




**School of Applied Linguistics**

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**Patrick Studer (Editor)**

# **Communicative competence and didactic challenges**

**A case study of English-medium instruction in third-  
level education in Switzerland**



The ZHAW School of Applied Linguistics is engaged in the study of applied linguistics from a trans-disciplinary perspective. The focus is on real-life problems in which language plays a key role. These problems are identified, analysed and resolved by applying existing linguistic theories, methods and results, and by developing new theoretical and methodological approaches.

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## Abstract

Looking in greater detail at the role of lecturers, this publication reports results of a project introducing English as a medium of instruction in a bachelor-level programme in the natural sciences offered by a university of applied sciences in German-speaking Switzerland. The three papers in this publication focus on key aspects arising from the pilot phase, outlining challenges involved when functioning communities of practice are disrupted by the change of the medium of communication as well as communicative processes that are at work in creating a new community of practice on the basis of English as a lingua franca.

Diese Publikation untersucht die Einführung von englischsprachigem Fachunterricht in naturwissenschaftlichen Fächern auf Bachelorstufe im Rahmen eines dreijährigen Pilotversuchs, der an einer Fachhochschule der Schweiz durchgeführt wurde. Die drei Beiträge dieser Publikation widmen sich zentralen Fragen, die aus der Einführung des englischsprachigen Fachunterrichts während der ersten Phase des Projektes hervorgingen. Die Publikation untersucht im Speziellen die Herausforderungen, die auftreten, wenn funktionierende Praxisgemeinschaften durch den Wechsel des Kommunikationsmediums gestört werden, sowie die kommunikativen Prozesse, die zur Schaffung einer neuen Praxisgemeinschaft beitragen, die auf Englisch als Lingua Franca fusst.

## 1 Foreword / By Patrick Studer

The use of English as a medium in third-level education is a controversial issue which has been subject to criticism from various academic and non-academic circles both inside and outside Switzerland. While the use of a lingua franca is long established in the research community and postgraduate education (e. g., in master's and doctoral theses), it remains a matter of controversial debate at the bachelor level.

Looking in greater detail at the role of lecturers, the three papers in this collection report on the results of a project introducing English as a medium of instruction in the natural sciences of a major institute of higher education in German-speaking Switzerland. The project formed part of that university's recent internationalisation strategy according to which a full academic semester should be taught through the medium of English. The three papers of this volume present findings from observations, meetings and discussions with lecturers who participated in the project at various stages and for various purposes.

The first contribution, by Patrick Studer, discusses insight gained from classroom observations and a focus group discussion with lecturers. Highlighting in particular the contrasting behaviour of two lecturers who received positive and negative student feedback, respectively, the contribution shows the importance of language awareness in the EMI classroom. In the second contribution, Virginia Suter Reich and Andrea Müller discuss how the feelings of strangeness encountered in EMI lectures can be used to didactic advantage by teachers. The authors show how reflective practice can facilitate greater language awareness, which in turn can lead to improved communication in the classroom, and suggest that a methodology be developed whereby reflexivity may be incorporated into EMI teacher training. In the third paper, Paul Kelly describes a teacher development workshop programme designed to raise teachers' awareness of the multifaceted EMI setting, with respect to different aspects of communicative competence.

Together, the three papers focus on challenges involved when functioning communities of practice are potentially disrupted by the change of the medium of communication and new study communities are formed. The authors of the present papers join the findings of classical studies such as Eckert & McConnell-Ginet (1992) & Wenger (1998) in believing that communities of practice arise through the mutual engagement of the members of a social group developing a shared communicative repertoire that can be used for the negotiation of a joint enterprise. In particular, the papers address communicative processes that contribute to the perception of communicative competence (cf., originally, Hymes 1972; Canale & Swain 1980) and intersubjectivity (Smit 2010; generally Marková 2003). The authors believe that from this interface didactic insight can be derived that can further contribute to the formulation of a reflective didactics for English-medium instruction.

Patrick Studer

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## **2 Lecturers' communicative strategies in English-medium instruction: the importance of classroom interaction / By Patrick Studer**

### **2.1 Introduction**

Language attitudes, motivation and subjective linguistic confidence have been recognised as key variables in L2 learning and acquisition but have received little detailed attention in the literature on English-medium instruction so far. One reason for the absence of this focus in EMI research may be sought in the assumption that the development of language – as in CLIL – does not constitute a fixed component of English-medium instruction. This paper seeks to contribute to the argument that language attitudes of teachers, as displayed during their EMI lectures, may influence classroom interaction perceptively.

Studer (2015) and Studer & Konstantinidou (2015), who previously analysed students' perceptions of their teachers' language behaviour, found that students actively refer to their teachers' formal language abilities when forming and expressing opinions about the quality of the EMI lectures. These studies argue that students who, on the surface, complain about the lack of formal language abilities of their lecturers may, in fact, be complaining about other things. Firstly, as Studer (2015) found, they seem to criticise their lecturers' communicative-didactic skills rather than their mastery of the language. In other words, students who find fault with the language produced by lecturers actually seem to express their dissatisfaction with broader issues of communication that underlie student-lecturer interaction. Secondly, Studer & Konstantinidou (2015) have shown evidence of a correlation between students' perceptions of linguistic self-confidence and their level of criticism of the EMI programmes they follow. Such findings have obvious implications for the conceptualisation of English-medium teacher training programmes in that they point to areas that could or should be actively developed with lecturers.

This paper deals with the question of how subject lecturers belonging to a specific community of practice, i.e. the natural sciences, negotiate their language attitudes following the switch of the medium of instruction from German to English. Emphasising the concept of intersubjectivity in classroom communities of practice (cf. also Studer 2015, relying on Smit 2010; generally in Gillespie & Cornish 2010; Marková 2003), this paper investigates lecturers' display of their disposition towards the changed teaching environment through efforts at repairing negative communicative disruptions in the classroom. Looking at recorded scenes from lectures in two undergraduate science modules in detail, the paper emphasises attention to language as a key variable contributing to successful communication in the foreign-medium classroom.

## 2.2 Theoretical background

Theoretically, this paper rests on the assumption that reflections on language and language abilities are activated in moments when something is noted as unusual or exceptional in the classroom. It therefore assumes that such reflection follows a breach of tacit, intersubjective, expectations about how a typical class should unfold communicatively and linguistically (cf. Garfinkel 1984). In situations where lecturers use their L2 as the medium of instruction, it is likely that their L2-use serves as a trigger for engaging in reflection about language and communication, both for students and lecturers. Seen from this perspective, L2-interaction in the English-medium classroom becomes an object of intersubjective valuing for students and teachers, in the course of which participants connect the production of language to positive or negative communicative experiences. When disruptions are perceived, these disruptions are likely to be perceived as communicative flaws on the side of the speaker. It can be assumed that students respond differently to communicative disruptions depending on the aspect of language competence concerned and the communication strategies that are activated.

The communication strategies caused by communicative-linguistic difficulties may occur in all areas of language competence, that is, at the level of language organisation (knowledge of grammatical-textual rules and ability for use), its pragmatic potential (knowledge of acceptable language functions) or sociolinguistic properties (awareness of specific language-use contexts) (Bachman 1990: 87–94). Disruptions in communication caused by the use of an L2 in the classroom may be understood as reflective disruptions that become visible as strategic competence in Canale & Swain's (1980: 30) sense, namely as verbal and non-verbal communication strategies "that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to ... insufficient competence."

The disruptions of interest to the present paper can be best described as an on-line language management process following the four steps suggested in Language Management Theory (LMT): (1) noting of an irregularity in interaction, (2) evaluation of the irregularity, (3) adjustment selection/planning (design of the adjustment needed to repair the disruption), and (4) implementation of the adjustment design (Neustupný & Nekvapil 2003). These phases in on-line language management are consistent with Bachman's (1990: 103) definition of strategic competence as consisting of a situational assessment in relation to the overall goal of the utterance, the planning process, the plan and the execution of the utterance itself, which is embedded in physio-psychological mechanisms affecting speech production (current mood, time of day, room, etc.).



## 2.3 Data collection

The present analysis centres on data collected during the pilot phase of a natural sciences undergraduate EMI programme launched in German-speaking Switzerland at a major university of applied sciences. During this pilot phase two science modules were offered through the medium of English, involving five lecturers and a cohort of roughly 40 students. The data collection methods included one focus group discussion with the EMI lecturers and subsequent classroom observations. The focus group discussion with the lecturers participating in the pilot programme was carried out within the first weeks of the semester. The focus group discussion with the lecturers at the beginning of the semester was to provide contextualising information about the challenges foreseen and the coping strategies they had already explored and developed. Classroom observations took place later in the semester.

In this paper, I highlight the communicative behaviour of two lecturers who participated in the pilot project. For ease of reference, they will be referred to as Peter and Mary. The two lecturers had been selected for further analysis because of the student feedback on their English-medium taught classes they received during the semester. Students responded favourably to Mary's class, but expressed concern about Peter's English performance. In the following sections, I present findings from the focus group discussion in which Peter and Mary<sup>1</sup> participated for further training purposes, and discuss in detail the results from classroom observations. Their participation in the pilot project is gratefully acknowledged here.

## 2.4 Lecturers' Perceptions of English in the Classroom

Peter, a native speaker of Swiss-German, was an experienced senior lecturer with more than ten years' involvement in teaching at tertiary level. Mary, a native speaker of Spanish who had arrived in the German-speaking area of Switzerland some years prior to the project, was a junior lecturer who had been working in university environments for five years. Peter did not indicate that he used more than one language regularly in his private life; Mary, on the other hand, claimed she used English, German and her native Spanish regularly. Both Peter and Mary had already had some experience teaching through English. Peter had taught his subject through English at Master's level. Since Mary's first language was not German, she usually taught in English, which she found easier than German. Both lecturers rated their own English language competence between B2 and C1 level; Peter indicated at the time that he was currently studying for the Cambridge Advanced examinations. Both lecturers contributed actively to the

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<sup>1</sup> The lecturers named Peter and Mary refer to the same persons as analysed in Studer (2015). In Studer (2015), student perspectives were highlighted; in the present paper, the communicative conduct of the lecturers is analysed in greater detail.

focus group discussion and showed awareness of their need for further EMI training.

The focus group with the lecturers, which was held in the first weeks of the spring semester, was intended to reveal the participants' attitudes towards English as a lingua franca or English-medium instruction using prompts prepared by the moderator.<sup>2</sup> These prompts included concerns about English as a lingua franca voiced by public media, quotations about communicative efficiency and inefficiency, questions concerning the nature of communicative problems in the classroom and on the teaching performance in general. The discussion was organised loosely around these themes but was left open if any member of the group digressed from the topic. The discussion was attended by four out of five lecturers participating in the pilot project. The fifth lecturer decided not to attend, as she felt she did not need any didactic or linguistic support.

