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English Medium Instruction (EMI) Lecturer support needs in Japan and China

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Abstract:	<p>The internationalisation of higher education has resulted in a focus on English in non-Anglophone contexts and a boom in courses and programmes offered in English worldwide. Despite this growth in provision, a number of challenges have been identified with regards to English Medium Instruction (EMI) (Galloway et al., 2017), including a lack of suitable instructors and a lack of training and support for those transitioning to teaching their curricula in English. Drawing on questionnaires with students (n=702) and teachers (n=28), interviews with English for Academic Purposes (EAP) instructors (n=10) and EMI content instructors (n=17) and focus groups with EAP instructors (2) and content instructors (1), Four study explores the types of instructors employed in EMI programmes in China and Japan, the characteristics that students consider important in instructors, and the support available. The results provide insights for faculty recruitment and training and overall EMI policy implementation.</p>
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As instructed, this is now an unblinded version of the manuscript.

We have added the analysis of individual responses about the instructors made by students.

Since there is no clear limitations section, we have added the limitation directly to the methodology section, where the responses are reported. I hope this is acceptable.

Title Page

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English Medium Instruction (EMI) Lecturer support needs in Japan and China

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English Medium Instruction (EMI) Lecturer support needs in Japan and China

Abstract

The internationalisation of higher education has resulted in a focus on English in non-Anglophone contexts and a boom in courses and programmes offered in English worldwide. Despite this growth in provision, a number of challenges have been identified with regards to English Medium Instruction (EMI) (Galloway et al., 2017), including a lack of suitable instructors and a lack of training and support for those transitioning to teaching their curricula in English. Drawing on questionnaires with students (n=702) and teachers (n=28), interviews with English for Academic Purposes (EAP) instructors (n=10) and EMI content instructors (n=17) and focus groups with EAP instructors (2) and content instructors (1), Four study explores the types of instructors employed in EMI programmes in China and Japan, the characteristics that students consider important in instructors, and the support available. The results provide insights for faculty recruitment and training and overall EMI policy implementation.

Introduction

As part of their overall internationalisation agenda, universities in non-Anglophone contexts are quickly transitioning to English Medium Instruction (EMI). The internationalisation of higher education, it would seem, has become synonymous with Englishisation. The ‘EMI boom’ is particularly apparent in places such as China and Japan, the context of our study. Here, highly funded government policies promote growth and EMI is closely linked to overall goals to develop English proficiency, making East Asia an interesting context in which to explore EMI policy implementation (Galloway et al, 2017). As of 2018, 305 out of 740 undergraduate institutions in Japan (41.2%) offered some kind of

EMI classes, while 42 universities offered fully English-taught degree programs (5.7%) (MEXT, 2020). Wu et al's (2010, as cited in Lei & Hu, 2014) survey of 135 tertiary education institutions throughout China in 2006 found that 132 offered EMI courses or programmes, with an average of 44 courses per institution.

EMI is a central part of the higher education internationalisation agenda, yet despite the many perceived benefits, a number of studies identify challenges to policy implementation (see Curle et al. (2020) for an overview). The majority of these studies, however, focus on students. Recent studies have started to examine EMI in Japan (Aizawa & Rose, 2019; Aizawa et al., 2020; Brown, 2017; Rose et al., 2019) and China (Cheng, 2017; Fang, 2018; Hu & Duan, 2018; Jiang et al., 2016; Macaro & Han, 2020; McKinley et al., 2021; Rose, McKinley et al., 2020; Qiu & Fang, 2019; Zhang, 2018), but these have only briefly explored EMI faculty, mostly discussing this in the implications and calls for further research. This is surprising given that in China and Japan, a lack of qualified, and willing, local teachers to work on EMI programmes (Brown, 2017; Cheng, 2017; Hu, 2016; Jiang et al., 2016; Tong et al, 2020) has been identified as one of the major challenges to successful EMI policy implementation. New EMI instructors are also being recruited due to their perceived English proficiency, as opposed to being an expert in their field, which raises questions about the qualifications, skills and characteristics of an 'ideal' EMI instructor. It also raises questions regarding quality of education students are receiving and, ultimately, whether EMI may, in fact, do more harm than good in some contexts. The lack of research with EMI faculty could also be indicative that EMI is being implemented in a top-down fashion with little consultation with key stakeholders.

Transitioning to teaching an entire curriculum through English is not a simple task and the lack of a detailed needs analysis, and consultation with key stakeholders such as EMI faculty, is concerning. Despite recent discussions about EMI faculty training (see Other et al,

xxxx) few pedagogical guidelines exist for effective teaching and learning in EMI contexts. The lack of such research is also surprising given that staff training has been identified as being crucial to the successful implementation of EMI (Ball & Lindsay, 2012; Wilkinson, 2013). Thus, our study responds to this gap in its exploration of EMI faculty, the characteristics that students consider important in instructors, and the support available. It aims to help inform faculty recruitment and training and overall EMI policy implementation in Japan, China and similar EMI contexts.

