

# A Handbook for English-Medium Instruction in Institutions of Higher Education in Israel



English as the Cornerstone  
of Sustainable Technology and Research



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of the European Union

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## English as the Cornerstone of Sustainable Technology and Research

The ECOSTAR project is a 15-partner consortium of experts in the field of language teaching, learning and assessment from Israeli and EU institutions, funded by the European Union through the TEMPUS program. This initiative has enabled the creation of a framework for English in higher education that conforms to the European standards of the Common European Framework for Language Learning (CEFR) while satisfying the requirements of the Israeli Council for Higher Education (CHE). This CEFR-Aligned Framework for Higher Education in Israel bridges the local context of Israel with the global context of English as used today, meeting contemporary challenges and re-conceptualizing the field of English for Academic Purposes in line with internationally accepted standards while focusing on the specific needs of Israeli students (<https://tempus-ecostar.iucc.ac.il/wp-content/uploads/2016/04/Framework-ATAR-with-preface.pdf>).

One of the aims of the ECOSTAR project is to create a new learning environment for English in higher education. Its beliefs about language learning align with current understandings of what language knowledge comprises, referring to multiple literacies and the use of different modalities to convey meaning in all four language skills: reading, writing, speaking and listening. Furthermore, ECOSTAR promotes content-based and task-based instruction models in language teaching. In the case of higher education, this also refers to using the English language to teach academic content in different disciplines, i.e. English-Medium Instruction (EMI), the focus of this handbook.

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 <b>MEITAL</b> – The Inter-University Center for e-learning	 <b>IDC HERZLIYA</b> The Interdisciplinary Center, Herzliya	 <b>SCE</b> Sami Shamoon College of Engineering
 <b>TEL AVIV UNIVERSITY</b> אוניברסיטת תל אביב	 <b>Nazareth Academic Institute</b> The Nazareth Academic Institute	 <b>המכון הלאומי לבחינות והערכה</b> NATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR TESTING & EVALUATION The National Institute for Testing and Evaluation
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## Foreword

By Robert Wilkinson

English-Medium Instruction (EMI) seems to have become the preferred option in higher education institutions across the world in response to the challenges of globalization (Wächter & Maiworm, 2015; Dearden, 2015; Wilkinson, forthcoming 2017). Competition and governmental pressure, in part through ranking and accreditation systems, compel institutions to devise strategies to benefit from staff and student mobility by means of internationalization policies, be they explicit or tacit. Institutions find themselves forced to differentiate themselves, taking advantage of their unique selling points, whether due to their location, disciplinary expertise, approach to learning and teaching, collaboration with business, joint and double degrees, even in some cases their linguistic hinterland.

Devising new programs in an additional language can be costly, incurring, in addition to normal development outlays, expenses for language support for both students and staff, expenses for recruitment and embedding of staff and students from abroad, not to mention costs for constructing an effective teaching and learning system, which may include assessment procedures in more than one language, since the system for learning through an additional language, be it English or any other, will differ from that for learning through the national language of the country. Multilingual countries may have natural advantages in this respect. Obviously, the additional costs have to be set against the risks of not making the investments.

When a higher education institution decides to further its internationalization policy by introducing EMI, the process may be stimulated top-down from the institutional management or bottom-up from teachers within specific disciplines. In either case, the process advocates need to consider carefully all the factors involved using techniques such as SWOT<sup>1</sup> analyses (Bell & Rochford, 2016; Chermack & Kasshanna, 2007), PEST<sup>2</sup> analyses (e.g. Martinez & Wolverton, 2009), as well as variants of the Deming *Plan-Do-Check/Study-Act cycle* (see for example, Taylor et al., 2013). The factors affecting EMI range from, for instance, program and course design (including such aspects as aims and objectives, implementation, assessment and evaluation), teacher and student competences and abilities, beliefs and motivations of stakeholders, the relationship with internal and external elements such as institutional mission, other programs including non-EMI ones, to the local and national community. The institution will surely look at other schools and universities that have embarked on an EMI process, and identify what they can copy, do better, do differently as well as what they should not do given their own peculiar circumstances.

This is precisely the area that the authors of the *Handbook for English-Medium Instruction in Higher Education in Israel* have focused on. Moreover, they have aimed for the practical, that is the outcomes of a European Union Tempus-funded project ECOSTAR. The context is one country, Israel, whose

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1 Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats.

2 Political, Economic, Social, Technological factors.

higher education institutions are engaged in internationalization processes to prepare students for a future where almost everyone is involved in transcultural (Marotta, 2014) and transnational encounters. The project provides guidelines for institutions that are upgrading their English language teaching to render it relevant to teaching and learning through the medium of English. The integrated focus is shown in the title of the project, English as the Cornerstone of Sustainable Technology and Research.

The authors provide a valuable summary of issues and challenges facing EMI, setting the Israeli situation in an international context, or specifically a European context. The partners in the project, from Netherlands, Italy, Cyprus, Romania, Poland, and the UK, demonstrate the value international collaboration can have for the outcomes for a single country. The guidelines and practical recommendations in this book will not only be beneficial to Israeli institutions but also to institutions in other countries that are also faced with the challenges of designing, implementing, assessing and evaluating EMI.



Robert Wilkinson

**Robert Wilkinson** has worked at Maastricht University, the Netherlands, since 1984. He was a member of teams concerned with the introduction for a range of English-medium instruction programs from the first in International Management under Prof. Geert Hofstede in the mid-1980s. He has published widely on the experience of Maastricht University as it has changed from a Dutch-medium institution to one that is bilingual where most programs are now English-medium. He continues to provide advice to other universities both in the Netherlands and abroad. Robert Wilkinson is chair of the ICLHE Association - Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education, which holds its 5th conference at the University of Copenhagen in October 2017.



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## Glossary

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CEFR -	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CHE -	Council of Higher Education
CLIL -	Content and Language Integrated Learning
EAP -	English for Academic Purposes
ECTS -	European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System
EFL -	English as a Foreign Language
EMI -	English-Medium Instruction
ESP -	English for Specific Purposes
HE -	Higher Education
HEI -	Higher Education Institution
IaH -	Internationalization at Home
ICLHE -	Integration of Content and Language in Higher Education
IELTS -	International English Testing System
L1 -	First language/mother tongue
L2 -	Second Language
SIG -	Special Interest Group
SWOT -	Strength, Weakness, Opportunities, Threats
TOEFL -	Test of English as a Foreign Language

## Introduction

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This handbook is intended for professionals involved in the growing phenomenon of internationalization in higher education in Israel. Our focus is on English-Medium Instruction (EMI), which refers to using the English language to deliver academic content in non-English dominant settings, and which plays a central role in the development of internationalization programs. We also present recommendations for the effective implementation of EMI within university and college study programs in Israel.

With more than 2 billion people learning or using English to some extent, there is no argument as to the importance of this language. The growth of EMI in educational establishments in non-English-speaking countries around the world is a clear indication of the predominance of English in this sphere. However, there is no single model for EMI, and where policy exists as part of a process of internationalization, there is no guarantee that this is reflected in actual practice. Furthermore, there is no agreement on who should study in English and who should not, nor whether English language proficiency is improved by an EMI course or what levels of proficiency are required by students and teachers. What is clear is that within the field there are different forms of EMI, and that this is a field that is still evolving.

Within the framework of the ECOSTAR project, we have been able to review steps taken in other countries that have adopted EMI, and to consider what constitutes best practice in order for this nascent process in Israel to benefit from their experience.

The first half of the handbook provides a theoretical background to EMI within the context of current developments in higher education, starting with a brief overview of internationalization around the world and in Israel. This is followed by an explanation of the concept of EMI, and of its purpose and status in Europe and in Israel. We then address the challenges involved in implementing EMI from the perspectives of students, teachers and institutions. The second half of the handbook presents practical suggestions and guidelines for the implementation of EMI within institutions of higher education in Israel, and a discussion of assessment issues. Finally, a list of references and resources for more in-depth study is provided.

# PART 1: THEORETICAL CONCEPTS AND GENERAL BACKGROUND

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## 1 Internationalization

Greater access to higher education in general and the impact of globalization, with increasing opportunities for mobility during the course of one's studies, are the major driving factors in the widening of educational horizons. Nevertheless, the term 'internationalization' in academic institutions is 'conceptually elusive' (Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2013a, p. 1), and open to a variety of interpretations, depending on the vastly diverse individual institutions where this process is taking place. In 2000, a series of programs intended to promote internationalization was created by the European Commission<sup>3</sup>. These encouraged institutions to develop exchange programs for students as well as for lecturers, offering knowledge-sharing opportunities for individuals and institutions in different countries as well as the acceptance and fostering of cultural and linguistic diversity. One of the means for attaining this goal is through study-abroad programs, whereby individual students or lecturers spend time in academic institutions outside their own countries, acquiring and sharing academic as well as cultural and linguistic knowledge.

With institutions striving to attract foreign students for the associated economic benefits, the home curriculum requires adaptation in order to accommodate the visiting students. However, while the 'study abroad' element is quite common in some cultures and is growing in many more, there will continue to be large numbers of students for whom a period of study in a foreign institution may be impossible due to a wide variety of personal constraints. Consequently, while revenue-generation may, in many cases, be the driving force behind the rush to internationalize, the resulting changes in higher education might have another advantage in optimizing opportunities to benefit the home students who may not be in a position to participate in an international exchange program themselves. Thus, internationalization of the home curriculum and creation of a 'glocal'<sup>4</sup> classroom also provides opportunities for the development of intercultural encounters and cross-border activities at home (see Trahar, 2013).

This process of '*Internationalization at Home*' (IaH) internalizes the fact that most students and academics will not study or work in foreign institutions. It incorporates the need for an understanding of the existing diversity among the domestic population while expanding horizons to include more global perspectives, and encouraging a more receptive approach to cultural differences. The IaH type of program is one in which there is greater integration between home students and visiting

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3 ERASMUS and ERASMUS+, (launched within the Socrates program, later replaced with the Socrates II program in 2000, and then by the Lifelong Learning program, 2007-2013): [https://ec.europa.eu/programs/erasmus-plus/about\\_en](https://ec.europa.eu/programs/erasmus-plus/about_en)

4 The term 'glocal' refers to the merge between global and local perspectives, between commonality and divergence (Robertson, 1995).

international students, who study together rather than in separate schools. This is where inter-cultural encounters can be developed within the classroom and beyond, for example when collaborative coursework is encouraged. It is also where the issues relating to English-Medium Instruction (EMI) courses become relevant, and the need arises to ponder their mode of delivery and accompanying considerations for both target populations - international and local students. The English language plays a major role in internationalization initiatives, for as the current lingua franca (Graddol, 2006) it acts as a bridge to facilitate communication among speakers of different mother tongues. The implications for curriculum design, for teaching and learning strategies, for assessment for a diverse student population, for virtual mobility and telecollaboration, require careful consideration so that appropriate strategies can be adopted - see O'Dowd (2015), for example.