Although both Peter and Mary identified challenges motivated by EMI, their overall responses to the challenge differed. While Peter did show awareness of the importance of language in the classroom, he tended to argue rationally for the introduction of English in a field of study which is predominantly German-speaking. He perceived English as a disadvantage in the particular context he was teaching in but believed, in general, that language was of subordinate importance in the world of science. He acknowledged, however, that English might be useful for students or for the course as a whole as it might attract international students to come and study in Switzerland. He thought that local students might be afraid of the change but relativised this assumption by highlighting German as a fallback option in case communication in English failed. Considering the potential function of German in the classroom, Peter believed that non-German speakers in the classroom would help legitimise the use of English. He pointed out that the change of the medium of instruction required greater strategic competence on the part of the lecturer (visualisation, word searching, etc.), which might result in more time needed to cover content than in German. Peter wondered whether the problems connected to the switch to English might lead to a drop in student attendance on the whole.

Peter's thoughts showed that he saw limited value in the introduction of English apart from the fact that English can be of use strategically to attract foreign students and serves as a lingua franca in science. They also showed that Peter considered a pragmatic approach useful which focuses on what one might term 'functional intelligibility'. To achieve functional intelligibility, occasional switching to German might be an option.

Unlike Peter, Mary stressed the usefulness of English for the research community, although she, too, recognised the predominantly German literature

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<sup>2</sup> The focus group was transcribed following HIAT and VOICE standards. For the purpose of the present discussion, I summarise the main argumentative lines that emerged in the course of the discussion. A detailed conversation analytic discussion of the focus group must be left for later study.

and terminology in some of the areas she covered. She considered herself fluent in English and generally felt happy after giving a class. Her happiness in part stemmed from her impression that she felt more comfortable in English than in German, knowing that in German she would more easily reach her communicative limits. While she thought she possessed the necessary vocabulary in German to give a lecture, she believed she would not feel comfortable enough in knowing how to express things or how to structure sentences, as she called it. Despite her confidence in giving her classes in English, Mary indicated that she would feel threatened by the presence of a native speaker in the classroom because she would concentrate much more on her accent or on the expression she uses. Her didactic approach, she maintained, was based on establishing interpersonal rapport, emphasising the importance of looking into the students' eyes to read their reactions and level of concentration. Her method was to throw in questions every couple of minutes 'to make them think'. She would also code-switch sometimes when a German expression comes to her mind, just to establish a dialogue. She believed that, aside from offering scripts in German and reading through passages together slowly, it was important to provide support outside the lecture by inviting students to ask questions by e-mail, or by meeting with them.

Mary's account differed from Peter's in various respects, such as her declared self-confidence in English, her reference to her overall satisfaction with the EMI programme and her stress on didactics as the key to successful interaction with students when switching to English. Peter did not, in contrast, proactively reflect on his didactic approach. Moreover, unlike Peter, Mary repeatedly pointed to the relevance of interaction within the lecture allowing the lecturer to establish rapport with the students. Although Mary did not elaborate further on the nature of interaction within the lecture, she seemed to refer to interactive episodes during which teaching was partly structured and partly left open to joint development.

There were, however, also similarities between the two lecturers. Both indicated that they considered English for the students as a major challenge and recognised the importance of German in their fields of study. While both lecturers had some experience teaching through English, it was their first time giving these specific classes in English. Both equally showed willingness to participate in the evaluation project and were open to classroom recordings, observations and didactic-communicative support. This last commonality seems particularly noteworthy, as it underlines the importance of the lecturers' readiness for further development despite potential skepticism or reservations towards EMI.

## 2.5 Peter's lecture

In the course of the spring semester, we visited Peter twice to observe his class. Peter was in charge of the first half of the semester in which he covered

introductory content, which he made available to students through a script at the beginning of the term and which he developed in his classes. The script Peter used had not been completely translated into English by the time the EMI programme started. Peter met with his students for half-day sessions (four lectures at 45 minutes). A substantial part of these sessions was taken up by classical lectures in which the teacher read from and elaborated on content based on textbooks or scripts. The students had the opportunity to come to class prepared.

Generally, Peter spoke English consistently. He came prepared and appeared to know the specialised vocabulary of his field. Although speaking in English, he allowed interaction in German in informal contexts during class breaks or when giving further instructions and explanations on specific tasks. He also allowed students to ask questions in German. During group work, students mostly spoke German; there were very few groups who tried to use English consistently in these situations. During group work Peter would go from group to group to answer questions that may have come up in the discussion. Peter would try to speak English consistently also during these exercises but the students often switched back to German or Swiss-German to explain their problem to him. The lecturer tended to ignore their code-switches and responded to these German interventions mostly in English.

I will now discuss in greater detail one recorded lecture which was subsequently shown to students in stimulated recall focus groups for feedback (cf. Studer 2015). The lecture extended over 45 minutes and essentially dealt with heat exchanger piles used for the construction of buildings. Leaving aside the content, I will, in the following, summarise the communicative conduct of the lecturer that may have been motivated or accentuated by the change of language, and outline its possible significance for the subsequent response of the class.

### **But, well, as you know, we will now change to English**

Peter opened his first lecture in the morning by starting up his computer, projecting the script on screen and blackboard. This process took approximately one to two minutes during which the lecturer spoke Swiss-German consistently, commenting on what he was doing. After this introductory phase, Peter officially opened the lecture with the sentence 'but, well, as you know, we will now change to English', followed by a description of what they were going to discuss over the course of the lecture. This intervention can be considered communicatively significant as it raises expectations as to the change that lies ahead for the participants in this class. It transcends the lecturer's perception of a change being effected by the language switch, which implies the notion of change as an exercise the teacher has, rather than wishes, to perform. Using the inclusive 'we' in his intervention, Peter not only seems to express his personal perception of the significance of the change, but claims to be speaking for the whole community taking part in the exercise.

More importantly still, Peter's intervention signals the break away from the working community of practice they had just formed during the first minutes of the lecture in which he was speaking Swiss-German. Peter communicated his understanding of authentic communication when he started the class in Swiss-German and connected the switch to English to his 'artificial' role as a lecturer of this module. Peter thus positioned himself with respect to the activity ahead of them, possibly implying that he was complying with a language task rather than engaging in a natural communicative activity.

### **From swamp to Pfahlbauer**

The next communicatively significant episode appeared between minutes two and four, when the teacher asked the students for an appropriate, and obviously important, term in English (swamp). The request for help was preceded by a brief struggle on the part of the lecturer trying to find the right expression in English. One student eventually offered the word 'swamp'. Peter accepted the suggestion by the student without hesitation and then continued with his elaboration. This short and seemingly routine repair episode is communicatively significant for several reasons. Firstly, Peter reinforced the impression that his students might know basic terminology more readily than he did. While asking students for terminological help may actually lead to positive perceptions by the students as the teacher invites feedback and interaction (Studer 2015), this particular episode potentially turned the students' perception into a negative experience because of the way the lecturer initiated and treated the student's response. The repair episode started in a moment of communicative breakdown, when the lecturer was unable to continue with his lecture. The lecturer, in this situation, did not paraphrase or try to explain the phenomenon he was looking for in other words. Neither did the lecturer disambiguate the situation through meta-communicative interventions. Thus, the lecturer delegated the communicative responsibility for dealing with the potentially awkward situation to the students. By accepting the translation offered by one of the students immediately and without hesitation, the lecturer emphasised that the word or concept going with the student's suggestion did not need to be problematised further, in spite of the many potential alternatives that exist in English expressing wet land. Thus, in addition to delegating initiative to students in dealing with communicative breakdowns, the lecturer accepted terminological superiority of the student, while displaying a lack of awareness of the terminological complexity of the concept to the students.

Shortly after the suggestion by the student, Peter code-switched in the classroom, which may be interpreted as an intervention used to compensate for the vocabulary problem encountered earlier. This change to German also seemed to reveal the lecturer's struggle with the translation of the concept of Pfahlbauer; an expression that does not exist with identical meaning in English. The word combines the word 'pile' – the theme of the lecture – and a designation of the people who used those piles, along with a reference to the Neolithic Age as the period during which stilt dwellings were commonly built. Unable to find a word in English that expresses the same layers of meaning, Peter resorted to the

language shared by everybody and in which one word united all the different meanings he wanted to convey. Again, Peter left this intervention unproblematised, and moved on in the lecture to talk about piles used for energy purposes. The impression this intervention may have left on the listener was the perception of greater terminological precision in German.

### **Of piles...**

What followed these introductory scenes was an introduction to piles used for energy purposes. In this part of the lecture, Peter's communicative effort was mainly conceptually and terminologically driven, oriented to the internal logic of the subject matter being discussed. While the lecturer seemed to invest most of his communicative effort into building logical connections in his speech, the lecturer did not actively seek to build rapport with the audience. This absence of rapport may be compensated for when the content is delivered in the lecturer's first language; when lecturers struggle with the delivery of the content, however, content may easily be perceived as inconsistent and therefore difficult to follow. In such moments, interactivity becomes more significant as it helps us disambiguate what is potentially obscured by the language.

Peter's lecture continued in the above manner, characterised by the absence of terminological clarifications and the display of his awareness of the complexity of expression in English. During this time, the students were not actively involved in the construction of meaning. The phase ended with a student interrupting the lecturer asking him something in Swiss-German, to which Peter responded in English. The intervention of the student in German seemed appropriate in this context as German seemed to be the language with which ambiguous content could be successfully disambiguated.

### **What is it called...?**

The final ten minutes before the first break were characterised by technical explanations of energy transfer from piles to the building and vice versa, interrupted by students consistently asking questions in standard German. These last ten minutes ended with a humorous scene. Peter tried to illustrate the situation when the ground floor in a building is accidentally cooled down with a heat exchanger, causing water to freeze. Peter struggled to find the expression 'ice rink' and, unable to produce the right expression, completed the anecdote in German ('sie hätten Schlittschuh laufen können dort'). Although there was laughter in the audience, this final joke before the break confirmed the classroom community of practice in English this particular group had established in the course of the first 45 minutes; i. e., one that keeps the use of English to a functional minimum and that considers English a difficult medium of communication, adding little value to classroom interaction.

## 2.6 Mary's lecture

Mary taught the second part of Peter's module. We visited Mary once during the semester to record a four-hour lecture combined with practical exercises. The format of the class followed Peter's approach, using a script made available to students, and meeting with students for half-day sessions in which a substantial part was spent developing the script. Unlike Peter, though, Mary displayed greater student focus in her lectures, which rendered her part of the lecture significantly more communicative. This could be observed in the way she managed authority in the classroom as well as in the way she allowed participation in the construction of knowledge.

