprise, the FH Campus Wien has also set out general guidelines which are meant to describe the university’s central beliefs and intentions: strategic business areas, freedom of academic teaching, multi-disciplinary university, active incorporation, respectful interaction, diversity, health, environmental sustainability (ibid.).

Following this general introduction to the site of the case study, the following section of the thesis will introduce the research outline for the empirical part including background and aims of the project as well as the methodology used. Afterwards, the current role of internationalisation and EMI at the FH Campus Wien will be defined and first pieces of original research presented.

5.3 Research outline

5.3.1 Background and aims

As argued above, the FH Campus Wien proves very worthwhile for investigation due to its current position in the internationalisation process. Furthermore, previous studies predominantly concerned themselves with traditional universities, which makes an FH an interesting addition. It was also already established why lecturers were chosen to be investigated. The data collected will be integrated in a larger, European-wide project on teacher beliefs regarding internationalisation and EMI in tertiary education conducted by Ute Smit in cooperation with several other researchers (cf. Dafouz et al. 2014).

For the investigation of teacher beliefs and a more general discussion of internationalisation and EMI at the FH Campus Wien, it was decided to focus on findings from semi-structured interviews, but also to combine them with other sources of information (see 5.3.2.2). In this context a qualitative approach appears to be most appropriate since

almost every aspect of language acquisition and use is determined or significantly shaped by social, cultural, and situational factors, and qualitative research is ideal for providing insights into such contextual conditions and influences (Dörnyei 2007: 36).

Furthermore,

[q]ualitative research is concerned with subjective opinions, experiences and feelings of individuals and thus the explicit goal of research is to explore the participants' views of the situation being studied (Dörnyei 2007: 38).

Following Hüttner et al. (2013: 269), a fairly inclusive definition of the term ‘beliefs’ was applied in this project, understanding them as “lay theories” consisting of “complex cluster of intuitive, subjective knowledge about the nature of language, language use and language learning, taking into account both cognitive and social dimensions, as well as cultural assumptions”. Additionally, it must also be kept in mind that beliefs “have a strong evaluative and affective component” and “provide a basis for action and are resistant to change” (Borg 2003: 370).

As it is often the case with qualitative research, this project has a very emergent character, i.e. “no aspect of research design is tightly prefigured, the study is kept open and fluid so it can respond in a flexible way to new details or openings” and the “research focus is narrowed down only gradually and the analytic categories/concepts are defined during, rather than prior to, the process of the research” (Dörnyei 2007: 37). After a brief general research and reading phase, the primary data collection process, i.e. the interviews, was completed within several weeks. Hence, it was, on the whole, possible to “enter the research process with a completely open mind and without setting out to test preconceived hypotheses” (ibid.). Only after gathering the data, elaborate literature research and extensive reading of previous studies was done, followed by the conception of a structure for the thesis and the completion of the first, theoretical part. Subsequently, the analysis of the previously conducted interviews was performed and finally the theory part revised in order to guarantee the inclusion of all relevant concepts.

The most relevant themes identified will be presented later, but obviously, the general aim was to investigate lecturers’ beliefs and experiences regarding the internationalisation of their university and the increasing introduction of EMI courses in connection with potential merits, problems and student experiences.

One characteristic feature of qualitative studies is their emergent nature and therefore QUAL research purposes and questions are often inevitably vaguer than their QUAN counterparts. Instead of describing a specific issue or problem, the research purpose often contains only the specification of a situated phenomenon or a central idea that will be explored with the aim of developing new insights and possibly forming a theory in the end (Dörnyei 2007: 74).

Hence, due to the nature of qualitative research, no concise, clear-cut research question could be formulated but rather broad areas of interest were defined as follows:

1. What are the dominant beliefs of lecturers of EMI courses at the FH Campus Wien regarding internationalisation (in general and regarding their university) and EMI (in general and regarding their university)?
2. Are beliefs/experiences mostly of a positive, negative or neutral nature? - Do lecturers at the FH perceive internationalisation and EMI as positive/necessary or negative/useless? - Is the (increasing) introduction of EMI valued or condemned? - Is there too much/too little/just the right amount done regarding internationalising the university?
3. Are there differences to previous findings (mostly from traditional universities) in Austria and Europe? - Are there any/Which appear to be characteristic features of universities of applied sciences in this context?

5.3.2 Methodology

5.3.2.1 Semi-structured interviews

The main body of original data for this project stems from seven interviews conducted with lecturers of EMI courses at the FH Campus Wien in autumn 2014. The main aim was to elicit lecturers' beliefs and experiences regarding internationalisation of higher education and EMI. The semi-structured format was chosen because it consists of a clear outline of topics as well as guiding questions to direct the interviewees' thoughts and ideas while at the same time "the interviewee is encouraged to elaborate on the issues raised in an exploratory manner" (Dörnyei 2007: 136). Semi-structured interviews are frequently preferred by qualitative researchers in applied linguistics (e.g. Vogler 2014, Unterberger 2012, Airey 2012) due to their open-ended nature which is "hoped to support self-reflection" (Moate 2011: 335). In addition, this form of interview is also considered appropriate

for cases when the researcher has a good enough overview of the phenomenon or domain in question and is able to develop broad questions about the topic in advance but does not want to use ready-made response categories that would limit the depth and breadth of the respondent's story. This format therefore needs an 'interview guide' which has to be made and piloted in advance (ibid.).

The interview guide used for this project was kindly provided by Ute Smit who had used it before in the course of a European-wide project on teacher beliefs. It was therefore considered well-piloted. For this project an additional German version of the guide was also prepared since several participants understandably preferred to be interviewed in their native language. Both the English and German version can be found in the appendix. The interview guide consists of four sections

- Personal background
- Internationalisation & language management
- Teaching and learning in EMI
- Views on the integration of content and language

Each of these parts includes five to six questions of varying complexity, some with sub-questions. The first section is designed as a kind of introduction into the interview, asking for participants' professional background, teaching experience and language skills. The following part deals with internationalisation of higher education in general as well as the FH's particular approach and strategies. In the third section the lecturers are required to think about their teaching in English as well as their students' learning in English. Also, their experiences in EMI compared to teaching a subject in German are elicited. The final section of the interview asks for the lecturers' views on the tricky issue of integrating content and language in a course. It has to be clarified at this point that this last part will not be explicitly addressed in the subsequent analysis section as it concerns a somewhat different research context and theoretical background. In addition, keeping the limited scope of this thesis in mind, it was decided to prioritise an investigation of views directly related to the site of the study. Some questions and answers will be considered if they fit into the category system developed, however, implications for CLIL will not be discussed.

5.3.2.2 Additional sources

In addition to the interview transcripts, some other material also proved highly useful for the development of the empirical part of this thesis. As recommended by Dörnyei (2007: 76) a research journal was kept during the data collection phase in order to note down any observations and considerations which might emerge as valuable additions to the project. Apart from random ideas that came to mind during the day and notes from informal talks with employees of the FH Campus Wien, the most important part of the journal includes the input received at a meeting with Oxford University Press. The publishing company is increasingly interested in offering support for EMI lecturers at university level and therefore sent a delegation on a re-

search trip to different European institutions of higher education. On the 11th March 2015 a meeting was arranged at the FH to collect some opinions and impressions from members of the teaching staff who already had experience with EMI. Representatives of different departments were present and after a brief introduction of the FH's current projects regarding internationalisation and EMI, a very productive discussion among staff and the OUP delegation arose. The input from this discussion was mainly concerned with professional experiences of lecturers who taught their courses in English, however, some interesting and partly personal opinions on internationalisation and teaching in general could also be captured.

Another valuable source for the discussion below and particularly for the outline of the internationalisation processes at the FH Campus Wien was a survey conducted in cooperation with Dr. Andrea Zimpernik, head of the 'Language Center'. Curiously, prior to the present project, no information could be found on how many and which courses at the university were actually taught in English. Although it was of great interest to the International Office as well as the Language Center, no comprehensive list was available. As a result, Dr. Zimpernik kindly agreed to send out an Excel table to the different departments requesting for information from the different study programmes on the number and content of the EMI courses held. The final list was not only very useful to my investigation of the FH's internationalisation and EMI strategies but was also welcomed by the university itself.

Lastly, it has to be briefly mentioned that the internet website of the FH Campus Wien was also used to a certain extent for this project. It provided valuable insight into how the institution would like their approach to internationalisation to be perceived by the public. However, when this image was compared to the views elicited from the interviews, occasional contradictions or inconsistencies were exposed.

5.3.2.3 Qualitative content analysis

[T]he research outcome is ultimately the product of the researcher's subjective interpretation of the data (Dörnyei 2007: 38).

At the centre of the empirical part of this thesis stands the qualitative analysis of the content of afore mentioned seven interviews. Compared to quantitative research, the amount of data analysed in this project seems rather limited, however, the iterative nature of a qualitative approach, featuring the several coding and re-coding cycles as well as intermediate interpretations allows the maximum extraction of meaning from the data (Dörnyei 2007: 243). A significant strength of content analysis is that the data is split into manageable units which then are analysed step-by-step. Central to this process is a carefully developed category system which specifies the relevant aspects of text interpretation extracted from the data (Mayring

2002: 114, Mayring 2000, <http://www.qualitative-research.net/index.php/fqs/article/view/1089/2385>, accessed 4 July 2015). A very basic challenge when approaching the data, however, is to apply the pre-established frameworks and strategies without constraining possible results, i.e. applying what Dörnyei (2007: 245) refers to as “‘rigorous flexibility’ or ‘disciplined artfulness’”.

The analysis process for this project comprised several stages. Regarding the transcription of the recorded interviews, a predominantly content-based approach was chosen, keeping in mind that this resulted in the loss of most non-verbal aspects of the participants’ responses (Dörnyei 2007: 246). As recommended by Dörnyei (2007: 247) editing the content was avoided since at that stage, it could not yet be decided which parts were relevant to the project. After a first read-through of the transcripts, a preliminary thematic category system was developed. Then, the interviews were read again more closely and relevant statements were labelled with appropriate codes (see coding manual in appendix) using the online research tool ‘Dedoose’. The main aim of applying a coding scheme is to reduce a larger amount of data “while highlighting special features of certain data segments in order to link them to broader topics or concepts” (Dörnyei 2007: 250). Throughout the coding process the iterative nature of qualitative research became obvious, since occasional re-coding and revising of the category system was necessary. In this context, Airey (2011: 41-42) also emphasised the importance of “reading and re-reading the data” when trying to identify patterns which then are organised as themes as part of a qualitative analysis. The coded passages from the interview transcripts were assigned to their matching thematic categories, again with the help of Dedoose. Finally, this collection of themes or categories and the coded passages within were then analysed and discussed with reference to the research questions (cf. e.g. Mayring 2002: 117). This discussion can be found in chapter 6.

5.4 Internationalisation and EMI at the FH Campus Wien: the ‘official’ status quo

In a previous chapter, the FH Campus Wien was introduced as a worthwhile site for a case study on lecturers’ beliefs regarding internationalisation and EMI. This section shall now outline the university’s approach to internationalisation, i.e. how internationalisation is understood and what is done to internationalise the institution as well as what role EMI plays in this context.

As most other universities of applied sciences the FH Campus Wien has been rather regionally-oriented, at least in its earlier years (cf. e.g. Brünner 2004: 51-52). Interview re-

sponses as well as input from other conversations support the impression of a primarily East Austrian student body. Moreover, no explicit university-wide policies regarding internationalisation or the use of English in teaching were in place at the time the main research for this project was conducted (autumn 2014 until spring 2015). Therefore, the goal of internationalisation as defined by Bartell (2003: 43), still appears to require substantial effort:

Internationalization, viewed as an organizational adaptation, requires its articulation by the leadership while simultaneously institutionalizing a strategic planning process that is representative and participative in that it recognizes and utilizes the power of the culture within which it occurs (Bartell 2003: 43).

Hence, in order to implement true internationalisation of a university, it needs to be integrated in all core functions of the institution to yield a holistic strategy (Pellert 1999: 34). In accordance with these ideas, the responses from interviewees as well as information on the website indicated, to a certain extent, a high level of interest in internationalising the FH Campus Wien, including an increased use of English. As mentioned before, this is a development initiated to no minor part by the current rector who was elected in 2012. A problematic issue which became clear, not necessarily through the interviews but mostly through other conversations, was the insufficient information about explicit strategies and support, particularly regarding English language teaching and learning. One person semi-jokingly stated that quite a few members of the university were not even aware of the existence of the Language Center (Research Journal, 19th November 2014). For some, the reason for this concern was the highly departmentally-oriented organisation of the university. It appears that an effective communication campaign, as proposed by Fortanet-Gómez (2012: 61), would be useful in such a case.

Obviously, there is no single recipe for successful internationalisation and the FH's considerable range of specialisations and different forms of degrees (full-time, part-time) have to be taken into consideration when realizing plans and ideas. The FH currently approaches internationalisation from different angles, encouraging student and staff mobility, but also the so-called 'internationalisation at home' activities. This publicly funded activity provides international experiences to students who cannot participate in traditional mobility programmes. It is aimed particularly at the numerous part-time students at the FH and focuses on developing and implementing a study module which includes the acquisition of foreign language skills, courses by international guest lecturers as well as the general expansion of international cooperation (FH Campus Wien *Internationalisation @ Home – I@H*, <https://www.fh-campuswien.ac.at/projekte/international/internationalisation-home-ih.html>, accessed 21 June 2015). In addition, an increasingly important aim in the context of marketised higher education is the recruitment of international, particularly non-EU students.

