Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona

Roles of English in English-Medium Instruction (EMI) University Settings in Latin America: A Transnational Multiple-Case Study

Mario Molina-Naar

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Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona

PhD Thesis

Roles of English in English-Medium Instruction (EMI) University Settings in Latin America: A Transnational Multiple-Case Study

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Dedication

To God, who gives me the strength to continue every day…

To my daughter Bianca Lucía, whose beautiful blue eyes and radiant smile light up my world.

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Mis agradecimientos los escribo en español… ¡la lengua de mis sentimientos!

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Abstract

The unprecedented changes that internationalization has initiated in higher education institutions (HEIs) all over the world have been enhanced by values such as exchange of knowledge, research cooperation, and cross-border mobility. These processes have created the need of communicating through a common language or lingua franca, which has turned out to be English. The increased presence of English in HEIs worldwide is now paving the way for a new phenomenon: English as a medium of instruction or EMI. 21st century universities are, then, multilingual or plurilingual spaces in which, various languages coexist together with English. While Latin American HEIs have embarked on the process of becoming more international and, thus, adopting EMI, there is still a dearth of information regarding the rationales and implications of implementing EMI in the region. More specifically, while the use of English in bilingual education at the primary and secondary levels has been vastly documented, at present, there are no studies which aim to examine the roles, or communicative functions, of English in EMI university settings in Latin America. This doctoral thesis has, thus, attempted to fill in this gap.

By adopting a qualitative approach, the thesis, which was framed as a transnational multiple-case study conducted in two international universities, one in Colombia and one in Brazil, aimed to gain an understanding of how EMI affects the roles that English plays in international university settings in Latin America and which specific roles, or functions, English performs in these settings. The study followed the principle of replication, so data collection included in-depth interviews with EMI professors and institutional documents in both universities. Also, national education and language policies were examined in order to gain a deeper understanding of the cases under study. The dimensions of the ROAD-MAPPING framework, and more specifically Roles of English (RoE) (Dafouz & Smit, 2017, 2020), served as a starting point for data analysis. After the iterative processing of the data, a codebook built upon a mixture of theory-driven and data-driven elements became the prime method for conducting a systematic and rigorous analysis process. The data drawn from each case we,

first, analyzed individually; then, a contrastive analysis across cases was performed.

Findings suggest that the ways in which EMI affects RoE in international university settings in Latin America are highly dependent on five factors: societal, communicational, institutional, pedagogical, and individual or personal. The first four factors were proposed by Dafouz and Smit (2017, 2020); the fifth factor emerged from this transnational multiple-case study, thus, providing evidence that RoE in EMI settings are situated and context-sensitive. In addition, seventeen (17) different RoE shaped by the meaningful discursive elements drawn from the rich conversational and documentary data emerged in this study. While there were a few differences (i.e., certain roles were present in one university, but not in the other), thirteen out of seventeen RoE (13/17) were found in both cases. Both the national context (e.g., the role historically assigned to the national language) and the institutional context (e.g., one university was private while the other one was public) were found to exert an influence on both the differences and the similarities identified in the findings.

The study also yielded to a set of pedagogical implications which may be of potential use in other EMI settings including but not limited to Latin America. First, international universities adopting EMI should recognize the value of plurilingualism from the beginning so that professors and students would not have to be under the pressure of an English-only policy. In fact, the use of the L1 in the EMI classroom has proved to enhance student learning and motivation. Second, professors teaching through English should be aware that EMI may bring about changes to their professional identities; if universities are careful enough to inform professors of this prior to the adoption of EMI (e.g., through professional development), they would be preventing feelings of inadequacy, anxiety, or frustration among professors. Last, universities which adopt EMI should offer opportunities for professors to engage in professional communities of practice (CoPs) with other colleagues who are teaching EMI courses, thus, ensuring spaces for research collaboration and peer support among professors.

Resumen

Los cambios sin precedentes que la internacionalización ha iniciado en las instituciones de educación superior (IES) alrededor del mundo han sido realzados a través de valores tales como el intercambio del conocimiento, la cooperación académica y la movilidad a través de las fronteras. Estos procesos han creado la necesidad de comunicarse a través de una lengua común, o lengua franca, la cual ha resultado ser el inglés. La alta presencia del inglés en las IES a nivel mundial ha sentado las bases para un nuevo fenómeno: la Docencia Universitaria en Inglés o DUI. Las universidades del siglo XXI son, por lo tanto, espacios multilingües o plurilingües en los que varias lenguas coexisten junto con el inglés. Aunque las IES en América Latina se han comprometido con el proceso de volverse más internacionales y adoptar programas DUI, aún hay escasez de información en cuanto a las motivaciones y las implicaciones de y para la implementación de la DUI en la región. Más específicamente, aunque el uso del inglés en la educación bilingüe a nivel de primaria y secundaria ha sido ampliamente documentado, en el presente, no hay estudios que examinen los roles, o funciones comunicativas, en contextos DUI en América Latina. Así pues, esta tesis doctoral ha intentado cubrir esta brecha.

Bajo un enfoque cualitativo, esta tesis, la cual está estructurada como un estudio de caso múltiple transnacional realizado en dos universidades internacionales, una Colombia y la otra en Brasil, apuntó a comprender cómo la DUI afecta los roles que el inglés juega en contextos universitarios internacionales en América Latina y qué roles específicos, o funciones comunicativas, tiene el inglés en dichos contextos. El estudio se acogió al principio de replicación, por lo que la recolección de datos incluyó entrevistas en profundidad con profesores que ejercen la DUI y revisión documental en ambas universidades. Asimismo, políticas lingüísticas y de educación nacionales fueron examinadas con el fin de obtener una comprensión más profunda de los casos estudiados. Las dimensiones del modelo ROAD-MAPPING, y más específicamente la de Roles del Inglés (RoI) (Dafouz & Smit, 2017, 2020), sirvieron como un punto de partida para el análisis de los datos. Después de un procesamiento iterativo de los datos, un libro de códigos construido a través de

una mezcla de elementos emergentes tanto de la teoría como de los datos se constituyó en el método primordial para llevar a cabo un proceso de análisis de datos sistemático y riguroso. Los datos obtenidos de cada caso fueron primero analizados individualmente; luego, un análisis comparativo entre ambos casos fue realizado.

Los hallazgos sugieren que las maneras en las que la DUI afecta los RoI en contextos universitarios internacionales en América Latina dependen fundamentalmente de cinco factores: societales, comunicativos, institucionales, pedagógicos e individuales o personales. Los primeros cuatro factores fueron propuestos por Dafouz y Smit (2017, 2020); el quinto factor emergió de este estudio de caso múltiple transnacional, constituyendo así una evidencia de que los RoI en programas DUI son situados y sensibles al contexto. Adicionalmente, diecisiete (17) RoI determinados por elementos discursivos significativos presentes en la riqueza de los datos conversacionales y documentales emergieron en el estudio. Aunque hubo algunas diferencias (i.e., algunos roles fueron evidenciados en una universidad, pero no en la otra), trece de diecisiete (13/17) RoI estuvieron presentes en ambos casos. Se encontró que, tanto el contexto nacional (p. ej., los roles históricamente asignados a la lengua nacional) como el contexto institucional (p. ej., una universidad era privada y la otra pública) tenían una influencia en las diferencias y las similitudes encontradas en los hallazgos.

Este estudio también produjo una serie de implicaciones pedagógicas que podrían tener potencial utilidad en otros contextos DUI incluyendo, pero no limitándose, a América Latina. Primero, las universidades internacionales que adopten la DUI deben reconocer el valor del plurilingüismo desde el principio para que así los profesores y estudiantes no tengan que estar bajo la presión de una política de sólo inglés. De hecho, se ha comprobado que el uso de la L1 en el aula DUI fortalece el aprendizaje y la motivación de los estudiantes. Segundo, los profesores que impartan sus cursos a través del inglés deben estar conscientes de que la DUI puede originar cambios en sus identidades profesionales; si las universidades tienen el cuidado de informar a los profesores sobre esto antes de adoptar programas DUI (p. ej., a través del desarrollo profesional), les estarían previniendo sentimientos de incomodidad, ansiedad o frustración. Finalmente,

las universidades que adopten programas DUI deberían ofrecer oportunidades para que los profesores se involucren en comunidades de práctica profesionales (CP) con otros colegas que impartan la DUI y, de esta manera, asegurar espacios para la colaboración en la investigación y el apoyo por pares entre el profesorado.

Resum

Els canvis sense precedents que la internacionalització ha iniciat en les Institucions d'Educació Superior (IES) arreu el món han estat realçats a través de valors com ara l'intercanvi de coneixement, la cooperació acadèmica i la mobilitat a través de les fronteres. Aquests processos han creat la necessitat de comunicar-se a través d'una llengua comuna, o llengua franca, la qual ha resultat ser l'anglès. L'alta presència de l'anglès en les IES a nivell mundial ha establert les bases per a un nou fenomen: la Docència Universitària en Anglès o DUA. Les universitats del segle XXI són, per tant, espais multilingües o plurilingües en els quals diverses llengües coexisteixen juntament amb l'anglès. Encara que les IES a Amèrica Llatina s'han compromès amb el procés de tornar-se més internacionals i adoptar programes DUA, encara hi ha escassetat de dades referides a les motivacions i les implicacions de la implementació de la DUA a la regió. Més específicament, encara que l'ús de l'anglès en l'educació bilingüe a nivell de primària i secundària ha estat àmpliament documentat, en el present, no hi ha estudis que examinin els rols, o funcions comunicatives, en contextos DUA a Amèrica Llatina. Així doncs, aquesta tesi doctoral ha intentat cobrir aquesta escletxa.

Sota un enfocament qualitatiu, aquesta tesi, la qual està estructurada com un estudi de cas múltiple transnacional realitzat en dues universitats internacionals, una Colòmbia i l'altra al Brasil, va apuntar a comprendre com la DUA afecta els rols que l'anglès juga en contextos universitaris internacionals a Amèrica Llatina i quins rols específics, o funcions comunicatives, té l'anglès en aquests contextos. L'estudi es va acollir al principi de replicació, per la qual cosa la recol·lecció de dades va incloure entrevistes en profunditat amb professors que exerceixen la DUA i revisió documental en totes dues universitats. Així mateix,

polítiques lingüístiques i d'educació nacionals van ser examinades amb la finalitat d'obtenir una comprensió més profunda dels casos estudiats. Les dimensions del model ROAD-MAPPING, i més específicament la de Rols de l'Anglès (RoA) (Dafouz & Smit, 2017, 2020), van servir com un punt de partida per a l'anàlisi de les dades. Després d'un processament iteratiu de les dades, un llibre de codis construït a través d'una amalgama d'elements emergents tant de la teoria com de les dades es va constituir en el mètode primordial per a dur a terme un procés d'anàlisi de dades sistemàtic i rigorós. Les dades obtingudes de cada cas van ser primer analitzats individualment; després, es va dur a terme una anàlisi comparativa entre tots dos casos.

Les troballes suggereixen que les maneres en les quals la DUA afecta els RoA en contextos universitaris internacionals a Amèrica Llatina depenen fonamentalment de cinc factors: socials, comunicatius, institucionals, pedagògics i individuals o personals. Els primers quatre factors van ser proposats per Dafouz i Smit (2017, 2020); el cinquè factor va emergir d'aquest estudi de cas múltiple transnacional, constituint així una evidència que els RoA en programes DUA són situats i sensibles al context. Addicionalment, disset (17) RoA determinats per elements discursius significatius presents en la riquesa de les dades conversacionals i documentals van emergir en l'estudi. Encara que va haver-hi algunes diferències (p. ex., alguns rols van ser evidenciats en una universitat, però no pas en l'altra), tretze de disset (13/17) RoA van ser presents en tots dos casos. Es va trobar que, tant el context nacional (p. ex., els rols històricament assignats a la llengua nacional) com el context institucional (p. ex., una universitat era privada i l'altra pública) tenien una influència en les diferències i les similituds trobades en les troballes.

D'aquest estudi es dedueixen implicacions pedagògiques que podrien tenir potencial utilitat en altres contextos DUA incloent, però no limitant-se, a Amèrica Llatina. Primer, les universitats internacionals que adoptin la DUA han de reconèixer el valor del plurilingüisme des del principi perquè així els professors i estudiants no hagin d'estar sota la pressió d'una política de només anglès. De fet, s'ha comprovat que l'ús de la L1 a l'aula DUA enforteix l'aprenentatge i la motivació dels estudiants. Segon, els professors que

imparteixin els seus cursos a través de l'anglès haurien d'ésser conscients que la DUA pot originar canvis en les seves identitats professionals; el fet que les universitats tinguin cura d'informar els professors sobre aquestes qüestions abans d'adoptar programes DUA (p.ex., a través del desenvolupament professional), ajudaria a prevenir sentiments d'incomoditat, ansietat o frustració. Finalment, les universitats amb programes DUA haurien d'oferir oportunitats perquè els professors s'involucrin en comunitats de pràctica (CP) professionals amb altres col·legues que imparteixin DUA i, d'aquesta manera, assegurar espais per a la col·laboració en la recerca i el suport entre iguals.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CBI	Content-Based Instruction
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning
CoPs	Communities of Practice
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELL	English Language Learning
ELT	English Language Teaching
EME	English-Medium Education
EMEMUS	English-Medium Education in Multilingual University Settings
EMI	English-Medium Instruction
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
HEI(s)	Higher Education Institution(s)
IaH	Internationalization at Home
ICLHE	Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education
IHE	Internationalization of Higher Education
IoC	Internationalization of the Curriculum
L1	First Language (mother tongue)
L2	Additional/Foreign Language
MoE	Ministry of Education
RoE	Roles of English
ROAD-MAPPING	Roles of English. Academic Disciplines, (language) Management, Agents, Practices and Processes, Internationalization and Glogalization

LIST OF FIGURES AND TABLES

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

The internationalization of higher education (IHE) has brought about unprecedented changes to universities worldwide (Beelen & Jones, 2015b; de Wit et al., 2015). The construction and exchange of knowledge through research cooperation and international mobility programs as well as the unrelenting use of technology on a daily basis has spurred the need for easy and effective communication across borders. English as the global language of academia has facilitated communication processes among scholars and students who do not share the same mother tongue and, thus, turn to English as their preferred or only vehicle for communication (Seidlhofer, 2005, 2011, 2017). As a result, the use of English as a lingua franca has become a common denominator in many higher education systems around the world (Jenkins, 2006, 2014).

Due to the increased use of initiatives which target internationalization at home (IaH), the use of English in the classroom is increasingly becoming a common practice in universities which not only seek to open their doors to international students but also attempt to provide meaningful opportunities for local students to have international experiences without leaving their own institutions (Escobar Urmeneta, 2018, 2020; Escobar Urmeneta & Evnitskaya, 2013; Pérez-Vidal, 2015; Pérez-Vidal & Llanes, 2021). Once again, English as a lingua franca and as the language of international higher education makes it possible for teaching and learning processes involving professors and students from multilingual and multicultural background to happen. Hence, the use of English as medium of education or instruction in international universities is in currently vogue (Dearden, 2014; Macaro, 2015, 2018; Macaro et al., 2018).

In the 21st century, universities are considered multilingual spaces in which various forms of multilingualism involving various actions and actors occur (Smit, 2018). Thus, the presence of English as a medium of education in multilingual university settings, also known as EMEMUS (Dafouz & Smit, 2016) is now a reality in many world regions, and this is confirmed by numerous research studies. After the Bologna Declaration and the subsequent emergence of the European Higher Education Area, English-medium programs as part of

internationalization initiatives began to proliferate in European universities (see Bowles & Murphy, 2020; Wächter & Maiworm (eds.), 2014). At the turn of the new millennium, too, Asian governments started to encourage the incorporation of English-medium programs in universities in quest of internationalizing their higher education systems and, thus, attain more visibility and prestige (see Duong & Chua, 2016; Rose & McKinley, 2018). Along the same lines, during the past decade, Middle Eastern universities have entered the English-medium education scene by offering academic programs taught through English, often in cooperation with universities from anglophone countries (see Curle et al., 2022; Yuksel et al., 2022)

The panorama in Latin America is, at present, quite different since there is still a dearth of information on the topic in comparison with other world regions. While CLIL experiences, especially in elementary and secondary education, have been reported by the literature for years now, the use of English-medium instruction (EMI) in Latin American universities did not begin to be documented until very recently. To date, studies on EMI experiences have been published by scholars in Argentina (see Banegas et al., 2020), Brazil (see Guimarães & Kremer, 2020; Martinez, 2016), Chile (see Salomone, 2019), Colombia (Cortés Medina, 2020; Miranda & Molina-Naar, 2022; Tejada-Sanchez & Molina-Naar, 2020), and Mexico (Escalona Sibaja, 2020; Worthman, 2020). Studies produced in Latin America, thus far, have reported on the design of professional development courses for EMI instructors, students' perceptions after EMI experiences, and the connection between EMI and IaH processes.

Interestingly, while Spanish and Portuguese are the official languages of the vast majority of Latin American nation-states, English as a foreign language has, without any doubt, a very important role in Latin American societies and education systems. At the national level, inter-national transactions via English are associated with socioeconomic power, prestige, and growth (Cronquist & Fiszbein, 2017; Fiszbein et al., 2016). Additionally, in the labor market, English is often seen as a means for career advancement while, in the academic world, English is considered a passport to access knowledge (de Mejía, 2002, 2004, 2006). Hence, it comes as no surprise that there is an exponential growth of EMI

programs in Latin American universities just like it began to occur in other world regions one or two decades ago.

The roles that English as a foreign language play in Latin American societies, national economies, and education systems, especially at the elementary and secondary school levels, have been widely documented by the literature. However, to what extent have these roles, or communicative functions, of English in international university settings been examined in the region? How does the recent incorporation of EMI in higher education institutions (HEIs) affect the roles that had historically been assigned to English in Latin American education? What specific roles does English play among professors and students who take part in EMI programs? Thus far, these questions had remained unanswered; nonetheless, this doctoral dissertation is now attempting to fill in this gap.

By adopting a qualitative approach, this doctoral dissertation, which is framed as a transnational multiple-case study (Creswell, 2013; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2018) conducted in two international universities in Latin America, one in Colombia and one in Brazil, attempts to answer the following two main research questions (RQs): (RQ1) ***How does EMI affect the roles that English plays in international university settings in Latin America?*** and (RQ2) ***What functions does English perform in EMI in two international university settings in Latin America? How are these functions similar? How do they differ?*** Two sub-questions emerged from each main RQ; these will be presented in Chapter 3.

Data collection included in-depth semi-structured interviews with professors teaching their courses through English and official documents issued by the two participating institutions. The researcher had the opportunity to be physically present in both the Colombian university and the Brazilian university, collect the data in situ, and thus, experience that sense of being there, which is of major relevance for case study researchers (Yin, 2009, 2018). As for the method of data analysis, the dimensions of the ROAD-MAPPING framework (Dafouz & Smit, 2020) served as a starting point for codes and categories which were later refined and enriched with other codes that emerged from the data. After the iterative processing of the data, the first result from this thesis was,

thus, a codebook built upon a mixture of theory-driven and data-driven analyses. This codebook became the prime method for conducting a systematic and rigorous analysis of the data collected in this thesis.

Since the participating universities are located in different countries where different national languages are spoken, examining national education and language policies was of prime importance. Also, because of its nature as a case study, understanding and reporting on the characteristics of the national and institutional contexts was highly relevant for the effective development of this research. The review of the relevant literature and the collection of data happened between 2019 and 2020 while the data analysis process took part between 2020 and 2021. Finally, the writing of the transnational case report, or thesis dissertation, was carried out between 2021 and 2022. The organization or structure of this thesis dissertation will be summarized below.

Chapter 2 presents the review of literature conducted for this study. The chapter begins by discussing processes which are inherent to the internationalization of higher education such as internationalization at home and internationalization of the curriculum, and how they have been undertaken in Latin American universities. The status of English as a lingua franca in academia and research as well as its extensive use in bilingual education models are explained, too. Along these lines, the emergence of EMI as a relatively new phenomenon in higher education is described and exemplified by reporting on the state of art, which includes studies carried out in four world regions. Finally, the ROAP-MAPPING Framework and its dimensions, more specifically, Roles of English and its incidence in EMI are discussed in detail.

Chapter 3 presents the objectives and research questions that guided this study while Chapter 4 sets out the description for the methodological approach and analytical method adopted throughout the development of the thesis. Important decisions such as the sampling criteria, the characteristics of the participants, and the data collection techniques are presented, too. Detailed descriptions and specific examples of how the method for data analysis was undertaken are presented as well. Chapter 4 ends with an explanation of the

ethical considerations adopted in order to keep research rigor, integrity, and trustworthiness.

Chapter 5 and Chapter 6 focus on the analysis and discussion of the findings drawn from each case: the case of Colombia (Case 1 University) and the case of Brazil (Case 2 University) respectively. Chapter 5 and Chapter 6 adopt the very same organization and methodological approach; they are both are divided into two main sections. The first section provides a comprehensive and detailed overview of the case under research from two different perspectives: the national context and the institutional context; thus, official documents are analyzed in light of the relevant literature. The second section mainly focuses on the report of the results and analysis of the interviews. In order to validate all of the claims and interpretations made by the researcher in both chapters, relevant studies are always cited.

Chapter 7 presents a contrastive analysis based on the findings discussed in each case in Chapter 5 and Chapter 6. This cross-case analysis was performed by considering some aspects discussed by Dafouz and Smit (2017, 2020) regarding roles of English. Thus, after identifying consisting and divergent patters between the two cases under study, a corpus of seventeen (17) different roles of English emerged. It is important to mention that the emergent roles of English in the two university settings were mainly shaped by the participants' discourse in the interviews. As usual, relevant studies were quotes in order to validate the claims and interpretations made by the researcher.

Finally, Chapter 8 provides the conclusions drawn from the study. First, the main findings of the study are presented by addressing each research question; hence, the relevant data which were analyzed and discussed in the previous chapters are brought up. Then, the pedagogical implications or recommendations for future EMI studies are presented. Finally, the limitations experienced during the research as well as a set of closing remarks are included.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Chapter Overview

Chapter 2 provides an account of the literature review carried out in this dissertation. First, internationalization as the bearer of major changes in 21st century HEIs is discussed and the evolution of the concept throughout the years is outlined. Then, two important concepts which changed the perspective of internationalization in HEIs at the turn of the new millennium are explained: Internationalization of the Curriculum (IoC) and Internationalization at Home (IaH). The challenges and opportunities that they have posed in Latin American higher education are described as well.

Moreover, the status of English as a global language and its role as the lingua franca of international higher education are discussed. Also, since English plays a major role in Latin American education, the chapter presents its existence within bilingual education models as well as how it conflicts with minority languages in the region. Well-known bilingual education models in which English plays a major role such as CLIL, CBI, and ICLHE are described. Along these lines, EMI as an emergent phenomenon in HEIs worldwide is presented and a brief state of the art is provided.

The chapter widely discusses the ROAD-MAPPING framework and its use as a tool to describe and analyze the development of EMEMUS (English-Medium Education in International University Settings). The various factors affecting the roles of English within international universities are discussed and illustrated, too. The chapter ends with a brief summary of the concepts discussed in this literature review.

2. Internationalization of Higher Education (IHE)

At the turn of the new millennium, the internationalization of higher education (IHE) became a growing phenomenon worldwide. While overseas student and staff mobility tended to be equaled to internationalization until very recently, universities are now embracing internationalization activities, including international curricula, as a priority within their institutional plans. This section

provides an overview of the characteristics and development of IHE in general and in Latin America.

2.1 Definition and brief historical overview

The definition of internationalization in higher education has evolved during the past forty years. While the term had been used in politics for centuries, its popularity in education, mainly as a set of institutional activities, reached its peak only after the 1980s (Knight, 2004). In 1992, Arum and van de Water defined internationalization in education as "the multiple activities, programs, and services that fall within international studies, international education exchange and technical cooperation" (p. 202). Two years later, Knight (1994) detached from the idea of internationalization as a set of activities at the institutional level and proposed a more integrative concept, a process, in which "an international and intercultural dimension into teaching, research and service functions of the institution" coexisted (p. 7).

By the early 2000s, authors continued to see internationalization as an integrated process rather than a compendium of isolated activities. Söderqvist, (2002) acknowledged that the genesis of internationalization at any higher education institution (HEI) was its national context and, its subsequent drive, a desire to include "an international dimension in all aspects of its holistic management in order to enhance the quality of teaching and learning and to achieve the desired competencies" (p. 29). Recognizing that the needs, drives, and purposes for internationalization vary significantly across nations and across institutions, Knight (2003) proposed a broader definition: "the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education" (p. 2).

The popularity of IHE have prompted experts to demythify the concept as well as the actions typically associated with it. By presenting a set of misconceptions, de Witt (2011) clarifies that internationalization is not the same as teaching through English, teaching international subjects, or studying abroad. The author also debunks widely accepted beliefs such as the idea of internationalization being measured by the number of international students or

the international agreements that a university has and the misconception that assessing intercultural and international competences is futile and unnecessary.

During the second decade of the 21st century, internationalization processes in universities continued to grow exponentially. Student and faculty mobility, cross-border research collaboration, institutional cooperation and development, and language learning are some of the main motivations which, together with the advantages of virtual mobility and exchanges provided by the Internet, have spurred the growth of IHE (Hudzik, 2011). According to the 5th International Association of Universities (IAU) Survey, internationalization is a priority for the mission and strategic plans of the vast majority of universities; thus, they have adhered to the trend of developing clearly defined internationalization policies at the institutional level (Marinoni, 2019).

While traditional internationalization-related activities such as recruiting international staff and promoting outward student mobility continue to be part of many of the current institutional policies, plans, and initiatives, the local students are now being the target of the phenomenon. Hence, as stated in the 5th IAU Survey, internationalization of the curriculum (IoC) and internationalization at home (IaH), two important actions for the IHE, are currently being put in place (Marinoni, 2019).

Within IHE, the inclusion or emulation of foreign models in education, especially those associated with the Western world (Leask, 2015; Smit & Dafouz, 2012), as well as the desire to commercialize education and attain prestige (Knight, 2018) have provoked widespread criticism. The adoption of languages other than the national language, specifically English as a medium of instruction, has also been a controversial issue, especially because some universities located in non-English speaking countries might be using English-medium programs to increase their rankings and financial revenue (Dafouz & Smit, 2016; Macaro et al., 2018; Wilkinson & Walsh, 2015).

2.2 Internationalization at home and Internationalization of the Curriculum

As it is widely known, the start of the 21st century brought major changes in education across the globe. This was especially true in Europe, where the

Bologna Declaration of 1999 set a group of principles in higher education, including mutual recognition of degrees, student and staff mobility, lifelong learning, and quality assurance. The high influx of international students and faculty members all over European universities gave way to a new form of internationalization within the universities themselves. Thus, the concept of internationalization at home (IaH) (Nilsson, 2003), understood as "any internationally related activity with the exception of outbound student and staff mobility" (Crowther et al., 2000, p. 6) emerged.

In his article, *Internationalisation at Home from a Swedish Perspective: The Case of Malmö*, Nilsson (2003) described in detail how his university, founded in 1998, just one year before the Bologna Declaration, began its journey to internationalization. Under IaH as an umbrella term and the main drive for these activities, Nilsson explained how the university embarked on a set of specific actions such as creating a strategic plan for internationalization, increasing the English language proficiency of students and staff, doubling the offer of English-taught programs, and developing curricula which target international and intercultural competencies. The incorporation of international curricula in universities, then, gave way to another widely known concept: Internationalization of the curriculum (IoC).

In 2000, Crowther et al. described and discussed the elements of an internationalized curriculum; according to the authors, an internationalized curriculum "gives international and intercultural knowledge and abilities, aimed at preparing students for performing (professionally, socially, emotionally) in an international and multicultural context" (p. 22). By 2003, Nilsson had already explained that his university, the University of Malmö in Sweden, was incorporating the professional, social, and emotional dimensions into their curricula. Examples included the provision of mandatory and elective courses dealing with topics such as immigrant policy and cultural differences as well as problem-based learning within the context of multicultural societies.

By the second decade of the 21st century, the concepts of IaH and IoC had evolved. IaH was redefined as "the purposeful integration of international and intercultural dimensions into the formal and informal curriculum for all

students within domestic learning environments" (Beelen & Jones, 2015b, p. 69). Likewise, IoC actions began to be seen from both the formal and informal dimensions, so the concept was redefined as "the incorporation of international, intercultural, and/or global dimensions into the content of the curriculum as well as the learning outcomes, assessment tasks, teaching methods, and support services of a program of study" (Leask, 2015, p. 9).

Twenty years after the terms IaH and IoC originally emerged, they are still in vogue. Beelen and Jones (2015a) explain that, at present, IaH and IoC get the entire student population involved; focus on the teaching and assessment of international and intercultural competencies; are present in both formal and informal curricula, not just in elective courses; are not dependent on the presence of international students; and do not necessarily imply the existence of English-taught programs. As such, both IaH and IoC are essential components of the strategic plans in HEIs all over the world. This is truer now that universities in regions outside of continental Europe, namely Asia, the Middle East, and Latin America, are becoming increasingly internationalized.