Since Mary's first language was not German, she spoke English with the students consistently and switched to German only when she believed the German expression would make her speech more understandable. The students mostly spoke back in English in class. They occasionally switched to German when they could not find an appropriate expression in English. Mary consistently spoke in English in student-teacher interactions. Unlike Peter, Mary worked with PowerPoint slides in English and German that highlighted the relevant parts of the script. She also had a short film she showed to students during the forty-five minute lecture.

The observed lecture consisted of the second forty-five minutes of a standard ninety-minute lecture with a break of five minutes between the two parts. Like Peter's part, Mary's lecture was introductory in nature. The particular lecture we analysed was selected for acoustic reasons and reasons of video quality. In the second forty-five minutes on this particular morning, Mary dealt with 'A brief history of water energy use'. A slide announcing the topic was displayed shortly before the end of the first part of the lecture, following a brief summary of what they had discussed in the first part.

### **Einfuhrüberschuss – is this import?**

Early in the second lecture, Mary discussed whether Switzerland needed to import or export energy from other countries. She did so by looking at an image with the description *Einfuhrüberschuss* and *Ausfuhrüberschuss* in German. Mary seemed to have difficulty pronouncing these words, so students came to her aid. This early instance in the lecture established or reinforced the communicative basis for interaction between students and teacher, where English was understood as the shared language and German as the language the 'expert' genuinely did not know. Thus, the participants easily came to understand English as the authentic language of the subject, which, when looking at the content being discussed in detail, would not necessarily seem to be the case.

### **Large, I mean big, dams**

Mary then concentrated on solving an exercise from an exercise sheet for approximately twenty minutes of the second lecture in which she discussed advantages and disadvantages of large hydroelectric dams as an energy source

with students. She read out the exercise from a sheet, referring to the exercise ahead. The exercise itself was activity oriented, asking students to produce a list; a relatively simple task checking for students' basic understanding of the subject matter. When Mary asked students the question and as there was no immediate reply, she corrected the expression 'large', referring to 'big' dams instead, trying to offer a word that might be more familiar to the students. Having said this, she realised that she might have to add more precise figures to clarify what was meant by either 'big' or 'large', namely plants producing 30 megawatts or more, referring to the place in the script where this was written down. This intervention is communicatively significant insofar as it showed the lecturer's continuous effort towards clarification and understanding in verbalising a task. In other words, Mary emphasised the importance of disambiguation in interaction and the possibility of mis- or not understanding. In treating the answers of students, Mary proceeded the same way as when introducing the task, helping students disambiguate their own choice of words or clarify the meaning of what they said. When one student offered 'high efficiency' as an advantage of hydroelectric power plants, she hastened to ask what he meant by high efficiency. Then, when the student described high efficiency by 'the amount of energy you can take out of water', she acknowledged the response by calling the 'transformation from water very efficient'. This form of verbal clarification occurred throughout the lecture, also in self-oriented repair. After fifteen minutes, Mary tried to explain the fact that the volume of the water contained by dams decreases over time. She used the expression 'collapse' at first, which was then immediately abandoned for 'accommodates'. Finally, the solution 'loses half its volume' was offered, which was more readily accessible for students. In this instance, Mary resolved her linguistic problem through repetition using alternative or synonymous expressions.

### **A flood is...**

There were numerous examples during the lecture in which the lecturer applied disambiguation techniques, also when students switched code from English to German. In minute twelve, for example, a student suggested 'keine Überschwemmungen' as another advantage, which the lecturer corrected as 'no floods', accompanied by further explanation: 'a flood is when you cover with water a huge area'. The student then acknowledged the intervention, saying that he didn't know the term in English. Despite the simplified definition of flood in English (and the mispronunciation), the student in this instance understood the importance of using English expressions and of being able to define these expressions in other words. There was another instance a few minutes later when a student gave a short reply in English and, on the lecturer's insistence to be more specific, switched to German, which was then taken up again in English by the lecturer.

### **Do you think they have no more advantages?**

When, after this first question and answer exchange, there was silence in the class, Mary looked around saying 'do you think they have no more advantages'? This intervention produced a smile among the students. By 'accusing' them of



lack of imagination, she invited critical responses and engagement with the topic. She continued giving them a hint, referring to the life cycle of nuclear and hydroelectric plants. This additional hint set off a brief discussion on the lifespan of plants until, some minutes later, a student came back with a fresh contribution without prior lecturer solicitation. At this point, Mary's provocation had paid off in that students felt confident to take the lead in the discussion without explicitly being given the word. After dealing with the student's comment, Mary took the lead back and changed the topic. The back and forth in the lecture showed that communicative leadership was shared by Mary and the students.

### **Good question**

The lecturer's invitation for critical interventions was not only seen in the linguistic self- and other-criticism and repair of others but also in the lecturer's encouragement to think independently beyond what was taught in the script. As one student suggested pumping sludge out of rivers, the lecturer called it a 'good question', showing genuine respect for the idea. She admitted that she was not sure about the correct answer in this case and referred to an engineer who should be able to answer the question. On this reply, another student explained that there was a project in which pumping worked with sand, so he insisted on the possibility of doing the same in rivers. The lecturer then left the question open and asked the class whether someone would like to follow up on this point with the federal office in charge of water plants. One student volunteered to send a message to the office concerned.

### **Why do salmon travel upstream?**

Towards the end of exercise twelve, the impact of dams on nature was discussed. When the lecturer was talking about fish like salmon 'going up the river', for which dams 'pose huge barriers', one student asked for the expression describing what salmon did when they travel upstream, which the students did not seem to know either in German or English. The lecturer then sat down to look the word up in an online dictionary, and, failing to find it, was offered the solution 'migration' by one of the students. Everybody seemed to participate in this exercise, which created additional interaction between students as well as between student and teacher. Again, communicative authority shifted from lecturer to student for a moment. The lecturer tried to win back leadership immediately after this episode, declaring exercise twelve completed and moving on to a new topic. At this stage, the class, however, seemed a little unquiet, showing reluctance to follow the lecturer on to the new topic.

### **Which percent of rivers can we 'umleiten'?**

With the previous attempt at changing the topic, the lecture came into the final phase, which was more teacher-focused than the preceding thirty minutes. The shift from student to teacher performance may have had to do with the attempt of the lecturer to maintain communicative authority, but more likely reflected the lecturer's attempt to speed up before the end of the lecture to cover more ground. When the lecturer asked the students 'Which percent of natural rivers can we umleiten?', adding 'divert' immediately, it seemed that she used the

German expression first deliberately to facilitate understanding on the students' side. Equally, when she asked 'What is the capacity factor of a plant?', she immediately repeated the expression 'capacity factor' as a triggering expression students ought to be familiar with. Although Mary continued with her question-and-answer style, she now announced that there were only three slides left for discussion, making everybody aware of the end of the lecture. Accepting one last long explanation from a student, which was praised by the lecturer, Mary then talked the class through the last slides asking questions and answering them efficiently.

In conclusion, Mary's lecturing style was different from Peter's in that she confronted the students with questions right from the start of the lecture. This was evident in the scene where she opened the floor for an exchange of ideas about advantages and disadvantages of water plants in a question-answer sequence. These questions demanded student participation as the lecturer insisted on answers before continuing with the lecture. The questions at this stage were mainly of a closed nature, bringing the students up to the same level needed to continue with the lecture. Mary summarised answers from students, embedding them in further questions addressed to students: 'We have x, y, z – what else is important here?' In demanding more communication in the lecture, Mary displayed a different understanding of her role in the classroom, namely that of a coach motivating students to deal with the subject matter. Mary's sensitivity towards others was equally reflected in her display of communicative awareness. She corrected her own speech, consciously translated expressions into German which she deemed difficult for students (Schlamm – sludge). Obviously, these interventions slowed the delivery of content down; at the same time, they empowered students to think for themselves and question their own and the lecturer's role in the construction of knowledge. This re-definition of everybody's roles in the classroom as a fixed component of teacher-student interaction benefited the change of language, as the medium of delivery was just another factor in this process.

## 2.7 Conclusion

This study presented the results of a critical investigation into the introduction of EMI (English-medium instruction) in higher education in Switzerland. The particular EMI programme studied was introduced as a pilot scheme in two science modules. Five lecturers volunteered for observation and scientific analysis in this first phase of the project of which two – Peter and Mary – have been analysed in greater detail. The choice fell on these two lecturers as they elicited very different reactions in the students. Peter's class was received critically, while Mary's class was praised as a success.

The present study was divided into two parts, a focus group discussion with lecturers and a discussion of subsequent classroom observation. The results of

the study indicate that teachers' perceptions of EMI and their classroom practices go hand in hand. In the case of Peter and Mary, the study revealed that a rational and extrinsic display of motivation tends to coincide with little explicit attention to language. A display of intrinsic motivation to the switch of the classroom language, on the other hand, tends to correspond with greater attention to the complexity and ambiguity of language. Further research will be necessary to corroborate the findings, especially with respect to the interconnections between lecturer motivation and communicative behaviour.

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### **3 Making the strange familiar – reflexivity and language awareness in the EMI classroom / By Virginia Suter Reich and Andrea Müller**

#### **3.1 Introduction<sup>3</sup>**

The introduction of English as a medium of instruction (EMI) in the classroom of third-level education signifies certain changes. Lecturing in another language, commonly a non-native language, disrupts habitual communicative activities in the classroom (see Studer, this publication). Moreover, it challenges teaching practices and established role conceptions of lecturers and students. In any case, the change of the communicative medium creates a new situation in the classroom. It makes the familiar strange. Accordingly, teaching routines and practices that seemed to work cannot be taken for granted anymore. These disruptions provoke a feeling of strangeness among lecturers and students. They feel as if they are acting in an artificial situation.

In this paper we focus on lecturers who are experiencing this strangeness when they teach through English and we ask how they can best deal with these challenging circumstances. With reference to an ethnographic perspective, it will be argued that the experience of strangeness gives a natural opportunity to reflect on teaching and learning performances. Therefore, we put forward the suggestion to integrate observation practices and reflexive approaches into didactic interventions for lecturers who have to cope with the new situation EMI creates for them. In other words, the lecturers who teach through English should profit from the chance that an unfamiliar classroom setting offers for self-evaluation and self-development.

The paper starts with a theoretical introduction to ethnography. Different approaches to reflexive didactics will then be compared and combined with ethnographic methods, especially with self-observation. Both self-observation and reflexivity will be proposed as instruments to gain knowledge of classroom performance in situations of strangeness and as catalysts for developing language awareness. Finally, it will be shown how these instruments can be integrated in EMI teacher training, while referring to our own experiences from a workshop for EMI-lecturers.