Apart from numerous individual and department-related activities such as talks, excursions and summer schools, two major activities have become the flagship of the FH's internationalisation intentions: the Language Center and the Foundation Year. These two projects are funded for three years (2013 until 2016) by the MA23, the department of the Vienna City administration responsible for economy, employment and statistics (FH Campus Wien, *Language Center & Foundation Year*. <https://www.fh-campuswien.ac.at/forschung/forschung-im-fokus/forschungsprojekte/detail/foundation-year.html>, accessed 21 March 2015). The focus of the Language Center is to offer customised English courses to domestic students and staff in order to support presenting, learning and teaching in EMI courses as well as any international mobility endeavours. While the feedback on the activities of the Language Center is overwhelmingly positive, organising the English courses is not always easy. As is the case at numerous universities, particularly since the Bologna reform, introducing additional language courses is problematic due to the very tight organisation of the curriculum and the strong focus on content teaching. Furthermore, extra-curricular activities are often rejected by students due to the extra workload which does not generate ECTS for their degrees (van Leeuwen 2003: 34–35). This applies especially to an FH which follows an even stricter structure. Moreover, it appears that the Language Center is struggling with a lack of publicity.

The Foundation Year, planned to start in October 2015, on the other hand, does not target local students. It focuses on the preparation of non-EU students who wish to study at the university in a one-year programme for enrolling for a technical Bachelor's programme at the university. For this purpose, it includes a profound basis in content knowledge but also aims to develop and refine students' German and English skills. Additionally, whole programmes taught in English are planned for non-EU students, particularly those who attend the Foundation Year. The importance of recruiting non-EU students was also strongly emphasised during a meeting with the Oxford University Press earlier this year, including the development of a highly effective, focussed PR campaign. Apart from receiving tuition fees, a further, long-term advantage of this planned recruitment of foreign students is the introduction and attachment of well-educated specialists to the Austrian job market (Gnutzmann and Lipski-Buchholz 2008: 157). In this context, including both English and German into the Foundation Year appears highly sensible.

The relevance of the English language to the internationalisation process of universities was made clear in the theory part of the thesis. Almost all commentators on the topic agree on the importance of introducing English to the teaching and learning of an institution in order to participate in the global academic discourse and education market. Currently, only

one programme at the FH Campus Wien is taught completely in English: the MA in Molecular Biotechnology, which started in autumn 2014. Since it was recently shown that almost a tenth of Austria's higher education programmes are English-taught, the FH is considerably below the national average. In comparison, EMI model student Denmark provides 38 per cent of its university level study programmes in English (Wächter and Maiworm 2014: 40).

Nonetheless, several courses across the departments are offered in English. The exact number was actually not known to anyone, a fact which could be interpreted as an indicator for the FH's yet rather loose approach to EMI, and internationalisation in general. Thus, with the kind support of Andrea Zimpernik, a survey was conducted at the FH's departments in order to determine the total number of EMI courses, i.e. content courses taught in English. Due to the more or less voluntary nature of this survey, the results may not be exact; however, they are a good indicator. It was revealed that 115 courses are currently taught or planned to soon be taught in English. Except for Building and Design, all departments stated to offer at least one content course completely in English.

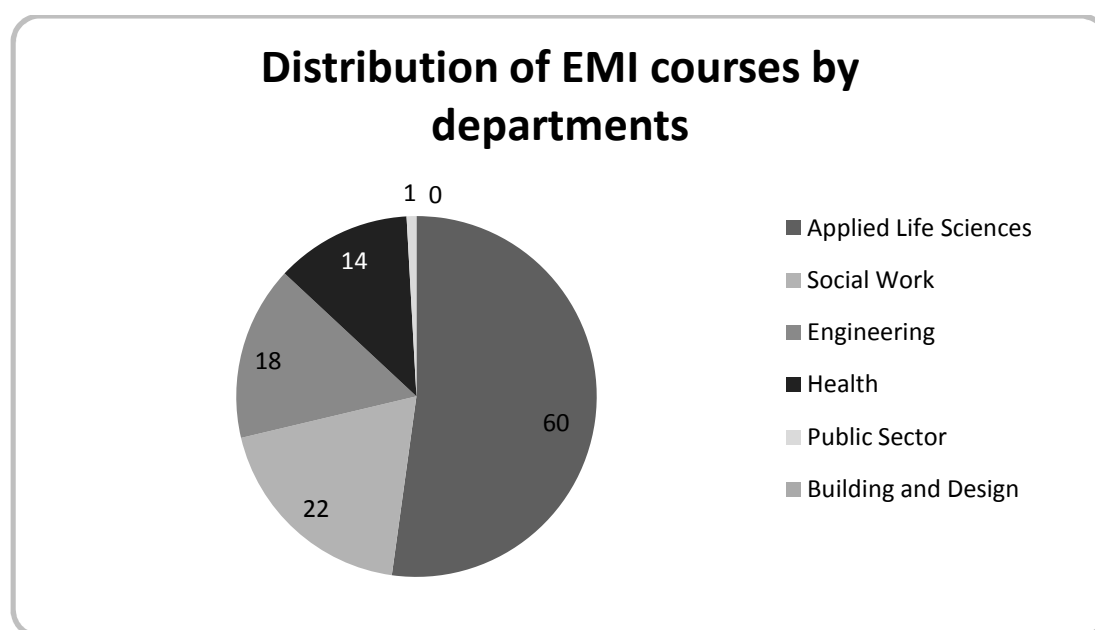


Figure 2 Distribution of EMI courses by department (total 115)

As the above diagram shows, the department of Applied Life Sciences offers the highest number of EMI courses, which is surely due to their new English-taught MA programme Molecular Biotechnology. At the department of Social Work all of the EMI courses are part of the BA programme Social Work. The department of Building and Design is the only one which, according to the survey, does not offer a single content course taught in English. Regarding the prevalence of English in certain study cycles, previous studies have revealed that there are significantly more EMI courses and programmes at MA than BA level (cf. e.g. Fer-

encz et al. 2014: 65, Bolton and Kuteeva 2012: 443). This also applies to the situation at the FH Campus Wien as the chart below explains.

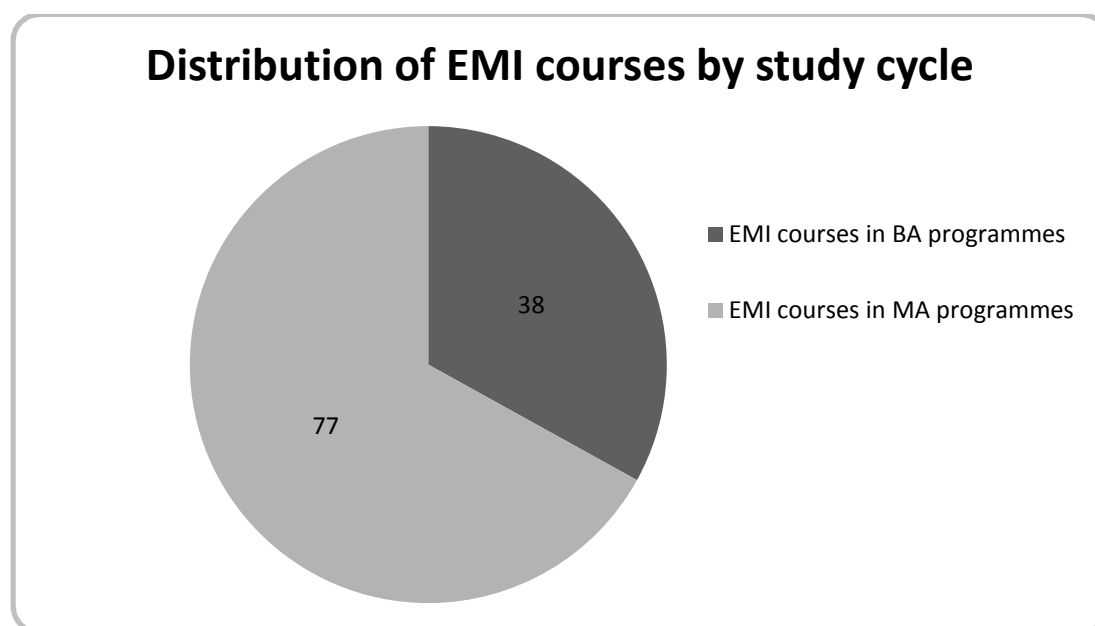


Figure 3 Distribution of EMI courses by study cycle (total 115)

Almost 67 per cent of all English-taught courses at the FH are offered in MA programmes, while solely 33 per cent are part of BA level courses.

On the whole the development and implementation of EMI courses at the FH Campus Wien does not follow an organised agenda. Hardly any department and certainly not the university management have clear requirements about number, type and time of English-taught courses. Therefore, it is up to the study programmes themselves to introduce an EMI course and sometimes it appears that it cannot be predicted which course in which semester will be held in English. Interestingly, this information can also not be obtained by consulting the curricula published on the university's website since course information very rarely contains the language of instruction. This further highlights a somewhat spontaneous approach. Much like Gnutzmann and Lipski stated in 2008 (p. 158), the recruitment of teaching staff for EMI courses seems to depend on the lecturers' voluntariness. Similarly, Dafouz et al.'s (2013: 227) findings also revealed that internationalisation and EMI-related initiatives frequently are "operated from a bottom-up perspective, with individual teachers or departments embarking in EMI on an experimental level". Airey (2008: 153) criticised the incidental and unplanned nature of EMI since findings in his study indicated an "If so required, the course will be given in English." approach by some programmes. This does not seem to be a common approach by departments at the FH Campus Wien, however, as solely one course was stated to be held in English only on demand of incoming exchange students.

Overall, despite the high level of motivation and initiative shown by certain parts of the management, administration and faculty, it became clear that not everybody at the FH Campus Wien is filled with enthusiasm regarding extensive internationalisation and certainly not regarding EMI (Research Journal, 11th March 2015). The university makes a considerable effort to implement internationalisation ideas which suit all persons involved, taking the different fields, backgrounds and circumstances into account. Still, the impression prevails that some would prefer a more ‘traditional’ regional approach, which would also leave any English language responsibilities with the students. The following section shall finally shed some light on the beliefs and experiences regarding internationalisation and EMI of teaching staff at the FH Campus Wien and how they perceive the efforts of their institution and their students’ experiences.

6. Lecturers' beliefs at the FH Campus Wien

6.1 Data collection process and interview participants

As already mentioned, the data analysed in the empirical part of this thesis consists of the transcription of seven interviews with lecturers of EMI courses at the FH Campus Wien. The first contact was established between Ute Smit and Andrea Zimpernik in early autumn. Dr Zimpernik kindly agreed to find lecturers teaching in English who were willing to participate in the project.⁶ Eventually, seven lecturers volunteered and the actual interviews were conducted in October and November 2014 in the course of four visits to the FH. Ute Smit carried out the first two, I the remaining five interviews. All conversations were recorded for the purpose of a content-focussed transcription. All participants were asked the same questions from the four-part interview guide, however, if appropriate or necessary, the order or wording was changed and various probes were used to elicit specific or more detailed responses (cf. Dörnyei 2007: 136). The table below provides general information about the interviews.

Participant	Date of interview	Length of interview	Interview conducted by
P1	1 st October 2014	51:22 min	US
P2	1 st October 2014	56:03 min	US
P3	22 nd October 2014	53:49 min	KD
P4	19 th November 2014	52:33 min	KD
P5	19 th November 2014	52:33 min	KD
P6	19 th November 2014	54:51 min	KD
P7	24 th November 2014	69:33 min	KD

Figure 4 Interview information

The participants were assured that they would stay anonymous, which is the reason for assigning a synonym consisting of the capital letter P and a number from 1 to 7. The time frame per interview was estimated to be around one hour, which turned out to be sufficient in all but one cases.

The personal background of the interviewees will be considered in the later discussion where necessary. The following table presents some general information about the seven interviewees.

⁶At this point, I would like to again sincerely thank Andrea Zimpernik for her kind and competent support. She was not only immensely helpful but also very motivated and interested in the whole project.

Participant	Sex	Professional/ teaching background	Linguistic background	EMI teaching experience	Background of students taught in English
P1	male	Various	German = L2	< 3 years	MA / part-time
P2	male	Management	German = L2	> 5 years	BA, MA /full-time, part-time
P3	male	Engineering	German = L1	> 5 years	BA, MA / part-time
P4	male	Engineering	German = L1	4-5 years	BA, MA / part-time
P5	male	Various	German = L2	> 7 years	BA, MA /full-time, part-time
P6	male	Engineering	German = L1	> 5 years	MA / part-time
P7	male	Engineering	German = L1	< 5 years	BA, MA /full-time, part-time

Figure 5 Interviewee information

As mentioned above, the interviewees were recruited on a voluntary basis, which means that little influence could be exerted on their background. This resulted in a considerable limitation of this study, that not all departments and subject areas, the social sciences in particular, could be represented. However, the strong prevalence of lecturers from engineering programmes does correlate with the make-up of study-populations in the majority of previous studies. In addition, Wächter and Maiworm 2014 also found that a great number of English-taught programmes belong to technical subject areas.

6.2 Coding and themes

The meticulous coding of the interview transcripts was one major task of the empirical part of this thesis. Core statements from the seven interviews were labelled with codes which were partly developed beforehand but mostly emerged in the process of the text analysis. As it is usually the case with qualitative research, this process required some re-coding and editing of the labels as new ideas or statements emerged. Surely, one reason for this somewhat tricky endeavour is the nature of people's beliefs which may be seen "as social constructions of their reality and as changeable and possibly contradictory" (Hüttner et al. 2013: 270). A detailed table of all codes can be found in the appendix. During the coding process, it became clear that many codes could be derived from the interview guide, e.g. 'meaningInt' (what is the meaning of internationalisation of higher education for the lecturers), but some emerged without explicit suggestions from the questions, e.g. 'levelE_lecturers' (lecturers' level of English, as described by themselves).