2.3 The Internationalization of Higher Education in Latin America

By the mid-2000s, Latin American scholars were concerned about the status and implications of IHE in Latin America. In their 2005 research-based book, de Wit et al. presented some of the main actions and challenges that were being led and experienced by seven countries which made up 90 percent of the Spanish- and Portuguese-speaking population in the region: Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, Mexico, and Peru. In the same book, Gacel-Ávila et al., (2005) discussed issues which are inherent to international higher education, namely the types of institutional agreements adopted by universities in each country, the growth of inward and outward student and staff mobility, and the importance of cross-border networking in research and teaching.

Gacel-Ávila et al. (2005), too, argued that, at the time, very little had been done to internationalize academic curricula in most Latin American HEIs. A few actions were the creation of undergraduate and graduate joint programs; the incorporation of new technologies into curricula; and the existence of some

collaborative research projects, mainly in private institutions. The authors, too, discussed the teaching of foreign languages, particularly English, and the provision of academic programs taught through English as key actions present in internationalized university curricula at the time. Last, the authors identified various opportunities such as the inclusion of quality assurance measures within internationalization plans and the emergence of more intraregional alliances and cooperation agreements which, in the long run, would seek to strengthen the Latin American sense of cultural and linguistic identity.

Despite the progress made and the opportunities presented, the internationalization of Latin American higher education still has a long way to go. A decade ago, Gacel-Ávila (2011) described it as "an emerging trend" representing both "risk and barriers" (p. 1). She posed the lack of government support and the absence of national policies as major obstacles for the development and growth of internationalized higher education models in the region. Interestingly, together with limited IoC initiatives, Gacel-Ávila also presented the low levels of language proficiency in the region as significant barriers for the IHE, something that has been widely discussed in international reports aiming to measure the language proficiency levels in Latin American countries, including Colombia and Brazil (British Council, 2015a; Cronquist & Fiszbein, 2017; EF EPI, 2021).

A study entitled *Internationalization of Higher Education* (de Wit et al., 2015) reported that, while low- and middle- income countries are now actively attempting to produce internationalization policies and enhance South-South agreements, the adoption of Western paradigms and a heavy focus on mobility in universities are still issues present in the higher education systems of these countries. In the same document, which is a compilation of the status of internationalization in several countries, other authors report on IHE in Colombia and Brazil by describing actions which have been undertaken at both the institutional and national levels. To assess how much progress has been made in terms of IHE in Colombia and Brazil, these actions will be contrasted with studies carried out in both countries over the past twenty years.

Jaramillo (2005) outlined a number of factors responsible for holding the internationalization of Colombian higher education back: limited proficiency in foreign languages, lack of financial support, poor planning, inflexible curricula, rigid or nonexistent policies, and the absence of a mutual recognition system for degrees obtained abroad. The lack of a national policy continues to be an issue at present; nonetheless, institutional efforts, namely the establishment of internationalization offices, an increase in the number of universities which have adopted policies, and their participation in various cooperation programs including Erasmus+ and *Alianza Pacífico* are important advances (Henao & Velez, 2015). Evidence of this is seen in the internationalization policies of two private Colombian universities: *Universidad Católica de Colombia*, whose policy was enacted in 2017, and *Universidad La Gran Colombia*, enacted in 2021; these were openly accessible on the Internet, so they were chosen randomly. Both institutional policies include IoC guidelines, mobility, and international research cooperation as strategic areas in their plans.

The status and development of internationalization in Brazilian higher education is, however, very different from that of Colombia as the federal government, through the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Science and Technology, and the Ministry of Foreign Relations, have been the main promoters of IHE in the country for decades (Laus & Morosini, 2005). The existence of exchange and cooperation programs since the 1960s, especially at the graduate level, make the IHE in Brazil relatively strong and structured in comparison with other countries in the region. Despite this, studies report low engagement of universities in the development of institutional policies (Neves & Barbosa, 2020) and a limited number of international students in universities (Junqueira & de Moraes Baldrighi, 2020). The same as Colombia, Brazil does not currently have a national policy for the IHE as such; however, the National Education Plan (*Plano Nacional de Educação*) 2014-2024 does discuss issues such as mobility, international networking, and knowledge exchange with overseas organizations.

3. The Status of English as the Language of International Higher Education

The accelerated growth of English in the different cultural, economic, educational, and political systems in virtually every corner of the world has positioned it as a dominant and powerful language at various levels. Particularly in higher education, the status of English as a lingua franca has expanded its use and awarded unprecedented roles to it in universities. This section provides a brief overview of the current status of English as a global language and as the lingua franca of international higher education.

3.1 English as a Global Language

The last decade of the 20th century brought about many changes around the world, especially due to the boom of the Internet and its influence on local cultures. Education was, indeed, one of the areas in which the extensive use of the Internet for teaching and research purposes led to high-impact changes. The higher education arena, in which knowledge is built through research, saw the need to undergo rapid changes, including the need of using a common language, or lingua franca, for the construction and dissemination of such knowledge. As early as 1990, authors were talking about the importance of English for academic purposes, its relevance as a discourse community, and its rise as the language of science and research (Swales, 1990).

Before the end of the decade, authors were already discussing the prevailing role of English around the world. In order to explain why English had achieved such status, Crystal (1997) published the first edition of his book *English as a Global Language*, in which he explained the advantages and disadvantages of adopting a global language and discussed the role of English in politics, education, communication, and its legacy in various cultural spheres. At the same time, in his book *The Future of English?* Graddol (1997) attempted to anticipate what the implications and consequences of the rapid growth of English would be during the next 50 years.

In their widely known books, David Crystal and David Graddol presented different opinions about the foreseeable future of English in terms of development and use; while Crystal claimed that the presence of English in the

sociocultural and sociopolitical spheres of nations around the world would, without any doubt, grow exponentially during the next few decades, Graddol argued that the future of English was unpredictable and that, by no means, it would be the only influential language within a 50-year period. Nonetheless, both authors did agree on one idea: English as medium of education or instruction would be used as a propellant for international higher education and economic growth in emerging countries.

At the turn of the 21st century, the vast expansion of English had led researchers from the field of linguistics to talk about concepts such as "New Englishes" (Crystal, 2003), "World Englishes" (Kirkpatrick, 2010), and "English as a Lingua Franca" (Jenkins, 2006; Seidlhofer, 2005). By coining and/or disseminating the use of such concepts, scholars were attempting to explain not only how new regional varieties of English embracing various syntactic, lexical, and semantic nuances were being formed but also how the new functions of the language were heavily shaping new cultural, political, and education systems around the world. Particularly, the idea of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) began to produce echo in higher education since its role was deeply associated with the internationalization of universities worldwide.

It is important to acknowledge that many of these notions emerged from Braj Kachru's seminal work on the use of English worldwide, particularly from his Model of World Englishes (Kachru, 1985). In this model, three circles conform the large diaspora of English speakers around the world: The *Inner Circle*, made up of countries where English is the language of the majority of the population (e.g., England and Australia), the *Outer Circle*, made up of countries where English is spoken as a result of former British colonialism (e.g., India and Nigeria), and the *Expanding Circle*, made up of countries and jurisdictions where English is used for very limited purposes in daily life, but it is studied as a foreign language. It is in expanding circle countries such as Brazil and Colombia where English is now being implemented in scenarios in which it was not historically present (e.g., as a medium of instruction in higher education).

3.2 English as a Lingua Franca in Higher Education

As discussed earlier, cross-border research, overseas cooperation, and academic mobility have become the bearers of the IHE during the past twenty years. The use of a common language, specifically English, has also developed in tandem with the internationalization plans of universities worldwide. These new trends in education, which took off at the turn of the 21st century, opened a niche for research on the use of English as a lingua franca (ELF) in the higher education sector. In fact, despite some criticism, English is, at present, considered the language of international higher education (Jenkins, 2014, 2015).

In her book *Understanding English as a Lingua Franca*, Seidlhofer (2011) defines ELF as "any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice" (p. 7); this definition was a major contribution since research done on ELF during the first decade of the 21st century apparently excluded English native speakers because they were not considered to be the primary users of ELF. While Seidlhofer's work acknowledged that English native speakers also used ELF as a vehicle for intercultural communication, she also challenged the role of native-speakerism and linguistic imperialism. After all, non-native speakers of English today outnumber native speakers (Crystal, 2003).

At the time Seidlhofer's book came out, international organizations were, too, studying the role of ELF in academia and higher education. The Changing Academic Profession (CAP) survey taken by 25,000 academics based in 18 countries reported that more than 50 percent of the surveyed people used English for their academic activities, particularly in research (Rostan, 2011). Years later, scholars argue that, since the current status of English is that of the international language of science and research, HEIs around the world, especially those in non-Anglophone countries, are highly encouraging publications in English in order to increase their visibility and rankings (Ammon, 2013; Bocanegra-Valle, 2013; Mauranen, 2015; Raitskaya & Tikhonova, 2020).

The CAP survey results from 2011 also showed an increase in the use of ELF in university classrooms, especially among scholars from expanding circle

countries in Europe such as Finland and Norway, in which English-medium programs began to flourish since the 1990s. These individuals associated the use of English-medium courses in their universities with a desire to attract international students and offer opportunities for local students to enhance their language skills (Rostan, 2011). These findings were consistent with Wächter and Mayworm's (2014) study, in which an exponential rise in the number of English-taught programs in European universities was reported. Rostan (2011) also described the use ELF in the classroom as an emerging trend among a small number of scholars based in Asia (China and Japan); as for Latin America (Argentina, Brazil, and Mexico), participants reported that they hardly ever or never used English in their professions

Despite the accelerated growth of ELF in higher education systems all over the world, there are always voices calling for multilingualism. Crystal (2003) claimed that, if 500 years from now English is "the only language left to be learned, it will have been the greatest intellectual disaster that the planet has ever known" (p. 191). Fortunately, ELF itself as a source of pragmatic strategies used by speakers of different languages who engage in intercultural dialogues (Graddol, 2006) recognizes the existence of multiple languages as well. Seidlhofer (2017) advocates for a view of ELF as a rich and pluralistic legitimate form of communication which, together with multilingualism, produces this harmonious, not conflicting, relationship among its users. This view also places English far from the monolithic status that native-speakerism awarded to it well into the 20th century.

4. Bilingual Education in Latin America

This section provides information about the development of bilingual education, including education in minority languages, in Latin American countries. As expected, it also discusses the status of English as a predominant foreign language (L2) in the education systems of countries in the region.

4.1 Bilingual Education in Minority Languages

The genesis of bilingual education in present-day Latin America must be ascribed to colonization back in 15th and 16th centuries, when European

conquerors, in the name of religion, first learned the local languages of the Indigenous peoples and, then, taught them Latin, Spanish, and Portuguese (de Mejía, 2005). Throughout the next 300 years, Spanish and Portuguese positioned themselves as the official languages of the majority of the population and have had this privileged status even after the new nation-states gained their independence in the early 1800s (Hélot & de Mejía, 2008). A handful of Indigenous languages survived colonization; others, however, simply died. The value of Indigenous, or minority, languages was vindicated by many Latin American nation-states between the 1970s and 1990s with the enactment of new laws and policies and the amendment or adoption of new constitutions (M. E. García, 2005; Hamel, 2008; Mello et al., 2018).

Among all Latin American nations, the efforts made by the Brazilian government to recognize linguistic and cultural diversity are remarkable. The country changed its constitution in 1988 and, after more than 200 years of stigmatization and invisibilization of the Indigenous communities and their languages, vindicated their cultures and rights as citizens of Brazil (Guilherme & Hüttner, 2015; Mello et al., 2018; Santos et al., 2019). In 1998, the National Curriculum Framework for Indigenous Schools, which outlines the guidelines for Indigenous education in the different subject areas, was introduced. This is a major achievement since around 0.4% of Brazilians self-identify as indigenous (Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística [IBGE], 2010) and, as such, speak one or more of the 180 native languages spoken in Brazil (Rodrigues, 2014). Studies have reported on successful indigenous education experiences including those attempting to democratize access to knowledge through technology (Gava & Jorge, 2013) and to enhance Indigenous communities' histories, identities, and roles in the society (Neto, 2014; Russo & Barros, 2016).

Concerning education in minority languages in Colombia, the investment of resources and progress have been slower and less evident. While Colombia, with its 65 indigenous languages, two Creoles, and membership in the Deaf and Romani communities is among the most linguistically diverse Latin American countries (Valencia Giraldo et al., 2022), ethnoeducation, a model of bilingual

education (Native Language/L1 and Spanish/L2) for the Indigenous and minority communities (Guzmán Munar, 2010), has been poorly implemented.

The General Law of Education (*Ley General de Educación*) of 1994 mandate that the government support ethnoeducation through teacher training, curriculum and material design, and research; nonetheless, at present, there are no national guidelines such as those in Brazil (Alonso Cifuentes et al., 2018; García Araque, 2017). Together with UNICEF, the Colombian National Ministry of Education (MoE) has recently launched community projects and teacher training programs to improve the quality of ethnoeducation in the country (UNICEF, 2020). With the support of international organizations, the Colombian MoE is, thus, attempting to offer quality education for Indigenous and minority communities in the country.

As historians, anthropologists, and other social scientists may well agree, the concept of Latin America has, since its origins, entailed an amalgamation of ethnicities, languages, and cultures. This is still reflected in its education systems, in which two forms of bilingual education can be recognized: intercultural bilingual education (IBE) for children belonging to Indigenous communities and elite bilingual education (EBE), in which people can learn widely spoken European languages such as French, German, and English (Hamel, 2008). However, the added value of the development of instructional models that use Indigenous languages as a vehicle for instruction is not always sufficiently recognized by Latin American policy-makers, the leading classes, or even the societies themselves. While EBE, as an education model involving powerful and "internationally prestigious languages" is seen as "a socially-accepted form of bilingualism leading to the possibility of employment in the global market-place", IBE is, unfortunately, frequently associated with "underdevelopment, poverty and backwardness" (de Mejía, 2006, p. 154).

4.2 Bilingual Education in English and English Language Learning (ELL)

EBE involving English and the national language is the most common type of bilingual education in Latin America, especially because of the widespread idea that English is necessary to become more competitive in the current job market

and, thus, ensure economic growth (Fiszbein et al., 2016). Interestingly, English language learning (ELL) shows a gender gap in the region; while women's English proficiency has been declining since 2014, men's proficiency has increased during the same period (EF English First English Proficiency Index [EF EPI], 2021). At present, Latin America has, in fact, the second largest gender gap in terms of ELL among all world regions (EF EPI, 2021)

According to Cronquist's and Fiszbein's report (2017), the countries in the region have made efforts to improve the quality of English teaching over the past years; they have produced learning standards, created plans and strategies, and allotted resources to improve ELL. There are plenty of ELL programs to which the general population can access; however, these are mostly offered by the private sector. As for higher education, English is often not compulsory in most Latin American HEIs. Some countries such as Peru, Ecuador, and Colombia have included regulations for ELL at the tertiary level in the form of national policies or language exit exams; nonetheless, ELL in universities lacks a cohesive strategy in most countries (Cronquist & Fiszbein, 2017).

In addition, Conquist & Fiszbein (2017) reported that the lack of qualified teachers and the persistent low levels of proficiency among students represent significant barriers for the development and growth of ELL in Latin America. Five years later, low proficiency continues to be an issue. According to the latest English First (EF) English Proficiency Index (EF EPI, 2021), out of the 20 Latin American nations included in the study, only one of them, Argentina, was classified in the High Proficiency Band, ranking in the 30th place among 112 countries/regions. Astonishingly, nine countries, that is almost half of the countries in the region, were classified in the Low (six countries) and Very Low (three countries) band. Both Brazil and Colombia were placed in the Low Band, ranking in the 60th and the 81st place respectively.

5. English-Medium Education

The status of English as a global language has allowed it to forcefully set foot in academia and higher education systems around the world, first as a lingua franca and now as a medium of education or instruction. In this section, issues related

to English as the language for teaching and learning in the classroom will be presented. More specifically, English-Medium Instruction (EMI) as a growing global phenomenon in various world regions, its implementation, implications, and potential systems of monitoring and evaluation will be discussed.

5.1 English-Medium Education within Bilingual Education Models

Languages different from the L1 of the majority have been used to teach subject areas in primary and secondary schools for decades. Bilingual education for the children of immigrants or for those who spoke a minority language began to proliferate in Canada and the United States during the 1970s and 1980s (Hanesová, 2015). Over the next years, bilingual education research began to earn relevance, which led to the advent of new terms that explained the nature and structure of the newly adopted education models. Two popular models that emerged during the late 1980s in North American schools were Content-Based Instruction (CBI) (see Brinton et al., 1989) and Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) (Echevarria et al., 2013). Both attempted to integrate content and language by employing strategies that aimed to address the academic needs of children whose L1 was not English (Herrera & Murry, 2011).

At around the same time, successful and popular bilingual education models began to be adopted in European schools, too. In the early 1990s, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) started to be used as an umbrella term to designate "a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for learning and teaching of both content and language" (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 1). When learning additional languages became a priority for European governments at the turn of the new millennium (Marsh et al., 2001) and, thus, educating plurilingual citizens that could actively navigate in intercultural and multilingual societies (Escobar Urmeneta, 2019) turned into an educational goal, CLIL research began to pick up momentum.

The Netherlands was one of the first countries to implement plurilingualism and bilingual education after the Maastricht Treaty of 1992. Several stories of success have been told ever since, being CLIL the guiding principle in Dutch bilingual education models (Mearns & Graaff, 2018). Finland

was also a pioneer in the introduction of CLIL in its education system. Within a few years, a team from the University of Jyväskylä producing high impact research on bilingual education claimed that English was so deeply ingrained in the Finnish society it was no longer considered a foreign language for the Finns (Leppänen et al., 2008).

Finally, in Spain, CLIL has been positively embraced by policy makers in the Spanish school system as an effective strategy for students to gain both content knowledge and foreign language competencies (Pérez-Vidal, 2013, 2015). Within the framework of language policies established in bilingual communities such as the Basque Country and Catalonia, CLIL, with English as a third language, has been widely implemented in their school systems. After conducting research in such settings, scholars have reported that, in order for learning to take place, student interactions and meaning negotiation are of prime importance (Dalton-Puffer, 2011; Escobar Urmeneta, 2012; Escobar Urmeneta & Evnitskaya, 2013; Evnitskaya, 2018). Other studies have reported on the benefits of CLIL in terms of language gains for students, especially in reading and grammar (Pérez-Vidal & Roquet, 2015; Segura et al., 2021).

CLIL experiences in Latin America have also been documented. Cendoya and Di Bin (2010) conducted a classroom-based project in which a group of elementary students from Argentina participated in a sequence of tasks involving both content and language learning. The results showed that the CLIL sequences had a positive impact on the students' language production as they used the language elements (e.g., discourse markers, vocabulary, etc.) they were taught during the sequences appropriately. In another study at a Colombian school, Robles Noriega and Corzo Zambrano (2011) found that using visual aids and the L1 with first graders taking part in a CLIL program yielded to positive results as these were appropriate scaffolding strategies that enhanced the children's learning of content and language.

After carrying out a critical review on the use of CLIL in Latin America between 2008 and 2018, Banegas et al. (2020) found that CLIL in Latin America is, for the most part, a language-driven strategy implemented in private schools with students who are highly proficient in English. The authors also believe that

there are many more CLIL experiences than they could document for their review as many CLIL studies in the region are unpublished. During the development of this literature review, some CLIL experiences in Latin American higher education settings were found, too; they will be presented in the next section together with studies from other world regions.

5.2 English-Medium Higher Education

Earlier in this chapter, the use of a common language, or lingua franca, within the process of internationalization that universities are undergoing was recognized as a common practice in 21st century higher education. Moreover, the status of English as a global language in different scenarios, including higher education, has been presented, too. These two phenomena have paved the way for English to become the lingua franca in many HEIs across different world regions. More specifically, research shows that the use of English in university classrooms where English is not the language of the majority is on the rise.

While not as common as it is in elementary and secondary schools, CLIL at the tertiary level has, too, been documented in Europe. Hurajová (2015) outlined CLIL models used by teachers working in different European universities: (1) partial CLIL, which resembles English for Academic Purposes (EAP), and is mainly offered by language specialists; (2) adjunct CLIL, in which content and language specialists collaborate; and (3) dual CLIL, in which content specialists are in charge of both content and language goals.

CLIL has also been implemented at HEIs in Asia and Latin America. Davies (2019) argued that CLIL is the most appropriate model for Japanese universities as it not only motivates students to learn English, an important goal set by the national government, but it also allows them to be exposed to intercultural situations. In a different study conducted at a private university in Ecuador, Vega and Moscoso (2019) reported that, while using CLIL did not result in marked English proficiency increases among the participating students, the students did show a favorable attitude towards the use of CLIL in their classes. As it has been seen, the use of CLIL has, for the most part, a good reputation in higher education, too.

Another concept which has been used to describe the use of a language other than the university's local language for teaching and learning, specifically in Europe, is Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education (ICLHE) (see Wilkinson, 2004). Sometimes CLIL or EMI (English-medium Instruction) are used as alternative terms for ICLHE; nonetheless, because programs attempting to develop both content and language goals at the tertiary level combine different needs, strategies, and resources, they deserve to have their own term (Escobar Urmeneta, 2018, 2019). Something that is unique about ICLHE is that, besides focusing on the simultaneous enhancement of content and language learning, it pays heed to the sociopolitical context in which this learning takes place (Wilkinson & Walsh, 2015).

ICLHE research has gained strength and popularity in Europe over the last twenty years, especially because the association in charge of the model has held international conferences and symposia since 2003. ICLHE researchers advocate for multilingualism as well as interdisciplinary and collaborative projects in universities (Wilkinson & Walsh, 2015). After all, in line with the Bologna Declaration's idea of becoming a more social, intellectual, scientific, and technological European society at the turn of the new millennium and, in order to avoid internationalization becoming Englishization, many European researchers from the field of language education and policy are calling for a more multilingual and intercultural type of education.

Recent studies conducted in ICLHE settings have discussed how the integration of content and language at the tertiary level is beneficial for students as they can be exposed to internationalization experiences (i.e., internationalization at home) and multilingualism without leaving their home universities (Escobar Urmeneta, 2018, 2020; Pérez-Vidal, 2015). The ICLHE association is now promoting research on the preservation of local cultures and identity, the impact of English-medium education on minority and national languages, and Englishization and linguistic justice.

5.3 The Emergence of a New Phenomenon Called English-Medium Instruction (EMI)

In recent years, the rise of internationalization in universities and the use of ELF in higher education have opened the door to a new phenomenon: English-Medium Instruction or EMI. Unlike the well-established bilingual education models mentioned previously, EMI is still in its infancy (Galloway & Rose, 2021; Martinez, 2016). Ernesto Macaro and his team at the Oxford Centre for Research and Development on English Medium Instruction have used the following definition of the term EMI for a few years now: "The use of the English language to teach academic subjects (other than English itself) in countries or jurisdictions where the first language of the majority of the population is not English" (Macaro, 2018, p. 1).

As stated by the very author, this definition can be problematized from various perspectives, especially because the role of language for learning purposes is not very clear. In fact, the role of language in EMI is different from that of language within notions such as EAP or CLIL; while EAP and CLIL embody explicit language learning goals, EMI mainly aims at the achievement of content goals (Airey, 2016; Escobar Urmeneta, 2020; Macaro, 2018). Figure 1 shows EMI as part of a continuum of approaches which entail the teaching of content through English as an additional language:

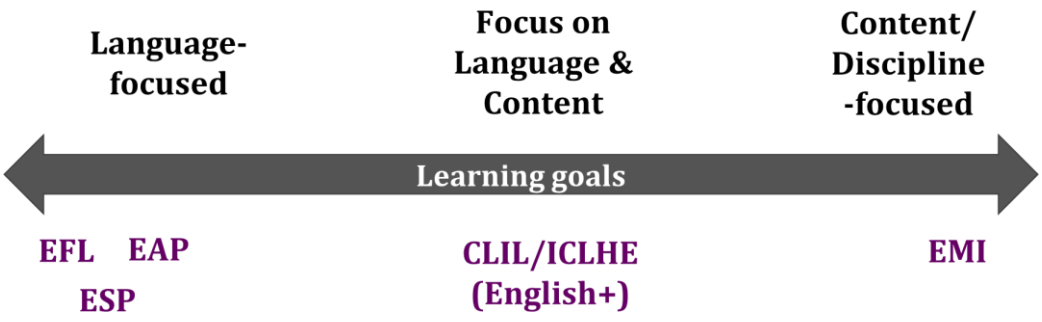

Figure 1: The Content-Language (English+) Continuum
(Adapted from Airey, 2016 & Macaro, 2018)

As shown in the figure, EFL (English as a Foreign Language), EAP (English for Academic Purposes), and ESP (English for Specific Purposes) are language learning models that use different means and ends in teaching: while EFL focuses on the teaching of general English, EAP and ESP include the teaching of

specialized skills in English for academic and/or professional purposes (de Chazal, 2014). CLIL and ICLHE, which in this figure represent models that incorporate English as an additional language (English+), embrace a balanced focus on the achievement of language and content goals. Both models have been extensively explained in previous sections. Finally, EMI mainly focuses on disciplinary content without paying explicit attention to the achievement of English language goals (Escobar Urmeneta, 2018).

Research shows that this content-driven approach in EMI is very common in HEIs around the world, especially when EMI is seen as a strategy for their internationalization (Bowles & Murphy, 2020; Duong & Chua, 2016; Tejada-Sanchez & Molina-Naar, 2020). It is also important to clarify that students taking part in EMI courses or programs often receive language support from their universities through EAP or ESP classes especially designed to provide the necessary academic skills that students need (Macaro, 2018).

The absence of a language-oriented view and pedagogical guidelines in many EMI programs, however, has caused some criticism. Shohamy (2012) claimed that EMI can negatively affect content learning via an L2, diminish the role of local and national languages, and undermine proper and fair assessment procedures in universities. Other authors have argued that, without the proper preparation, there exist the risk of EMI becoming a decontextualized strategy mainly adopted to obtain financial revenue and international prestige at the expense of the local students' learning and academic cultures (Dafouz & Smit, 2016; Macaro et al., 2018). Thus, EMI has sometimes been seen as a monolithic model in education, a form of Englishization (Dimova et al., 2015), and a way to Westernize higher education in non-Western countries (Ghazarian, 2011).

Due to these critiques, authors have proposed to see universities as multilingual spaces where a plethora of languages, cultures, and identities converge. To define universities which adopt an English-medium approach in their academic programs, Dafouz and Smit (2016) recommend the use of the term EMEMUS, which stands for English-Medium Education in Multilingual University Settings. The authors explain that EMEMUS is an inclusive model which regards various pedagogical approaches and types of education; plus, they

argue that “the concept is more transparent because it refers to ‘education’, thus embracing both ‘instruction’ and ‘learning’ instead of prioritising one over the other” (Dafouz & Smit, 2020, p. 3). With these ideas in mind, some researchers have now started to use the term EME (English-Medium Education) instead of EMI. Also, within the framework of EMEMUS, Dafouz and Smit (2016) developed the ROAD-MAPPING framework, a model of analysis for the implementation of EMI/EME in HEIs. The conceptual basis of the ROAD-MAPPING framework will be explained in more detail in section 5.5.

Without any doubt, the use of EMI in universities has gained tremendous importance and popularity. Granted the appropriate preparation, the implementation of EMI has been said to bring about positive changes for universities namely smooth and successful IaH processes, development of global competences among local students, the presence of highly qualified international faculty members, and cross-border cooperation and research with top HEIs (Macaro et al., 2018). It is important, then, to understand, two things: (1) the implementation of EMI requires more than a mere change in the language of instruction in academic programs and (2) multilingualism and respect for other cultures must always prevail in a beyond the classroom.

5.4 State of the Art of EMI in Higher Education around the World

In order to provide an updated state of the art, this section provides a brief overview of some of the most recent studies on the implementation of EMI across higher education systems around the world. The studies were conducted in four world regions: Europe, Asia, the Middle East, and Latin America, during the past two years.

Europe

With the boom of mobility and internationalization policies (e.g., Erasmus and the Bologna Process) as well language policies (e.g., Mother tongue plus two other languages) in European higher education since the late 1980s, the presence of EMI or ICLHE in universities began to grow exponentially at the turn of the new millennium (Escobar Urmeneta, 2018). Current research trends are focusing

on strategies to ensure a more successful implementation of EMI in and beyond the classroom. In the spirit of preserving local languages, democratizing access to knowledge, and actively constructing plurilingualism and, thus, be in harmony with the European language policy" (Escobar Urmeneta & Evnitskaya, 2013), one of the themes to which recent research is turning its attention is translanguaging (Cenoz, 2017; Cook, 2001; O. García & Lin, 2017) in EMI settings. Hence, two studies on translanguaging practices will be presented.