#### **3.2 Learning from the unfamiliar**

How can we deal with unfamiliarity? How can we understand it and make it useful for our tasks? A research approach that traditionally deals with alienation and unfamiliarity is ethnography. Ethnography means two things. On the one hand, it describes a specific research approach with its proper methods and

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<sup>3</sup> This paper has been revised and stylistically edited by Paul Kelly.

instruments. On the other hand, the term refers to the research findings as such, to the written account in a narrative form.

In contrast to other qualitative approaches, ethnography introduces the quasi-unguided participant observation as a specific method for collecting data. During participant observation, the researcher takes part in people's everyday life. At the same time, he or she ought to observe and to analyse practices and shared (or even disputed) cultural knowledge with a certain distance. The researcher takes part in activities, is involved in discussions and spends a lot of time being present in everyday routine situations and in moments without explicit relevance. Through engaging in participant observation, the researcher accumulates what Clifford Geertz (1973) termed a "thick description". The term contrasts with any superficial account of behaviour or belief systems. The thickness thus relates to the exploration of the layers of meaning to be found in the subjective lifeworld.

In the late 19th century, Social Anthropologists established this branch of research and used its approach especially for investigations among members of non-written societies in former colonial regions. Today, social scientists from very different disciplines working with a qualitative research focus on the micro level use ethnographic research designs for their projects. Nevertheless, the basic benefit of the approach has not much changed. It goes for the simple credo: *making the strange familiar*. In other words, the researcher spends a large amount of his or her time in the research field in interaction with a local cultural group to gain familiarity with the ordinary, everyday life of the members of that culture. By getting inside the meanings of others' cultural selves, researchers also reflect on the meaning of their own cultural identity.

Reflexivity is a key principle of ethnography. The researcher's subjective involvement and interpretations have to be reflected in the ethnography as a written account. This includes recognition on the part of the researcher that he or she belongs to the social world he or she studies, and that he or she is also culture-bound. In other words, ethnographers should challenge their position in the field and in the research process. They should rethink their theoretical, methodological, social, political or cultural perspective and bring it in line with the research findings. Thus, researchers continuously distance themselves from the familiar by not taking anything for granted. They ought to critically and reflectively integrate themselves into the ethnographic contribution. Reflexivity thus means questioning one's habitual ways of thinking and the assumptions about how others think. It is a specific strategy of gaining knowledge.

While there is a clear vision of ethnography as explaining or interpreting cultural and social practices of others, the use of ethnographic approaches in a practical and policy-making context at home – such as the higher education environment – normally requires a different conceptualisation of ethnography. Accordingly, the social psychologist Dan Goodley (2007) suggests inverting the aim of ethnography if it is introduced by practitioners for evaluating or reflecting on their own practices and cultural dynamics. The aim would then be to *render the*

*familiar strange*. In this sense, ethnography for practitioners is about challenging practices, roles, dynamics and policies within a familiar context. It is about turning social contexts into research contexts. The same is true for every ethnographic research in a familiar societal setting. Hammersley & Atkinson (1995) ask therefore for a certain self-reflection and naivety, what they call “anthropological strangeness”:

Even where he or she is researching a familiar group or setting, the participant observer is required to treat it as “anthropologically strange” in an effort to make explicit the assumptions he or she takes for granted as a culture member.  
Hammersley & Atkinson 1995: 9

*Making strange*, which involves consciously distancing oneself from the familiar and not taking anything for granted, is essential for the ethnographic process of gaining knowledge. It asks for a certain reflexivity and “bestrangement” (Amann & Hirschauer 1997: 12).

Bringing such a perspective together with our main interest, the introduction of EMI in higher education, it can be stated that EMI renders the familiar classroom situation ‘anthropologically strange’, because habitual communicative and didactic practices are challenged and fixed role conceptions between lecturers and students have to be mutually re-negotiated. In other words, through the change of the communicative medium, lecturers can more easily distance themselves from the familiar and unquestioned teaching routine and situation. EMI thus offers lecturers who teach through English for the first time a good opportunity to critically reflect on their own teaching practices or attitudes and to integrate reflexive activities into their didactic and teaching development.

In the following sections these thoughts will be integrated in the existing discourse of reflexivity in didactics. Moreover, reflexivity will be discussed from a more practical point of view. Firstly, we approach the introduction of reflective practices to teacher training in general. Secondly, it will be shown how reflexivity can be integrated into EMI teacher training.

### 3.3 Reflexivity and reflective practice in didactics

With reference to Adler (1991), Matthews & Jessel (1998) have identified three broad approaches to reflective practice in higher education. The first approach stems from Cruikshank (1987) and defines “reflective teaching” as a specific method of self-evaluation with which one assesses teaching practices in relation to a predefined repository of good teaching behaviours (Matthews & Jessel 1998: 231). Unlike the reliance upon a corpus of prescribed good teaching practices, the second approach deals more with a tacit form of knowledge that practitioners reproduce in their everyday teaching performances without making it explicit. This form of practical knowledge is not easily described or fixed, but contextually

dependent (Matthews & Jessel 1998: 232). Self-reflection then should help to make such knowledge more explicit so that it can be applied with more control and be mediated to others. Schön (1983) calls this process “reflection-in-action”. Matthews & Jessel identify a third approach which concerns reflection that should go beyond the concrete situation in the classroom. Factors such as social, historical or institutional conditions that can affect or determine certain teaching practices also have to be considered. This specific conception of reflection has the aim to challenge existing assumptions underlying the everyday teaching practice and the (broader) context in which teaching takes place (see Zeichner 1981, Zeichner & Liston 1987).

Matthew & Jessel (1998: 234) take this third approach as a starting point for their own understanding of the term. Their conception then focuses more on reflection about the self, including beliefs, values and attitudes. They ask for an ethic of reflective practice that encourages lecturers to evaluate their own concepts (Matthew & Jessel 1998: 233). Similarly, the range of work being done under the banner of self-study of teaching and teacher education practices deals with the situated selves of teachers, “as if it were a text to be critically interrogated and interpreted within the broader social, political, and historical contexts that shape our thoughts and actions and constitute our world” (Pithouse, Mitchell & Weber 2009: 45). In contrast, Burke & Dunn’s definition of reflexive didactics corresponds to the power relations within educational institutions and within wider society (Burke & Dunn 2006: 228) and therefore bears a strong relation to the tradition of reflexive sociology (see e.g. Bourdieu & Wacquant 1992). It includes not only the teacher’s self-reflection about his subjectivity and positionality on the subject of study, but also encourages students to examine the contextuality of learning and knowledge (Burke & Dunn 2006: 219–221).

The linguist Antonie Hornung, who published different papers on the introduction of Content and Language integrated Learning (CLIL) in second level education, (see, for example, Hornung 2004, Hornung 2006) could also be situated in this third approach to reflective practice. She argues for a model of reflexive didactics that balances between the self and the determining institutional environment. Principally, she defines the process of reflection in a sociological perspective: Just as social scientists have to reflect their own position in their field of research, so teachers should scrutinise their position and interests in their institution or even beyond it (Hornung 2004: 439). Moreover, Hornung defines the classroom community – including lecturers and students – as a social world, within which a shared understanding of social and communicative behaviours is constantly negotiated. Such negotiations are not arbitrary, but framed by societal conditions. In the case of third-level education, these are for example institutional factors like political interests or competition between disciplines, educational planning and targets, forms of organisation or established role conceptions of lecturers and students. Within this realm, the classroom community can negotiate about specific forms of didactics and teaching methods, about the focus in the teaching subject or role perceptions.



Yet, the introduction of EMI or CLIL challenges the established understanding of social and communicative behaviours within the classroom community (Hornung 2004: 439). It raises different questions and uncertainties that have to be re-negotiated (Hornung 2007: 438). Hornung suggests that lecturers who switch to English or another non-native language should reflect on their motivations and communicative-didactic behaviour, since they are involved in more complex social and communicative relations than they are while teaching in their (and the students') mother tongue. Reflections thus should help to evaluate one's teaching practice and be realised by self-observation. Self-observation should focus both on subjectivity and communicative behaviour in the classroom (Hornung 2004: 441). For the evaluation of the communicative behaviour, Hornung refers to Karl Bühler's 1934 model of communication (Auer 1999) that establishes three communication functions: the expressive, the referential and the conative function.

Hornung thus describes the central elements of communicative behaviour in the bilingual classroom that should be reflected through self-observation. However, she does not give any further methodological explanations as to how to cope with self-observation in the EMI-classroom. Therefore, we suggest adding to Hornung's model an ethnographic perspective and focusing more on the act of observing as a moment of creativity and knowledge development.

In the following sections, we will show how Hornung's reflexive teaching model can be combined with ethnographic methods and illustrate the integration of such an approach in EMI teacher training. For this purpose, insights from the teacher training workshops that were held in the context of our pilot project will be discussed.

### 3.4 Reflexivity in EMI teacher training

Most of the lecturers who were involved in the pilot project participated in further teacher training, more precisely, half-day workshops in groups of around ten lecturers, coached by the authors. One of the key aims of these workshops was to raise the lecturers' awareness of reflexive practices in the classroom. For this purpose, reflexivity was introduced in two different ways. First, reflexivity as a practice was stimulated in the workshop itself, when lecturers were asked to systematically think about their teaching and share their experiences in discussion with colleagues and trainers. Second, reflexive practices such as focused self-observation and the use of a lecture diary were introduced as practices for the individual evaluation of their performance and further development of their teaching practices.

Considering the important role that language plays when lectures are given through a foreign language, the superordinate aim of these instruments for reflection is to enhance lecturers' language awareness (Pinho et al. 2011; Roberts

et al. 2001). By language awareness we mean lecturers' knowledge about what the foreign language is 'doing' in the classroom, and about the influence the new medium of communication has on their routine practices. Similar to Roberts et al.'s "language learners as ethnographers" approach (Roberts et al. 2001), lecturers in EMI could also profit from acting as ethnographers. By analysing their own performance, they come to understand the meanings of interactions and how specific ways of speaking are linked to them. As they are themselves involved in these interactions, they at the same time participate, challenge and analyse these interactions (Roberts et al. 2001: 10). This concept of language awareness, moreover, recognises the different roles EMI lecturers play: they are speakers, learners and lecturers all at the same time (Pinho et al. 2011: 43).

In the workshops, an attempt was made to introduce reflexivity in a way that lecturers come to understand it as a useful process with a favourable effect on their teaching practices. Providing exercises, input, and concrete analytical tools to initiate the reflective process was considered important for this purpose.

