English-medium instruction in a Finnish higher education institution: Attitudes and experiences of IS students and lecturers

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Appendices
1 Introduction

English-medium instruction (EMI) has spread throughout the world and the number of English-medium programs offered in higher education institutions has increased rapidly in non-English-speaking countries. Also, Finnish universities and universities of applied sciences, as a part of national internationalization endeavor, offer EMI for local and foreign students.

The aim of my thesis is to examine students’ and lecturers’ attitudes and experiences in EMI in a Finnish university of applied sciences in the field of Information Systems (IS) education. The objective of my thesis is mainly to examine the implementation of EMI during an educational change process where EMI, previously targeted mainly for both international and Finnish students in an English-medium degree program, was changed to cover the second academic year in a Finnish-medium IS degree program. Instead of teaching multicultural students in an English-medium degree program, lecturers began to teach local Finnish students in English together with foreign exchange students. This study aims at offering perspectives and forming a comprehensive understanding of EMI as a phenomenon and examining various factors that influence the quality of English-medium instruction. This holistic point of view promotes professional growth and seeks for practical benefits. The current thesis covers the first implementation of EMI with Finnish students in a Finnish-medium degree program and gives important information to the university for the future.

EMI as a concept can be related to many rather similar terms, such as English as a / the medium of instruction, English-medium teaching, English-medium programs, English as the lingua franca medium of instruction, and English medium content classes. Sometimes these terms are used interchangeably. The most significant concept in this thesis, English-medium instruction (EMI) is defined as follows:

The use of the English language to teach academic subjects in countries or jurisdictions where the first language of the majority of the population is not English (Dearden, 2015, p. 4; Macaro, 2018, p. 1).

EMI is not, however, the only concept where learning of a foreign language is connected with learning of content. Pupils and students throughout the world, in addition to learning a foreign language with exclusive language-driven goals, learn foreign languages in several different forms connected with
content learning. The concepts, similar to EMI combining both language and content learning, include Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), Content-Based Instruction (CBI), Content-Based Language Teaching (CBLT), and Immersion. EMI can, however, be separated from these concepts. As a widely used term, CLIL can be defined as follows:

CLIL is a generic umbrella term which would encompass any activity in which a foreign language is used as a tool in the learning of a non-language subject in which both language and the subject have a joint curricular role (Marsh as cited in Macaro, 2018, p. 26).

In CLIL, “neither content learning nor language learning is the dominant driving force in the teaching and learning process” (Macaro, 2018, p. 26). Additionally, based on the definition, CLIL does not specify the language at all opposite to EMI which emphasizes that the medium of instruction is English. In other words, CLIL is “a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language” (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh as cited in Macaro, 2018, p. 10) whereas EMI, as a concept, concentrates only on content learning without language learning purposes. CLIL, a term widely used in Europe, can sometimes be used as a synonym for CBI which is used more widely in the US and Canada (Macaro, 2018, p. 22). CBI describes approaches to integrating language and content instruction (Met as cited in Macaro, 2018, p.21). At last, Immersion programs support bilingual education with the objective of not to replace the home language, but to encourage bilingualism (Macaro, 2018, p. 25).

EMI, due to its content-dominated nature, can be separated from the concepts of CLIL, CBI, and Immersion which integrate language and content education. EMI can also be separated from language education. As an opposite for a content-dominated focus in learning, language education has language-dominant objectives. English teaching at university, without content-driven objectives, contains types of classrooms such as English as a Foreign Language (EFL), English for Academic Purposes (EAP), and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) (Macaro, 2018, p. 29). Regarding these English classrooms, Macaro states that English teaching at university may aim at improving an ability to communicate in English in non-specialized environments, teaching students to enable them to successfully study an academic subject focusing on reading academic texts and writing essays, and teaching of a particular subject dealing with the language genres needed for that discipline (pp. 29-30).
This thesis relies strongly on the concept of EMI i.e. teaching in English based on the classifications provided by Macaro (2018): English is not locally spoken here; the majority of students are nationals of, or reside in, the country; the teachers are always content specialists; there is “English only” policy; the degree program has a content-driven focus; and English proficiency objectives have not been stated (pp. 39-40). Instead, this thesis does not take a stand on the variety of English used in EMI. The author of this thesis supports the view about using any varieties of World Englishes, Global English or English as a Lingua franca (ELF) in EMI. Instead of relying on a standard English, EMI teachers should prioritize intelligibility and comprehensibility over native-likeness.

Concerning the structure of this thesis, higher education is examined from the perspective of internationalization and globalization in chapter 2. The main theoretical background for this thesis is covered in chapter 3 including many different aspects from studying and teaching in English, the adequacy of language skills, learning outcomes and drawbacks, attitudes, and opinions as well as organizational views. Data collection, methods and the environment of the study have been described in chapter 4. Chapter 5 describes the findings of this study. At the end of the report, findings and conclusions are discussed in chapter 6.
2 Globalization and internationalization in higher education

Internationalization and globalization form a strong basis for EMI and its spreading throughout the world. EMI, in fact, can be regarded as one of the outcomes of internationalization endeavor in higher education. This chapter gives background information about internationalization endeavor in higher education and describes how internationalization activities have been reasoned and implemented in the globalizing world. This chapter provides also insights into Englishization and language choices in education.

2.1 The rise of internationalization

Globalization seeks for greater homogenization of fundamental political, ideological, cultural, and social aspects of life across different countries of the world and comprises various business, trade, and economic activities between nations (Foskett, Foskett, & Maringe, 2010, p. 1). Internationalization of higher education can be regarded as a response to globalization, and it can be defined as “the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions (primarily teaching / learning, research, service) or delivery of higher education.” (Knight as cited in Knight, 2013, p. 85)

Internationalization activities have influenced higher education institutions’ daily routines broadly. Relating to the shift from local to global, Haigh (2014) emphasized the role of the comprehensive view about internationalization in higher education and defined internationalization as follows: (p. 21).

Internationalization is a multi-layered process that rises from drivers that concern survival and adaptation to a globalizing world, through changing patterns of competitive pressure, changing regulatory environments, changing educational priorities and opportunities, to changing personal responsibilities in a fragile world. It is a part of a whole university process that shifts perspectives from the local to the global. (Haigh, 2014, p. 21)

Concerning a significant role internationalization of higher education may play in the world, Murphy (2007) claimed that internationalization of higher education holds an essential key for solving world conflicts, and promoting equality and fairness, because internationalization of education contributes positively to students’ language skills, cultural awareness, and adaptation skills (p. 198).
Internationalization activities play a significant role in the practices of many higher education institutions. Regarding the fundamental objectives and the initiative of internationalization, Knight and Qiang (as cited in Kreber, 2009) suggested that rationales behind internationalization may be political, academic, cultural, social, and economic. The political rationale could be based on national security, stability, and peace, whereas the academic rationale refers to the quality of higher education, and to the goals of achieving international standards in teaching, research, and service activities. Culturally or socially internationalization can be justified on the grounds of foreign languages and cultures, the preservation of national culture and respect for diversity. Economically resources are required to stay internationally competitive. (pp. 3-4)

In fact, the reasons for internationalization in higher education can be manifold. Kreber (2009) stated that these reasons may include external pressure, national or institutional policy, institutional strategies, ethical reasons, or other reasons resulting, for example, from humanitarian crises or sustainable development, and the survival of our planet (pp. 6-7). Also, Haigh (2014) stated that living in a global environment requires learning how to live together sustainably and responsibly. Individually, critical self-awareness of own traditions as a part of becoming a global citizen, planetary consciousness, and learners’ role in the commonwealth of nature, and understanding about one’s role may contribute to internationalization. (pp. 14, 16-17)

In the future, internationalization of higher education may produce new forms. Haigh (2014) suggested that also e-learning, social media, the Internet, and virtual spaces can promote internationalization (p. 14). Correspondingly, Gemmell, Harrison, Clegg, and Reed (2015) found that students in an online distance learning program may benefit from learning alongside international students. Moreover, the efficient use of a range of learning tools, technologies, and social media may enhance the benefits of internationalization. (p. 145)

### 2.2 Vocabulary and history of internationalization

Internationalization means different things to different people and to different nations, and involves different priorities (Haigh, 2014, p. 17). Moreover, internationalization as a widespread phenomenon has changed over time. According to Knight (2013), internationalization vocabulary reflects the
priorities and activities over the years. In the 1960s, the internationalization phenomenon was described in terms of international development cooperation, and international, comparative, or correspondence education. At that time, the concepts, such as foreign students, student exchange, development projects and language studies, were recognized. (p. 86)

According to Knight (2013), in the 1980s, international education was known in the forms of multicultural, intercultural, global, distance or overseas education. The concepts international students, study abroad and partnership projects belong also to that period of time. Also, the term internationalization was established in the 1980s. In the 1990s, globalization and virtual or transnational education were discussed, and the terms internationalization abroad and internationalization at home were developed. In the 2000s, regionalization, planetisation, glocalisation, global citizenship, knowledge enterprise, green internationalization and global rankings have taken place. Current debate involves issues about international competencies, joint or double degrees, and branding. (pp. 85-86)

2.3 A market for international higher education

The environment of an international higher education institution may be complex, and different to other organizations, comprising also goals institutions are striving for. University rankings, branding and external pressure may have a considerable impact on internationalization efforts in universities (Haigh, 2014, p. 10), strengthening competition between institutions. Internationally the competition between higher education institutions has global faces. Becoming a world-class university requires international students (Haigh, 2014, p. 10) – and staff.

Regarding global development, Haigh (2014) stated that internationally accredited curricula facilitate international recruitment and graduates’ employability for the global labor market (pp. 10-12). As a response to these compatibility ambiguities, the Bologna Process unified higher education systems in Europe. Reforms on higher education and the introduction of the three-cycle system strengthened quality assurance, and easier recognition of qualifications and periods of study. These changes have been implemented to make higher education systems more compatible, focusing on the main goal to
increase staff’s and students’ mobility and to facilitate employability. (The Bologna Process Secretariat, n.d.)

Basically, the reasons for internationalization activities in higher education institutions can be manifold, but Kreber (2009) argued that the motivation for international education can be explained in two ways. First, a market for higher education exists, especially in countries with less-developed higher education systems although cooperation activities take place also between both developing and developed countries. Second, this increased demand for higher education has improved institutions’ financial survival. (p. 3) At the same time, Kubota (2009) pointed out that nationally economic benefits, tuition fees and living expenses paid by international students play a significant role in the willingness to organize international education although the whole phenomenon could also be seen as a competition for human resources in a knowledge economy (p. 613). Competition for the fee-paying students can still be harsh.

Although 96 per cent of responding institutions in an international survey agreed that internationalization brings benefits to higher education (Knight, 2013, p. 88), some of the changes and the consequences may be less positive. According to Knight (2013), the flaws can be identified in terms of the quality of degrees, integrity of degrees and education providers, fake degrees, lowering academic standards, transforming into visa factories and diploma mills, the nature of status and profile competition, and rankings. Also, double or joint degrees in which one workload produces two diplomas, can be questioned whether it is a benefit or only double counting (pp. 84-87). In fact, Knight has questioned whether internationalization has changed higher education for better or worse and stated that serious debate is necessary (pp. 85, 89). Correspondingly, Gupta (2015) claimed that globalization has “widened the gap between the rich and the poor nations and, between the rich and the poor people, and has been increasingly fatal towards breeding educational inequalities” (p. 4). Gupta also argued that “internationalization of higher education is nothing but international trade in education services.” Moreover, cross-border education seems to emphasize more on commercial and market-driven activities than development projects (pp. 11-12).

In addition to the emphasis on the economic perspective, also the cultural benefits from internationalization have been questioned. According to Urban and Palmer (2014), international
students are not actively engaged as cultural resources although they would like to do more to help others learn about their countries and cultures (p. 305). According to Hanassab and Tidwell (as cited in Urban & Palmer, 2014), higher education institutions in the US greatly benefit from international students’ presence and their cultural, academic, and financial contributions (p. 307), but as usual “all too often international and domestic students have little contact, which constitutes a significant barrier to internationalization” (Ho, Bulman-Fleming, & Mitchell as cited in Urban & Palmer, 2014, p. 308).

2.4 Language choices in education

Concerning the recent role of internationalization, Lauridsen (2016) stated that it seems that internationalization still functions as one of the main drivers of quality and quality enhancement in higher education in Europe. Although individual and societal multilingualism is considered as a key characteristic, the number of English-medium programs in higher education is being increased (p. 121) – and the role of the English language is being strengthened. It seems that current debate about languages focuses on the English language leading to linguistic homogeneity.

A corresponding paradox, concerning multilingualism, was also described by Kubota (2009) from the perspective of foreign language education. Kubota (2009) stated that English is already the dominant language in various sectors in the world and is spreading that dominance even further (p. 614). Globalization in higher education seems to get a form of Americanization, the homogenization of academic culture towards Anglo-based standards and ideologies (Knight, 2008; Mok, 2007 as cited in Kubota, 2009, p. 614). Kubota (2009) claimed that this will put students and countries in an unequal position when language choices are made. Non-English-speaking students are almost forced to study English as a second language, whereas English-speaking students must be strongly encouraged and motivated to learn foreign languages. (p. 614)

Furthermore,

English is ubiquitous and is almost taken for granted in most of the European continent. – In higher education, outside the language and intercultural communication subjects, it seems to be taken for granted that students have the necessary language skills and competences, including academic literacy and academic writing skills. (Lauridsen, 2016, p. 127)
According to Lauridsen (2016), the minority of higher education institutions have an explicit language – or language and culture – policy, but the concrete implementations of such strategies seem to remain vague. The language education seems to rely on the primary and secondary school systems. “Higher education has a role to play and should take responsibility for providing the opportunity for students to develop their individual multilingualism before entering the professional world which for many of them is more global than local today.” (pp. 127-128)

Many universities have chosen to use English widely in their activities. Hultgren (2014) states that it is often unclear where, how and why decisions about the language choice are made. Although the push and pull factors can be recognized; ‘pull’ referring to the ability to compete in the global knowledge economy and ‘push’ to success in ranking systems and quantitative performance indicators; decisions about using a particular language is more or less based on institutions’ identity and priorities. Furthermore, the language choice can be explained with many factors from political to personal questions. Globally, competition and rankings may have driven universities to choose the English language. The European decision to standardize education and to increase mobility necessitates the greater use of the English language which is seen as a growth in the number of courses and programs offered in English. Nationally, political decisions may contribute Englishization. At the institutional level, the increased use of the English language is seen to provide competitive advantage. Individually, the choice may be based on career development and securing a job. In addition to common decisions, the language of instruction can be chosen independently in various faculties, departments, class rooms, and study groups. (pp. 406-407)

Internationalization and globalization have driven Englishization in education. These are the primary reasons why English-medium instruction is launched in many countries. As Figure 1 presents, Lanvers and Hultgren (2018) regarded globalization and internationalization, in addition to institutional reputation and Europeanization, as reasons for Englishization from the top-down perspective. Many oppose Englishization with arguments such as protectionism, nationalism, and tradition. Opposingly, career advancement and personal development are typical reasons for Englishization from an individualistic bottom-up perspective. The preservation of local and regional identities may explain the opinions against Englishization. After all, Lanvers and Hultgren pointed out that many stakeholders view
the process of Englishization as “happening anyway” resulting from international policies which have nothing to do with language. (pp. 148, 151) Englishization seems to continue in Europe.

Figure 1. Englishization in education: for and against (modified Lanvers & Hultgren, 2018, 148)

All the outcomes produced by Englishization are not subsequently good. Doiz et al. (2013) found that both teachers and students share one main concern relating to globalization: globalization as a process is leading to one-way thinking. It seems that globalization creates uniformity and standardization of thought, supporting the view that globalization homogenizes processes leading to greater westernization. (p. 1413) Partially, this leads also to the question about the role of English as a global lingua franca. According to Doiz et al. (2013), homogenization can be associated with the imposition of English as a hegemonic language of communication (p. 1413).

2.5 Internationalization in Finnish higher education

According to Saarinen (2012), the internationalization period in Finnish higher education began in the late 1980s in terms of student and staff exchange programs. In the 1990s, foreign language programs were established and in the 2000s, the focus was shifted on international degree programs. The funding based on internationalization contributed the development of internationalization in higher education
institutions. The strategy for the internationalization of Finnish higher education institutions, published in 2009, aimed at creating internationally a strong and attractive higher education institution and research community, increasing the competitiveness of Finland’s higher education system. (pp. 162-163)

According to Saarinen (2012), the English degree programs aimed at offering degree programs for the students who have no knowledge of the Finnish language and preparing Finnish students for the increasingly international professional life where English is used as a lingua franca. In 1996, there were 75 English-medium degree programs in universities and polytechnics in Finland. In 2008, the figure had risen to 287. (p. 164) In 2018, according to the portal Study in Finland, Finnish higher education institutions offer over 400 different English-medium study programs in several locations around Finland (The Finnish National Agency for Education, 2018). According to Saarinen (2012), it seems that the purpose of introducing, developing, and supporting foreign language programs in Finnish higher education is largely motivated by demands for increased internationalization of higher education. Foreign language degree programs are taught overwhelmingly in English. Eventually, Saarinen pointed out that internationalization of higher education may be leading towards linguistic homogeneity instead of linguistic diversity. (pp. 168-169)

Regarding the situation in the Nordic countries, Airey, Lauridsen, Räsänen, Salö, and Schwach (2017) stated that internationalization in the Nordic countries (Finland, Sweden, Norway, and Denmark), due to their small populations and limited internal markets, is based on an essential economic necessity. Despite the governmental encouragement, it seems that only little guidance or reflection of how English should be introduced is offered. It seems that the expression “more English is better” has led to the development of EMI. (p. 567) Correspondingly, internationalization efforts in Finnish higher education institutions are, in fact, steered by the Finnish Government. According to the government program, the Ministry of Education and Culture (n.d.) established a goal that in 2025, Finland is open and international, as well as rich in languages and cultures. The program envisions a smoother integration of foreign students, researchers, and other staff into the Finnish higher education and research community to make education and research more international.
3 Perspectives on EMI

Many higher education institutions have begun to internationalize their education by offering EMI. This chapter collects different aspects to EMI including fundamental elements influencing teaching, studying, and learning in English as well as the organization of EMI in a higher education institution. Successful EMI requires motivated teachers and learners as well as adequate language skills. This chapter aims at providing an overview on the success factors of EMI but also on typical challenges and problems, to provide a comprehensive description of what EMI confronts in practice.