The first study was conducted at a university in the Basque Country, a region in Spain that has embraced bilingual education policies, Basque-Spanish, for decades (Muguruza et al., 2020). In this research carried out in an English-medium course, a flexible language policy was applied. The participating students, for whom English was a third language, reported to feel comfortable when communicating in their language of choice (Basque, Spanish, or English). In line with other studies (see Hu & Lei, 2014; Pun & Macaro, 2019), Muguruza et al., (2020) recommend employing pedagogical translanguaging in English-medium classes as the use of the L1 could possibly help students minimize their anxiety and, thus, increase their understanding of the course content.

The second study on translanguaging in EMI was carried out at the University of Padova in Italy (Dalziel, 2021). Despite some resistance at the beginning, especially in the name of linguistic protectionism, Italian universities have gradually opened their doors to EMI as an internationalization strategy (Costa & Coleman, 2013). In her study, Dalziel (2021) found that students from an EMI program perceived translanguaging as an inclusive practice which allowed them to skillfully switch languages depending on the context (e.g., to have small group discussions in class) and the situation (e.g., to avoid excluding non-Italian students from conversations). The author highlighted, thus, the students' agency capacity and enhanced the value of multilingualism in 21st university settings.

Topics such as the effective integration of content and language in the EMI classroom as well as the development of the students' identities after an EMI experience are also in vogue in the European context. Andjekov (2022) found that EMI instructors are often unaware of their effective use of pedagogical

and scaffolding techniques which contribute to their students' content and language development; this finding debunks the idea of EMI instructors being exclusively focused on the learning of disciplinary content in university classrooms. For their part, Evnitskaya and Torras-Vila (2022) concluded that students who take part in English-medium programs undergo highly positive changes in their identities as language learners, especially since they have exposure to meaningful international experiences while they are in their home university (i.e., internationalization at home through EMI).

Asia

In spite of the fact that English-medium higher education has been adopted as part of national policies enacted in Asian nations during the past two decades (Chen & Kraklow, 2015; Duong & Chua, 2016; Shimauchi, 2018), recent studies are starting to call for a more responsible implementation of language policies in Asian universities. In Song's study, (2022) a group of 17 students and teachers from an EMI program in China were asked about their views regarding Anglo-centric and Euro-centric systems of knowledge production and dissemination. While they showed different degrees of awareness on the issue, they did discuss some strategies to decolonize knowledge and add more value to their own academic cultures. The author also recommends the frequent use of decolonization strategies in EMI programs.

The study conducted by Fang and Hu (2022), also in China, investigates the effects of EMI on the identities of a group of students from a minority language group: Teochew. Although the students' attitudes towards EMI were diverse, they reported that, in comparison to English and the local language, their mother tongue was marginalized. However, while they could not use Teochew very often for their academic tasks, they did translanguage when trying to cope with linguistic difficulties. The authors argue that the impetuous adoption of EMI in universities may lead to serious consequences for minority languages; hence, they suggest that policy makers and the local communities embrace multilingualism in their education systems.

The Middle East

The same as in the two regions described previously, EMI programs in the Middle East have shown a major increase in the past twenty years; according to Yuksel et al. (2022), only in Turkey, EMI programs grew more than four times between 1999 and 2019. In their book *English-Medium Instruction in Higher Education in the Middle East and North Africa: Policy, Research and Pedagogy*, Curle et al. (2022) include studies from Iran, Oman, Kuwait, and Saudi Arabia, among other countries; studies deal with both the challenges and opportunities that EMI is bringing to Middle Eastern HEIs.

EMI research in the Middle East, at present, seems to be focused on two themes: the use of technology in English-medium courses and the effect of EMI on the students' grades and performance. Holi (2020) carried out research involving a group of Omani students who reported which strategies they used to cope with the linguistic challenges they encountered in their EMI courses. The students reported to heavily rely on online translators, which they described as effective tools to understand key terms in Arabic. Hence, besides the use of technology, the author recommends recognizing the value of the L1 as well as the use of translanguaging as a compensatory strategy. This goes in line with research conducted in Europe.

In a study conducted at a university in Saudi Arabia, Alhamami and Almelhi (2021) found that, while instructors believed that EMI did not affect the students' performance, the vast majority of students preferred Arabic as a means of instruction, especially because they thought their GPAs would be higher. The author, then, suggested that policymakers should take the students' perceptions regarding their preferred language of education into consideration, especially because the students thought that studying through a language other than their L1 would affect their performance.

Latin America

While still an emerging trend, there is evidence that EMI is coming into play in Latin American higher education. Since EMI is still a new concept in the region, the implementation of CLIL in higher education settings will be considered a

form of EMI. Recent research on EMI in Latin America seems to be focusing on two themes: professional development for EMI faculty and the relationship between EMI and internationalization.

The literature shows that EMI teacher training initiatives have been led in Mexico and Brazil. Worthman (2020) described a face-to-face EMI teacher training program in a Mexican university which focused on pedagogy and curriculum design; the author, too, argued that the implementation of EMI in Mexican HEIs is deeply connected with their internationalization goals. Lindahl et al. (2022) found that, a group of university teachers in Brazil who participated in a series of online CLIL modules learned to be more responsive to their students' language needs, were more open to reflect on their own teaching practices, and explored their own identities as educators who integrated both content and language goals.

The adoption of EMI within the internationalization goals of Latin American HEIs is also reported in recent studies. With their Bilingual, International, and Sustainable (BIS) model of higher education, the Mexican government is attempting to invest in the future of the younger generations (Escalona Sibaja, 2020). University teachers are, thus, being prompted to acquire the pedagogical skills they need to help their students cope with linguistic challenges.

Likewise, EMI in Colombian HEIs is seen as an internationalization strategy. In their study. Tejada Sánchez and Molina Naar (2021) described some initiatives undertaken by a private university aiming to enhance their internationalization goals, being EMI one of them. To prepare for the implementation of EMI, this HEI led a major curriculum reform in its EAP program and designed a set of guidelines for content experts to teach their courses through English. In another study conducted at six Colombian universities, Miranda and Molina Naar (2022) examined a number of institutional documents and conducted interviews with professors. Based on the document analysis, the authors found that there is "a natural link" between foreign languages, including the implementation of EMI, and

internationalization in these universities. They, too, called for a more multilingual and more inclusive perspective of higher education in the country.

5.5 The ROAD-MAPPING Framework

Earlier in this chapter, the main characteristics of international higher education and the "language issue" within it, particularly English, were discussed. Smit (2018) presented three principles that explain the status of languages in 21st century HEIs: (a) different forms of multilingualism exist in universities; (b) English is a key element, but not the only element within the universities' multilingual realities; and (c) sociopolitical, sociocultural, and sociolinguistic factors shape the nature of multilingualism and make it situated and context-sensitive in each university. The complex structure of the insights mentioned previously has created the need for a model which allows HEIs to monitor, evaluate, and analyze the development of "the language issue" or multilingualism within their internationalization plans.

In order to address this need, Dafouz and Smit (2016) developed the ROAD-MAPPING Framework a "theoretically grounded and holistic framework" (p. 411) which "draws from recent developments in sociolinguistics, ecolinguistics and language policy research" (Dafouz & Smit, 2020, p. 43). From a sociolinguistic perspective, universities are social and academic communities where various cultures, languages, and identities converge. These do not stay static but change and evolve in response to particular moments or settings; as some authors have suggested, they are superdiverse (Arnaut et al., 2016) and emergent (Flores & Lewis, 2016). Indeed, the use of languages other than the national language for teaching, research, and communication purposes in universities is likely to trigger this diversity and accelerate these changes.

For fifty years, ecolinguistics have aimed to protect language diversity as well as visibilize the issue of "language loss and language maintenance in the age of globalization", critique "forms of language that contribute to ecological destruction" and "search for new forms of language that inspire people to protect the natural world" (Fill, 2018, p. 1). The connection between language and economy, minority vs. majority languages, and language endangerment or

language death are dealt with in this field, too. Sociopolitical, sociocultural, and sociolinguistic factors influence multilingual realities in HEIs; hence, issues pertaining to ecolonguistics are likely to occur in international universities.

Finally, language policies, both in text and in practice, are heavily influenced by the sociopolitical nature of multilingualism in HEIs. As stated by Dafouz and Smit (2020), "in top-down language regulations, the language policies of a particular ecology also encompass what the social players know and think of said regulations and what they actually do in specific circumstances" (p. 44). Therefore, the management and manipulation of language (Shohamy, 2006) as well as the mismatch between "policy-as-text" and "policy-as-discourse" (Hult, 2017, p. 113) emerge. The ROAD-MAPPING Framework, then, allows for the discovery and analysis of the situated meanings and behaviors that language policy entails in multilingual and international university contexts.

ROAD-MAPPING is an acronym consisting of six parts, the six dimensions which are embedded within the framework: roles of English (in relation to other languages) (RO), academic disciplines (AD), (language) management (M), agents (A), practices and processes (PP), and internationalization and glocalization (ING). These dimensions must be "understood as equally relevant, independent but interconnected and… complex in themselves" (Dafouz & Smit, 2020, p. 46). Figure 2 shows how these dimensions are independent and interconnected at the same time:

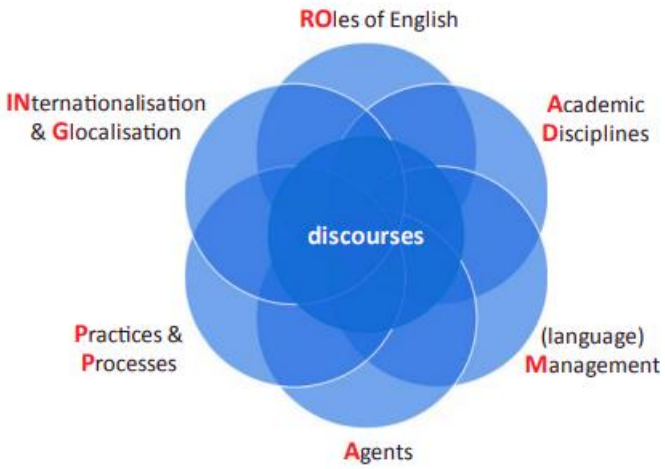

Figure 2: ROAD-MAPPING Framework

(Dafouz & Smit, 2020, p. 47)

As shown in the figure, the dimensions revolve around a central element: discourse, which "is seen as the intersecting access point through which all six dimensions can be examined" (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p. 403). According to the authors, for discourse in ROAD-MAPPING to fulfil its analytical functions, it necessitates more than the typical forms of interaction present in the classroom; it needs to be seen as a multilayered system shaped by pedagogical practices, language policies, academic cultures, etc. which are co-constructed by the different agents and, thus, co-exist at a multilingual university. The authors, too, argue that social practices in such contexts, namely "student exams, language policy documents, [and] teacher interviews" are "built through discourses" (2020, p. 44). Drawing from the work led by Dafouz and Smit (2016; 2020), the six dimensions will be explained in the next sections.

Roles of English

Roles of English refers to the various academic functions (e.g., language of instruction in content courses, language courses such as EAP or ESP, language requirement, etc.) and practical purposes (e.g., common vehicle of communication such as ELF) that English shares together with other languages (e.g., students' and faculty's L1, other language repertoires, etc.) in multilingual and international university settings. Universities are increasingly becoming multilingual and multicultural ecosystems shaped by contextual factors and needs (e.g., historic and political issues), so English cannot be examined by itself.

Academic Disciplines

Academic disciplines deal not only with academic literacies but also with academic cultures. The genres, written or spoken, that are produced in a given discipline respond to the nature and culture of such discipline (e.g., applied vs. pure, hard vs. soft) (Bernstein, 1999). Hence, the texts produced in the engineering, for example, are based on a different structure, require different sources, and have a different focus from those produced in the social sciences. In addition, Trowler (2014) argues that contextual factors (e.g., cultural norms and languages) directly shape the knowledge that is being constructed. As a result, the adoption of EMI necessarily has an effect of how and what knowledge

is built which, in turn, obligates multilingual universities to create spaces for students to access the appropriate language support.

(Language) Management

Language management deals with the regulations or policies employed to define the uses and purposes of languages at the regional, national, territorial, or institutional level. In universities, language policies take diverse forms, so they can be deconstructed within the framework of three broad factors: (a) policy type (e.g., top-down or bottom-up, explicit vs. implicit, etc.); (b) communicational functions (e.g., internal communication, use on webpages, etc.); and (c) language(s) in use (e.g., ELF, minority languages, etc.). It is important to also identify what is absent from language policies (Fortanet-Gómez, 2013) and how strong pressures to use English are often masked under the idea of multilingualism (Dafouz & Smit, 2016).

Agents

Agents must be analyzed according to the multifaceted and multilayered forms they take within a given context; again, they can act at the macro level (e.g., government bodies and NGO's), meso level (e.g., faculties and departments), and micro level (e.g., teachers and administrators). In universities adopting EMI, the roles and actions taken by these agents are key for its successful implementation. In cases when agents do not understand the true rationales and implications of EMI in their universities, the implementation of the strategy may yield to unfavorable results.

Practices and Processes

Within a HEI, practices and processes occur at different levels: institution, academic units, and classrooms. The value of analyzing this dimension in EMI classrooms lies in its capacity to provide an understanding of how different teaching and learning practices and processes are being changed by the new languages and academic cultures present in the classroom. As such, the different pedagogical adaptations made by teachers, including the adjustment of teaching

practices as well as instructional and assessment materials can be analyzed (Dafouz, 2022).

Internationalization and Glocalization

Internationalization and glocalization within multilingual university settings encompass the internationalization of higher education, IaH, and IoC issues discussed in this chapter. As such, the integration of the international, intercultural, and global processes embedded into the various purposes and functions of universities (Knight, 2003) can be analyzed within this dimension. It is important to analyze these not just within formal environments (e.g., agreements, international curricula, language requirements, etc.) but also within informal ones (e.g., extracurricular activities, services, etc.) (Beelen & Jones, 2015b; Leask, 2015).

As seen in this section, ROAD-MAPPING encompasses six dimensions, whose far-reaching scope can be used to monitor, evaluate, and analyze the development of "the language issue" or multilingualism in international university settings. Dafouz and Smit (2020) argue that the model can serve two main purposes in research: It can be used as a framework in research design and/or it can work as a method for research analysis. For the latter, the dimensions can become a starting point for codes and categories emerging from studies which aim to research roles of English, classroom practices, and/or internationalization in EMI settings or EMEMUS. Regardless of the goal or focus of the research study which adopts ROAD-MAPPING, its application must be context-sensitive, and the analysis derived from it must be situated. ROAD-MAPPING has been effectively used to design, analyze, and describe EMEMUS in Europe (Dafouz et al., 2016), Asia (Bradford & Brown, 2017), and the Middle East (Eslami et al., 2020). To date, however, there is no evidence that the model has been used in Latin America.

6. Factors Affecting Roles of English in International University Settings

This literature review has discussed the status of English as the language of international higher education; the chapter has presented its role as a common means of communication (e.g., ELF) and as the language for education (e.g.,

EME/EMI) in international and multilingual university settings. There is evidence that the presence of ELF and/or EMI in such settings affects the development of processes which usually, and naturally, occurred in a different language (e.g., the national language or local languages). When English, and more specifically EMI, begins to co-exist with other languages within a particular university setting, it becomes important to examine which roles it plays within the cosmos of languages existing in such institution. After all, even when a privileged status has been conferred on English, "it is contact and conflict with other languages and their institutional and societal histories" (Dafouz & Smit, 2020, p. 47).

Because it is important, then, to examine which roles English plays in relation to other languages in a multilingual university setting (EMEMUS), Dafouz and Smit (2020) propose the following definition:

> Roles of English refers to the communicative functions that language fulfills in HEIs, with the focus placed on English as the implicitly or explicitly identified main medium of education. In view of the diverse linguistic repertoires relevant to the settings in question, English intersects in dynamic, complementary but also conflictual ways with other languages. Additionally, English, and 'language' more generally, are seen as both product and process, being used both as individual codes and as a flexible form of multilingual communication (p. 60).

The ways in which English functions dynamically, complementarily, and conflictually with other languages in international university settings can be best examined through, at least, four factors: societal, institutional, pedagogical, and communicational (Dafouz & Smit, 2017, 2020). Other factors which may be worthwhile examining are more concerned with the impact that English has on an individual's personal and professional histories, especially after an EMI experience. The potential, and situated, ways in which EMI affects the roles that English can play within a particular international university context will be discussed in this section. Such discussion will be led considering the previously mentioned factors drawing from Dafouz's and Smit's (2017) sociolinguistic approach to the multifaced roles of English in international university settings.

6.1 Societal Factors

This is the wider context in which universities can be placed; societal factors deal with how English functions outside the university and, thus, co-exists with, for example, national, regional, or local languages. These relationships can be complementary (e.g., English as the language for relevant economic and commercial transactions at the inter-national level) or conflictual (e.g., EMI in a historically bilingual region in which a local language is protected and strives to survive). The following aspects, among others, can influence the roles of English at the societal level.

Job Opportunities

In expanding circle countries, having a certain level of English proficiency is increasingly becoming an added value for job seekers (Abu-Humos, 2016; Pandey & Pandey, 2014). All over the world, English mastery is being associated with career advancement and salary increases (Cambridge English Language Assessment & QS [Quacquarelli Symonds], 2016). Latin America is no exception to this. In the region, there is a widely accepted belief that being competent in English opens doors, ensures a better future, and leads to economic growth (Cronquist & Fiszbein, 2017; de Mejía, 2006; Fiszbein et al., 2016). Universities seem to be aware of this, so English is an inherent part of the services and programs that they offer, be it as a subject (e.g., EAP programs) or as a medium of instruction or education (e.g., English-taught programs).

Socio-Economic Status

In world regions where ELL is a luxury that only the most privileged can afford, those belonging to disadvantaged groups (e.g., people who live in rural areas, ethnic communities, etc.) struggle to attain the minimum English proficiency they need. This is a reality in Latin America, where socio-economic disparities keep millions of students from acquiring the English language skills they need to succeed academically. In Colombia, for example, only the middle and upper-middle classes can have access to high quality bilingual education in English and Spanish (de Mejía, 2002, 2006); in Brazil, geographical origin, socio-economic

status, and ethnicity heavily determine student academic performance in general (World Education News Reviews [WENR], 2019).

These issues relate to the Deficit Theory (Hess & Shipman, 1965), very popular among cognitive scientists in the 1960s and 1970s, which stated that the underprivileged were doomed to academic failure. While this view also permeated the field of language education, ideas such as seeing language proficiency among learners as a "difference" not as a "deficit" (Cook, 1999) and considering affective and socio-cultural factors as influential in language learning (Larsen-Freeman, 2017; Ortega, 2011) began to flourish in the 1990s and 2000s. Yet, socio-economic status continues to be seen as an aspect that determines English proficiency in many societies and universities worldwide (Dimova et al., 2015; Escobar Urmeneta, 2018).

Language protectionism

Language protectionism, or linguistic purism, has often been linked to feelings of nationalism (McLelland, 2009). The rise of EMI in universities located in some countries, especially in Northern Europe, has led to the creation of laws aimed to protect the national language and culture (Kuteeva, 2014; Lanvers & Hultgren, 2018).

As for Latin America, Brazil, where Portuguese is spoken by most of the population, can somehow be taken as an example of this. Historically, the Portuguese language has been ingrained in the identity of Brazilians (British Council, 2014a; Tessler, 2013). This is often believed to be the product of the Indian Directorate, a language policy enacted by the Portuguese Crown in 1757 when Brazil was a colony of Portugal. The policy banned the use of languages other than Portuguese, more specifically Indigenous languages, for educational purposes (Mariani, 2020). While the policy is no longer active, many Brazilians keep alive the myth of Brazil as a monolingual country (Guimarães et al., 2019) where only Portuguese is spoken (Liberali & Megale, 2016). Thus, it comes as no surprise that language protectionism can emerge as an issue in English-medium settings in Brazilian universities.

6.2 Institutional Factors

This factor deals with how English is used by stakeholders, that is students, faculty, and staff, at the institutional level. Some instances include the use of English in research (e.g., to report the results of an investigation), English for educational purposes (e.g., as the language or one of the languages used in academic programs), and English for internal and/or external communication (e.g., as a shared language used by staff to communicate with international students). The aspects below, among others, can influence the roles of English at the institutional level.

The Need of a Shared Means of Communication

The role of ELF has been widely discussed in this literature review. Once international universities include English-taught programs in their academic offerings, ELF almost comes as a by-product, especially because English often becomes the preferred vehicle for communication, if not the only one, among speakers of different languages (Seidlhofer, 2011). In fact, English is now considered the language of 21st century higher education (Jenkins, 2014), and the increased popularity of EMI in universities around the world seems to confirm this (Dearden, 2014; Macaro, 2015); this appears to be truer now that EMI is becoming one of the internationalization strategies adopted by many HEIs all over the world (Bowles & Murphy, 2020).

Research

The high relevance of English in research is not a new phenomenon. More than thirty years ago, Swales (1990) argued that English was the language of science, research, and knowledge construction and dissemination, and it still is (Crystal, 2003; Graddol, 2006). This is true all over the world, including Latin America, where the greater number of articles published in well-known indexation databases such as WoS and SCOPUS are in English. In fact, contrary to what one may think, only about two percent of these journals are written in Spanish and 0.5 percent in Portuguese, the two most widely spoken languages in the region (Céspedes, 2021).

In quest of increasing their prestige and rankings, universities are now heavily promoting scientific production in highly ranked journals which are mostly produced in English (Flowerdew, 2008; Lillis & Curry, 2010). Thus, English as the language of publication in non-Anglophone universities causes bittersweet feelings among stakeholders who, on the one hand, need to gain professional recognition and secure their jobs (e.g., tenure) and, on the other hand, must cope with the pressures of publishing in a language other than their L1 (Ammon, 2013). Bocanegra-Valle (2013) pointed out that some European universities are encouraging publications in English, but not necessarily in the national language. The strong presence of English in academia has been criticized during the past few years as it is seen as *Englishization* (Dimova et al., 2015; Wilkinson & Gabriels, 2021) and a potential way for language domain loss (Airey et al., 2015). As a result, scholars in the fields of language and intercultural education recommend conducting more multilingual research (Holmes et al., 2013; Kuteeva & Mauranen, 2014; Peña-Dix, 2018).

6.3 Pedagogical Factors

Roles of English within this factor can be taken to the micro or classroom level as the factor "focuses in more detail on the educational side of HEIs" (Dafouz & Smit, 2017, p. 298). As such, the pedagogical factor is concerned with how English plays a role in teaching (e.g., lecturing vs. student-centered approach), learning (e.g., for group work and student interactions), assessment (e.g., as an implicit or explicit grading criterion), and instructional materials (e.g., for handouts, slides, online materials, etc.). The following aspects, among others, can influence the roles of English at the pedagogical level.

Knowledge Construction through an L2

The use of English in university classrooms is often seen as a *sine qua non* condition for knowledge construction, especially since a significant number of academic materials are written in English. As such, it is common for tertiary students to perceive English as a passport to access knowledge and reach academic success (Dearden & Macaro, 2016). Studies have also reported on the perceived value of English among lecturers teaching in EMI settings; they

believe that EMI provides opportunities for local students, including higher access to international publications and updated literature (Briggs et al., 2018).

Classroom Interaction

Successful language learning is heavily dependent on affective and socio-cultural factors (Larsen-Freeman, 2017; Ortega, 2011); as such, learners should have opportunities for peer and group interactions in the language classroom (Cook, 2007; Escobar Urmeneta & Walsh, 2017; Storch, 2002). In settings where learning content and an L2 simultaneously is the goal (e.g., CLIL classrooms), student interactions are extremely important for meaning negotiation and knowledge construction (Clua Serrano, 2021; Dalton-Puffer, 2011; Escobar Urmeneta, 2012). Thus, as suggested by the literature, English-medium *instruction* is just one side of the coin. English in such contexts, thus, must be seen not only as a means for lecturing but also as a tool for learning (Cros & Escobar Urmeneta, 2018).

Dafouz and Smit (2020) recommend the use of the term English-Medium Education in Multilingual University Settings (EMEMUS) as "it is inclusive of diverse research agendas" and "pedagogical approaches", and it is also "more transparent because it refers to 'education', thus embracing both 'instruction' and 'learning'" while, at the same time, it recognizes multilingual realities since "English as medium goes hand in hand with other languages that form part of the respective multilingualism" (p. 3). Hence, it is important to acknowledge the role of other languages in the English-medium classroom (e.g., the national language, local languages, minority languages, etc.) and how these make student and teacher interactions possible (Cros & Escobar Urmeneta, 2018).

6.4 Communicational Factors

This is the most multi-faceted factor, and it is divided into four subcategories. The first one is *codes used*, which deals with how English is used in a continuum that goes from English-only to multilingual communicational practices. The second one is *purposes pursued*, which deals with how English is used for specific purposes within the institution. The other subcategories are concerned with the individual language user: the third one is *language skills*, in which the

students' writing, speaking, or listening competencies are considered, and the last one is *linguistic repertoire*, in which the students' language proficiency levels in English and other languages are considered. The aspects below, among others, can influence the roles of English at the institutional level.

Language Repertoires

The adoption of EMI has sometimes been the target of criticism as some universities have used it as a mere strategy to increase their international rankings and financial revenue (Dafouz & Smit, 2016; Macaro et al., 2018; Wilkinson & Walsh, 2015). Other critiques aim to show that learning content through an L2 in tertiary education not only can devalue the role of local and national languages, but it can also negatively affect proper and fair assessment procedures (Shohamy, 2012).

Since 21st century universities are being considered multilingual spaces (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, 2020), authors recommend giving credit to the language repertoires that students bring to the classroom; thus, plurilingual practices, including code-mixing and translanguaging are now being more welcome to enhance teaching and learning in EMI classroom settings (Cook, 2001; Garcia & Sylvan, 2011; Smit, 2019). The current state of the art in EMI around various world regions including Europe (Dalziel, 2021; Muguruza et al., 2020), Asia (Fang & Hu, 2022; Song, 2022), and the Middle East (Holi, 2020) confirms this.

Language Use and Purpose Served

Communication can serve various purposes and, as such, languages can have different functions. English, for example, can be used as a lingua franca for internal and external communication in a university or as a medium of education in the classroom. Sometimes, how common or how frequent the use of English is in a particular field of study depends on the nature and characteristics of the field; thus. Bernstein's (1999) division of disciplines (e.g., applied vs. pure, hard vs. soft) is crucial to understanding why EMI tends to be more common in business administration than in the humanities, for example, and that contextual

factors, including the language of the environment, shape the knowledge that is being constructed (Trowler, 2014) in EMI settings.

Another purpose that English can serve within an institution is that of a language requirement. Sometimes English fulfills the role of a "gatekeeper", which means that, before a student can be admitted to a university where English-medium higher education is the rule (e.g., in the Middle East), he or she must first demonstrate certain level of English proficiency (Eslami et al., 2020). The panorama in Latin America is quite different. English mastery is not normally mandatory to access higher education; however, some countries have currently adopted L2 policies that regulate its mandatory inclusion in university curricula (Cronquist & Fiszbein, 2017).

Students' Proficiency Levels

Considering the students' proficiency levels in an EMI setting is of paramount importance to monitor their academic performance as well as the development of EMI in such setting. Studies have reported on the correlation between the students' English levels and their academic performance (see Alhamami & Almelhi, 2021; Rose et al., 2020) . As stated by Macaro (2018), student English proficiency in EMI settings highly depends on the country or jurisdiction where EMI is adopted; for instance, English proficiency in Hong Honk will probably be much higher than in Bangladesh, which is one of the lowest income nations in the world. Taken this into consideration, the situation in Latin America might also be complex. The latest English First English Proficiency Index (EF EPI, 2021) reported that, out of the 20 Latin American nations included in the study, nine of them were classified in the Low and Very Low bands. Argentina was the only Latin American country classified in the High Proficiency Band, ranking in the 30th place among 112 countries.

6.5 Other Factors

Research shows that the multifaceted roles that English plays can also be impacted at the individual level; thus, factors such as a person's professional identity, his or her sense of belonging to a professional community of practice,

and the self-image that he or she has as a member of a specific generational group, among others, can be influenced after an EMI experience.

Professional Identity

In the field of education, the concept of "teacher identity" has been researched for years. Sachs (2005) stated that a teacher's professional identity "provides a framework for teachers to construct their own ideas of 'how to be', 'how to act', and 'how to understand' their work and their place in society" (p. 15). Kling (2013) proposed that teacher identity is multidimensional, so it is made up of three components: (a) professional identity, which comprises both expertise and authority; (b) personal identity, which entails the unique characteristics of who the person is and how he or she behaves as a teacher; and (c) institutional identity, which is linked to the teachers' affiliation and status.