EMI faculty recruitment and English ‘proficiency’

To explore requirements for university EMI positions in Japan and China, we examined all advertisements for academic positions in China on one UK-based website (Times Higher Education, n.d.) and a Japanese recruitment site for university positions (Japan Research Career Education Network, n.d.). Our analysis, which took place on the same day, revealed that, out of 201 advertisements in China, 45% referred to English language requirements, commonly stating that applicants should be ‘fluent in English’, have ‘an advanced level of proficiency’ or ‘excellent communication skills’. Out of 289 job advertisements in Japan, 57% stated English language requirements, with almost half of those stating applicants had to have sufficient ability to carry out the job in English. Twenty-six positions required ‘native or native-like proficiency in English’, twenty stated that the applicant should be ‘fluent’ or ‘very fluent’ in English. More specifically, 20 stated that applicants had to have published research in English, presented at international conferences in English or ‘Be active in publication and presentation of scholarly research in English’. More positions in Japan required applicants ‘proficient’ in English and they were also more specific about the level of English proficiency required.

In China, Rose et al (2020, p. 32) also reported that more than 70% of the universities had specific regulations on teachers conducting EMI courses. Regulations varied, but each university's requirements for EMI teachers fell into more than one of the following categories:

- High-level English language proficiency, including written and spoken English;
- Academic capability in the taught subject;
- Rich teaching experiences in EMI and other courses, with a track record of good teaching feedback;
- Training experiences of EMI teaching, offered by the university or overseas institutions;
- Overseas academic experience;
- Academic positions, such as only professors or associate professors can develop EMI courses (ibid.)

In Japan, Aizawa and Rose (2019) analysed one university's EMI policy documentation and interviewed students and teachers. EMI faculty members' English proficiency was prominent in the interviews but not in policy documentation, which only briefly touched on this. The guidelines noted that 'Applicants must be able to conduct lectures and tutorials in both Japanese and English', although there was no guidance regarding the level of English proficiency required to demonstrate this ability. Student and teacher interviews raised concerns about proficiency and this was related to concerns over the quality of education. Brown's (2017) study of four universities in Japan revealed that much less attention was given to faculty's language proficiency than to students' proficiency: 'None of the universities had a benchmark for faculty, nor did they support faculty language learning in any significant way. The proficiency of the faculty was simply assumed to be sufficient and there was no serious consideration of criteria for choosing EMI teachers' (p.52) leading him to the conclusion that 'Faculty language level may be a concern, but not one that is being

acted on' (ibid.). This study also revealed issues with recruiting qualified EMI faculty, which relates to perceptions that EMI courses are more difficult to teach and are not seen as a priority. In one university, staff were not given the option, but were simply selected to teach EMI courses. There are similar reports in places like Denmark, where instructors report feeling obliged to accept requests to teach in English, even when they are not confident in their ability to do so (Tange, 2012; Werther et al., 2014). A lack of motivation to teach in English has also been reported in China (Cheng, 2017). Many instructors find themselves teaching in English simply because they are perceived to be competent speakers of English.

The assessment of English language proficiency is clearly a controversial topic, yet it continues to be central to discussions on EMI and the focus of training programmes for EMI faculty. The language-related challenges of EMI content lecturers are discussed widely in the growing EMI literature (see Curle et al, 2020) and English proficiency, or a reported lack of proficiency has been reported to influence staff performance in a number of ways (ibid.). This includes fear of asking students and answering students' questions, limited classroom discourse, increased stress, extra time needed for preparation, simplification of content and difficulty explaining it fully and clearly. In Costa and Coleman's (2013, pg. 15) survey of EMI programmes in Europe, 30% of the universities cited the language proficiency of academic staff as the greatest difficulty they experienced. Similarly, in China, Jiang et al. (2016) claimed that insufficient English language proficiency has a major impact on efforts to implement EMI. Hu (2016) claimed that the number of EMI courses offered is far lower than official reports as many instructors ignore EMI policy, teaching courses which are officially EMI in Chinese. Further, Zhang (2018) reported teachers', as well as students', English proficiency as a main obstacle to successful EMI implementation. These findings are often used to justify calls for language support for 'non-native' English speaking EMI faculty and the limited work that has focused on staff support, has mainly focused on language support.