After the coding was completed and over 500 interesting text passages were identified and assigned to 40 codes, more general categories were developed in order to match the codes with a broader theme which allows a structured discussion and comparison with the findings of previous studies. For a comprehensive list of the themes with all assigned codes, please see the coding manual in the appendix. In order to fit in with the language of the thesis and to further anonymise the interviewees responses all statements used as direct quotes in the discussions were translated into English. It was decided to use this project's two big topics for structuring the discussion part. Therefore, the first part of the discussion below will concern itself with three themes related to the interviewees' beliefs and experiences regarding internationalisation:

- General views on internationalisation
- Internationalisation and English
- Internationalisation at the FH Campus Wien

In the second part, the lecturers' beliefs on EMI and their own teaching in English will be investigated in detail:

- EMI at the FH Campus Wien
- The EMI classroom: the role of language (learning)
- Teaching in English: what's different?
- Learning in English: the reported students' perspective

6.3 Findings and discussion

6.3.1 Internationalisation of higher education

6.3.1.1 General views on internationalisation

The controversial nature of internationalisation was outlined right at the beginning of this thesis. Due to the sometimes heavy debate surrounding this topic, it was interesting to find out what the lecturers believed to be the primary meaning of internationalisation of higher education was. The responses included a range of opinions which partly were very indicative of their further statements regarding the introduction of EMI and other internationalisation activities at the FH.

P1 emphasised the introduction of a more international study system as essential point of internationalising Austrian universities. This, he argued will “be the biggest shock to Austria, not necessarily bringing in English” (Interview P1, 1st October 2014). Another lecturer felt that internationalisation should definitely be embraced as a process which centres on a

more general open-mindedness towards other cultures and economic approaches. This is a very common opinion found in the general context of this discussion; Knight (2008: 8) too claims that “heightened intercultural communication skills are important attributes for graduates of colleges and universities”. Student mobility was stated to be at the core of internationalising a university by P3; however, this interviewee had fundamental doubts about its feasibility. Exchange was the basic meaning of internationalisation for P4 too, but he put more emphasis on exchanging knowledge and cooperating with other universities. Interestingly, P5 was generally sceptical about the international intentions of Austrian universities. He was also the only one who immediately linked the question about the meaning of internationalisation to the widespread introduction of English as medium of instruction. P6 again claimed that internationalising primarily meant looking beyond horizons and particularly passing this way of thinking on to students. This would also include having a good command of English. Finally, the possibility for cooperation beyond national borders and finding international colleagues with similar interests but innovative approaches was deemed essential in the context of internationalisation by P7.

On the whole, the interviews revealed a predominantly positive attitude towards internationalisation. Positive aspects mentioned were for example facilitated staff and student mobility, easier access to knowledge as well as technology and cooperation opportunities. At this point, without being explicitly prompted by the interviewer, all lecturers felt compelled to include a language component into their arguments. The English language was perceived as inseparable from the advantages of internationalisation since only a good command of English allows students to study abroad and later apply their knowledge outside the German-speaking world or in an international company.

When asked for possible disadvantages of internationalisation the responses were almost equally divided between language-related and other factors. Only one respondent, P2, could not think of a single negative aspect of internationalising higher education, which may well be linked to his professional background in business since managers very often are highly in favour of international activities and the cultural and linguistic challenges involved (cf. Ehrenreich 2011: 94). It was further argued that talented students and competent lecturers with insufficient English skills will end up being left behind. This issue was also raised in the discussion of critical views on English in 3.1.2. Others criticised the introduction of English as significant drawback if the framework conditions such as preparation time for lecturers and study time for students will not be adapted. In addition, one may also risk a “trade-off in terms of content” (Interview P3, 22nd October 2014). From a non-language-related angle, it was

noted that a university must not blindly internationalise but should keep in mind for which job market it would like to prepare its students and whether they even need a fully international education. Considering the previously outlined characteristics of FHs, such a statement does definitely not come as a surprise. A thoughtless demand of mobility was also questioned, since not all students may have the opportunity to participate in an exchange program. This is not a new critique, over 15 years ago Pechar emphasised the importance of the local availability of international experiences (Pechar 1999: 32). Regarding the marketisation efforts of universities, P7 utters strong doubts in their success as most students seem to prefer staying at their university for a post-graduate program and do not embrace a more international life plan.

These first statements reveal a broad spectrum of beliefs which are mostly in accordance with the literature discussed above. The meaning of internationalisation includes more abstract components such as intercultural openness but also more practical activities such as mobility programmes and scientific cooperation with international universities. Although only two participants mentioned the importance of English explicitly, all interviewees appeared to be aware of its relevance. Despite their generally positive opinions on internationalisation, which, however, only apply if a sufficient level of English is assumed, quite a few negative aspects could be found as well. These include the rushed or careless implementation of internationalisation measures, particularly when English as a medium of instruction is involved.

6.3.1.2 Internationalisation and English

Already in the theory part it was indicated that it is nearly impossible to separate the discussion about internationalisation of university education from opinions on the introduction, usage or dominance of the English language. This became also obvious in the above section, since the interview participants almost immediately included their thoughts concerning the English language in their beliefs on internationalisation in general. Therefore, this part is going to deal with the relationship between internationalisation and English, including its role at the FH Campus Wien and more critical views on the language's increased presence.

As mentioned before, the central role of English in a university's internationalisation efforts was acknowledged by all interviewees. Previous studies have provided similar findings, namely an agreement

that English is the language of the internationalization of HE and therefore the most appropriate language to serve as a common medium of instruction among speakers from different Lls" (Jenkins 2014: 158).

In order to internationalise successfully, a common language is a necessity and "it would probably make sense that English is the language to do it in, because it is at least everybody's

second language” (Interview P1, 1st October 2014). This status as lingua franca was emphasised by others too. Interestingly, two participants also pointed out the suitability of English for this purpose, since

one must not forget, the English language is a--, for me anyways, and also for the students I believe, a, I can express a lot in much shorter sentences, content-wise, than in German, if I want to express something precisely. That is the main point for me (Interview P6, 19th November 2014).

P6 particularly stressed the importance of an excellent command of English that goes beyond ‘small talk’ in order to be able to participate in a global professional discourse and broaden one’s horizon. A profound and flexible command of English was also found to be an essential tool, especially for business people, in order to develop successful strategies for intercultural ELF conversations (Ehrenreich 2011: 96). In addition, the cooperation with international colleagues, the employment in an internationally-acting company or a simple phone call abroad prove that “[i]t’s impossible, even if you work in your own country ... , to be outside the English language atmosphere” (Interview P2, 1st October 2014). These statements very much reflect the dominant belief that university graduates do need English in order to succeed in a globalised world (Doiz et al. 2013: 1407). But also the relevance of English for study-related globally-oriented activities such as the participation in mobility programmes or mere literature research were brought up. These findings are in line with Tatzl’s (2011: 257) results regarding their “emphasis on the preparation of graduates for global employability and education”. From a marketing perspective, the aim of the FH to recruit international students was also noticed and in association the apparently clear intention to offer an increasing number of courses in English. Curiously, none of the lecturers doubted the relevance of English in the slightest or tried to promote language diversity, contrary to findings in a Spanish study where a participant suggested other languages such as French or German should be included in multilingual programmes (Doiz et al. 2013: 1415).

One participant, however, seemed more sceptical than the others. While he strongly agreed with the global significance of English as a lingua franca and claims that German is a language of secondary importance for the FH students’ professional future, he argues that

the reality is, at home you’re going to speak whatever local or native language is there. ... So, if you’ve got people who are really truly focussed internationally, fine. In my experience, the general public has absolutely no interest in internationalisation at all. [...] This is a focus that would only be for, maybe, education, not even sure about that, and business (Interview P5, 19th November 2014).

Sceptical remarks regarding the increasing presence of the English language as part of internationalising the FH could be noticed, however, never as criticism towards the language per

se. The risk of ‘leaving people behind’ was already mentioned, but in this context the insufficient preparation of students for and the sporadic nature of EMI courses are also referred to.

A particular aspect of scepticism towards English was the occasional acknowledgement that, despite its relevance in the context of an internationalised education, expanding the presence of English at the FH Campus Wien would not be beneficial or would even have detrimental effects. This scepticism predominantly referred to English as a language of instruction. Since a significant number of the degrees at the FH are part-time programmes offered to working students who hardly encounter English in their everyday-lives, an increased number of EMI courses would be a considerable obstacle. Another participant claimed that graduates of certain programmes do not aim for an international career anyways, which could be interpreted as him seeing English as a valuable addition but no real necessity, at least in some areas. This is further supported by P3’s statement about the Department of Engineering that “they are indeed very isolated cases, [students] who are going to work somewhere where they would need to speak English” (Interview P3, 22nd October). Furthermore, P7 noted that it should be properly thought through whether offering a whole programme in English would be sensible, since it might scare off local students and the FH’s prime responsibility was to educate Austrian students due to its national funding. According to Pechar (1999: 58) students’ demand is one of the most important forces behind internationalisation. The impression gained from some lecturers’ statements provide contradictory information regarding students’ demands. The student body appears reluctant, particularly if the English language is involved, the reasons may be found in their educational and/or professional background. Since the interviewed lecturers mostly teach courses in engineering programmes, their students are also more technically-oriented. Indeed, the students’ general disinterest in foreign language learning was mentioned several times by different interviewees:

The question remains, how will the students like it? If you ask the students: “Would you like me to lecture in German or English?”, then, with 90 per cent certainty, they will say: “In German” (Interview P7, 24th November 2014).

Considering previous studies, this appears somewhat surprising, since usually the natural sciences are perceived as more Anglophone, having a high proportion of their literature and university teaching in English (cf. Airey 2012, Wächter and Maiworm 2014). An interpretation more in line with the marketing context would be that the additional effort of English-mediated course goes against the ‘customer’s’ wishes, i.e. is not what the students of engineering programmes bargained for. There is, however, no clear indication of such a development. But the students are not the only ones not to be really in favour of increasing the pres-

ence of English. According to the interviewees the majority of the, mostly part-time, lecturers at the FH would also refuse. As P1 puts it

I., would be very interested to see what happens when..., or if..., all the other lecturers here are told they have to give their lectures in English. That would be an interesting day (Interview P1, 1st October 2014).

It was very interesting to find out which role the lecturers felt English played at their university. The common view was that, apart from occasional guest talks or the like, English was of a rather limited importance outside of EMI lectures, ESP courses and language competence courses offered by the Language Center. Most of the interviewees could not even name EMI courses apart from the ones they were doing. Since the number of courses offered in English is rather low, and the first fully English programme was introduced only recently, hardly any non-German speaking students attend the FH which results in English being virtually absent from the university's everyday business and linguistic landscape. P7 reported that a number of his colleagues already provide slides exclusively in English during their lectures and students are required to read original English literature for the courses, if no German translations are available. This appears to be a common approach at the FH Campus Wien since one biochemistry lecturer who was not involved in the interviews for this project also stated in a discussion that "you would never buy a German book" (Research journal, 11th March 2015). In addition, despite the students' previously described reluctance, an increasing number chooses to write their BA and MA theses in English, which, according to P5 and P7 produces varying results.

Following this outline of the role English plays at FH Campus Wien according to the interviewees, a closer look will be taken at how the lecturers feel about the university's internationalisation efforts. In this context, the knowledge regarding concrete policies and intentions will be considered as well as beliefs regarding the international orientation and reasons for and relevance of introducing certain measures.

6.3.1.3 Internationalisation at the FH Campus Wien

When asked about general guidelines or policies regarding internationalisation at the FH Campus Wien, all interviewed lecturers could name at least a couple of activities. It became clear that some were more involved in the process than others, also depending on their administrative duties within the university. But on the whole, a great number of the university's internationalisation measures, including the Foundation Year, Language Center, excursions, and summer schools were mentioned. Projects such as 'Internationalisation @ Home' are meant to attract guest lecturers and allow non-mobile students to take part in international activities.

Interestingly, while extensive ‘internationalisation at home’ activities are a major component of the FH’s efforts, another Austrian university, the WU, regarded it merely a positive side effect (Unterberger 2012: 89).

Almost everybody particularly emphasised the high level of motivation on part of the university management, including a considerable marketing push. A university-wide policy with clear guidelines, however, could not be identified by anyone: “Well, now, proper... guidelines in that sense, currently we don’t have that yet. But it’s certainly noticeable that it’s heading, or it’s meant to be heading in this direction” (Interview P4, 19th November 2014). This underlines the impression gained in the previous discussion on the FH’s internationalisation efforts (cf. 5.4). The absence of strategic planning and guidelines is a frequent problem of universities in an early stage of internationalisation (Bartell 2003: p. 43). Certain scepticism was also present, especially in terms of a rushed implementation of some ideas and the actual amount of work and time required.

Well, all this-- this appears to be a strategic push, the implementation is of course not easy and involves considerable effort, but I think one should be aware of that or they are aware of it anyways. And if not, they’ll become aware of it in the course of the first projects (Interview P3, 22nd October 2014).

This issue that increasing internationalisation also increases demands on university employees was also reported previously by other authors. Particularly the academic staff has to make additional time for tasks such as the initiation of international cooperations and networks, the writing of international funding proposals, the support of international students and the development of international curricula (Ludescher and Waxenegger 1999: 119). A distinct point was also raised by P5, who underlined that an international university education required properly trained educators too, particularly when it comes to teaching in English.

Again, all of the participants automatically included EMI as central aspect in their statements on internationalisation at the FH Campus Wien. Apparently, the increasing introduction of English as language of teaching is the most relevant or obvious issue in this context. Indeed, it really seems that “‘internationalisation’ seems to be synonymous with English-medium instruction” (Jensen and Thøgersen 2011: 14), also at the FH Campus Wien. Raising the number of courses taught in English has been a long-standing plan of the FH, however, with mixed success and popularity. Mostly originating from the university management, the introduction of English-medium courses, modules or whole programmes has been attempted. P6 recounted that some years ago, a first English-medium MA program was on the verge of being started but was cancelled at the last minute, seemingly due to a lack of student interest. The lecturers, on the other hand, apparently were also very reluctant in the past due to their

insufficient language skills, which, according to P6 was a major reason why English teaching still plays a minor role at the FH.