### 3.4.1 Coaching reflexivity

Integrating reflexivity exercises in teacher training is a very common approach in recent literature on reflective teaching and teacher training (Brandt 2008; Hillier 2002; Gün 2011; Stanley 2012; Wallace 1996). It is widely accepted that lecturers should receive training in reflexive practices where they acquire skills to become "critically reflective teachers" (Brookfield 1995). It is argued that teacher trainers cannot just tell teachers to reflect and expect that this will automatically lead to a change in their lecturing practices (Russel 2005: 203). On the contrary, "[...] 'reflection' can become more effective through systematic training and practice. When reflection is only preached, it is more likely that it will not be embraced and subsequently pursued by the participants" (Gün 2011: 126). Hence, according to Hillier's understanding, the ability to reflect on your own professional practices must be seen as a "journey" for which you "have to be kitted up" (2002: 25).

On this "journey", it is considered important that lecturers start to elaborate a language that helps them to describe reflection and also to think about how to improve lecturing (McAlpine & Weston 2000: 364). This type of language, elaborated by McAlpine & Weston, is what from a perspective of discourse analysis would be called an "interpretative repertoire" (Wetherell & Potter 1988). Interpretative repertoires are "[...] building blocks speakers use for constructing versions of actions, cognitive processes, and other phenomena. Any particular repertoire is constituted out of a restricted range of terms used in a specific stylistic and grammatical fashion" (Wetherell & Potter 1988: 172). The concept of the interpretative repertoire thus takes into account the fact that people use language in a variety of ways, creating their own interpretations and visions of the social world. Consequently, any utterance is understood as an act with a meaning that is "not a straightforward matter of external reference but depends

on the local and broader discursive systems in which the utterance is embedded” (Wetherell & Potter 1988: 169). Accordingly, when lecturers think or speak about their experiences in EMI, they will be using interpretative repertoires that help them to categorise and analyse their experiences. These repertoires contain the broader discourses in which the reflection about lecturing through English is embedded and they uncover lecturers’ perceptions and attitudes towards EMI. With this idea of the interpretative repertoire in mind, the workshops with EMI lecturers were not only revealing for the lecturers’ professional development, but also provided insight for the trainers into prevalent discourses among lecturers who were speaking about their experiences, concerns and expectations when they teach through English (see Studer, this publication). These insights are helpful for the planning of further teacher training sessions and for individual coaching sessions with lecturers.

### 3.4.2 The training sessions with EMI lecturers: procedure and insights

As mentioned initially, the first method we used to raise the awareness of reflexivity in the teacher training workshops was based on reflexive exercises. There are many different ways to start the process of reflection. It can be initiated individually or in group-work; it can be stimulated by video-recorded observation (Gün 2011) or through reflective conversations with colleagues and feedback (Brandt 2008). Firstly, we stimulated reflection by asking the participants open questions in the workshops. The following two questions were posed at the beginning of the workshop: ‘What do you consider a good lecture?’ and ‘In what ways does EMI disturb the positive course of your lectures?’ The participants had time to think about these questions and after a few minutes, the results were written down and discussed in the plenum.

#### **What do you consider a good lecture?**

According to workshop participants a good lecture should

- include humour
- provoke interaction among students and between students and teacher
- have a good structure; a plan that works out in the end
- create enthusiasm for the subject among students
- create an ambiance where participants feel free to interact
- be characterised by smooth communication; eloquence of the lecturer; explaining things well; using visual support like graphics, pictures; also functioning through paraverbal and nonverbal communication.

#### **In what ways does EMI disturb the positive course of your lecture?**

Some of the results of the second question are the following:

- the use of humour is difficult/problematic when teaching through English
- little interaction; students may not ask questions

- time management is difficult; feeling of losing time; fear of not reaching learning targets; fear that lectures lose content
- the lecturer is less spontaneous; follows the script more tightly
- the lecturer doesn't feel comfortable when teaching through English
- lecturers fear that they lose their authenticity.

Looking at these answers we can see clearly that some of the conditions the lecturers set for a good lecture are reappearing in the answers to the second question. Consequently, with these initial questions, lecturers have already localised some domains in which further reflection could be effective in the development of EMI lecturing practices. Three of the domains that lecturers are concerned with and in which they recognised difficulties are humour, interaction and time management.

- 1) Humour is considered important but also difficult in EMI. How can lecturers deal with humour when they teach through a foreign language?
- 2) Interaction is considered important but can be disrupted through the new language. How can lecturers elicit interaction? Elicit questions?
  - a. Options like allowing students to ask questions in German were openly discussed.
- 3) Time management and structure. Lecturers are aware that they need to allot more time to the structuring and organisation of lectures. How can lecturers ensure that they reach the learning targets?
  - a. The linking of new content to content the students already know from previous semesters/lectures was considered helpful. The lecturers became aware that the lectures in English mean a double effort for students.

Secondly, the workshop dealt with methods lecturers could learn to self-evaluate their lectures during the course of the semester. Before presenting them with concrete analytical tools for self-evaluation, a first reflective exercise, based on a question about personal experiences, was conducted: 'What comes to your mind if you think about your last lecture?' As in the case of the first two questions, the answers were written down and discussed in the plenum.

### **What comes to your mind if you think about your last lecture?**

- the students were not focussed, they were distracted from the topic
- a busy, noisy ambience/environment in the classroom
- The confrontation with unexpected reactions of students due to which the lecturer had to improvise
- a junior lecturer's feeling of insecurity in a new role of authority as evaluator; the challenge of giving feedback to students' work
- stress

The first thing that attracts attention is the fact that the answers bear upon experiences the lecturers consider negative or problematic, even though they

were not asked to think about something negative. This spontaneous, unplanned and unfocused reflection is problem-oriented. The aim of reflexivity, nevertheless, would be to come up also with experiences or situations they consider positive in order to evaluate the lessons in a more encompassing way. We argue that this can be reached when reflexivity is conducted continuously and with a systematised procedure.

As mentioned above, the aim of the workshop was to initiate the process of knowledge development about teaching. Following McAlpine & Weston (2000), this is reached through reflection on lived experience. Once this process was initiated and explained through the above-mentioned reflective exercises in the workshop, the lecturers were asked to continue this process individually during the course of the semester. In order to support them in this task, two tools for reflection were introduced: self-observation and a lecture diary.

There are many different ways to conceptualise self-observation and self-evaluation in lectures. In the workshops with EMI lecturers, a professional method of observation was proposed (Brosziewski & Mäder 2007: 33–35; Altrichter & Posch 2007: 128). This type of self-observation is characterised through its goal-orientation, systematisation and processuality (Ziebell 2002). Goal-orientation in the case of EMI lectures refers to the understanding of the new situation and the following evaluation and development of personal practices. For systematisation, mainly two types of observation are differentiated. We can either observe globally and undirected or in a prepared and focused way (Ziebell 2002). The latter was further discussed in the workshops. Prepared and focused observation means that the observer is prepared for the lecture and knows the content and the setting of the class. Moreover, the attention during observation is turned to specific, predetermined aspects of the lecture. The findings of observation should be registered, for example, in a lecture diary. Processuality means that the observation is a process that should be repeated constantly and that should run over a longer period of time (e.g. a semester).

In order to facilitate the self-observation process, lecturers were given a practical tool. We elaborated an analytical grid that should help the lecturers to identify their personal fields of action (see appendix). With reference to Hornung's model of reflective teaching and self-observation, the grid focused on different aspects of communicative behaviour in the classroom. In particular, the grid contained four functions of interactive communication that were adjusted to the context of bilingual education. Three factors are based on the communication functions formulated by Karl Bühler (in Auer 1999). These are the expressive, the referential and the conative functions. We added a fourth parameter, attitudes, because our research has shown that attitudes and role conceptions are important in EMI. While reflecting on their attitudes towards EMI and internationalisation, lecturers should become aware of their positions towards the EMI project as a whole and think about the influence these positions might have on the way they communicate with students. Moreover, input for further reflection in the form of key questions was given for each of the four functions. There were key questions

related to the organisation of the learning process, the degree of interaction in the class, the language use, turns of talk, spontaneity of lecturers, the way they cope with bilingualism, and the cognitive and emotive reactions from students.

This analytical grid is not only an instrument for focused self-observation but also a tool for the elaboration of a specific interpretative repertoire for self-evaluation of lectures. Concepts like teacher talk, native-speaker like, bilingualism, word lists, scientific language vs. everyday speech, standard language, interlingua, interference, and others, are part of the grid. Furthermore, as the grid is adjusted to EMI, many language and communication issues are integrated. We argue that lecturers can develop a greater language awareness while observing these issues and integrating these concepts. The language awareness, as was already mentioned, does not focus on the grammaticality of language use, but primarily on the language as social practice and aims at a functioning communication in the classroom.

In order to make the observation results fruitful for one's teaching development, they should be recorded. The method that we offered for this purpose was a lecture diary. The aims of such a diary are to generate new perspectives on individual practices, to recognise routinised practices and to elaborate a space that allows the implementation of new strategies. Writing a diary, or reflecting by writing, is a common method in the research tradition but is also often applied in teacher further education and evaluation (Altrichter & Posch 2007: 30–51). Lecturers are asked to keep a diary where they can write down their experiences, emotions, reactions, interpretations and so forth. Some input for this reflective instrument was given at the workshop. It was explained that it is considered important that entries be made regularly, even if they are very short, and that after a small number of entries, progress reports should be made (Altrichter & Posch 2007: 36). These progress reports would help lecturers to identify domains for further reflection and adjustments of their practices. To this aim, we provided a diary template where lecturers could write their notes in a structured form (see appendix).

### 3.5 Conclusion

This article has dealt with self-observation and reflexivity in EMI programmes. Following an ethnographic approach, a specific understanding of reflexivity has been proposed, one that goes beyond the context of the classroom and that integrates and questions institutional, social and historical issues. This encompassing concept of reflexivity, reached through ethnographic self-observation, takes into account that the introduction of EMI is a controversial issue whose successful implementation depends on various factors. Defining the EMI classroom situation as 'anthropologically strange' allows lecturers to identify and to understand some of these factors and their influence on their teaching practice. The paper proposed, moreover, how reflexivity can be stimulated in EMI

teacher training and how the process of knowledge development about teaching can be initiated. All in all, the aims of reflective practices in EMI didactics are threefold: First, to facilitate lecturers' professional development through guided reflexivity and self-observation. Second, to acquire relevant findings for the research, leading into the further development of a specific EMI didactic framework. And third, in recognition of the important role the foreign language plays in classroom interaction, reflexivity should ensure the development of a greater language awareness, a language awareness as guarantor for successful communication, a natural learning ambience, and, above all, a basis that ensures knowledge transfer in higher education.