3.1 Principal reasons for and against EMI

As pointed out, internationalization may widely bring many different political, academic, cultural, social, and economic benefits (Knight and Qiang as cited in Kreber, 2009, pp. 3-4). Correspondingly, EMI, according to Hu and Lei (2014), may bring many important national, institutional, and personal benefits in the globalizing world. At a national level, the English language may provide access to cutting-edge knowledge and enhance a country’s competitive edge in an international cultural and economic activity. At an institutional level, English-medium instruction contributes to a university’s internationalization endeavor. Personally, a command of English is believed to accrue benefits to individuals. (pp. 557-558)

From another perspective, Doiz et al. (2013) classified the values of EMI into three categories: gains, personal investment, and drawbacks. EMI may bring students and teachers both personal and academic gains in terms of linguistic benefits and higher mobility. Moreover, EMI broadens participants’ minds and makes people aware of other peoples. Personal investment concerns both students and teachers. Students have to strive to deal with EMI, concerning especially writing and speaking in English. Teachers considered EMI of utmost importance as a language of instruction but also as a language of research. Nevertheless, EMI requires more effort from teachers due to extra time required to offer a subject in English. The drawbacks encompass also the lack of English language competence, concerning both students and teachers. To some extent, EMI may play a role in the imposition of English. (pp. 1413-1414)
It is generally acknowledged that EMI raises opinions for and against. The recent development of EMI with an increasing number of English-medium programs highlights global opportunities although some negative effects appear. Byun et al. (2010) proposed that the positive effects are the primary reasons for the increased use of English as a medium of instruction (p. 432). At the same time, Doiz, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2011) dealt with the benefits as positive consequences of EMI (p. 351). In spite of the difference in the viewpoints, rather similar factors have been emphasized concerning the opportunities EMI may provide.

Many benefits from EMI deal with working opportunities. Byun et al. (2010) stated that primary reasons for EMI comprise future business careers and internationally-oriented graduates for the domestic labor market (p. 432). Similarly, Doiz et al. (2011) emphasized that EMI increases job opportunities for students as well as brings an opportunity to work in English (p. 351). Correspondingly, Seitzhanova, Plokhikh, Baiburiev, and Tsaregorodtseva (2015) stated that EMI prepares students for the competitive labor market, highlighting that a command of English forms a basic condition for professionals targeting on international markets (pp. 114-115).

There are also academic benefits from EMI. In the academia, EMI empowers professors’ greater mobility and the global exchange of ideas (Byun et al., 2010, p. 432) and facilitates participation in exchange programs (Doiz et al. 2011, p. 351) and in international communication (Seitzhanova et al., 2015, p. 115). Seitzhanova et al. (2015) emphasized that EMI offers an opportunity for improvements in the English language (p. 115). Furthermore, one of the reasons for EMI could be to offer local and international students an opportunity to study and work together with local people and offer domestic students opportunities for interaction with the international students (Nilas, Løkkegaard, Laursen, Kling, and Cortes, 2016, pp. 1-2).

In addition to gains, many challenges characterize the current development of EMI. Byun et al. (2010) questioned the benefits from this phenomenon. Byun et al. proposed that the rising trend of EMI has led to unrealistic expectations and promises of positive effects. The educational value of EMI and potential side effects may have been forgotten. (p. 432) Correspondingly, according to Belhiah and Elhami’s (2015) study, both EMI and the use of the English language raised arguments for and against. On the one hand, the role of the English language was explained by its importance in business and
science. But, on the other hand, the expansion of English was seen to pose a threat to the local native language, as well as to the local religion, its values, principles and centuries-old traditions, and heritage in the region. (pp. 4-6) Also Seitzhanova et al. (2015) highlighted potential problems for culture and a threat to the status and the development of the local language (p. 115).

Concerning the effectiveness of EMI for a career, Byun et al. (2010) claimed that the effectiveness of EMI relies on the characteristics of the academic discipline and the career plans of the students. Moreover, Byun et al. proposed that the importance of English proficiency in students’ future career plays a significant role while examining the satisfaction over EMI. (pp. 443, 445) Simply, it seems that benefits from EMI depend on the academic field. In fact, Byun et al. (2010) found in their study that business students were the most positive group favoring EMI classes. Correspondingly, students in science were by far the least satisfied group with EMI. Also, nursing students exhibited rather low satisfaction levels. Moreover, students in arts, engineering, education, and international studies represented average satisfaction levels within annual variation. In spite of the difference between the disciplines, there was a slight rise in the mean of satisfaction level within all the studied years concerning the total satisfaction means. (pp. 443-445) It seems that the opposition to the English language subsides year by year and the use of the English language becomes more ordinary.

From the perspective of future jobs, business students, followed by students in arts, international studies, and education, rated the highest importance levels of English proficiency concerning their future career (Byun et al., 2010, pp. 443-445). In addition to differences between the academic disciplines, differences in opinions about the usefulness of EMI can be observed also between school subjects and individual courses within a degree. The native language would be advantageous in natural sciences because those courses require even greater English proficiency (Belhiah and Elhami, 2015, p. 12).

3.2 Consequences of inadequate English proficiency for EMI

One of the most intense debates concerning EMI relates to students’ and teachers’ English proficiency. A lack of adequate English skills may lead to a disastrous situation that Maiworm and Wächter (as cited in Byun et al., 2010) described as follows: “students not able to properly understand, speak, and write
English might be taught by teachers incapable of expressing themselves in English” (p. 440). Language skills play a significant role in EMI.

Hu and Lei (2014) claimed that one of the major problems in EMI is students’ inadequate English skills. Students’ limited skills in speaking and listening comprehension have an influence on the quality of instruction. Because of the inadequate English skills, students may learn only a small piece of the content covered in the class. (p. 560) Regarding this, Byun et al. (2010) emphasized the concern over students’ gains on subject knowledge (p. 443). Similarly, Seitzhanova et al. (2015) regarded students’ language skills as one of the major problems in EMI. For that reason, Seitzhanova et al. questioned whether students, while studying, concentrate on an academic subject or improvement of the English language. A similar problem can be seen also in the difficulty of assessing written examinations whether assessment concerns a command of the subject or a command of the English language. (pp. 114-115) Seungwoo et al.’s (2017) study revealed that students’ English language confidence was significantly related to EMI course content understanding (p. 960).

Many language-related problems may lead to learning-related problems. Inadequate skills of reading in English may lead to a more surface understanding of text (Söderlundh as cited in Airey, 2011, p. 37). In addition to this, reading in English demands more time than reading in a mother tongue (Shaw & McMillion as cited in Airey, 2011, p. 37). Students’ academic reading skills to cope with studies in English can be inadequate (Didriksen as cited in Airey, 2011, p.37). The problems of comprehension can be due to lectures given in English, leading to problems in understanding concerning the meaning of terms as well as the difficulties in making notes while listening (Hellekjær as cited in Airey, 2011, p. 38). Furthermore, learning problems in EMI classes can be due to the reduced redundancy of lecturers’ subject matter presentation, lecturers’ speech rate, their expressiveness, their clarity, and accuracy of expression (Vinke, Snippe & Jochems as cited in Airey, 2011, p. 38).

According to Belhiah and Elhami (2015), students face various challenges with the English language and they solve these problems in many different ways. Some students depend heavily on translations and dictionaries. (p. 17) Also, Hu and Lei (2014) found that students developed their own strategies to cope with EMI. Students used dictionaries to check unknown words before lessons. Some students even translated materials from English into the native language and prepared for a test by memorizing
answers. Students also avoided spontaneous discussion. Moreover, Hu and Lei reported that for learning purposes, some students used corresponding study materials provided in the native language. (pp. 560-561) According to the study of Belhiah and Elhami (2015), language problems led to the situations where students answered questions in their mother tongue. Instructors needed to remind students about English-medium communication in EMI classes. To cope with these evident language problems, some students decided to help their classmates and played a translator role when classmates with weaker English skills faced communication problems. (p. 17)

Generally, the role of language skills in learning can be raised also from the perspective of equality. Students’ excellent language skills may offer considerable benefits. According to the teachers in their study, native speakers of English may have an unfair advantage compared to EMI students studying with a second language (L2) (Bolton & Kuteeva as cited in Macaro, 2018, p. 76). Students with poorer English skills are required to work more to be able to reach the same learning outcomes. Language proficiency is a prerequisite for content learning. In fact, native English speakers are treated differently in EMI classes, compared to other non-native students. Söderlundh (2013) argued that native English speakers have a special role in international classrooms concerning the language. It is typical that students who come from an English-speaking country are used as a language resource and asked about English grammar and pronunciation concerning the problems appearing in texts and presentations. (p. 127)

From another perspective, language proficiency is an essential prerequisite also for content teaching. Concerning EMI, Seitzhanova et al. (2015) stated that, in addition to the adequacy of students’ language skills, another major challenge relates to the sufficiency of lecturers’ command of English (p. 115). Similarly to students, also lecturers may need to create their own strategies to cope with EMI. Hu and Lei (2014) found that to mitigate the role of the English language while teaching, professors copied texts straight from textbooks, followed the lesson agenda they had prepared in advance, and minimized spontaneous interaction and improvisation. As a response to students’ weaknesses in understanding, some professors used also the native language to explain challenging materials, used PowerPoints in class, assigned pre-homework for students to preview the lesson content, and repeated explanations students did not understand. (p. 561)
Concerning lecturers’ language proficiency, Doiz et al. (2011) found that students suspected whether their non-native teachers are sufficiently competent to teach in English. (p. 353; see also Doiz et al., 2013, p. 1414) Also, Seitzhanova et al. (2015) proposed that students’ reason for skepticism concerning EMI relates to the ability and motivation of teachers and students (p. 114). In fact, Doiz et al. (2013) found that the students who were not taking EMI classes expressed prejudice and perceived non-nativeness as a drawback whereas, by contrast, the students taking EMI classes highlighted the advantages of having non-native instructors (p. 1415). Regarding this, Evans and Morrison (2011) suggested that non-nativeness can bring along other significant factors which have an influence on students’ comprehension. Most of students’ comprehension problems dealt with excessive speech of some lecturers’ presentations as well as disorganized presentations and varying lecturing styles. Differences in lecturing styles between local and foreign lecturers caused students some problems. Students prefer local lecturers to foreign staff because of the more understandable accent of English in addition to a greater sensitivity to students’ needs and difficulties. Generally, lecturers’ inadequate communication skills were seen problematic. (p. 154)

Concerning students’ perceptions of their teachers’ English proficiency, Lavelle (as cited in Jensen, Denver, Mees, and Werther, 2013) claimed that many factors – such as age, gender, appearance, and nationality – can affect students’ perceptions of teacher credibility, in addition to repeated errors and mispronounced terms which can erode a teacher’s credibility, leading students to pay more attention to linguistic errors than the message of the lecture (p. 88). Jensen et al. (2013), in fact, questioned students’ ability to assess their teachers’ English skills. Some studies have shown that judgments about language can be influenced by the listeners knowledge about the speaker’s accomplishments in different tasks and educational background. (p. 89) Concerning students’ ability to assess foreign teachers’ speaking proficiency, Orth (as cited in Jensen et al., 2013) found merely a very low correlation between student and experienced EFL teacher ratings (p. 89).

Jensen et al.’s (2013) study, while examining the evaluative reactions of university students to their non-native lecturers’ English skills relating to general lecturing competence i.e. knowledge of the subject and teaching skills in EMI, revealed a bidirectional effect of perceived English skills on perceived general lecturing competence. Jensen et al. concluded that the students’ perceptions of the lecturers’
English are influenced by their perceptions of the lecturers’ general lecturing competence. But also, the lecturers’ general lecturing competence was influenced by their perceptions of the lecturers’ English skills. In practice, this may mean that teachers with poorer English skills may be perceived as less competent teachers. (pp. 101, 105-106)

Studying and teaching in English may be harsh, especially if the seamless interaction during lessons between a teacher and students is threatened due to insufficiencies in English language proficiency. Evans and Morrison (2011) reported that there was no interaction in EMI lectures. As a consequence of one-way communication, students just sat, listened, and made notes without asking questions. Students’ reluctance to ask questions during lectures was explained with discomfort at speaking in front of their peers, a lack of confidence in their English skills, or unfamiliarity with the topic. Asking a question in front of classmates and especially with the doubt of using wrong English may make students embarrassed, leading to unreluctance to speak. Instead, students preferred to ask additional questions during the break or after the lecture. (p. 153) Similarly, Doiz et al. (2013) claimed that the major drawbacks concerning the value of EMI comprise the lack of English language competence, concerning especially local students’ limitations in their English proficiency. Local students were reluctant to speak English, despite the signs of improvement in language skills in other occasions. (p. 1414)

Seungwoo et al. (2017) suggested that a small class size may improve the EMI classroom interaction by enhancing instructor-student relationships (p. 962). Correspondingly, Byun et al. (2010) claimed that a large class size, with more than 200 students, prevents professors from grasping the academic needs of the students. Moreover, the large class size limits students’ participation and hinders professors to provide any feedback. (p. 445)

Concerning the comfortability in the use of the English language in different situations, Belhiah and Elhami’s (2015) study revealed that more than half of the students felt comfortable while interacting in English, communicating with classmates, asking questions, answering teachers’ questions, and working in groups in English. Nonetheless, teachers’ perceptions of students’ ability to interact in English deviate from students’ opinions. Only one third of the teachers agreed that most of the students felt comfortable while asking and answering questions. According to the teachers, communication with classmates seems to be the most challenging to students whereas group working seems to be the
easiest. Nevertheless, it is significant to notice that instructors’ continuous encouragement helped students increase students’ confidence with English. (pp. 17-19)

3.3 Overcoming problems of English proficiency

Concerning both students’ and lecturers’ English proficiency, it is worth asking how adequate language skills can be guaranteed. Byun et al. (2010) claimed that in Korea, due to a 10-year English language education in primary and secondary school, both students’ and professors’ English literacy is largely assumed (p. 440). Also, Lauridsen (2016), in her article about the roles of the languages in the European higher education area, stated that it seems that the language education relies on the primary and secondary school systems, although “no higher education institution can take it for granted that students have the language and intercultural communication skills and competences taught in the national or local school system”, due to various reasons such as migration (p. 127). Generalizations based on the assumptions due to an educational system can be vague.

Another question concerning language problems deals with the level of how good a command of English is necessary. Björkman (2011) stated that to the question about the level of “Good English” a variety of answers can be given depending on various factors. Björkman, however, suggested that “Good English” is not a notion that is necessarily determined by one’s level of proficiency. Speakers with lower levels of proficiency are also able to use the language effectively. (p. 90)

It is acknowledged that students’ and teachers’ language problems can lead to various learning problems. Hu and Lei (2014) proposed that an inadequate command of English may lead to difficulties in explaining scientific concepts and complex technical terms, in describing processes and principles, in discussions, and in developing both persuasive arguments and compelling counterarguments (pp. 560-561). To overcome the learning problems arising from an inadequate command of English, Seungwoo et al. (2017) suggested that students should take a language test and achieve a minimum English proficiency score to confirm the adequate command of English (p. 962). Correspondingly, Byun et al. (2010) paid attention to the role of the institution in the endeavor to ascertain its students’ English proficiency levels. Byun et al. proposed that the number of students having problems is greater than anticipated. (p. 440) Furthermore, Chapple (2015) exemplified that about one third of the students
failed to complete the EMI courses, including also gave-ups and official withdrawals, most probably due to inadequate English proficiency. Studying in English can be more difficult than expected. (pp. 4-5)

Concerning the challenges in studying, Chapple (2015) found a clear correlation between low or failing grades and non-utilization of language support. It seems that without regular linguistic support, students’ comprehension, satisfaction scores, and grades were lower. Students who utilized strategies or assistance offered by instructors reported higher levels of satisfaction and greater feelings of improvement and confidence. Finally, Chapple concludes that “without sufficient availability and utilization of specialized language support, EMI alone appears to lack the ability to confer linguistic benefits.” (p. 5)

To overcome linguistic difficulties, Seungwoo et al. (2017) suggested that a preparatory course, prior to actual EMI courses, might be helpful in developing students’ English competence (p. 962). Also, Hu and Lei (2014) suggested that additional English classes for students could be offered to raise students’ English proficiency to an adequate level (p. 562-563). Mentoring programs may also mitigate students’ anxiety levels in EMI courses (Seungwoo et al., 2017, p. 962). Concerning students’ command of English in general, there is still some pressure for teaching English for EMI students. Björkman (2011) stated that the traditional emphasis on reading skills in addition to listening and writing to assist students to cope with the course literature and assignments in English has been replaced by the norms and standards for spoken English (p. 81, 87-88). Moreover, Björkman (2011) claimed that in ELF settings, such as EMI, the priority in English teaching must be comprehensibility (p. 92). Instead of organizational arrangements, solutions to overcome linguistic comprehension problems can be simpler. According to Daniels (2013), educators in an English-speaking country, to minimize difficulties, learnt to speak more slowly, repeat more often, emphasize important points, and simplify written material. (p. 240)

To avoid language-related problems, suggestions about the usage of the native language in addition to English have been presented. Belhiah and Elhami (2015) found that in the circumstances where students regard both languages, English and the native language, as important and where English is locally regarded as a potential threat to the native language, religion, and culture, about two thirds of the students and three fourths of the instructors preferred bilingual instruction (pp. 17, 19). Thus, instead of changing the medium of instruction for the entire program, Belhiah and Elhami (2015)
highlighted a suggestion that some subjects, such as courses related to history and culture, could be better taught in the native language and some other subjects, such as business and engineering, in English. After all, students recognized that English is a necessity needed to increase competitiveness and readiness for the job market, but English should not be supported at the expense of the native language. (p. 19)

Concerning the benefits from two languages, Belhiah and Elhami (2015) found that some instructors stated that the use of native language could ensure that at least a minimum threshold of understanding and knowledge can be achieved. Students with a limited English proficiency would benefit from bilingual lectures. Moreover, Belhiah and Elhami paid attention to the linguistic flexibility. Although English would be the medium of instruction, flexibility to use the native language would aid in comprehension because the proficiency in the subject matter takes precedence over language proficiency. Furthermore, students suggested that glossaries for technical subjects for instruction would be beneficial. (p. 19) Finally, Belhiah and Elhami (2015) presented that a bilingual curriculum could meet the needs of the English language. The bilingual curriculum as a more flexible approach, may take students’ English proficiency, subject knowledge, and academic level into account without marginalizing the native language and culture (p. 20) with emphasis on students’ biliteracy skills. Belhiah and Elhami (2015) highlighted that English viewed as an ally to the native language neither displaces the mother tongue nor poses a threat to national identity and heritage (p. 21).

3.4 Effects of EMI on learning outcomes and students’ choices

Concerning language-related learning problems, Klaassen (as cited in Airey et al., 2017) found a drop in test results when changing from the first language to EMI, but this difference disappeared after a year (p. 569). It seems that students may adapt to EMI. Also, Evans and Morrison (2011) found that students’ inability to understand a new vocabulary, often compounded by their uncertainty over the purpose and the structure of some lecturers’ presentations, caused considerable challenges for students, especially during the first study year at the university. Evans and Morrison found that students had generally overcome the major challenges posed by English-medium lectures at the mid-point in their university careers, after becoming accustomed to concepts, terminology, accents, and varying lecturing styles. (pp. 154-155)
Regarding learning outcomes in EMI, Shaw and McMillion (as cited in Airey et al., 2017) claimed that reading comprehension of the local students is comparable to that of native English students provided they are given extra time (p. 569). Also, Airey et al. (2017) concluded that to cope with EMI, students just need more time to achieve similar disciplinary results as a first language (L1) education (p. 569). Correspondingly, students argued in Byun et al.’s (2010) study that if a class were held in their native language, they would have needed much less time for class preparation and their comprehension of the subject matter would have been greater (p. 438). While studying in English can require more time, also complete understanding requires more studying at home as well (Byun et al., 2010, p. 443). Regarding these differences between languages, in a research aimed at studying differences between different subjects, Dafouz, Camacho, and Urquia (2013) found that both EMI and non-EMI students in similar circumstances obtained rather similar results in three subjects, despite the language used in instruction. Learning outcomes were rather similar in history, accounting, and finance. Dafouz et al. concluded that English as the language of instruction does not seem to have a negative effect on students’ academic performance (pp. 230, 232). Students may achieve similar results despite the medium of instruction.