### Internationalization in Israel

Currently, tertiary education in Israel is in the process of embracing internationalization in the form of programs intended for incoming international students. These represent, for the time being, only 4% of the general student population in academic institutions. The number, however, is on the rise, strongly advocated by policy initiatives of the Council of Higher Education (CHE), as will be elaborated below. Programs for international students are presently offered by most universities and include full degree programs in English as well as shorter options<sup>5</sup>. The Interdisciplinary Center, Herzliya, is currently the only academic college with an international school. Other academic colleges do however offer a variety of programs in English, and this is likely to grow in the future<sup>6</sup>.

According to recent statements in the media by the Minister of Education regarding Israel's new multi-year plan for higher education (Jerusalem Post, 14<sup>th</sup> September 2016<sup>7</sup>), 300 million shekels will be allocated toward internationalization of the higher education system, with an emphasis on bringing more international students to study in Israel. This new program seeks to more than double the number of international students currently studying in Israel, from 12,000 to 25,000, within 5 years. While the emphasis will be on those studying toward advanced degrees, it will not necessarily exclude developments in the area of undergraduate degrees and short-term exchange programs, which are likely to grow as more and more higher education institutions seek to improve their national and international rankings. The assumption is that these international programs will be taught in English.

The plans for internationalization are in their infancy, and a review of the current state of internationalization in higher education institutions (HEIs) in Israel shows a wide variety of programs and stages of implementation. In a follow-up report on the paper "*Update on international students*

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5 The Hebrew University of Jerusalem (the Rothberg International School and the International School of Agricultural Sciences), Tel Aviv University (Tel Aviv University International), Bar Ilan University, University of Haifa International School, Ben Gurion University of the Negev, the Technion, the Weizmann Institute of Science

6 [http://www.mfa.gov.il/MFA/IsraelExperience/AboutIsrael/Education/Pages/English\\_programs\\_Israeli\\_universities\\_colleges.aspx](http://www.mfa.gov.il/MFA/IsraelExperience/AboutIsrael/Education/Pages/English_programs_Israeli_universities_colleges.aspx)

7 <http://www.jpost.com/Israel-News/New-multi-year-plan-for-higher-education-Investment-internationalization-467714>

*in Israel*” (30/3/16), Dr. Liat Maoz, Deputy CEO of the strategic and internationalization branch of the Council of Higher Education (CHE) and its Planning and Budgeting Committee (PBC), provides a comprehensive review of the current status of internationalization in higher education in Israel, as well as recommendations for principles and policies for the future (October 2016). It is clearly stated (p.2) that any institution which decides to promote internationalization must make this decision from a well-thought out strategic perspective and adopt a holistic and consistent approach to the issue, ensuring that suitable resources are made available for its implementation.

The move towards internationalization can benefit the institutions in a variety of ways. For Israeli students, the benefits include exposure to the social and cultural diversity required for today’s ‘global citizens’, and a general improvement in academic English language skills (p.6). This is an assumption, which, as will be shown below, can only be assured if this is a clearly stated goal and is prepared for appropriately. It is stated, however, that the difficulties and factors slowing-up implementation include a lack of a clear policy as well as a lack of clear goals. In addition, there is often a lack of policy regarding academic studies in English, as well as a shortage of funds for opening EMI programs. Furthermore, lecturers often do not feel comfortable teaching in English and there is need to prepare them to teach in international programs (p.8).

The focus of the CHE’s current plans for internationalization in HE is on the graduate degree level. However, undergraduate EMI courses for Israeli students, as well as short programs, are also perceived as leading towards the creation of a pool of courses in English, which will facilitate the development of fuller programs in the future (p.10). Furthermore, it is recognized (p.12) that there is an important and separate value for ensuring that Israeli students acquire skills that will enable them to participate in academic study in English. It is vital to ensure that Israeli graduates have relevant skills for the global workplace or for continued global academic studies. Proficient English language skills are recognized as a prerequisite in this area. The CHE is committed (p.15) to providing funding for the development of programs in English, and to providing support for students studying in English (p.19).

Regarding the suitability of lecturers for teaching in the international curriculum, it is necessary to ensure that lecturers have the language skills suited to the needs of the students they will be teaching. Moreover, the language proficiency of the students, both local and international, must be sufficient for studying in the foreign language (FL). Lecturers also need to be prepared for teaching in the international classroom; they will need to acquire a variety of skills and the ability to adapt the type of teaching and the course content to the target student population (p. 20).

As for internationalization at home, i.e. providing EMI courses for Israeli students, this will present an international opportunity and experience, either with or without international students taking part. This option is intended for students who are not able to participate in international mobility programs, or who might not have international students attending their institutions.

Currently there are 13 full undergraduate degree programs running in English, 7 of these in academic colleges (6 at IDC and 1 at Machon Lev), and 6 in 3 of the universities (2 each at the Technion, Tel Aviv University and Ben Gurion University of the Negev). There are 65 full Master programs offered in most universities and at IDC. In addition, there are many short programs and summer courses at the universities and at many colleges, designed for international students at a variety of levels.

The data show a wide divergence in how institutions are dealing with internationalization. Most of the universities and IDC have been running programs for international students for years and have International Offices or an International School. Some have also been developing courses in English for Israeli students in recent years. However, internationalization in academic and teacher training colleges is still a relatively recent phenomenon (Inbar-Lourie & Donitsa-Schmidt, 2013). Their focus is more on undergraduate degrees even though the new initiative outlined in the plans announced by the Minister of Education, does not include funding for internationalization in the colleges. However, a European-funded project, TEMPUS-IRIS<sup>8</sup>, specifically had as its focus internationalization in the colleges with training provided for how to carry out such initiatives.

Permission to open a full degree course in English is a lengthy process, but there is encouragement for promoting academic courses taught in English within academic programs. Individual courses, such as those offered in summer courses, study abroad and exchange programs, can be opened as long as they do not deviate from accepted academic standards for similar courses in Hebrew. The next section will provide more details on this teaching mode known in general as English-Medium Instruction and its variants.

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8 <http://www.braude.ac.il/tempus/>

## 2 English-Medium Instruction

English-Medium Instruction (EMI) refers to using the English language to deliver academic content in non-English dominant settings. EMI is part of a content-based approach to language teaching and learning that emerged at the end of the last century. Contrary to previous emphasis on language elements, the content-based instruction approach views language as primarily a channel for content delivery (Met, 1999). It is assumed that sustained and meaningful language use about specific content will facilitate and serve language learning better than a predominantly language focus. Hence, the chosen content becomes the organizing factor in curriculum design rather than the previously used grammatical elements. This notion was further elaborated on and developed by David Marsh and others (see for example Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010) as a content-based teaching approach referred to as CLIL (Content Language Integrated Learning), the joint teaching of both content and language with school subjects completely or partially taught in the foreign target language. CLIL has become a popular teaching method within K-12 educational contexts and such classes are currently available the world over, though more prominently in Europe, offering a range of strong and weak teaching models delivered by either a language or a content teacher, or by both teachers team-teaching together<sup>9</sup>. Conversely, EMI is more often used in the context of academic courses or full programs in higher education where the content expert lecturer delivers the course in English, the currently reigning international lingua franca. While there is general agreement that CLIL and EMI refer to different settings, there are often ambiguities as to the term used. Both terms, however, share the notion of using the language as a vehicle for delivering meaningful content.

EMI courses can also be viewed as ranging along a continuum (see Figure 1 below) from weak to strong models. Weak models refer to situations where a course within a program delivered in the local language is also offered in English. Stronger models include course clusters taught via the medium of English and/or instances where the institution decides that full programs will be conducted in the English language rather than in the local mother tongue(s). This is the case at the University of Maastricht as will be described more fully in section 4.4.1 below and in Wilkinson (2013).




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Figure 1 - The EMI Continuum

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<sup>9</sup> For a review of CLIL issues and challenges see Dalton-Puffer, 2011.



As the use of EMI rapidly increases (Dearden, 2015), interest and research into the different facets of this teaching mode and its implications are likewise on the rise, highlighting global as well as local issues which need attending to (Doiz, Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2013b; Dimova, S., Hultgren, A. K. & Jensen, 2015). From an academic point of view, one of the main questions being asked is whether the academic content taught via English is actually absorbed, considering the linguistic hurdles that both students and lecturers face when learning and teaching in an additional language. From a social point of view, critics of EMI point to issues of inequity in terms of the accessibility to EMI frameworks, since in addition to academic abilities, eligibility to study in EMI courses requires a high level of English proficiency. Others see EMI as a way for powerful, rich, English-speaking nations to coerce weaker parts of the world by imposing the English language on them and threatening local cultures and languages, in line with linguistic imperialism theories first introduced by Phillipson in 1992 and more recently elaborated on by Vila & Bretxa, (2015). This is especially true concerning “medium” or “small” languages.

The fact that students who have participated in EMI courses report on mixed results regarding the improvement in their English proficiency (e.g. Hu, Li & Lei, 2014) reinforces a critical stance towards such initiatives. However, in order to discuss these issues, one first needs to review and consider the goals for implementing this approach.

## 2.1 What is the purpose of EMI?

The motives that underlie the initiation and implementation of EMI programs in academic institutions differ depending on the local context and the perspective(s) taken, whether linguistic, social, political, economic and/or cultural. The most notable purpose for choosing to offer courses in English is to facilitate the mobility of students and staff in HE, and to standardize, to a certain extent, the delivery of courses across the practicing institutions. Provision of courses in English is seen as a means to encourage overseas students to attend the institution as it removes the barrier of not knowing the host nation language. EMI also strengthens postgraduate students’ employability in the international marketplace. Teaching courses in English attracts international academics, thereby providing access for students and teachers at the home institution to the international research community. No less importantly, the delivery of courses in English is intended to raise the general language level of the students and equips them with tools to enhance abilities to cope with the requirements of study abroad (Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2013a).

## 2.2 The status of EMI in Europe

European higher education policy (the Bologna process) and the ERASMUS program have had a major impact on student mobility within Europe and beyond. Student mobility rests on the assumption that students are studying in a commonly understood language, usually English (O’Dowd, 2015; Wiseman & Odell, 2014). Hence, there has been a meaningful increase in the number of Master programs as well as Bachelor programs taught in the English language: in 2002, 560 Masters programs were delivered in English in 19 EU countries (excluding the UK and Ireland). By 2012, this had risen to 6,800 in 11 EU countries (excluding the UK and Ireland).

In Germany, the Sprachlehrinstitut in Freiburg reports that in 2014, 87% of all Master and 17% of all Bachelor programs taught in Germany in 2014 were delivered in English (Grunderman, 2014). French universities are now legally allowed to offer a limited number of classes in English, and Italy's Politecnico di Milano began teaching all of its graduate classes in English in 2014.

The move to use English as the lingua franca of higher education globally is possibly the single most significant current trend in internationalizing higher education (Parr, 2014). In short, as both the Bologna process and Erasmus programs promote student mobility, the ability to communicate in a common language is viewed as a necessary tool in the push towards globalization. As such, it behooves all HE institutions to prepare for its inclusion, at least to some extent, in their academic programs.