EMI faculty support

Albeit scarce, some studies have examined the provision of support for EMI faculty, and attitudes towards such provision. Costa and Coleman's (2013) study with 50% of universities in Italy revealed that 90% of content lecturers in EMI programmes were native speakers of Italian. Only 23% of the universities offered training: 15% offered language training and 8% offered pedagogical training. O'Dowd's (2018) study of training and accreditation of EMI faculty at 70 European universities found a wide range of practices. Almost 68% of universities provided training, which focused on general language skills, academic language skills and pedagogy. Comprehensive training courses have also been reported to be offered at one university in Spain, where a three-day intensive language support course is offered to new academic staff as well as an in-session course on EMI pedagogy (Ball & Lindsay, 2012). In a worldwide survey of professional development of EMI instructors, Macaro et al. (2020) found that 39% of instructors had participated in pre-service or in-service professional development. However, slightly less support for EMI instructors appears to be available in Asia. For example, 33% of the participants in China reported having participated in some form of professional development for EMI (Macaro & Han, 2020).

Hu and Duan (2018) report that EMI faculty in China perceived to have insufficient English language proficiency completed a 240-hour English language training programme. Rose et al (2020) also found that when training opportunities were available, EMI teachers indicated general satisfaction, in contrast to the findings of Hu and Lei (2014) and Macaro and Han (2019). In their systematic review, Tong et al (2020) found that EMI faculty's English proficiency was also a major focus of studies published in English and made up a quarter of studies published in Chinese. Recommendations to improve English proficiency and content knowledge included 'workshops/training on native pronunciation and

communication, and pedagogy in teaching bilingual courses' (p. 12) as well as collaboration with ELT teachers, 'international experiences in English-speaking academic settings...and... direct recruitment of candidates with advanced degrees from these institutions' (*ibid.*). This systematic review also concluded that in China, no detailed process was adopted by higher institutions in consulting and engaging faculty and/or students; stakeholders that are directly affected by this educational movement. In China, Cheng (2017) highlighted that 'The shortage of qualified instructors has become a major roadblock for the successful continuation and expansion of EMI in Chinese universities' and documents the lack of 'universal guidelines on how to prepare EMI instructors' (p. 88). In his survey, EMI faculty called for contextualised training, favouring supervised teaching practice and a focus on pedagogy. In Japan, Aizawa and Rose's (2019) policy analysis revealed that the university offered teacher training opportunities for faculty members, yet the three teacher participants had not made use of them or were unaware of them.

These studies provide initial insights into the support needs of EMI faculty as well as current provision. The focus on language training raises questions as to the goals of EMI programmes and what it means to be a competent EMI teacher. As Galloway and Rose (2021) note "as accomplished academics, often publishing in their fields, this is a complex matter and we would suggest that the focus move from English proficiency, particularly from the notion of 'native' speaker competence, to pedagogy" (p. 40). The EMI boom is changing classroom demographics in many contexts. An EMI instructor may find themselves teaching to a linguistically and culturally diverse student population and there have been calls for intercultural communication training (Costa & Coleman, 2013; Kelo et al., 2010) as well as for a focus on pedagogy as opposed to language.

The role of an EMI lecturer

Most definitions of EMI limit the purpose of instruction to the learning of content knowledge. For example, Macaro et al. (2018) define EMI as “the use of the English language to teach academic subjects (other than English itself) in countries or jurisdictions in which the majority of the population’s first language is not English” (p. 37). Improvement in English language proficiency is seen to be a potential by-product of EMI. However, studies in East-Asian EMI programmes have revealed that *students* often consider the primary purpose of EMI to be improved language proficiency (Galloway et al, 2017; Sim, 2018). There have also been calls for faculty training programmes to include a focus on language pedagogy. Jiang et al. (2016) argue that EMI content instructors *require* training in language pedagogy and Valcke and Wilkinson (2017) call for language-aware teaching practices in teacher training.

Training in (language-aware) pedagogy, may result in instructors being more willing to incorporate language aspects in their content classrooms. Roothoof’s (2019) study in Spain with 59 EMI instructors from five universities found that the majority focused only on content, but those that had received some CLIL training focused on both content and language. On the other hand, EMI teachers in Block and Moncada-Comas (2019) did not consider themselves language teachers and do not focus on language teaching in their lessons.

However, Qiu and Fang (2019) report that students also prioritise content learning over language acquisition and prefer teachers who can effectively teach content, regardless of their language skills. In Galloway et al. (2017) and Galloway and Ruegg (2020), content instructors considered this to be beyond their skill set and felt that students were already sufficiently supported, unlike EAP/ESP instructors and students who called for more language support. Differences were related to how EMI is conceptualised; content instructors saw EMI as an instructional tool, compared to students who often enrolled to improve their

English proficiency. The studies called for more collaboration between language and content instructors. In Costa and Coleman (2013), 15% of the universities also reported such lack of collaboration to be the greatest difficulty they faced. Tong et al's (2020) systematic review in China also revealed that a vast majority of articles on EMI published in Chinese were written by EMI content lecturers and none were co-authored with an ELT or SLA expert, noting that earlier calls for such collaboration had not been met. Such calls for collaboration with ELT professionals clearly have implications for staff training, as well as for workload. Hellekjaer and Wilkinson (2003), for example, propose a co-teaching situation in which content teachers assess and provide feedback on the content of students' work and language specialists focus on their language. Team teaching has, in fact, been found to boost motivation and help instructors reflect on their pedagogical practice (Lasagabaster, 2018, p. 401).