To avoid the failures arising from inadequate language skills, about half of the students in Belhiah and Elhami’s (2015) study would choose to answer exam questions in their native language, if they had the choice – in spite of the students’ positive attitudes to English. Only one third of the students supported the use of English in examinations. Some students would prefer answering exam questions in English because it could consolidate their English skills which could be a natural language choice for the exam because of the English-medium curriculum. As counterarguments for English, examination answers given in the native language require less time and increase students’ chances of expressing themselves with clarity. (p. 12)

All the learning outcomes from EMI does not solely deal with disciplinary knowledge. Studying in English may improve also students’ language skills. Generally speaking, students believed EMI to have improved their English proficiency (Byun et al., 2010, p. 438; Belhiah & Elhami, 2015, p. 10). According to Chapple (2015), about half of the students benefited from EMI classes linguistically, indicating either some or considerable improvement. About one fourth of the students did not observe any changes in
their language skills and the rest of the students were unsure. (p. 5) Rather similar results were obtained also by Belhiah and Elhami (2015), who found that about three fourths of the students improved their listening, writing, reading, and speaking skills by EMI (pp. 10-11). Belhiah and Elhami (2015) stated that improved speaking and listening skills through EMI helped students become more confident speakers in public presentations in front of their classmates. EMI also improved students’ interaction with native speakers. Moreover, improvements in writing and reading skills were visible especially through the extended vocabulary, idiomatic expressions, and appropriate register enabling more rapid information grasping. Students also developed at conveying their thoughts with clarity in writing. In addition to students, also the majority of the instructors agreed that students’ English proficiency had been improved through EMI. (pp. 10-11)

Concerning expected learning outcomes from EMI, Chapple (2015) found that students may choose EMI classes to improve their English proficiency. More than one third of the students chose EMI classes to improve their English ability and about one fifth enrolled on EMI classes to experience ‘real’ English. One fourth of the students were interested in making foreign friends. (p. 4) Conversely, Doiz et al. (2011) found that students’ lack of confidence in their English proficiency prevent some from taking EMI courses (p. 353). Also, Seungwoo et al.’s (2017) study revealed that students with negative attitude tend to avoid EMI classes. Students’ concerns about their English proficiency impact negatively on their attitude to EMI courses. Furthermore, students’ attitude to EMI relates significantly to instructors’ English proficiency. Instructors’ poor English intensifies students’ English language anxiety which has also a significantly negative impact on students’ EMI course, attitudes, understanding, and grades. (p. 961) In cases, when students can choose the language in which they take specific courses, EMI students are more motivated than non-EMI students and they show positive attitude to general linguistic benefits (Doiz et al., 2013, pp. 1413-1414).

Concerning the other reasons why non-native English speakers would choose EMI in a non-English speaking setting, Lueg and Lueg (2015) found that students who realized the importance of the English language for the labor market chose EMI more likely and that students’ expectations of English as a working language positively impacts on the expected employment advantages. Lueg and Lueg proposed that English proficiency does not solely explain the choice of the study language. Not even excellent
English skills make a student motivated for choosing EMI. Instead, it seems that a higher level of English proficiency only lowers the barriers which prevent from choosing EMI. The factors which more likely prevent students from choosing EMI contain the higher expectations of barriers, such as inferior use of time and peer attitude. According to Lueg and Lueg, students who opt against EMI believed that the English language poses a barrier to their goals. Students feared of getting lower grades and missing content in lectures. (pp. 18, 21)

3.5 International students’ linguistic and cultural challenges

International students, including both international degree students and exchange students, form a special student group in education and their challenges are different to those of local students. Furthermore, international students’ challenges in an English-speaking country differ from challenges in a non-English speaking country, although some similarities exist. Sometimes these differences challenge also lecturers.

Daniels (2013) pointed out that although multicultural educational system can be regarded as a natural consequence of diversity in Australia, still, after decades of teaching international talents, Australian educators face different – both linguistic and pedagogical – challenges in delivering effective learning opportunities. All educators enjoy working with and teaching international students to some degree, but these educators were also aware of different challenges. A vast majority of educators agreed that their international students face language problems, and more than half reported that these are problematic also for educators. English language fluency of international students is a major area of concern, in addition to the ignorance of local higher educational processes. Over half of the educators faced educational cultural challenges: educational processes and conventions are just different. (pp. 237-238, 240)

Zhou, Jindal-Snape, Topping, and Todman (2008) stated that many learning-related problems in intercultural classrooms might result from mismatched expectations between teachers and students, concerning the interaction between teacher and student perspectives and reciprocal adaptations. General cultural differences led to academic cultural differences and different cultures of learning. Both teachers and international students have their own perceptions about teaching, teachers’ teaching
style, and students’ learning style. Learning outcomes are better when these perceptions match completely. Increased awareness of pedagogical differences in different cultures improve learning outcomes. (p. 72)

While studying the impact of stress on teaching and learning among international students with different backgrounds and different educational histories, Sovic (2007) found that cultural, social, and academic aspects of the process of adaptation have a significant impact on international students’ achievements. “Students are confronted with many stressful situations, of which culture shock is just one,” and of which the language is a major concern, in addition to problems with adaptation to the local academic system, relationships to tutors, classroom participation, group work, and assessment. Attitudes to originality in assignments and student work have confused many students who come from different learning cultures. Furthermore, international students face problems also with the system of independent study and time management. Many international students can be ignorant of how to work harder to get better learning outcomes although they have been advised to do so (pp. 146, 149-152).

Furthermore, Sovic (2007) identified several problems concerning international students’ social adjustment relating to situations in which students have to communicate and work together with teachers and with their peers. Natural reluctance to speak, combined with the difficulty of doing it in a foreign language in front of a mixed audience, usually with a predominance of native speakers, makes class discussions and group work immensely stressful situations for all participants. Social problems led often to isolation, to failure to form friendships with fellow students, and to failure to establish a communicative relationship with teachers as well. (p. 153) Teaching style can just be different from the style international students are used to. Presentations in class and presentation culture may be one of the most shocking situations for international students because critique and suggestions for the future development are openly presented (Sovic, 2007, p. 154). Furthermore, Brown and Holloway (2018) stated that, in addition to pedagogical problems, also social problems, including culture shock, may arise especially at the beginning. International students’ behavior in everyday situations can be influenced by the awareness of the possibility of making intercultural mistakes. In addition to this, feelings may vary from nervous, anxiety, excitement, adrift, dissatisfaction, depression, and loneliness to homesickness, sleeplessness, and stress. (pp. 37- 45)
3.6 Teachers’ views about EMI

Teaching in a foreign language is more demanding and requires more effort (Doiz et al., 2011, p. 352). Also, Pilkinton-Pihko (2011) stated that teaching in English seems to be more strenuous at least to some extent for half of the teachers whereas one third does not perceive any difference to the native language (p. 21). For this and other reasons attitudes to EMI varies. Jensen and Thøgersen (2011) claimed that younger teachers have more positive attitude to the increasing use of EMI than older teachers. Likewise, teachers with higher teaching load in English are far more likely to have a positive attitude to EMI. (pp. 27-28)

Concerning a less positive attitude to EMI, Jensen and Thøgersen (2011) found that lecturers who teach only a few courses or no courses at all in English are the most skeptical, having the most negative attitude to the increase of EMI (p. 28). In fact, Doiz et al. (2011) observed several reasons why teachers oppose EMI. First, if there are only a few foreign students in campus, there is no point in teaching in a foreign language. Another reason for unwillingness to EMI is the extra effort and time required. Furthermore, it seems that teachers’ additional effort is undervalued by their colleagues, in addition to the lack of support from higher administration and heads of departments. (pp. 352-353) The lack of recognition, and an effort which frequently goes unrewarded, discourage some teachers from participating in EMI (Doiz et al., 2013, p. 1415).

In regard to the goals of internationalization from teachers’ perspective, Jensen and Thøgersen (2011) found that more than half of the teachers stated that the number of English-medium courses should be increased to attract more international students and researchers (p. 25; see also Pilkinton-Pihko, 2011). Moreover, three fourths of teachers agreed that to compete at an international level, more courses in English have to be offered (Pilkinton-Pihko, 2011, p. 10). In fact, several studies (Byun et al., 2010; Doiz et al., 2011; Seitzhanova et al., 2015) have highlighted that EMI attracts international students. Furthermore, several studies (Jensen and Thøgersen, 2011; Pilkinton-Pihko, 2011) shew that the majority of teachers consider that by means of EMI the university ensures that they are well-prepared for the future. Moreover, it seems that teachers have perceived a direct connection between international competition and EMI. More than two thirds of the teachers considered that competition
at an international level requires more courses in English (Jensen & Thøgersen, 2011, p. 25). Moreover, EMI can be regarded as an opportunity for better university rating (Seitzhanova et al., 2015, p. 115).

Regarding the debate between instruction in the native language and in English, Jensen and Thøgersen (2011) found that almost half of the teachers considered that students educated for homeland job markets should be taught using the native language. The other half disagreed. (p. 24; see also Pilkinton-Pihko, 2011, p. 7) Moreover, about half of the teachers agreed that academic standards fall when the medium of instruction is English (Jensen and Thøgersen, 2011, p. 25). In another corresponding study, only one third agreed that academic standards fall if the medium of instruction is changed (Pilkinton-Pihko, 2011, p. 8). Considering the debate between instruction in the native language and English, two thirds of the teachers considered that students learn best when they are taught in their mother tongue (Jensen and Thøgersen, 2011, p. 25; see also Pilkinton-Pihko, 2011, p. 8). Furthermore, Jensen and Thøgersen (2011) found that two thirds of the teachers considered that the development of technical terminology in mother tongue is important and the native technical language will disappear if teaching is conducted in English. Nonetheless, two thirds of the teachers acknowledged that within their own fields, the English technical language is more developed than the native technical language. (p. 25)

Concerning the improvement of students’ command of English, Seitzhanova et al. (2015) claimed that all lecturers are not interested in students’ language competence. Some lecturers pay attention only to students’ competence in the subject. (p. 115) Correspondingly, Airey (2012) proposed that it seems that some teachers do not consider that language teaching belongs to their job although they claimed to correct students’ Swedish in the case of error. In fact, these teachers did not feel sufficiently confident to correct students’ English. (p. 74) Moreover, Airey (2012) stated that lecturers may view their students from different individual perspectives, leading to a different point of view about the needs of English, concerning, for example, the use of English study materials. A hierarchical knowledge structure in a subject may explain the difference between lecturers’ opinions. (p. 71) Academic disciplines are different in nature.

To solve the students’ vocabulary problem in two languages, one might suggest that the medium of instruction could be changed between courses or terms. Concerning the change of the medium of instruction occasionally between terms, Airey (2012) pointed out that although it seems to be
unproblematic to teachers to change the medium of instruction occasionally, it can be problematic to students. Airey perceived here a risk that students are left alone to work with the rules of the discipline in two languages. Airey argued that students need lecturers’ discourse guidance in both languages. (p. 76)

According to a teaching staff, the most important factor in the internationalization of university is the presence of international students in the university, in addition to the use of English in research and having different nationalities in the university (Lasagabaster et al., 2013, p. 768). On the one hand, instructors may face challenges due to the increased number of international students (Byun et al., 2010, p. 445) but on the other hand, by Sawir (2013), international students contribute to academic environment. The major contribution of international students to academic environment comprise the educational resources they play for teaching and learning, and the internationalization of the curriculum and for the development of domestic students’ intercultural learning, respect, and tolerance for/of other cultures. (p. 364) In fact, Sawir (2013) stated that teachers benefited from having international students in classroom. The presence of international students led teachers to consider their teaching methods differently, resulting in improved quality of teaching. Different perspectives and experiences brought by international students enriched teaching culturally. Moreover, the presence of international students broadened people’s minds and enhanced the level of tolerance. Nevertheless, cultural resources represented by international students were not always viewed positively by the domestic students, who often remained ignorant and unaware of their surroundings. The domestic students easily ignored these cultural resources international students play (pp. 365, 367-368).

After all, various teachers may adopt different attitudes to EMI. Some teachers voluntarily take part in EMI, and can, thus, be called active promoters according to Macaro’s (2018) classification. Correspondingly, consenting participants acknowledge how things are going and accept their changing roles related to content teaching although their acceptance of change may vary by degree from one individual to another. Thirdly, passive victims oppose EMI but feel powerless to go against the educational development. At last, resistance fighters campaign actively against the introduction of EMI by refusing to implement EMI overtly or covertly. (p. 93) Concerning the success of EMI, it can be significant what kind of attitudes teachers adopt in an organization.
3.7 Differences between teaching in a native and a foreign language

Differences between teaching in a native language and in English are obvious. Course preparation in English takes more time (Airey, 2011, p. 44). Moreover, more than one third of the teachers needs more time also for teaching in English (Pilkinton-Pihko, 2011, p. 22). In regard to lecturing, 22 per cent more time was needed to cover the same material in EMI classes because lecturers spoke more slowly with a more formal textbook style (Thøgersen and Airey as cited in Airey et al., 2017, p. 570). Furthermore, a study by Nilas et al. (2016) demonstrated that in teachers’ opinion, teaching and communication in English compared to the native language is assessed to be about 30 per cent more difficult than communication in the native language (p. 4).

As a consequence of teaching in a foreign language, Airey (2011) stated that educators feel that they lose details, because their English is less precise (pp. 44-45). Correspondingly, a study by Hu and Lei (2014) reported that because of inadequate English proficiency, some professors simplified the curricular content, not only due to their inadequate English proficiency but also due to students’ understanding (p. 561). After all, inadequate English skills can force some lecturers to cover less material in EMI classes (Byun et al., 2010, p. 442).

Often teaching in English results in a pedagogical change, leading to lessons with less flexibility, jokes, asides, and real-life examples (Airey, 2011, p. 45). Also, Pilkinton-Pihko (2011) suggested that the most challenging language-related factors in EMI seem to be involvement of students and explaining matters in different ways although these challenges seem to face only a few teachers. Also, answering questions spontaneously caused some difficulties. Concerning teachers’ ability to discuss the discipline in English, two most challenging factors in EMI cover encouraging or getting a discussion going and making a humorous remark. Furthermore, many teachers get tired more easily while teaching in English (pp. 17, 19, 22). Regarding this, Airey (2011) concluded that lecturers’ limitations in EMI may be due to the lecturers’ relative inexperience of EMI (p. 49).

Regarding a lesson flow, Airey (2011) stated that several fluency problems were encountered during the EMI lessons, such as hesitation and false starts (p. 45). Also, a study by Pilkinton-Pihko (2011) revealed that more than one third of the teachers in a university needed pauses to search for the right
words. Moreover, about one third of the teachers agreed that they lack words to describe their thoughts. Teaching staff encountered significantly less unsureness in grammar, pronunciation of the subject-specific terms, or the correct use of a word. (p. 16) Additionally, self-confidence seems to play a significant role when teaching is conducted in English. One third of the teachers felt less confident when teaching in English (Pilkinton-Pihko, 2011, p. 22).

To assist EMI teachers, Airey (2011) highlighted the importance of being prepared, which is more important in EMI than in the native language. Generating and structuring key ideas to an efficient slide presentation and making a list of key terms or a vocabulary can assist lecturers in succeeding. (p. 48) But regarding comprehensive slide presentations, relying too heavily on slides were criticized in Evans and Morrison’s (2011) study: A PowerPoint presentation, having too dense a content or too many words, is irritating and annoying. According to the students, traditional handouts could be more effective method to deliver content in some cases. There is no reason for listening a lecturer, if all the content is on the slides. (pp. 154-155) Furthermore, to make EMI classes more fluent, teachers should, instead of translations, concentrate on thinking and preparing in English, and putting new terms on handouts, writing a manuscript, checking pronunciation, and practicing (Airey, 2011, pp. 48-49).

### 3.8 A native language in in-class and out-class communication

Many universities around the world use English as a medium of instruction in non-English-speaking countries. Despite a university is an English-medium university, both students and lecturers use also a local native language as a medium of communication (Evans and Morrison, 2011, p. 152). Correspondingly, Söderlundh (2013) stated that in spite of EMI classes, also a local native language is typically used. In fact, the native language is used in connection with teaching in all EMI courses, but it is mainly used in interactions that are preparatory to actual teaching. English is the normal choice if the interaction is institutional in purpose or the topic for discussion is relevant concerning the study field. (p. 128) According to Evans and Morrison (2011), students use more the local native language than lecturers (p. 152).

In the study of Evans and Morrison (2011), lecturers used mainly English while lecturing, although some use of the local native language was observed. Lecturers used the native language while asking
questions, giving instructions, and especially while answering questions (p. 152). Correspondingly, Byun et al. (2010) reported that a considerable proportion of the teachers used a native language in their EMI classes whereas about half of the instructors followed strictly the established English policy. Instructors’ use of the native language in EMI classes indicated that some students were facing challenges while taking classes conducted entirely in English. (pp. 440, 443) Similarly, also Evans and Morrison (2011) stated that some lecturers spoke local languages in EMI classes, but mostly requested by students. Due to linguistic challenges, lecturers explained difficult or crucial concepts in the local native language to improve students’ understanding. Students mainly understood the reason for the lecturers’ use of English as an institution policy, but participants also acknowledged that they would have learnt more efficiently if lectures were delivered in the native language. (p. 153)

In addition to students’ language proficiency, Hu and Lei (2014) found that also lecturers’ English competence seemed to play an important role in the implementation of EMI regarding the use of the native language in EMI classes. In some cases, professors’ communicative competence in English was weaker than ideal. Inadequate English skills led to less interactive and less flexible instruction. Due to weaknesses in a command of English, professors switched to the native language, to be able to explain difficult concepts or content in an understandable way. It seems that professors can go deeper into the content if they can teach in their native language. (p. 560)

Regarding interaction in small-group settings, Evans and Morrison (2011) argued that in a university engaged to English-only policy, both lecturers and students used more the local native language in seminars than in lectures. Especially students were reported to break the English-only policy while speaking in small-group settings. Also, lecturers sometimes switched to the native language to simulate discussion and enliven the atmosphere. Fundamentally, Evans and Morrison found three interrelated factors influencing language preferences in small-group settings: the facility in the language, discomfort at using English, and possible embarrassment over the English ability. First, it is easier to explain the details in the language one masters better – namely in the mother tongue. It is difficult for students to explain matters in English to some extent. Discomfort at using English refers to the situations where students who usually speak the native language with each other have to speak English, the language they have not used to use. Furthermore, students may find it unnatural to speak English especially when
being afraid of making themselves as objects of ridicule. In some cases, lecturers’ request for the usage of the English language led even to a kind of display of English skills rather than a genuine exchange of ideas. (pp. 155-157)

According to Evans and Morrison’s (2011) findings, students use usually English but with some use of the local native language, especially in answering and asking questions. In discussions with classmates, students use English and the local native language in roughly equal amounts, with a small emphasis on the native language. In discussions outside the classroom, students generally use the local native language: A mother tongue makes communication more efficient. It is easier to use the native language because it takes less time to express ideas and understand each other. (pp. 152, 157) In situations, when students spoke English “just for fun”, problems arose from the ability to express different, especially local terms using English (p. 158). Furthermore, students’ own and other participants’ language skills play a significant role in the choice of the language (Söderlundh, 2013, p. 128).