In terms of employability, the European Commission's strategic framework for Education and Training moving toward 2020<sup>10</sup> highlights the fact that currently employers are looking for diversity, and that English plays a major role in employability criteria. In Europe, about half of the companies recruiting for jobs in their home market say that prospective candidates need to be fluent in a foreign language, and some go further to say that multilingual ability is a key selection criterion. European captains of industry have declared an overwhelming preference for employing graduates who have honed their English language skills as part of their secondary and higher education. Hence, studying core subjects in English helps graduates to enter the international job market and to excel in a multinational global environment (Deccan Herald, May 16, 2012<sup>11</sup>).

However, some critical voices have arisen that oppose the phenomenon. Tarhan (2013) shows that the growth of EMI programs stems from the desire to maintain the 'educational distance' between the upper and lower classes. The fact that EMI programs have proven in many cases to be ineffective in terms of improved English language skills (in Europe and beyond) has dampened somewhat the enthusiasm for adopting this track (Chapple, 2014; Hu, Li, & Lei, 2014). In some cases, issues relating to language ideology are disputed (Dimova, Hultgren & Jensen, 2015).

Nevertheless, in view of the current situation, there is little doubt that the number of EMI courses taught globally, not only in higher education but also at the secondary school level, will continue to rise, and with it will come more opportunities for training, development, and accreditation. But since the locus of interest is in setting up EMI practices in Israel, let us now turn our attention to the Israeli context.

### 2.3 The status of EMI in Israel

Israel is a multilingual country with two official languages: Hebrew and Arabic. Hebrew is the dominant language while Arabic is the native tongue of approximately 20% of the population, used as the medium of instruction in the K-12 Arab education system. In terms of the English language

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<sup>10</sup> [http://ec.europa.eu/education/policy/strategic-framework\\_en](http://ec.europa.eu/education/policy/strategic-framework_en)

<sup>11</sup> <http://www.deccanherald.com/content/249714/importance-english-employment.html>

(see figure 2 below), Israel can be considered an ‘Expanding Circle’ country in the division introduced by Kachru (1992), since it is taught as the first foreign language in the school system, constituting an academic requirement for entering higher education (Or & Shohamy, 2017).

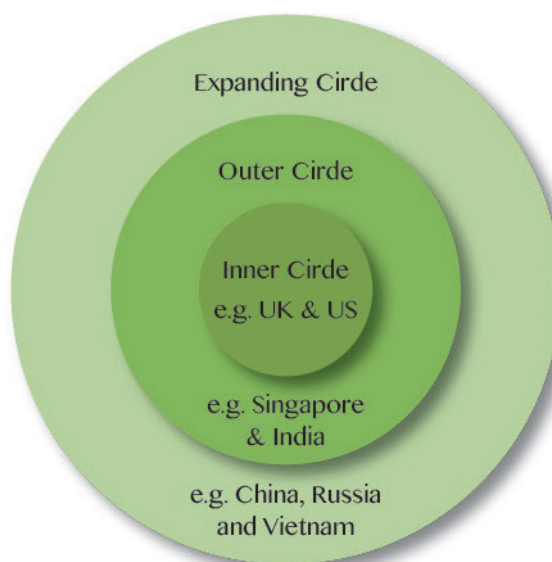


Figure 2 - The spread of English (Kachru, 1985)

Russian is also used extensively following massive immigration from Russian-speaking countries at the end of the eighties and early nineties of the previous century, with additional languages such as Amharic and French also enjoying widespread use. The language of instruction in Israel’s academic institutions, (8 universities and 58 public and private academic colleges and teacher education institutions), is mostly Hebrew. Arabic in the academic sphere is presently limited to teacher education colleges which train the teaching force for the Arabic-speaking school sector. Though English is not used as the language of instruction, its presence is clearly felt on the academic scene, for in addition to serving as an entrance criterion to higher education institutions, much of the required readings in the various departments are in English, and academic knowledge of the language is assumed even in Hebrew-medium instruction programs (Or & Shohamy, 2017). With reference to EMI, Israeli universities have conducted programs in English for a number of decades now, first intended mostly for Jewish students whose mother tongue is English and who wish to participate in a study-abroad framework in Israel (Gonen, 2008). The study periods catering to this particular target group have usually been limited to a semester or a year. As noted in 1.2 above, this phenomenon is expanding to attract diverse student populations from around the world.

The Israeli Council of Higher Education has only recently begun to encourage teaching via foreign languages. It has, however, allowed programs to be taught in other languages pending approval, both in the case of parallel existing programs in Hebrew and new programs in English. Nevertheless, permission to introduce a new EMI program in law studies at IDC, was rejected by a special

committee in 2014. With the internationalization approach outlined above, there may be changes in this direction towards fostering more programs in English. What is evident at present, however, is a lack of clear policy, where each academic institution paves its own path based on departmental rather than institutional policy, according to its degree of internationalization and often on the international appeal of the topic being taught. There are no clear national guidelines on how to implement EMI, nor on the acceptance criteria for language abilities for both overseas and local students in order to participate in EMI frameworks (Donitsa-Schmidt & Inbar-Lourie, 2014). This is a severe impediment to implementing any internationalization program, and is especially striking considering the CHE's plans outlined above. At present, there is no official decree as to a common ground for evaluating students' proficiency, neither for incoming students nor for those seeking a study-abroad period outside of Israel. The only skill currently regulated as part of English language entrance requirements for Israeli students is reading comprehension, which suffices neither for taking an English-mediated course, nor for graduates' wider language needs.

In a study conducted by Donitsa-Schmidt & Inbar-Lourie in 2014, which examined EMI policies in two large Israeli universities, it was found that in both institutions the number of EMI courses and programs increased and that there was a clear tendency to continue this phenomenon in the future, as internationalization is perceived as a major goal. Though the administrators interviewed professed strong support for the EMI initiative, for reasons already discussed above, there is no official institutional policy as to how this will be carried out, and faculties and individual departments differ in their handling of EMI initiatives. An interesting emerging development is that while in the past EMI courses were only offered to international students often studying for advanced degrees, they are now available to local Israeli students, both undergraduate and graduate, who are either expected to study a few courses in English as part of their degree, or who wish to do so electively (Donitsa-Schmidt & Inbar-Lourie, 2014).

An issue which arose in both institutions, as well as in previous studies on language education in Israel (Spolsky & Shohamy, 1999), is the ideological obligation to retain the status of the local Hebrew language as the main academic language of instruction (Inbar-Lourie & Donitsa-Schmidt, 2013). As to developing common methodology and a teaching community where EMI lecturers and students can share issues and difficulties, it was found that due to the sporadic nature of EMI implementation in the academic arena in Israel, such an infrastructure has not yet been formed. The lecturers work on their own or within their respective departments and struggle with the challenges that EMI instruction poses.

Research into Israeli lecturers' and students' perceptions of EMI have yielded findings that are similar to research done in other EMI contexts, especially in countries where English does not enjoy formal status, as is the case in Israel. In terms of the content lecturers, what emerges is an understanding of the importance of EMI along with despair at the difficulties encountered, as there is no support provided by the institution for facilitating studies in English. Once the institution decides on EMI, responsibility for providing solutions to content, linguistic and pedagogical problems that arise, falls on the lecturer.

In a recent study on English in academic institutions, Israeli students and lecturers were asked about their views regarding EMI studies (Or, Spector-Cohen, Amdur & Inbar-Lourie, 2016). Of the student sample, (N=2394), 23% of whom had studied courses via the medium of the English language, about half of the respondents (N=1240) expressed a positive attitude towards studying EMI courses in the future (either very or somewhat interested). This is despite their reservations and fears as to how they would deal with the course contents and assignments. Almost 63% of the lecturers (N=175) believe that participation in EMI courses is either very important or vital, but many voiced concerns over critical issues such as the choice of English as the language of instruction, especially in the super-diversity that typifies the multilingual Israeli environment:

Content lecturer: *“We have students from different places so why English? It is important to know English on the level of understanding articles, participation in conferences etc. But the language of instruction should be Hebrew (that even here many find it difficult).”*

Other concerns relate to the students’ readiness to participate in EMI courses. Interestingly, not all fields of studies were deemed suitable for establishing EMI programs, with the humanities faculties perceived as less appropriate than others. Both students and lecturers felt that the English proficiency of the students did not improve meaningfully as a result of attending English-mediated courses. Issues which impeded successful implementation according to respondents included: lack of resources; lack of training for content teachers; the numerous accommodations provided to the students, allowing them to resort to the Hebrew mother-tongue; and last but certainly not least, the content focus with no support provided for language needs.

In an earlier Israeli study (Symon & Weinberg, 2015), lecturers in EMI courses expressed concern regarding students’ comprehension problems, particularly with subject-specific terminology; the most problematic area was that of writing, an area of language development which, until recently, has not generally been part of language courses in higher education in Israel. In this study, only 18% of students taking an EMI course felt that their confidence to use English had improved. This correlates with the lecturers’ frustration at the low level of discussion in class. They assumed this stemmed from the students’ inadequate English proficiency, which constrained spoken interaction in class. In some compulsory courses, lecturers also noted a lack of student motivation. On the large dropout rate from one course the lecturer commented: *“I cannot be sure if that was because of the English fact, or because the material was challenging.”* From the students’ perspective, 37% found learning new concepts in English challenging, and 23% were worried that the EMI course outcomes might be detrimental to their overall course grades. Despite these apparent difficulties, 79% stated that they enjoyed the EMI course. Attitudes remained generally positive and 70% agreed that they would recommend the course to their friends. Students’ comments included the following, reinforcing points recently raised by the CHE in favor of internationalization at home, and reflecting students’ understanding of the need for meaningful and effective English language input:

*“There were useful words in English for a change.”*

*“It is good for people to know you took a course in English.”*

*“This is a new way to learn English, more useful than the traditional courses.”*

To sum up, the status of EMI in Israel is unclear, as despite what seems like mild support among different stakeholders, there is no clear policy within and across institutions as to modes of implementation, nor guidelines for support and evaluation. The data is sporadic and can only be estimated via a number of meetings for content teachers that have been held at the Braude College of Engineering (OBC) and the Interdisciplinary Center, Herzliya (IDC) as part of the ECOSTAR project; and from some training workshops that have been offered for EFL teachers at OBC and at the Wroclaw University of Environmental and Life Sciences in Poland as part of the ECOSTAR train-the-trainer process for EMI. What clearly emerges is the need to learn from models that already exist, especially in Europe.

### 3 Challenges

As Robert Wilkinson has pointed out in his foreword to this handbook, the introduction of EMI as part of an institution's internationalization process requires careful consideration of all contingent factors. From a simple SWOT analysis, the most obvious items surface. For example, the strengths associated with EMI include increased exposure to the English language for home students, a wider pool of English language courses to attract international students, promoting growth in international contacts for collaboration between staff and students, raising institutional rating, and greater competitiveness.