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## Appendix

### Classroom diary template

Classroom diary of:		
Course:		
Date of event:	No. of students:	Comments
Datum Eintrag:		Analysis
Topic / subject:		

<b>Progress report</b>
Period
Problems/questions
Aims
Further steps

## Self-evaluation guidelines

Zürcher Hochschule  
für Angewandte Wissenschaften  

**Angewandte Linguistik**  
LCC  
Language  
Competence Centre

**Reflexive Didaktik**  
**Raster für die Selbstbeurteilung des EMI- Fachunterrichts**

**1. Darstellung**

*Darstellung* steht für den gesamten Stoff sowie für die Sprache, mit welcher der Stoff von der Lehrperson (oder den Lernenden) zum Unterrichtsgegenstand gemacht wird. Einige Fragen, die anhand des untenstehenden Rasters beantwortet werden können sind:

- Ist angesichts der Fremdsprache im Unterricht die Stoffauswahl angemessen?
- Muss die Semesterplanung aufgrund der Sprachensituation angepasst werden?
- Werden durch die Lernprozesse die Schreib- und Sprechfertigkeiten der Studierenden gefördert?
- Welche Form hat mein Unterricht? Sollte er interaktiver sein?
- Wie spreche ich wenn ich Stoff weitergebe auf Englisch? Benutze ich Hilfsmittel zur Unterstützung?

<b>Stoffauswahl/ Einteilung</b>	Stoffauswahl
	Stoffaufteilung
	Semesterplanung
	Untergliederung in Unterrichtseinheiten
<b>Organisation von Lernprozessen</b>	Lesen und Schreiben anregen
	Hören und Sprechen anregen
	Lehrvortrag (Vorlesung)
	Interaktiver Unterricht
	Einzelarbeit
	Gruppenarbeit weitere Vermittlungsmethoden
<b>Sprachgebrauch bei der Darstellung der Lehrgegenstände</b>	Einsprachigkeit
	Übersetzen
	Sprache im Zusammenhang
	Wortlisten
	Texte
	Charts und Bilder
	Terminologie
	Alltägliche Wissenschaftssprache
	Korrektheit
	Kommunikativität
	Standardsprachgebrauch
Varietäten	
Herkunftskulturorientierung	
Zielkulturorientierung	
<b>Lernzielkontrolle</b>	Portfolio
	Lernjournale
<b>Gestaltung von Prüfungen</b>	

## 2. Ausdruck

Unter *Ausdruck* soll die einen Unterrichtsgegenstand darstellende Persönlichkeit, deren Stoff- und Sprachbeherrschung, Prosodie und Akzent, sowie ihren Umgang mit dem Unterrichtsstoff und der Unterrichtssprache reflektiert werden. Dabei sollen sowohl verbale als auch nonverbale Mitteilungen beachtet werden. Für diese didaktische Reflexion des Kommunikationsverhaltens können wir uns folgende Fragen stellen:

- Wie ist meine Aussprache im Englisch? Spreche ich mit starkem Akzent und welche Reaktionen kann dieser beim Gegenüber auslösen?
- Wer spricht im Unterricht wieviel? Inwiefern beteiligen sich die Studierenden an der Wissensvermittlung?
- Wie gehe ich mit Formulierungen um, die von der Norm abweichen?
- Kann ich spontan reagieren, bin ich locker im Umgang mit der Bilingualität?
- Was ist mir wichtiger, Fachwissen oder Sprachnorm?

<b>Aussprache und Prosodie</b>	<i>Native-speaker like</i>
	Mit Akzent
	Natürliches Sprechen
	Teacher's talk
	Zusammenhängend
	Stichwortartig
<b>Quantität der Redeanteile</b>	Dominant
	Zurückhaltend
	Lehrpersonenzentriert
	Materialergänzt (DVD, Internet, etc.)
<b>Umgang mit der Normativität der Sprache</b>	Spontaneität vs. Geplantheit
	Sicherheit vs. Unsicherheit
	Lockerheit im Umgang mit Normverstößen
	Vermeiden nicht beherrschter Formulierungen
<b>Umgang mit der Bilingualität</b>	Mischsprache (Interlingua)
	Strikte Sprachentrennung
	Interferenzen (Übertragungen aus der Muttersprache in die Fremdsprache)
	Explizite Unterscheidung
	Sprachkreationen
	Gelernte <i>chunks</i> (übliche Wortkombinationen)
<b>Umgang mit der Fachgebundenheit des Fremdsprachgebrauchs</b>	Vorrangstellung des Fachwissens
	Übergewicht der Sprachnorm
	Terminologie
	Textualität
	Fachsprachliche Präzision
	Umschreibung
	Idiomatizität (=die Bedeutung des sprachl. Ausdruckes ist nicht durch seine Einzelteile erschliessbar)
Näher an der Erstsprache der Lernenden orientierte und folglich leichter verständliche Formulierungen	

### 3. Appell

*Appell* bezeichnet die Beziehung und die Wirkung, die das Zeichen auf den Empfänger ausübt. Didaktische Reflexion bezüglich des Appellcharakters der Sprache kann auf verschiedene Fragen eine Antwort bieten:

- Wie nehmen die Studierenden den Stoff auf? Können sie sich Wissen produktiv aneignen?
- Welche Signale (verbal, nonverbal) kommen von den Lernenden?
- Kann ich das Interesse für das Fach wecken?
- Nehmen die Studierenden am kommunikativen Handeln teil, indem sie Eigeninitiative zeigen?

<b>Verständnis der Unterrichtsinhalte</b>	Repetition
	Produktive Aneignung
	Verbale, paraverbale und nonverbale Signale der Lernenden
	Funktion von Nebenkommunikationen
<b>kognitive und emotive Reaktionen</b>	Aufmerksamkeit
	Ablenkbarkeit/Aufmerksamkeitsverweigerung
	fachliches Interesse vs. Desinteresse
	Motivation vs. Demotivation
	Solidarität
	Wettbewerb
<b>Teilhabe am kommunikativen Handeln</b>	Aktivität vs. Passivität
	Eigeninitiative
	Aufgabenerfüllung
	Mut zum sprachlichen Handeln
	Sprechhemmung

### 4. Einstellungen

*Einstellungen* umschreibt die Wertevorstellungen, Positionen und Einstellungen der Dozierenden wie auch der Studierenden. Die *Einstellungen* sind selten direkt im Unterricht beobachtbar, können aber implizit im Verhalten wie auch in den Sprechhandlungen der Dozierenden bzw. der Studierenden verankert sein. Für die didaktische Reflexionen bezügl. der Einstellungen zur EMI-Unterrichtssituation sind folgende Fragen von Bedeutung:

- In welcher Rolle verstehe ich mich als Dozierender? Welche Rolle spreche ich den Studierenden zu?
- Was für eine Einstellung habe ich zum EMI-Unterricht?
- Akzeptieren die Studierenden meinen Unterricht und meinen Unterrichtsstil? Was fördert bzw. behindert diese Akzeptanz?

<b>Rollenverständnis</b>	Autorität
	Coach
	Deklarative Wissensvermittlung
	Gemeinsame Produktion von Wissen
<b>Einstellungen zu EMI</b>	Skepsis gegenüber EMI-Unterricht
	Offenheit, Neugierde gegenüber EMI-Unterricht
	Kenntnisstand der Studierenden über die Zielsetzungen des EMI-Programms
	positive vs. negative Einstellung gegenüber der Internationalisierung an Hochschulen
<b>Akzeptanz</b>	Motivation
	Sympathie
	Gender
	Alter
	Unterrichtsstil
	Sprache und Herkunft

## 4 Negotiating change in teaching practices: teacher development for English-medium instruction / By Paul Kelly

### 4.1 Introduction

Much has been written about the didactic aspects of CLIL (Content and language integrated learning) at secondary level but an appropriate didactic approach to English-medium instruction (EMI) in tertiary education has only recently started to receive more attention. A change to EMI presents significant challenges to subject teachers, challenges that should not be underestimated if the change is not to result in teacher/student dissatisfaction and a reduction in quality. Doiz, Lasagabaster & Sierra (2013: 216) refer to studies in Hong Kong which show 'how inefficient EMI can become if the appropriate conditions are not met'. This paper focuses on attitudes teachers often have when lecturing through English, expectations they may have of what this might mean for their teaching, and a programme that was put in place to support them in adapting to this new didactic situation. It explains the background to the teacher development programme adopted as part of the project to accompany the introduction of EMI at a major Swiss university of applied sciences, and the ongoing language/didactic support mechanisms that also form part of that project.

### 4.2 Resistance to EMI

German is the first language of the vast majority of those lecturers who are participating in this project. Resistance to EMI amongst the German-speaking scientific community is understandable when one considers the role that German used to play in science. Ulrich Ammon has written about the dominant position of German (above English and French) as the language of international science up to the beginning of the 20th century (see, for example, Ammon 1998). That position has now been usurped by English, which is increasingly the language of tertiary education in Europe (see Coleman 2006).

In addition to this cultural/psychological barrier, there is a fear amongst lecturers faced with the EMI situation that the content of courses will suffer if they are not offered in the students' mother tongue (see, for example, Jochems 1991: 315 with reference to the didactic quality of engineering). Others question how much is gained both in terms of language and content knowledge development (see Shohamy 2013). One reason for this reduction in quality is seen as the slower rate of speech and the resulting inability to cover the same amount of content: "Speaking rate was found to be 23 % slower when using English. The slower rate of speech was found to significantly reduce the information content of the presentations when speaking time was held constant" (Hincks 2010: 1; see also Kelly & Studer 2010). In addition, the German rectors' conference in 2011, when

summarising language policy at German universities, identified a number of potential problems of English dominance, the most relevant to this paper being:

- insufficient language skills of lecturers and students
- lack of adequate staff support

More locally, in a survey of attitudes towards EMI amongst programme directors at a major Swiss university of applied sciences in 2011, Studer (2013) recorded the following negative views:

- the regional tradition of the school
- loss of academic culture
- loss of field-specific competence
- lack of resources
- lack of language skills amongst lecturers and students.

Any attempt to introduce EMI must take into account that some or all of these problems may well be present in the minds of those being asked to implement this policy in the classroom or lecture theatre (see Suter Reich & Müller, this publication, for a list of lecturer worries in this project).