Evans and Morrison (2011) claimed that local students have no, or only little need or desire to speak English among themselves, but communication with international students is different. Local students are happy to communicate with international students for academic and social purposes. The presence of international students in interactional situations make students switch the language to English. It seems that the number of international students play a significant role in the choice of the language although the sustained use of spoken English is rather limited, if international students account only for a small portion of the student population. (p. 158)

Concerning the use of English and the local native language, Söderlundh (2013) stated that students themselves create local norms for when, how, and with whom English can, and cannot, be used (p. 130). Correspondingly, Evan and Morrison (2011) pointed out that students’ own attitudes seem to play a significant role while choosing the language in communication between students. Especially students who regard English speaking as weird or strange make other students feel uncomfortable using English in those circumstances to avoid becoming treated as facetious or pretentious. (p. 157) According to Söderlundh (2013), the language choice seems to be based on calculations of participants’ linguistic competence. Students choose the language that seems to fit best to the roles and aims that the interaction resolves. Moreover, it seems that social and power relations and the aspects of inequality
influence the language choice. (p. 128) Söderlundh (2013) found that by speaking the local native language in spite of the presence of international students, native students deviate from the norm of speaking a language that all participants can understand. This kind of breaking of a norm can be regarded as a challenge to the position of English as a lingua franca. (p. 124)

In addition to students’ own linguistic norms, Söderlundh (2013) stated that also norms for language choices can be constructed differently in various courses. An English-medium course can be characterized by an interplay between transnational, local, and national processes and flows. In fact, Söderlundh claimed that as a part of localization processes, English as a medium of instruction does not mean that English is spoken all the time. English is mainly connected with interaction with exchange students whereas native student speakers can use both English and the native language with each other. (pp. 128-129) Furthermore, Evans and Morrison (2013) emphasized that in circumstances where the vast majority of students speak a local native language, there is almost no need to speak English outside the classroom (p. 149).

In spite of the norms created for the use of the native language, Söderlundh (2013) claimed that in some specific contexts the local native language is not handled as a deviation from the jointly established norms. Söderlundh pointed out that the local native language can be used, for example, in study-related, more personal interactional situations such as in roll-calls, questions concerning group presentations, and queries about forthcoming exams, without considering as deviant. (p. 124) In some cases, it is possible that one group keeps behavior appropriate and the other inappropriate. According to Söderlundh (2013), international students may show their annoyance in their behavior when the local native language is used in situations they keep inappropriate. For example, foreign students regarded situations where translations for English words and explanations were requested in the local native language during lessons as inappropriate. Generally, the local native language is an unexpected language in the teaching situations. (p. 120)

3.9 Organizational views about EMI

Internationalization challenges higher education institutions also from the organizational perspective. Although it seems that the statement “more English is better” has been leading the development of
EMI, the shift towards EMI requires careful handling (Airey et al., 2017, pp. 567, 570). Correspondingly, Nilas et al. (2016) highlighted that English as a medium of instruction poses challenges both for individual teachers and for the organization. As a whole, the change process, including structural changes in the entire organization, is time-consuming. (p. 5)

To prepare a university for changes, Byun et al. (2010) suggested that the specific situation at the university should be considered while planning EMI (p. 446). Moreover, “disciplines with different knowledge structures have quite different language policy needs” (Kuteeva and Airey as cited in Airey et al., 2017, p. 571). Furthermore, it is worth paying attention to communication, because customers and other employees may find English communication difficult in some disciplines (Nilas et al., 2016, p. 5). Regarding the specific situation at a university, Byun et al. (2010) reminded that the human and financial resources available should be considered and warned that promoting a policy such as EMI without careful consideration may put students and staff at risk (p. 446).

Byun et al. (2010) found that the lack of instructors with adequate English skills have far-reaching implications for curricula and may lead to language changes between semesters (p. 446) which can be problematic to students, concerning especially academic vocabularies in two languages (Airey, 2012, p. 76). As a solution, Hu and Lei (2014) suggested that there could be minimum qualification requirements for professors, concerning especially professors’ adequate English skills. By defining a sufficiently high threshold level of English proficiency for students, also student-related understanding problems could be decreased. (pp. 562-563) Fundamentally, English can be incorporated into the core functions of universities in several ways. To solve the problem of the adequacy of language skills at a general level, Byun et al. (2010) suggested a greater emphasis on English proficiency when recruiting new staff (p. 435). As one of the most radical solutions to make EMI eligible, Byun et al. (2010) suggested that professors could be mandated to conduct classes in English and students to take a certain number of EMI classes (p. 435). On the other hand, Byun et al. (2010) also questioned whether EMI should be compulsory or a choice (p. 443).

A successful implementation of EMI requires more careful preparation from a pedagogical perspective concerning the aims of curricula (Byun et al., 2010, p. 446). In addition to pedagogical objectives, Airey et al. (2017) suggested that university language policies should encourage the faculty discussion of
disciplinary literacy goals and require disciplines to declare the language-learning outcomes of each course. Language learning goals should fit in the goals of the curriculum. (p. 572)

Some teachers have a positive attitude to EMI, but some resist the change (Nilas et al., 2016, p. 5). An organization has an opportunity to influence teachers’ attitudes by organizing support services or facilities, to make the first steps in EMI easier. Airey (2011), however, reported about the missing support of the employer concerning EMI. Teaching in English seemed to be an unplanned decision in some cases. Too short a notice before the first English teaching experience or a lack of training make teachers feel unsupported on behalf of their organization. (pp. 43-44) In fact, there is a need of both linguistic and pedagogical support for students and professors (Hu & Lei, 2014, pp. 562-563).

In case, the planning of EMI in an organization could be started from scratch, there are five different models available, relating to the ways how an EMI program is planned, resourced, and delivered as a part of the educational system in a higher education institution. Based on Macaro (2018), the models for EMI include the selection model, the preparatory year model, the concurrent support model, the multilingual model, and the Ostrich model. (pp. 232-233) The selection model assumes that students have demonstrated their English proficiency before entering an institution. Instruction is then based on the assumption that students have adequate language skills. In this model content teachers are separated from language teachers: content teachers may concentrate on teaching an academic subject while the role of the language teacher is to offer students EAP and ESP. The preparatory year model assumes that students have inadequate language skills while entering an institution. Students are provided a kind of intensive bridging courses to prepare students for an EMI program. The third concurrent support model regards all students graduated from upper-secondary school as eligible to enroll in EMI. In this model, both content and language teachers should have a thorough understanding of their students’ linguistic needs. In addition to EAP and ESP courses, some additional language support should be offered to students. In the multilingual model, teaching is based on two languages, English and the first language, in different forms. It is possible that within a subject, some lessons are given in English and some in the first language. Switching between languages during a lesson is also possible. This model aims at minimizing students’ content comprehension problems due to multilingual teaching. The multilingual model is not, however, appropriate for international students. The Ostrich model, at
last, denies the problems occurring in EMI. In this model, an organization refuses to see the problems pretending that they do not exist. Then, EMI is implemented as a part of the organization’s other functions. (pp. 232-233)
4 Data and methodology

This thesis aims at researching EMI comprehensively in a Finnish higher education institution. This thesis uses a variety of research methods which are described in more detail in the following chapters. All the surveys and interviews in this thesis were conducted in Finnish, except the survey for foreign exchange students. Direct quotations from the Finnish interviews and surveys are translated into English.

4.1 Methodological choices

The current study was primarily based on an ethnographic approach including individual interviews, focus group interviews, surveys, and participant observation. The current study, due to the role of the author as an educator in the institution, builds on ethnography that can be defined as an approach to social research based on the first-hand experience of social action within a discrete location, in which the objective is to collect data which will convey the subjective reality of the lived experience of those who inhabit that location (Pole & Morrison, 2003, p. 16).

Ethnography, a study of culture and of people’s lived experiences in that culture (Hogan, Dolan, & Donnelly, 2011, p. 39), empowers the study of experiences and behavior studied in the natural setting of the everyday activities of the subjects under investigation.

Ethnography is suitable for a variety of data collection methods (Pole & Morrison, 2003, p. 17). In this thesis, teachers’ EMI experiences in international degree programs were studied in individual interviews and focus groups. Second, students’ attitudes and expectations were measured using a survey, and third, students’ and teachers’ experiences in EMI using surveys and participant observation. Also, Hammersley (as cited in Hogan et al., 2011) highlighted that data in ethnographic research is typically collected from different sources focusing on a single or a group setting using observation and relatively informal conversations as primary methods (p. 42). Moreover, Pole and Morrison (2003) emphasized the interaction between a respondent and an ethnographer as follows: the respondent is “encouraged to answer a question in her or his own terms, and indeed pose questions to the ethnographer as part of the verbal exchange” (p. 30).
According to Gobo (2008), ethnographic methodology contains two research strategies: non-participant observation and participant observation. A non-participant observer observes the subjects from a distance without interacting with subjects under investigation. In contrast, a participant observer can establish a direct relationship with the social actors staying in their natural environment with the purpose of observing and describing their behavior by interacting with them and participating in their everyday ceremonials and rituals and learning their code (or at least parts of it) to understand the meaning of their actions. (p. 5)

This study was based on participant observation.

The present study differs from the typical ethnographic setting, in which an ethnographer comes often from a culture other than that which he or she is researching (Hogan et al., 2011, p. 39). Concerning the role of the educator undertaking research in her own institution in the educational settings, Pole and Morrison (2003) stated that investigators are facing many important issues about their role maintenance and management problems. An educator-researcher has a need to make a familiar or normal setting unfamiliar by stepping outside his or her role as an educator in the setting being explored. (p. 25) Ethnography lends itself to research education in ways that provide deep and critical understandings about what it means to teach and learn and experience education in various forms (Pole & Morrison, 2003, p. 127).

Furthermore, the general view in the current study emphasized the emic orientation. Instead of concentrating on studying actual behavior, this study relies on the perspectives and experiences held by participants. Walle (2014) described the role of understanding in emic orientation: Human behavior takes place within a social context and that a full understanding is essential to understand the situation. The opinions of participants become keys for understanding. The etic orientation would discard these opinions as irrelevant and distorting. (p. 103)

This thesis relies mainly on qualitative research, on a research procedure which produces “descriptive data: people’s own written or spoken words and observable behavior” (Hatch, 2002, p.4). Qualitative methods were seen as the most fitting choice, concerning the goals of the study. EMI as a research topic requires multiple sources of data to form a holistic view about the implementation of EMI
including both students' and teachers' perceptions. An interview and a focus group were regarded as the most appropriate methods for gathering teachers' perceptions about EMI, because interviews with participants offer “an effective way of soliciting and documenting, in their own words, an individual’s or group’s perspectives, feelings, opinions, values, attitudes, and beliefs about their personal experiences and social world, in addition to factual information about their lives” (Saldana, 2011, p. 32). Qualitative student surveys provide an opportunity for comprehensive qualitative analysis, but also for suggestive quantitative examination of the results, as well as an opportunity for all the students to describe their thoughts in their own words. The role of quantitative research is minimal in this study. Participant observation, providing information which otherwise might stay hidden, and a simple teacher survey complete the view about the success of the implementation of EMI.

4.1.1 Teachers’ interviews about experiences in EMI

Teachers’ opinions and perceptions about EMI were studied by conducting interviews. An email invitation was sent to fourteen teachers who belong to the information processing science team and who have at least some experience in EMI, based on teaching in an international degree program. The author of this study belongs to the same team. In the current study, the selection of the interviewees was based on self-selection sampling i.e. each invited individual was allowed to identify their desire to participate (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2016, p. 303). Additionally, participants were allowed to express their desire whether to participate in an individual interview or a focus group interview, which refers to a group interview typically consisting of four to twelve participants (Saunders et al., 2016, pp. 391, 417). Nine teachers responded positively to the request. Based on the preferences and practical calendar allocations, four teachers were interviewed individually and two focus group interviews, consisting of two or three teachers, were organized. Qualitative interview method was chosen because it provides scope for exploring participants' attitudes, values, and experiences in the area of the research topic.

All the interviews were conducted as semi-structured interviews based on a list of themes and key questions to be covered emerging in the theoretical framework. The interviews advanced freely, as described by Saunders et al. (2016): the use and the order of themes may vary depending on the flow of the conversation (p. 391). All the interviews began by filling a simple questionnaire (Appendix A) that
aimed at serving as a discussion opener in the interview, in addition to collecting background information from the interviewees. The simple questionnaire consisted of both closed and simple open questions such as age, gender, teaching experience in year, English-medium teaching experience in years, the usage of the English language in spare time, language education, the English grade in matriculation exam and the English language certificate. The self-assessment of English language skills was included consisting of listening comprehension, speaking skills and fluency, pronunciation, reading and writing skills, discussion skills and competence of subject-specific [IT] vocabulary.

Both the individual interviews and the focus group interviews deviated from the intended interview structure due to the interviewees’ interest and raised aspects. All the themes were, however, covered in the interviews although the order of themes and discussion time spent with various themes varied. The themes covered topics such as the best experiences and the biggest challenges in EMI concerning teaching in an international degree program, differences in lesson preparation and in teaching practices between English-medium and Finnish-medium instruction (FMI), the adequacy of students’ language proficiency, cultural practices, opinions about EMI, employer support, and the constituents of an international higher education institution. Some of the original themes remained unsolved, due to a lack of opinions or experiences.

The interviews were conducted in November-December 2016 in school premises. All the interviews were recorded and transcribed. The questionnaire data was analyzed with MS Excel using simple statistical methods. The interview data was coded and analyzed qualitatively using the tool QSR N’Vivo. The data analysis was based on thematic analysis, which has a purpose of searching for themes and patterns that occur across the data (Saunders et al., 2016, p. 579). The analysis was primarily based on a combination of an inductive and deductive approach, which are defined by Saunders et al. (2016) as follows: In an inductive approach themes are derived from data whereas a deductive approach is based on themes linked to existing theory (p. 579). The list of the themes and key questions (Appendix B) directed the analysis.
4.1.2 Students’ surveys about attitudes to EMI

Local Finnish-speaking students’ attitudes and expectations for EMI were studied by conducting surveys. An email invitation was sent three times to all day-time first-year students studying in the degree program of business information systems. The survey was conducted three times during three consecutive academic years for three student groups. The first target group of students consisted of Finnish students who will study the whole degree in Finnish. The second and the third target groups of students, despite their study in a Finnish-medium degree program, study their second academic year in English. The author has previously taught both groups. The current study aimed at studying the entire population. Finally, 84 students responded the survey.

The survey form (Appendix C) consisted of both closed and open questions such as gender, age, educational background with grades, the usage of English in free time, self-assessment of English proficiency, experiences in EMI, and opinions about the adequacy of English courses at university. Additionally, open questions were included about opinions concerning EMI, possible benefits and challenges from EMI, and other suggestions about the role of the English language at the university of applied sciences. Small changes were made for the second survey form due to compulsion of EMI during the second academic year concerning the second and the third respondent groups. The first respondent group do not study in English at all. The opinion question about an English-medium academic year was presented using the form of “What if your second academic year would be held in English” in the first survey. Additionally, three questions were added to the first version of the questionnaire about the adequacy of English language in studies, a need for a preparatory English course, and suggestions for preparing students for an English-medium academic year.

The surveys were conducted three times in May 2017, in December 2017, and in September 2018. The survey data was analyzed using both quantitatively and qualitatively with MS Excel, Webropol reporting tools, and QSR N’Vivo. The statistical analysis was mainly based on descriptive statistics and qualitative analysis on thematic analysis.
4.1.3 Students’ and teachers’ experiences in EMI

Both students’ and teachers’ experiences in EMI were studied ethnographically using a variety of data collection methods, including two student surveys, a teacher survey, and active participant observation. Participant observation can be defined from the perspective of teacher-ethnographers as follows: “teacher-ethnographers look, listen, ask questions, take part, learn the language, learn and record any specialized kind of language or argot, make inferences from what people say, locate informants, develop relationships, become friends, and experience different ways of life” (Hitchcock and Hughes as cited by Pole & Morrison, 2003, p. 19). In addition to the usual role of the teacher, the author of the study played also a researcher’s role. The classroom setting made participant observation possible. Also, conversations with students and teachers shed the light on the success of the implementation of EMI. In the current study, the mode was participant observation as fully engaged with participants in educational settings aiming at understanding from an insider’s perspective.

In addition to participant observations, the surveys for local Finnish students (Appendix D) and foreign exchange students (Appendix E) were conducted. An email invitation to the surveys was sent to the participating students. The questionnaire meant for Finnish students contained questions such as experiences in studying in English together with exchanges students, the adequacy of language skills, the use of the Finnish language, differences between FMI and EMI, and suggestions for improvements. The survey for foreign students included questions such as experiences in studying together with Finnish students, the adequacy of language skills, the use of the Finnish language, and improvements for EMI. Teachers experiences in EMI were also collected using a survey form (Appendix F). The questionnaire consisted of questions such as experiences in EMI this autumn, the adequacy of language skills in addition to their influence on learning outcomes, the usage of the Finnish language with students, and opinions about EMI in IS education.

The research period covered August 2018 to November 2018. The data were analyzed mainly qualitatively with MS Excel based on thematic analysis.
4.2 Environment of the current study

The current study was conducted at the Oulu University of Applied Sciences (OUAS) in Finland. Concerning the Finnish higher education system, university of applied sciences with practical and professional orientation differs from university profiled as research and science orientation. Previously, universities of applied sciences were called polytechnics.

The current study was conducted in the city of Oulu whose population in 2017 was 200,526 (City of Oulu, 2018, p. 22). In Oulu, 97.1 per cent of inhabitants are Finnish citizens (City of Oulu, 2018, p. 29). Moreover, there are less foreigners in Oulu than in Finland on average: foreign citizens account for 4.5 per cent of people living in Finland (Statistics Finland, 2018, Foreigners in Finland). About 7.0 per cent of the students in Finnish universities of applied sciences are of international origin (Vipunen, n.d.a; Vipunen, n.d.b). At OUAS, there are about 9000 students of which 231 were foreign degree students in 2017. Moreover, about 530 exchange students study at OUAS annually. (Oulu University of Applied Sciences, n.d.).