There is clearly a lack of consensus over both the aims of EMI programmes and the roles of instructors and further research is needed to help inform faculty training programmes. Rose et al's (2020) study in China revealed that some specific instructions on EMI delivery were available, and some of these referred to a balance between English-language teaching and subject knowledge. In order to achieve this, EMI teachers were 'encouraged to apply multimedia teaching and online teaching methods, develop more in-class discussions and activities than traditional classrooms, establish comprehensive and systematic syllabuses, provide rich English-medium resources, continuously listen to students' feedback, slow down the pace in the classroom and offer extracurricular tutoring if needed, and edit course-specific English vocabulary books to assist students' understandings of the materials' (p. 35). Not only does the growth in EMI have workload implications for those working on language instructional programmes (Galloway & Rose, 2021), but research is clearly needed on how best to prepare EMI faculty for working in EMI contexts. There is no one-size-fits-all

approach to EMI policy implementation and the support needs may differ according to the context, university or discipline. Our study responds to the need for research on the needs of EMI faculty in East Asia, where EMI provision is on the rise. It is hoped that the study will also provide insights for other emerging EMI contexts, particularly those where EMI may be linked to English proficiency development. Recent years have clearly seen a growth in EMI research in both China and Japan, but studies have mostly focused on students' needs. The following research questions guided our study: What types of instructors are employed in EMI programmes in China and Japan? What characteristics do students consider important in instructors? What support is currently available to university faculty involved in EMI programmes?

Methods

Context

China and Japan are the two most populous countries in East Asia, together making up more than 90% of the region's population. Roughly equal numbers of universities were included in the study from both China and Japan, all of which offered at least one EMI programme. An attempt was made to collect data from as many students as possible at each university as well as from both EAP instructors and EMI content instructors in order to collect a range of data.

Japan is an interesting EMI context to study due to the possible gaps that have been identified between policy and practice (Aizawa & Rose, 2019; Wilkinson, 2015). This is also the case in China, where government policies encourage implementation but have not produced clear guidelines on how to implement EMI policy. Thus, our study also aimed to fill this gap with an exploration of how this policy is enacted in practice with regards to EMI faculty.

Data Collection

This study builds on Galloway et al (2017). Data was collected via questionnaires with students (n=702) (Appendix 1) and teachers (n=28) (Appendix 2) at 9 universities. Qualitative data included interviews (Appendix 3) with EAP teachers (n=10) and content teachers (n=17) and focus groups (Appendix 4) with EAP teachers (2), content teachers (1) and one mixed group. Data collection tools were piloted in Japan prior to data collection. Quantitative data were analysed using SPSS and qualitative analysis was conducted with *NVivo 11*. Each qualitative data set was analysed separately. Descriptive statistics were used to summarise the data, and a Mann-Whitney U-test was used to compare differences in means between different groups of students.

Faculty participants

Twenty-eight teachers responded to the survey from 5 universities in Japan and 4 universities in China. Fifteen were male and thirteen were female. Lecturers in Japan came from a range of countries, whereas those in China were mostly domestic lecturers (Table 1). The majority of the lecturers were between the ages of 31 and 50 (Table 2). More than half were teaching English and others were teaching history, education, and psychology. The majority taught students at undergraduate level, although 13 also taught at postgraduate level. Twenty-two out of the 28 respondents reported having more than three years of experience in teaching their major/subject/course. Unfortunately, the questionnaire did not ask specifically about their experience of teaching in EMI, therefore it remains unclear how much of this previous experience was of teaching in English versus in another language. Pseudonyms are used to refer to individual teachers.

Student participants

Seven hundred and two students responded to the survey from five universities in Japan and four in China. In Japan, seventy-four percent of the 454 students were Japanese, in comparison, almost all of the 248 respondents in China were Chinese (98%) (Table 3). Of the international students in Japan, 52% came from 'native' English-speaking countries. Students studying in China were taking English-related (25%) or economics-related majors (25%) and almost half in Japan were studying international or global studies. Most first- and some second-year students had not yet decided their majors. The largest number of students in Japan were first year students, whereas in China third year students dominated (Table 4).

Findings

Questionnaire results

Teachers' nationality

In terms of the types of teachers teaching in EMI programmes, the results demonstrate that most teachers in these Japanese and Chinese EMI programmes are from 'non-native' English speaking countries. Students in China reported that all of their teachers are from China (63.5%) or mostly from China (8.7%). In Japan, more than half (54.8%) reported teachers coming from various countries, such as Australia, Canada, Chile, India, South Korea, the U.K. and the U.S. Only 18.3% of students in Japan and 7.1% in China reported being taught by someone from a 'native' English speaking country. In contrast, faculty in both Japan and China (81%) reported that their colleagues are from all over the world.