### 4.3 Recognition of difficulties

There is evidence that subject lecturers tend to underestimate the potential difficulties of a switch to English (see Klaassen 2001). They often see it as simply a matter of translating the slides they have previously used, and they see the role of the language teacher as that of translator/proofreader. Klaassen & de Graaf (2000) have identified the following reasons as to why subject lecturers may not wish to do more than this:

- lack of time
- lecturers felt they were relatively able to cope with English-medium instruction
- lecturers felt their English was good enough
- lecturers felt they specifically needed language training and most of them felt that once their English language skills were trained the didactical skills would follow automatically
- lecturers felt there was no immediate necessity for training.

As can be seen, concerns tend to focus on linguistic issues rather than didactic skills and it would be wrong, therefore, to completely neglect the need for linguistic help when considering aid to teachers involved in EMI.

However, there is also a strong argument that didactic skills are at least as important in overcoming communication problems caused by a switch to EMI.

For example, Klaassen (2001) maintained that effective lecturing behaviour was more important a criterion of successful lecturing than the language in which the lecture was delivered. Ball & Lindsay (2013: 51) cite student evaluations of their teachers at the University of the Basque Country and their recognition that, despite some linguistic issues, “it is the methodological abilities (or otherwise) of the teachers that were rated as far more important by the students in the facilitation of their learning”. Not every native English speaker would make a good lecturer in English as lecturing requires a very specific set of skills. This set of skills is expanded when the language of instruction is not the first language of either the lecturer or the students. Good pedagogy is good pedagogy regardless of the language of delivery but there must be even more emphasis on the quality of the pedagogy in an EMI situation, given that it is highly likely that “it takes longer for students to process a given piece of information presented in L2 than in L1”. (Thøgersen & Airey 2011: 217). Thus, content teachers “are in fact involved in the development of students’ language and discourse proficiency when they are using their L1. Good pedagogy highlights register and terminology, and is sensitive to students’ varied understanding of material even in L1, but this aspect of education becomes more prominent when they are using their L2” (Shaw et al. 2008: 280). In short, EMI requires its own didactic basis. Yet, despite the tripling in the number of course programmes being offered in English in European universities between 2002 and 2007 (Wächter & Maiworm 2008), little has been done systematically to develop a blueprint for EMI didactics (See Doiz, Lasagabaster & Sierra 2013, for examples of different approaches).

#### 4.4 Teacher development programme: form

Prior to the introduction of the EMI programme in question, some of the lecturers spent time in English-speaking countries with the explicit aim of improving their general English. However, one of the main aims of the introductory EMI awareness-raising session described below was to make clear to lecturers that EMI requires more than just an improvement in general language skills; it is necessary to think also about methodological changes that may be necessitated by the disruption to the natural routine situation. Once a decision has been taken to introduce EMI in a study programme, the question arises as to how best to do this. As with any development programme, two things needed to be considered by those preparing such a programme: the form that it should take and the focus of its content. In this section, I will describe the form of the programme and the reasons for choosing such a form. We decided to begin with a workshop format for several reasons:

- We wanted to make initial contact with all of the lecturers together in order to provide them with some information and ideas underlying the theory and practice of EMI as well as an overview of the project and their role in it.
- We wanted the lecturers to meet each other in order to provide a sense of community amongst those on the project and to enhance professional



motivation. Five of the lecturers had some experience of both EMI and the tools of the project from the pilot programme that had run in the Spring Semester of 2012. The workshop format also allowed us to invite them to share their experiences with the other lecturers. This format has been shown to be a useful way to influence teacher development (see Lenzing 1996).

- Teachers were also invited to reflect on their teaching during the coming semester in preparation for future discussions about the efficacy of their approach and successes and difficulties they experienced. The workshop format allowed us to explain the background and reasons for this to everybody at the same time. For details of this reflective approach, see Suter Reich & Müller in this publication.
- Prior to the workshop, a course was set up on an electronic platform to which all lecturers had access with the slides from the workshop as well as optional literature on the theme of EMI and details and templates concerning the diary they were asked to keep.

However, it was also clear that teachers would have their own individual needs and desires concerning the help they would want from us. Thus, after the initial workshop, we invited each lecturer to an individual meeting with a member of the project team. In this way, we could establish more personal contact and tailor the form of help to the needs of the individual lecturer. The above-mentioned National Association Report concludes that such ‘consultation’ results in improved teaching and higher levels of student satisfaction with teachers because it offers “face-to-face interaction and individualized attention” (ibid.) Topics for these individual meetings in our project included:

- linguistic support (especially the language on slides and the language of exams), reading material in English
- help with course delivery (e.g. practice before the beginning of the course or possibilities for team-teaching)
- appropriate forms of assessment e.g. Where would the use of English not interfere with the students’ ability to display their knowledge and understanding? Where would the use of German disturb because it would require different terminology to that used in the lectures?

There were also discussions of the extent to which students’ output (especially written output) could reasonably be expected to be in English, particularly when it was an element of assessment. For example, it was decided that writing a 15–page academic paper in English as part of the assessment for one course was beyond the abilities of the students, who, according to one lecturer, had enough difficulties with this genre in their mother tongue.

Lecturers were also given the opportunity to raise individual issues through the electronic platform.

## 4.5 Teacher development programme: content

Given the introductory nature of the EMI awareness-raising session and the fact that this was the first exposure of most of the lecturers to the people on the project team as well as the details of the project, it was particularly important to make as good an impression as possible and create a positive attitude towards EMI (and the project) in the four hours that we had. We chose not to extend this time as we did not want to over-emphasize the changes that would be necessary in the EMI lectures and also because much of the detailed work would be done in the subsequent individual meetings. We also made a conscious decision to include a mix of theory and practice as we were aware that we were dealing with professionals who were used to a scientific approach within their own field of expertise but who were presumably concerned with the practical implications of EMI for them, particularly given the time-pressure they usually face.

The session began with some theoretical background to EMI with a focus on its implementation (or attitudes towards its implementation) in Europe, Switzerland and other departments of the institution. The overall cyclical nature of the project was also presented (see Fig. 1).

As mentioned earlier, an important goal of the workshop was to make clear the focus on communicative and didactic competences rather than on language competences and a diagram was designed (see Fig. 2) to raise awareness of this focus when answering the question ‘What is English-Medium Instruction?’



Fig. 1: Teacher development programme cycle

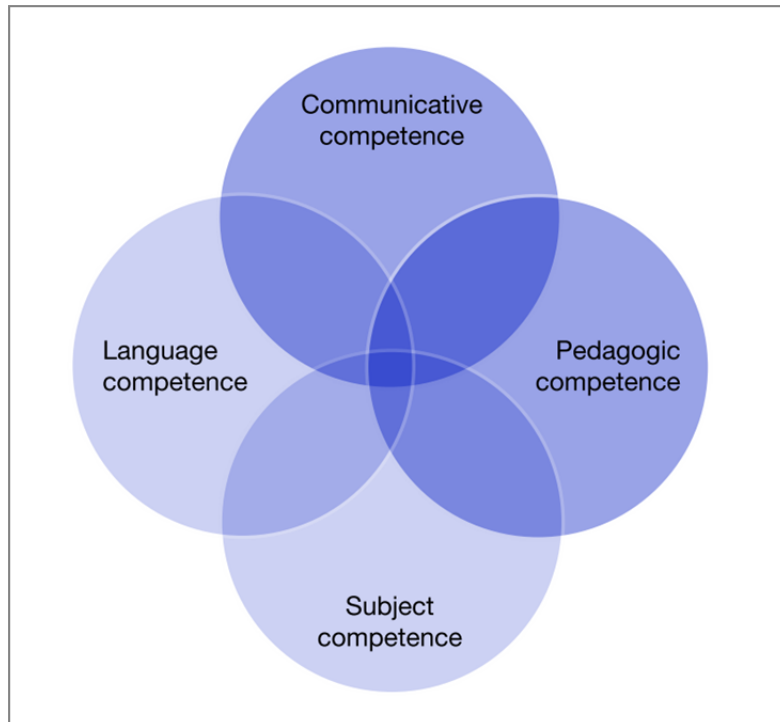


Fig. 2: English-Medium Instruction competences

The intention was to make visually clear the relative importance of the different competences. Emphasis was also laid on the fact that language competence is only one factor that influences perceptions of lecturing quality in EMI, others being attitude towards the language used, cultural proximity to the students, style and experience. In order to raise lecturers' awareness of the consequences of a change in the language of interaction, they were asked to reflect on the question: 'What changes might I have to make to my course to accommodate the fact that it is being given in English?' We then broke these changes down into easily comprehensible categories (given that we were dealing with subject experts from fields other than linguistics), and the project team focused on the notion of communicative competence and its sub-categories of linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competences (see Canale & Swain 1980). This linguistic meta-language was used sparingly in the workshop, instead inviting lecturers to think about the changed situation in terms of language, pedagogy, lecture artefacts and behaviour (see Miller 2007), terminology with which they would be more familiar. This was used as a framework within which specific aspects of EMI could be dealt with and these aspects are discussed below, using Canale & Swain's (1980) terminology.

#### 4.5.1 Linguistic competence

As we have seen, language is the area that most lecturers focus on when considering a switch to EMI. It is also an element that they consider to be important for a good lecture in any language (in the workshop, they used terms

like ‘smooth communication’, ‘eloquence’ and ‘explain things well’). It is clear that the language of an EMI lecturer cannot be below a certain level though the definition of that level is somewhat more problematic. The C1 level of the European Framework of Reference for Languages is often mentioned as the threshold below which a lecturer’s language might be deemed unsatisfactory and it seems reasonable to assume that a lecturer whose English is not at this level will struggle to convey appropriately the “cognitive complexity involved in much HE education” (Marsh & Laitinen 2005). The key can-do descriptors related to spoken production at C1 level are:

*‘Can give a clear, well-structured presentation of a complex subject, expanding and supporting points of view at some length with subsidiary points, reasons and relevant examples.’*

*‘Can handle interjections well, responding spontaneously and almost effortlessly.’*

This suggests two different skills on the part of the teacher, one relating to the planning of language use and the other relating to the ability to respond to student questions or comments. The former can be more easily trained in that there is time to seek outside help (e.g. from a language teacher) with the structure of the lecture if necessary (one of the aims of the workshop was to show that this was likely to be necessary). It does raise the question of what a good structure actually is and the extent to which it allows space for, or even encourages, interaction with the students. Such interaction leads to the need for the second can-do statement above, which is important in terms of face and where teachers may feel that their linguistic resources are under pressure (see Section 1 for description of Peter’s responses to student input).

In addition to this general C1 level of English, it is reasonable to assume that the lecturing situation is a very specific one (see below for discussion of lecture as a genre) which places stress on particular aspects of linguistic competence such as the following:

*Pronunciation of the correct field-specific vocabulary.* This vocabulary is usually familiar to the lecturers from their studies and reading though the active use of it may not have been much practised. This lack of active use may lead to problems of pronunciation and the lecturers need to be aware of the importance of this aspect and how to check it with others or in online dictionaries (see comments on Peter’s pronunciation in Studer, this publication).