The weaknesses include lack of support systems for students and lecturers, and a limited pool of suitably skilled instructors. Additional weaknesses relate to the students' and lecturers' language skills, which may be inadequate for effective teaching and learning through English, and could lead to a watering-down of the content, compromising the overall academic level. For some non-English speaking countries, the threat to the home language of introducing ever more studies in English can be used as a reason to oppose this move.

The opportunities include the chance to develop international programs and raise the institution's profile; provide high quality instruction and promote internationalization at home; introduce international or joint degrees; prepare more students for participation in international exchange programs; and develop intercultural awareness among the students, the lecturers and the administration.

The most obvious threat to the introduction of EMI is the lack of funding for creating the courses and the language support infrastructure for students and teachers. Furthermore, such programs, which initially may not attract sufficient students to warrant the funding invested, need time to establish themselves. Their success is also dependent upon the availability of sufficiently interested and suitably qualified teachers.

In this next section, we will address the most urgent challenges that institutions need to address in order to ensure an effective implementation of EMI.

#### 3.1 Language levels

A recurring theme in the EMI literature relates to threshold levels of language proficiency for both teachers and students who will be teaching or studying content courses through the medium of English. In general, as has already been mentioned, graduates' employability today relies not just on their field-specific skills but also on their linguistic capabilities. In Israel, the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) has only recently entered the discussions on reform for the teaching and learning of English in higher education, with a new CEFR-Aligned Framework for English in Higher Education published as part of the ECOSTAR project in January 2017. Through this Framework, the concepts so familiar to Europeans are now the subject of symposia and workshops for EMI in higher education, as well as discussions in committees deliberating the future of EFL



in the school system. Thus, we refer readers who are unfamiliar with the scales and terms to the CEFR-Aligned Framework for English in Higher Education in Israel.<sup>12</sup>

### 3.1.1. Teachers' language level

A variety of studies have shown that the predominant attitude among lecturers is that they do not consider themselves responsible for teaching language (Airey, 2012), and that in switching to EMI they will concern themselves exclusively with teaching their content. The main challenge EMI presents to these teachers is how to present their subject clearly and concisely in another language. No statutory minimum level of English has been formally adopted anywhere for teachers who teach their subjects through English in higher education. However, some institutions in other countries have grappled with this issue, setting criteria for content lecturers' language proficiency. For example, Maastricht University in the Netherlands requires teachers to be at a high C1 or C2 CEFR level. This is, however, only a recommendation, and the policy decision to make it a mandatory requirement for all teachers to hold a valid external language qualification is still under discussion. In Copenhagen University in Denmark, a diagnostic test was developed to assess the lecturers' oral proficiency in English (TOEPAS) (Kling, & Stæhr, 2012). The authors state that "In general, a number of universities running certification programs have selected criteria directly from the CEFR. These universities all maintain the policy that lecturers must have a proficiency at a minimum level of C1" (p.16). The tool created is based on an analysis of the linguistic and pragmatic knowledge needed to conduct EMI classes:

*The test tasks are designed to elicit whether the test taker can handle a range of communicative tasks which are central to university teaching at graduate level, namely present highly complex content material; explain domain-specific terms and concepts; clarify, paraphrase and restate concepts and main points; present and explain an assignment; ask, understand and respond to student questions; deal with unclear questions and misunderstandings and negotiate meaning when necessary (pp.12-13).*

Considering the above skills, the question that arises is how teachers can be trained to teach content through English. Universities and lecturers would be well advised to abandon the notion that simply by requiring their content lecturers to teach in English, students will automatically learn the content and improve their language skills at the same time. In fact, there is a danger that in some cases neither could happen. Furthermore, low teacher motivation (Morell et al, 2014) may seriously challenge the implementation of EMI.

These European findings are echoed in the Israeli context (Or et al., 2015; Inbar-Lourie & Donitsa-Schmidt, 2013). At Maastricht University some lecturers were willing to teach EMI courses if training courses were available, but many did not feel confident that their level of English was adequate. For both teachers who are willing and those who are not, the level of English and the availability of linguistic training seem to be the key factors to motivate them to engage with EMI

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<sup>12</sup> <https://tempus-ecostar.iucc.ac.il/wp-content/uploads/2016/04/FRAMEWORK-ATAR-with-preface.pdf>



courses. Potential teachers mainly expressed the need for courses to improve their oral expression and classroom interaction techniques; this was closely followed by the need for English language courses for students in specific subject areas (e.g. English for Business or English for Computer Science) in the official curriculum. Academic and/or financial compensation for EMI teachers are also possible incentives and motivators.

### 3.1.2 Students' language level

Too often, the student's perspective is overlooked in the development of new policy and methodology. Where students pay for their studies, they are more frequently recognized as consumers, and this inevitably has an effect on perceptions about education. While issues of standards and quality of service may be expected to arise from the control that customers exert in the fulfilment of their demands, particularly where inter-institutional competition is constantly growing, the HE institutions themselves have not traditionally considered the education they provide as a product or a service. Universities may be rightly concerned about maintaining academic standards in face of the need for high ratings of customer satisfaction, and students may be more interested in getting a degree rather than in actually learning, expressing their sense of entitlement, for example, through reduced responsibility for constructing their own knowledge. Such developments could lead to the deliberate watering down of academic content in favor of higher ratings, resulting in an unavoidably lower level of academic performance.

The individual starting level among students entering higher education (HE) will inevitably be varied. This may be attributed to a variety of factors, including a weak policy with regard to secondary school language learning and ambitions. In an ideal world, secondary school language policy would be designed to equip students to enter HE and would be supported by its practical implementation. This would allow all high school graduates to attain proficiency in English according to the standard required to participate in an EMI program at university. Naturally, variation in ability will still exist, but the number of students entering HE without the desired level and thus requiring additional language training would be reduced.

It is widely considered that students need a minimum of B2 on the CEFR (which equates to an IELTS 6 or a Cambridge First Certificate) in order to participate in English academic studies. Almost all HE institutes in Europe require B2 as a prerequisite to enter the institute as an undergraduate, and most require a C1 level for those wishing to study in a Master's program. There is some debate as to whether B2 level is indeed adequate for effective study at Bachelor level, and many believe that C1 should be a prerequisite. This is formalized by many institutions that differentiate between core subjects and require undergraduate students of law and medicine, for example, to attain C1 level, while for other arguably less linguistically critical programs a B2 level may suffice.<sup>13</sup>

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13 <http://www.european-funding-guide.eu/articles/financing-tips/requirements-join-erasmus-programme>

Language ability is not to be confused with the ability to demonstrate academic skills in the target language. The Dutch experience is that while most students entering EMI programs at HE have an adequate level of English, they often do not possess the skills to write academic texts, give formal presentations or participate effectively in group discussion. These skills still need a considerable amount of scaffolding from the university's Language Unit. The majority of undergraduates entering Maastricht University, which is an EMI institution, are at B2 level on the CEFR, yet still require academic writing and formal presentation courses in order to achieve the required level.

The situation in Israel is more complex. Firstly, the CEFR-Aligned Framework for English in Higher Education in Israel has not yet been widely adopted. The Psychometric Entrance Test (PET) currently only tests reading ability and places students in English courses based on these results. In terms of vocabulary knowledge, there are meaningful gaps between the knowledge acquired in the school system and the knowledge required for tertiary education (Levitzky-Aviad & Laufer, 2013). The gap between high school graduation levels and the language level required for academic studies is thus already wide and is further compounded by the length of time that tends to elapse for some students between school and university. With compulsory conscription for the majority of high school graduates, a minimum of 2 or 3 years will pass before they start their academic studies. Often another year or more may be dedicated to work and travel, so that considerable attrition in the students' formal language skills is not unusual.

### 3.2 Motivation

Motivation has been found to play a major role in the second language acquisition process, with respect to both internal and external factors (Dörnyei, & Ushioda, 2013). Motivation is traditionally defined as “the attitudes and affective states that influence the degree of effort that learners make to learn L2” (Ellis, 1997, p.141). In terms of EMI, the role of motivation in the learning process needs to be considered not just from the learners’ perspective but also from the perspective of other stakeholders; that is, what prompted the institution to introduce EMI and to what extent the teachers (or content lecturers) are willing to take part in the initiative. The following sections will elaborate on motivation from the point of view of each of the stakeholders.

#### 3.2.1 Institutional motivation

A careful analysis of the advantages and disadvantages of introducing EMI into the institution will reveal the institution's readiness for entering the process and highlight particular areas of weakness or threats to successful implementation. The decision could be bottom-up, originating within one department interested in developing its international ties and raising its own profile, or top-down as part of the institution's overall strategic plan or from governing bodies such as the Council for Higher Education. In all cases, publicizing the decision within the institution, with a clear rationale and with the implications explained, will facilitate wider acceptance of what might otherwise be considered by some as unnecessary or even threatening. Institutions are generally motivated to introduce EMI as part of a broader process of internationalization. Thus, all members of the institution, students, lecturers and administrative staff, need to be prepared. Identifying the resources required and clearly communicating the steps to be taken are essential components of that process.

### 3.2.2 Teacher motivation

Teacher motivation to enter willingly into EMI is a key issue and must be considered seriously. Unmotivated and inadequately prepared teachers can have a considerable adverse effect on the students' learning of content as well as language. It is clear that extra motivation is needed to persuade many teachers to participate in EMI. Morell et al. (2014) show that contrary to expectations, older teachers were found to demonstrate more willingness to teach EMI courses while younger ones expressed more eagerness to promote such courses but not necessarily to teach them. For all teachers to embrace EMI willingly and voluntarily, strong reasons must be presented.

The most common reaction by teachers discovering that they will be required to deliver courses in English is "What's in it for me?" This is a fair question since the effort required to deliver lessons and tutorials and correct students' language, particularly writing, in English, is far greater than doing the same thing in L1. Unlike students, teachers cannot be lured by the possible offer of more course credits, and many are at a stage in life when the prospect of being more employable in an international context is no longer appealing. Thus, if academic flexibility and mobility is no incentive, the few motivators remaining are financial or academic advancement.

### 3.2.3 Student motivation

Students' learning is often fueled by extrinsic motivational factors such as the need to pass exams, but there are multiple factors that can serve to increase or decrease their levels of motivation. It cannot be assumed that just because students have enrolled at an HEI and signed up for a particular course that they have internalized the need to invest considerable effort in order to succeed in their studies over a prolonged period of several years. When the complexity of study is further compounded by the introduction of content courses taught in English, the institution in general, and the lecturer in particular, have to understand motivational issues and be prepared to address them in practical ways.

Symon & Weinberg (2015) found that more students took an EMI course because it was either a compulsory component of their degree or was the only version of that particular course offered. Less than 20% chose the EMI course with the explicit intention of improving their English. In another study, Weinberg (2015) found that 57% of students polled at an Israeli college would not take a course in English unless it were compulsory. These findings relate to motivational theories that show that learners who have a greater sense of volition in their actions are likely to be more motivated to persist. Increasingly volitional behavior results in more intrinsic motivation, which in turn leads to improved learning outcomes (Deci & Ryan, 1985). In contrast, where students lack choice and have no sense of control, lack of motivation and high dropout rates can be expected and suitable intervention at the planning stages for introducing EMI must therefore be undertaken.