During the last twenty years, there have been several international degree programs at OUAS. Teaching in English began in the target school of the research in 1992, when a new international English-medium degree program was established. The second international degree program was launched in 2004 in the department to which research is targeted. Half of the students in these international degree programs are usually of foreign origin i.e. non-Finnish-speaking students. The international degree program launched in 2004 was decided to cease in 2016. The teachers who participated in this study have taught in English in these degree programs.

The Finnish-medium degree program of business information system (BIS), which is the target of the current study, provides students with versatile ICT skills, and knowledge about digital products and services for business making specialization in games, programming, and e-commerce (Oulu University of Applied Sciences, 2017). In this Finnish-medium degree program, the second academic year is studied in English with the goal of integrating exchange students to the Finnish groups. The first implementation of EMI in this degree program was executed in autumn 2018. Up to 2017, all the studies in the degree program of BIS have been organized in Finnish.
In the degree program of BIS, instructional system is based on the traditional mix of lectures, classroom exercises, exams, and home assignments. Additionally, according to a newer educational approach, all the students have been divided into small teams for cooperative learning purposes. Lecturing is still an important part of instruction but most of the practical course assignments are completed in teams, with an emphasis on efficient project working skills. Exchange students have been integrated into these teams according to the principle that there is at least one exchange student in each team. Seating in a home classroom is based on teams which makes team working possible on a daily basis.
5 Results

This chapter describes findings based on the student surveys, the teacher interviews and surveys, and participant observation. The main goal in this paper was to study the implementation of EMI in a Finnish higher education institution, focusing mainly on local Finnish students who study their second academic year in English in a Finnish-medium degree program. Teachers’ opinions about EMI were collected by interviews that were held at the time when EMI was targeted in the institution only for international English-medium degree programs before EMI for Finnish students began. Students’ expectations and attitudes to EMI were studied by collecting opinions from the first-year students in the same degree program before the English-medium academic year. The main part of this study, experiences in EMI, is based on local Finnish and foreign exchange students’ surveys, a teacher survey and participant observation, focusing on experiences and challenges.

The response rate in the student survey, targeted for the first-year students was 57 per cent. The number of interviewees in the teacher interviews was 9 out of 14. The response rate was 71 per cent in the second-year student survey. Of the exchange students, 10 out of 11 responded to the survey. In the teachers’ survey, 3 of 5 teachers participated.

5.1 Expectations and attitudes to EMI

Teachers’ opinions about teaching Finnish students in English

The question about whether Finnish students in a Finnish-medium IS degree program should be taught in English weighed arguments for and against. Many teachers emphasized that Finnish students should be taught in English. Moreover, one of the interviewees had suggested the change of the medium of instruction from Finnish to English several times during the recent years. According to the interviewees, EMI could grant students a favor because they will probably need English in the future. But counterarguments were also presented in the interviews. Some teachers asked for the reasons why teaching should be held in English and some teachers claimed that it is just senseless, especially without international students. This phenomenon, where a Finnish teacher teaches Finnish students in English, without the presence of international students, was regarded as artificial and unnatural.
Many different arguments for EMI were presented in the interviews. Students must learn English – sooner or later – because they will need it at work, and English can, in fact, be the official language in many companies and organizations. EMI can also provide an additional value in a curriculum vitae when a student is seeking for a job. Moreover, if duties at work require the English language, school is a suitable place to develop it. Improved language skills were most frequently regarded as one of the biggest benefits that EMI may provide. Good language skills may also provide students with more job opportunities around the world. Studying in English with a Finnish teacher was regarded as a safe solution, in addition to great opportunities for bilingual lessons. Arguments for EMI were stated as follows:

Our field requires the English language.

We still have some students who cannot read English books and articles for their bachelor’s theses. Now I have that kind of student. I told him my opinion quite straight. It is now the time when he or she should begin to study English. You cannot succeed in this career if you cannot read English. If you cannot speak, but reading is compulsory. The newest knowledge is available only in English.

The most significant counterarguments, based on the interviews, comprised Finnish students’ language problems and the unnatural and artificial nature of EMI, especially without international students. Students’ educational background was emphasized as a potential reason for the language problems: the students who graduate from Finnish upper secondary school [lukio] probably succeed better than the graduates from vocational schools. Moreover, the adequacy of Finnish teachers’ language skills was questioned. Difficult and complicated subject matters are even more complicated when studied and taught in a foreign language. Due to the artificial nature of English-medium teaching, the medium of instruction is easily changed to Finnish, without international students. Arguments against EMI were presented as follows:

The language is the challenge. A teacher should be able to express things and teach in English, and then also students should have adequate English skills to be able to use them in studying.

Why would it make sense? We educate work force for Finland’s labor market.

The appreciation of the Finnish language, as an instance of patriotism, was questioned in an interview, referring to unpatriotic attitudes, because students are mainly educated for Finland’s labor market. For
this reason, the Finnish language should also be used in studying. Furthermore, subject-specific vocabulary was regarded as important in both languages, also in Finnish. From the perspective of national economy, the benefit from graduates who go abroad to work can be turned to a drawback because one might ask the costs, how much the education costs for the society. One interviewee made a point about monolinguism and the necessity of knowing also other languages:

*The English language is a global language and it is used. In that way it is important because we come from a small linguistic region. The English language is the first language but perhaps we should know also some other languages. —— If you go to Italy, you should now Italian, and if you go to Spain, you should know Spanish, and French in France. We should have also other languages than English.*

The findings of the current study are consistent with those of Jensen and Thøgersen (2011) and Pilkinton-Pihko (2011) who found that almost half of the teachers considered that students educated for homeland job markets should be taught using the native language. Similarly to this current study, some teachers in those studies disagreed. Many of the arguments and counterarguments presented in the current study were visible in literature review, but one of the strongest counterarguments, teaching Finnish students in English – especially without international students, was in agreement with Doiz et al.’s (2011) findings about reasons why teachers oppose EMI: there is no point in teaching in a foreign language, if there are only a few foreign students in campus. Another counterargument, patriotism was emphasized in another form in Belhiah and Elhami (2015) who stated that the expansion of the English language is a threat to a local native language and heritage in a region. Correspondingly, also Seitzhanova et al. (2015) highlighted a threat to the status and the development of the local language. In spite of all the counterarguments against EMI, there are teachers who support the increase of English-medium instruction, as stated also in Jensen and Thøgersen (2011) and Pilkinton-Pihko (2011).

**Students’ expectations and attitudes to EMI**

Of the first-year students who participated in the student survey, 80 per cent regarded EMI during the second academic year as a positive change or it did not raise any special feelings (n=80). Many respondents described their expectations as interest towards the English language and they remained waiting for the second study year with pleasure and enthusiasm. An English-medium study year raised positive thoughts about higher English proficiency and an improved command of the vocabulary in the
field, the future need of the English language at work, preparation for international careers, as well as it was seen to bring something new. For some students, the change of the medium of instruction did not seem to matter, mainly due to high confidence in their own language skills. Furthermore, concerning the importance of the English language in the field, a student explained the need of language skills as follows:

*In the degree program of business information systems, English is an important language command of which is almost an essential part of professional knowledge and skill.*

Although the attitude to the English-medium study year was mainly positive, some students felt nervous about EMI and were worried about the situation in their group. One student predicted the second study year to be more challenging than the first study year, and another questioned how much English is really used in various teams. EMI causes worries about communication with exchange students, the adequacy of own language skills, and an effect on learning outcomes. A respondent regarded the change of the medium of instruction as a bipartite challenge:

*I can develop my language skills through the force of circumstances.*

All the students did not regard the change of the medium of instruction as a good solution. Of all the students, 11 per cent considered the thought about an English-medium study year as oppressive or anxious (n=80). The students were worried about the adequacy of language skills, pronunciation, slow reading speed, slow speech generation in English, and imperfect understanding. One student doubted the usefulness of the entire idea, and another would have preferred the Finnish language to the English language.

Some students, in fact, stated rather strong opinions against EMI. According to a student, an English-medium study year would be an absurd thought because the change is “too big to handle”. Another student highlighted stronger perceptive skills with the Finnish language. Moreover, the survey brought out learning disabilities that may expand on a large scale in EMI. Regarding learning, a student stated that the English language would make learning slower because concentration on new topics takes so much energy. Furthermore, vocabularies in some topics, for example in mathematics or object-oriented programming, can be regarded as challenging.
5.2 Expected benefits and potential challenges

Benefits for students

EMI may bring considerable benefits to students. Most first-year students highlighted benefits for general language skills, and a command of the vocabulary in the field as well as better job opportunities and working abroad. More than half of the students predicted that English-medium instruction improves their general English skills, including grammar, vocabulary, communication, writing, reading, and listening skills. Speaking skills were especially emphasized in the students’ responses. The English-medium study year was expected to develop fluency of speaking, self-assurance, pronunciation, English grammar, and the usage of English in various situations. Producing texts and speech for communicative purposes were regarded as important.

In many student responses, the general language skills related to a command of the vocabulary in the field. In fact, many students stated that good English skills are necessary in the field of information technology (IT). Many jobs and branches in the field require a good command of English IT vocabulary. Moreover, students recognized that additional information and many solutions to complicated IT problems are solved by means of the Internet. Various Internet forums and websites typically provide solutions to problems and most of them are available only in English. Often Finnish materials do not even exist. For that reason, the usage of English is reasonable also in studies. Some students generally made a point that the field of IT requires adequate English skills.

Students stated that English skills are important for their future careers, both at home and abroad. The English-medium study year would prepare students for working abroad, and for working in an international company or in an international team at home or abroad. The field of IT was regarded as an international field and EMI can be seen to promote internationality. A student connected the English language with internationality as follows:

*The English language = internationality, and preparedness for it is improved.*

Both students’ and teachers’ expectations about positive benefits from EMI match to Byun et al. (2010), Doiz et al. (2011), and Seitzhanova et al. (2015) regarding future job opportunities home and abroad.
and opportunities to work in English. This current study seems to support Byun et al.’s (2010) claim that the effectiveness of EMI relies on the characteristics of the academic discipline and the career choices. Both students and teachers understand the importance of the English language in the IS education: adequate English skills are necessary in the field of IT.

**Potential challenges**

According to the students, the biggest challenges which might appear concerned mainly a command of English skills, the vocabulary, and understanding, which altogether may lead to poorer learning outcomes in worst case scenarios. At the same time, one third of the respondents did not anticipate any challenges and some respondents spoke on behalf of other students.

Many students who were concerned about the adequacy of language skills mentioned speaking skills in general. Some students predicted that their poor skills may lead to speechlessness because of poor pronunciation but also because of uncertainty about becoming understood. One student stated that “Rally English” makes him a bad speaker. Another student was afraid of becoming humiliated in front of other students: for that reason, it might be better not to ask any further questions. Furthermore, some students suspected that oral communication in group works might be one-sided. Some students assumed that they may need more time to complete tasks, especially written assignments. One student claimed that poor English skills may build a barrier for studying.

Many students expected that an English-medium study year would improve their general English but also IT vocabulary. In contrast, many students were worried about their command of the vocabulary. Limited vocabulary may lead to misunderstandings. Many students who mentioned the command of the vocabulary as a challenge stated that the vocabulary may bring problems at first but just by using the English language, they learn more.

Many students were, in fact, worried about understanding. According to students, poor understanding may lead to unclear details, difficulties in various tasks, a lack of concentration, misunderstanding, and communication barriers. Some misunderstandings may result from the inability to express one’s
thoughts. A student claimed that having a teacher not speaking Finnish may lead to problems if a point in the subject of conversation does not become clear using the English language.

Many of these language problems, mentioned by students, have a connection with learning outcomes. Some students stated that learning outcomes may be poorer and learning slower. Tasks and assignments can become more complicated, and at the end, all these problems may lead to strain and stress. Students commented as follows:

*Understanding tasks and learning content what you need to manage will be challenging because the mother tongue is not used.*

*Hardly anything bigger. Perhaps at the beginning you need time to accustom. There might possibly be some barriers in communication and the possibility for misunderstandings would increase.*

*Producing own texts, for example reports, would be considerably slower. Additionally, you might occasionally have problems in concentration if you don’t understand a thing and instruction moves further too fast.*

5.3 Teachers’ best experiences and biggest challenges in an international degree program

Most of the interviewed teachers explained that meeting different students was regarded as one of the best experiences in teaching in international English-medium degree programs whose multicultural students come from all over the world, mostly from Asia, Africa, and Europe, but also from North and South America, Australia, and the Philippines. The interviewees explained that these international students are fundamentally different; they come from different cultures, and they behave differently in comparison with more homogenous Finnish students. These international students talk more. For that reason, lessons typically contain more interaction and discussions between teachers and students. International students tend to ask more often when having comprehension problems. An EMI teacher explained:

*The best thing is that there are so different students from different cultures who behave and act differently, and they are not too homogenous.*

Some teachers also mentioned that the best students they have ever taught have studied in these international degree programs.
Only two teachers of nine referred to the linguistic issues among the best experiences in teaching in an international degree program: one valued the improvement of language skills; the other emphasized that the use of the English language in course materials has removed the need of translation into Finnish, making lesson preparation easier. Teaching in English is also different. Especially at the beginning of the EMI career, it revivifies, when everything is new.

The biggest challenge, which was mentioned by all the interviewees in one form or the other, concerns the language problems several international students have. All the teachers had faced problems concerning students’ ability to communicate in English. Students seem to face problems especially regarding listening comprehension and understanding as well as speaking challenges and fluency. Language problems were observed in a variety of duties in all the phases of the teaching process. Some interviewees described their linguistic challenges as follows:

- *I cannot always understand what students explain there.*
- *We have seen some students whose language skills can be questioned whether they are adequate for these university studies at all.*
- *We have some students whose quite weak language skills decrease their learning outcomes.*
- *One day, I met students who had not understand my exam questions, although the questions were formed in ‘basic’ English.*

Many foreign and Finnish students have, in fact, rather good language skills. A teacher described his or her observations about students’ language skills as follows:

- *The students, whose English skills are the best, are always foreign students, but they are also the students, who have the weakest skills. –– The variation in foreign students’ language skills is bigger than in Finnish students’.*

Multiculturalism was often regarded as a benefit, although sometimes the origin of the problem arises from different students. Working in groups is often challenging. Students tend to work with students who come from the same country. Moreover, students tend to choose the most convenient working methods. Group working challenges both students and teachers. An interviewee described such an experience:
We have a challenge in our international degree program, because forming mixed groups of Finnish and foreign students is not easy, because their working methods are so different. Additionally, we should really have more time for rule-making inside the groups.

5.4 Teachers' experiences in EMI

Preparation for lessons

According to the interviews, it seems that teachers prepare their lessons in many different ways. Furthermore, some differences between EMI and FMI exist. The interviews showed that preparation for English-medium courses and lessons requires more time, especially at the beginning of the EMI career. The slide presentations and lesson plans on paper were used to outline the structure of the lessons. Teachers used to plan their lessons beforehand, including all the preparation work needed for lesson materials and exercises. Often, English-medium course planning was based on a corresponding Finnish-medium course which often led to translation activities. Nonetheless, teachers explained that teaching the same subject matter in both languages decreased the time needed for preparation in general.

Linguistic aspects seem to play a significant role at the beginning of the EMI career. Many teachers have used online dictionaries and other tools to find the right words and phrases and to check their pronunciation. Grammar was also paid attention to. Moreover, it was typical that teachers made notes for lessons: word lists and key notes were used on the edge of the lesson materials. Interviewees described their experiences as follows:

At some point, I prepared more in English and I thought of lessons more.

I do those things at first in Finnish, and then I just translate them into English.

You must be more precise with English exercises. You must be careful to become understood. In a mother tongue, you may write them in many ways and you know that students understand it.

Currently, all the experienced EMI teachers, after over ten years of experience in EMI, said that there is no difference between preparation in Finnish and in English. Some teachers even emphasized that they feel that preparation work in English is easier because there are numerous English-medium Internet resources and articles available. These free resources have removed the need of translations
from Finnish into English. In fact, these problems appear currently more frequently while preparing Finnish lessons: some subject-specific words are difficult to translate from English into Finnish. Two interviewees described their experiences as follows:

\[ I \text{ managed to improve my subject-specific vocabulary quite a lot at the beginning of my career. Nowadays that difficult translation must be done to another direction.} \]

\[ \text{It is so much easier to prepare lessons in English, if you think how easily you may find articles, literature, documents, and complete slide sets, and so on.} \]

Teachers highlighted how significant development has taken place within ten years. The improved grammar and spelling tools in text editing software and email programs facilitate writing in English. Moreover, attitudes to language issues have changed during these years. At the beginning, teachers focused on language details, but after ten years, their attitude has changed. Linguistic issues do not arise and require any special emphasis. Two experienced teachers explained that they never check grammar issues beforehand. Attitudes to the English language seem to change over the years.

The findings of the current study support those of observed in earlier studies. Teaching in a foreign language seems to be more demanding and requires more effort, as stated also by Doiz et al. (2011). The results of the current study are also consistent with Airey (2011) and Doiz et al. (2013) who found that course preparation in English takes more time i.e. EMI requires more effort from teachers due to extra time required to offer a subject in English. The current study, however, contradict partly these findings. The experienced EMI teachers stated that there is no difference between course preparation in Finnish and in English or even that preparation work in English is easier than in Finnish. This difference might be explained by longer work experience in EMI, wide English-medium resources for course preparation and better tools supporting linguistic aspects.

**Self-confidence and feelings of stress**

According to the interviewed teachers, self-confidence seems to increase over the teaching years. At the beginning of the career, teaching in English is painful and more stressful than teaching in Finnish. The English language makes some teachers struggle and they become tired more easily. Over the years, the differences between the languages, and thus also the feelings about stress, a lack of self-confidence,
excitement, and tiredness have decreased gradually – although they occasionally bother also more experienced teachers. A teacher, who has just begun in EMI, described his or her feelings as follows:

_Teaching in English is more stressful._

Correspondingly, an experienced EMI teacher described his or her feelings about tiredness as follows:

_Yes. You become more tired when you speak foreign languages. You feel it easily._

Many experienced teachers, however, after ten years in EMI, could hardly observe any difference between EMI and FMI, but teaching is, nevertheless, challenging sometimes. Also, experienced teachers had faced problems in EMI. Many interviewees explained that the biggest challenges are occasionally faced due to the lack of energy. Monday mornings, English-medium teaching after holidays, or exceptional tiredness, or just a “bad hair day” may cause remarkable troubles – in fact, also in FMI. These problems are independent of the medium of instruction. Mostly, the teachers felt excitement or stress – not due to the language – but due to a new subject matter, a new course, new students, or initiatives for interaction with new students. A teacher explained as follows:

_When I have a bad hair day, instead of having problems with individual words, I feel that I face problems about expressing myself clearly. It does not depend on a word but finding good sentences and finding clear stories becomes more difficult._

From the perspective of self-confidence and feelings of stress, the current study confirms the findings of Doiz et al. (2011) who stated that teaching in a foreign language is more demanding and requires more effort, and Pilkinton-Pihko (2011) who found that teaching in English seems to be more strenuous at least to some extent for half of the teachers and that some teachers feel less confident when teaching in English. By specifying the earlier findings, the current study emphasizes the role of experience in EMI in years, because it seems that the difference between Finnish and English, and feelings about stress, a lack of self-confidence, excitement, and tiredness have decreased gradually over the years, although they occasionally bother also more experienced teachers. According to this study, work experience in years may explain the differences in opinions about stress and self-confidence.
Teaching and interaction during a lesson

The interviewed teachers described how teaching international students differs from teaching homogenous Finnish students. Foreign students tend to ask more if they want to clarify an unclear new subject matter. Foreign students are more active than Finnish students in general, and typically lessons in English have more discussions and interaction between a teacher and students.