Despite occasional scepticism, all of the participants believed in the high usefulness of EMI courses in general and easily found numerous reasons to support this claim. Interestingly, P1 was the only one to mention funding as a major motive for providing courses in English since it would attract fee-paying international students. The consequential intercultural experiences and knowledge exchange were mentioned only afterwards. The other 6 interviewees largely agreed on the importance of EMI for preparing students for a possible stay abroad, an international career or at least in a local company with international contacts.

I mean, the other relevance it has is ... , that one often has, particularly in bigger enterprises, English as a company language, and therefore it is definitely an advantage if one has already learned the English terminology (Interview P3, 22nd October 2014).

P2 even pointed out that this English preparation aspect would sometimes include ‘forcing’ students a bit, “particularly for those who maybe directly do not accept the idea so easily, or they don’t see it so easily” (Interview P2, 1st October 2014). The other, more abstract benefit or reason for EMI given was, again, the broadening of students’ horizons and supporting their ability to apply the gained knowledge independently.

Having talked for quite some time about the FH’s internationalisation plans, at one point the interviewees were asked whether they consider the FH Campus Wien an international or Austrian university. Despite afore discussed internationalisation efforts, every single answer went along the lines of ‘clearly Austrian’. Probably the best summary for all responses would be P2’s statement “I think it’s an Austrian university that now is doing its best to become international, really” (Interview P2, 1st October 2014). This belief was strongly supported by several arguments such as the almost complete absence of non-German international students or staff or the very limited number of courses held in English. Universities of applied sciences are, due to their fairly diverse and autonomous departments very heterogeneous institutions. It was found that this diverse character “entails differing levels of international orientation in the individual departments” (Tatzl 2011: 253). The heterogeneity regarding the international orientation (partly international, partly very local) of the FH Campus Wien was noted by P3 too. P4, on the other hand, pointed out the clear Austrian, monolingual German focus of the university’s daily routine and administration. P5 also underlined the fact that the FH’s curriculum is far from being truly international and still very much concentrated on Europe.

Interestingly, the participants elaborated in a fair amount of detail on what they believed and experienced to be the actual situation regarding internationalisation at their univer-

sity. Similar to the ‘official’ policy-related side, a heterogeneous picture was presented. While P7 described his relations with international colleagues as fruitful, P4 bemoaned the absence of regular contact with foreign researchers or universities due to a lack of time and resources. Student mobility, outgoing and incoming, was considered by all interviewees as very low. P3 uttered with some pessimism that student mobility would not increase significantly in the near future and also doubted the international orientation of graduates’ careers. A particular problem regarding going abroad was considered to be the numerous part-time programmes which are primarily attended by more mature working students who hardly can or want to leave for a semester. Obviously, the nature of part-time study programmes, which are primarily designed for working students, does not easily comply with an extensive stay abroad and intensive foreign language experience, for instance, as advocated by Goodman (2009: 610).

Among the few students who are willing to take part in a mobility program outside German-speaking countries, according to P7, the language barrier constitutes a major challenge since hardly any places at English-speaking universities are available and usually no other foreign language is spoken by the students. In turn, the limited number of incoming students was seen as a result of the few EMI lectures offered. Recently, a new module was introduced in all engineering BAs which only consists of English taught courses, mostly held by guest lecturers, in order to attract more international exchange students. In addition, the new internationalisation at home project aims for a higher number of international guest lecturers who naturally will also increase the number of lectures held in English.

A major disadvantage for the FH’s internationalisation efforts was believed by P5 to be the rather antiquated approach to teaching in general and the reluctance to incorporate new ideas and materials in order to become a more internationalised university.

Why do I feel.., I see people out here who have been photocopying the same lesson material for as long as I have been here, and have been using this lesson material for decades? (Interview P5, 19th November 2014).

At the same time he acknowledged the great motivation of some people and that with time and appropriate information campaigns things will change. Other interviewees were not convinced that a top-down approach would be very successful. Especially, P7 highlighted the paramount importance of individual contact between international colleagues:

But what it needs is this link between two people. [...] It doesn’t help if the universities, the rectors say: “We want to cooperate”, [...], and then look for matching people from above (Interview P7, 24th November 2014).

Through this more personal approach, he argued, a number of very valuable cooperations could be initiated at the FH. Considering the context of knowledge exchange, this situation

underlines the claim that supporting the ‘voluntary flow’ of students and teaching staff is often more comfortable than to reform whole institutions (Pellert 1999: 34).

6.3.1.4 Internationalisation - Summary

A range of beliefs regarding the meaning and relevance of internationalisation of higher education could be identified in the above section. The most dominant views are that internationalising a university is, by and large, a positive and worthwhile endeavour and highly beneficial for both, students and lecturers. The usual arguments such as mobility, career prospects and knowledge exchange were all mentioned by the interviewees. The lecturers appear well informed about the FH’s internationalisation measures and intentions; however, no clear guidelines could be identified. The ‘internationalisation at home’ activities were particularly valued due to the FH’s high number of part-time students. It became also clear that, similar to previous studies and surveys, English was regarded a central aspect of internationalisation, a fact which was generally not criticised. Still, despite its importance, the increased presence of English was not necessarily welcomed in all university areas; again, this became obvious in other related publications (cf. e.g. Fortanet-Gómez 2012: 61). Despite the appreciation of the internationalisation efforts, all interviewees firmly agreed that they feel they still work at an Austrian university, rather than an international one, as there is simply too little international ‘flair’. This could be interpreted as also meaning too little English since reasons for this impression included few international students or staff, few EMI courses and an exclusively German-run administration.

An interesting aspect was the participants’ experience that, for the most part, students were often opponents of English and therefore also somewhat of internationalisation. In this context it must be kept in mind that the majority of the interviewees comes from a teaching background in technical subjects. On the one hand, this may be seen as an explanation, reflecting the common belief that technicians are rarely perceived as the most language-savvy kind of people. Still, as a matter of fact, natural and technical sciences are usually described as more Anglophone and indeed, most EMI university programmes in Europe are offered in engineering; business and law (cf. e.g. Wächter and Maiworm 2014). A possible explanation provided by the interviewees themselves is that a great number of their students are older, already working and as a result are attending part-time programmes. This not only provides them with less time to deal with a foreign language but also makes it more unlikely for them to aim for an international career.

With reference to the second part of the research question, no clear answer can be given regarding internationalisation. While the development as such is perceived as clearly positive, the concrete plans of the FH as such are not appreciated by everyone. All interviewees claimed to be happy to participate in or even initiate certain activities. Apart from a few exceptions, it did also not become clear whether the interviewees felt that more or less should be done regarding internationalising the university. However, when it comes to the widespread introduction of EMI, scepticism was voiced regarding its usefulness for all students, particularly those with a background or future in engineering.

Overall, the differences to other universities at this stage of the internationalisation process were limited but present. The usual concerns included a rushed implementation and insufficiently structured approach in combination with scepticism towards an increase of English in teaching. A more specific point of view, however, is indicated by some statements on the limited necessity of all-encompassing internationalisation. In addition, internationalisation is put into practise with a high emphasis on ‘internationalisation at home’ activities, which entails a more local approach to internationalisation.

6.3.2 English-medium instruction

6.3.2.1 EMI at the FH Campus Wien

Although the ratio of EMI courses at the FH Campus Wien is considerably lower than the average 25 per cent found in pioneer countries such as Denmark (Dimová and Kling 2015: 62), it became obvious that the interviewees regarded EMI as a, if not *the* central issue in the context of internationalisation. It was established earlier that the internationalisation plans at the FH, as is often the case, can partly be characterised as “a number of uncoordinated initiatives on the level of specific subject matters and individual efforts by the teaching personnel” (Ammon and McConnell 2002: 34). Subsequently, it shall be elicited whether a more structured approach is used for the implementation of EMI courses, why certain lectures are chosen and which guidelines are followed. In this context the participants also expressed their thoughts regarding the presence and necessity of support measures for lecturers and students as well as what they believed were significant problems surrounding the implementation of the English-medium courses.

In their comprehensive survey, Wächter and Maiworm (2014: 61-62) identified five major reasons why an institution of higher education may not introduce English-taught programmes: language proficiency, type of higher education, insufficient international enrolment, lack of resources, and legal obstacles. Some of these were also mentioned as significant prob-

lems by the participants. In order to meet these challenges, particularly at a university of applied sciences, Tatzl (2011: 264) suggests introducing specific strategies at all three levels of university organisation:

Most funding issues will be concentrated at the institutional level, whereas practical and operational issues will be most likely tackled at the departmental level. A lot depends on the personal engagement of lecturers and students in order to make English-taught programmes successful, yet it is equally important to raise awareness among decision-makers that such programmes require generous funding and staffing.

A recent study by Fortanet-Gómez (2012: 61) also came to the conclusion that an “effective communication campaign and a specific training programme” aiming “at convincing students, lecturers and administrative staff” would be the optimum measure to facilitate the implementation of EMI courses at a university. The interviewees confirmed the previously gained impression that at the FH Campus Wien EMI courses are introduced more randomly. While language course such as ‘Technical English’ or ‘Business English’ followed specific guidelines, it appeared to be the lecturers’ responsibility if and how they conduct their content courses in English. There is a somewhat diffuse wish to internationalise, as P4 (19th November 2014) puts it, “but basically I’m doing it myself”. Others also did not receive any guidelines for their EMI lectures from their head of department: “he said basically ‘just do’” (Interview P1, 1st October 2014), “actually, they said to me they [will not restrict me], [...], [...] in this activity” (Interview P2, 1st October 2014). It appears quite common that the directors of studies at the various departments have no specific ideas how many or which courses they would like to see being taught in English, although one participant mentioned an unofficial aim of 20 per cent EMI courses at the Department of Engineering.

Interestingly, hardly anyone claimed to have a problem with this haphazard approach regarding the recruitment of EMI lecturers and choice of courses. One participant did, however, utter his discontent with the incidental introduction of EMI courses at his department, stating that

[t]hey should really think about how to link it to the previous or following semester. Because of course it’s an additional effort for the students if they hear something in German, then, next semester, the course based on it is in English. This means they have to reflect upon everything they have heard before..., and know, which are the technical terms in English. Then, after the semester, the next lecture is in German again. Well, I think this is very inconvenient (Interview P4, 19th November).

In support of this opinion, it was found before that isolated English-medium courses may indeed have a negative effect on students’ content learning progress (Doiz et al. 2011: 354; Wilkinson 2005, <http://www.palmenia.helsinki.fi/congress/bilingual2005/presentations/wilkinson.pdf>, accessed 25 February 2015). The lack of a consistent approach in terms of coop-

eration within the FH was a significant issue for P5 who claimed that “[t]here is no continuity, there is no interaction between departments” (Interview P5, 19th November 2014).

Apart from the above statement, general problems with the implementation of EMI were much more along the lines of an increased effort regarding time management and content knowledge teaching. P3 particularly criticised the stiff time framework as a major challenge for both EMI lecturers and students, which often may result in a “trade-off in terms of content”, a concern, which was addressed by Gnutzmann and Lipski-Buchholz (2008: 153), who believed that changes of content in English-medium programmes should not be seen as reduction but rather a reorientation towards an international job market. Although none of the interviewees were external part-time lecturers, the struggle of this group with possibly having to teach in English in the future was also pointed out. This and above discussed opinions also fit in with Doiz et al.’s (2011: 353) findings which revealed that many lecturers feel that “[t]o teach in English is too much of a mess”.

In another study, Doiz et al (2013: 1415) identified an additional issue related to the implementation of EMI courses at a university, which seems relevant at the FH Campus Wien too, namely the previously discussed opposition from the student body. This was also a problem mentioned by the interviewees in the present context. One participant saw the crucial issue regarding the implementation of EMI courses at a higher level and had a very well thought through explanation for the overall low number at the FH. According to his view, the university had a strong obligation to the Austrian state as their main financiers to focus on the education of Austrian students and this should be done in German. Moreover, by switching to English as language of teaching on a broader scale in order to internationalise and attract foreign students and staff the FH Campus Wien would probably risk losing their local students since they would start looking for German-taught programmes elsewhere. As international advertising for study programmes is difficult, this loss may not be compensated through the number of incoming students gained through EMI. “I mean, the easiest way would be to offer everything twice [in German and English]. But for this, more staff is needed, and [*sighs*]” (Interview P7, 24th November 2014).

In the light of the numerous challenges encountered and the practically complete absence of guidelines or instructions, it was interesting to find out which support measures for EMI courses the interviewees were aware of. Particularly, because a recent publication by Dimová and Kling (2015: 72) underlined the paramount importance of different university units knowing about “available university supporting resources, which can help the group leaders and lecturers identify their language needs and design appropriate solutions”. It could

be observed that almost all interviewed lecturers were aware of courses for teaching and presenting in English offered by the Language Center. Solely P6 appeared to have no knowledge of these measures, since he complained about the reluctance of lecturers to start teaching in English and added “well, certain aid and support should really be offered to the lecturers” (Interview P6, 19th November 2014). There was broad agreement on the usefulness of such training classes for lecturers; still, only a couple seem to have taken a course themselves or reported of colleagues who attended one. P2, for example stated that he “never felt the need” for support. Interestingly, the study at the FH Joanneum in Graz also revealed a rather weak perceived need for assistance in EMI classes (Tatzl 2011: 263). P5 is aware the low attendance EMI training courses at the FH Campus Wien and appears sceptical this situation, stating

the reality is, if you-- if it's not your native language, you're probably not going to know if it's the correct term or not. And even if it's your native language, this is questionable at best (Interview P5, 19th November 2014).