As some studies point out, a change in the language of instruction (e.g., EMI) has effects on teacher identity. Moncada-Comas (2020) found that teachers' actions, behaviors, and pedagogical practices in the EMI classroom contribute to the ongoing construction of their professional identity. In their study, Volchenkova and Bryan (2019) found that EMI was welcomed and seen as "positive" by the group of instructors they investigated, which resulted in a positive self-image and professional identity. Along the same lines, Pappa and Moate (2021) concluded that the change of language in an EMI setting influenced the teachers' expressions of self and sensitivity to others and their willingness to take part in collegial relationships in their own institution.

Communities of Practice

Communities of practice (CoPs) are spaces in which groups of people with common interests learn as a community; CoPs are, in fact, a type of learning community in which common methods for doing things together are developed (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). CoPs in CLIL and EMI settings have been investigated at both the secondary and tertiary levels. In their study conducted in a CLIL science classroom in secondary school, Evnitskaya and Morton (2011) found that knowledge-construction, meaning-making,

interactions, and even identity formation among students and teachers are facilitated as they engage in CoPs in English.

At the tertiary level, CoP can be seen in studies aiming to investigate collaboration among content and language specialists through team-teaching (see Doiz Aintzane et al., 2019; Lasagabaster, 2018). As stated by Lasagabaster (2018), "one of the main tenets of team teaching is to share experiences and encourage dialogue that leads to reflection" (p. 412). By engaging in these spaces for collaboration and promoting dialogue, teachers can develop common methods for doing things together and, thus, allow for the emergence of professional CoPs in EMI.

Generation Gaps

Studies on beliefs and perceptions show that the adoption of EMI can create a generation gap, which consists of younger teachers being more open towards accepting EMI than older teachers. In a survey-based study carried out at a university in Denmark, Jensen and Thøgersen (2011) found that while around forty percent of teachers who were under 30 years old had a very negative or somewhat negative perception of EMI in their institution, astonishingly, the same idea was shared by more than sixty percent of participants who were above 60 years of age. Younger professors were, thus, more willing to take a higher teaching load in English. In their comparative study conducted in three European countries, Dearden and Macaro (2016) also found that younger teachers were more enthusiastic about EMI than older teachers; the younger teacher population seemed to be more convinced about the benefits of EMI, especially those who had studied abroad. In addition, older teachers reported feeling less confident with their English and a willingness to protect their local language.

7. Chapter Recap

In this chapter, the literature review conducted for this dissertation was presented. Concepts such as internationalization of higher education, internationalization at home, and internationalization of the curriculum were discussed in light of the relevant literature. Along the same lines, the current

status of English as a global language and the lingua franca of higher education, including Latin American higher education, were explained; since Latin America is linguistically and culturally diverse, the status of English in the society and education as opposed to the status of national and minority languages was discussed in detail, too.

Additionally, because this thesis investigates English-medium instruction (EMI) settings, a brief state of the art of this phenomenon in various world regions was provided. In the same vein, well-known models in bilingual education such as CLIL, CBI, and ICLHE, which are on occasions seen as forms EMI, were explained and exemplified by bringing up relevant studies. Chapter 2 also vastly discusses ROAD-MAPPING as a framework to describe and analyze EMI settings. Finally, the chapter presents five types of factors which affect the roles that English plays within EMI university settings: societal, institutional, pedagogical, communicational, and individual. Both the ROAD-MAPPING and the factors affecting roles of English in international university settings are of prime importance for this dissertation. These concepts will be discussed in more detailed in two subsequent chapters: Methodology (Chapter 4) and Case Cross-Analysis and Discussion (Chapter 7).

CHAPTER 3: OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Chapter Overview

Chapter 3 presents the objectives and research questions that guided this doctoral dissertation. To begin, the context and overall goal of the dissertation are briefly introduced; then, the research design, including the data collection and data analysis procedures, is briefly summarized. Afterwards, the objectives and research questions, which are the core of the chapter, are outlined. Finally, a summary of the chapter is provided.

2. Objectives and Research Questions

This dissertation is a multi-site, multiple-case study (Stake, 1995, 2005; Yin, 2009, 2018) conducted in two international universities, one in Colombia (Case 1) and one in Brazil (Case 2), in which English-medium instruction (EMI) has been implemented for a few years. The goal of this transnational study is to gain an understanding of how EMI affects the communicative functions, or roles, that English plays for a group of professors in these universities and what specific roles it plays within this population. With the purpose of avoiding frequent repetition, both the concepts of "functions" and "roles" will be used interchangeably throughout this dissertation when describing the findings and conclusions drawn from the study itself.

With the aim of providing "more compelling" and "more robust" conclusions (Yin, 2009, p. 53), the study follows the principle of replication. Therefore, each case will be, first, analyzed individually; then, a contrastive analysis across cases will be carried out. Sources of data include semi-structured interviews (primary) and documents (secondary). The procedures for data collection and analysis will be further explained in the next chapter (Chapter 4).

In order to guide the research process and, thus, gain an understanding of the phenomenon under study, a set of objectives and research questions have been proposed. They will be presented in the following sections.

2.1 Objectives

There are two overarching research objectives in this dissertation; the two objectives are the following:

- To gain an understanding of how EMI affects the different roles that English plays for a group of professors and their students in two international universities in Latin America
- To unravel the different roles that English plays in two international universities in Latin America

2.2 Research Questions

Two main research questions (RQ) guided this transnational multiple-case study. The first research question (RQ1) addresses each case separately; thus, following the principle of replication, the very same methods for data collection and data analysis are adopted for both cases. The second research question (RQ2) addresses a contrastive analysis across cases. A number of sub-questions derive from each of these main RQ. Both the main RQ and their sub-questions are presented below.

- **RQ1: How does EMI affect the roles that English plays in international university settings in Latin America?**

Two sub-questions derive from RQ1:

1. How does EMI affect the roles that English plays among professors?
2. From the perspectives of professors, how does EMI affect the roles that English plays among students?

- **RQ2: What functions does English perform in EMI in two international university settings in Latin America? How are these functions similar? How do they differ?**

Two sub-questions derive from RQ1:

1. In which ways are the functions observed in the two universities similar?
2. In which ways do the functions observed in the two universities differ?

As discussed in Chapter 2 (Literature Review), the absence of a clear focus on the “E” (English) in EMI in universities has sometimes caused criticism. This dissertation aims to unveil the various roles or functions, positive or negative, that English serves when EMI is implemented in international university settings. Chapter 4 (Methodology) will provide detailed information about the research design, data collection process, and method of data analysis.

3. Chapter Recap

In Chapter 3, the objectives and research questions that guided this dissertation were presented. In order to contextualize the study, which has been framed as a multi-site, multiple-case study conducted in two international universities in Latin America, the overall goal of the research as well as the research design were briefly summarized.

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY

1. Chapter Overview

Chapter 4 presents the methodological decisions adopted for this qualitative multiple-case study. It describes the paradigm and the reasons for placing the research design under the qualitative arena. It also explains why case study research, and more specifically multiple-case study research, is the appropriate research strategy. The chapter also describes the sampling criteria used and provides information about the context, that is the two researched universities, and the participants. Tables are used to show the most relevant features of the universities and the participants.

Chapter 4, too, provides information about the data collection and data treatment procedures followed. Thus, the sources of data collection are presented from two perspectives: the perspective of the literature and the specific ways in which the data collection techniques were used in the study. The method for data analysis is also explained in detail, always using the relevant support from the literature. Moreover, a step-by-step example is provided in order to show how the method of analysis was undertaken. Finally, the strategies for maintaining research rigor and trustworthiness as well as the set of ethical considerations adopted in this dissertation are presented.

2. Paradigm

Guba and Lincoln (1994) defined a paradigm as a series of "basic beliefs", a "worldview" through which investigators attempt to answer ontological (the notion of reality), epistemological (the notion of knowledge), and methodological (the notion of research) questions as they shape and reshape their inquiry process (p. 200). This dissertation embraces a constructivist paradigm as its overall goal is to build an understanding of the phenomena in question: how EMI affects the various roles that English plays in international universities, from a social and experiential perspective within specific local realities (E. G. Guba & Lincoln, 1994). This was done by conducting interviews with EMI

professors and analyzing official documents in two different university settings: one in Colombia and one in Brazil.

From the ontological viewpoint, researchers and participants co-construct and deconstruct their realities within their own contexts (Martínez Rizo, 2002). Epistemologically speaking, they discover findings and construct knowledge through their human transactions and interactions. As these findings are the product of the researchers' and respondents' beliefs and interpretations, they are relative and contestable; hence, it is the researcher's job to demonstrate the relevance of his proposal by means of persuasion (E. G. Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Last, constructivists rely on multiple sources of data (e.g., observations, interviews, etc.) to validate their claims (Mertens, 2010).

Due to the interactive nature of the data collection and interpretation, constructivist methodological approaches have been known as "hermeneutical" and "dialectical" (E. G. Guba & Lincoln, 1994); the research results and interpretations are collectively and pluralistically constructed, iterated, analyzed, reiterated, reanalyzed and so on (Schwandt, 1998).

The reason that this dissertation is placed within the constructivist paradigm are discussed as follows. First, the overall goal is to gain an understanding of a phenomenon through the views of participants. To some extent, knowledge and *verstehen* (understanding) is jointly constructed by the researcher and the participants within their own contexts (Creswell, 2013; Guba & Lincoln, 2005; Lincoln et al., 2018) . Second, the quality of this investigation is not measured by using positivist and postpositivist approaches (e.g., validity, reliability, etc.), pure objective thinking. Instead, it is measured by combining objective and subjective thinking (Preissle, 2006) and by drawing logical conclusions through the in-depth analysis of rich conversations and documents. Last, despite the fact that closeness between the researcher and the participants might put anonymity and confidentiality at stake, ethics has always been an intrinsic part of this research, and a strict code of ethics was followed (E. E. Guba & Lincoln, 2005; Lincoln et al., 2018).

3. Qualitative Research Approach

This doctoral dissertation is framed as qualitative research for several reasons. Fraenkel and Wallen (2009) argue that qualitative studies "investigate the quality of relationships, activities, situations, or materials" (p. 422); they are a way to gain an understanding of the meanings that a social group gives to a specific situation in a natural context (Creswell, 2009). Such meanings are built through interactions with participants, emerging data collection procedures, and inductive and deductive analysis (Creswell, 2013). Furthermore, qualitative research designs are flexible and do not have a strictly predefined structure (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009, 2012; Kumar, 2005); in lieu, they follow a bottom-up approach and rarely theory as a starting point (Hernández Sampieri et al., 2010, 2014).

Other aspects such as the role of the researcher, the groups studied, and the data collected place this research in the qualitative arena. First, the background and experience of the researcher, who is a language educator, shaped the investigation (Lichtman, 2006); he acted as "a key instrument" (Creswell, 2013, p. 45) since he had direct contact with the participants while immersed in a rich data collection process (Patton, 2008). Also, the characteristics of the participants played a pivotal role: the groups studied were small (Kumar, 2005; Lichtman, 2006), had a clear insight of the situation, and were insiders instead of outsiders (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009, 2012). Last, the study used various types of data collection "rather than relied on a single source" (Creswell, 2013, p. 45); such data are presented in the form of rich descriptions and include direct quotes, as if the voices of the participants could be heard.

4. Case Study as Strategy of Inquiry

Since the main goal of this research is to gain in depth understanding of a phenomenon through thick descriptions and diverse interpretations, it is framed as a case study, more specifically as a multiple-case study (Stake, 1995). Yin (2009, 2018) states that case study researchers focus on current events happening in their natural contexts; hence, a case study is seen as a "bounded system" shaped by a particular setting during a fixed period of time (Creswell, 2013, p.

97). Case studies are set within specific moments, geographical locations, and cultural realities, so researchers can get immersed in the context and grasp a thorough understanding of the participants' realities and perspectives (Cohen et al., 2007; Vargas Beal, 2011). As case studies yield rich descriptions of the situation of interest, a real picture of the context, and a trustworthy perspective of participants, it is an adequate method for this thesis.

This research is a multiple-case study since it examines two cases as part of an overall research (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2012). Yin (2009) argues that, by conducting a "two-case" case study, the "chances of doing a good case study will be better than using a single-case design" (p. 61). Also, as stated by Stake (2005)multi-case studies allow the researcher "to examine how the program or phenomenon performs in different environments" (p. 23). Another advantage is that multiple-case studies may constitute a form of direct replication, and present contrastive views from the same topic. These premises fit the purpose of this multiple-case study as the research design is replicated in two universities; the goal is to answer the same questions and, thus, provide "more compelling" and "more robust" conclusions (Yin, 2009, p. 53).

Creswell (2013) explains that researchers can study different phenomena or programs from one setting (within-site study) or different settings (multi-site study); the goal is to show different views from the same issue. This research is a multi-site study conducted in two different international universities located in two Latin American countries, but its goal is to examine the same issue in both settings.

Last, Stake (1995) and Yin (2009, 2018) recommend using different sources of data collection such as documents and interviews; in addition, Creswell (2013) advises the use of audiovisual materials, namely videos and websites. Paying tribute to its nature as a multi-site, multiple-case study, this research considers various sources of information. Two types of data are used. Conversational data in the form of semi-structured interviews with participants are the primary sources of information. Documentary data in the form of official documents, mainly gathered from webpages, act as secondary sources of

information. Following the principle of replication, the same sources of data collection were used in both cases under study.

5. Sampling Criteria

The sampling criteria to select both the two participating institutions and the two groups of professors will be explained in this section.

As generalizing is not the target of qualitative research, the most common type of sampling method is non-probability, or non-random, sampling (Merriam, 1998); generalization is not a goal in this multiple-case study, so it followed the premise of non-probability sampling. Also within this framework, purposeful sampling was considered in selecting the two participating universities as it leads to "information-rich cases … from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research" (Patton, 1990, p. 169).

The same principles of purposeful sampling were followed to select the eight professors, four in each university, who participated in each case study. Hence, the researcher attempted to have a group of participants whose particularities resulted in the finding of comparative variables which allowed him to answer the research questions in each institution (Cohen et al., 2007) and, then, conduct the cross-case analysis.

For multiple-case studies, Creswell (2013) suggests choosing "unusual cases" and using "maximum variation as a sampling strategy to represent diverse cases and to fully describe multiple perspectives about the cases" (p. 156). This study followed the previous recommendation as it was conducted in two international universities, one private and one public, located in two different Latin American countries: Colombia and Brazil. Accordingly, each university uses different national languages for education and communication purposes: Spanish in Colombia and Portuguese in Brazil; thus, each of them adheres to different language education policies.

Concerning the participants who were interviewed in each university, they were all EMI professors, but they also had diverse characteristics (disciplines, years of experience, etc.). Selecting these two different international

universities and groups of professors allowed the researcher to, first, gain an understanding of the phenomenon under study in each institution separately, and then, to establish a comparison across cases. The specific characteristics of the participating universities and groups of professors will be further explained in Section 6 (Context and Participants).

Marshall and Rossman (1995)discuss the importance of selecting a setting in which (a) access is easy, (b) a mixture of rich and representative data is possible, (c) a close relationship with the participants is established, and (c) quality and reliability of the research is guaranteed. The researcher considered these conditions when selecting the participating institutions. In the Colombian university, where he works as a professor, it was easy to gain access and develop a close relationship with the participants; any conflict of interest related to this will be explained in Section 10 (Ethical Considerations).

In the Brazilian university, the researcher gained access through a "gatekeeper" (Creswell, 2013), a faculty member of this institution. While the researcher traveled to Brazil, ensuring a close relationship with the participants was a bit more difficult as his visit only lasted ten days. Last, representative and rich data as well as quality and reliability were ensured in both contexts as thorough and rigorous data collection and data analysis procedures were conducted in both university settings at all times.

6. Context and Participants

This section presents the characteristics of the two international universities and the two groups of professors that participated in each case: Case 1 University (Colombia) and Case 2 University (Brazil).

6.1 Context: Participating Universities

As explained in Section 5 (Sampling Criteria), in principle, purposeful sampling was considered in selecting the two international universities that took part in this multiple-case study; as such, while generalizing has never been the purpose, both institutions had to provide an opportunity to engage in a rich data collection process that allowed the researcher to address the phenomena in question: how

EMI affects the various roles that English plays among a group of professors and their students in an international university and what specific roles English plays within this population. In order to accomplish this, the participating institutions had to meet the characteristics of "an international university", which the researcher defined after conducting a thorough literature review process. Thus, the participating universities had to:

a. be located in a country "where the first language of the majority of the population is not English" (Macaro, 2018, p. 1);
b. purposefully integrate international and intercultural dimensions into their curricula (Beelen & Jones, 2015b) within formal and informal environments (Leask, 2015);
c. be multilingual and embrace various forms of multilingualism (Smit, 2018);
d. had given English a privileged status, "be it in education, research, administration, or management" (Dafouz & Smit, 2020, p. 2); and
e. offer English-mediated instruction (Macaro, 2018) or English-Medium Education (Dafouz & Smit, 2020).

All five criteria were fulfilled as (a) one of the universities was located in Colombia and the other one in Brazil, where Spanish and Portuguese are the national languages, respectively; (b) both universities had an internationalization office which led internationalization-related activities, including the intercultural dimension; (c) both universities were multilingual, so they either provided or allowed the provision of language learning services or initiatives; (d) in both universities English had been given a privileged status at the educational (e.g., medium of instruction), institutional (e.g., ELF or language policy), and/or research (e.g., rankings) level; and (e) both universities were offering EMI courses at the time the research took place.

Table 1 shows the general characteristics of the two international universities which participated in each case study.

Institution (Case Study)	Location	Type	Foundation
Colombian University (Case 1)	Bogota, Colombia	Private	1940s
Brazilian University: (Case 2)	São Paulo, Brazil	Public	1930s

Table 1: General characteristics of the participating universities

As seen in the table, both international universities are located in large and important cities; the Colombian university (Case 1) is located in Bogota, the capital city as well as the largest and most populated city in the country while the Brazilian university (Case 2) is located in São Paulo, one of the largest, most populated, and most important cities in the country. A major difference between these two universities is that Case 1 University is a private institution while Case 2 University is a public institution. Both have less than 100 years of foundation: Case 1 University was founded around 80 years ago and Case 2 University was founded around 90 years ago. It is important to mention, however, that both universities were highly-ranked by the *QS Latin American University Rankings* and the *Times Higher Education Latin American University Rankings* during 2019 and 2020, the time in which this study took place.

The researcher was able to be physically present in the two researched universities, so most of the data, specifically the interviews, was collected in situ. In fact, he works for the Colombian university, so he had to get permission from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) to conduct his research. This process will further be discussed in Section 10 (Ethical Considerations). He also received a research grant in his university; part of the funds were used to travel to Brazil and collect the data. Visiting these two campuses and getting to know facilities such as the internationalization offices and language departments or centers gave the researcher that sense of "being there." As suggested by Stake (1995), "the physical space is fundamental to meanings for most researchers" (p. 63).

6.2 Participants: Professors

Eight participants, four from each university, took part in the study, more specifically in the interviews. As suggested by Patton (1990), "a small sample of great diversity" may produce "important shared patterns that cut across cases and

derive their significance from having emerged out of heterogeneity." All participants were professors belonging to different disciplines who were teaching EMI courses at the time of the study and who were familiar with the internationalization initiatives in their universities. These were the basic characteristics they all had to have in order to take part in the study and provide information-rich data. In addition, all participating professors were full-time faculty members with a permanent contract who had been teaching EMI courses for, at least, one year.

The first contact with the group of participating professors was established via email. Following the IRB guidelines, they were asked to sign an informed consent form; these were written in Spanish (see Appendix 1) and Portuguese (see Appendix 2), so the participants could choose to sign the document in any of these languages. Additionally, participants were all asked to fill out a short socio-demographic questionnaire which provided valuable information about their education and years of teaching experience; once again, the questionnaire was designed in multiple languages; nonetheless, only the Spanish version is included in this thesis (see Appendix 3). The information drawn from the sociodemographic questionnaire also helped to shape and interpret the results. Table 2 shows the general characteristics of Case 1 participants (Colombia) while Table 3 shows the general characteristics of Case 2 participants (Brazil).

	Participant (alias)	**Gender**	**Discipline**	**EMI Experience**
1	BAR	Male	Engineering	2 ½ years
2	VAL	Male	History	1 ½ years
3	SEB	Male	Business	6 years
4	OLI	Male	Medicine	6 years

Table 2: General characteristics of Case 1 Participants

	Participant (alias)	Gender	Discipline	EMI Experience
1	OIKO	Female	Humanities	15 years
2	HIRO	Male	Biomedical science	4 years
3	SALO	Male	Accounting	5 years
4	KATO	Male	Economics	1 year

Table 3: General characteristics of Case 2 Participants

As the tables show, all participants were assigned an alias. Creswell (2013) recommends that researchers "protect the anonymity of participants by masking their names in the data" (p. 175); this was one of the requirements imposed by the IRB as well. The majority of participants, seven out of eight, were male; this gender issue will be discussed in more detail in Section 10 (Ethical Considerations). Last, all participants belonged in different disciplines and had a wide range of years of EMI teaching experience. More information about their affiliations will be given in the analysis and discussion chapters for each case; that is, Chapter 5 for Case 1 and Chapter 6 for Case 2 respectively.

7. Data Collection and Treatment

To collect data for a case study, authors recommend multiple sources of information, namely interviews and documents (Yin, 2009, 2018); the latter may come in the form of webpages (Creswell, 2013). Following Yin's and Creswell's advice, this multiple-case study uses conversational data, more specifically semi-structured interviews, as the primary sources of data collection; as secondary sources of information, the study utilizes official documents, mostly retrieved from official webpages. Because this multiple-case study follows the principle of replication, the same sources of data collection were adopted for both cases. Further information about how primary and secondary sources of data were used in this research will be presented in Section 7.1 (Sources of Data Collection).

The use of various sources of data also serves the purpose of triangulation, which "involves corroborating evidence from different sources to shed light on a theme or perspective" (Creswell, 2013, p. 251). In this multiple-

case study, the same sources of data were used in the two cases, and this served the purpose of triangulation from a double standpoint. First, the use of conversational data and documentary data allowed the researcher to corroborate the results obtained within each case individually; afterwards, these results were contrasted across cases, thus, leading to a second round of corroborating evidence.

This "double triangulation", in turn, resulted in more solid and more compelling findings to address the phenomena in question: how EMI affects the various roles that English plays among a group of professors and their students in two international universities and what specific roles English plays within this population. Moreover, by adopting a contrastive analysis to find common and divergent patterns emerging from the data collected in two cases, this multiple-case study also attempted to test the principle of transferability (E. G. Guba & Lincoln, 1985). The method of analysis undertaken for the data will be presented in detail in Section 8 (Data Analysis); additionally, further information about the strategies adopted to maintain research rigor will be explained in Section 8.2 (Strategies for Research Rigor).

It is important to mention that, because this research was conducted in two different international universities: one located in a Spanish-speaking country and one located in a Portuguese-speaking country, in terms of the language of the majority of the population, it can be considered a multilingual research study. As such, the researcher had to deal with information and transactions in three different languages: Spanish (his L1), English (his L2), and Portuguese (an additional language in his repertoire).

For Holmes et al. (2016), those who undertake multilingual research have higher chances of: gaining a richer insight of the situation under study, reflecting upon the sociopolitical power that language exerts, accessing multiple sources of literature in various languages, working cross-culturally, and reflecting upon different types of ethical considerations. The gains or advantages provided by the authors constituted a highly valuable learning experience for the researcher throughout the development of this dissertation.

As expected, transcription and translation of data had to be dealt with in this multilingual research. The researcher, who is a language educator, is proficient in Spanish (L1) and English (L2); he, too, has high reading comprehension in Portuguese. Plus, multilingual assistants (L1: Spanish, L2: English/Portuguese) provided support with data collection (e.g., document retrieval) and treatment (e.g., transcriptions, translations, etc.). Interviews were transcribed as "verbatim transcription of recorded interviews provides the best database for analysis" (Merriam, 1998, p. 88). Transcriptions were first done by the assistants; afterwards, the researcher heard the recordings through in order to lessen misinterpretation (Denzin, 1989; LeCompte & Goetz, 1982), correct transcription mistakes, and select key information.

Concerning translations, they were made to some interview excerpts, documents, and webpages: Spanish to English in Case 1 (Colombia) and Portuguese to English in Case 2 (Brazil). Regmi et al. (2010) argue that, in cross-cultural research involving more than one language, researchers must guarantee that meaning will not be lost in translation. Thus, it is key to find a translator who can skillfully navigate between the languages and cultures of the research (Choi et al., 2012). The researchers' proficiency in three languages as well as the support provided by the multilingual research assistants helped guarantee that all translations were made accurately.

7.1 Sources of Data Collection

Conversational Data: Semi-structured Interviews

Dexter (1970) referred to interviews as "conversations with a purpose" (as cited in Guba & Lincoln, 1981, p. 154), while Brinkmann & Kvale (2018) argued that semi-structured interviews nourish from the interviewees' experiences or opinions, which constitutes the "raw material" to be interpreted. In this research, learning about the participants' experiences and opinions was crucial, so semi-structured, in-depth interviews were conducted. These interviews constituted the primary source of data to delve into how EMI affected the roles or functions that English played among the participants.

Patton (1990) argues that "we interview people to find out from them those things we cannot directly observe" (p. 196) such as emotions, ideas, desires, and previous experiences. This represents a major advantage of interviews in qualitative research. Patton proposed three types of questions: *opinion questions*, which elicit "the respondent's goals, beliefs, attitudes, or values" (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009, p. 448); *experience questions*, which delve into the interviewee's past or present; and *feeling questions*, which target the interviewee's feelings towards a subject. All three types of questions were used during the interviews with participants in this study.

To conduct the interviews, an interview guide or "a list of questions you intend to ask" (Merriam, 1998, p. 81) was used. To better frame the interview questions (Creswell, 2013), the guide was piloted with a group of experts in language education in Colombia. Piloting helped to eliminate leading and dichotomous questions (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009, 2012) and Yes-or-No questions (Merriam, 1998). The interview guides were multilingual: Spanish, English, and Portuguese (see Appendix 4 for the English version). Whilst no interviews were conducted in Portuguese; the guide aimed to help participants clarify any doubts they could have about a particular question.

Although interviews are well respected in qualitative research (Fetterman, 1989; E. G. Guba & Lincoln, 1981), particularly in case study research (Yin, 2009, 2018), they may also entail an imbalance of power during the interactions interviewer-interviewee. Brinkmann and Kvale (2018) argue that interviews are usually one-way conversations in which the interviewer exerts most of the control; this may give him or her some power to manipulate the dialogue and to monopolize the interpretations. Qualitative research has historically been a democratic practice (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000), but these issues in interviewing have caused questioning and criticism.

In this doctoral dissertation, the researcher tried to deal with the previously mentioned issues by following a few recommendations in DeCarlo (2018) and Pezalla et al., (2012); for example, he tried to use language that the participants would understand, maintained a good rapport at all times, and was open to criticism and negotiations of meaning. Also, he carried out all of the

interviews in places that the participants would choose and, thus, feel comfortable with (e.g., their own offices).

Kvale (1996) recommends recording and transcribing interviews. In this research, all of the interviews were recorded using a Sony noise cut recorder, so everything that was said was "preserved for analysis" (Merriam, 1998, p. 87). For transcribing, the researcher had the support of research assistants; nonetheless, he later proofread and corrected every transcription.

In total, eight interviews were conducted: four in Colombia (Case 1) and four in Brazil (Case 2). As for the language, participants chose between Spanish or English. In Colombia, two interviews were held in Spanish and two in English. One participant had Spanish as his L1 and one had English as his L1; the other two were native speakers of other European languages. In Brazil, three interviews were held in English and one in Spanish; all participants spoke Portuguese as their L1. The interviews were analyzed in the original language in which they were conducted. Relevant information retrieved in Spanish was translated into English by the researcher. Interviews lasted between 31 and 73 minutes. More detailed information about the interviews will be provided in Section 9 (Corpus Description).

Since the researcher could be physically present in both contexts, most interviews were conducted face-to-face in places that were chosen by the participants (e.g., their offices or a café). Only one interview was conducted through a video-conference, but this did not seem to represent any threats to the research as the researcher had met this participant in Brazil and, during the interview, they could still see each other's face. Taylor and Bodgan (1984) described the importance of face-to-face interactions between the researcher and the participants while interviewing; this contact is believed to enhance rapport, communication, and confidence, which may lead to the gathering of accurate information (Kumar, 2005).

The researcher attempted to create an atmosphere of mutual trust and respect during the interviews by paying close attention to the interviewees and by asking probing questions to obtain examples and details of their accounts

(Gillham, 2005; Taylor et al., 2015). Last, while all of the interviews were tape-recorded, the researcher took notes in the interview guides. He, too, wrote his thoughts, impressions, and reflections after each interview to complement the data collection process and to prepare for analysis (Merriam, 1998).