Regarding a lesson flow, some teachers stated that they deviate from original lesson plans as much in both languages. Some subject matters just need more time and sometimes a teacher notices something interesting and tells it without planning. On the one hand, some teachers told that they tell as many jokes and asides in both languages, but on the other hand, there are some other teachers who feel that they should prepare asides and jokes beforehand, and for that reason, they attempt to ignore all the additional ideas. The adequacy of language skills and knowledge about subject-specific vocabulary explain partly occurred deviations and asides. A teacher commented on differences between students:

*The difference between Finnish and international groups is not very big, but teaching international students contains more discussions and interaction on average. Then, you must really be present. — – Questions are raised, and you must react to them. Lessons do not follow the original lesson script as often as with Finnish students.*

Another teacher, who regarded teaching in both languages and deviations from lesson plans as similar, gave a comment on the differences between Finnish and English lessons:

*Sometimes, I perhaps give that kind of oral additional knowledge in Finnish-medium classes.*

The current study partly supports the findings of Hu and Lei (2014) who found that to mitigate the role of the English language while teaching, professors followed the lesson agenda they had prepared in advance and minimized spontaneous interaction and improvisation. This study matches partly also Airey (2011) who stated that often teaching in English results in a pedagogical change, leading to lessons with less flexibility, less jokes, asides, and real-life examples. These findings do not, however, cover all the teachers: some teachers are as flexible in both languages.
Cultural practices

The questions about cultural practices and their impact on teaching and interaction with students highlighted different issues in the interviewees’ responses, from plagiarism and different learning styles to Finnishization activities. Concerning the negative aspects, some teachers paid attention to copying and cheating in exams and assignments, and plagiarism. In contrast, a teacher also considered these unwanted actions as a question about being ignorant, as unconscious cheating: doing less can be regarded as an advantage in some cultures.

Some teachers emphasized different learning styles. Several students, for example Asians, had become surprised in exams because exams do not require learning by heart. Applying knowledge and finding new information for learning purposes challenge some students. In this context, cultural practices were joined also to the relationships between teachers and students. Several teachers had faced instances of the power distance – a phenomenon many want to eliminate. A teacher described his or her experiences in cultural representations in formal interaction:

The students, who come far from here, and many cultures have created that kind of great authoritarian position for the teacher. They have accustomed to teaching behind the lectern. In a way, they experience quite a shock, if a teacher is at the same level with them and contacts them.

The teachers were challenged with getting rid of these formal manners, and familiarizing students with informal Finnish communication style.

The biggest difference in teachers’ attitudes and behavior was perceived how the interviewed teachers treated international students. Some teachers emphasized the process of Finnishization and partly conscious efforts to teach international students Finnish cultural conventions and academic practices. In this case, lessons were held in a Finnish way, although these teachers were aware of different learners and their different backgrounds. Few teachers also maintained consciously the distance between themselves and international students. In contrast to the teaching in a Finnish way, some teachers had adopted their teaching styles and behavior towards more international approach, without conscious Finnishization actions, letting learners influence the advancement of the lessons. The difference in these attitudes cannot be explained by any special factors such as age or the number of
teaching years. An interviewee described the role of the Finnish language and Finnish cultural practices as follows:

*I prepare all my duties in Finnish, and then I just translate them into English. I do not base on students’ cultural backgrounds because you just cannot take them into account.*

Another teacher had recognized an attitudinal change:

*At the beginning of my English-medium teaching, I concentrated only on the language, Finnishization, and myself. In a kind of panic, I blocked out the international students. Then at some point, the international students broke the wall, and nowadays I recognize that instead of Finnishization, I am soaking up the international spirit.*

Many teachers were aware of inadequate knowledge about different peoples and cultures they have. Some of the teachers made even a point that organized training would be necessary. The need of cultural training is visible in the following comments:

*I had a cheating case at the beginning of my English-medium teaching career. An Asian student had cheated and got caught, and I remember how I just asked him straight: ‘have you cheated’, looking into his eyes. The student answered ‘yes’.*

*I should know more. If I had a weak point in my knowledge, it would be that cultural understanding and knowledge, and situational awareness. I should get further training. I cannot focus on that because I know too little.*

Regarding general differences between cultures, the teachers had also paid attention to international students’ concept of time, and the relationship between males and females. According to some female teachers, it is evident that some male students are unaccustomed to work with females. Furthermore, many teachers, aware of different students and their origins, regarded discretion as an important factor in discussions with international students about more difficult issues such as religion, political or environmental issues, wars, or disturbances.

The current study matches to Daniels (2013) who found that over half of the educators faced educational cultural challenges, although the findings of this study also indicate that different learners in classroom have an influence on teaching. As stated by Sawir (2013), different perspectives and experiences brought by international students enriched teaching culturally.
Organizational support

The interviewed teachers emphasized resource allocation concerning organizational support, in addition to training opportunities. At the beginning of EMI, the institution paid extra compensations for teachers i.e. allocated extra resources to EMI, compensating the extra time needed for preparation, about ten years ago. Currently, the institution deals with EMI and FMI almost similarly concerning the compensation in monetary terms i.e. hourly resources. Some teachers described that this higher resource allocation to EMI improved their willingness to EMI at that time.

During all these EMI years, language training in various forms has been offered to the interviewed teachers. Some teachers have even participated in language courses abroad, paid by the employer. Furthermore, language training is school premises has been arranged, and recently also online language training has been offered. The nature of individual decision-making about language training was described by an interviewee:

*We have been offered language training but I, definitely, haven’t had time for courses.*

Cultural training has never been offered, although some teachers were aware of that need in the interviews.

5.5 Students’ experiences in EMI

After studying few months in English, Finnish second-year students were mostly satisfied with EMI and the common level of English proficiency in class. A big majority of the second-year students described that studying in English has “gone very well”. Also, the teachers who participated in instruction this autumn confirmed the smooth advancement of instruction. Generally, Finnish students seem to have gained many positive experiences through EMI such as improved English proficiency, vocabulary improvement, and speaking skills, in addition to positive experiences in team working and successful team communication. Some students emphasized that it is positive that the system used in studying forces students to speak English actively. Moreover, students regarded it as a positive issue that students have become more courageous in speaking English, in general. A student highlighted that it
seems that most teams welcomed exchange students and now they feel as if these exchange students had always belonged to these teams. Moreover, “discussion with exchange students has been active.”

The exchange students’ experiences in studying together with Finnish students, also in small teams, have been mostly positive, even though some negative aspects have arisen. The exchange students were happy with English skills and their personal experiences. Working together with Finnish students has given an opportunity to see how Finnish people work in addition to an opportunity to learn something new about Finnish culture, the country, and the city. An exchange student described as follows:

It is a really good opportunity to get to know Finnish people better, and not only meeting other exchange students.

Moreover, also an exchange student regarded it as positive that students are forced to speak English with others.

Concerning dissatisfaction with EMI, Finnish and exchange students faced sometimes communication problems, especially at the beginning of the term. Misunderstandings on both sides caused some challenges in student teams. A lack of the adequate English vocabulary has slowed and hampered team working. Moreover, differences in working habits and language skills have caused some challenges. Additionally, “everything takes more time.” Sometimes learning a new subject or explaining issues take more time in comparison with the Finnish language. Regarding this, a Finnish student experienced that the change from FMI to EMI took place too quickly. Additionally, some students complained that because there is no exchange student in their team, their speak usually Finnish and they cannot develop their English skills while working in teams.

Opinions

In the open responses in the Finnish second-year students’ survey, a few students mentioned that the institution could hire native English-speaking teachers and invite more English-speaking visitors, to develop EMI in the institution. Moreover, more than half of the students supported the statement about hiring native teachers in OUAS (table 1). In contrast to the general opinion, a Finnish student
highlighted the importance of a teacher’s Finnish skills which is more important than native English pronunciation.

TABLE 1. Students’ opinions about EMI

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Totally agree</th>
<th>Partly agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Partly disagree</th>
<th>Totally disagree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OUAS should hire native English-speaking teachers</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>100 (n=25)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Studying in English has met my expectations</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>100 (n=25)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Studying in English requires more time to achieve the same learning outcomes</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>100 (n=24)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have improved my English skills this autumn</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>100 (n=25)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OUAS should offer students language support e.g. language counselling if necessary</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>100 (n=25)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would prefer studying in Finnish to studying in English.</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>100 (n=25)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The amount of interaction between a teacher and students have decreased this autumn</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>100 (n=25)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As table 1 presents, 76 per cent of the Finnish second-year students totally or partly agreed that studying in English has met their expectations. Additionally, 64 per cent of the students totally or partly agreed that the institution should offer students language support services if necessary. Moreover, almost half of the students (48 per cent) thought that they have improved their English skills this autumn. Concerning the statement that studying in English would require more time to achieve the same learning outcomes, the students can be divided into two categories: almost half of the students needs more time whereas the other half does not recognize that need. Furthermore, almost half of the students agreed and the other half disagreed with the statement about preference of studying in Finnish, indicating uncertainty about the language choice among the students.
The current study confirmed some earlier findings about improvements in the English language. Students experienced that EMI improved their English proficiency, as stated before by Byun et al. (2010), Seitzhanova et al. (2015) and Belhiah and Elhami (2015), although all the students did not benefit from EMI linguistically. The current study matches to Chapple (2015) who found that about half of the students benefited from EMI linguistically and about one fourth of the students did not observe any changes in their language skills.

5.6 The adequacy of language skills

Teachers’ language skills

Teachers’ language skills seem to divide the students. All the exchange students and most of the Finnish students were mainly satisfied with teachers’ language skills, in contrast to some Finnish students who have taken up a more critical attitude towards teachers’ language skills in general. Despite the slight imperfections, an exchange student was satisfied and described as follows:

Some teachers speak very good English, and even if there are mistakes, I understand what they are trying to say.

Some Finnish students, instead, were more critical, and thus, more negative feedback was presented. Mostly Finnish students regarded teachers’ English proficiency as adequate although several comments about inadequate language skills, in general, were presented. The students criticized teachers’ pronunciation, limited vocabulary, grammar, and answering questions. Moreover, students paid attention to differences between teachers’ language skills.

It seems that the most critical question concerning the adequacy of teachers’ language skills refers to understanding. It is problematic to students to attempt to understand if a teacher’s language skills do not enable clear presentations. If a student understands what a teacher is saying, despite the different accent or poor English, it does not cause any reasons for complaints, by the students. A student emphasized that teachers’ poor language skills may lead to contradictions, misunderstandings, and lower grades at the worst-case scenario. It seems that in EMI compared to FMI, it is more important that lessons have a clear structure and tasks are clearly-defined.
Learning a content seems to be more challenging if a teacher’s English proficiency is insufficient. The problems in teaching in English caused problems in learning new things, following instruction, or understanding what the main point of the lesson or the course was. Moreover, the feelings that a teacher did not understand a student’s question, remember a right word, or tell everything due to a lack of English skills caused confusion among the students. In sum, a low command of English seems to slow and hamper instruction and learning a content whereas “clear speech and language skills guide studying well,” as a Finnish student described. Two students commented as follows:

*Teachers’ language skills have caused problems to teach more complicated concepts and subjects as well as task descriptions. Teachers cannot answer students’ questions as thoroughly and competently as in Finnish either.*

*Some teachers’ language skills could be better because you cannot always make out pronunciation and all the teachers’ grammar is not the best possible. Some teachers, of course, have very good and clear English.*

According to the study, it seems that teachers’ language skills may form a major challenge for learning. As stated by Seitzhanova (2015), in addition to students’ adequate language skills, also teachers’ language skills play a significant role in EMI. The current study confirmed Evans and Morrison’s (2011) statement that lecturers’ inadequate communication skills are problematic.

**Students’ language skills**

Four fifths of the Finnish second-year students were satisfied with their own English proficiency or consider their English skills otherwise as adequate. Concerning the students’ language skills, in general, a Finnish student described that “generally, students have, anyway, quite good language skills in our group.” Some of the students felt even like being almost native English speakers.

The biggest challenges, faced by the Finnish students, concern speaking, general understanding, giving presentations, forgetting words, understanding rare words, new vocabulary, pronunciation, giving long explanations, writing long reports, and more time-consuming studying, although they did not play a significant role in studying, in general. But there were some students in class whose language skills were inadequate. A Finnish student described that their team speaks mostly Finnish because “there is a student in my team who cannot speak English.” Moreover, another student has avoided all English
communication due to feelings about uncertain pronunciation. Concerning unwillingness to speak English, a Finnish student described that “I have though tried to do my best to speak English, but mostly I am quiet and prefer listening to others.” The variation students have in their language skills was described by an exchange student as follows: “sometimes it is also difficult because all students have a different level of English”. In spite of the challenges observed in communication, another exchange student commented that “most of the Finnish students speak English very well so there are no problems in communication.”

The teachers who participated in instruction this autumn, brought out that students’ language skills in general have been adequate. A teacher commented as follows:

In my opinion, most of the Finnish students have better language skills than expected. I was really positively surprised when students gave presentations. Some students who have been reticent during lessons demonstrated their assignments very well.

Some students have proved to be willing to speak English, also in front of other students, although there were some students in class who avoided speaking English in all situations. In regard to students’ language skills in general, a teacher stated that “it’s difficult to get an overall impression about students’ language skills”. Moreover, the influence of language skills on learning outcomes is difficult to estimate. Instead, it seems that there are several bigger issues regarding students’ general advancement in studies than EMI or learning outcomes such as irregular attendance, too big a group size, students’ ability to work in teams, insufficient skills, and differences in skills between students in various teams.

The current study supports the findings of Evans and Morrison (2011) who found that students’ inability to understand a new vocabulary, often compounded by their uncertainty over the purpose and the structure of some lecturers’ presentations, caused considerable challenges for students. The current study also confirmed the findings of Hu and Lei (2014) and Seitzhanova et al. (2015) who found that one of the major problems in EMI is students’ inadequate English skills, although the problem did not play a significant role in the current study.
5.7 Students’ views about differences between EMI and FMI

Studying in English has divided the students into two categories: some students could not find any significant differences between FMI and EMI, but some students were forced to struggle to cope with studying in English. According to the students, the increased use of time, new vocabulary in various courses, a need of the higher degree of concentration, and a drop in teachers’ language skills were the most visible consequences about EMI.

Most students seemed to need more time to understand a new content and to complete various tasks and assignments. Studying in general seems to be more time-consuming. According to a student, “learning is slightly slower.” An explanation for a slower learning process may lie partly on the need of the use of a translator tool or a dictionary. A new vocabulary seemed to cause some challenges, for example in mathematics. A student described as follows:

In some subjects, a student is forced to study new terms, in addition to the subject itself.

In addition to the increased use of time and the need of translations, the change in the medium of instruction has forced students, due to many different factors, to concentrate more and to follow instruction more intensively. The current study confirmed Airey et al.’s (2017) findings that students need more time to achieve similar results compared to a native language education.

According to the students, a teacher’s language skills play a significant role in a learning process. Several students emphasized that a teacher’s English proficiency have an influence on learning, making learning difficult if the teacher is unable to express himself or herself properly in English. It seems that the change from FMI to EMI weakens the level of instruction. The students emphasized that quality of study materials and teachers’ ability to express themselves clearly influence students’ satisfaction with instruction. A student described that “the level of instruction was slightly better in Finnish”. In EMI, it seems that the level concerning teachers’ ability to communicate and answer questions in Finnish cannot be reached in English and it influences students’ satisfaction negatively.

The change in the medium of instruction may also influence students. According to the students, some students were even shier and spoke less than before, after the medium of instruction was changed
from Finnish to English. Concerning the biggest differences between EMI and FMI, a student commented as follows:

For me personally, only silence in English, I am, anyway, a shier person.

Another student described that “the biggest difference is clearly the change in the medium of instruction and confusion, caused by the change of the language, between teachers and students.” From the perspective of the positive outcomes, some students highlighted that English materials in the Internet help students complete tasks more easily, for example in programming.

5.8 The use of the Finnish language in in-class communication

Finnish communication between students

The amount of the Finnish language used in student communication in various student teams varied considerably. Some teams seemed to use mainly English in their communication whereas in some teams the amount of the Finnish language was considerably higher. An exchange student described the use of Finnish as follows:

Finnish students try to speak English all the time, but sometimes when things are more complicated, they switch to Finnish.

This statement is consistent with Finnish students’ responses. Most of the Finnish students admitted that they speak Finnish every now and then, ranging from rare to more frequently occurring daily occasions. The Finnish language has been used for many different reasons such as to ask a question, to ask for help, to get a quick response, to get a response to a personal issue, to explain something, to get language support, to solve a problem quickly, to share a personal issue with group members, to avoid misunderstandings, to repeat an issue, to answer a question presented in Finnish, to make asides, or just to chat “this and that” during a break. It seems that language skills and the need to confirm receivers’ full understanding in addition to quick solutions to current or personal issues explain the need of the Finnish language. According to a student, it is time-consuming to attempt to explain something with insufficient English. Correspondingly, exchange students have interpreted these uses
of the Finnish language to mean that Finnish students are missing a word, Finnish students want to talk really fast or explain something in Finnish that was unclear in English.

Unfortunately, it seems that in some teams, Finnish students speak Finnish “almost all the time” and “everywhere”. According to an exchange student, the Finnish language spoken also during breaks prevented exchange students from joining the company. The teams which consisted exclusively only of Finnish students used mainly Finnish in all discussions. Additionally, also other teams used Finnish, also with a teacher, if no exchange student was present.

Some exchange students considered Finnish communication as acceptable, especially if it does not happen too often, although in some cases the Finnish language made exchange students feel embarrassed. Many Finnish students affirmed that they always attempt to speak English if an exchange student in present. Regarding this, a Finnish student explained as follows:

I personally try to use English always if an exchange student is present so that they would not feel left out.

Instead, another Finnish student admitted to using Finnish although he or she knows that it is impolite to exchange students. According to the exchange students, situations become embarrassed when an exchange student feels uncertain about being an object of Finnish discussion or a reason for complaints due to different working habits. Moreover, exchange students felt confused if Finnish was used after differing opinions while completing a complicated task.

Many Finnish students, however, emphasized that after using some Finnish in team discussion, the content of discussion is translated into English and explained for foreign exchange students. A Finnish student explained as follows:

If exchange students are present, then we use English, or at first Finnish and then we translate it into English.

Translation seems to make the use of Finnish language more acceptable from the perspective of an exchange student. Moreover, an exchange student described that Finnish students switch to English
while asked. The other reasons, why exchange students accept the occasional use of Finnish, include a similar use of another foreign language between foreign students.