The fact that English training courses were not compulsory for lectures was also a point of criticism for this participant because he felt some people just may not be aware of their need for help. A certain amount of scepticism could be deduced from P7's views, however, from a different angle. On the one hand, he found some offers from the Language Center quite useful and even mentioned a special English training week for lecturers, which is conducted during the summer holidays. On the other hand, he was not convinced of regular EMI training courses at the FH due to time management issues for busy, travelling lecturers.

When asked about the students' situation concerning support for EMI lectures, the interviewees hardly knew of any language training classes or the like, apart from curriculum-related ESP courses such as ‘Business English’. It appears the majority of students at FH Campus Wien indeed do not have language lessons as part of their undergraduate studies. This approach may be slightly questionable, particularly if the FH intends to increase their range of EMI courses. Very recently it was found that setting up an infrastructure for student support ahead of a widespread introduction of EMI is highly recommendable (Symon and Weinberg 2015: 319). As a proponent of more profound English education, P1 felt that “it would be far better for them to have had two or three semesters of English and then have [his content] course [in English]. But they don't have any English until the Master's” (Interview P1, 1st October 2014). Some were vaguely aware of the optional courses offered by the Language Center, e.g. for academic writing, others were convinced students did not receive any support. Rather it was mentioned that the university assumed a certain level of English when the students enrolled for the programmes. Regarding the idea of offering additional language

classes for students, P7 felt that language education was beyond the FH's scope of teaching responsibilities:

To be honest, other institutions are better at that. They [the students] may go to Berlitz and take a language course, yes. Surely, that's better if I want to really learn a language than having an additional class here (Interview P7, 24th November 2014).

Also, he mentioned the higher level of motivation students might have attending an external course which they have to pay for. In this context findings of a previous study revealed that separate parallel language courses offered at a university may indeed be less beneficial since student motivation is usually lower (Hellekjaer and Wilkinson 2003: 92).

After addressing the beliefs regarding the general situation of EMI at the FH Campus Wien as well as its challenges, the following section will treat the lecturers' concrete experiences and views concerning their EMI courses. In particular, the role of language skills and learning will be discussed.

6.3.2.2 The EMI classroom: the role of language (learning)

After establishing a more general frame of beliefs and opinions, this section will delve into the everyday business of EMI. A special focus is given to the role of language. This includes the lecturers' observations on students' English skills and language background as well as the role of other languages than English in EMI courses. In addition, the popular issue of language learning in content courses will also be considered and the interviewees' views discussed.

Considering the previously outlined internationally-oriented trends and developments in higher education, it may be said that students at university level are commonly expected to have fairly advanced English language skills. Furthermore, they often "tend to find themselves in linguistically and culturally heterogeneous groups" (Smit and Dafouz 2012: 3). These claims, however, correspond, only in part with the experiences of the interviewed lecturers. Far from the University of Copenhagen's international 30 to 50 per cent (Dimová and Kling 2015: 67), all participants agreed on teaching overwhelmingly local student groups. A very small proportion of students, according to P3 and P5 no more than 20 per cent, appear to have an international background, e.g. from Eastern Europe or the Middle East. From a linguistic point of consideration this percentage of diversity decreases even further, since

They all speak German because, although they are maybe not German, they come from a family that came here a generation ago, or they were born here, or they've already been educated here (Interview P2, 1st October 2014).

German is a prerequisite for enrolling in all but one program at the FH and none of the interviewed lecturers taught courses in the then newly introduced English MA program 'Molecular

Biotechnology'. It was revealed that German also played a certain role in most of the lecturers' EMI courses. For instance, P1 allows his students to talk in German to each other in group work and occasionally translates unknown English vocabulary. Similarly, P3 and P4 regularly provide German terminology and summaries during their lectures. It appears that language issues during the lectures usually were connected to content issues, i.e. "the introduction or explanation of mainly subject-specific terms or expressions" (Smit 2010: 408). A common method seems to be that students are allowed to formulate questions in German if they feel their English skills are insufficient or that they may add German clarifications to answers in written exams. P7 solely uses German for administrative matters before or after the actual lecture. In the present context, this approach seems legitimate, nevertheless, one always has to keep in mind that "parallel language use is only possible when both students and teachers have adequate language competences in English and in the local language" (Bolton and Kuteeva 2012: 432). There seems to be awareness of this issue since it was stated that German was only acceptable during lectures if all people present were able to understand it and "if there are incoming students who don't speak German, then German doesn't play a role" (Interview P3, 22nd October 2014). Similar findings were made by Dimová and Kling (2015: 67) with regard to the use of Danish in EMI courses at the University of Copenhagen, however, one has to bear in mind the much higher proportion of international students at that institution.

Regarding the afore mentioned expected high level of students' English proficiency, responses were rather uniform in revealing a considerable variety of competence. Similar to Doiz et al.'s (2011: 355) findings, a range of English skills among students was identified by all the interviewees.

I mean, you can find the average class there's one person who speaks flawless English and he or she will ask you questions and then you'll answer it and then there'll be another reply and then you can have a chat. And then you look around and you see people going [*mimes dosing off*].., because they didn't understand any of it (Interview P1, 1st October 2014).

Most of the lecturers agreed that these differences could be ascribed to the students' educational and professional backgrounds. Some comments on national backgrounds were also made; however, these were so scarce that no clear statements can be presented (cf. Doiz et al. 2011: 355). Overall, it appears that mature part-time students, whose secondary education dated back several years, often struggle particularly in EMI lectures. Another group who tends to have more problems with English-taught courses are those who attended secondary technical schools specialised in engineering or the like. Varied oral skills, especially presenting in English, were mentioned as significant challenges for those students. These impressions received further support by Tatzl's FH findings (Tatzl 2011: 256) as well as statements of EMI

lecturers present at the OUP meeting at the FH, none of which were interviewed for this project (Research journal, 11th March 2015). In the course of the discussion, they were asked what single thing they would change in order to guarantee a smoother and more successful implementation of EMI courses at the FH. Several things were mentioned, but the broadest agreement was found on the wish of a more similar level of students' English. The highly varying levels of language competence are indeed an important issue which may be the root of possible problems since "students' diverse English language abilities are also a relevant factor in classroom discourse and thus knowledge construction" (Smit 2010: 405). In this context, Fortanet-Gómez (2012: 60) suggests not to introduce EMI until the third or fourth year in order to give students time for sufficient preparation. Since English language courses are seldom part of university curricula and students' motivation for attending parallel courses are proven to be rather low, the feasibility of this advice remains doubtful.

Interestingly, without being requested to do so, four of the seven interviewees (P2, P3, P4, P7) also felt the need to describe and partly justify their own English proficiency. While they claimed a sufficient to good command of English language, they were quick to deny any language teaching responsibility or intention beyond the area of technical language and terminology.

As was frequently found in previous studies, language learning aspects in general were mostly perceived as absent or at least as secondary to content learning. On the other hand, P1 and P3 thought that the English language learning aspect may very well be a 'two birds, one stone' kind of motivator for students.⁷ At first, all the lecturers were convinced that their by far most important responsibility was the teaching of content. As P1 puts it

I don't want them to sit there and think "I'm not very good at English, this is gonna be a nightmare", I want them to think "This is in English but it is about [the subject]". That's why they are there; they are not there to learn English in this class (Interview P1, 1st October 2014).

This supports a rather traditional view where language learning is "seen as a separate undertaking from content learning, as happening exclusively in the classes reserved for that endeavour" (Smit 2010: 407). Although, in the course of the conversation a number of specific language learning issues were identified by the interviewees. At this point, it must be said that it was occasionally extremely difficult to identify which kind of language learning the participants were referring to in their statements. Certainly, they usually meant second language learning; however, sometimes this was mixed up with the language of the discipline, which often happens to be also English, and linguistic competences or rhetoric skills in general. It

⁷A recent Israeli study revealed, however, "that whilst EMI enables greater language exposure, without a suitable support framework, it is unlikely to increase language learning outcomes" (Symon and Weinberg 2015: 319).

was curious to find out that, despite the alleged absence of language learning objectives, the exposure to English was also regarded as highly beneficial for the students by the lecturers themselves.

While most participants felt that some incidental language learning may occur, it was generally believed that “it’s not supposed to be the aim of the lesson; [...] it’s sort of a beneficial by-product” (Interview P1, 1st October 2014). Tatzl (2011: 258) found similar beliefs in his interviews at another FH, lecturers denying language learning intention but valuing EMI “lectures as a good exercise for students”. Assumptions such as these indicate a view were “the foreign language used for teaching is considered a tool only” (Hellekjaer and Westergaard 2003: 66). Still, P4 admitted a positive impact of his EMI lectures on the students’ linguistic competence, but also mentioned the limited range of English usage in his lecture since mathematics and engineering only requires a certain number of well-defined concepts (cf. Airey 2012: 76). Similarly, P3 denied a profound benefit for the students’ English skills as

the terminology is English anyways and would also be taught in English if the lecture would be held in German, also because literature, data sheets etc. are written in English. This means I would also teach the English terminology in an otherwise German lecture. This means it’s not really about learning English (Interview P3, 22nd October).

In agreement with this, it was further claimed that “if I construct a building, it doesn’t matter which language I use to communicate, the drawings as such are already a language a symbolic representation” (Interview P6, 19th November 2014). These statements are strongly in line with Airey’s findings in Sweden where lecturers of physics also denied any responsibility of English language teaching while at the same time emphasising the relevance of advanced English technical terminology and the language of the subject as such (Airey 2012: 72–75).

6.3.2.3 Teaching in English: what’s different? what’s difficult?

For this project, it was also of particular interest in how far lecturers feel they are influenced by a different language in their teaching. This concerns not only their experiences on what they actually do differently regarding presentation or assessment, but also struggles and challenges when teaching mostly non-English native speakers in English.

While all interviewed lecturers offer their EMI courses voluntarily and often on their own initiative, they did report a considerable number of issues related to teaching in English. A range of problems, some more challenging than others, could be elicited from the lecturers’ statements. The by far biggest challenge, however, was revealed to be an almost ubiquitous worry not to be able to convey the content properly, i.e. not being understood by the students due to their diverse English skills and different educational backgrounds. This fear was also

shared by EMI lecturers at the FH Joanneum who believed a “greater need for clarification of concepts during lectures” was present (Tatzl 2011: 259). Other major challenges mentioned include additional personal effort required for preparing and teaching a course in an L2. An interesting issue was added by P6 who stated that he found it most challenging to always stay updated on his subject content since teaching in English allowed, and at the same time required, him to present only the newest information to his students. Following these most significant challenges, the lecturers elaborated on a number of less critical issues which, nevertheless, concerned them in their EMI courses.

Often the lecturers do struggle with the students’ highly diverse English skills as was already indicated. A perceived reduction of content covered during a lecture, particularly in the part-time programmes, was also pointed out as bothersome by one lecturer. In support of this impression, Tatzl (2011: 259) found in his study that due to increased effort for preparation as well as delivery in English, certain aspects of the subject may have to be neglected. In the context of increased effort, it was claimed as well that teaching in English was much more tiring and stressful, particularly at the beginning of a semester or after a longer break. This finding is also present in Moate’s study (2011: 336) in Finland where “[e]ach teacher referred to the extra input required, the exhaustion, initial nervous tension, extra adjustment after holidays and stress of swapping language”. A more personal component of teaching which was perceived as problematic was a lack of spontaneity or humour, factors which are crucial in motivating and entertaining students (cf. Moate 2011: 337).

There’s this, I don’t know, emotional or relational component how to motivate people, to pick them up and take them along, that’s always more difficult in another language, to get this across is more difficult in a foreign language (Interview P3, 22nd October 2014).

Thøgersen and Airey (2011: 219) pointed out in this context that lecturers often seem to have a remarkably different rhetorical style when teaching in English instead of their L1 and use a much more formal, almost textbook, language. Lastly, some linguistic challenges were also mentioned as hindrances of a smooth presentation during an EMI lecture. On the whole, these problems were all commonly found to differing degrees in previous studies and are definitely not specific to this type of university. Negative experiences of EMI teachers in the form of linguistic limitation, increased workload and personal effort, for example, were already discussed by Vinke et al. (1998) almost 20 years ago.

Obviously, lecturers do hold certain expectations when they decide to start teaching a supposedly international group in their and/or the students’ L2. The interviewees admitted that some experiences were of a rather surprising nature, positively for some, negatively for

others. The following list presents an overview of the variety of unexpected experiences among only seven lecturers, depending on factors such as their own previous (language teaching) experiences and personalities. When starting their EMI courses the participants were particularly surprised by

- the students’ openness towards EMI
- the students’ increasing resistance regarding EMI over the semester
- the students’ high level of English competence
- the students’ low level of English competence
- the students differing levels of English competence
- the lack of student participation during the lectures
- the increase of one’s own language skills and ease with using English
- the difficulty of holding students’ attention when teaching in English

The sheer variety of views and obviously contradictory experiences of such a limited number of interviewees would surely provide a basis for a worthwhile discussion. In the context of this chapter they will definitely be kept in mind, but shall serve more as a kind of background. Unexpected experiences certainly play a role in the conscious or unconscious decision to teach, assess or examine differently when teaching an international group or in a second language, respectively.

Previous studies have revealed that a change of teaching language is often perceived not to entail any alterations in teaching style and content. Unterberger’s (2012: 94) interview participants at the WU did reject any differences between their L1 and L2 teaching and Wilkinson’s (2005, <http://www.palmenia.helsinki.fi/congress/bilingual2005/presentations/wilkinson.pdf>, accessed 25 February 2015) respondents also believed that they used the same methods for EMI courses than for L1 teaching. Organisational structures also seem to hardly differ for English-taught lectures (cf. Hellekjaer and Westergaard 2003: 71).