Documentary Data: Official Documents and Webpages

By definition, documents comprise "a wide range of written, visual, and physical material relevant to the study at hand" (Merriam, 1998, p. 112). Now, the use of the internet to collect data in the so-called digital era has become a powerful tool, if not the only tool, for qualitative researchers (Hewson, 2020; Reips, 2012). Thus, since information about educational institutions (e.g., documents, reports, etc.) is of public domain on their official websites, the use of webpages as a data collection technique is becoming more common, especially after the Covid-19 pandemic led to the closing of schools and universities. In fact, researchers interested in EMI and internationalization are now using university webpages for their studies (see Miranda & Molina-Naar, 2022; Rose & McKinley, 2018). In educational research, documents and webpages, then, represent a far-reaching data collection source.

In this research, documents were used as secondary sources of data in order to retrieve corroborating evidence for the claims and interpretations made in each case individually and across cases. As explained in Section 6 (Context and Participants), selecting institutions that truly met the criteria set for an "international university" was of prime importance to establish effective comparisons across cases; thus, analyzing the university's webpages in order to learn which IaH or EMI strategies, for example, were in place helped enrich the results obtained in this multiple-case study.

The analyzed documents consisted of strategic plans (mission, vision, goals, etc.), internationalization guidelines and webpages, and language policies, among others. Most documents were originally published in Spanish or Portuguese; a few of them were also available in English. The researcher has full mastery of Spanish and English as well as high comprehension of written Portuguese. Also, the multilingual assistants provided support with the gathering

and translation of some documents, especially in the Brazilian case; they were given guidelines to carry out these processes in advance. More information about which documents were gathered in each case will be presented in Section 9 (Corpus Description).

The use of documentation entails both drawbacks and benefits which also emerged in this dissertation. For instance, accessing documents was not always easy as they were sometimes protected, withheld, incomplete, or even nonexistent (Creswell, 2009; Merriam, 1998; Yin, 2009, 2018). Another disadvantage is that documents may contain biases unknown by the researcher (McCulloch, 2004; Merriam, 1998; Yin, 2009); this sometimes happened in the Brazilian case. On the other hand, document review is an unobtrusive data collection technique (Creswell, 2009; E. G. Guba & Lincoln, 1981; Yin, 2009, 2018), which allows for wide coverage of information (Creswell, 2009), especially when dealing with "cross-cultural studies in which settings are remote or inaccessible" (Merriam, 1998, p. 125). Given its design as a transnational study, the latter was one of the most substantial benefits of using documents in this research.

Document selection must undergo a series of filters so that the information collected will not jeopardize the trustworthiness of the research. McCulloch (2004) proposed four principles for the selection of documents: *authenticity*, that is determining its legitimacy (Merriam, 1998); *reliability*, mainly through identifying potential biases; *meaning*, which requires the researcher to consider the contextual conditions of the text (Merriam, 1998); and *theorisation*, or the adoption of a theoretical view to examine and analyze the documents.

All of the four above-mentioned rules were considered to select, review, and analyze the documents in both institutions. While all of the institutional documents and webpages used in this research were *legitimate*, the researcher tried to keep a critical eye when assessing their *reliability* and *meaning*. As stated by Yin (2009), documents "are not always accurate and may not be lacking in bias" (p. 103). During the analysis of the documents, the researcher, then, tried to use the appropriate theory to reduce biases. Finally, in order to avoid putting

participants at risk and to protect the principles of anonymity and confidentiality set by the IRB, samples of the documents analyzed will be not included in the appendixes.

7.2 Data Collection Process

Data collection started as soon as the research proposal was approved by the IRB in September 2019 in the Colombian university. For about ten months (September 2019 - July 2020), large amounts of data were collected, so the researcher had to keep them secure and, thus, ensure the participants' anonymity. Further information about this will be presented in Section 10 (Ethical Considerations). Figure 3 summarizes the stages of data collection, treatment, and analysis followed in this dissertation:

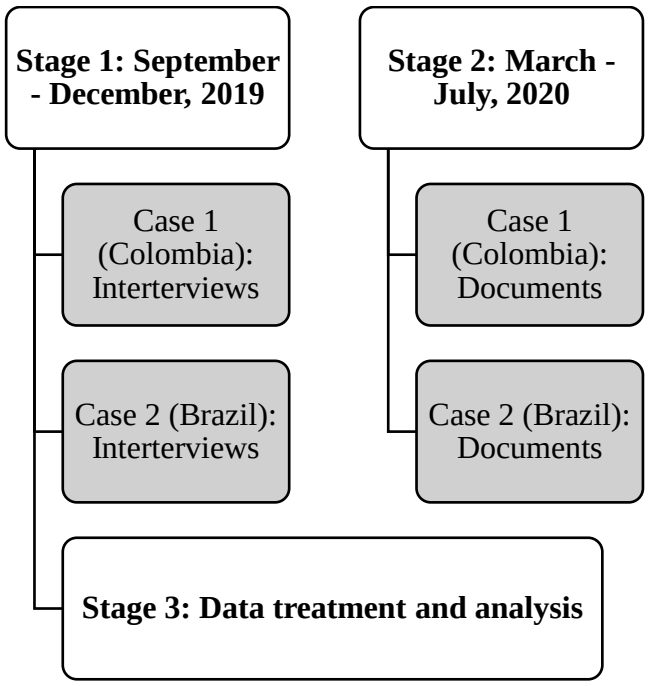

Figure 3: Stages of data collection, data treatment, and analysis

As shown in the figure, the data collection process was divided into two stages. Between September and December 2019, the interviews with participants from both universities were carried out. The researcher travelled to Brazil during the last week of October and first week of November 2019 to collect the data. In the Colombian university, interviews happened a few weeks afterwards. Then, between March and July 2020, institutional documents were collected from both

universities. With the support of the research assistants, transcriptions and translations (data treatment) were done as soon as the data was collected.

As the researcher conducted the interviews himself, he started to identify common patterns between the two cases at an early stage; however, the formal method of analysis was not completed until all of the data were collected, and until the method itself was piloted and tested in order to guarantee trustworthiness. This was also a way "to avoid imposing meaning from one participant's interview on the next" (Seidman, 2006, p. 113). In fact, the researcher, who is language teacher and an active member of the field of language education research, made a conscious effort to avoid imposing his own knowledge and, thus, hinder his ability to identify emergent categories and conduct data-based analysis and interpretations. The data analysis method and procedures are presented in the following section.

8. Data Analysis

While conducting a thorough literature review on EMI since 2018, the researcher came across the ROAD-MAPPING Framework. As explained in Chapter 2 (Literature Review) ROAD-MAPPING is a holistic framework built upon theories in sociolinguistics, ecolinguistics, and language policy (Dafouz & Smit, 2020). While the framework can be used in research design, this was not the case in this dissertation as ROAD-MAPPING was published in 2020 and data collection started in 2019. In addition, paying tribute to its original design as qualitative research, this study mainly followed a bottom-up approach and not theory as a starting point (Hernández Sampieri et al., 2014). Nonetheless, ROAD-MAPPING did have a major role in the method of analysis later adopted in this multi-site, multiple case-study as it can "function as a comprehensive conceptual framework… when aiming for analyses across sites" (Dafouz & Smit, 2020, p. 77).

As discussed in the literature review, ROAD-MAPPING is made up of six dimensions: roles of English (RO), academic disciplines (AD), (language) management (M), agents (A), practices and processes (PP), and internationalization and glocalization (ING). Initially, the dissertation aimed to

focus on two dimensions: RO and PP, although at the time these were framed as "perceptions about English" and "declared EMI practices". In fact, during the analysis stage, the coding process was done with this idea in mind. Nonetheless, because a large number of codes emerged, the researcher realized that reporting on all of these data was not a practical option. Bearing in mind that, as opposed to models such as CLIL or ESP, the role of English in EMI has been said to be unclear and, as a consequence, EMI has often been the target of criticism, the researcher decided to focus on RO only and, as such, contribute to the field of EMI, especially within the Latin American reality.

While the identification of common patterns across cases began as soon as the interviews were taking place, the formal method of analysis was not completely defined until the end of the data-collection process, which happened sometime between May and July 2020. This was also a way for the researcher to ensure research rigor and trustworthiness in his study. The strategies for research rigor adopted in this dissertation will be presented in more detail in Section 8.2 (Strategies for Research Rigor).

Following the ROAD-MAPPING author's recommendations, the dimensions, specifically Roles of English (RoE from now own) was used as "a starting point for initial top-down codes that require further development and specification in relation to either other theoretical frameworks and/or bottom-up codes that emerge during the iterative rounds of coding" (Dafouz & Smit, 2020, pp. 81–82). Another recommendation made by the authors is that ROAD-MAPPING can incorporate qualitative content analysis (QCA) to undertake the coding process. Drawing on Selvi's (2020) work, QCA was used to identify emerging codes in this research. In QCA, interpretations are systematic, context-dependent (Mayring, 2014; Schreier, 2014), and aim to understand multiple realities within a natural context and through the participant's eyes (Cho & Lee, 2014; Mayring, 2000). Hence, this method of analysis was found to be appropriate for this multiple-case study.

Furthermore, a codebook (Saldaña, 2009, 2016) mostly consisting of common patterns drawn from data is "the backbone of any QCA inquiry" (Schreier, 2014, as cited in Selvi, 2020, p. 444). In this research, the codebook was built upon a mixture of theory-driven, or deductive, and data-driven, or inductive, analysis (Mayring, 2000). The theory-driven codes, for the most part, emerged from the RoE dimension. Figure 4 shows how, drawing from ROAD-MAPPING as a starting point and the principles of QCA, the codebook was created:

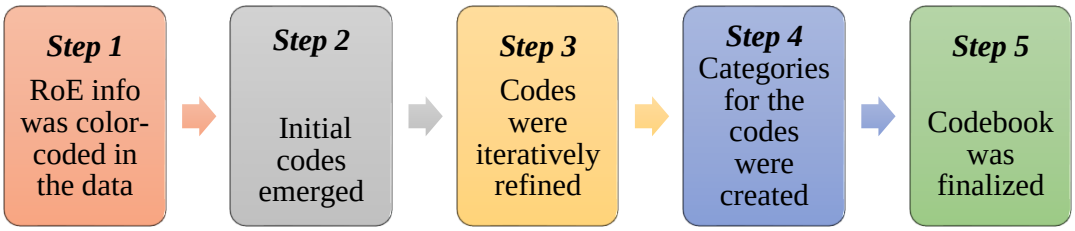

Figure 4: Step-by-step process for the creation of the codebook

As the figure shows, *the first step* after all interview transcripts had been classified and prepared for analysis, was **color-coding** all of the information related to the concept of RoE. In *step 2*, all this color-coded information was labeled and, so, **initial codes emerged**. In QCA, data are iteratively processed, thus, allowing for **codes to be iteratively refined** (e.g., combined, renamed, etc.); this was *step 3*. As existing codes were refined and new codes emerged, general **categories were created**. Codes were, then, classified under these **categories**; this was *step 4*. Categories emerged as more general constructs under which a set of related codes were classified; as such, categories allowed for a better systematization of codes and a more organized report of the results. Only after all codes and categories had been validated with the support and guidance of the supervisor, the **codebook was finalized**; this was *step 5*.

Table 4 shows the final set of codes and categories which emerged after the iterative processing of the data. The complete version of the codebook, which contains the codes and the categories, the definitions for each code and category, the number of occurrences for each code, and interview excerpts that illustrate each code can be found in Appendix 5.

CATEGORY	CODES
Functions of English in Academia and in the profession	English as a default tool for communication in academia
	English as a legitimate language requirement in higher education
	English as an essential tool to succeed in the discipline or for the profession.
Language complementarity vs. Language conflict	English vs. other languages in the discipline or in the profession
	English vs. other languages in the classroom
	Purpose of English vs. purposes of other languages
	Language protectionism
Proficiency in English	The Influence of Teachers' English proficiency in the development of EMI
	The relationship between socio-economic background and English proficiency

Table 4: RoE codes and categories used to analyze the data

As seen in the table, three categories and nine codes were included in the codebook. The analytical process for the data collected was, then, carried out in light of these elements. The same structure was adopted to report and discuss the findings in the results chapters for each case; that is, Chapter 5 for the case of the Colombian University (Case 1) and Chapter 6 for the case of the Brazilian University (Case 2) respectively. By way of example, the step-by-step process about how the analysis of the data was carried out and, thus, how codes and categories emerged (see Figure 4) will be presented in the next section.

8.1 Example of the Analytical Process

This section aims to show how the analytical process for the data collected was carried out. Hence, in order to illustrate how this step-by-step process occurred, two interview excerpts from two Case 1 participants, SEB and VAL, will be used. The goal is to clearly show how this process was conducted in this dissertation under the principles of transparency and research rigor.

a. **Step 1**: RoE information was color-coded in the interview excerpts.

The way in which Step 1, color-coding information related to RoE, was carried out will be shown by using an excerpt from SEB's interview. The except is shown below.

> Excerpt 5.12. SEB-Int3: *Currently, all high-level conversations about business and business research are happening in English. There are some conversations in German, in French and probably Chinese, but the ones that are relevant are all happening in English.*

As seen in this first quote (Excerpt 5.12. SEB-Int3), SEB referred to the role of English in his profession (business); however, he also mentioned other languages. The researcher considered this piece of information relevant to analyze the phenomenon under research, especially because, as stated by Dafouz and Smit, in international universities, English "is in contact and conflict with other languages" (p. 47). Thus, he color-coded this quote in the interview transcript using a blue highlighter.

b. **Step 2**: Initial codes emerged

The way in which Step 2, emergence of initial codes, occurred will also be shown by using an excerpt from SEB's interview. The except is shown below.

> Excerpt 5.12. SEB-Int3: *Currently, **(1)** all high-level conversations about business and business research are happening in English. **(2)** There are some conversations in German, in French and probably Chinese, but the ones that are relevant are all happening in English.*

Based on SEB's quote, two initial codes emerged: (1) Conversations about business in English and (2) Conversations about business in other languages. By the time the analysis of this interview transcripts was completed, no other information had been labeled with these two codes. Thus, the researcher continued to analyze other interviews.

c. **Step 3**: Codes were iteratively refined

The way in which Step 3, iterative refinement of codes, was conducted will be shown by using an excerpt from VAL's interview. Below the excerpt, it will be explained how the codes that emerged from VAL's interview were combined with the codes that emerged from SEB's interview. VAL's except is shown below.

> Excerpt 5.11. VAL-Int2: *People who work in academia tend to know English more than anything else. So, if you have to communicate with somebody who doesn't speak the same mother tongue as you, you're going to use one: you gotta use English…*

As seen in the interview excerpt (Excerpt 5.11. VAL-Int2), VAL also referred to "conversations" or "communication" in English as opposed to communication in other languages (e.g., among people with different mother tongues). He did not specifically refer to "communication in the field of business", but, similar to SEB, VAL was talking about how the function of English in the academic world is perceived as opposed to that of other languages. Hence, the code "English vs. other languages in the discipline or in the profession", which encapsulates more information than "Conversation about business in English/other languages" emerged throughout the iterative refinement of the data.

d. **Step 4**: Categories for the codes were created

By now, other related codes, namely "English vs. other languages in the classroom" and "Purpose of English vs. purposes of other languages" had emerged from the data. Consequently, the researcher saw the need to group these related codes into categories that would allow for a better systematization of codes and a more organized report of the results. Hence, the category "Language complementarity vs. Language conflict" was created.

Step 5: Codebook was finalized

After all codes had been iteratively refined and categories had been created for them, the codebook was finalized. When coding for Case 1 was finalized, the researcher proceeded to analyze and code the interview transcriptions for Case 2

by following the very same steps. As it was previously mentioned, this process of validation was carried out with the support and guidance of the supervisor. Other strategies used to ensure rigor in this research will be presented in the next section.

8.2 Strategies for Research Rigor

Guba and Lincoln (1985) proposed a set of criteria to maintain rigor in qualitative studies and, thus, enhance trustworthiness; some strategies are: prolonged engagement, persistent observation, triangulation, peer debriefing, negative case analysis, referential adequacy, and member checking (E. G. Guba & Lincoln, 1985). Creswell (2013) argues that, at least, two of these must be adopted in qualitative research. In this dissertation, the researcher used triangulation and peer debriefing in order to achieve what Guba and Lincoln (1985) consider the goal of a qualitative researcher: To convince himself and others that his findings and assertions "are worth paying attention to" and "taking account for" (p. 290).

In qualitative research analysis, "triangulation involves cross-validating findings from one data source, or method, or perspective with findings from other data sources, methods, and perspectives" so that "more reliable and valid conclusions could be made about the phenomenon under study" (Riazi, 2016, p. 330). Yin (2009) argues that, in order to render the phenomenon under study comprehensible for the researcher and his audience, corroborating evidence from different sources is needed.

As explained earlier, the same sources of data were used in the two cases that compose this multiple-case study, which allowed for triangulation from a double standpoint. First, the use of two different sources of information, interviews, and documents, allowed the researcher to corroborate the results obtained within each individual case; afterwards, these results underwent a contrastive analysis across cases, thus, leading to a second round of corroborating evidence. This "double triangulation" resulted in more solid and more compelling findings to address the phenomena in question. As such, the researcher's interpretations were not arbitrary; they were based on

correspondences and patterns within each case and across cases (Stake, 1995) as well on the existing theory (e.g., ROAD-MAPPING framework).

Peer debriefing, or peer review, sessions were also an important strategy to maintain trustworthiness in this research. Merriam (1998) suggests presenting the collected data to other peers and asking them to share their own insights and interpretations. Such sessions act like an external audit for the investigator and constitute "an opportunity for catharsis, thereby clearing the mind of emotions and feelings that may be clouding good judgment or preventing emergence of sensible next steps" (E. G. Guba & Lincoln, 1985, p. 308). During 2020 and 2021, the researcher had several peer debriefing sessions with different groups of people, including his thesis supervisor, other PhD students from UAB, and colleagues who are experienced researchers in language education. These meetings provided valuable moments to be listened to, validate the analytical decision making process (codebook), present and discuss preliminary findings, and clear oneself from biases and prejudices (Creswell, 2013; Merriam, 1998).

9. Corpus Description

For this dissertation, large amounts of data were collected during a period of ten months (September 2019 - July 2020). As described earlier in Section 7.1 (Sources of Data Collection), two types of sources were used in this multiple-case study: semi-structured interviews as the primary sources of information and official documents as the secondary sources of information. Hereafter, each set of data collected per case, Case 1 University (Colombia) and Case 2 University (Brazil), will be presented. The summary of the corpus description in terms of total number of words in interview transcripts and number of documents analyzed for both cases will be shown as well.

9.1 Case 1: The Colombian University

In this section, all of the primary and secondary data collected in Case 1 are presented. Primary data consisted of interviews. Table 5 summarizes the information about the four interviews conducted with the four participants in Case 1 University:

	Participant	Length	Language	Type
1	BAR	50:59	Spanish	Face-to-face
2	VAL	51:20	English	Face-to-face
3	SEB	38:19	English	Face-to-face
4	OLI	31:41	Spanish	Face-to-face

Table 5: Information about Case 1 Interviews

As seen in the table, four interviews were conducted in Case 1 University; each participant was interviewed once. Interviews lasted between 31 and 51 minutes. Two interviews were conducted in Spanish and two interviews were conducted in English. All interviews were face-to-face, and all of them were conducted at the participant's office in Case 1 University. As explained in Section 7.1 (Sources of Data Collection) all of the interviews were recorded using a Sony noise cut recorder; they were also transcribed verbatim in the original language. Information about the total number of words in interview transcripts will be presented in Section 9.3 (Summary of Corpus Description).

Secondary data consisted of official documents, some of them in the form of webpages. Table 6 summarizes the information about the five documents that were analyzed in Case 1 University:

	Name of Document	Language	Type
1	Comprehensive Development Plan	Spanish	PDF
2	Internationalization Office (IO) webpage	Spanish and English	Webpage
3	Internationalization guidelines	Spanish	PDF
4	L2 Policy	Spanish	PDF
5	Language Department webpage	Spanish	Webpage

Table 6: Information about Case 1 Official Documents

The *Comprehensive Development Plan* is the chief or master document for the institution. This 36-page document encompasses the institutional principles,

mission, strategies, and goals within a four-year period. The *IO webpage* presents the mission and goals of the IO; it also contains information about institutional agreements, exchange programs for local students, and a guide for international students. The *Internationalization guidelines* were located on the IO webpage; they explain the internationalization objectives for the institution as well as the role of the IO. Finally, the *L2 Policy* presents the L2 requirements that students must fulfill while the *Language Department webpage* offers information about the language courses and services (e.g., tutoring center) that the university provides to the academic community.

9.2 Case 2: The Brazilian University

In this section, all of the primary and secondary data collected in Case 2 are presented. As in Case 1, primary data consisted of interviews. Table 7 summarizes the information about the four interviews conducted with the four participants in Case 2 University:

	Participant	Length	Language	Type
1	OIKO	73:32	English	Face-to-face
2	HIRO	32:20	English	Face-to-face
3	SALO	57:18	English	Face-to-face
4	KATO	25:44	Spanish	Video-conference

Table 7: Information about Case 2 Interviews

As seen in the table, four interviews were conducted in Case 2 University; each participant was interviewed once. Interviews lasted between 32 and 73 minutes. Three interviews were conducted in English and one interview was conducted in Spanish. Three interviews were face-to-face; they were conducted at the participant's office in Case 2 University or any place they chose. Only one interview was carried out through a videoconference. As explained in Section 7.1 (Sources of Data Collection) all of the interviews were recorded using a Sony noise cut recorder; they were also transcribed verbatim in the original language.

Information about the total number of words in interview transcriptions will be presented in Section 9.3 (Summary of Corpus Description).

The same as in Case 1, secondary data in Case 2 consisted of official documents, more specifically of webpages. Table 8 summarizes the information about the two documents that were analyzed in Case 1 University:

	Name of Document	Language	Type
1	Institutional website	Portuguese	Webpage
2	Internationalization Office (IO) webpage	Portuguese and English	Webpage

Table 8: Information about Case 2 Official Documents

Different from Case 1 University, Case 2 University does not have a master document which outlines the institution's principles, mission, or goals. Instead, this information is included on the *institutional website*, which consists of various tabs. In addition, the *IO webpage* presents the internationalization goals for the entire university; it also offers a wide range of information about mobility programs, agreements, and international networks. It is important to mention that, in Case 2 University, each school or faculty also runs its own IO. More information about this will be presented in Chapter 6 in the section *Institution's Overview*. Last, as opposed to Case 1 University, there is not a language center or department for the provision of language services in Case 2 University; information about language-related initiatives is included in the IO office. This will be further explained under the section *Institution's Overview* in Chapter 6 as well.

9.3 Summary of Corpus Description

In this section, the total number of words in interview transcripts and the total number of documents which were analyzed for both cases will be shown. Table 9 shows the summary of the corpus description presented previously for Case 1 University and Case 2 University.

	Interviews			Official Documents		
Case	**Total interviewees**	**Total Interviews**	**Total Words**	**PDF**	**Webpages**	**Total Docs.**
Case 1	4	4	21.393	3	2	5
Case 2	4	4	20.498	0	2	2
Total	8	8	41.891	3	4	7

Table 9: Summary of the Corpus Description

The table above summarizes all of the data collected in both cases. For a period of ten months (September 2019 - July 2020), large amounts of data in the form of interviews and official documents were gathered. In total, eight participants, four in each case, were interviewed. Each participant was interviewed once, so eight semi-structured interviews were conducted, four in each case. The total number of words transcribed in the interviews for each case was relatively balanced. As for documents, the same number of webpages was analyzed for both cases: two. Case 1 University included PDF documents while Case 2 University did not. This difference, however, did not represent an issue as almost the same information could be found for both cases. The fact that the information was presented as a PDF document or a webpage was irrelevant and did not affect the data collection process.

10. Ethical Considerations

In order for this dissertation to be carried out, the researcher had to deal with multiple ethical considerations before and during its development. In the first place, the research had to be approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) in Case 1 University, so prior to collecting data, in August 2019, the researcher had to pass a research proposal to the IRB and attach a set of documents which included the certificates of an online course entitled *Responsible Conduct of Research*, the informed consent forms, and a conflict of interest declaration, among other elements.

The online research conduct course, which the researcher took in May 2019, consisted of various modules, namely *Research Involving Human Subjects*, *Authorship*, and *Research Misconduct*. Thus, prior to data collection, the researcher received training on topics such as respecting the privacy of participants (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009, 2012), managing reflexivity and power relationships (Yin, 2016); keeping anonymity and confidentiality (Cohen et al., 2007); managing data adequately (Dörnyei, 2007); and reporting data ethically (Creswell, 2013).

As per the IRB's request, the informed consent form (See Appendix 1) had to clearly explain how all of the above-mentioned considerations in protecting human subjects would be targeted (Yin, 2016). In addition, by signing the consent form, participants were informed that they were able to withdraw from the study at any stage and that confidentiality, anonymity, and non-traceability were guaranteed at all times during and after the development of the research study.

The researcher is part of the staff in Case 1 University; thus, as stated in the literature, he had to face certain challenges as "an insider" (Yin, 2016) and protect his research integrity at all times. A big challenge was that, at the time the investigation took place, the researcher was involved in the pedagogical support strategy for EMI courses in his university. As such, he had worked with some of the participants before. Nonetheless, no interview question or document analysis criterion in this dissertation aimed to evaluate the development or impact of the EMI support strategy. Thus, there was not a conflict of interest. The IRB, however, requested that the researcher write a declaration in which he clarified that the research would not interfere with his job and that he would not receive any monetary gain from it. Although the researcher was awarded a grant, this money was never used for his own personal benefit.

As stated previously, two issues the researcher had to deal with were anonymity and confidentiality, which are of paramount importance during the development of qualitative research (Flick, 2007). As suggested by Creswell (2013), the name of each participant was masked in the data by using aliases instead of their real names. In addition, all of the data collected as well as

important documents such as informed consents were kept secure in an online folder to which only the researcher had access. The researcher created a temporary folder for assistants to save any data that they collected (e.g., online documents) or manipulated (e.g., interview transcripts).

Finally, the issue of gender also had be addressed as seven out of eight participants were male; only one of them was female. Some authors have discussed the relevance of keeping gender balance in research (Jahn et al., 2017), especially in the field of education (Trbovc & Hofman, 2015). While the researcher is well aware of this, socio-demographic variables such as nationality, race, and gender were deemed as irrelevant to analyze the results of this multiple-case study. As such, these were not considered for the sampling criteria. As described in Section 5, the criteria to select the participants of this study were: they all had to teach their discipline through the medium of English and be familiar with internationalization initiatives in their institutions. The fact that the majority of the participants belonged in one gender or the other did not have any impact on the development or the results of this study.

11. Chapter Recap

In this chapter, all of the methodological decisions adopted for this multiple-case study were presented. As such, the paradigm (constructivism), approach to research design (qualitative), and strategy of research (case study) were described and justified. Furthermore, the sampling criteria as well as the characteristics of the context and the participants were presented. The chapter, too, offered detailed information about what data collection techniques were adopted and how they were used; procedures for data treatment (e.g., transcriptions, translation, etc.) were explained as well. A very important part of this chapter is the presentation of the method for data analysis adopted, which was explained in detail by using the relevant support from the literature. A step-by-step example which illustrates how the method of analysis was undertaken was presented, too. Finally, the strategies for maintaining research rigor and trustworthiness as well as the set of ethical considerations adopted in this dissertation were presented.

CHAPTER 5: THE CASE OF COLOMBIA

1. Chapter Overview

Chapter 5 is divided into two sections. The first section, *An Introduction to the Case of Colombia*, provides a comprehensive and detailed overview of the case under research from two perspectives: The national context and the institutional context. Hence, the documentary data which were used as secondary sources, including national plans and policies, will mostly be reported in this section. All documentary descriptions will be analyzed and discussed in light of the existing literature. This comprehensive and detailed information of the case context should allow for a deeper understanding of the results and analysis of the conversational data presented in the second section.

The second section, *Interviews with Colombian Participants: Analysis and Discussion*, focuses on the interviews which were carried out as the primary sources of information in the case. The results are systematically reported and analyzed by categories and codes, just as it was explained in Chapter 4 (Methodology). Relevant interview excerpts will be cited in order to illustrate the categorized and coded information. In addition, relevant theories and studies will be cited in order to validate any claims and interpretations included in this discussion. The chapter ends with a summary of the main findings reported and discussed.

2. An Introduction to the Case of Colombia

This section provides an overview of Case 1, first from a national perspective (e.g., national language policies, bilingual education programs, etc.) and then from an institutional perspective (e.g., internationalization and language policies, EMI initiatives, etc.). To achieve this, documentary data will be reported and discussed in light of the relevant literature.

2.1 Country's Overview

The Republic of Colombia is an upper middle-income South American country with a population of almost 50 million (The World Bank, 2022b). In 2020, Colombia became the 37th member of the OECD and the third Latin American

nation to be part of the organization after Mexico and Chile (OECD, 2020). Despite its economic growth and reduction of poverty during the first two decades on the 21st century, Colombia is experiencing one of the worst recessions in fifty years due to the Covid-19 pandemic. Additionally, a long history of sociopolitical instability, aggravated by a strong disapproval of the government, has resulted in numerous mass protests since 2019 (World Education News Reviews [WENR], 2020).