So what might motivate students to voluntarily enroll in an EMI course, and how can this be exploited to support less motivated students who may have no choice in the matter? No less than university administrators and management who are interested in internationalizing their institutions, many students are also aware of the fact that their future employability depends on recognized qualifications

in a degree in a field that is relevant for the needs of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. The pivotal role of English in the interconnected world in which we live is a clear and exploitable fact. So while the university increases the number of EMI courses that it offers to attract more international students (Inbar-Lourie & Donitsa-Schmidt, 2013), the EMI course itself, if effectively constructed and delivered, with a suitable support infrastructure in place, can be maneuvered to boost learner motivation and optimize learning outcomes.

Students themselves agree that there should be a wider selection of EMI subjects. Moreover, they feel that EMI programs must be supported by including English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses in their official curriculum. Above all, they consider appropriately trained teachers as fundamental. The results from both student and teacher surveys (Or et al., 2015, Symon & Weinberg, 2015, Morell et al, 2014), suggest that despite some concerns about the possible effect on core subject learning, there should be more courses and a greater support system for students studying in English.

## 4 Policy

The transition towards EMI has exposed a number of shortcomings that have complicated the effectiveness of the process in countries where English is not a widely used language. Firstly, in some instances this rapid spread of EMI has preceded specific language policies and suitably adjusted education budgets. Instructors have noted the challenge of teaching content through a foreign language, their inability to solve ‘language-related issues’ or to identify the level of English to expect or require, and the need to simplify content to make it linguistically comprehensible to students. Secondly, students display a marked lack of sophistication in their language as their ‘school English’ differs significantly from academic requirements. This can have a potentially negative impact on grades in their core studies. Thus, the decision to implement EMI within an institution should be accompanied by specific policy decisions that take into consideration the above issues. Moreover, the decision to introduce EMI should be considered with regard to the overall institutional policy and vision, and the makeup of the teacher and student populations. Dr. Liat Maoz from the Israeli Council for Higher Education (2016) emphasizes the need for clear objectives reflected in a strategic financial plan with support for teachers and students. Wilkinson in his foreword to this handbook and in Wilkinson (2013) differentiates between a top-down policy enforced from above by the administration versus the preferred bottom-up option, which includes the teachers in the various departments in the decision-making and implementation process. Whichever approach is adopted, these issues should all be given careful consideration at the planning stage.

### 4.1 Institutional policy

The European Commission’s Action Plan *Promoting Language Learning and Linguistic Diversity* (2004–2006)<sup>14</sup> proposed 45 actions supporting different language learning related initiatives on national, regional and local levels, one of which was that each university would implement a coherent language policy clarifying how the institution would promote language learning and linguistic diversity. Such a policy should be part of the institution's strategic plan, and its implementation will create conditions for plurilingual competence<sup>15</sup>.

Until recently, there has been no generally perceived need for a specific language policy regarding EMI at Israeli universities or colleges. However, as has already been noted with regard to the CHE's plan for internationalization, the lack of clear policies may hinder implementation and growth in this area. It may be advisable, therefore, for institutions to take a formal stance regarding language development and create language policies that set out their intentions and the means for achieving them. The language policy can serve as a set of guidelines for language use and acquisition within the HEI and position the institution to benefit from funding allocated by the CHE for achieving its internationalization goals. The language policy should address native as well as foreign languages, and should set compulsory levels of language proficiency for staff as well as students studying and working at the institution.

<sup>14</sup> [http://www.saaic.sk/eu-label/doc/2004-06\\_en.pdf](http://www.saaic.sk/eu-label/doc/2004-06_en.pdf)

<sup>15</sup> Plurilingual competence refers to an individual’s communicative ability knowledge in a number of languages and the ability to use these linguistic resources as needed

These are the wider issues relating to language policy. Links to additional articles and documents are provided in the resources section for further study and discussion within your institution. Our focus in this handbook is on the implementation of English-Medium Instruction, and as such, on policy decisions that relate specifically to the choice of the language of tuition and its implementation. An institutional policy can guide the nature and manner of learning and ensure that adequate resources are made available. Furthermore, a policy can help stakeholders understand the multiple issues regarding language use in the EMI classroom.

### 4.2 Language gaps

The main language gap is between secondary and tertiary levels. The expectations for language use in academia is high and assumes that students have learned the specific genres required and have acquired critical thinking skills. Clearly, this is not always the case, and in Israel we see that the majority of students entering college or university require at least one remedial English course to bring them up to the B2 equivalent level. It is questionable whether students whose English proficiency is as low as A1 or A2 can possibly be raised to B2 within the limited time available for language study alongside their regular studies. Nevertheless, this is the reality in many institutions, and until the school system graduates students with a B2 English level in all language skills, these remedial English courses will continue to be required. It is important to note that even in cases where secondary level studies aim for a B2 level, students may find that thematic studies in English at the tertiary level present linguistic difficulties that hinder comprehension. These may manifest themselves in various areas, from academic genres to lexical fluency and to harnessing sufficient confidence to express oneself orally and in writing.

The creation of a language support infrastructure will help to bridge some of the gaps by providing a writing or tutoring center where students can find assistance for specific language tasks required in their studies. To achieve the CHE's goals for internationalization, funding must be provided for this support infrastructure. The implementation of the CEFR-Aligned Framework for English in Higher Education in Israel will also serve to ensure a more balanced approach to tertiary level English language studies and help prepare students for EMI through a progressively more content-based curriculum.

### 4.3 Assessment

Policy regarding the implementation of EMI must relate in part to assessment issues. The core of the EMI course is the content, which is determined by the course lecturer. However, the starting point must be an understanding of the degree to which an EMI course may need adapting in order to accommodate the students' language abilities while at the same time not compromising the level of the content. As has been noted above in section 1.2, the CHE requires such courses to be equivalent in level to similar courses offered in Hebrew. As with the introduction of alternative teaching methodology, in particular student-centered learning<sup>16</sup>, the actual amount of content covered during

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<sup>16</sup> These issues are dealt with in more detail in part 2 of the handbook.

one course may be reduced, but that does not require the quality of the knowledge taught and acquired to be diluted. It is vital that the content lecturer understands the students' limitations and that the course assignments be tailored accordingly. Consequently, the amount of reading might be reduced but supplemented with audio-visual content covering the same issues in a more accessible and time-effective manner.

Decisions on the course assignments can be undertaken in consultation with the language department so that demands on the students are reasonable in light of their linguistic capabilities. What will be the role of the content teacher in assessing the students' language output in written assignments for example? The first and sometimes the most difficult step is to decide on the criteria against which students should be assessed. While the CEFR gives general guidelines and a series of 'can do' statements with regard to foreign language abilities, it is for each institution and each faculty within that institution to decide what their students are taught and what they are required to do content-wise. However, the institution's language department, (as described below in the Maastricht example) should be closely involved and will be able to advise on whether the desired outcome is realistic, fair and achievable within the context of EMI. The question of the detailed structure of students' papers and presentations might also be considered a linguistic issue, which should be evaluated together with the language aspects. At Maastricht University, different faculties have different requirements with regard to the 'what', while establishing and assessing the 'how well' is broadly left to the language experts within the university's Language Center. However, the development of an assessment guide indicating both the areas to be assessed and what is considered to be an acceptable standard is generally the joint responsibility of the faculty and the Language Centre.

#### 4.4 The language department

Teaching in English is undeniably a dimension of internationalization of higher education (Trahar, 2013). Implementing these policies and addressing the challenges of language proficiency and pedagogical approaches in the EMI classroom are within the remit of the language department. Where previously the EFL teachers' role may have been limited to teaching English to students, the process of internationalization requires that their role be expanded. The English language specialists are a critical element of the infrastructure on which the success of the internationalization process depends. The EFL department should be involved in policy discussions relating to internationalization, and in the development of specific programs for supporting students, lecturers and administrative staff. As language teachers, their expertise stretches beyond language to cross-cultural issues, which also need to be addressed. An example of the role of the language department in the implementation of EMI in the institution is given in the next section. As will be seen from this example, many of the activities required of the language department require institutional commitment to funding, which we will turn to later in 4.5 below.

#### EMI development in Maastricht

In the mid-1980s Maastricht University opened a 4-year International Management Bachelor / Master course in English. The first cohort was small and it was doubted whether the potential



students would manage the study in English. Pre-entry language ability screening was carried out. This was legal for a specific track although not legal for general entry to HE as Dutch Law presumed that students who had completed high school had sufficient language proficiency to manage. This was not (and still is not) always true. Foster & Wilkinson (1991) discovered that students applying for the course tended to be those with a higher level of English. They also established that students did not feel confident to study in French or German as the secondary school level in those subjects was not adequate.

Team teaching was normal, with content teachers working together with the Language Centre before, during, and after lessons. Language teachers also played a significant role in preparation and delivery, assessment and feedback of both teachers and students. The Language Centre at the university helped content tutors with course instructions, lesson requirements, exam questions and handouts as well as delivery and student participation, and they continue to fill the same role today. The English language team leader at the University Language Centre was, and in some faculties is still, an integral part of the faculty program committee.

Over the ensuing 10 years, the enthusiasm for Europe continued to grow, and graduates from the EMI course were actively sought as employees within the European arena. The number of graduates from the International Management course swelled greatly. This gave rise to the beginning of an International Economics course both in Dutch and English and an International Business course which was offered only in English.

It was noted that these EMI courses were very popular and particularly attracted non-Dutch students. The pre-testing of individuals' English language level was dropped, with the understanding that those who were really struggling would probably de-select themselves and revert to either a course in Dutch or a return to their native land.

So successful was the introduction of EMI courses that other faculties followed suit in offering elements of a range of programs in English, including European Law, Medicine, Arts and Culture, and Psychology. This was mainly in order to attract foreign students. Other Dutch universities such as Groningen, Nijmegen, Rotterdam and Tilburg soon followed suit. The Bologna declaration in 2002 acted as a stimulant to the growth of courses and even whole programs being offered in English.

As experience of EMI has been gained by those faculties engaged with it, and as the ability and confidence of those teaching in English improved, so the role of the Language Centre has changed from being deeply integrated to being more advisory. Now it offers courses for those teachers engaging in EMI for general language improvement, often a course to prepare teachers to pass the Cambridge Proficiency exam (C2). It also offers undergraduate courses on academic writing and presentation skills, and is invariably requested to assess and give feedback on end of semester/ end of year student papers. Further, it offers voluntary skills courses at PhD and Master's level (mostly advising on writing and defending theses and writing and presenting research articles). It should be noted that it has taken over 25 years to attain this status.



## 4.5 Funding

As discussed in section 1.2 above, the CHE's 5-year plan for internationalization acknowledges the need for proficient English language skills, and commits to funding the development of programs in English and to providing support for students studying in EMI contexts. HEIs around the country who are interested in internationalization need to construct their language policies, create their international programs and apply for funding to support implementation. Money is required to create a language support infrastructure and to provide workshops and training for the lecturers who will be teaching the EMI courses. Similarly, establishing an incentive scale for those lecturers willing to participate in the internationalization program will also require additional funding.