Desirable teaching skills

When asked to rate the importance of a variety of skills for EMI instructors, those receiving the highest degree of agreement among students and faculty were "clear explanations" (94.4% and 100%, respectively), "knowledge of subject" (95.3% and 100%,

respectively), “sensitivity to students' needs and problems” (92.6% and 100%, respectively), and “ability to explain concepts in the subject” (95.9% and 100%, respectively). Those receiving the least agreement among both groups were “certificate in EMI skills” with 82.9% agreement among students and merely 14.3% agreement among staff, followed by “native-like accent” with 76.6% and 28.6%, respectively. Half reported that other characteristics (such as kindness, patience and responsibility) are also important.

A Mann-Whitney U test revealed that compared to students in China, students in Japan showed significantly higher agreement with the importance of the following teaching skills: Experience abroad, Knowledge of subject, Knowledge of English, Clear explanations, Teaching Experience, Teaching Methods, and Ability to explain concepts in my subject (Table 5).

A Mann-Whitney U test comparing domestic and international students across both countries found that, in terms of important teacher characteristics, domestic students showed significantly higher levels of agreement with “native-like accent” ($p < 0.001$), “knowledge of students' language and culture” ($p = 0.045$) and “certificate in EMI skills” ($p = 0.035$). On the other hand, international students were more likely to put more importance on “knowledge of subject” ($p < 0.001$), “clear explanations” ($p = 0.007$), “teaching methods” ($p = 0.015$), and “ability to explain concepts in my subject” ($p = 0.013$) (Table 6).

Significant differences were also found between Japanese, ‘native’ and ‘non-native’ English speaking international students regarding the importance of a native-like accent ($p < 0.001$) (Table 7). A post hoc Mann-Whitney U-test revealed a significant difference between Japanese domestic students and ‘non-native’ English speaking international students in Japan ($p = 0.014$) and between ‘non-native’ and ‘native’ English speaking international students in Japan ($p = 0.037$). ‘Native’ English speaking international students showed higher levels of agreement with skills such as “native-like accent” ($p < 0.001$) and “certificate in EMI skills”

($p = 0.030$) (Table 8). They were also more likely than 'non-native' English speaking international students to put more importance on "knowledge of subject" ($p = 0.050$), "sensitive to students' needs and problems" ($p = 0.039$), and "ability to explain concepts in my subject" ($p = 0.004$).

Open-ended questionnaire data

Students

Two hundred and sixty-five students across the two countries provided open-ended comments relating to whether there were enough qualified EMI instructors in their context, the largest numbers of participants noted that there were 'some' (45), 'all' (26), 'most' (11) or 'a few/few' (9) who were competent. However, several concerns were raised, such as "Some teachers are not very good at English, which makes the material difficult to understand. I often end up self-learning the information and then teaching my peers because no one understands the teacher." (Japanese domestic student, University D). Five commented that their instructors did not always teach in English. For example, "Many of the classes are dominantly taught in the native tongue and some teachers who teach in English are not the best" (International student, University B). However, others mentioned that they do not "have a 'native' accent", yet "many teachers teach in a way that is understandable for both native and non-native students." On the other hand, three students implied that EMI teachers should be native speakers of English; "Teachers should be native speakers of English if teaching in English."

When asked to provide their overall opinion on EMI, 15 comments related to their instructors:

... if the teachers are not good at English, then the learning process will be very slow and troublesome (for the students). To maximize the effectiveness

and efficiency of EMI programs, I feel it is very important to have English proficient teachers. Otherwise, the purpose of EMI is not fulfilled.

(Japanese domestic student, University D)

Teachers

Over a third of the instructors commented on the availability of qualified instructors. Most agreed, but some comments related to quality (“...there is pressure to lower standards...”). As with students, several commented on EMI instructors when giving their overall opinion of EMI. One instructor in China mentioned that some of their colleagues do not teach in English, but “read the powerpoint which contains all the information in English and then translate into Chinese”. Another found that “The biggest impediment [to EMI] is reluctance of non-native speakers of English to teach and learn in English” and similarly that “Both students’ and teachers’ self-efficacy and actual level of language proficiency are important for the success of EMI”.

Faculty interview results

In the faculty interviews, there were several discussions of faculty support on offer. Professor Norman (Content teacher, University A) noted that one of his colleagues “has just got approved a programme for faculty development for new teachers”, which will be mostly aimed at “training, new faculty, younger faculty, although it would be open to other faculty”. At University B, two content instructors referred to “workshops [that were offered] before implementing the new curriculum” and “faculty development courses”, although another at the same university noted that these are offered to “young faculty members” and no follow-up training is offered.