The Colombian Higher Education System

The Colombian higher education system offers undergraduate and graduate programs. Undergraduate programs are divided into: (a) professional, which award a bachelor's degree and last four to five years and (b) technician and (c) technologist, which are forms of vocational or adult education, and last two and three years respectively. Specialties, master's degrees, and doctoral degrees are part of the graduate programs available in the country. For admission to higher education, students must take the *Saber 11* exam, a standardized test regulated by The Colombian Institute for the Promotion of Higher Education (ICFES) (Ministerio de Educación Nacional, 2020).

There are four types of HEIs in Colombia: Professional technical institutions, technological institutions, university institutions or technological schools, and universities. The latter offer both bachelor's degrees and graduate programs at all levels. At present, there are 296 HEIs in Colombia which offer undergraduate and graduate programs (el Observatorio de la Universidad Colombiana, 2019). Compared to other OECD members, the number of Colombian students attending private institutions is large, especially in higher education (OECD, 2016); in fact, more than 70% of universities in Colombia are private (Consejo Nacional de Educación Superior [CESU], 2014).

Regulatory Framework

Upon the Constitution of 1991, Colombia strived to create a solid regulatory framework for its education system. Law 115 of 1994, or The General Law of Education (GLE), sets the rules for access, quality, and coverage in education for

all citizens, including children, adolescents, adults, people living in rural and/or underprivileged areas, people with disabilities, and ethnic groups (*Ley 115 de Febrero 8 de 1994*, 1994).

Universities adhere to the principle of academic freedom and are governed by Law 30 of 1992 or The Higher Education Law (HEL), which states that higher education is a public and cultural service with a social mission (Art. 2) and that, whilst HEIs are autonomous, the national government is to ensure the quality of education that they offer (Art. 3) (*Ley 30 de Diciembre 28 de 1992*, 1992). Thus, the Ministry of Education (MoE) plans, regulates, and monitors the quality assessment of academic programs and the formulation of plans and policies that enhance higher education. The National Council of Higher Education (CESU) and the National Council of Accreditation (CNA) assist with the control of these processes, too (CESU, 2014).

Current Plans and Challenges in Education

During the past years, the Colombian government has attempted to ensure access, quality, and equity in higher education through high-impact initiatives. The National Development Plan 2018-2022 allotted 5,500 million dollars for projects on science, technology, and innovation; other initiatives have aimed to foster research and sponsor PhD studies for 3,600 Colombians (Departamento Nacional de Planeación [DNP], 2018).

Moreover, in accordance with the fourth goal of the Agenda 2030 (UN, 2015), quality education, the government has developed plans on access and social inclusion in higher education. For instance, the number of students enrolled in HEIs is expected to rise from 49.4% in 2015 to 60.0% in 2022 and to 80.0% in 2030. Thus, by the end of 2022, 336 thousand underprivileged young Colombians will have obtained college scholarships through *Generación E*, a program which, in the long run, seeks to ensure employability and social transformation among them (DNP, 2018).

Interestingly, enrollments in higher education programs have decreased during the past five years; a possible explanation to this is a lower fertility rate

in the country over the last few decades (WENR, 2020). Another problem that has long affected tertiary students in Colombia is the high attrition rates. Guerrero and Soto Arango (2019) explained that, although access to higher education went from 28.4% in 2005 to 49.4% in 2015, student attrition went from 48.3% to 50.7% in the same period. To some extent, every endeavor made by the government to increase the number of college attendees appears to be curtailed by the fact that many students seem to struggle to remain in the system, especially those who come from low-income families and lack the skills to endure college life (OECD, 2016).

As discussed thus far, Colombian education, in general, still faces major challenges in terms of access (e.g., for students in rural areas), quality (e.g., low student achievement), and equity (e.g., for low-income students) (OECD, 2016). On top of these social and economic barriers, linguistic (e.g., English as an L2 requirement) and political (e.g., internationalization and neoliberal views) issues have started to "haunt" the higher education system during the past two decades.

Neoliberal policies in Colombian HEIs seem to have gained momentum at the turn of the 21st century. Lora Cam and Recéndez (2003) argued that individualism and capitalism began to take over academic and research processes in the name of concepts such as productivity, competitiveness, and evaluation, and that North American models were influencing and changing local academic cultures. This suggests that Colombian HEIs are under increasing pressure to attain international standards comparable to those of universities in the Western world. In a study conducted at a public institution, Miranda et al. (2016) found that internationalization implied "a priority and a strategic plan" (p. 435) for the university under study, and reported a connection between the adoption of languages other than the national language and internationalization.

Bilingual Education: Minority and Foreign Languages

Before discussing minority and foreign language (L2) education, it is important to understand the linguistic reality of the country. Spanish is the mother tongue of the majority of Colombians; nonetheless, the existence of 65 indigenous languages and two Creoles as well its membership in the Deaf and

Romani communities make Colombia one of the most linguistically diverse nations in Latin America (Valencia Giraldo et al., 2022).

In areas mostly inhabited by ethnic communities (e.g., Afro-Colombian or Indigenous), schools may offer ethnoeducation, a model of bilingual education, Native Language (L1) and Spanish (L2), which ethnic groups have the right to receive (*Constitución Política de Colombia*, 1991). As stated in Chapter 3 of the GLE, the government must support processes in ethnoeducation such as teacher training, curriculum design, material design, and research (*Ley 115 de Febrero 8 de 1994*, 1994). In the last census, 9.34% and 3,84% of the population self-identified as Afro-Colombian or Indigenous people respectively; some of these minority groups, which divide into subgroups, speak a native language (Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadística [DANE], 2018).

In a multicultural and multilingual nation like Colombia, one may think that bilingual education in the language spoken by the majority of the population (Spanish) and native languages is a priority; however, according to de Mejía (2005) bilingual models in internationally prestigious languages (e.g., English or French) are the most popular forms of bilingual education in the country. Middle and upper-class families send their children to such schools in order to offer them "better" opportunities. In contrast, "bilingualism in minority Amerindian or Creole languages has been generally undervalued and associated with an 'invisible' form of bilingualism related to underdevelopment, poverty and backwardness" (de Mejía, 2006, p. 154).

Research on bilingual education policies has criticized the Colombian government approaches to setting the standards for minority and foreign language teaching; explicit criticism towards the role of English in education policies has been voiced, too. Alonso Cifuentes et al. (2018) claimed that, while the Ministry of Culture has led initiatives to preserve native languages (e.g., translating official documents), the MoE has not issued any standards for their teaching; they also argued that the MoE has created English teaching policies "mainly for economic reasons" (p. 59).

English Language Teaching (1940s-2000)

Foreign language (L2) teaching in Colombia, specifically English and French, dates to the 1940s (de Mejía, 2004). At the time, initiatives seem to have responded to political interests rather than to educational purposes (British Council, 1989, as cited in de Mejía, 2004). In 1979, the government passed a decree which regulated the teaching of English and French for the first time (Alonso Cifuentes et al., 2018). In 1982, the MoE, jointly with the British Council and the *Centro Colombo Americano*, two well-known English language teaching (ELT) organizations in the country, issued the English Language Syllabus, (*Programa de Inglés*), which attempted to replace the audio-lingual method with the communicative approach (Peña-Dix, 2018; Usma Wilches, 2009; Valencia Giraldo, 2007). The English Language Syllabus was the target of criticism as it disregarded cultural diversity and enhanced traditional colonial views (Peña-Dix, 2018; Valencia Giraldo, 2007).

When the General Law of Education (GLE) was promulgated in 1994, it also included general guidelines for L2 education in primary and secondary schools. In fact, together with Spanish language, science, and mathematics, L2 education must be part of the mandatory school curricula in Colombia (Art. 23; Art. 31). While the GLE does not specifically mention English as the L2 to be taught, the idea that English opens the doors to a more competitive and globalized world has paved the way for it to consolidate as "the most predominant additional language in the country" (Peña-Dix, 2018, p. 41) and, hence, continue to be part of national language policies.

Between 1991 and 1997 the COFE –Colombian Framework for English– Project was run in agreement with the government the UK. The project aimed, among other things, to train in-service English teachers, offer teacher education programs (TEPs) to better prepare pre-service teachers, and revise ELT curricula country-wide (Rubiano et al., 2000). While the COFE Project enhanced good practices, namely the creation of research groups in HEIs (Usma Wilches, 2009) and the improvement of TEPs (Rubiano et al., 2000), it also faced challenges,

namely limited resources and poor administrative support in universities (McNulty Ferri & Usma Wilches, 2005).

In 1999, in accordance with the GLE, the MoE issued the Curricular Guidelines for Foreign Languages (*Lineamientos Curriculares Lenguas Extranjeras*), which offered recommendations on curriculum design, teaching methods, research strategies, and the use of technology. Eventually, the document was said to limit teacher's autonomy and professional growth (Ocampo, 2002).

English Language Teaching (2004-present)

Year 2004 marked a milestone in the history of ELT as the National Program for Bilingual Education (NPBE), 2004-2019 was enacted; the motto for the program was "English as a foreign language: A strategy for competitiveness." The program was launched after the Law for Bilingual Education (*Ley de Bilingüismo*) was approved in 2013 by the Congress of Colombia. By considering popular principles in 21st century education such as autonomy and globalization, the main goal of the NPBE was to equip Colombian students with the necessary tools to master English as a foreign or second language (in the case of EBE schools) and, thus, provide them with better academic and professional opportunities in the future.

The NPBE included the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) in order to measure the attainment of language proficiency levels for all students. High school graduates were expected to have a B2 level; as for higher education, future English teachers had to have a minimum B2+ or C1 level while students majoring in other programs had to have, at least, a B2 level.

As the literature shows, the NPBE has, too, been criticized during the past years (Bastidas Muñoz & Jiménez-Salcedo, 2021). De Mejía (2006) argued that an English-Spanish policy diminish the value of other languages, cultures, and identities. Usma Wilches (2009) claimed that, while the NPBE may bring advantages for the privileged few, it mostly causes exclusion and social inequality among the general population. For their part, after analyzing a number

of journal articles, Robayo Acuña and Cárdenas (2017) concluded that the NPBE had shortcomings such as the instrumentalization of English and the exclusion of local realities. To complicate things, standardized test results (*Saber 11*) show that the CEFR level originally established for high school graduates (B1) was, in fact, a utopia: By 2014, ten years after the NPBE was launched, only 4.45 percent of them had reached it and, by 2018, this number was 7.08 percent (Díaz Laínes & Santana Sanabria, 2020).

Due to these critiques, authors also made recommendations to improve the implementation of the NPBE, namely reconsidering the sociopolitical and economic rationales of the program and fostering a more intercultural and multilingual vision in L2 education (Fandiño-Parra et al., 2012) in order to construct a more inclusive and understanding society (de Mejía, 2006). The NPBE was renamed as Bilingual Colombia (*Colombia Bilingüe*) in 2014. In spite of the name change, the policy has not escaped criticism as it is said to be disconnected from the mainstream curricula and attached to "the erroneous idea" that language learning is about "grammar memorization and metalinguistic knowledge" (Bonilla Carvajal & Tejada-Sanchez, 2016, p. 197).

Bilingual education in Colombia has both strengths and weaknesses. On the one hand, the government has made efforts and allocated funds for English language learning (ELL) programs; on the other hand, the system has shown major weaknesses as reported by some local researchers. Through reports and test results, the international community has, too, suggested that English teaching and learning in Colombia has its ups and downs. For instance, the Colombian government has invested in immersion training programs for English teachers both in-country and overseas (Cronquist & Fiszbein, 2017) as well as fostered the inclusion of extended school hours and the use of online resources for students (British Council, 2015b).

Despite the governments' efforts, test results show that English proficiency among school-aged Colombians is very limited. Out of 20 Latin American countries included in the most recent EF English Proficiency Index for Schools (EF EPI, 2021), Colombia, whose level of English proficiency was

classified as “Low”, ranked fourth to last, just above Ecuador, Mexico, and Haiti. These findings seem to represent a serious barrier to the future of EMI and internationalization in Colombian HEIs.

Internationalization of Higher Education (IHE)

Thirty years ago, Law 30 of 1992, the Higher Education Law (HEL), mandated that Colombian HEIs create networks with international entities (Art. 6h). The HEL cites important organizations for higher education established more than half a century ago, and sets their roles in IHE (*Ley 30 de Diciembre 28 de 1992*, 1992) . The Colombian Institute for the Promotion of Higher Education, ICFES, (est. 1968), must foster cooperation with overseas organizations and HEIs (Art. 38). The Colombian Institute for Educational Credit, ICETEX, (est. 1950), is responsible for offering credits to study international academic programs (Art. 112) as well as for managing exchanges and scholarships derived from government’s agreements with international organizations (Art. 115). In 2010, Resolution 1780 ruled that the National System of Higher Education Information (SNIES), established by the HEL in 1992, had to manage all data about internationalization in HEIs (*Resolución # 1780*, 2010)

Non-government organizations also play a major role. The Colombian Organization of Universities, ASCUN, (est. 1957), aims to foster academic quality, academic freedom, knowledge dissemination, social responsibility, and cooperation among its 90 member universities. Its 2018 survey reports that the most frequent internationalization activity is outward mobility for undergraduate students; it also reports that most members have agreements with Spain, Argentina, Brazil, and Mexico, but only 2% of agreements lead to double degrees (Asociación Colombiana de Universidades [ASCUN], 2021). Additionally, the Colombian Network for IHE (*Red Colombiana para la Internacionalización de la Educación Superior, RCI*), (est. 1994) fosters internationalization processes among its more than 120 member universities in Colombia, and facilitates such processes with overseas HEIs, too (Red Colombiana para la Internacionalización de la Educación Superior [RCI], 2021).

Despite these initiatives, IHE in Colombia is in limbo and there is a dearth of information on it. In February 2017, the MoE website published what appears to be a set of internationalization plans for the future (e.g., participation in academic fairs and treaties for the recognition of foreign qualifications) (Ministerio de Educación Nacional, 2017) but no concrete updates about these actions are offered as to 2022. Plus, the SNIES website does not include any statistics about internationalization activities at the micro (institutional) or macro (national) level, which makes it difficult to report on any official data about IHE in Colombia.

The scarcity of public information might be the result of two factors: the autonomy that Colombian universities are given by law and the fact that the majority of them are private. Contrary to Europe or Asia, where most HEIs are public and where internationalization processes are dealt with from a national perspective, IHE in Colombia seems to be left to subsist on a few isolated mobility programs funded by the government (e.g., for language teachers) or by the private universities themselves. In fact, in a 2012 report, the OECD and the World Bank stated that most internationalization activities in Colombian higher education were unambitious and had a limited scope and impact (Ministerio de Educación Nacional & Colombia Challenge Your Knowledge - CCYK, 2013)

Scholars have also produced academic works within the framework of concepts such as IoC and IaH in Colombia. First, De Zan et al. (2011)suggested that, in order for IoC to be achieved, curricula must be built upon competencies and not mere disciplinary contents that overlook contextual needs. In addition, Prieto Martínez et al. (2015) claimed that IaH activities must be led by three actors, the government (e.g., the MoE), the higher education associations (e.g., ASCUN) and the HEIs; these actors must jointly solve issues such as the recognition of foreign qualifications and the creation of an evaluation system for IHE. The authors add that foreign languages must be integrated in a "systematic and inherent" manner to the curricula in order to educate "citizens who are interculturally competent" (p. 133). While they do not mention the word "English" nor do they explain what they mean by "integrated" or "inherent", one

can assume that they are referring to models such as ICLHE or EMI, which are often associated with internationalization processes in HEIs.

EMI in Higher Education

Unlike regions such as Catalonia, where content instruction mediated by different languages (e.g., Catalan, Spanish, and English) is part of government policies and, thus, it is a common practice and a need in certain higher education programs (e.g., teacher education programs) (Escobar Urmeneta, 2020), teaching in Colombian HEIs happens nearly one hundred percent in Spanish. There are no national policies or programs that support English-mediated instruction in higher education as is the case of Asian nations or jurisdictions such as Taiwan, where EMI is used as a vehicle for IHE and an indicator to measure quality (Huang, 2020) or Japan and its Top Global University Project (TGUP) intended to enhance internationalization and rankings (Rose & McKinley, 2018). Despite the lack on a national policy, there is some evidence that EMI is now emerging as an institutional strategy to support IaH or IoC and even to strengthen the students' English proficiency in Colombian universities.

While CLIL is popular in EBE schools and there is plenty of research on the topic at the primary and secondary levels, few studies on CLIL, ICHLE, or EMI, at the tertiary level in Colombia have been published thus far. A 2011 study revealed that the goal for the researched HEI to introduce CLIL, or ESP, was boosting the students' English proficiency. The language center carried out a curriculum reform to help students cope with readings in English that were assigned in their content courses, but no English-mediated instruction in content settings was reported in the article (Granados Beltrán, 2011).

Other investigations connect the adoption of CLIL in HEIs with internationalization goals. Montoya and Salamanca (2017) reported on a study which involved teacher training in two areas: English language and the pedagogy of CLIL. The goal was to enhance their university' IaH goals, which resulted in a positive experience for participants. After conducting document analysis, interviews, and questionnaires with stakeholders, Tejada-Sánchez and Molina-Naar (2020) described how a private HEI led a series of initiatives to support IaH

through EMI, namely the introduction of a curriculum reform at the language department and the creation of guidelines for EMI courses. The participating students also reported experiencing language gains as well as a sense of belonging to an international community.

Colombian researchers have called for preparation and reflection before adopting EMI in HEIs. Corrales et al. (2016) presented a series of recommendations which included adopting an institution-wide approach to international and intercultural competencies, offering professional development for faculty teaching their courses through the medium of English, and providing students with the necessary skills to effectively perform in EMI courses. Mirada and Molina-Naar (2022) also warn that, due to the complex socio-economic profile of the population attending HEIs in Colombia, EMI can become a form of exclusion. Thus, they advocate for more internationalization plans that benefit local students, more multilingualism, and more EMI initiatives from a bottom-up approach in Colombian universities.

2.2 Institution's Overview

Case 1 University is a private institution founded in the 1940s; it is located in Bogota, the capital of Colombia, which is the largest and most populated city in the country. As stated on the official webpage, values such as autonomy, independence, innovation, plurality, and tolerance are acknowledged as part of its mission. This HEI also claims to be committed to providing academic excellence, flexibility, interdisciplinary knowledge, critical thinking, and ethical education in order to instill in its students a sense of social responsibility. Case 1 University is a leading institution in Latin America, usually placing among the best ranked HEIs in the region according to the *QS Latin American University Rankings* and the *Times Higher Education Latin American University Rankings*.

Case 1 University has more than ten faculties or schools, including the following: School of Business, School of Arts and Humanities, School of Social Sciences, School of Law, School of Education, School of Engineering, and School of Medicine. Also, it offers more than 40 undergraduate programs, more than 72 master programs, and around 20 doctorate programs. As of 2020, the

total population of undergraduate, master, and doctoral students was around 18,000. The undergraduate student population was more or less evenly distributed between males and females while, in the graduate student population, the number of male students was slightly higher. Case 1 University employs almost 800 full time professors; around three quarters of them hold a PhD degree or a medical specialty while the rest holds either a master's degree or, very rarely, a specialist/undergraduate degree.

Internationalization

Case 1 University has an internationalization office (IO) established several years ago. As shown on the webpage, this office seeks to foster and strengthen international cooperation, intercultural competencies, and internationalization processes for the entire academic community. The IO runs a vast number of agreements, mostly with European, North American, and South American organizations and HEIs. It also manages student mobility and exchanges; its webpage provides information, mostly for local students, on how to apply, which documentation to prepare, and what costs to consider for these programs. In addition, the percentage of international students in 2020 was 2%, and the IO offers assistance to this population in terms of application procedures and travel tips. The IO also manages information about grants and international research opportunities for students and faculty members.

Multilingualism

Case 1 University seems to be committed to offering multilingual and multicultural experiences to its academic community as it hosts various types of language programs and services. The Language Department, established more than forty years ago, offers courses in English, French, German, Italian, Portuguese, Japanese, Chinese, and Spanish for foreigners. It also regulates the foreign language (L2) requirements: As of 2020, undergraduate students had to fulfill three: (a) academic reading in English; (b) L2 Mastery (English, French, German or Portuguese); and (c) EMI course. Master and doctoral students, too, have two fulfill L2 requirements set by each program, but this information will not be reported here. The language department website, however, does contain

general information about English academic skills courses (e.g., academic reading and writing) for graduate students.

The Center for the Spanish Language, which operates independently from the Language Department, aims to help students to develop critical thinking and argumentation skills in both their written and oral production in Spanish as an L1, according to its website. It offers academic writing courses for college life which students must take (two in total) before graduation; it also provides support with the design of writing across the curriculum courses, which are also a graduation requirement for undergraduate students (two in total). As of the first semester of 2020, more than one hundred writing across the curriculum courses were offered in various faculties including Business, Engineering, and Medicine.

Both the Language Department and the Center for the Spanish Language host tutoring centers for students to receive support in academic language skills (e.g., reading and writing) in L1 (Spanish) and L2 (e.g., Chinese, English, French, and Japanese). Case 1 University also has agreements with Asian countries through culture centers and language institutes which are run in cooperation with the governments of those nations.

English-Medium Initiatives

As explained in the previous section, taking an EMI course is a graduation requirement for undergraduate students in Case 1 University. In fact, an official document located on the university's official website reads that the institution is committed to strengthening the presence of the English language in the different academic programs, thus, suggesting that English-mediated education was one of their institutional priorities. By the end of the second semester of 2020, more than fifty EMI courses at the undergraduate level had been offered. The list of courses was available at the Registrar's office website; at least 60% of them were offered at the School of Business while others belonged in the fields of law, economics, and social sciences. Information about English-medium courses at the graduate level was not available on the website.

Additionally, no information regarding the characteristics of English-medium courses was found on the IO website or any of the specific schools' websites which offer the courses. However, since EMI courses are part of the L2 requirements, the Department of Languages webpage did publish some information about their characteristics, namely that they are not language courses, but content courses, and that those students taking the courses were expected to produce written and oral assignments in English. Also, there exist a set of pedagogical guidelines for EMI courses produced by Case 1 University, but they were not found on the websites.

3. Interviews with Colombian Participants: Analysis and Discussion

In this section, the results of Case 1 participants' interviews will be presented by categories and codes. As explained in Chapter 3, the concept of Roles of English (RoE) was taken as a starting point to categorize and code the interviews. According to Dafouz & Smit (2020), RoE:

> … refers to the communicative functions that language fulfills in HEIs, with the focus placed on English as the implicitly or explicitly identified main medium of education. In view of the diverse linguistic repertoires relevant to the settings in question, English intersects in dynamic, complementary but also conflictual ways with other languages. Additionally, English, and 'language' more generally, are seen as both product and process, being used both as individual codes and as a flexible form of multilingual communication (p. 60).

The participants in the Colombian university (Case 1) often provided ideas about the various communicative functions, or roles, that English performed within their academic contexts; their statements often showed the dynamic, complementary, and conflictual manners in which English interacts with other languages in their environment.

With this in mind, the participants' statements were grouped into three categories: *Functions of English in academia and in the profession*, *Language complementarity vs. Language conflict*, and *Proficiency in English*. The following grid summarizes the categories which emerged from the dimension RoE in the data under study:

Categories from Roles of English (RoE)
Functions of English in academia and in the profession
Language complementarity vs. Language conflict
Proficiency in English

These three categories are made up of a number of codes that emerged from the interviews with the four participants. The definitions assigned to the categories and codes that emerged from the interviews will appear in italics throughout the section. Also, in order to perform a more solid analysis and interpretations made by the researcher, the discussion will be nourished by relevant literature. In the next sections, the findings for RoE in Case 1 University will be presented and exemplified

6.1 Functions of English in academia and in the profession

At the end of the coding and categorization process, this category was defined as follows: *What functions English has in academia and in the profession (e.g., for professional communication, for research purposes, etc.).* The following grid shows how, in this study, this category is characterized by the following codes, which are representations of the statements provided by the participants:

Codes from category *Functions of English in academia and in the profession*
English as a default tool for communication in academia
English as a legitimate language requirement in higher education
English as an essential tool to succeed in the discipline or for the profession

In the subsequent sections, each of the codes, which emerged from the data, will be defined and illustrated by using statements from the participants. Additionally, connections with the existing literature will be made explicit in order to strengthen the analysis.

English as a default tool for communication in academia

This code is defined as follows: *English is assumed to be used as the main means of communication or a default language in academia.* Three excerpts have been identified as belonging to this code; all three are presented in this section.

The first excerpt was extracted from VAL's interview. VAL is a professor from the Department of History who argued the following about the status of English in academia: "it's become the *de facto* international language, I mean so, that's why if you're going to learn one, you gotta learn English… since real international programs are done in English, all you need to know is English" (Excerpt 5.1. VAL-Int2). The second example was taken from SEB's interview. SEB is a professor from the School of Business who holds this view: "I think it [English] is an extremely relevant language to learn, and basically, it can replace any other languages because people tacitly have agreed on this one to be a standard tool for communication" (Excerpt 5.2. SEB-Int3).

The third excerpt was taken from the statements provided by OLI in his interview. OLI is a professor from the School of Medicine who argued the following: "This [English] is an invaluable tool; it's really impressive. As a researcher, without English, you are worthless… everything you write, everything you present, everything you disseminate is in English" (Excerpt 5.3. OLI-Int4).

As seen in the previous three quotes, English is seen as a default tool for communication in academia; it is also seen as a relevant language to communicate in higher international education (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, 2020). Several authors have written about the growing importance of English in academia, especially because its use entails various alleged benefits, one of them being English as a common denominator for communication among scholars around the globe (Dewey, 2007). Case 1 participants' views, too, align to the role of English as a lingua franca (ELF) in international higher education, in which English often acts as the most common vehicle for communication in the academic community (Formentelli, 2017; Graddol, 2006; Jenkins, 2014, 2015; Mauranen, 2015; Seidlhofer, 2011, 2017).

From a more critical perspective, English's hegemonic power in the world of academia and scientific publications was also present in some of the quotes provided by these professors. Ideas such as "it can basically replace any language" or "As a researcher, without English, you are worthless" prove this, Ammon (2013) and Bocanegra-Valle (2013) describe how university professors whose mother tongue is not English currently face major challenges in their careers as they are often under pressure to get their work published in academic journals produced in English.

English as a legitimate language requirement in higher education

This code is defined as follows: *English is believed to be "the legitimate" language in higher education.* Legitimate is understood as conforming to recognized principles or accepted rules and standards (Merriam Webster, n.d.). Three excerpts have been classified under this code; all three of them are presented in this section. The first excerpt was taken from BAR's interview. BAR is a professor from the School of Engineering who expressed the following: "If you asked me which language must be required in universities, yeah, I would say it surely has to be English… 100 percent!" (Excerpt 5.4. BAR-Int1). Similarly, SEB expressed the following in his interview: "I don't know if one foreign language is enough or if we should strive for more. But, my understanding is that English is the correct choice" (Excerpt 5.5. SEB-Int3).

Interestingly, the third participant, OLI, provided a slightly different perspective: "I think it should be two languages: English and another language. That other language should be of the students' choice. Nobody should be able to graduate unless they have a minimum English level, at least in the written part" (Excerpt 5.6. OLI-Int4). While this participant does seem to privilege English as "the" language that every university student must be required to learn, at least at the basic level, he also acknowledges the importance of studying an additional language besides English.

As seen in the previous three quotes, all participants: BAR, SEB and OLI uphold that English is a legitimate language requirement in tertiary education; thus, every college student, regardless of the discipline they study, must have a

certain level of mastery of it. The opinions of these three participants from Case 1 University reflect the commonly accepted perception that English has an extremely high value in higher education, presumably because of its achieved status as the global language of science, technology, research, and, in general, scientific thinking and knowledge construction (Crystal, 2003).

Moreover, in recent years, the increased popularity of EMI in the higher education arena has given English an official role as the medium of education in universities worldwide (Doiz Aintzane et al., 2019; Escobar Urmeneta, 2020; Huang, 2020; Kuteeva, 2018). First, this measure has been taken as a way to facilitate certain processes in European higher education, namely student and staff mobility and cross-border academic cooperation (Briggs et al., 2018; Pérez-Vidal, 2015; Pérez-Vidal & Llanes, 2021), two important principles of the Bologna Declaration of 1999. EMI has also been used, and documented, as a way for university students to improve their language skills, especially the receptive ones (Pérez-Vidal & Roquet, 2015; Segura et al., 2021).

On the other hand, the implementation of EMI programs has caused some authors to argue that internationalization in HEIs has, in reality, often turned into *Englishization* (Dimova et al., 2015; Wilkinson, 2004; Wilkinson & Gabriels, 2021), which in turn, may lead to language domain loss (Airey et al., 2015). There is a growing corpus of literature that discuss this rather controversial issue, which has been considered as something undesirable; this is especially true in nations where there exist national plans to preserve the national language and culture (See Kuteeva, 2014; Soler et al., 2018).