## 4.6 Credits for studying in English

The award of European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS) study credits may be considered in two main areas: preparatory language courses to bring students to the required level, and for taking core courses in English rather than in L1, acknowledging the extra effort required. There are four key aspects to be addressed when considering the award of ECTS study points: the institution's policy on alignment with the Bologna ECTS scheme; the motivational effect on students; matching the student study load to the points/credits awarded; and finding space and funding in the curriculum for additional point-bearing courses.

ECTS is widely applied as part of the Bologna Process throughout Europe and beyond as the means of assessing the amount of work that has been demanded of HE students during their study at both undergraduate and graduate levels. The implementation of this system facilitates greater mobility between universities following the system and allows the work conducted at one institution to more easily be assessed and acknowledged by another. A similar system of Semester Credit Hours (SCH) exists in the United States, where 1 SCH is approximately equivalent to 1.6 ECTS. These two systems have a degree of compatibility that facilitates the acknowledgement of study carried out and thus assists in smoother exchange and mobility between institutions.

Points are awarded for the successful completion of courses or modules based on the amount of work required by that course. Typically, one year requires the accumulation of 60 ECTS. One ECTS is awarded for between 25 and 30 hours of study, depending on the country. In Austria and Italy, 25 hours equate to one ECTS, while in Germany, Belgium and Romania the requirement is for 30 hours of study per ECTS point. It is the responsibility of institutions to ensure that the workload required by each module or course is accurately assessed and accredited by the Higher Education authority so that institutions throughout the country are standardized in their approach and in their assessment of student workload required.

Taking core subject courses in English as opposed to Hebrew inevitably involves students in additional work. Not only does independent study take longer, but the effort required to follow the course materials, carry out research and to actively participate is much more demanding. The incentive of additional study points for studying in English is a considerable motivating factor for students

debating whether to take a Hebrew or an English option. Thus, where a course in Hebrew might be considered worthy of 3 ECTS, its completion in English might be considered to be worth 4 or even 5 ECTS. The problem with awarding so many points for one course is that students could accumulate sufficient points to graduate but complete fewer courses and thus have a narrower range of knowledge than their counterparts who studied in their own language. Such considerations need to be addressed with reference to student motivation issues outlined in section 3.2.3 above.

## 5 Summary

The continued growth of EMI raises a series of challenges and questions for HEIs. The pressure on institutions to offer a wide range of subjects through English inevitably brings to the fore the issue of whether a sufficient number of teachers are capable of teaching content in the other language. Reviews of current practice have highlighted a need for a more structured and rigorous approach to the language and methodology training of teachers (Dearden, 2015; O'Dowd 2015). While HEIs in many countries are now offering a significant number of subjects through English, this does not mean they are paying sufficient attention to the training and accreditation of the teachers engaged in EMI. Indeed, the data would suggest that the training of teachers in EMI is far from being treated as an important issue in European university education (O'Dowd, 2015).

Almost 40% of European universities reported that they were already offering both individual subjects and full undergraduate and graduate degrees through English, while 24% reported offering a large number of individual subjects in English. However only 51% of respondents reported that the issue of training teachers to teach through English was considered either 'important' or 'very important' in their institutions, while almost 30% reported it as being 'not important' or 'not important at all' (O'Dowd 2015).

Nevertheless, teaching staffs acknowledge the need to adjust their didactic strategies in such contexts, and that the need for adequate and appropriate preparation to teach content courses in English is vital (e.g., Doiz, Lasagabaster, Sierra, 2013b). Clearly, considerable discussion of the issues is required at the planning stage for implementing EMI in order to ensure an effective process. In part 2 of this handbook we provide practical suggestions and guidelines.

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## PART 2: PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS, CLASSROOM STRATEGIES AND SUPPORT

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### 7 Introduction

Your institution has embarked upon a process of internationalization. The focus may be on international exchange programs or on internationalization at home (IaH), but either way, courses taught in English are now required. In this part of the handbook, we provide you with practical suggestions and recommendations, both for language teachers and for content teachers, for implementing EMI in your curriculum.

There is little doubt that for content teachers to switch their language of delivery to English requires considerable effort. This relates not just to the language skills but to the skills necessary for teaching in a language that is not the students' native tongue. The language department can offer a great deal of support in preparing the tutors and their lessons, but once in the classroom, the content instructors are very much on their own and might benefit from considering a number of strategies to cope with any actual or perceived lack of language skills.

#### 7.1 Creating your EMI infrastructure

It is worth learning what other institutions are doing or have already done in terms of creating the support infrastructure for EMI. While we are in the very early stages in Israel, other countries have considerable experience with EMI and have well-developed strategies and programs. The first step is to be familiar with the requirements of your institution and the policy decisions that have been made. Conduct a needs analysis and research your existing resources. For example, who will the students be who take the EMI courses and can you ascertain their language level? What about the lecturers – who will teach in English and how will their language proficiency be assessed? Does your institution have a language or writing center? Is there an accepted protocol for in-service training and professional development among the teaching staff? Is there an existing budget to develop resources and provide training? The findings from your analysis will form the basis of the programs that you can build and the resources that you will need. Language development issues should remain under the overall remit of the language department, but collaborative relations with other departments within the institution will facilitate implementation of the EMI program across the board.

#### 7.2 The language department

It is essential that the language department work together with the content instructors from the inception of the course. The language experts should help design the course to ensure that the

language demands are within the students' capabilities. They should be available to assist in the development of teaching materials in English and also to assist tutors in preparing their oral presentations and lectures.

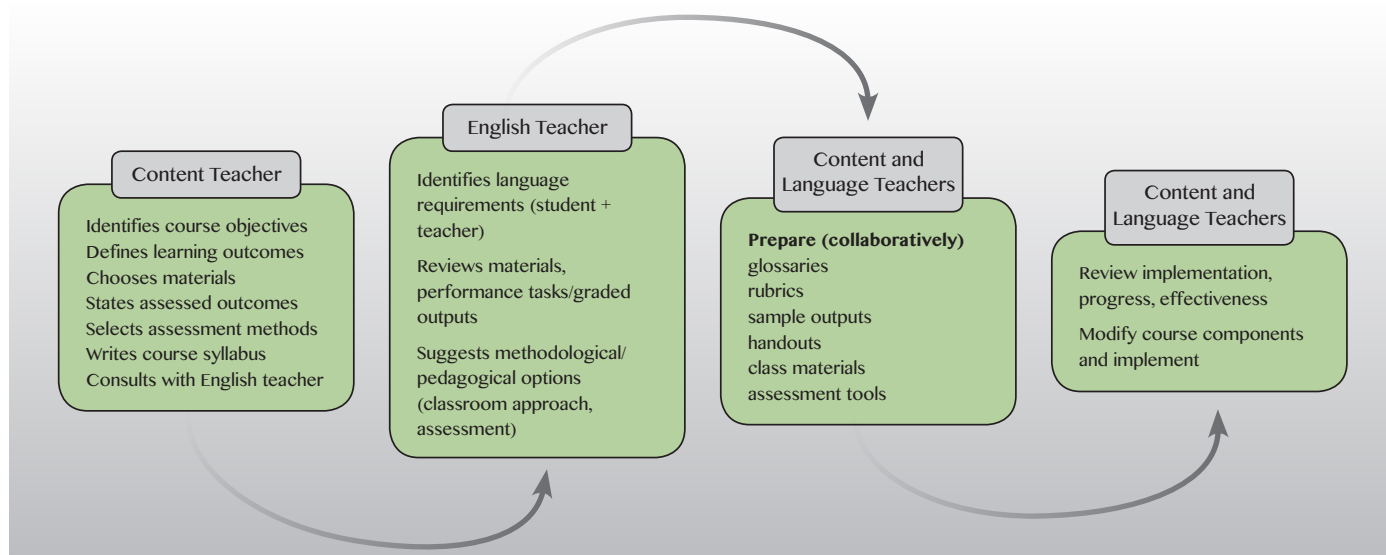


Figure 3 - Process model for collaborative preparation and review of EMI course materials

It is essential that language teachers prepare their language curricula to fit in with the core study in terms of vocabulary, genre or other relevant products, and the skills necessary to present any deliverables required by the faculty. It is important where there may be a crossover in content that the language unit does not require students to prepare additional outputs to those already assigned by the content teachers. To do so could be perceived as extra work and undermine the impression of an integrated approach to language and content.

Besides implementing their didactic strategies, teaching staff are also presented with the challenge of being linguistically proficient themselves when presenting content in a foreign language. This impacts not only students' understanding of the content, but also their perception towards the instructors' general lecturing competence. While this does not alter the level of the tutors' expertise in the core study, it does impact the students' willingness to engage with the linguistic requirements and demands. Some lecturers feel that their role is not to help students with their English, but simply to deliver their subject in English. This is clearly not an adequate nor an acceptable approach if EMI is to achieve effective content delivery. The language department can provide training and support for content lecturers in order to facilitate their move into teaching content in English, while also ensuring that students' needs are taken into consideration.

### 7.3 Support for content teachers

The delivery of teaching materials, whether lessons, presentations or tutorials, is not just a question of translating what was previously delivered in one language to another. To do so is likely to have a negative effect on the students' learning of the subject and the improvement of their general language ability. Teachers must not have the notion that by muddling through in English, their students' or their own language proficiency levels will improve. In fact, it is more likely that both will deteriorate. It is noticeable that where EMI teachers make systematic linguistic errors, these are repeated by their students in essays and presentations. Thus, considerable support should be provided to the content lecturers to enable them to effectively switch to EMI. The language department can offer training and support in a number of areas:

- Language proficiency
- Awareness of student needs
- Preparation of course materials
- Delivering lectures and lessons in English
- Giving feedback on performance tasks
- Assessment

#### 7.3.1 Language proficiency

The personal language level of the content teachers is a major consideration. While many will be able to speak and even write English adequately for social communication and their personal academic needs, fewer may have the proficiency or the self-confidence to deliver lectures, seminars and tutorials at the level needed to ensure the students understand the finer meaning. In technical subjects such as engineering or medicine, it is often the case that the teachers have conducted research in their field in English, thus their technical language is well developed, but their ability to answer ordinary questions and engage in non-technical discussions may not be as effective.

The language teachers need to build up personal relationships with the content teachers and create an atmosphere of trust and support so that the issue of language proficiency can be discussed frankly and openly. As a first step, there are objective online tests<sup>17</sup> that teachers can take in order to establish their CEFR level and on that basis consider what assistance they need. If the institution's language policy states that a minimum of a CEFR C1 level is required for teaching a course in English (Kling & Stæhr, 2012), this provides a baseline from which to offer language support. In reality, the number of teachers available and willing to teach their courses in English may limit the options for adhering to this requirement. This is a serious issue for discussion within the institution and ways in which to compensate for less than optimum language proficiency need to be considered. Table 1 below provides suggestions for language support that can be offered to content lecturers.