As one of the most significant findings, relationships between Finnish and exchange students seem to influence the use of Finnish in student teams, as described by an exchange student:

*At the first week they spoke a lot in Finnish only, but now we got to know each other better and have really nice conversations.*

Based on observations, it seems that in some teams, Finnish and exchange students have become good friends, appearing as committed student groups who spend also breaks together speaking English.

**A teacher-student interaction**

Sometimes also a teacher and Finnish students spoke Finnish in class. An exchange student mentioned that Finnish was used “quite often” when a Finnish student asked a teacher a question or a quick answer was needed. Sometimes Finnish was used also when a Finnish student had a problem in understanding a subject in English. Correspondingly, Finnish students described that mostly they have used Finnish with a teacher when they have needed personal guidance or instructions, talked about personal issues, or when a teacher spoke Finnish to them at first. Additionally, also frustration, a quick inquiry, a roll call, sudden exclamations, a need for solving a complicated problem, a total lack of understanding, or otherwise too complicated explanations were reasons for the uses of Finnish with a teacher.

Finnish students described that doubts about misunderstandings due to language skills or a lack of understanding led to Finnish discussions. Observations support students’ needs to clarify difficult subject matters. It was typical that students asked confirming questions in Finnish in class, to support their individual understanding as follows: “Tarkoittaako se sitä, että ...” (‘Does it mean that ...’). In these cases, after clarifying talk, conducted either in Finnish or in English, foreign students usually expressed by gesture or speech that they wanted to get explanation for the content of the comment or discussion they did not understand. Sometimes, the student who got a confirmation to the question presented in mother tongue, explained the content of discussion in English for foreign students. Furthermore,
foreign students have also used their own mother tongue to explain the most difficult topics to each other, in case of difficult subject matters.

Some students seemed to follow English-only policy in class and use Finnish only in more private conversations with a teacher. A Finnish student had used Finnish with a teacher before the lesson when only a few students were present. Another Finnish student explained as follows:

*If I have faced problems with a task, I usually wait until the lesson is over, to be able to ask for personal assistance in solving the problems. I do not interrupt the lesson to ask questions in Finnish.*

Translations seem to be rather important to exchange students regarding also Finnish teacher-student discussions. A Finnish student explained that he or she translates Finnish discussions with a teacher into English for other foreign group members. Regarding this, an exchange student described as follows:

*As long as these conversations or their content is translated into English afterwards, if it was important, I don't mind these small chats.*

Thus, according to exchange students, Finnish communication between a teacher and Finnish students is mostly, but not always, considered as acceptable, especially in case of personal communication. Notwithstanding, exchange students’ attitude to Finnish discussions concerning common things such as team assignments is uncompromising. Several exchange students emphasized in one form or the other that general instructions should always be given in English as well as study materials. An exchange student described as follows: “As long as it concerns every student in some way, teachers should always talk English”. It is “quite annoying” from the perspective of exchange students, if group task instructions are given or repeated only in Finnish. Sometimes also foreign students would benefit from repeated instructions in English, especially in difficult tasks. An exchange student experienced the language choice as a question of equality:

*To make everybody feel equal, everything should be in English.*

The current study matches to Evans and Morrison (2011) and Söderlundh (2013) who found that EMI does not exclude the use of the native language in communication. As stated by Evans and Morrison (2011), students use the local native language especially in answering and asking questions whereas
teachers use the native language while asking questions, giving instructions, and especially while answering questions. Although both teachers and students use mainly English, there are situations when a local native language produces a quicker result. The current study is consistent with Söderlundh (2013) who presented that students’ own and other participants’ language skills play a significant role in the choice of the language. A student’s own or a group member’s language skills explain many of the uses of Finnish in teams. The current study also confirmed the findings of Evans and Morrison (2011) who found that lecturers explained difficult or crucial concepts in the local native language to improve students’ understanding. Moreover, it was visible that communication with international students differs from communication with local students. The findings of the current study agree with Evans and Morrison (2011) who argued that local students have no, or only little need or desire to speak English among themselves, but communication with international students is different. It was typical that students chose the Finnish language without international students.

The current study also confirmed Evans and Morrison’s (2011) findings that local students are happy to communicate in English with international students for academic and social purposes. Additionally, Söderlundh’s (2013) findings about the role of social relations in the choice of the language was observed. As a new finding compared to findings presented in the literature review, the current study shed light on exchange students’ attitude to the use of the local native language. The exchange students seemed to accept the use of the Finnish language especially in personal communication, but also in other instruction-related communication if the content of discussion is translated into English for them afterwards.

5.9 Constituents of an international university

Many students think that the English language promotes opportunities for internationality which was connected to the use of English in various situations. A Finnish first-year student recognized that

*English is an important international language, and it is needed also every day, if you are in touch with a foreigner or browse the Internet where the language is English. It is good to know the basics of the language.*
English skills provide also an opportunity to work internationally in the future or go abroad. Additionally, English is needed at work. Two students commented as follows:

*It [the English language] prepares us for overseas working and nowadays, you must be international although you would work in your home country.*

*Our field [IT field] is international. That’s why it is very good that we get accustomed to the use of English.*

The strongest opinions, presented by students, tie internationality and the English language together. Two Finnish students connected the English language to internationality: one claimed that English promotes internationality, and the other stated that “the English language = internationality”.

Internationality is a rather important goal in higher education institutions and EMI can be regarded as one of the outcomes of internationalization. Nonetheless, some teachers emphasized that the English language does not make an international higher education institution. The English language was regarded as an enabler for internationality, but a genuine international university requires the presence of international students in campuses. This finding is consistent with Lasagabaster et al. (2013) who found that the most important factor in the internationalization of university is the presence of international students and different nationalities in the university. Multi-culturalism was regarded as one of the most significant benefits in the interviews. Interviewees described their opinions about internationality in a higher education institution as follows:

*Internationality does not arise from the English language, but it does not arise without the English language either.*

*Internationality arises from other languages and cultures you hear and see here.*

*When you walk here in campus, you may sense the international atmosphere when you look at the people in our corridors. There you see it.*

According to teachers, EMI is unequal to internationality, although the English language is the only option if we want to get international students here. Teaching Finnish students in English hardly promotes internationality – it can be regarded only as teaching in English. Instead, internationality is promoted most in courses where Finnish and international students could work together. For that
reason, some teachers emphasized the necessity of international degree programs. Although student exchange and teacher exchange were regarded as significant factors in internationalization, the significance of international degree programs was undisputed and more important than outcomes from different exchange programs. An interviewee described as follows:

*Unconditional prerequisite for internationality comprises the foreign-language degree programs which consist of international students who live here at least three years and a half, and they form a real part of our organization. The effect is long-lasting. They do their internship here and they live here and internationalize also our lives here. This usual exchange systems play a role of tourism. They [exchange students] come here for six months for entertainment reasons. I do not see its value for internationalization. – An international degree program consisting of multinational students. That is the main point.*

One perspective into internationalization emphasized the role of Finland in the world. According to teachers, Finland was regarded as a small country, far from everything, and the Finns need other nations. Furthermore, the city of Oulu was barely regarded as an international city. It is rather difficult for foreigners to get a job here: the Finnish language is still a significant requirement in many companies and organizations.

Interviewees highlighted some potential benefits from international students. The presence of foreigners develops also the Finnish society, and the Finns would benefit from international students. The assimilation of foreigners into Finnish society and teaching Finnish culture were regarded as an important factor, concerning the mix of cultures to make learning between cultures possible. Moreover, the effect of international degree students on Finnish students was also regarded as a significant factor. Cooperation and interaction during the studies offer benefits for Finnish students, in contrast to exchange students whose influence on local students was regarded as a small factor. According to two interviewees, awareness of the necessity of internationalization in Finland is needed:

*Finland is a very small country, and very dependent on others. Concerning the decreasing number of English-medium degree programs, we should feel a hard pressure to cooperate and participate internationally. Considering this, it is an incomprehensible decision to cease an English-medium degree program. It is true that we need others. We should have something to offer. Other countries do well without Finland where there is only about five million people.*

*This internationality in the surrounding society is a significant challenge because Oulu is not a very international place if we think that we may try to work here as internationally as possible.*
The society develops as it develops. I think it is a big issue. If you think of a lad who comes here from another side of the world, what he or she might face here. I don’t envy him.

If you take the current global development into account, we should get here more international atmosphere.

It seems that teachers value international cooperation. The questions about international higher education institution highlighted many important factors. International cooperation with other European universities was regarded as a significant option, concerning also research, development and innovation projects and common study modules which could be organized together. Participation in congresses around the world was also considered as a medium to keep up to date with global development. One interviewee emphasized strongly the acquisition of knowledge about the newest trends in the field: professional trends are more important than experiences from teacher exchange. An interviewee highlighted the degree of internationalization in Finland as follows:

We are always six months behind the professional development. Internationality is more about increasing the knowledge.

The whole society can benefit from international contacts. Networking and good relationships with foreigners were emphasized in interviews in terms of business opportunities for local companies. Some interviewees also pointed out that international students could be educated here as a form of development aid. From the economic perspective, internationalization efforts in higher education institutions mainly depend on the finance. Internationalization is boosted if the financial support is provided. An interviewee described one of the biggest benefits from internationalization:

Especially Finnish students have learnt while studying with foreigners.

5.10 A portrait of an IS student as an English speaker

According to the first-year students’ survey, 76 per cent of the respondents were males and 24 per cent females (n=84). The youngest respondent was 19 years old and the oldest 39. Of the respondents, 72 per cent are between 19 and 23 years, and the mean of age is 23. Of the respondents, 61 (73 per cent) have studied in upper secondary school (in a Finnish ‘lukio’) and 33 (39 per cent) have studied in vocational school. Some of the students have earned several degrees in general or vocational upper
secondary education. Based on the surveys, it seems that the proportion of the students who have studied in upper secondary school varies considerably between student groups: the percentages range between 57 and 91. Of the students who have taken English in matriculation exam, 70 per cent have earned at least the grade Magna Cum Laude Approbatur (n=60).

Only three students of 84 had lived abroad in an English-speaking country. One of them lived abroad for one year and other two students for three years. Four respondents had studied in English or in an English-medium school from one to three years. Seven respondents had used English actively at work for half a year to eight years. Thirty respondents had relatives or friends with whom they use English. Only, two students use English at home. Moreover, only eight of the students had experience in taking courses in English, even though all their experiences were solely positive.

As table 2 demonstrates, 93 per cent of the students read in English daily or almost daily (n=84). Other students read English texts at least few times per month. Correspondingly, 72 per cent of the respondents write in English daily or almost daily (n=83). Six students (seven per cent) write in English only monthly or more rarely. Speaking is clearly the least practiced linguistic activity. Only 33 per cent of the students speak English daily or almost daily whereas 18 per cent speak English more rarely than monthly (n=83).

TABLE 2. Students’ activity in English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>form</th>
<th>daily or almost daily</th>
<th>weekly</th>
<th>few times per month</th>
<th>monthly</th>
<th>more rarely</th>
<th>total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>reading</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>100 (n=84)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>writing</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>100 (n=83)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>speaking</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>100 (n=83)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Concerning the use of English in free time, the most frequently occurring response given by the respondents refers to games. About three fourths of the students play various English-medium games.
Most of these online and video games played by the students have been implemented in English. Then, playing a game requires an active use of English in forms of reading game instructions, game dialogs, and other texts. Moreover, players typically communicate in English while playing either by talking or by writing. One student follows also English game updates and various game communities’ discussion forums. Some students play almost daily.

According to the survey, it seems that students widely need English while browsing the Internet. Some students (about one fifth) read also books, short stories, magazines, cartoons, and news in English, but generally it seems that students’ reading encompasses only reading English websites in the Internet. Many students read also English articles or follow English-medium discussion forums. Furthermore, it seems that browsing the Internet seems to have a connection with social media and online communication. One fourth of the students use English in online communication, in various chats, forums and communities. Many students write English posts and communicate generally in English with their foreign friends.

Many students watch television and movies in English or follow English television series, some of them even without Finnish subtitles. Some students use deliberately English subtitles if they are available. Generally, also other Internet content is followed actively. Some students watch YouTube videos, videos, and livestreams, and follow vlogs and blogs, and use various streaming services. Regarding other uses of English, some students highlighted the role of the English language while using computer software which is on a large scale available only in English. Furthermore, individual students described that they sing in English, have other special hobbies where they need English, and travel.

As table 3 presents, the students regarded listening comprehension as their strongest English skill. Of the respondents, 63 per cent considered their listening comprehension skills as excellent and 35 per cent as good (n=84). Reading comprehension was almost at the same level. Of the respondents, 58 per cent regarded their skills as excellent and 39 per cent as good. About one third (37 per cent) stated that their writing skills are excellent. According to the survey, it seems that students’ weakest English skills comprise a command of the English vocabulary in the field and pronunciation. In spite of the large-scale use of the Internet and English study materials, only 10 per cent assessed their vocabulary management as excellent and about half (51 per cent) as good (n=83).
TABLE 3. Students’ self-assessment of English skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skill</th>
<th>Excellent</th>
<th>Good</th>
<th>Satisfactory</th>
<th>Tolerable</th>
<th>Poor</th>
<th>Total (n)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Listening comprehension</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>100 (n=84)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading comprehension</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>100 (n=84)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>100 (n=84)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion skills</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>100 (n=84)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking fluency</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100 (n=84)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100 (n=83)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A command of the vocabulary in the field</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>100 (n=83)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As table 3 presents, students’ discussion skills and speaking fluency are clearly weaker than listening and reading comprehension. Only about one fifth of the students assessed their discussion skills and speaking fluency as excellent whereas slightly more than 40 per cent regard them as good (n=84). Roughly speaking, about one third of the students regarded them as satisfactory. Concerning the success in English-medium studies, it is significant to notice that there were some students who have rated some of their skills either as tolerable or poor.

5.11 A portrait of an IS teacher as an English-speaker

According to the teacher interviews, three of nine interviewees were females and six males. The youngest interviewee was 43 years old and the oldest 63. The mean of age was 53 years and the average work experience was 17 years. All the interviewed teachers have experience in teaching in international English-medium degree programs where about half of the students have traditionally been of foreign origin i.e. non-Finnish-speaking students. The interviewees’ EMI experience ranged from one year to twenty years. Seven teachers have taught at least ten years in English whereas two of the interviewees have taught in English-medium programs either one or two years. Only two of the interviewees teach mainly in English. Other teachers teach, on average, one fourth of their lessons in English.

According to the interviews, teachers exercise actively their English listening skills in their free time. All the interviewees said that listening of English, including watching television, takes place daily or almost daily in their lives. Reading in English was the second most frequently rated English-medium activity.
Six of nine teachers do it daily or almost daily. Speaking and writing in free time seem to be more rare activities: two thirds of the teachers do them at least weekly.

The interviewees assessed their English skills from the professional perspective at the beginning of the interview, using the scale: excellent, very good, good, adequate, and inadequate. Most of the interviewees (6) rated their English skills at least as good in all the categories: listening, speaking and fluency, pronunciation, reading, writing, discussion, and subject-specific vocabulary. Only two teachers rated one of their skills as excellent: one in listening comprehension skills and the other in subject-specific vocabulary. One of the interviewees, who mainly rated his or her skills at least good, rated his or her listening comprehension skills as adequate. These findings, based on the background survey, support the findings obtained in the oral interviews. The teachers who considered their language skills as good or as very good stated clearly in the interviews that they regard themselves as capable of English-medium teaching without additional pressure about the adequacy of language skills.

According to the self-assessments, it seems that pronunciation, writing, and discussions skills are the most challenging skills. Instead, reading skills were mainly assessed to be in the set of the best skills. The two teachers who have taught in English less than two years, were the most critical concerning their language skills, by rating some of their skills as adequate or inadequate. It seems that experience in EMI both increases self-confidence but also develops English proficiency necessary in teaching.


6 Conclusions and discussion

The objective of this Master’s Thesis was to examine IS students’ and lecturers’ attitudes, perceptions, and experiences in EMI in a Finnish university of applied sciences, during an educational change process where EMI, previously targeted mainly for both international and Finnish students in an international English-medium degree program, was changed to cover the second academic year in a Finnish-medium IS degree program. The current study built mainly on the first implementation of EMI with Finnish second-year students.

This study gives a comprehensive view about students’ and teachers’ attitudes, perceptions, and experiences in EMI. According to the major results of this study, complete unanimity on EMI among students and teachers cannot be reached. The majority supported EMI but some opposed. Along with real benefits and drawbacks, both students and teachers listed significant reasons for and against EMI. Nonetheless, EMI has chances of succeeding in the field of IS education in the university of applied sciences in question. Students’ language skills seem to be mainly adequate, making studying in English possible, although studying in English seems to be more time-consuming. From the perspective of teachers, teaching in English is mainly successful although at the beginning teaching in English is strenuous and painful to some extent. However, it seems that the teachers, over ten years of experience in EMI, cannot find any differences between EMI and FMI, indicating the significance of the role of experience as a success factor in EMI. Moreover, this study has shown that although EMI as a phenomenon builds on internationalization, the English language does not make an international higher education institution which requires the presence of international students at university. The English language gives opportunities not only for internationalization but also for better chances of succeeding at work from the perspective of students. Additionally, the current study highlighted several other minor findings concerning the factors which influence the quality and implementation of EMI.

The data for this study was collected from multiple sources with the objective of forming a comprehensive understanding of EMI as a phenomenon and examining various factors that influence the quality and implementation of EMI in a Finnish university of applied sciences. This holistic point of view in this study serves more practical than scientific purposes but gives excellent opportunities for
further research. The multifaceted findings build on a variety of data. The first-year students’ survey provided important background information about students’ attitudes and expectations for an English-medium academic year. Teachers’ interviews covered teachers’ experiences in EMI, especially in an international degree program, as well as opinions and attitudes to the change. The surveys for the Finnish second-year students, the exchange students, and the teachers described experiences gained in EMI as well as how different elements, including student satisfaction, the adequacy of language skills, changes in studying habits, and the use of the Finnish language in communication, influenced the success of EMI in the institution. This study also revealed participants’ opinions about the constituents of an international higher education institution. Participant observation supported other data collections methods. The findings can be used for developmental purposes in the institution.

The results of the study indicate that EMI in IS education in a Finnish university of applied sciences has chances of succeeding although targets for development can be found and complete unanimity on EMI among all the involved participants – students and teachers – cannot be reached. Of the first-year students, 80 per cent adopted either a positive or unworried attitude to EMI. Moreover, a big majority of the second-year students, after studying few months in English, experienced EMI in a positive and successful way. Correspondingly, many teachers, in their expectations as well as after teaching few months in EMI, regarded EMI as a positive matter.

In spite of the positive views, 11 per cent of the first-year students regarded EMI as an oppressive or anxious issue. Regarding these negative views, to prepare first-year students for an English academic year, preparatory activities could be considered because language skills and their potential influence on learning outcomes explain most of these adverse opinions. As a solution for language-based opposition, the institution could organize preparatory English courses for those who need them or EAP courses for all students during the first academic year. In fact, 31 per cent of the first-year students would regard a preparatory English course as rather necessary or necessary (n=59). Other preparatory activities, such as language counselling or mentoring programs, could be worth considering. After studying few months in English, four fifths of the second-year students were, however, satisfied with their English proficiency although some challenges appeared. According to the study, students’
language skills do not seem to set any major restrictions for EMI implementations in the IS education in the institution.