Once again, while the participants' quotes do support the widely spread idea of English as a legitimate, extremely common, and extremely important means of communication in international higher education, one of them does acknowledge, on way or the other, that English is not the only language which holds or should hold this status. This goes in line with the three insights Smit (2018) presented regarding 21st century higher education: (a) universities are multilingual; (b) while English is key, it is not the only element within each university's multilingualism; and (c) multilingualism is situated, and it is dependent on contextual factors.

English as an essential tool to succeed in the discipline or for the profession

This code emerged from the data as the previous ones, and it is defined as follows: *English is believed to be essential to succeed in this discipline or profession.* Three excerpts have been classified under this code, and all three of them are presented in this section. With the purpose of showing a connection between the ideas expressed in the excerpt and the participant's disciplines or fields of expertise, their professions as well as their affiliations in Case 1 University are presented in this section.

The first excerpt was taken from SEB's interview: "For doing business, English is an essential tool. For the students to succeed in their professional life, they need to speak English" (Excerpt 5.7. SEB-Int3). SEB has a PhD in a business-related area, and he teaches courses from the School of Business. The second excerpt was taken from BAR's interview; BAR has a PhD in an engineering-related area, and he works for the School of Engineering: "English is the most commonly spoken language for work; I believe English is the official language of work" (Excerpt 5.8. BAR-Int1). Finally, the third excerpt was extracted from OLI's interview; OLI has a PhD in a medicine-related area; he teaches courses from the School of Medicine:

> As a doctor, it [English] has given me many opportunities; for example, sometime ago, our foundation had an agreement with the embassies. So, whenever we had a diabetic patient, or at risk of developing diabetes or metabolism problems, they would always send them to me… most of them were from India. Also, because I spoke good English, I was a teaching assistant in Harvard… anyway, medical English is easier than everyday English, so… (Excerpt 5.9. OLI-Int4)

While SEB's idea of English as an essential tool to function in the labor force is direct and explicit, especially in his discipline, BAR's opinion seems to be more discreet or general; however, BAR, too, acknowledged that English is the most common language in work environments, regardless of the discipline. In the case of OLI, while his ideas do not necessarily imply that English is essential to exercise his profession, his excerpt does suggest that being fluent in English has represented an advantage for his career both in his home country and abroad.

In outer and expanding circle countries (Kachru, 1985), English is increasingly becoming a basic skill to enter the job market. Pandey and Pandey (2014) reported that good English skills influence a person's social and employment opportunities in India. They, thus, advise recent college graduates to be prepared to perform well in interviews which, in the majority of recruitment processes at present, are conducted in English (British Council, 2013). In fact, a study by Abu-Humos (2016) reports on a survey in which a group of recently Palestinian graduates equaled high skills in English with more job opportunities and privileges in the workplace, something that goes in line with reports published by organizations which state that the impact of English on an individual's career includes having more chances of being promoted and getting salary raises (Cambridge English Language Assessment & QS, 2016).

While the above-mentioned organizations are British and, thus, one could think that they would undoubtedly promote the notion of English as an essential tool in any profession, the two studies which confirm this idea were conducted in two outer circle countries in Asia: India and Pakistan. Additionally, the situation is not very different in a geographically and culturally distant region such as Latin America, which is made up of expanding circle countries for the most part. In fact, high English proficiency in this region is often associated with competitiveness and economic growth (Cronquist & Fiszbein, 2017; Fiszbein et al., 2016). This is also confirmed by three Case 1 participants: SEB, BAR, and OLI; whilst they come from completely different fields: business, engineering, and medicine respectively, they all agree with this idea: English is essential to succeed in their professions.

3.1 Language complementarity vs. Language conflict

After the coding and categorization of data was finalized, this category was defined as follows: *How English co-exists with other languages, sometimes as a complement, sometimes as a conflict.* According to Dafouz and Smit (2020), even when English is given a privileged status in academia and higher education, "it is in contact and conflict with other languages and their institutional and societal histories in schools" (p. 47). Also, international universities are

nowadays considered multilingual spaces (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, 2020) in which different forms of multilingualism coexist (Smit, 2018). In the data under analysis, this category is characterized by a number of codes, which are representations of the statements provided by the participants during the interviews. The codes are shown in the following grid:

Codes from category *Language complementarity vs. Language conflict*
English vs. other languages in the discipline or in the profession
English vs. other languages in the classroom
Purpose of English vs. purposes of other languages
Language protectionism

The first three codes included in the previous grid will be defined and illustrated as they emerged from the statements provided by the participants; the last code was, however, absent in Case 1 University. In order to strengthen the analysis of such statements, connections with the existing literature will be made explicit.

English vs. other languages in the discipline or in the profession

This code is defined as follows: *How the function of English in the academic world is perceived as opposed to that of other languages*. Three excerpts have been identified as belonging to this code; thus, they are presented in this section. The first excerpt offers an interesting view about the use of English in academia, at least for certain purposes or situations within this specific field of study. OLI, who is a professor from the School of Medicine, argued the following:

> Sometimes we give presentations in conferences which are in English. So, for sure, the tone is different, the style is different, the diction… everything's much more formal… They sort of give you a script; so, at some point, you have to make a transition, and after the transition, then, you make a joke. Everything is so scripted. (Excerpt 5.10. OLI-Int4)

OLI previously defined English as "an invaluable tool" (see Excerpt 5.3. OLI-Int4), so while he does not seem be against the use of English in academic conferences, he does express some discomfort regarding the ways English is used to present in these types of academic events. As seen in the quote, he seems to

be against the ways in which English has to be used within the protocols established by the academic community and not against the language per se.

From a different perspective, VAL, who is a professor from the Department of History, argued the following:

> People who work in academia tend to know English more than anything else. So, if you have to communicate with somebody who doesn't speak the same mother tongue as you, you're going to use one: you gotta use English… Really, the language that matters in academics is English. And, in terms of this University, it promotes publishing in English much more than in Spanish. (Excerpt 5.11. VAL-Int2)

While SEB, for his part, who teaches courses from the School of Business stated the following:

> Currently, all high-level conversations about business and business research are happening in English. There are some conversations in German, in French and probably Chinese, but the ones that are relevant are all happening in English. So, there's this consensus that academia works in English. The global academia works in English. (Excerpt 5.12. SEB-Int3)

As seen in the previous excerpts, both VAL and SEB provided their reasons for what, in their minds, English fulfills more important roles in the professional world in comparison with other languages. They both seem to put more value on English than on other languages when referring to their own professions; this seems to be especially true when they talk about the benefits that English represents in the scholarly world of research. Ideas such as "in terms of this University, it promotes publishing in English much more than in Spanish" and "The global academia works in English" constitute concrete evidence for this.

English has been considered the international language of science and research (Crystal, 2003; Lillis & Curry, 2010; Mauranen, 2015; Swales, 1990), so it comes as no surprise that university professors are so deeply committed, or pressured, to using English in their profession. Plus, numerous studies have reported that universities in non-Anglophone countries are increasingly promoting publications in English language journals and books in order to enhance their international visibility and impact (Lillis & Curry, 2010; Raitskaya & Tikhonova, 2020; Rostan, 2011).

For decades, authors have written about the predominant and unquestioned high relevance of English in academia and research (Crystal, 2003). Swales (1990) wrote about the positioning of English as the main international language of science; more than twenty years later, Lillis and Curry (2010) and Mauranen (2015) still recognized the position of English as the most common language for research cooperation, knowledge construction, and knowledge exchange. This phenomenon has been accelerated by the fact that, as a strategy to become more visible internationally and gain more prestige, HEIs around the world are encouraging professors to publish in English (Raitskaya & Tikhonova, 2020; Rostan, 2011).

Contrary to what was reported by the two Case 1 participants, more recent views gear towards multilingualism and, as such, they acknowledge that discussions around the roles and functions of English in the current academic world cannot be carried out in isolation; they necessarily must happen with regard to the other languages as well (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, 2017, 2020). Hence, multilingual research conducted by multilingual researchers is now being more encouraged by scholars in the fields of language and intercultural education (Holmes et al., 2013, 2016; Kuteeva & Mauranen, 2014; Peña-Dix, 2018).

English vs. other languages in the classroom

This code is defined as follows: *Which languages, including languages other than English, students are expected or allowed to use in the classroom*. Two excerpts have been identified as belonging to this code; both of them are presented in this section. First, during the interview, BAR stated the following:

> I try to be flexible with my undergraduate students, especially if they have a low English level. So, I sometimes say 'Alright, if there is something that you didn't understand you can ask me in Spanish'… I'd rather allow them to use Spanish than remain silent. (Excerpt 5.13. BAR-Int1)

Along the same lines, VAL expressed the following: "I give them lots of exercises to do in groups. So the groups are going to speak, they speak in Spanish, which is fine, I don't care…and that's the way that people participate more actively in the class" (Excerpt 5.14. VAL-Int2). As the quotes reveal, both

participants are flexible enough to allow the use of languages other than English in the classroom, more specifically, the national language. Interestingly, the circumstances in which these languages are allowed vary according to each participant; while BAR allows the use of Spanish for clarification purposes and questions addressed directly to him, VAL lets his students use it for small group discussions among them.

As part of a compendium of language strategies in the EMI classroom, numerous studies have recently recommended the use of the L1, code-mixing, or translanguaging to compensate for the language gaps that students may face as non-native speakers of English (see Cook, 2001, 2007; Garcia & Sylvan, 2011; Holi, 2020; Muguruza et al., 2020; Palfreyman & van der Walt, 2017). Escobar Urmeneta and Evnitskaya (2013) and Smit (2019) recommended embracing a more multilingual or plurilingual approach to teaching in the classroom, which is consistent with the idea of 21st universities being multilingual spaces (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, 2017, 2020) where various multilingual practices in and beyond the classroom co-exist (Smit, 2018). Some authors have proposed pedagogical tools such as manuals which provide guidance to professors on which language to use (e.g., the L1) and in which specific moments (e.g., for corrective feedback) in the EMI classroom (see Cros & Escobar Urmeneta, 2018).

Purpose of English vs. purposes of other languages

This code is defined as follows: *English is believed to be as very useful, but other languages are too, depending on the purpose.* Two excerpts have been identified as belonging to this code; by way of illustration, both excerpts are presented in this section. VAL stated the following:

> The ability to learn a foreign language and show mastery of it can serve different purposes, I mean, if you're studying philosophy, you might choose German, for instance. Or, let's say you want to do research in Russia, then you study Russian. Or maybe Chinese, you know, if you want to work in China because you think it is an upcoming power… Still, it is hard in all of those cases not to learn English. (Excerpt 5.15. VAL-Int2)

Along the same lines, OLI expressed the following:

> students should not restrict themselves to studying one foreign language; they should learn, at least, two languages. Well, English should be

> mandatory; the second one should be one of the students' choice and one that responds to their personal, professional, or even financial interests… basically, to a purpose or goal they have a real affinity with. (Excerpt 5.16. OLI-Int4)

Once again, the existence of English in relation to other languages emerged in the participants' views; this time, it does not only for academic or research purposes but also in relationship with "societal, institutional, pedagogical, and communicational factors", thus acknowledging the particular roles English currently has and their "situated complexity" (Dafouz & Smit, 2020, pp. 49–50).

Language protectionism

This code, which emerged in Case 2 and is present in the political discourse of some of the interviewed participants is, however, absent in the case currently under analysis.

3.2 Proficiency in English

This is the third category which also emerged from the data under study. It is defined as follows: *Any reference that the participants make regarding the English proficiency levels of the actors involved in EMI*. Macaro (2018)vastly discusses teachers' views regarding English proficiency and its effects on various issues in the EMI classroom, including students' comprehensibility and content learning as well as their own class management and pedagogical practices. Some authors have associated a change in the language of instruction with effects on the identity of the teacher (Kling, 2013). In this study, this category is characterized by two codes, which represent some of the participants' statements in the interviews. The codes are shown in the following grid:

Codes from category *Proficiency in English*
The influence of teachers' English proficiency in the development of EMI
The relationship between socio-economic background and English proficiency

In the next sections, both codes will be, first, defined, and then, they will be illustrated by citing statements provided by the participants. As a way to perform a more solid analysis, connections with the existing literature will be made explicit.

The influence of teachers' English proficiency in the development of EMI

The following definition was proposed for this code: "*Participants refer to how their own proficiency level or the proficiency levels of other colleagues influence the development of EMI and their own development within it. While proficiency was often defined as "limited" or "not sufficient", this was, more often than not, not reported as a limitation."* Two excerpts have been identified as belonging to this code; both excerpts are presented below. For his part, BAR expressed the following:

> I arrived in this university about two and a half years ago. At the beginning it [teaching through English] was something forced because I didn't speak Spanish. So, the first two courses that I taught in my first semester were in English. But, then, I wanted to keep my courses in English because I can keep the language alive. As a professor, I think, teaching one course per semester in English is good because, otherwise, I can forget the language within a few years. This helps me to maintain my English… Also, we often teach the results of our research, so having the slides that we create for our conferences in English is beneficial when I teach my course in English. (Excerpt 5.17. BAR-Int1)

In the quote, BAR stated that, at first, teaching through English "was something forced" since he did not speak the local language. However, he later stated that, after learning Spanish, he no longer had to use English as an imposed means of instruction, yet he decided to continue to teach his courses through English because "this helps me to maintain my English." BAR's statements can be analyzed, at least, from three different perspectives: In the first place, he does not see his status as a non-native speaker of English in the EMI setting as a deficit (Cook, 1999) but as an opportunity to maintain his language competence. His attitude fits Cook's description of the multicompetent language user and denatures the monolithic view of English as a language that is "owned" by native speakers (Seidlhofer, 2017).

In the second place, as an academic, BAR's professional identity (Kling, 2013; Volchenkova & Bryan, 2019) is being influenced by the fact that he is teaching through a new language, one that is global (Crystal, 2003) and holds the status of a legitimate pluralistic means of communication, a lingua franca (Seidlhofer, 2017), which permits speakers from multiple languages to take part

in intercultural dialogues (Graddol, 2006): "…I wanted to keep my courses in English because I can keep the language alive." Finally, BAR's quote can also be related to his desire to belong to a community of practice (Evnitskaya & Morton, 2011; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998), in which members develop common ways of doing things (e.g., researching and presenting research results multilingually): "…we often teach the results of our research, so having the slides that we create for our conferences in English is beneficial…"

For his part, VAL did not explicitly describe the English proficiency level of the staff in his department or his own as "poor" or "not sufficient". Nonetheless, he somehow suggested that not having enough English-speaking faculty may prevent his program from becoming truly international: "I mean, the staff is very Colombian so… few other people are those like me, but… I think the key for an international program is that it has to be in English… there is nothing else" (Excerpt 5.18. VAL-Int3). VAL's idea aligns with Wächter's and Maiworm's (2014) study in which directors from European universities explained how high English proficiency among staff was perceived as essential for the effective development and growth of their academic programs and, thus, there was a strong tendency to recruit international faculty who are highly proficient in English.

Recent studies conducted in EMI settings have reported on how lecturers' own limitations with spoken English affect their confidence to teach (Başıbek et al., 2014; Borg, 2016). Macaro (2018) presents four hypotheses about what level of proficiency EMI lecturers must have in order to teach through English. One of the hypotheses states that "because the nature of the content is likely to be more intellectually demanding and the academic language needed to express and communicate that content is likely to be more advanced in terms of vocabulary, genre, and complexity of structure" (p. 80), lecturers might feel that their language level has to be significantly higher than that needed to teach general English. As a result, those lecturers who believe that their language proficiency is lower than expected or needed might experience feelings of anxiety and insecurity.

While research shows that teaching through English does create tensions among faculty who speak a different L1, something that VAL seems to be aware of, equally important is to acknowledge that the notion of the English native speaker as a source of sociopolitical and economic power started to be denatured around thirty years ago (Holliday, 1994; Phillipson, 1992). BAR's position as a multicompetent user of English (Cook, 1999) provides strong evidence of this. Also, as stated by Escobar Urmeneta (2018), even though it is necessary for EMI professors to have a high English proficiency level (e.g., a C1 according to the CEFR), this does not guarantee successful learning in the EMI classroom. Successful EMI professors enhance student-centered learning and promote participation and interactions (Escobar Urmeneta, 2018).

Socio-economic background and English proficiency

This code has been defined as follows: *The students' English proficiency is highly dependent on their socio-economic background (e.g., students coming from less privileged socio-economic contexts have a lower English level)*. Three excerpts were identified as belonging to this code, and they are presented in this section; all three excerpts suggest that the students' English proficiency does not represent a barrier for them to take part in English-mediated courses. It is important to remember that, as presented in earlier in this chapter, Case 1 University is not only considered a top institution in academic terms but is also one of the most prestigious private universities in Colombia and Latin America and, as such, it receives an important number of students who have been educated in "the best" private schools of the country.

To describe the proficiency levels of the students that he teaches, SEB, a professor from the School of Business, expressed the following:

> So the Colombian students have a high degree in their ability to speak English, and that's pronounced in the undergrads, actually. I think the undergrads are very much confident in contributing to class; they have a much better foundation in the language… I actually think that the undergraduate students are pretty good, and it does not affect my teaching in English. So, I don't see a problem teaching them in English. No… (Excerpt 5.19. SEB-Int3)

Even when asked if his students' writing skills were as strong as their spoken production he replied: "To different degrees, yes. But from perfect to at least a good proficiency" (Excerpt 5.20. SEB-Int3).

For his part, VAL, who teaches history courses from the Department of History, stated the following:

> English doesn't present an obstacle to the classroom. Now, of course, it might be harder for them to write in English, and also takes them longer, and then maybe they're not willing to do as much, but… I don't see it really being an issue. But that said, I mean, the profile of students who take the class, for the most, two thirds of them come from bilingual schools, and so they have a solid base, at least for understanding. (Excerpt 5.21. VAL-Int2)

According to this participant, the use of English does not entail a problem for students to communicate in the classroom, and this can be accredited to the mere fact that the majority of them come from bilingual schools, which are often elite private schools located in the outskirts of the main Colombian cities. In reality, a large proportion of the student population in Case 1 University comes from high and upper-middle socio-economic backgrounds. This is confirmed by OLI, a professor from the School of Medicine, who stated that "the English proficiency of students in this university is very high… very, very high! (Excerpt 5.22. OLI-Int4), thus, implying that this is not the case in other universities in the country.

In the 1960s, educational psychologists and behavioral scientists argued that low academic performance among school children was closely related to them living in conditions of poverty and high social deprivation; this is known as "the deficit theory" (Hess & Shipman, 1965). During the next few decades, the hypothesis proposed by the deficit theorists widely spread to various educational contexts around the globe, including the field of second language acquisition (SLA). Nonetheless, by the mid-1990s, scholars working in the SLA arena (see Larsen-Freeman, 2017) began to challenge these purely cognitivist approaches by arguing that language learning is heavily dependent on sociocultural factors (Ortega, 2011), which include the peer and group interactions that learners should naturally be exposed to in the language

classroom (Cook, 2001, 2007; Escobar Urmeneta & Walsh, 2017; Evnitskaya, 2018; Storch, 2002).

Despite the evolution of educational principles in language development over the past thirty years, the deficit theory still seems to be deeply rooted in the minds of many educators today. The ideas provided by the three participants quoted in this section, for instance, are highly congruent with the deficit view. Fortunately, the idea of the L2 learner's competences was already seen in terms of "difference" not "deficit" more than a quarter of a century ago (see Cook, 1999). Today, besides recognizing the importance of student interactions for language learners in the classroom proposed by (Cook, 2001, 2007),Escobar-Urmeneta and Walsh (2017), and Storch (2002), recent literature on the pedagogy of EMI in higher education has also offered innovative recommendations such as the use of flipped learning (Andújar Vaca, 2020) and digital technologies (Rivera Trigueros & Sánchez Pérez, 2020; Ruiz, 2020) to enhance student learning and motivation.

4. Chapter Recap

This chapter focused on the results and analysis of Case 1, the case of a Colombian university. The chapter was divided into two sections: Contextual information about the case under study and analysis and discussion of the results. The first section provided an overview of the case context from a national and an institutional perspective. As such, national and institutional policies were cited and interpreted. The discussion was done in light of the relevant literature. The second section reported on the results of the interviews conducted with participants from this case. The results were systematically reported by categories and codes. Relevant interview excerpts were used in order to illustrate this information. Additionally, any claims and interpretations were supported with the appropriate theory and/or research studies.

CHAPTER 6: THE CASE OF BRAZIL

1. Chapter Overview

Chapter 6 adopts the same organization and methodological approach as the previous chapter, this time focusing on data obtained from Case 2. As such, the chapter is divided into two sections. The first section, *An Introduction to the Case of Brazil*, provides a comprehensive and detailed overview of the case under research from two different perspectives: The national context and the institutional context. Hence, the documentary data which were used as secondary sources (e.g., national and institutional policies) will mostly be reported in this section. All documentary descriptions will be analyzed and discussed in light of the existing literature. This comprehensive and detailed information of the case context should allow for a deeper understanding of the results and analysis of the conversational data presented in the second section.

The second section, *Interviews with Brazilian Participants: Analysis and Discussion*, focuses on the conversational data, the interviews which were carried out as the primary sources of information in the case. The results are systematically reported and analyzed by categories and codes, just as it was explained in Chapter 3. Relevant interview excerpts will be cited in order to illustrate the categorized and coded information. In addition, relevant studies will be taken into consideration to validate any claims and interpretations included in this discussion. The chapter ends with a summary of the main findings reported and discussed.

2. An Introduction to the Case of Brazil

This section provides an overview of Case 2, first from a national perspective (e.g., national language policies, bilingual education programs, etc.) and then from an institutional perspective (e.g., internationalization and language policies, EMI initiatives, etc.). To achieve this, documentary data will be reported and discussed in light of the relevant literature.

2.1 Country's Overview

The Federative Republic of Brazil is an upper middle-income South American country; with almost 212 million inhabitants, it is the most populous country in the region (The World Bank, 2022a). At the turn of the 21st century, Brazil faced economic and social transformations; the reduction of poverty, for instance, was a major achievement (The World Bank, 2015, as cited in Haddad et al., 2017). However, in 2015, the country entered in a severe recession; by 2017, unemployment had reached 13.6% after almost 1.5 million job losses in two years. In addition, the Covid-19 pandemic hit the country hard, which may reverse "years of progress in poverty reduction and human capital accumulation" (The World Bank, 2022a)

The Brazilian Higher Education System

Higher education in Brazil is divided into undergraduate and graduate levels; bachelor's programs typically last four years (e.g., humanities), five years (e.g., law), or six years (e.g., medicine). Brazilian universities can be public (funded by the government or by the armed forces) or private (for-profit or not-for-profit institutions) (Gimenez et al., 2018).

At present, there are 2,238 universities in Brazil, and 88% of them are private (Monroy et al., 2019). Public HEIs tend to be highly reputable, and entrance is competitive (OECD, 2015, 2019). To gain admission to a public HEI, students must take the *Vestibular*, a demanding university entrance exam (British Council, 2014b). Most public university attendees come from more privileged families and/or went to private schools (OECD, 2015), so those from lower socio-economic backgrounds who are not admitted must opt either for a private university or for vocational school (British Council, 2014b). More than 75% of Brazilians attend private universities while the rate in most OECD countries is roughly 30%; also, whereas the average college attainment in OECD countries is 39%, the percentage in Brazil is only 18% (OECD, 2019).

Regulatory Framework

After the Constitution of 1988, several education laws were enacted. The National Education Guidelines and Framework Law, *Lei de Diretrizes e Bases da Educação Nacional* (LDB) of 1996, regulates all types of education in Brazil. The law states that higher education is intended to "stimulate cultural creation and the development of scientific spirit and reflective thinking" (Art. 43 I). It also aims to educate citizens so they can work in different professional areas and foster social development (II). Higher education is also expected to enhance scientific research, science, technology, and culture (III) as well as the dissemination of knowledge (IV) and a sense of community and reciprocity (VI) (Lei No 9.394, de 20 DE Dezembro de 1996, 1996).

The Ministry of Education (MoE) establishes the regulations and manages funding for the federal higher education system. In addition, the National Council for Education (CNE) and the National Commission for Evaluation of Higher Education (CONAES) assist in supervising, regulating, and evaluating higher education (OECD, 2018). The National System of Higher Education Evaluation (SINAES) supervises the quality of education in institutions and the performance of students (OECD, 2015). While the MoE sets the foundations and goals for education in general, both the school system and the higher education system in Brazil are decentralized (OECD, 2015). Hence, the LDB mandates that both national and local governments work jointly in the planning of educational projects and policies (UNESCO & International Bureau of Education [IBE], 2010). With the participation of the federal, state, and municipal governments, Brazil defined its current education plan in 2014.

The National Education Plan (2014-2024)

The current National Education Plan, *Plano Nacional de Educação 2014-2024* (PNE), outlines the goals and plans to be implemented in education within a ten year period. It presents twenty goals aiming at all levels of education; some are: Improving the quality of education, eradicating illiteracy, and granting more support to youth and adult education (Plano Nacional de Educação [PNE], 2014). Goals 12, 13, and 14 address issues in higher education; for instance, the

percentage of tertiary students aged 18-24 is anticipated to grow by 40% (Goal 12), and the number of university professors holding PhD degrees is expected to be 35% by 2024 (Goal 13) (PNE, 2014). The latter goal was reached within two years as the percentage of doctors teaching in universities was 39% by 2016 (Barros et al., 2018). Because the PNE is the product of major social struggles and efforts made by the civil society, its genesis has been seen as a symbol of progress in Brazilian education (Cernov & Pietricovsky, 2020).

In terms of higher education, the PNE has been the target of criticism. Manhas (2019) stated that the high rates of high school dropouts, poor support for low-income students, and historical territorial inequalities would make it hard for tertiary education in Brazil to be accessible to all. Zanferari and Almeida (2017) claimed that the current PNE's goals targeting higher education are limited to three only, and that they are replicated from the previous PNE (2001-2010). Hence, authors suggest that national policies must detach from antiquated views which no longer permeate the current education system (Alvarenga et al., 2014) and that they must democratize and validate education as a social right at present (Lima, 2020).

In his article, Lima (2020) also reports on the discontentment of the Brazilian citizens who feel that their claims regarding access to and quality of education have been minimized, overlooked, or simply ignored. This suggests that the PNE initiatives might often be too ambitious and, thus, too difficult to achieve. In fact, according to the latest PNE report from September 2020, many goals are still far from being reached (Instituto Nacional de Estudos e Pesquisas Educacionais Anísio Teixeira [Inep], 2020).

Bilingual Education: Minority Languages

According to the Constitution of 1988, "Portuguese is the official language of the Federative Republic of Brazil" (Art. 13); the Constitution, too, acknowledges the existence of Indigenous languages (*Constituição Da República Federativa Do Brasil*, 1988). Plus, as part of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CPRD), the MoE has committed to promoting the use of Braille and sign language (Língua Brasileira de Sinais – LIBRAS) in

special education (UN Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities [CRPD], 2014). Despite this, many Brazilians still hold the belief that Brazil is a monolingual country where only Portuguese is spoken and where linguistic and cultural diversity are extraneous issues (Liberali & Megale, 2016). This might be related to the fact that, for more than two centuries, Portuguese was, by law, the only official language in Brazil. In 1757, the Portuguese Crown promulgated the Indian Directorate, a language policy which banned the use of Indigenous languages and imposed Portuguese as the only language of instruction in schools (Mariani, 2020).

According to Santos et al., (2019), the Brazilian State embraced the idea that Indigenous communities would, at some point, either disappear or assimilate into society. The use of native languages in schools was seen as a barrier to such assimilation, so, due to the imposition of the Portuguese-only rule for literacy skills, native languages were diminished and invisibilized until some of them disappeared (Povos indígenas no Brasil, 2019). The Constitution of 1988 represented a historical milestone in the rights, traditions, languages, and education of Indigenous peoples as it mandated that regular basic education "shall be given in the Portuguese language" and added that "Indian communities shall also be ensured the use of their native tongues and their own learning methods" (Constituição Da República Federativa Do Brasil, 1988, Art. 210).

The latest census revealed that around 0.4% of the total population in Brazil self-identify as Indigenous and, as such, some speak a minority language (Instituto Brasileiro de Geografi a e Estatística [IBGE], 2010). At present, around 180 Indigenous languages are spoken in Brazil. (Rodrigues, 2014). In an effort to preserve them and abide by the constitutional rules, the National Curriculum Framework for Indigenous Schools (*Referencial Curricular Nacional para as Escolas Indígenas*, [*RCNE/Indígenas*]) was introduced in 1998. This document presents the political, historical, and legal reasons that support the demand for Indigenous education and suggests the guidelines to approach it from the different subject areas (RCNE/Indígenas, 1998).