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17 For example: The International English Language Testing System (IELTS) <https://www.ielts.org/what-is-ielts/ielts-introduction>;  
The Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) <https://www.ets.org/toefl/>

Table 1 - Language support for teachers

Workshops	Introduction to EMI (explore the theory) Understanding student needs and language issues Cross-cultural nuances Methodological approaches for instruction in a foreign language
Individual consulting	Tailored to individual needs
Language practice/update language skills	Language workshops: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Fostering and improving language and communication skills for teaching in English</li> <li>● Lecturing in English – academic language</li> <li>● Student interaction</li> <li>● Feedback and assessment</li> <li>● Writing skills for teaching in English</li> </ul>
Micro-teaching	Practice teaching/lecturing in English (simulation/peer teaching in training workshops) Film and review a practice lesson
Observation in the classroom and review	Classroom observation and feedback session/s Classroom filming with review and feedback session/s

### 7.3.2 Awareness of students' needs

Part of the preparation for teaching a content course in English must include developing an awareness of students' needs. While this may already be part of the lecturer's toolbox for teaching in the native language, switching to a different one creates a range of additional challenges, some of which may not be familiar. General good teaching techniques are essential, such as how to check students' comprehension during a lecture using repetition, paraphrasing and synonymy, as well as provision of adequate and user-friendly support materials. Providing access to presentations used in class, either prior to the lesson for preparation or following the lesson for review, allows students to absorb the material at their own pace and investigate in greater depth those items that are not clearly understood.

Lecturers might also consider recording their lectures or providing voice-overs for their PowerPoint presentations for use outside the classroom. Providing a glossary of specific terms that will be used during the lesson facilitates students' familiarization with terms and concepts before coming to class and allows for autonomous learning. With regard to the course website, it is vital to provide samples of task outputs and clearly explained marking/grading rubrics. These will guide students to perform according to the course expectations, and provide them with access outside the classroom to materials on which they can consult with other students.

Beyond simple good teaching techniques, the EMI lecturer needs to take into consideration the added cognitive load of dealing with content in a foreign language. While we advocate a minimum B2 level for students taking a content course in English, what this means may not be clear to people outside the language teaching field. While the new CEFR-Aligned Framework for English in Higher Education in Israel is easily accessible to all, we do not expect that all lecturers about to embark on teaching their courses in English will necessarily delve into this framework and review all of the can-do statements for the various language skills. Thus, once again, close collaboration between the content and the language teachers can ensure that the demands of the EMI course are in line with the students' linguistic capabilities.

Beyond the issues of the foreign language per se, there are also difficulties encountered by students relating to specific language needs (e.g. dyslexia, dysgraphia) which can be addressed with assistive technology, such as text-to-speech and speech-to-text tools. There are other aspects of learning disabilities that relate specifically to language, and even specifically to English, and the English teachers are usually well-versed in how to provide support for such cases.

### 7.3.3 Preparation of course materials:

Content teachers should seek assistance from the language department in the preparation of materials for students. This applies equally to hard-copy handouts and to recommended online resources. English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers will be able to give advice on whether the materials and visual aids are within students' linguistic ability to comprehend. Similarly, teachers should seek advice from EFL teachers on the appropriateness of vocabulary and grammatical structures to be used in their lectures. Content teachers who are preparing recorded materials can use their EFL teachers to do voice-overs for their recorded oral presentations. The following are examples of possible assistance that can be gained by collaborating with the language department.

Table 2 - Preparation of course materials for EMI courses

Type of material	Assistance
PowerPoint presentations	Proofreading and editing
Handouts	Proofreading and editing Readability indexing
Glossaries	Compilation Proofreading and editing Readability indexing
Recordings (video, audio)	Practice before creating Feedback on content Feedback on quality and comprehensibility of recording Providing voice-overs
Course website	Collaboration Content review (proof-reading, editing, readability indexing)
Interactive online assignments	Proofreading and editing Readability indexing
Assignment rubrics	Proofreading and editing Readability indexing
Sample assignment outputs	Proofreading and editing Readability indexing
Assessment guidelines	Proofreading and editing Readability indexing
Resource lists and bibliographies	Proofreading and editing Readability indexing Compatibility with students' language levels

### 7.3.4 Delivering lectures and lessons in English

It is clear that teaching and learning in a second or foreign language requires more time and effort by teachers as well as students. From the teachers' perspective, it is not just a question of doing the same thing they have always done. Working in the target language may necessitate the use of different classroom strategies. It requires a reduction in the traditional teacher domination of speaking time in the classroom and the adoption of a communication-oriented student-centered approach to teaching. Such an approach encourages student participation and fosters student responsibility for learning, assisted and scaffolded by the teacher. Some examples of alternative classroom approaches are outlined in Table 3 below.

Table 3 - Classroom/pedagogical approaches

Pedagogical approach	Meaning	Main aims	Implementation	Assessment
Project Based Learning and Research-Based Learning	Based on concepts of experiential learning, this approach comprises creating multifaceted projects that address real-world problems and issues. Mainly used in schools but adaptable to higher education settings.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Student-centered</li> <li>-Mirrors real-world situations</li> <li>-Learn to solve problems, conduct research, develop plans, manage time, collaborate, overcome challenges</li> <li>-Meaningful learning</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Provide students with a general question to answer, a real problem to solve or an issue to explore in depth.</li> <li>-Allow sufficient time for completion of task – can be several weeks.</li> <li>-Students are the main investigators, teachers act as mentors and facilitators.</li> </ul>	<p>Usually teacher-based, but can also be peer and self-assessed:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Portfolios</li> <li>-Posters</li> <li>-Reports</li> <li>-Policy or position paper</li> </ul>
Problem-Based Learning	<p>Mainly used in higher education settings. Encourages critical thinking, discussion and collaboration. Thought to encourage intrinsic motivation through active involvement in real-life activities. Encourages problem-solving, thinking, teamwork, communication, time management and research. Problems are used as examples of the concepts to be learned. Learn content and skills in parallel. A query leads to learning through a distinct series of stages.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Student-centered</li> <li>-Learn through experience</li> <li>-Learn to apply knowledge in new situations</li> <li>-Develop critical thinking skills</li> <li>-Increase ability to transfer knowledge to new situations</li> <li>-Constructive learning opportunities</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Provide open-ended problems with no single correct answer.</li> <li>-Problems must be context specific.</li> <li>-Work is done in small groups.</li> <li>-Teachers are facilitators.</li> </ul>	<p>Students' solution/s to the problem demonstrate their understanding of the concept.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Oral presentations</li> <li>-Written report</li> <li>-Poster</li> </ul> <p>Use teacher, peer and self-assessment techniques. Provide formative and summative feedback.</p>



Pedagogical approach	Meaning	Main aims	Implementation	Assessment
Gamification	An educational approach thought to motivate students through game elements in learning environments.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Encourages attention to detail</li> <li>-Lends itself to problem-solving activities</li> <li>-Log individual progress</li> <li>-Collaborate with others to reach a common goal</li> <li>-Learn continuously (repeat until expert)</li> <li>-Work on challenges that require multiple skills to solve</li> <li>-Tackle challenges in limited time</li> <li>-Discovery via navigation through the learning environment to access new knowledge</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Use existing games created for your field</li> <li>-Provide students with the opportunities to create their own games for peers to challenge their knowledge of the subject</li> <li>-Use games as stimulus for discussions</li> <li>-Document and reflect on the learning process</li> <li>-Critique the ideology behind specific games</li> <li>-Add augmented reality to student-created assignments</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Automatic scoring in specific games.</li> <li>-Peer review process.</li> </ul>
Cooperative learning	Learning is facilitated through collaboration and sharing with peers, working together towards a common goal.	Encourages discussion, joint co-construction of knowledge, application of critical thinking and is clearly based on student-centered small group work	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Decide on roles according to objectives (research, review of previous work; debate)</li> <li>-gathering and sharing information</li> <li>-presenting different perspectives</li> <li>-decision-making</li> <li>-presentation</li> </ul>	-Peer- and self-assessment in addition to teacher assessment using multiple assessment tools

Pedagogical approach	Meaning	Main aims	Implementation	Assessment
Technology-enhanced learning	Learning in a technology-rich environment providing opportunities for challenging learning. Using multiple online resources. The application of information and communication technologies to teaching and learning.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Infinite access to multiple resources</li> <li>-Greater flexibility for students and teachers</li> <li>-Redesign activities for active learning</li> <li>-Lends itself to problem-based learning</li> <li>-Facilitates knowledge building and collaboration</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Co-construction, sharing and drafting of materials (Google Docs)</li> <li>-text-to-speech software for LD students</li> <li>-audio and visual recordings</li> <li>-virtual lessons</li> <li>-virtual meetings</li> <li>-online discussions</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Online testing with instant feedback (Moodle, Web Assign, Quizlet etc)</li> <li>-recorded presentations</li> <li>-quality of contributions in online discussion forum</li> <li>-quality and effectiveness of student-generated materials</li> </ul>
Flipped classroom models	Reverses the traditional division between class work of presentation of new topics, with homework meant to practice the ideas presented in class. Encourages student-based self-regulated learning, promotes organizational skills and learner responsibility. Enables profound examination of the issues at hand.	Utilizing technology to change the course of traditional learning: students familiarize themselves with contents at home via materials provided, and class time is devoted to critical appraisal, dilemmas, reaching conclusions.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Provide on-line materials with accompanying items for acquiring curriculum content:</li> <li>-videos</li> <li>-reading material</li> <li>-lectures.</li> <li>-Classroom discussions</li> <li>-Presentation tools</li> <li>-Debating strategies</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-On-line self-assessment</li> <li>-Diagnostic tests</li> <li>-Performance-based assessment</li> </ul>

The suitability of these classroom approaches for EMI lies in their focus on student-centered learning, where attention shifts from the teacher as the source of all knowledge to the teacher as a facilitator, guiding students towards achieving the aims of the course. The dual benefit of this shift is that the lecturer's language proficiency need not be an obstacle to running a successful and effective course. Teachers who may lack self-confidence in their linguistic abilities can minimize the amount of talking they actually do in front of the whole class. Some lecturers are reluctant to teach in English because they find that the need to produce accurate board work is a significant challenge. This can be resolved by inviting students to take responsibility for making notes on the board during class discussion. These notes can be disseminated after the session.

One aspect of teaching in small groups, as practiced in Problem-Based Learning, is the employment of a student as the session ‘chair’. It is the chair’s responsibility to ensure that the group understands the topic covered and to appoint a group ‘secretary’ to make notes. This technique allows the teacher greater capacity to guide the collective discussions and to ensure that the intended key points have been absorbed. In order to stimulate student research prior to, and wider student participation during, each session, the whole process will naturally require course workbooks and other material to be specifically written (with the help of the language department).

Content teachers who want to prepare recorded materials but who might not have sufficiently fluent or accurate English, should use their EFL teachers to do voice-overs for their recorded oral presentations and lectures. This will reduce anxiety and prevent students’ loss of learning due to lecturers’ difficulties with vocabulary, grammatical structures, delivery and accent.