Throughout the interviews, the need for support was seen to be necessary by 6 content and 6 EAP instructors (35% and 60%, respectively). Urumi (Content teacher, University C) wanted to observe other classes in English to see “What kind of questions are asked, what kind of homework, interaction between international students and Japanese students.” EAP teachers also agreed that support for content teachers is needed, and not always available:

... especially where their English level is not high enough to teach a content course in EMI...if we've got a training programme and if the professors who are teaching through EMI are willing to take these courses, because ... they may be reluctant but ... if we've got enough resources... I think it's possible as a supplement for those teachers who are teaching EMI.

Ty (EAP teacher, University D)

When talking about the need for support, Tony (EAP teacher, University E) also talked about the need for more communication between content and EAP staff: “...we want to know what's going on in other classrooms. I think that's a reflection of the Japanese universities not having peer observations, that kind of thing.”

Focus group results

Support for teaching staff was also discussed at length in the focus groups. In the focus group at University D, composed of 5 EAP teachers (although one also taught Business Human Resources), Terrence hinted at “structural changes” to make English “more specific to [the course] content” relating to the need for more collaboration between English and content faculty. In the EAP focus groups, a collective identity was established with comments such as “us, who can speak English well” (Mei Rong, University F) and “us (...) English teachers” (Mingzhu, University G) and they positioned themselves in opposition to

“Them” – content teachers “who have the expert knowledge in their major [but] may not be so good in English” (Erin, University F). This collective identity then reinforced criticisms of the content teachers. Discussions mostly centred on the feeling that their “spoken English is not good enough for them to carry out this all English environment” (Barbara, University G), and the group agreed that content lecturers “definitely” (Melissa, University G) need additional language training.

The importance of concerns over content lecturer’s perceived low English proficiency was evident in how a question about additional training for staff triggered a lengthy exchange in the otherwise “static” University G discussion. At most times, the discussion in this group resembled a group interview with single line utterances. However, when asked about support for content teachers, they discussed the topic at length:

M: Your opinions of other professors in other subjects. Do they need support and training?

Melissa: Yes definitely.

Barbara: Language training.

Mingzhu: To teach something like Politics in English, I don’t know how that can be done. Surely their spoken English is not good enough for them to carry out this all English environment. But I don’t know how they can be supported.

Barbara: They can be supported, at least, by English language training.

Mingzhu: Do you think they are willing to do that?

Melissa: They have to, if they have to teach Commerce or Business in English.

Mingzhu: They have published articles in English in international journals.

Barbara: I don’t think they have the confidence to teach in English...

Mingzhu: If the department is asked to do the work, to tell those professors in Politics or Physics that they must teach in English, I don’t know how we could do that.

Barbara: If they are asked to pass TOEFL or GIE, or other tests.

Mingzhu: That is not possible. They are so busy. I mean they are so busy, how can we expect them to put in such training?

Yvonne: I don’t think it’s possible.

In line with the student focus group at this university, the teachers believed that some content teachers' English proficiency is insufficient to teach in English, supporting the interview findings. Melissa was quick to agree that training was needed, and Barbara reinforced her point about the need for language training. Mingzhu, however, raises an interesting question about their willingness to engage in such training, yet shows an awareness that they are academics who publish in English in their fields. She does, however, later note that their English is insufficient. The group demonstrate an awareness of the difficulties EMI poses for teachers in EMI programmes and also how time consuming obtaining an English certificate would be.

Similar to teacher interviews, the teachers also discussed the *lack of collaboration between EAP and content staff* in detail, concluding that that they “don't know how you could get them to collaborate” (Fang, University F).

Discussion and conclusion

Our results provide insights on who currently works on EMI programmes in Japan and China. It also highlights that in addition to knowledge of the subject, the ability to give clear explanations, explain complex subject-specific concepts and be sensitive to students' needs are deemed to be the most important skills for EMI instructors. Only a minority of faculty deemed 'native' English proficiency to be an important attribute. Nevertheless, open-ended questionnaires revealed that 'native' English speakers are seen as the 'ideal' EMI instructor and questionnaire data revealed concerns over local instructors' English proficiency. Our study calls for more research into the focus on 'native' or 'near-native' proficiency and how English proficiency, or EMI competency should be defined. There is clearly a danger that the growth in EMI in non-Anglophone higher education institutions around the world will lead to further dominance of native-speakerism, already prevalent in

the field of ELT (Holliday, 2006; 2015). Tong et al (2020) note that the effectiveness of borrowed ideas or innovations depend on its compatibility with the local educational context and that overseas training programmes are not the solution. They stress that building professional development is an ongoing process and requires resources. Teaching in an EMI context involves much more than simply being able to speak English. Tests like TOEIC, TOEFL, the CEFR and IELTS, based on 'native' English, do not measure the extent to which an instructor can function successfully in the internationalised EMI classroom.