*Knowledge and use of the Academic Word list* (Coxhead 2000). This is a list of the most common 570 word families (outside the top 2000 words in English) that are not field-specific but are likely to occur in the presentation of any subject at tertiary level.

*Confidence building.* In line with research on pronunciation which stresses the notion of ‘comfortable intelligibility’ (see, for example, Abercrombie 1991), we

believe it is important for lecturers to understand that they are not expected to speak like a native English speaker. They should not feel any pressure to be 'perfect' in their language use. This is, of course, true for every non-native English speaker but is particularly so for one who is standing in front of a (large) group of students and expected to convey a considerable amount of conceptually complex knowledge to students whose English may conceivably be better than theirs. We can reasonably assume that it was this desire for confidence that lay behind the decision of some lecturers to spend time in English-speaking countries prior to starting in the EMI programme. A recognition of the existence, and acceptability, of English as a Lingua Franca and/or the goal of comfortable intelligibility are useful in reducing this expectation/fear of perfection that comes when a non-native English speaker makes reference to a native English speaker model, which is consistently overstated at the expense of communicative efficiency in an ELF model (see, for example, Cogo & Dewey 2006).

In addition to the teachers' being aware of their own language use, it is essential that they recognise and keep in mind that English is not the first language of the students who are listening to them. This has consequences that are dealt with later in this paper.

#### 4.5.2 Discourse competence

A lecture is a specific genre and can be analysed as such (see, for example, Thompson 1994). A lecture's structure can be highlighted through the use of specific phrases for introducing different phases (see below) of this genre. There is evidence (see Chaudron & Richards 1986; Flowerdew & Tauroza 1995; Belles-Fortuno 2006) that suggests that the use of such discourse markers can make a difference to student comprehension in L2 lectures.

Lynne Young (1990) has taken a systemic-functional approach and divided lectures into phases (discourse structuring, content, evaluation, conclusion, interaction), identifying the language that typifies each phase. These phases are interwoven throughout a lecture, e.g. there is not just one conclusion phase but several during the course of one lecture. It is reasonable to assume that, given the increased importance of a clear structure in L2 lectures (see Olsen & Huckin 1990; Allison & Tauroza 1995), there will be a need for greater explicitness in the identification of these phases so that students are very clear about what the function of any given part of a lecture is e.g. they need to recognise that 'Let's now turn to ...' is an indicator of a new topic and not a continuation of what was previously being discussed). Kelly (2010), in his analysis of the language of an applied sciences lecturer, identifies differences in the discourse structuring phase in German and English lectures with more space being given to this phase in English and more use of 'we' to realise this phase, possibly due to a desire to establish a new community of practice in the face of the disruption caused by the switch to English. Furthermore, the conclusion phase is more extensive in English

and more explicitly realised with prominent use of 'So, ...' to clarify the function of what is about to be said. There is also much great use of rhetorical questions in English largely as a device for structuring the discourse and preparing the students for what comes next, i.e. the answer to the question. In the workshop, attention was drawn to the importance of such discourse structuring and the strategic use of a variety of questions. Such clear, overt discourse structuring will help the students in terms of comprehension and note-taking.

### 4.5.3 Strategic competence

There is an argument that the international language of lectures is not any specific spoken language but the physical aspects of the classroom and how the lecturer makes use of them to facilitate understanding. Rowley-Jolivet (2002) refers to the visual mode of discourse as a less recognised, but extremely important, international language of science. Given the difficulties that may be associated with the production and reception of the L2 in an EMI situation, the need for the appropriate use of handouts, slides, black- or whiteboards and demonstrations becomes even greater. Such artefacts must not only be used but students' attention must be clearly drawn to them through the appropriate use of exophoric references e.g. 'If you look here at the top right of this diagram, you will see ...' In addition, instead of just translating the slides from the L1 into English, the lecturer should consider the quantity of language on the slides, the highlighting of key aspects, the use of visuals to replace words, the availability of the slides before and/or after the lecture, the amount of time given to students to read the slides without having to simultaneously listen to the lecturer etc. As can be seen, the number of considerations goes well beyond the purely linguistic.

Another aspect of strategic competence is the lecturer's approach to code-switching. On the negative side, it may represent loss of face if it is used as an emergency measure because the English term is unknown. On the positive side, it may represent an element in the establishment of a community of practice, i.e. as an expression of solidarity with the listeners (see Crystal 1987). If used carefully and with the intention of emphasising particularly important points, it may also act as a kind of 'comfort blanket' for students. Finally, in terms of the interaction with the audience which is dealt with below, it may help to break down barriers with the students and raise the sense of co-exploration mentioned in Section 1.

### 4.5.4 Socio-linguistic competence

This heading covers a number of aspects that again include, but go beyond, the purely linguistic. The behaviour of the lecturer can be linked to a particular style. Many of the worries raised by lecturers in the workshop lay in this area, e.g. the

problematic use of humour, little interaction with students, loss of spontaneity and authenticity (see Suter Reich & Müller, this publication). Goffman (1981) distinguishes between three types of lectures: memorisation, aloud reading and fresh talk, the three being distinguished by the level of spontaneity on the part of the lecturer. Flowerdew identifies spontaneity as one of two “key parameters in characterising lecture styles” (1994: 15), the other being the amount of interaction with the audience. Dudley-Evans & Johns (1981) also distinguish between three styles: the reading style, the conversational style (informal, may or may not use notes) and the rhetorical style (more of a performance). One fear that lecturers have is that the switch to EMI will lead to an inability to lecture in the style to which they are accustomed – they fear the loss of spontaneity in their teaching (see Hincks 2010). This appears to be so in Peter’s case dealt with in Studer (this publication) where his humour and anecdotal style, much appreciated by students in his/their L1, cannot be achieved so easily in the EMI situation, leading to some frustration on his and the students’ part. This is an example of a case where a lecturer’s style in his/her L1 will need to be adapted in an EMI situation or will require particularly focused training in order to maintain the alignment between language and style. Other elements of behaviour that lecturers may need to (re)consider include the use of gestures, eye contact (the lack of which was identified by students in the student focus group as a negative characteristic of a monologic teacher) and the position in the classroom. In addition, the lecturers should be aware of potential changes in student behaviour with their being a possible reluctance to speak up in class (see Airey & Linder 2006, on the reluctance of students to ask and answer questions in the EMI situation).

As stated earlier, these headings are by no means mutually exclusive. To take one example that our preliminary research has identified, students responded positively to a lecturer who created a sense of shared experience with the students. This can be viewed as an aspect of the lecturer’s sociolinguistic competence that may be more important in an L2 than an L1 situation. If it is deemed desirable by a lecturer, it can then be examined linguistically to see how to achieve this (e.g. use of first person plural pronouns) and, from a discourse perspective, the realisation of phases through the use of questions and/or the invitation to ask questions could be examined.

## 4.6 Applying the principles of English-language teacher-training

Canale & Swain’s (1980) notion of communicative competence has been very influential in foreign language teaching and underlies the communicative approach that has characterised much English language teaching for the last forty years. Most English-language teacher-training nowadays is based on such a communicative approach with an emphasis on interaction and the creation of a comprehensible, language-rich environment in the classroom. One of the main points that distinguishes CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) at

secondary school level from EMI at tertiary level is the degree to which language development is one of the explicit aims of the programme. Ljosland (2011), using the term TTFL (Teaching through a foreign language) to refer to what we are calling EMI, states that 'in CLIL, language learning is part of the proposed learning outcomes, while in TTFL the language is paid no particular attention apart from being used as a tool'. In the workshop, we stated explicitly that it was not our intention to turn the participants into language teachers. Subject lecturers have enough worries about conveying the content of their topic and the possible obstacles EMI may put in the way of this without wanting to be concerned about the students' English development. Thus, it is not realistic to expect them to be language teachers, even if they were qualified or willing to take on this task. However, it is important that they realise that their normal L1 lectures also have a linguistic focus, namely to help students to participate in the activities of a specific disciplinary culture or a community of practice (Bhatia 2004). Depending on their chosen approach, lecturers, whether they speak in L1 or L2, will create a language-rich environment to a greater or lesser extent. One aim of an EMI teacher development programme should be to increase the extent to which the lecture is embedded in such a language-rich, student-centred environment, and our workshop gave the lecturers some tips on how to do so.

One of the bases of English language teacher training programmes is to help an expert speaker communicate effectively with students whose interlanguage is at a lower level. As this is also true of the EMI situation, then some of the same principles may well apply. Key points include the quantity and quality of the language used, the importance of clear instructions and a variety of question types, the ability to explain and respond to questions in unambiguous language, the ability to anticipate problems of understanding, and an ability to 'correct' student language without distracting from the communicative goal, e.g. through reformulation. An example of this can be seen in Studer (this publication) where Mary clarifies and extends a student's use of the term 'high efficiency'. The teacher maintains the communicative focus but models the correct or more appropriate linguistic form of the student utterance. This has been shown to be a powerful awareness-raising technique (see Thornbury 1997) and does not distract from the focus of the lecturer-student exchange.

It was an aim of the EMI introductory session to emphasise the links between the language teaching and the subject teaching elements. Several specific examples of communicative approaches were presented, ranging from P-P-P to task-based learning and the key elements of these (especially the student-centred nature of these approaches) were briefly explained. Anderson & Krathwohl's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives (2001) was also presented as a model to help teachers think of the knowledge and cognitive dimensions of any activities they may do in the course of their subject teaching. This allowed us to also draw parallels between these kinds of subject teaching activities and those of the communicative language classroom, highlighting the parallels by focusing on some key verbs, e. g. *predict, select, classify, list, differentiate between and clarify*.



## 4.7 Conclusion

To sum up, the programme that was put in place took into account the potential objections and expectations subject teachers often have when asked to change the language in which they deliver their lectures. The programme is based on our own empirical evidence from the pilot study as well as research on EMI at tertiary level, communicative competence and English language teaching. A lot of lecturers focus almost exclusively on linguistic competence. One of the aims of the workshop was to make clear to lecturers that what we wanted to focus on was not (just) this linguistic area but rather the various aspects that go to make up communicative competence. We sought to raise their awareness of aspects of communicative competence and show them how to put this into practice by focusing on the parallels between subject teaching and communicative language teaching techniques. This is an ongoing process and the results of our analyses along with the experiences of teachers and students will feed into further workshop sessions at the end of the semester where this information will form the basis for the planning of future course programmes.

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