Some additional suggestions for consideration in relation to teaching style are given below:

- Keep students’ linguistic limitations in mind. Key phrases and expressions should be repeated in the same format to allow students to register and comprehend the meaning.
- Consider utilizing more recorded material so that students can re-visit lectures and listen several times at their own pace to aid comprehension.
- Use a flipped classroom approach where students study the topic before the class and use class time to discuss and fill in the gaps in their knowledge.
- Regularly assess students’ understanding and grasp of the content, which can be done either by inviting student-led discussions or informal mini-presentations as well as pop-quizzes that can be given with or without grades

### 7.3.5 Providing feedback on performance tasks

In addition to support for delivering lectures and lessons, content teachers may also require considerable support in providing feedback on students’ writing and speaking. Feedback serves as a means to promote students’ autonomous learning by assisting students in finding out where they intend to go in terms of their studies, and suggesting how to get there. Feedback can be task-specific and relate to the task, or learner-specific, where the emphasis is on the learners, their present knowledge, and on the strategies needed to make progress. Timing is of utmost importance: feedback should be provided on a regular basis to formulate learning (feedforward), rather than only at the end of the process.

Based on experience at Maastricht University, this area of teachers’ work falls into four broad categories:

- Establishing the linguistic requirements and the desired standard
- Identifying student errors or areas that need improvement
- Assessing what is worthy of comment and feedback

- Phrasing the comments and feedback clearly and accurately to be of real assistance to the author/performer.

Teachers seem to have equal difficulty in all four areas. Language support available to EMI content tutors should therefore focus on these.

Teachers need to be aware of the constant need to balance the focus on language with the focus on content. There is inevitably a fear that teachers may be sidetracked into concentrating on linguistic issues on which they are ill-equipped to comment. Conversely, they may be inclined to ignore language issues entirely. This stance would nullify the opportunities for students' language development offered by the quasi-immersion context of the EMI classroom. Hence, policy decisions regarding EMI need to emphasize the role of language in the course and provide the necessary support to make achieving the dual goals of language and content feasible. Depending on institutional policy and funding for such activities, this is an area that can be addressed collaboratively with the language department, particularly when assessing student output in final assessments. Language teachers are well able to assess written papers and presentations for their linguistic acceptability. Indeed, in Maastricht University, one faculty passes the responsibility for assessing content in students' final first year papers to the Language Center after a short workshop on the key content issues that are required by the task.

### 7.3.6 Assessment

The first and sometimes the most difficult step before embarking upon any course delivered in English and in which student production is to be in English, is to establish the criteria against which students will be assessed. Not only does this assist the teacher when grading, but it also ensures the students know the areas of both the content and the language that they need to focus on.

There are numerous assessment scales in publication and widely in use, such as the IELTS or Cambridge FCE and CAE scales, but these are very general and not culturally or content subject specific. Thus institutions embarking on EMI need to be very clear on what it is that they require students to be able to do and how well they need to be able to do it. One might consider this in two broad areas: speaking (including formal presentations), and writing academic papers. The question of the detailed structure of students' papers and presentations could also be considered a linguistic issue that might be reviewed together with the language aspects in close collaboration with the language unit. While the CEFR gives general guidelines and a series of 'can do' statements, it is for each institution and possibly each faculty within an institution to decide how they are assessed. The language unit should, however, be closely involved and will be able to advise on whether the desired outcome is realistic, fair and achievable.

It is vital to establish assessment criteria. At Maastricht University<sup>18</sup>, different faculties have different requirements with regard to the ‘what’, while establishing and assessing the ‘how well’ is broadly left to the language experts within the University Language Centre. However, the development of an assessment guide indicating both the areas to be assessed and what is considered to be an acceptable standard is generally the joint responsibility of the faculty and the Language Centre. The third area to be assessed is that of content, which is the domain of the faculty, although it may well be delegated to language teachers to assess at Bachelor level.

In writing skills, the ‘what’ is relatively easy to assess, and a good way to do it is to establish a list of essential criteria that each paper should contain, e.g. effective title, effective thesis/purpose statement, outline of the paper (if required in the field), topic sentences for each paragraph, effective conclusion and sufficient and accurate referencing. Some of these items might be determined as essential in order to achieve a passing grade. There is no reason to change the criteria currently in use in L1 instruction; indeed, it is desirable that the same criteria should apply to papers written in either language.

The ‘how well’ is rather more subjective and this is where language teachers may be guided by the CEFR or other published criteria (IELTS or Cambridge Mainsuite), or they may create their own domain- and culturally-specific assessment scale that runs in parallel. Because of the high level of subjectivity, it is important that there is a high degree of standardization between assessors, and frequent standardization workshops should be held to maintain assessment consistency.

The content assessment may normally be carried out by content teachers in the same way as they do it in the L1. However, at Bachelor level, where the topic is reasonably prescriptive and it is possible to clearly identify the main points that need to be made, language teachers may also be able to assess content after a short marking workshop given by one of the content teachers. Clearly, any papers that give rise to questions may be referred back to the content teachers for a final decision. At Maastricht University, each faculty has a nominated language teacher as the language coordinator who will be able to answer initial queries on assessment in their specific subject area. The use of language teachers as content assessors saves the need for each paper to be double marked.

In speaking skills, a similar formula applies. Maastricht University faculties often delegate authority over content to the language teachers and at higher levels (PhD), the presentation skills are so generic and the content so specific, that the language teachers assess the delivery and language and the participants’ peers assess the validity of the content. Again, it is essential to agree within the faculty (or even across the institution) regarding the criteria that are to be assessed. Courses should thus be developed on the basis of what is considered essential and what will be assessed. In promoting content and language collaboration, it is for the faculty to decide on the ‘what’ and the language department has the weight of input into the ‘how’ and ‘how well’.

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<sup>18</sup> Clive Lawrence, one of the authors of this handbook, is a lecturer in the Language Center at Maastricht University. As a partner in the ECOSTAR project he has provided invaluable support and shared the vast experience of his university in the field of English-Medium Instruction. For this reason, there are many examples taken from the Maastricht context.

When assessing both writing and speaking / presentation skills, it is clear that training and covering the points against which students are to be assessed should be offered prior to the assessment. In addition, some sort of standardized marking rubric should be used by all assessors. Ideally, samples of performance task outcomes should be provided to the students together with clear task instructions and the marking rubrics so that students are quite clear on what they need to produce and how they will be assessed.

Table 4 - Sample assignment outputs (performance tasks) and assessment issues

Type of assignment output	Assessment issues
Essay	Content: » relevance, originality, addressing the task, etc.
Poster	
Report	Communicative achievement
Lab report	Organization/Structure
Summary	Language accuracy: » lexis, grammar (vocabulary/language)
Literature review	Register
PowerPoint (for reading)	
PowerPoint for oral presentation	Mechanics: » paragraphs, punctuation, layout, spelling
Correspondence	Plagiarism
Articles: Research Newspaper	Resources: » use of referencing, quotations
Wiki entry	Genre: » specific writing conventions (relative to the task)
Peer review	
Self-assessment	Appropriate use of visuals/illustrations
Questionnaire/survey	

### 7.4 Support for students

The abundance of online resources to support EMI lessons has made it possible to combine online instruction or independent study with classroom-based delivery in otherwise traditional universities. However, there is terminological confusion between the terms blended, flipped, and inverted learning, thus preventing efficient research and implementations of these approaches in an EMI context. What is clear is that whichever terminology is applied and whichever teaching strategy is used, students need extra professional language support from their language unit to successfully undertake EMI

courses. Rarely is the attention of the core content lecturers alone sufficient to facilitate students' engagement with the full range of their studies in a foreign language.

Students taking EMI courses should already have achieved a B2 equivalent level. However, as has been noted in section 3.2 above, students require additional linguistic competencies in order to cope with the requirements of content courses in English. As discussed in part 1, the creation of a language support infrastructure is essential and must be part of the institutional policy for implementing EMI. Such infrastructure includes writing and language centers (additional facilities within the language department) to provide support for students taking EMI courses.

The following are examples of the support that can be provided for students by the language department in the institution.

Table 5 Language support for students

Workshops	Skills, Resources, Topics
For practical skills, to offer observation and feedback, including filming and review sessions	Presentation skills Interviews Preparing and delivering poster presentations
Individual consulting	Tailored to individual needs
Writing center	Individual assistance Training for specific written tasks Use of online tools for writing
Online resources: For development of language skills, review of grammar, vocabulary practice, exam preparation	ECOSTAR repository ( <a href="https://tempus-ecostar.iucc.ac.il/independent-learning-resources/">https://tempus-ecostar.iucc.ac.il/independent-learning-resources/</a> )

## 7.5 Epilogue

The journey towards implementing EMI in your institution has just begun. The process is complex and the suggestions offered in this handbook provide the very basics so that the initiative can be launched. Questions and dilemmas will arise throughout; some will be specific to the local context but many concern general issues previously dealt with in EMI implementation elsewhere. Here the support of your colleagues, locally and internationally, can be extremely useful. We strongly recommend that you join communities of practice of EMI professionals and colleagues, such as H-INET locally, particularly the SIG for EMI: <http://h-inet.org/emi/>, but also other international communities, for example the ICLHE community (<http://www.iclhe.org/>).



### 8 Resources

1. The EMI section of the ECOSTAR website provides a variety of useful materials and links: <https://tempus-ecostar.iucc.ac.il/emi/>
2. The EMI SIG of the H-INET Association: <http://h-inet.org/emi/>
3. ICLHE Association: <http://iclhe2017.ku.dk/>
4. EMI research: <http://www.education.ox.ac.uk/crdemi-oxford/emi-research/>
5. CLIL: <http://www.ecml.at/F7/tabid/969/Default.aspx>
6. CLIL: <http://clil-ren.org/about/about-aila/>
7. Link: <http://www.sli.uni-freiburg.de/english/emi>

#### Online courses for EMI teachers:

[https://www.futurelearn.com/courses/cambridge-teach-in-english?utm\\_source=FL\\_DB&utm\\_medium=crm&utm\\_campaign=23\\_08\\_2016\\_FL\\_newsletter&utm\\_content=image](https://www.futurelearn.com/courses/cambridge-teach-in-english?utm_source=FL_DB&utm_medium=crm&utm_campaign=23_08_2016_FL_newsletter&utm_content=image)

<https://www.britishcouncil.org/en/teach/courses-qualifications/eft>

<https://www.coursera.org/learn/teaching-english>

<http://www.londonschool.com/courses/london/business-and-professionals/effective-lecturing-skills-in-english/>

<http://www.ru.nl/radboudintolanguages/en/language-courses-0/english/english-courses/lecturing-english-0/>

<https://www.wur.nl/en/product/Lecturing-in-English-1.htm>

<http://www.su.se/english/about/2.291/press-releases/when-english-becomes-the-medium-of-instruction-communicative-effectiveness-is-more-important-1.2392>

#### Reading materials:

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*International CLIL Research Journal*, Vol 1 (2) <http://www.icrj.eu/12-742> 26

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