Student concerns over their increased workloads due to the perceived need to study by themselves when they cannot comprehend the lecturers and concerns over English proficiency support the findings of Costa and Coleman (2013) and Jiang et al. (2016). Faculty also raised concerns over “pressure to lower standards...” when discussing faculty recruitment and the use of the mother tongue when teaching was seen to be related to low English proficiency. This raises further questions about definitions and the goals of EMI programmes, as well as the lack of a detailed needs analysis, including the availability of resources, when implementing top-down EMI policy.

Frequency of support offerings corroborate the findings of Costa and Coleman (2013), Macaro et al. (2020) and Macaro and Han (2020). Some support on offer includes training for early-career academics and pre- and in-service workshops, although it is mostly aimed at younger members of staff. However, at most universities, no support mechanisms were mentioned despite being seen as necessary. There was a call for advice on facilitating interaction between domestic and international students, highlighting the need for possible intercultural communication training for EMI faculty (Kelo et al, 2010) and a focus on developing intercultural competence (Costa & Coleman, 2013) as well as highlighting the relevance of faculty development programmes being developed in Anglophone contexts to reflect the increasingly diverse student cohort. The study also highlights the need for context-

sensitive approach to EMI. Our results highlighted differences between students in China and Japan, domestic and international students and students from different language backgrounds. More non-Japanese instructors work on EMI programmes in Japan than in China, which may require staff inductions relating to students' educational and cultural background. The need for different approaches to EMI also highlights the need for contextualised EMI teacher training (Cheng, 2017).

Discussions on English proficiency are controversial, yet there was a feeling amongst EAP staff that content instructors required English training, calling for language support due to perceptions over their low English proficiency (Hu & Duan, 2018). The participants, however, realised the complexity of this, noting that EMI content instructors are accomplished academics who publish in English. Confidence in teaching in English was mentioned several times, suggesting that this is something that will improve in time. EAP instructors called for more collaboration between content and EAP instructors (Galloway et al., 2017; Costa & Coleman, 2013). Co- or team teaching (Hellekjaer & Wilkinson, 2003; Lasagabaster, 2018) was not explicitly discussed, but it may be one way to help overcome the dilemma posed by EMI, particularly in lower English proficiency contexts, where it is often imposed from the top down as part of the government agenda to develop English skills. Our study highlighted this dilemma; content faculty are not language specialists and language specialists are not subject specialists. Faculty in all fields find their job description changing as EMI grows.

Despite having concerns over the proficiency of content instructors, content faculty in our study questioned whether language pedagogy should be part of their skillset, unlike Jiang et al. (2016) and Valcke and Wilkinson (2017), who call for training in language pedagogy for content instructors. Content faculty may not class themselves as language teachers (Block

& Moncada-Comas, 2019) and our study revealed that language pedagogy is perceived to be beyond their skill set. Concerns were also raised over both resources for faculty development and the time required for in-service training. Indeed, “[l]earning about language issues will be an additional burden to carrying out their research in their own field” (Macaro, 2019) and we have to be mindful of additional burdens, particularly if they take up valuable research time, which could ultimately have a detrimental impact on the institution. Overall, we call for more research with these key stakeholders to inform EMI faculty training. Such research should include a larger number of content faculty, as EMI is an interdisciplinary field, yet much of the research is currently led by Applied linguists.

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Table 1. Nationality of faculty

	Japan		China	
	N	%	N	%
Domestic	8	40%	6	75%
North America	4	20%	2	25%
United Kingdom	4	20%	0	
New Zealand	2	10%	0	
Australia	1	5%	0	
South Korea	1	5%	0	
Total	20		8	

Table 2. Age of faculty

Age	N	%
-30	3	11%
31-40	7	25%
41-50	15	54%
51+	3	11%
Total	28	

Table 3. Nationality of students

	Japan		China	
	N	%	N	%
Domestic	352	77.5%	243	98.0%
Native English Speaking International	52	11.2%	0	
Non-Native English Speaking International	48	10.7%	5	2.0%
Missing	2	0.4%	0	
Total	454		248	

Table 4. Year-level of students

	Japan	China
First year	30%	20%
Second year	29%	32%
Third year	26%	44%
Fourth year or postgraduate	15%	4%

Table 5. Comparison of attitudes towards EMI between students in Japan and China

In my context, the following characteristics are important for teachers who teach and work using English as a medium of instruction in EMI programmes	Country	Mean	U	p	ES
Native-like accent	Japan	2.98	26430.0	0.220	0.05
	China	2.89			
Experience abroad	Japan	3.10	25074.5	0.025*	0.10
	China	2.95			
Knowledge of subject	Japan	3.60	23925.5	0.002*	0.14
	China	3.42			
Knowledge of English	Japan	3.39	25121.0	0.028*	0.10
	China	3.24			
Clear explanations	Japan	3.57	24546.0	0.007*	0.12
	China	3.40			
Sensitive to students' needs and problem	Japan	3.37	26862.5	0.352	0.04
	China	3.29			
Knowledge of students' language and culture	Japan	3.21	27832.0	0.576	0.02
	China	3.15			
Teaching experience	Japan	3.36	23391.0	0.001*	0.15
	China	3.13			
Teaching methods	Japan	3.42	24155.0	0.004*	0.13
	China	3.23			
Certificate in EMI skills	Japan	3.03	27100.0	0.435	0.03
	China	2.99			
Ability to explain	Japan	3.43	24524.5	0.008*	0.12
	China	3.28			