The responses of the interviewees of this project showed some diversity in this regard. While only one participant claimed not to change anything at all apart from the language he spoke when he taught in English, everybody else admitted alterations of a greater or lesser degree. The sole participant to mention a different teaching style in general, referring to a particular Anglophone approach, was P3. However, he only indicated the option of using a different style. Concerning their actual delivery of the lecture, several lecturers stated to adapt their speed and rhetorical style to the diverse language skills of the students by, for example, purposely slowing down, speaking more distinctly, or “not using too unusual words or turns and if, then re-phrasing the whole thing with different words or explaining the terms again”

(Interview P3, 22nd October 2014). P1 also notes that, compared to non-EMI groups, he tries to reduce his speaking time as much as possible in order not to strain the students' attention too much and lets them do more tasks and group work instead. Also providing more extensive explanations and the like, P4, however, adds that on the whole his approach does not differ drastically since the technical subjects he teaches mainly require the students to calculate and apply mathematical formulas. A rather uncommon insight was provided by P2 who claimed that the main difference to him lecturing in his L1 was that everything was a great deal easier in English. This interesting opinion may be rooted in his management background since it was argued that for business people English is frequently regarded a second nature (Ehrenreich 2011: 95). Indeed, Unterberger's (2012: 94) study at the University of Economics and Business came to a similar conclusion.

Regarding the contents and topics covered in their EMI lectures, broad agreement was present that in general no adaptations were made specifically for these courses. Some presumed possibly going into a little less detail or having to leave out a few minor aspects compared to the L1 versions of the courses. But on the whole the tenor was that the topics were prescribed by the curriculum and should remain the same irrespective of the language of instruction. Therefore, every effort was made not to reduce or alter the contents of the EMI lectures, still, P3 explicitly criticised the imminent loss of content. The interviewees' comparatively low concern with content alterations due to a change of the teaching language could be traced back to Bernstein's disciplinary knowledge structures. Most of interviewees' disciplines have hierarchical knowledge structures. Therefore, they work mostly with existing ideas and theories in which new knowledge is incorporated at lower levels and language does not play a central role in this process (Airey 2012: 67–68, Bernstein 1999: 162). Perceiving language predominantly as a tool means that changing the language in which knowledge is communicated is believed not to have an impact; the ideas remain the same.

Apart from the actual classroom lectures, the participants also commented on other differences concerning their EMI courses. Despite frequent mentioning in previous studies, only P3 complained about a significantly higher workload when preparing his English-taught lectures. He alone also referred to preparatory efforts ahead of generally starting with EMI in the form of attending training courses for teaching in English. Still, when it comes to the materials used by the interviewees in their lectures, it becomes apparent that for some an additional effort must be involved. P1, for example, notes that in EMI courses "my lecture notes are much more explicit, my slides are much more explicit" and that he has "a lot more hand-outs" (Interview P1, 1st October 2014). In order to facilitate the reading of his English docu-

ments, P4 even provides German translations of important vocabulary and concepts to his students. Others do not show that much consideration, claiming that the students can easily use a dictionary (P3) or that they should get accustomed to using English original literature (P6).

When it comes to assessing their students' work and conducting exams in the EMI courses, it was interesting to find out that the interviewees display a wide range of opinions on an appropriate approach. Predominantly, an approach which attempts to disregard language issues in EMI courses as much as possible was assumed (cf. Wilkinson 2008: 178). Focussing on the students' understanding of the essential content of the lecture, for some it seems more important that

you can show me that you have understood the concepts, and communicate those concepts to me, then ... , I won't be so harsh on the spelling and the grammar, punctuation, syntax and things like that (Interview P1, 1st October).

P2 also notes that as long as he feels that the student has got the point, he will try to keep the language matter aside. P1 again admits that he does not demand any critical pieces of writing in exams but rather proof of comprehension, while he admits that

if I was teaching English people, or English speaking people ..., I'd be looking for more ..., of their own opinions and their own ideas, whereas with ..., German speaking people I'm more looking to see that they've understood the concepts (Interview P1, 1st October).

A more lenient approach is also chosen by P3 who explains that in case of doubt he tends to assess linguistically ambiguously exam answers in favour of the student. He justifies this with his own lack of language skills which may result in an ambiguously phrased question. While P6 also claims to be more permissive when assessing students in his English-taught courses, P4, P5 and P7 are convinced they have the same criteria and requirements for their EMI courses as well as for teaching L1 groups. P7 in particular appears very meticulous about this matter, emphasising that irrespective of the teaching language he always tries to phrase his exams questions similarly, so that the English answer would almost be identical to the German one. Furthermore, he demands that a "sentence has to contain a clear statement, the student's answer" and "[i]f the statement of the sentence is not clear, I'm not completing it [for the student]" (Interview P7, 24th November 2014). In their varied approaches, the participants' responses reflect recent findings on the orientation to English which revealed a fairly even distribution of more normative-minded and more tolerant lecturers (Jenkins 2014: 163).

Finally, since most of the lecturers normally teach their subjects in German and apparently no particular training was required for teaching in English on the part of the university, it was interesting to elicit if they believed teaching in English required any special skills, apart

from the obvious language competence. On the whole, no particular extra skill was claimed to be crucial by the participants. Interestingly, P1 thought teaching in English was easier than in German, since usually the students' English skills were much poorer than his, giving him some sort of advantage. Additional patience and attentiveness appear to be a useful skill, again due to the possible lack of sufficient English skills among the students but also as a result of the lecturers' own linguistic inadequacies. Ultimately, a less tangible skill concerned a perceived personal or emotional barrier (cf. Moate 2011: 342-343). Paramount importance in this regard was given by several interviewees to a certain degree of openness and willingness to delve into EMI and the different teaching approaches this may entail in order to motivate students.

6.3.2.4 Learning in English: advantages and drawbacks of EMI for students

As final part of the discussion a brief glimpse into the students' experiences when learning in English shall be given. This insight obviously is not very representative, since no student opinions were collected as part of this project. However, it is worthwhile to discuss the lecturers' views on the students' situation and experiences. A range of positive and negative aspects of EMI courses reported to affect the students and some ideas about what the participants believed it meant to learn their subject in English could also be elicited.

When thinking about positive effects of learning through the medium of English, the high relevance of the language for different fields was mentioned several times. In numerous subjects most of the literature is in English only, therefore P1, P2 and P6 saw a benefit in being taught in English altogether and being able to work with the latest original publications. Particularly with reference to engineering, an EMI course may help

especially the new students who just got out of secondary school and perhaps did not have any contact with engineering. They may not even be aware of the [significant] role English plays in this field (Interview P4, 19th November 2014).

Benefits for students' professional future were also claimed by the interviewees. Being confronted with a subject in English enables the students to "delve into the subject faster", and "use the knowledge [...] somewhere outside the German-speaking area" (Interview P6, 19th November 2014; Interview P3, 22nd October 2014). The argument of future usefulness was further supported with the claim that "[n]aturally, this thing opens you in different directions too", since "studying is not only about training professional competence" (Interview P4, 19th November 2014).

Occasionally it was also believed that students might see a course taught in English as language learning opportunity. The impression that students value EMI courses for its alleged

language learning effect finds support in a questionnaire survey among FH students in Graz (Tatzl 2011: 257). This is curious because in the previous sub-chapter it was revealed that the lecturers collectively deny any responsibility in that matter. An interesting impression was noted by P7 who felt that the increased attentiveness and required re-reading of English texts may help students to thoroughly understand topics and does prevent dealing with matters too superficially.

Despite the dominant belief that EMI courses, at least to a certain extent, are beneficial to the students, a number of problems were also reported by the lecturers. The most common ones were related to the insufficient English skills of most students. Similar problems were present in other studies, where e.g. lecturers' language-related problems were minimal and/or disappeared relatively quickly while students struggled much more, especially regarding oral production (Hellekjaer and Westergaard 2003: 73–75). P7 worried about a particular issue, namely, “the double challenge of learning a conceptually and linguistically unfamiliar subject” (Hellekjaer and Wilkinson 2003: 83). This problematic issue was the main reason why “we usually still teach in German, because we don't want to hinder them from understanding the subject due to [lacking] linguistic competence” (Interview P7, 24th November 2014). Struggles to keep up with the lecture, not to lose the thread and a higher workload at home were mentioned by almost all participants in this context. The lecturers' impressions find some support in Tatzl's study where students named “time management and workload as the greatest challenge” and “vocabulary and technical terminology represented a major challenge” (Tatzl 2011: 256). P1 also felt that students were unfortunately not able to contribute much to the class due to their limited language competence. This could relate to some kind of personal inhibitions too, since many students are simply not used to being confronted with English to this extent. This is one reason why P6 is convinced that in order to reduce inhibitions and reluctance, students have to be informed about the purpose and benefit of an EMI lecture at the beginning of the semester, because “if someone says that this is only hardship and has no use, then this person will not actively contribute” (Interview P6, 19th November 2014).

In the previous sub-chapter of this thesis, it was found that the interviewees felt that teaching in English included quite a few differences from L1 teaching. Interestingly, they did not believe this was entirely true for learning in English. Only half of the lecturers explicitly mentioned issues which they believed to be different for students who are taught in their L2, i.e. English. P3 was convinced that the overwhelmingly German group was definitely out of their comfort zone when they were being taught in English, while P1 mentioned an enhanced

need for support in finding appropriate literature and sources in English. Remembering his own university studies, P3 believed that students may struggle with increased efforts regarding attention in and time management outside of class. Referring to the ‘universal’ language of mathematics which apparently is hardly influenced by the language of instruction, P4 could not imagine a massive extra effort for the students, merely some troubles with getting used to listening to a different language.

Despite the limited awareness of differences for EMI students, the participants believed that certain extra skills are required for learning in English. A possible interpretation of this circumstance could be that the lecturers felt that these skills do not require any additional tangible effort from the students. Apparently, what the students mainly need is extra motivation and openness towards the different language. This means also a developing a certain feeling for the English language in general and learning to ‘flick the switch’ (P4, P6).

6.3.2.5 EMI - Summary

Considering the research questions, it can be said that EMI in general is viewed positively by the interviewees. This is not surprising as the lecturers interviewed since are all teaching their courses in English voluntarily and usually even on their own initiative. On the whole, much like with internationalisation in general, the FH Campus Wien appears to find itself at the beginning of developing and implementing EMI in their teaching. From the interviewees’ responses a rather uncoordinated approach to the choice of subjects as well as lecturers and implementation of courses could be deduced. However, hardly anyone claimed to have a problem with this somewhat haphazard approach. Some general concerns and more negative opinions were uttered regarding an intended increase of the implementation of EMI due to reasons such as possible time management issues for lecturers and students or a trade-off in terms of content.

Regarding their own EMI courses, the participants admitted to some unexpected experiences, both negative and positive. These included the discovery of highly diverse issues such as the students’ good, bad or highly varied English language skills as well as the openness or reluctance of a course group. The students’ scepticism, particularly at the Department of Engineering, was also mentioned, with one participant even claiming that the FH may indeed lose students if the post-graduate teaching was switched to English-only. With some exceptions, the usefulness of teacher training courses for EMI was strongly confirmed; still, the perceived need for help was found to be rather low with these lecturers. Regarding the

students' language support, knowledge and, to certain extent, interest was limited, possibly due to the fact that the FH's language teaching responsibility is denied by some.

It can be said that the interviewees' personal experiences are mixed but rather positive. Some criticism was reflected in their attitudes towards the (further) implementation of EMI at the FH Campus Wien. Solely one or two participants were totally in favour of heavily increasing the number of EMI courses. However, all agreed to a certain extent on the necessity of such courses, for preparing students for their professional future or to guarantee a thorough education in Anglophone disciplines such as engineering. For the lecturers personally the EMI courses did present some challenges, particularly the fear of not conveying the content properly. An increase of the workload was not bemoaned much by the participants, but for a few a higher personal effort and loss of spontaneity as well as flexibility during teaching was perceptible (cf. Airey 2011, Vinke et al. 1998). On the whole, no particular extra skill was claimed to be crucial by the participants. Still, additional patience and attentiveness were revealed to be useful, due to the possible lack or variety of English skills among the students but also as a result of the lecturers' own linguistic inadequacies (cf. Tatzl 2011: 263).

As the chapter on internationalisation already showed, a noticeable difference to previous studies is, also in the context of EMI, the lecturers' belief that a significant part of the student body is highly sceptic regarding being taught in English. Tatzl's study for example showed that students and lecturers both are in favour of English-taught courses (Tatzl 2011: 262). It has to be kept in mind though, that that project only investigated lecturers and students from MA programmes which were already primarily or completely conducted in English, whereas the FH Campus Wien only introduces EMI courses sporadically. The briefly discussed impact of EMI courses on students revealed that lecturers believe that their EMI groups experience the most significant struggles due to insufficient language skills. Apart from the linguistic issue, the lecturers could not think of any differences to L1 learning. Nevertheless, they felt that some more abstract extra skills were demanded of students who attend an EMI course such as openness or overcoming the reluctance to speak a foreign language. The role of language and language learning is believed to be minimal if not absent in EMI courses (cf. e.g. Airey 2012). Despite this view, the lecturers feel that for the students the improvement of their English skills is a major factor in EMI. In support of this impression, Tatzl's (2011: 262) questionnaires revealed exactly this opinion among the students, i.e. improving language proficiency, as paramount reason for favouring EMI.

It was discussed several times in previous papers, whether the change of teaching language does have an influence on the lecturers' teaching. Tatzl (2011: 263) as well as Airey

(2011: 44-45) found that lecturers noticed a reduction in detail when delivering the content in English, and so did some of the interviewees. However, they denied an influence of the contents of their courses as such. In addition, most stated that they alter their presentation style in order to accommodate to the students' less advanced English skills. It was also found that students are assessed more leniently in terms of linguistic style and expression in EMI courses, most lecturers even claimed to disregard language issues as far as possible.