Although chances of succeeding exist, there are still teachers and students who think that Finnish students in a Finnish-medium degree program should be taught only in Finnish. Opposing opinions about the role of the English language in the IS degree program exist. One teacher stated that “the English language should constitute a significant part of the degree – the significance of English is growing all the time”. In contrast, another teacher stated that “a Finnish student should be taught in Finnish because of an entrance to a Finnish-medium degree program. The supremacy of the English language should not be grown anymore.” Also, students presented opposing opinions about this matter. Complete unanimity cannot be reached at the moment.

A strong motivational factor for a students’ positive attitude to EMI relates to employability and the IS discipline. The students studying in IS education seem to take a positive attitude to EMI due to employability opportunities but also due to the significance of the English language in the field of education, namely in the field of IT. Many graduates from this degree program will work in the field of IT carrying out various work tasks in different organizations. IS students do not question the importance of English. Instead, students regard improvement in English proficiency during studies as important. This study has, in fact, shown that it seems that EMI is expected to bring considerable linguistic benefits to students. Students’ expectations about getting an improved command of English and better job opportunities were realized with improved English proficiency, especially in the forms of improved speaking skills, the vocabulary in the field, and successful team working experiences with exchange students. Nonetheless, EMI causes some challenges of which many are language-related: misunderstandings, communication problems, and inadequate English skills have slowed and hampered studying. Also, studying, in general, is more time-consuming.

As one of the most significant success factors in EMI, English proficiency plays a crucial role in the implementation of EMI. The most critical question concerning the adequacy of teachers’ language skills relates to understanding. Teachers’ poor language skills or other smaller deficiencies in the English language may lead to contradictions, misunderstandings, problems in learning new content, and lower grades. Clear presentations, clearly-defined tasks and lesson structures are more important in EMI than
in FMI. In fact, Finnish students regarded teachers’ language skills mostly as adequate although some rather critical comments were presented concerning pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and answering questions in class. Additionally, Finnish students had paid attention to the change of the medium of instruction from the native language to the second language: the similar capability of expression cannot be reached with the second language. For that reason, some students were disappointed. After all, the exchange students who were integrated into the same student group with Finnish students were mainly satisfied with teachers’ language skills in spite of some kind of linguistic challenges.

Furthermore, this study has shown that both students and teachers use also a local native language as a medium of communication. Sometimes also a teacher uses Finnish in class with a student. Doubts about misunderstandings due to language skills or a lack of understanding typically lead to Finnish discussions. Exchange students regarded these Finnish discussions as acceptable if the content of discussion is translated into English for them afterwards, excluding personal discussions which are acceptable in all forms. Exchange students are, however, unconditional in their opinion about teachers’ use of English regarding instruction: as long as the content of discussion concerns all the students, teachers should always speak English. Correspondingly in student communication, it seems that Finnish students speak Finnish every now and then, ranging from rare to more frequent daily occasions for several reasons of which language skills in addition to the need of confirming understanding and quick solutions explain many of these verbalizations. Regarding the use of various languages, some student teams seem to use mainly English in their communication, mainly due to a non-Finnish speaking exchange student in a team, whereas in some teams the amount of the Finnish language is considerably higher. It seems that social relationships between students explain partly the use of English in a team. Language skills, the need of confirming receivers’ full understanding, quick solutions to current or personal issues explain mainly the uses of the Finnish language in student communication.

Teaching in English seems to be strenuous, and sometimes even painful, especially at the beginning of the EMI career. Preparation for EMI lessons requires more time and linguistic aspects arise, especially at the beginning, as the needs of checking grammar, pronunciation and the use of dictionaries and other tools. This study revealed that the English language make some teachers struggle and they
become tired more easily, but over the years, the differences between the languages, and thus also the feelings of stress, excitement, a lack of self-confidence, and tiredness decrease gradually although they occasionally bother also more experienced teachers. In fact, all the experienced EMI teachers, after over ten years of experience in EMI, described that there is no difference between preparation in Finnish and in English. Furthermore, some teachers even emphasized that they feel that preparation work in English is nowadays easier because there are numerous English-medium Internet resources and articles available. Teachers acknowledged that the role of the English language in the field of IT is undisputed. The availability problems concern more often Finnish materials.

This study indicates that internationality in a higher education institution does not arise from the English language, although English was seen to promote internationality. The English language was regarded as an enabler for internationality, but a genuine international higher education institution requires the presence of international students in campus. Teachers also stated that teaching Finnish students in English hardly promotes internationality. Instead, teaching Finnish students in English can be regarded as teaching in English. This phenomenon, where a Finnish teacher teaches Finnish students in English, especially without presence of international students, was regarded as artificial and unnatural. To boost internationality in a higher education institution, it was acknowledged that the English language is the only option if international students are assumed to form a part of the group, leading to the necessity of international degree programs where Finnish and foreign students could study together. Although student and teacher exchange programs as well as other forms of international cooperation were regarded as significant factors in internationalization, the significance of international degree programs was undisputed and more important than the outcomes from different international cooperation forms.

From the perspective of multiculturalism, cultural practices and differences between cultures arise always when international students are taught. One of the most significant findings in this study concerns how teachers treat international students. Some teachers emphasized the process of Finnishization and partly conscious efforts to teach international students Finnish cultural conventions and academic practices. Then, the lessons were held in a Finnish way, although the teachers were aware of different learners and their different backgrounds. Moreover, few teachers also maintained
consciously the distance between themselves and international students. In contrast to the teaching in a Finnish way, some teachers have adopted their teaching styles and behavior towards more international approach, without conscious Finnishization actions, letting international learners and their different behavior influence instruction. To prepare and support teachers in EMI, it seems that also cultural training plays a significant role in addition to language training. Teachers’ awareness of inadequate knowledge about different peoples and cultures suggests that cultural training, as well as language training, could be necessary for lecturers teaching international students.

This study shed light on EMI in the institution, leading to better understanding of factors influencing EMI. As one of the most fundamental decisions about the ways of implementing EMI in the institution, exchange students’ integration to a Finnish group as well as the division of student teams consisting of at least one international student and Finnish students were keys for success. Another important point, regarding Finnish students’ readiness for an English-medium academic year, concerns how students demonstrate their English proficiency before entering the institution. The information about an English-medium academic year is available during the application period for the program. Moreover, no requirements for demonstrating language proficiency has been set for the program. These students’ English skills rely mainly on primary and secondary education, confirming Lauridsen’s (2016) statement about the common attitude to students’ necessary language skills in higher education.

Several findings of this study are in line with descriptions and theories presented in the literature review in chapters 2 and 3, although many of the research findings describe the situation in the institution in question. Some new aspects to descriptions and theories were found. However, some possible drawbacks in this study can be observed. This study is based on the experiences of a small and tight group of teachers in a small department and of rather homogenous groups of students. The more reliable results could be obtained by repeating the study, especially second-year student surveys, with other student groups in the future. Additionally, students’ experiences in EMI in this study are based on a rather short period of time, only first three months. The results might differ after a year in EMI.

The biggest strength of this study is the data collected from multiple sources which air a comprehensive view about EMI involving all the most important participants: teachers and both Finnish and exchange students. The results obtained from this study may correspond with situations in other IS or IT degree
programs at universities of applied sciences, but the results cannot be generalized to cover all studies at universities of applied sciences or in the IS discipline. The study could be, in fact, be expanded by studying corresponding degree programs in other Finnish universities of applied sciences. That could lead to more generalizable results concerning EMI in IS or IT education.

The research project was successful, leading to comprehensive results which satisfy the needs of the author. Although deeper examinations in only a few of the subtopics covered in this study could have been made, the author is satisfied with the holistic perspective of the research findings despite that these findings serve more practical than scientific purposes. The results shed light on EMI and illustrate the current situation in the institution but bring also new aspects to implementation of EMI in a higher education institution. This study has shown that personal attitudes to EMI including motivational factors, the adequacy of language skills, and the partial flexibility to use the Finnish language in in-class communication play a significant role in the success of EMI. Additionally, this study shed light on teaching practices and teachers’ experiences in EMI, leading to a view that differences between FMI and EMI disappear gradually over the teaching years. Furthermore, this study has shown that the English language has a significant role in IS education, but the English language does not constitute an international higher education institution. An international higher education institution builds on the presence of international students which precedes English-medium degree programs. This study gave also new aspects to teachers’ approaches to teaching of international students.
7 References


https://www.ouka.fi/documents/50085/832671/Tilastollinen+vuosikirja___/cf07d74d-f0ff-4a29-bb34-3d1863798da2


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Appendices

Appendix A. Background survey for teacher interviews.

**TAUSTAKYSELY**

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Appendix B. Interview themes for teacher interviews

HAASTATTELURUNKO / tarkastuslista

1. Miten sinusta **tuli BIT-opettaja**?
   - oma halu, valmistautuminen, koulutus, työnantajan tuki

2. Mikä BIT-opetuksessa on ollut **parasta**?

3. **Millaisia haasteita** BIT:ssä opettaminen on aiheuttanut
   - kieli, kulttuuri,

4. **Miten englanniksi opetukseen valmistautuminen** poikkeaa suomeksi opettamisesta
   - muistiinpanot / kalvot
   - valmistelun määrä
   - sanasto / ääntäminen
   - harjoittelu
   - stressin määrä

5. **Miten englanniksi opettaminen poikkeaa** suomeksi opettamisesta
   - pedagoginen muutos esim. kalvot / muu materiaalin luonne
   - sisällön määrä ja muoto
   - vitsit tai muut tarinat
   - poikkeaminen alkuperäisestä suunnitelmasta
   - yksityiskohtien tai esimerkkien menettäminen,
   - kie nellinen epävarmuus, sanojen unohtaminen, sujuvuus, epäröinti, änytys
   - kielipin miettiminen, ääntäminen, sanavalinnat
   - oppimistulokset
   - itsevarmuus / epävarmuus
   - keskustelun määrä
   - kysymyksiin vastaaminen, selittäminen
   - väsyminen ja stressi
   - kulttuurien huomiointi

6. **Opiskelijoiden kielitaito**,
   - suomalaisten kielitaito
   - ulkomaalaisten kielitaito
   - miten kommunikointi onnistuu
   - puhutko aina samalla tavalla, miten puhut opettaessasi
   - hitaus, selkeys, toisto, tarkoitukseellinen yksinkertaistaminen
   - aiheuttaako ongelmia opettajalle
   - pitääkö opiskelijoiden kielitaitoa parantaa ja miten?

7. **Miten olet huomioinut kulttuuriset tekijät** opetuksessa?
   - oletko havainnut erilaisia oppimistyylejä
   - Suomalainen opiskelukäytäntö,
8. Mitä olet oppinut opettaessasi englanniksi
   o miten vaikuttanut / muuttanut opetustasi
   o miten vaikuttanut elämänasenseisiin / mielipiteisiin
   o miten toimit vasta-alkajana / nyt, eroja käyttäytymisessä / toiminnassa

9. Mitä ajattelet jos TIK-opiskelijoita / suomalaisia opiskelijoita pitäisi opettaa englanniksi?
   o hyödyt, haasteet, kaikki osallistujat suomalaisia,

10. miten työnantajan pitäisi tukea / on tukenut englanniksi opettavia?

11. englanniksi opettamisen tärkeys
    o opettajalle
    o opiskelijoille
    o ammattikorkeakoululle
    o yhteiskunnalle

12. Mitä mieltä olet Oamkin kielipolitiikasta?
    o englanninkielisten tutkinto-ohjelmien vähentäminen
    o kaikki opiskelevat 30op englanniksi
    o vaihto-opiskelu

13. mitä mieltä olet Oamkin kansainvälistymisestä ja kansainvälisyydestä
    o mitä pitäisi tehdä

14. Onko jotakin muuta mikä ei ole noussut esille tässä haastattelussa vielä?
Appendix C. Student survey 1.

Studying in English - opiskelijakysely

1. sukupuoli
   ○ mies
   ○ nainen

2. Ikä
   ________________________________________

3. Peruskoulun päättötodistuksen englannin arvosana
   ○ 9-10
   ○ 7-8
   ○ 5-6
   ○ 4
     ○ muu, mikä
     ________________________________________
   ○ ei arvosanaa

4. Ammattioppilaitoksen päättötodistuksen englannin arvosana (tai pyöristetty keskiarvo englannin opintojaksojen arvosanoista)
   ○ 4-5
   ○ 3
   ○ 1-2
     ○ muu, mikä
     ________________________________________
   ○ en ole opiskellut ammattioppilaitoksessa

5. Ylioppilaskirjoitusten englannin arvosana
   ○ E tai L
   ○ M
C
A tai B
I
en ole kirjoittanut englantia ylioppilaskirjoituksissa tai en ole käynyt lukiota

6. Lukion päättötodistuksen englannin kielen arvosana

- 9-10
- 7-8
- 5-6
- 4
- muu, mikä
- en ole käynyt lukiota

7. Taustaa englannin kielen käyttökokemuksesta

Voit valita useita.

- olen asunut englanninkielisessä maassa, montako vuotta
- olen käynyt englanninkielistä koulua / opiskellut englanniksi, montako vuotta
- olen käyttänyt englantia aktiivisesti työelämässä, montako vuotta
- perheessäni käytetään englannin kieltä
- minulla on sukulaisia tai ystäviä, joiden kanssa käytän englantia
- muu, mikä

8. Englannin kielen käyttö vapaa-ajalla (opiskelujen ulkopuolella)

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puhuminen

9. Miten käytät englannin kieltä vapaa-ajalla? Käytätkö harrastuksissasi englantia (esim. pelit)?
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10. Englannin kielen itsearviointi osa-alueittain

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11. Oletko osallistunut opintojaksoille (pois lukien kielten kurssit), joissa opetuskielenä on käytetty englantia? Millaisia kokemuksia sinulla on englanninkielisiltä opintojaksoilta?
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________

12. Tietojenkäsittelyssä 2. opintovuosi opiskellaan kokonaan englanniksi. Millaisia ajatuksia se sinussa herättää?
(Syksystä 2017 lähtien, tietojenkäsittelyssä 2. opintovuosi opiskellaan kokonaan englanniksi.
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________

13. Millaisia hyötyjä näkisit englanninkielisestä opetuksesta ja opiskelusta sinulle olevan?
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________

14. Millaisia haasteita ja ongelmia englanninkielinen opetus ja opiskelu voisi sinulle aiheuttaa?
15. Onko englanninkieli ollut riittävässä laajuudessa mukana ensimmäisen syksyn aikana valmistamaan sinua 2. englanninkieliseen opintovuoteen?
- Englanninkieltä on ollut liikaa
- Englanninkieltä on ollut riittävästi
- Englanninkieltä on ollut liian vähän

16. Pitäisikö tietojenkäsittelyssä olla pakollinen englannin kielen opintojakso?
- Pitäisi olla pakollisena
- Pitäisi olla valinnaisena
- Englannin kielen opintojaksot ovat tarpeettomia
- En osaa sanoa

17. Jos englannin kielen valmistava opintojakso olisi keväällä tarjolla, pitäisitkö opintojaksoa tarpeellisenä itsellesi?
- Erittäin tarpeellinen
- Melko tarpeellinen
- Ei tarpeellinen eikä tarpeeton
- Melko tarpeeton
- Erittäin tarpeeton

18. Onko sinulla ehdotuksia, miten englannin kieli pitäisi ottaa mukaan 1. vuoden kevätlukukauden opintoihin, jotta se valmistaisi sinua englannin kielellä opiskeluun?

19. Vapaata palautetta englannin kielen roolista ammattikorkeakoulussa.
Appendix D. Survey for local Finnish students.

Englanniksi opiskelun kokemuksia

1. Kuinka englanniksi opiskelu on ryhmässänne yleisesti sujunut? Millaisia positiivisia ja negatiivisia kokemuksia olet havainnut?

________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________

2. Kuinka tyytyväinen olet omaan kielitaitoosi? Onko kielitaitosi riittävä? Millaisissa tilanteissa englannin kieli on asettanut haasteita?

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4. Kuinka usein ja missä tilanteissa olet käyttänyt suomen kieltä muiden suomalaisten opiskelijoiden kanssa kv-opiskelijoiden läsnäollessa?

________________________________________________________________
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________________________________________________________________

5. Kuinka usein ja millaisissa tilanteissa olet puhunut suomea opettajalle / opettajan kanssa kv-opiskelijoiden läsnäollessa?

________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________

6. Mitkä ovat mielestäsi suurimmat erot suomeksi ja englanniksi opiskelun välillä? Millaisia eroja olet havainnut eri oppiaineiden välillä?
### 7. Väittämiä englannin kielellä opiskeluun liittyen

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<tr>
<th>Englanniksi opiskelu on vastannut odotuksiani</th>
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### 8. Kehitysehdotuksia englanninkielisen opetuksen kehittämiseksi Oamkissa.
Appendix E. Survey for foreign exchange students.

Survey for foreign exchange students

1. What is your opinion about studying in English together with local Finnish students? What positive and negative experiences have you faced?

________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________

2. How satisfied are you with your language skills? Is your English proficiency sufficient? In what kind of situations have you faced challenges because of the English language?

________________________________________________________________
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3. How satisfied are you with teachers' language skills? Are teachers' English proficiency sufficient? In what kind of situations has English caused challenges for teaching?

________________________________________________________________
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4. How often and in what kind of situations have Finnish students used the Finnish language with other Finnish students when international students are present? What's your opinion about it?

________________________________________________________________
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5. How often and in what kind of situations have Finnish students spoken Finnish with the teacher when international students are present? What's your opinion about it?

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6. How English-medium instruction should be developed in OUAS in your opinion?

________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________
Appendix F. Survey for teachers participating EMI

1. Miten TIK17-ryhmän opettaminen englanniksi yhdessä vaihto-opiskelijoiden kanssa on mielestäsi onnistunut?
   __________________________________________________________________________
   __________________________________________________________________________
   __________________________________________________________________________

   __________________________________________________________________________
   __________________________________________________________________________
   __________________________________________________________________________

3. Mitkä asiat vaatisivat parantamista? Millaisia haasteita on esiintynyt?
   __________________________________________________________________________
   __________________________________________________________________________
   __________________________________________________________________________

4. Miten englannin kieli näyttäisi vaikuttaneen oppimistuloksiin?
   __________________________________________________________________________
   __________________________________________________________________________
   __________________________________________________________________________

5. Onko oma kielitaitosi tai opiskelijoiden yleinen kielitaito mielestäsi riittävä? Miten kielitaito on näkynyt käytännössä?
   __________________________________________________________________________
   __________________________________________________________________________
   __________________________________________________________________________

6. Kuinka usein ja millaisissa tilanteissa olet puhunut suomea suomalaisen opiskelijan kanssa ulkomaalaisen opiskelijan läsnäollessa?
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