Table 6. Comparison of attitudes towards EMI between domestic and international students

Group	Mean	U	p	ES
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I believe that my EMI content lecturers should also help me with my English language proficiency.	Domestic	3.01	11066.5	0.036*	0.11
	International	2.84			
I believe that EMI content classes should be supplemented with English language support class provided by English teachers.	Domestic	3.06	12585.5	0.998	0.00
	International	3.05			
In my context, the following characteristics are important for teachers who teach and work using English as a medium of instruction in EMI programmes:					
- Native-like accent	Domestic	3.08	8812.0	0.000*	0.25
	International	2.68			
- Experience abroad	Domestic	3.11	12015.5	0.463	0.04
	International	3.06			
- Knowledge of subject	Domestic	3.53	9830.5	0.000*	0.20
	International	3.79			
- Knowledge of English	Domestic	3.37	11715.0	0.256	0.06
	International	3.46			
- Clear explanations	Domestic	3.53	10589.5	0.007*	0.14
	International	3.71			
- Sensitive to students' needs and problem	Domestic	3.35	11829.5	0.329	0.05
	International	3.41			
- Knowledge of students' language and culture	Domestic	3.26	11043.0	0.045*	0.11
	International	3.07			
- Teaching Experience	Domestic	3.32	11105.0	0.054	0.10
	International	3.46			
- Teaching Methods	Domestic	3.38	10722.5	0.015*	0.13
	International	3.54			
- Certificate in EMI skills	Domestic	3.09	10965.5	0.035*	0.11
	International	2.89			
- Ability to explain concepts in my subject	Domestic	3.40	10693.0	0.013*	0.13
	International	3.54			

Table 7. Comparison of attitudes towards EMI between domestic, NNES and NES students in Japan and China

Description	Group	Mean	SD	p	Mann-Whitney Post-Hoc Test
- Native-like accent	Japan	3.08	0.71	0.000	J > NNES > NES
	NNES	2.81	0.73		
	NES	2.46	0.71		
- Experience abroad	Japan	3.13	0.7	0.337	

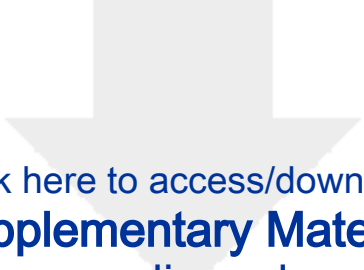
	NNES	3.02	0.64		
	NES	3.00	0.63		
- Knowledge of subject	Japan	3.54	0.64	0.001	NNES > J
	NNES	3.81	0.55		NES > J
	NES	3.76	0.43		
- Knowledge of English	Japan	3.37	0.63	0.446	
	NNES	3.49	0.63		
	NES	3.41	0.5		
- Clear explanation	Japan	3.53	0.62	0.016	NNES > J
	NNES	3.72	0.63		
	NES	3.73	0.45		
- Sensitive to students' needs and problems	Japan	3.34	0.64	0.150	
	NNES	3.33	0.68		
	NES	3.56	0.5		
- Knowledge of students' language and culture	Japan	3.25	0.63	0.105	
	NNES	3.05	0.84		
	NES	3.07	0.65		
- Teaching experience	Japan	3.33	0.63	0.375	
	NNES	3.40	0.62		
	NES	3.49	0.51		
- Teaching methods	Japan	3.38	0.62	0.06	
	NNES	3.53	0.67		
	NES	3.56	0.55		
- Certificate in EMI skills	Japan	3.08	0.65	0.040	J > NES
	NNES	2.95	0.82		
	NES	2.78	0.79		
- Ability to explain concepts in my subject	Japan	3.40	0.59	0.003	NES > J
	NNES	3.44	0.73		
	NES	3.71	0.51		

Table 8. Comparison of attitudes towards EMI between NNES and NES students in Japan

In my context, the following characteristics are important for teachers who teach and work using English as a medium of instruction in EMI programmes:	Group	Mean	U	p
- Native-like accent	NNES	3.04	3503	0.000*
	NES	2.45		
- Knowledge of subject	NNES	3.57	5127	0.050*
	NES	3.79		

- Sensitive to students' needs and problems	NNES	3.34	4998	0.039*
	NES	3.58		
- Certificate in EMI skills	NNES	3.07	4955.5	0.030*
	NES	2.79		
- Ability to explain concepts in my subject in English	NNES	3.40	4570	0.004*
	NES	3.68		

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