Overall, the FH Campus Wien does not display a great number of particularities when it comes to lecturer's beliefs regarding EMI. While the general usefulness of EMI courses at universities is not questioned, a mix of enthusiasm and scepticism characterises the views on the situation at the FH. Benefits and challenges are similar to those identified at other (traditional) universities and include issues regarding time management, increased personal effort, and, most significantly, language skills. It appears remarkable, nonetheless, that it could be repeatedly observed that a considerable part of the student body, especially at the Department of Engineering, seems to oppose being taught in English. This could, however, have several reasons. The very job-oriented nature of FH education may play a role as much as the high number of mature part-time students with full-time jobs, the students' educational background or the discipline as such.

6.4 Internationalisation and EMI: main insights

Despite the considerable number of previous studies on the topic of internationalisation and EMI, several notable insights could be provided as a result of this project. The beliefs which were elicited through the qualitative analysis have a specific quality due to the interviewees' status as EMI pioneers at the FH Campus Wien. Their, and their students', partial scepticism towards more comprehensive internationalisation measures, particularly in the form of EMI courses, may be traced back to several roots. One factor mentioned was, for example, the respective discipline of the lecturers, with management generally being more supportive of English taught courses and a global orientation and engineering showing less enthusiasm. Another characteristic of the site was the rather uncoordinated, sporadic implementation of EMI and general internationalisation measures. This, however, might be traced back to the university's particular approach to internationalisation.

In the theory part it became obvious that various factors and approaches are involved in the internationalisation of a university, and that it is important to be aware of those. Regarding EMI, for instance, some universities (try) to follow an uncompromising English-only

approach (e.g. Williams 2013), while others prefer a more sporadic implementation (e.g. Doiz et al. 2011, Airey 2012, Airey 2008). Drawing together theory and empirical findings, it can be said a variety of approaches can also exist within one single university. Internationalising may, on the one hand, involve the temporary mobility of students and staff. A different kind of internationalisation is presented by measures such as the FH Campus Wien's 'Foundation Year' which is meant to recruit foreign students with the aim of a more permanent stay in Austria. 'Internationalisation at home' activities, particularly favoured by some interviewees, are especially aimed at students who cannot or do not want to partake in 'traditional' mobility activities. This individual, multi-tracked approach could present an advantage. It may very well reflect the needs of this particular institution, to a certain extent even of this whole type of university. The frequently mentioned high number of mature part-time students and general prevalence of a very local student body play a significant role in this context. In addition, the regional orientation of the university type as well as, as one interview participant noted, obligations towards the Austrian state as financiers could de-emphasise the need for a fully internationalised FH Campus Wien.

Despite the fact that this institution is not a multilingual university in the narrow sense, the "complex interplay of local and global drives" became clearly visible (Dafouz and Smit 2014: 12). Therefore, an individual approach which consists of a variety of measures (e.g. EMI, internationalisation at home, some mobility) within one institution and reacts to the demands of a more global education without neglecting the local character may be appropriate. It might even make sense, in an institution with such autonomous departments, to allow a spectrum of measures and activities, depending on the needs and expectations of the respective discipline. However, even such a 'customised internationalisation' needs clear structures, communication and coordinated measures. The current situation at the FH Campus in this regard appears not to be optimal, since the study revealed a high degree of randomness in certain areas, particularly with regard to the introduction of English as a medium of content teaching.

7. Conclusion

It was the aim of this thesis to present a qualitative investigation of teacher beliefs regarding internationalisation and EMI at an Austrian university of applied sciences against a background of thoroughly researched theory. Interviews with seven lecturers who are teaching some of their courses in English have revealed a broad spectrum of opinions which mostly corroborate findings of previous studies. Internationalisation of higher education is generally seen as a positive development. The participants associate it with certain abstract concepts such as intercultural openness but also more practical activities such as mobility programmes and scientific cooperation with international universities. Some more negative views include the rushed or careless implementation of internationalisation measures, particularly if English as a medium of instruction is involved.

While everyone claims to be more or less in favour of a more international orientation, a certain resistance could be detected in reference to the widespread introduction of English as a language of teaching. This impression was not only gained from the conducted interviews but also from several other conversations and the attendance of an EMI-related meeting. Especially the opinions regarding EMI ranged from highly enthusiastic to agreeable to fairly sceptical. However, to a certain extent all participants agreed on the necessity of EMI courses, for preparing students for their professional future or to guarantee a thorough education in Anglophone disciplines. For the lecturers personally, teaching in English does present some challenges, most significantly the fear of not conveying the content properly. Another significant struggle stated was the students' varying language skills.

A noticeable difference to most previous studies was the lecturers' belief that a significant part of the student body is highly sceptic about being taught in English. In addition, a distinct issue raised was the belief that FH graduates often do not aim for an international future, therefore, all-encompassing internationalisation efforts and English teaching may not be desired. The more vocationally-oriented nature of FH education was suggested to play a role in this context. Another factor could be the high number of mature part-time students who obviously have significantly different backgrounds than regular full-time students. The interviewees mostly agreed that this group also particularly struggles with English-taught courses. Tatzl's 2011 FH study did come to a somewhat different conclusion in this regard, since his lecturers and students agreed on favouring English-medium instruction. For the sake of a complete picture, it would be very useful here to also investigate students' beliefs at the FH Campus Wien.

Generally, it can be said that the FH Campus Wien finds itself at the beginning of internationalising their institution as well as developing and implementing EMI in their teaching. Although no explicit recommendations can be given to the university as a result of this project, it may well be important to keep its findings in mind as “without addressing teachers’ pre-existing beliefs, changes cannot successfully be implemented in teacher attitudes or behaviour” (Hüttner et al. 2013: 269). Hence, if the central role of teachers or lecturers in a university is considered, it is indeed important to take into account their thoughts on the current situation. Ignoring their concerns may make a successful realisation of future plans or ideas regarding an internationalised institution additionally strenuous. In addition, the variety of approaches towards internationalisation taken across different universities, but also within an institution must be taken into account.

The high relevance of the investigated topics became increasingly clear in the course of time since numerous people showed a lot of interest in this project, including members of the British Council Austria as well as the Oxford University Press. Without a doubt, internationalisation and EMI in the context of tertiary education and from the lecturers’ perspective are currently of significant importance in research as well as university development. Due to its small scale and limitations, this study is obviously of limited representativeness; still, it may serve, together with previous findings, as orientation and indicator for present developments in Austrian higher education.

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Software used

citavi 4, Version 4.5.0.11, Swiss Academic Software GmbH
www.citavi.com

Dedoose, Version 6.1.18, SocioCultural Research Consultants, LLC
www.dedoose.com

Appendix

A) INTERVIEW GUIDE – ENGLISH

Teacher Beliefs on EMI / FH Campus Wien Autumn 2014

Topic: tapping into lecturers' beliefs about EMI

Our wider frame / research frame and interest: We are interested in the ideas, opinions, experience(s) of teachers who have been involved in teaching international student groups / their subjects through the medium of English

(a) particularly in FHs / Universities of Applied Sciences in Austria and

(b) across various institutions in different European settings .

Personal background:

- 1) Can you tell me about your professional background? What and where did you study, how long have you been working here?
- 2) Which courses do you teach now and in which language
- 3) Can you describe a typical student group in this course (home, international, language/national background, age, E (TL) skills) –possibly what are their biggest difficulties/challenges?
- 4) What subjects / courses have you taught previously (in general, L1, English)? Did you ever teach in another language than E?
- 5) Please describe your foreign language skills (European Framework, 4 skills). For what purposes do you use English / other languages?

Internationalisation & language management

- 6) What does internationalisation in higher education mean for you?
- 7) What do you see as its advantages/disadvantages?
- 8) What's the role of EMI courses for universities in the 21st century?
- 9) What do you know about the university's internationalisation policy?
- 10) Do you feel you're working in an international or an Austrian university? Why?
- 11) What kind of guidelines / shared ideas of how to teach through English are there in your department? (explicit or implicit; support for lecturers)
 - a. Is there any support for students learning through English? What do you make of it, what else would you like to see?
 - b. Is there any support for NNS lecturers for teaching in English? What would you suggest/ like to have?

Teaching & learning in EMI

- 12) Do you do anything differently in your teaching if English is not the mother tongue of many/most of your students? (methodology, materials, preparation, assessment)
- 13) If English not first language, what kinds of skills or features are required from the teacher when teaching in English?
- 14) If English not first language, what kinds of skills or features are required from the student when learning in English?
 - a. What learning difficulties/advantages might students have when learning through English?
 - b. Are there differences in assessing student work in English when compared to their L1 / when compared to native speaker students? Could you please give some examples?
- 15) What are the biggest challenges when teaching through English as second language?
- 16) What has taken you by surprise when teaching through English? (work load, student participation, T personality)

Views on the integration of content and language

- 17) To what extent do you think teaching is about learning language? (what do we mean by “language” – of the subject, the discipline)
 - c. How do you see the relationship between teaching content and language?
 - d. How do you see the relationship between learning content and language?
- 18) Has teaching in English had any effects on how you see the relationship between content and language when teaching in L1?
- 19) How does teaching your subject in L1 differ from doing it in English (if at all)?
- 20) How does learning your subject in L1 differ from doing it in English (if at all)?
- 21) Has the teaching through English to international students had any impact on what you teach (syllabus/curriculum)? If so, in which ways?
- 22) Are there any other topics / ideas you’d like to share with me on the topic of English-medium teaching?

B) INTERVIEW GUIDE – GERMAN

Ansichten Lehrender zu EMI/Englisch als Unterrichts-/ Arbeitssprache FH Campus Wien Herbst 2014

Thema: Eruierung der Ansichten Lehrender zu EMI

Unser weitgefaster/s Forschungsrahmen und –interesse: Wir sind interessiert an den Ideen, Meinungen und Erfahrungen von Lehrenden die internationale Studierende/ihr Fach durch das Medium Englisch unterrichten

- (a) im Besonderen an FHs in Österreich und*
- (b) an verschiedenen Institutionen im europäischen Raum.*

Persönlicher Background / Werdegang

- 1) Können Sie mir über Ihren beruflichen Werdegang erzählen? Was und wo haben Sie studiert, wie lange arbeiten Sie schon hier?
- 2) Welche Kurse/Fächer unterrichten Sie und in welcher Sprache tun Sie dies?
- 3) Können Sie beschreiben wie eine typische Kursgruppe zusammengesetzt ist (einheimisch, international, Sprache/Herkunft, Englischkenntnisse) – eventuell auch etwaige Schwierigkeiten/Herausforderungen?
- 4) Welche Fächer/Kurse haben Sie in der Vergangenheit unterrichtet (generell, in der Muttersprache, auf Englisch)? Haben Sie jemals in einer anderen Sprache als Englisch unterrichtet?
- 5) Bitte beschreiben Sie Ihre Fremdsprachenkenntnisse (Gemeinsamer Europäischer Referenzrahmen: Verstehen, Sprechen, Schreiben, A1-C2). Zu welchem Zweck/in welchem Kontext verwenden Sie Englisch/andere Sprachen?

Internationalisierung & Sprachenmanagement

- 6) Was bedeutet Internationalisierung in der höheren Bildung für Sie?
- 7) Wo sehen Sie die Vor- und Nachteile dieses Konzepts?
- 8) Was ist die Rolle von EMI-Kursen (Kursen mit Englisch als Unterrichtssprache) an Hochschulen im 21. Jahrhundert?
- 9) Was wissen Sie über die Strategie/Richtlinien dieser Hochschule bezüglich Internationalisierung?
- 10) Haben Sie das Gefühl an einer internationalen oder österreichischen Hochschule zu arbeiten? Warum?
- 11) Welche Richtlinien/Vorstellungen zum Unterricht in englischer Sprache herrschen an Ihrem Institut/Ihrer Abteilung? (explizit oder implizit, Unterstützung für Lehrende)
 - e. Erhalten die Studierenden in irgendeiner Form Unterstützung für den englischsprachigen Unterricht? Was halten Sie von der aktuellen Situation? Was würden Sie gerne ändern?
 - f. Erhalten Lehrende nichtenglischer Muttersprache Unterstützung für den englischsprachigen Unterricht? Haben Sie diesbezüglich Vorschläge/Wünsche?

Unterrichten & lernen mittels EMI

- 12) Gehen Sie beim Unterricht in irgendeiner Weise anders vor wenn die Muttersprache vieler/der meisten Ihrer Studierenden nicht Englisch ist? (Methodik, Materialien, Vorbereitung, Beurteilung)
- 13) Falls Englisch nicht die Muttersprache ist, welche Fähigkeiten und Kenntnisse werden von einer/einem Lehrenden verlangt wenn sie/er auf Englisch lehrt?
- 14) Falls Englisch nicht die Muttersprache ist, welche Fähigkeiten und Kenntnisse werden von einer/einem Studierenden verlangt wenn sie/er auf Englisch lernt?
 - c. Welche Schwierigkeiten/Vorteile könnten Studierende haben wenn Sie auf Englisch unterrichtet werden/lernen?
 - d. Gibt es Unterschiede bei der Beurteilung der Arbeit Studierender auf Englisch im Vergleich zu ihrer Muttersprache/zu englischen Muttersprachlern? Könnten Sie hierzu einige Beispiele nennen?
- 15) Was sind die größten Herausforderungen beim Unterricht auf Englisch als Zweitsprache?
- 16) Was hat Sie beim englischsprachigen Unterricht überrascht? (Arbeitsaufwand, Studierendenbeteiligung am Unterricht, Persönlichkeit)

Ansichten zur Integration von Inhalt und Sprache

- 17) Inwieweit denken Sie, geht es beim Unterricht um das Lernen von Sprache? (Was meinen wir mit "Sprache" – des Faches, der Disziplin)
 - g. Wie sehen Sie den Zusammenhang zwischen der Lehre von Inhalt und Sprache?
 - h. Wie sehen Sie den Zusammenhang zwischen dem Lernen von Inhalt und Sprache?
- 18) Hat das Unterrichten auf Englisch in irgendeiner Weise Ihre Sicht auf den Zusammenhang zwischen Inhalt und Sprache beim Unterricht in Ihrer Muttersprache beeinflusst?
- 19) Inwieweit unterscheidet sich Ihr Unterricht in Ihrer Muttersprache von Ihrem Unterricht in Englisch (falls überhaupt)?
- 20) Inwieweit unterscheidet sich das Lernen Ihres Fachs in Ihrer Muttersprache vom Lernen auf Englisch (falls überhaupt)?
- 21) Hat Ihr englischsprachiger Unterricht von internationalen Studierenden irgendeinen Einfluss darauf gehabt was Sie unterrichten (Lehr-/Studienplan) Falls ja, inwieweit?
- 22) Gibt es sonst noch Themen/Ideen über die Sie in Bezug auf Englisch als Unterrichtssprache/EMI sprechen möchten?

C) CODING MANUAL

INTERNATIONALISATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION

General views on internationalisation

Code	Description	Example
meaningInt	the essential meaning of internationalisation of higher education for the lecturers	<i>Firstly, internationalisation means for me that one has to look beyond the horizon and find out what others are doing.</i>
featureInt	features/characteristics of internationalisation of higher education	<i>... a more global education program.</i>
negInt	negative aspects/characteristics of internationalisation (of higher education)	<i>The downside is loss of regional-ity.</i>
posInt	positive aspects/characteristics of internationalisation (of higher education)	<i>..., that we can run joint research projects where we can complement one another.</i>

Internationalisation and English

Code	Description	Example
E+Int	the role of English, the connection between English and internationalisation (Englishisation?)	<i>You can be anywhere; everything comes in English, yeah, so you cannot, basically, do it without.</i>
negE	negative aspects of English language usage/dominance	<i>I think perhaps it might put off some students that are gifted in perhaps, engineering, but are not good at languages, I can see that.</i>
E@FH	the role English plays (should/could play) at the FH Campus Wien	<i>..., then there are two per cent or one per cent of the lectures which are conducted in English now.</i>
moreEneg	critical views regarding an increased incorporation of EMI in the FH's curricula	<i>If you ask the students: "Should I lecture in German or English?", then they'll say with 90 per cent security: „in German“.</i>

Internationalisation at the FH Campus Wien

Code	Description	Example
policyFHint	internationalisation policies/guidelines at the FH Campus Wien lecturers are aware of	<i>Regarding the strategy, projects exist, just like 'Internationalisation at home', ...</i>
reasonEMI	relevance of/reasons for EMI courses at a university	<i>It is a process of leading..., towards the ability to exchange one's professional views with others, ...</i>
FH:int/Aut	impressions whether the FH Campus Wien is an Austrian or international university	<i>I think it's an Austrian university that now is doing its best to become international, really.</i>

realityIntFH	the reality/everyday experiences regarding internationalisation at the FH	<i>..., we do have part-time study programmes, this also means that it's not that easy for these students to say "I'm going abroad for a semester", ...</i>
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ENGLISH-MEDIUM INSTRUCTION

EMI at the FH Campus Wien

Code	Description	Example
whyEMIintro	why/how was it decided to offer a course in English? teacher selection?	<i>..., so they told me "Well, perhaps you can try?".</i>
guideEMI	guidelines given to lecturers regarding their teaching in English (from their departments, from the FH management)	<i>Well, there's only this wish, or the strategic orientation, to include more internationalisation, but basically I'm doing it myself.</i>
numberEMICourses	number of EMI courses the lecturers are aware of	<i>No, when I asked them, it's the only one ,...</i>
probsEMI_gen	general problems regarding the development and implementation of EMI courses at the FH	<i>There is no continuity, there is no interaction between departments, there is no shared.., technology for the most part.</i>
supportEMI_lecturers	which kind of support lecturers receive for teaching in English	<i>Courses were offered here, for teaching in English.</i>
supportEMI_students	which kind of support lecturers are aware of that students receive for being taught/learning in English	<i>Well, it can be said that it's a prerequisite. But there are also courses such as 'Business English' ...</i>

The EMI classroom

Code	Description	Example
typEMIgroup	what a typical group of EMI students looks like (international, Austrian, languages etc.)	<i>Typically it is most-- mostly Austrians, yeah, mostly Austrians.</i>
levelE_students	general level of students' English as noticed by lecturers when teaching EMI courses	<i>Usually, there are students in the group who struggle with English to an extent that they have serious problems.</i>
levelE_lecturers	lecturers' level of English (as described by themselves)	<i>And therefore I'm probably the wrong teacher for the language, because I'm probably making mistakes.</i>
diffFullPart	differences between full-time and part-time students (mostly regarding their English skills)	<i>Of course, it's much much harder with the part-time students, to introduce an international component, since they can't leave.</i>

langEMI	the role of language(s) in EMI courses, the extent of the use of English and other languages	<i>What I do is that in between I often tell them what the German term is.</i>
lang_learning	language learning that might occur during EMI courses, possible CLIL aspects	<i>I do believe that they build up a richer technical vocabulary through engaging with the topic in a different language.</i>
contentteach_first	primary importance of content teaching, language teaching secondary or absent	<i>I'm basically saying, it's not a language course.</i>

Teaching in English

Code	Description	Example
posEMI_lecturers	positive effects/aspects of EMI for lecturers	<i>I can go everywhere and I can teach everywhere in English.</i>
probsEMI_lecturers	problems lecturers (might) have with/in EMI courses	<i>No, the difficulties-- the big difficulty is the different levels.,</i>
bigEMIchallenge	what lecturers perceive as their biggest challenge when teaching in English (their L2 or their students' L2, or both)	<i>That's one thing, if you teach for a longer time, during one day, the personal effort is heavier.</i>
surpriseEMI	unexpected experiences when starting with EMI/with teaching international groups	<i>Well, there are hardly any questions then, because the students don't dare to speak English</i>
diffEMI_assessment	differences to L1 teaching regarding assessment of students	<i>We don't penalise them because of-- because of the language barrier.</i>
diffEMI_content	difference to L1 teaching regarding contents	<i>Of course, it could be possible that I would be faster if I'd do it in German and perhaps could include another aspect or two.</i>
diffEMI_exam	differences to L1 teaching regarding preparing and conducting of exams and tests	<i>This means, in case of doubt, I tend to count it as correct, leaving room for linguistic expression.</i>
diffEMI_lecture	differences to L1 lecturing/ presenting	<i>But regarding the language one obviously tries to speak more slowly and distinctly and perhaps to leave out particular terms or to explain them.</i>
diffEMI_material	differences to L1 teaching regarding the materials used and provided to the students	<i>My lecture notes are much more explicit, my slides are much more explicit.</i>
diffEMI_preparation	differences to L1 teaching regarding the preparation of lessons	<i>, but there is a price to pay, and that's the more elaborate preparation.</i>
skillsEMI_teaching	extra skills needed for EMI teaching (compared to L1 teaching, teaching of L1 groups)	<i>Didactic. .. Pure and simple, fun and didactic.</i>

Learning in English

Code	Description	Example
posEMI_students	positive effects/aspects of EMI for students	<i>Well, that they're able to absorb foreign-language literature more easily, that they can communicate more easily with others.</i>
probsEMI_students	problems students (might) have with/in EMI courses	<i>What I always notice, obviously, that there's a certain inhibition to start speaking in English.</i>
diffEMI_learning	differences to L1 learning (from the lecturers' perspective)	<i>when they hear the terms, they don't remember them so easily, not only the terms as such, but also how to pronounce them.</i>
skillsEMI_learning	extra skills needed for learning through EMI (compared to learning through the L1)	<i>this means they have to switch from German to English within one moment.</i>

Abstract

Higher education in Europe has experienced change and re-orientation in recent decades. Internationalisation with all its cultural, political and economic implications can clearly be identified as major driving force in this context. Not only were universities required to undergo general organisational and directional changes, but the ever-increasing dominance of the English language as *the* medium of teaching and learning resulted in highly specific challenges. Numerous stakeholders are involved and their beliefs and opinions do play a crucial role in the success or at least smooth implementation of certain measures in the process of internationalisation of tertiary education.

Based on a thorough theoretical underpinning, this thesis' empirical research concerns itself with the beliefs and opinions of a central stakeholder group, the university lecturers. In contrast to most previous publications on the topic, an Austrian university of applied sciences was chosen as site of the case study. It was assumed that the particularities of this type of institution may have considerable influence on its needs and requirements regarding internationalisation policies and English-medium instruction (EMI) courses.

The main aim of this research was to reveal the lecturers' beliefs about the internationalisation of tertiary education and especially the role EMI plays in this context. The qualitative analysis of interviews with seven lecturers at the FH Campus Wien, Austria's biggest university of applied sciences, revealed a range of beliefs regarding internationalisation in general, its implementation at the university, and the participants' experiences in their EMI courses. While internationalisation is mostly seen as a positive process, the need of its ubiquitous presence, particularly in the form of English-taught courses or programmes was occasionally questioned. To a certain extent, everyone agreed on the necessity of EMI, e.g. for preparing students for their professional future. For the lecturers personally, teaching in English does, however, present challenges, most significantly the fear of not properly conveying the content to a group of students with varied language skills.

A noticeable difference to most previous studies was the lecturers' belief that a certain part of the student body seems highly sceptical about being taught in English. In addition, it was argued that FH graduates often may not aim for an international future, therefore, all-encompassing internationalisation efforts and English teaching may not be desired. The more vocationally-oriented nature of FH education was suggested to play a role in this context. Another factor could be the high number of mature part-time students who obviously have significantly different backgrounds than regular full-time students.

Zusammenfassung

Wandel und Neuorientierung sind bedeutende Charakteristika des europäischen Hochschulsektors der letzten Jahrzehnte. Internationalisierung mit ihren kulturellen, politischen und wirtschaftlichen Implikationen kann in diesem Kontext sicherlich als wesentliche treibende Kraft genannt werden. Es war für Universitäten nicht nur notwendig Änderungen in Organisation und Ausrichtung vorzunehmen, die stetig zunehmende Vormachtstellung der englischen Sprache als Medium der Lehre und des Lernens birgt ganz spezielle Herausforderungen. Zahlreiche Akteure sind hier involviert und ihre Ansichten und Meinungen spielen eine signifikante Rolle für den Erfolg, oder zumindest die reibungslose Einführung, von Internationalisierungsmaßnahmen an tertiären Bildungseinrichtungen.

Ausgehend von einem umfassenden theoretischen Abschnitt, befasst sich diese Masterarbeit mit den Meinungen einer zentral relevanten Gruppe, den Lehrenden. Im Gegensatz zu früheren Studien wird dieses Projekt eine Fachhochschule (FH) untersuchen. Es wurde nämlich angenommen, dass die Besonderheiten dieses Hochschultyps durchaus Einfluss haben auf die Bedürfnisse und Anforderungen im Internationalisierungsprozess und beim englischsprachigen Fachunterricht. Das Hauptziel war die Eruierung der Ansichten von Lehrenden zur Internationalisierung der tertiären Bildung und im Besonderen zur Rolle von englischsprachigem Fachunterricht in diesem Kontext. Die qualitative Analyse von Interviews die mit sieben Vortragenden der FH Campus Wien, Österreichs größter Fachhochschule, geführt wurden, brachte ein breites Spektrum an Meinungen zu Internationalisierung, deren Umsetzung an der FH und den eigenen Erfahrungen beim Unterrichten auf Englisch zum Vorschein. Während Internationalisierung im Allgemeinen als positiv wahrgenommen wurde, fanden sich bezüglich der allumfassenden Notwendigkeit dieses Prozesses, besonders in Verbindung mit der potenziellen Zunahme von Englisch als Unterrichtssprache, auch kritische Worte. Bis zu einem gewissen Grad stimmten alle Befragten der Notwendigkeit von englischsprachigem Fachunterricht zu, z.B. um Studierende auf ihre berufliche Zukunft vorzubereiten. Die Lehrenden persönlich stellt der Unterricht auf English allerdings vor einige Herausforderungen, besonders die Sorge ob die Kursinhalte einer Gruppe mit unterschiedlichen Sprachkenntnissen verständlich vermittelt werden.

Ein merklicher Unterschied zu den meisten vorhergehenden Studien zu den Ansichten von Lehrenden ist die Feststellung, dass ein Teil der Studierenden dem englischen Unterricht mit Abneigung begegnet. Zusätzlich wurde argumentiert, dass FH-Absolventen oft keine internationale Zukunft anstreben und daher umfassende Internationalisierung und die weitreichende Einführung von English als Unterrichtssprache gar nicht wünschenswert wären. Die

eher praxisorientierte Ausrichtung von FH-Bildung wurde hinter diesen Meinungen vermutet. Ein weiterer Faktor könnte die hohe Anzahl von Teilzeitstudierenden sein, die offensichtlich deutlich andere Lebens- und Arbeitsumstände haben als reguläre Vollzeitstudierende.

Curriculum Vitae

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Educational background

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2013–2014 ERASMUS exchange, University of Edinburgh/UK
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2014–2015 Project assistant, FWF-Elise Richter-Project ‚English in the Linguistic Landscape of Vienna, Austria (ELLViA)’, Department of English, University of Vienna
 2014 Administrative assistant, International Office, University of Vienna
2010–2013 Commercial staff, antiquarian bookshop, Vienna
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