Indigenous education in Brazil continues to show progress. In 2002, the Indigenous Teachers Training Framework was approved, and in 2009 the first

National Conference of Indigenous School Education and National Commission was held (Mello et al., 2018). Hence, indigenous schools "are growing and flourishing, and are no longer in the shadows of the dominant educational system" (Guilherme & Hüttner, 2015, p. 482). Some studies on successful Indigenous education models and practices have been published. Neto (2014) reported on a study in an *Apyãwa Tapirapé* bilingual school in central Brazil; this school embraces the tribe's culture in its curricula, hires native teachers, uses *Tapirapé* as the main language of instruction, and offers a strong Portuguese L2 program. Investigations on the use of technology to democratize access to knowledge (Gava & Jorge, 2013) and to vindicate the Indigenous people's identities and roles in the society (Russo & Barros, 2016) have also been pursued.

The Rise of Plurilingual Education

In Brazil, bilingual education in Portuguese plus an internationally prestigious language such as English has been known as elite bilingual education (EBE) (Liberali & Megale, 2016). According to Moura (2021) the first EBE school in Brazil started in São Paulo in 1980. Since it emerged a prestigious private institution inspired by bilingual schools in Canada, middle-class families began to send their children to this school and to other similar schools that opened in the subsequent years. As a result, Portuguese-English bilingual schools increasingly gained popularity among the more affluent families who, in quest of offering their children quality education and language learning opportunities, supported this model of education (Marcelino, 2009). The boom of EBE schools created an unexpected problem: the need for a country-wide EBE policy.

In 2016, almost forty years after the foundation of the first EBE school, the National Council of Education (CNE) embarked on a project that aimed to define the regulations for bilingual schools at the national level (Moura, 2021). Citizens and institutions helped with the creation of the National Curriculum Guidelines for Plurilingual Education (*Diretrizes Curriculares Nacionais para a oferta de Educação Plurilíngue - DEP*) approved in July, 2020. While the document summarizes the different forms of bilingual education in Brazil (e.g., Indigenous education and education for the deaf), it concentrates on defining the

guidelines for EBE schools. The document cites bilingual education models in states and municipalities such as the *Projeto Londrina Global* a Portuguese-English program launched in 2007 in the state of Paraná, and *Programa Rio Criança Global*, which started in Rio de Janeiro in 2009 and, to date, offers programs in Portuguese-English/Spanish/German/French (DEP, 2020).

The DEP defines bilingual schools as institutions which provide academic instruction in two different languages as they enhance the students' knowledge and skills in and through both languages. Concerning the amount of time of instruction in L2, the DEP stipulates the following: Between 30% and 50% for early childhood and fundamental education (1st to 9th grade) and a minimum of 20% for secondary education (high school). The qualifications of teachers are also defined; they must certify a minimum of a B2 level according to the CEFR in the L2 and demonstrate at least 120 hours of postgraduate studies in bilingual education (DEP, 2020). Although these guidelines apply to all languages known as "languages of prestige" namely Italian and Japanese, the document does highlight the role of English as the only mandatory foreign language included in Brazilian curricula since 2017 as well as its present status as a lingua franca worldwide.

English Learning in Brazil

The flourishing of bilingual schools since the 1980s and the absence of a policy in EBE allowed for ELL in Brazil to be mainly seen as a business (Liberali & Megale, 2016). According to the British Council (2014a), ELL options are plentiful in Brazil. Language institutes are common; some are affordable, but most are costly. This keeps many people from accessing English classes and learning the language. The same document also reports that both public and private schools offer English classes. However, problems such as a focus on grammar and reading and the lack of professional training and language proficiency among teachers keep Brazilians from actually improving their communication skills. As for higher education, the report states that ELL is not a priority in universities, but it does make a connection between ELL and internationalization practices in Brazilian HEIs.

Two factors might have influenced the history of ELL in Brazil, whose English proficiency was ranked as "low" in the latest EF English Proficiency Index for Schools results (EF EPI, 2021). First, due to the historical reasons discussed earlier, the Portuguese language is deeply rooted in the identity of most Brazilians (British Council, 2014a). Thus, the learning of a foreign language such as English is not an easy matter to digest; in fact, even after several years of ELL, many Brazilians claim that they do not speak English (Hashiguti, 2017). Second, as opposed to other Latin American countries such as Colombia, Chile, and Mexico, where ELL policies or guidelines have been adopted at the national level (Cronquist & Fiszbein, 2017), Brazil had not done so until the DEP was approved in 2020. Once again, these guidelines not only apply to English but to any non-minority language in the country. The MoE has even emphasized that the learning of foreign languages in schools should not be limited to English (British Council, 2014a).

In order to increase English proficiency, however, and, hence, push globalization and internationalization processes, the Brazilian government created *English without Borders* - EwB (I*nglês sem Fronteras*) in 2012. EwB derived from the Science without Border (SwB) Program (*Ciência sem Fronteiras*), which was brought into play in 2011 as a way to foster science, technology, and innovation in the country through mobility and international exchanges (Decreto No 7.642, de 13 de Dezembro de 2011, 2011). The government soon realized that most SwB beneficiaries chose Portuguese- and Spanish-speaking destinations for their academic exchanges (Gimenez & Passoni, 2016), and that many others struggled to attain the minimum language test results to access English-taught programs (Pinheiro & Finardi, 2014). Thus, EwB emerged as a need to boost the students' English skills, which would eventually result in more individuals engaging in mobility programs in English-speaking countries (Kaneko-Marques & Garcia, 2019).

EwB was built upon three specific actions: (a) Offering more diagnostic tests, specifically standardized English proficiency tests; (b) providing online learning through a system called "My English Online Platform"; and (c) increasing the number of English courses at universities' language centers

(Passoni, 2019). Later on, through Ordinance no. 973, of November 14, 2014, the EwB initiative became the Languages without Borders (LwB) Program, (*Idiomas sem Fronteras*), which offers language training to students, teachers, and staff from all public schools and universities. In HEIs, the program is intended to empower internationalization processes through more defined L2 policies; it offers both online and face-to-face courses in German, Spanish, French, English, Italian, and Japanese. The LwB ordinance also stipulates that the program seeks to enhance, along with the other L2s, the learning of Portuguese and the appreciation for the Brazilian culture (Portaria No 973, de 14 de Novembro 2014, 2014).

Internationalization of Higher Education (IHE)

IHE in Brazil is not a new phenomenon; it dates back to more than half a century ago. Two long-established programs are: the Exchange for Undergraduate Students Program (*Estudantes-Convênio de Graduação, PEC-G*), which initiated in the 1960s and the National Postgraduate Plans (PNPGs), adopted when the country had very few postgraduate opportunities for professors and researchers in the 1970s (Passoni, 2019). Neves and Barbosa (2020) indicate that the PNPGs paved the way for a more internationalized graduate education system in Brazil. In addition, the creation of the Brazilian Association for International Education - FAUBAI in 1988 has strengthened the IHE in the country. The association has more than 200 member universities, holds annual conferences, leads virtual exchange programs, and acts as a repository of documents on language policies and mobility programs (FAUBAI, 2021).

Despite the government's efforts, the IHE in Brazil still seems to have a long way to go. Mainly, the absence of a national strategy and the lack of institutionalized policies in universities are believed to be major contributing factors to the underdevelopment of IHE in the country (Ramos, 2017). Also, although a number of exchange programs for international graduate students have been in place for decades, the number of overseas students in Brazilian HEIs still remains low; according to the OECD (2019) "only 0.2% of tertiary

students in Brazil are foreign, compared to the total of 6% mobile or foreign students across OECD countries" (p. 3).

Another issue that has been discussed in the literature is that policies on internationalization in Brazilian universities is still an incipient matter. For years, internationalization has happened at the department or faculty level, using their own networking and funding (British Council, 2014b). A 2017 project involving 158 HEIs reveals that only 22% of them allocated budget for internationalization; the other reported either not having funding (46%) or not having any related data (31%) (Robles & Bhandari, 2017); funding is used for mobility, meetings, events, and the like. Almost two thirds of all participating universities reported having a language policy and offering ELL courses, too. This might have opened the doors to EMI initiatives during the past years.

EMI in Higher Education

While EMI in Brazilian HEI is not new, there is still a dearth of information to trace back its origins. Martínez (2016) claims that there is very little evidence on the use of EMI in HEIs prior to 2010; this seems to be even more pronounced in undergraduate degrees as graduate programs have always been more open and autonomous. Tessler (2013) argues that the concealment of EMI in Brazilian higher education might be related to the historical prohibition of languages other than Portuguese in education. This apprehension might also be the product of tensions towards the idea of English "as the global 'monolanguage' of internationalization" (Passoni, 2019, p. 355) and as "a burden" and "a tool for colonization" (Jordão, 2016, p. 191). Despite criticism, EMI initiatives started to emerge in Brazilian HEIs during the second decade of the 21st century; this might be a response to the demands and impact of the Science without Border (SwB) and Language without Border (LwB) launched in 2011 and 2014 respectively.

In the last few years, some large-scale exploratory studies on EMI and its connection with internationalization in Brazilian higher education have been published. Robles and Bhandari (2017) found that 100 out of 164 universities offered EMI courses or programs. Another study by the British Council and

FAUBAI revealed that 45 out 90 universities reported that EMI was offered in their institutions in 2016; two years later, 66 out of 84 survey participants reported the same (Gimenez et al., 2018). The study also reported that EMI is more common in the humanities and social sciences at the undergraduate level while biomedical sciences, science, and technology are the areas in which it predominates at the graduate level. A 2019 survey involving 5,119 lecturers showed that 3,271 (63,9%) think that EMI improves their students' English skills while 271 (5,3%) believe that there are no language benefits. It is important to say that only 13,5% of participants reported having taught through English in the past (Sarmento & Baumvol, 2019).

Interest in EMI at both the institutional and classroom levels seems to be on the rise, too. A study about the internationalization of a private university in Porto Alegre describes their experience with a series of EMI strategies; these have included the design of a course for participating staff to get acquainted with pedagogical and language issues in EMI settings as well as the creation of EMI discussion groups with stakeholders (Delgado, 2020). Another investigation at a public university in São Paulo concluded that English is being used in lectures and seminars and that students are now producing written essays and participating in group discussions in English (Corbett, 2019). Additionally, Martínez et al. (2020) proposed the use of a research-based observation tool designed to identify interaction patterns, student participation, and L1 use, among other factors.

A few years ago, Martínez (2016) stated that EMI in Brazil was still at an infancy stage and anticipated that its implementation would create challenges. Those challenges would include a lack of clear language requirements to take part in EMI courses; perceived threats to the local culture and, thus, resistance towards EMI; and poor long-term planning and institutional articulation. Recent research still reveals concerns about the introduction of EMI in Brazilian higher education. Guimarães and Kremer (2020) bring up low English proficiency among students and instructors as well as lack of the appropriate resources and support provided by the institutions. The authors, however, also mention a few opportunities that the current status of EMI poses for the country, namely

learning from other contexts where EMI has been implemented for a longer period (e.g., Belgium) and using EMI to enhance IaH.

2.2 Institution's Overview

Case 2 University is a public institution founded in the 1930s; it is located in São Paulo, one of the largest, most populated, and most important cities in Brazil. As stated on its official website, Case 2 University is committed to excellence. Due to the high quality of scientific knowledge and research that Case 2 University produces, they proudly display the national and international recognition that it has been awarded after almost 100 years of existence. In fact, Case 2 University is among the most important HEIs in Latin America, usually placing among the best ranked universities in the region according to the *QS Latin American University Rankings* and the *Times Higher Education Latin American University Rankings*.

Case 2 University has different campuses which host more than forty faculties and schools (*unidades de ensino e pesquisa*), namely: School of Law, School of Education, School of Medicine, Institute of Physics, and Institute of Psychology. Also, it offers around 350 undergraduate programs and around 250 graduate programs in various disciplines. As of 2020, the total population of undergraduate, master, and doctoral students was around 90,000; this population was more or less evenly distributed between males and females. Case 2 University employs around 4700 full time professors; almost 97 percent of them hold a PhD degree or a higher degree. Around 60% of these individuals are males and 40% are females.

Internationalization

Internationalization processes are decentralized in Case 2 University; that is to say, while the university does have a main internationalization office (IO) which sets the goals for the entire institution, each school or faculty also runs its own IO and, thus, leads different types of projects and initiatives. In total, there are around fifty different local IOs, and each of them has its own distinctive name in Portuguese. Due to the large amounts of data included on these webpages, only information found on the main IO webpage will be reported.

As stated on the main IO website, this office aims to promote strategic connections, namely academic, research, and cultural ties and cooperation between the university and other HEIs, the public sector, and the civil society. These processes are expected to function at both the national and international levels. The webpage also includes a set of guidelines (*Diretrizes gerais*); some of them are: increasing international mobility of students, faculty, and staff; establishing more partnerships with universities located in emerging countries; expanding international visibility in terms of teaching, research, culture, and extension; and strengthening IaH activities, including double degree programs done in agreement with international networks.

The website also offers statistical data about incoming and outgoing students; outward mobility in Case 2 University is higher than inward mobility. While a high number of international students come from neighboring Latin American countries, namely Colombia and Peru, the website also reports that there are students from North America and Europe. As of 2020, international students accounted for four percent of the total student population.

Multilingualism

As opposed to many HEIs around the world, Case 2 University does not host a language center or department for the entire student population. Instead, they offer language learning opportunities to students, faculty, and staff through initiatives led either by the main IO or the private sector. Some faculties and schools seem to be focused on equipping their human capital with language skills, especially English. Specifically, the School of Philosophy, Arts, and Human Sciences has a major role in the provision of language and pedagogical services (e.g., courses, training, etc.) which aim to reach various other faculties and schools in the university.

The main IO website has a tab called “Languages” (*Idiomas*), where different initiatives and programs on language learning can be found. One of the most important programs appears to be the “Language Education Programme” which provides language skills to the undergraduate student population and transcultural education for the graduate students. The program is offered by the

main IO jointly with the School of Philosophy, Arts, and Human Sciences. Interestingly, the program seems to focus on ELL only since, according to the website, the objective is to boost English skills among students and, as such, promote a higher degree of participation in various international academic opportunities. Additionally, this ELL initiative seeks to foster academic cooperation with universities in the United Kingdom.

Under the tab "Public notice" (*Editais*), several language-related initiatives can be seen. Unsurprisingly, opportunities to learn English bypass those of other languages. Courses on academic English skills and preparation for international language exams are popular. Initiatives on languages other than English include courses in Spanish and Mandarin, Italian for academic mobility, and Portuguese for foreigners.

Initiatives aiming to provide academic language support to Case 2 University students (e.g., reading comprehension workshops, proofreading services, etc.) are also led by each faculty or department or by the private sector. For example, there are individuals who are language experts and offer their services as tutors to help students improve their reading, speaking, and writing in English. The researcher met one of them and conducted an informal interview; the woman said she offered her services to the School of Engineering and that, most of her instruction focused on academic writing, but that other tutors focused on academic reading comprehension. Private language institutes which function inside the university campuses are also an option for students to learn a language at their own expense. During his visit to Case 2 University campus, the researcher had the opportunity to stopover at three of these institutes and have brief informal conversations with administrators. In general, institutes mostly follow an EFL-oriented approach to teaching.

As opposed to Case 1 University, learning English or any other foreign language is not a graduation requirement for undergraduate students; no related information about graduate students was found on the main IO webiste, either. This may be related to the fact that each faculty or department manages their own IO and requirements.

English-Medium Initiatives

Information on the official ways in which EMI is being implemented in Case 2 University is non-existent. The main reason for this might be that EMI is not an official policy in this institution. Despite the lack of details about EMI in documents, the actions and initiatives described in the previous section about language learning somehow suggest that Case 2 University is aiming to provide English language support to students, especially now that it appears to be pushing for a more English-mediated type of education.

As for support provided to faculty members teaching their courses through English, a workshop intended to prepare them to use EMI in their courses had been offered in October 2019, a few weeks before the researcher visited the campus and conducted the interviews. The workshop was offered in cooperation with a British organization which is widely recognized in the field of English teaching and testing.

3. Interviews with Brazilian Participants: Analysis and Discussion

In this section, the results of Case 2 participants' interviews will be presented by categories and codes. As explained in Chapter 3, the concept of Roles of English (RoE) was taken as a starting point to categorize and code the interviews. According to Dafouz & Smit (2020), RoE:

> … refers to the communicative functions that language fulfills in HEIs, with the focus placed on English as the implicitly or explicitly identified main medium of education. In view of the diverse linguistic repertoires relevant to the settings in question, English intersects in dynamic, complementary but also conflictual ways with other languages. Additionally, English, and 'language' more generally, are seen as both product and process, being used both as individual codes and as a flexible form of multilingual communication (p. 60).

The participants in the Brazilian university (Case 2) often provided ideas about the various roles and functions that English has within their academic contexts; their statements often showed the dynamic, complementary, and conflictual manners in which English interacts with other languages in their environment.

As in Case 1, the participants' statements were grouped into three categories: *Functions of English in academia and in the profession*, *Language complementarity vs. Language conflict*, and *Proficiency in English*. The grid below summarizes the categories which emerged from the dimension Roles of English (RoE):

Categories from Roles of English (RoE)
Functions of English in academia and in the profession
Language complementarity vs. Language conflict
Proficiency in English

These three categories are made up of a number of codes that emerged from the interviews. The definitions assigned to the categories and codes that emerged from the interviews will appear in italics throughout the section. Also, in order to perform a more solid analysis and interpretations made by the researcher, the discussion will be nourished by relevant literature. In the next sections, the categories and codes will be presented and exemplified.

3.1 Functions of English in academia and in the profession

This category was defined as follows at the end of the coding and categorization process: *What functions English has in academia and in the profession (e.g., for professional communication, for research purposes, etc.)*; the grid below shows how, in this study, this category is characterized by the following codes, which are representations of the statements provided by the participants:

Codes from category *Functions of English in academia and in the profession*
English as a default tool for communication in academia
English as a legitimate language requirement in higher education
English as an essential tool to succeed in the discipline or for the profession

Below, each of the codes, which emerged from the data, will be defined and illustrated by using statements from the participants. In addition, in order to strengthen the analysis, connections with the existing literature will be made explicit.

English as a default tool for communication in academia

This code emerged from the data and is defined as follows: *English is assumed to be used as the main means of communication or a default language in academia*. Three excerpts have been identified as belonging to this code; all three of them are presented in this section to illustrate the analysis. The first excerpt was taken from HIRO's interview. HIRO is a professor from the School of Pharmaceutical Sciences; he claims:

> English is essential in our profession. I'm gonna start a new course next year for graduate students that is called "Improving your Communications Skills in Academia" which will focus on the importance of English and other communication aspects that we scientists ignore or that we are even against, you know. We think that scientists only care about science itself, but what I want to teach them is that science is a very social enterprise. There are a lot of other aspects that you have to take into account in your career because just doing experiments is not gonna make you successful. (Excerpt 6.1. HIRO-Int2)

The second example was taken from SALO's interview; SALO is a professor from the School of Economics, Business, and Accounting who argues the following:

> For me, it [English] is a basic thing. It's very, very important for research. You start doing international research, and then you start publishing your research in other places. I knew that English was important for my profession, and I did not have it. So, I went to London, actually to Brighton, which is south of London, and did this one-month course there. (Excerpt 6.2. SALO-Int3)

The last example used in this section of the analysis comes from KATO's interview. KATO is a professor from the School of Arts, Sciences, and Humanities who stated the following:

> The lingua franca of research is English, so I have no doubt English is the language we must use; by using English and by teaching the classes in English, we can make more collaboration and increase student mobility, cooperation, and research. (Excerpt 6.3. KATO-Int4)

As seen in the previous quotes, all three participants acknowledge the generally accepted assertion that English is the necessary language to be used for communication and investigation in the academic community; as stated by one of them, English is "the lingua franca of research" (Jenkins, 2006, 2014, 2015).

Nonetheless, if one analyzes the quotes closely, they uphold different nuances in terms of to what extent and with how much openness they accept this idea.

To begin, HIRO and KATO seem to be major supporters of the idea of English as the language of science and technology as well as knowledge dissemination, the privileged status that has been conferred on English at a global scale for several decades now (Crystal, 2003). SALO's views, on the other hand, reflect some type of imposed pressure, something that he learned only after he faced the demands of his profession as a professor and a researcher. For years, authors have warned about the hegemony of English in scientific publications (Ammon, 2013; Bocanegra-Valle, 2013) and about the pressures and challenges that non-Anglophone researchers must cope with when they try to publish their work in high impact scholarly journals, which are usually produced in English (Flowerdew, 2008; Lillis & Curry, 2010).

English as a legitimate language requirement in higher education

This code is defined as follows: *English is believed to be "the legitimate" language in higher education*. As stated in Chapter 5, legitimate is understood as conforming to recognized principles or accepted rules and standards (Merriam Webster, n.d.). Four excerpts have been classified under this code and presented in this section. Excerpts in Case 2 can be classified into two rather conflicting views: those who believe English should be the right and probably the only option and those who believe that languages other than English should be considered, too.

First, both HIRO, from the School of Pharmaceutical Sciences, and KATO, from the School of Arts, Sciences, and Humanities openly expressed that English should be the foreign language students must be required to learn in their university. By way of example, HIRO's interview excerpt is presented below:

> Well, in my opinion, it should be English, but there is a lot that prevents us to use a foreign language in a public course; so, because it is a public school you cannot make it mandatory… I'm trying to change this requirement. (Excerpt 6.4. HIRO-Int2)

As explained earlier in this chapter, the issue of language of instruction is, due to historical and political reasons, a highly complex matter in the Brazilian education system; these politicized discourses will be touched upon more in detail later on in this chapter when the issue of language protectionism is discussed.

SALO, from the School of Economics, Business, and Accounting, seems to be a bit more inclusive and aware that an English-only policy should not be the goal. To this regard, he expressed in the interview: "I would say that we should have both Portuguese and English. Of course, we need Portuguese because we are here, and students are doing a course here in Brazil. It's the official language; they have to know it" (Excerpt 6.5. SALO-Int3). For her part, OIKO, a professor from the School of Philosophy, Arts, and Human Sciences stated the following:

> I, by no means, think it should be only English. And I think the university and the students benefit from the fact that there are so many languages: we have 16, which is a lot! Oh, no! Definitely not! I don't think it should be only English. I think it should continue to be diverse, as diverse as possible. (Excerpt 6.6. OIKO-Int1)

As discussed earlier, at the turn of the 21st century, English-medium programs began to be on the rise in universities around the globe (Pérez-Vidal, 2015; Pérez-Vidal & Llanes, 2021). Such programs are often inextricably intertwined with the internationalization goals of these institutions (Doiz Aintzane et al., 2019; Escobar Urmeneta, 2020; Kuteeva, 2018), especially after the Bologna Declaration.

While most participants in Case 2 mentioned English as a legitimate foreign language requirement in their university, something that has often been criticized (Kuteeva, 2014; Soler et al., 2018; Wilkinson & Gabriels, 2021), it is interesting to see how OIKO spoke enthusiastically about the importance of targeting multilingualism and, as such, promoting cultural and linguistic diversity. SALO's idea about having both Portuguese, as the official language in the country, and English somehow reflects a political position, something HIRO mentioned, too. In any case, it is clear that "English as medium goes hand in

hand with other languages that form part of their respective multilingualism" (Dafouz & Smit, 2020, p. 3).

English as an essential tool to succeed in the discipline or for the profession

This code emerged from the data as the two previous ones; it is defined as follows: *English is believed to be essential to succeed in this discipline or profession.* Three excerpts have been classified under this code, and all three of them are presented in this section. As it is important to show a connection between the ideas expressed in the excerpts and the participants' disciplines or fields of expertise, their professions or qualifications are presented in this section.

When asked how important was mastering English in her discipline, OIKO, who holds both an M.A. and a PhD in English and has undergone English teaching training and taken translation courses, expressed the following:

> I see that the hard sciences, biological sciences, mathematical sciences, engineering, for instance, they buy in to it much more than the humanities... teaching in a foreign language, which I can actually see why because I can see how lab work can work perfectly without people even… not needing to speak to each other… And how you can model engineering models with a group without being or without having a high level of proficiency. Whereas I do see a very big challenge in expressing philosophical thoughts in a second language. So, I think that's why the humanities have this … I wouldn't say "resistance", but they don't see it as a point. They don't see they're gaining anything from it, right? And obviously there's research showing that people learn better in their native language. So, that's another discourse the humanities are very well aware of. (Excerpt 6.7. OIKO-Int1)

HIRO, who is a PhD in biology-related area, explicitly recognizes the importance of English in his profession. As he stated in a previous excerpt, due to the fact that he categorizes science as "a very social enterprise" he holds the view that "English is essential" (Excerpt 6.1. HIRO-Int2). When asked if being fluent in English had represented any professional advantages for him as a professional, he made it clear that it was not his English skills per se but his good communication skills in general, as it can be seen in the following excerpt:

> Well, I know that I get invited sometimes because of my communication skills in general… Bioinformatics is a very complex subject that most

> biological scientists do not understand, but I know that they invite me to give talks because I can say complex stuff to them in a way that they can understand. (Excerpt 6.8. HIRO-Int2)

In Chapter 5, OLI, one of the participants, also seemed very confident about his language and communication skills. In his interview, he suggested that being fluent in English has provided major opportunities in his career, including being a teaching assistant in Harvard University (Excerpt 5.9. OLI-Int4). Interestingly, the same as HIRO, OLI works in the field of science, more specifically in medicine.

For his part, SALO, who holds both an M.A. and a PhD in accounting, stated the following:

> Considering that accounting is the language of business, it's a very professionalized course, English is the language that they [the students] have to know… today, if the student, the professional, doesn't have English, they practically can't work in the area of accounting in, of course, in a good position and having good potential to grow. So, I think English is the language that they have to know, of course, to communicate and also in specific terms, specific language and everything. (Excerpt 6.9. SALO-Int3)

Based on their interview excerpts, it is clear that both HIRO and SALO consider that English is as an essential tool to be successful in their disciplines or professions. OIKO, on the other hand, provided a more critical perspective on the use of EMI in her discipline, the humanities.

In any case, English is believed to be an important tool for professionals. "The English Effect", a 2013 British Council's report, argues that English "provides a strong competitive advantage in culture, diplomacy, commerce, media, academia, and IT" and that "globalization and economic development has made English the language of opportunity and a vital means of providing an individual's prospects for well-paid employment" (British Council, 2013, p. 3). A report issued by Cambridge English and Quacquarelli Symonds (2016) states that, during recruitment processes, 98.5% of employers assess the prospect candidates' English language competencies and that good English skills leads to faster job promotions and salary increases.

It could be stated that, because the organizations mentioned in the previous paragraph are British, they will obviously defend and promote the idea of English as a very important language for professional life and the job market. However, other studies conducted in outer and expanding countries (see Kachru, 1985) also confirm this idea. For example, two studies conducted in India and Pakistan, two outer circle countries, reported on the positive effects of English mastery on social life and employment opportunities (Abu-Humos, 2016; Pandey & Pandey, 2014). In a large-scale study conducted in Latin America, Cronquist and Fiszbein (2017) also reported that, for Latin American governments and societies, English is seen as a necessity to compete in the job market and, thus, attain economic growth.

3.2 Language complementarity vs. Language conflict

After coding and categorizing the data, this category was defined as follows: *How English co-exists with other languages, sometimes as a complement, sometimes as a conflict.* Dafouz and Smit (2020) argue that, even when English is given a privileged status in academia and higher education, "it is in contact and conflict with other languages and their institutional and societal histories in schools" (p. 47). In the data under analysis, this category is characterized by a number of codes, which are representations of the statements provided by the participants during the interviews. The codes are shown in the following grid:

Codes from category *Language complementarity vs. Language conflict*
English vs. other languages in the discipline or in the profession
Purpose of English vs. purposes of other languages
Language protectionism

In the subsequent sections, the codes included in the grid above will be defined and illustrated as they emerged from the statements provided by the participants. Furthermore, explicit connections with the existing literature will be utilized in order to strengthen the analysis of such statements.

English vs. other languages in the discipline or in the profession

As presented in Chapter 5, this code is defined as follows: *How the function of English in the academic world is perceived as opposed to that of other languages*. Three excerpts have been identified as belonging to this code, and they are presented in this section. Interestingly, for all three participants, one of the most common functions of English in the professional world, in comparison with other languages, is that it should or could provide various types of benefits to those who "dare" to get immersed in the world of English for professional purposes.

HIRO, a professor from the School of Pharmaceutical Sciences, believes that many professors prefer to stay "in the comfort zone" and teach their courses through Portuguese rather than English because planning and teaching their courses through English is, at present, not worth the extra effort:

> I think they [the university] should provide better rewards, like to really motivate the professors to change their language, you know… What I feel is that, if we don't receive more… ummm… a higher paycheck, we'll go through this. So, something they could do is: "OK, you teach in English? Here's 20 % more of your salary increase", you know. But they do not do this. (Excerpt 6.10. HIRO-Int2)

HIRO's opinion suggests that, if professors had some type of extrinsic motivation (e.g., monetary incentives), they would feel more committed to using English in their lessons. OIKO, a professor from the School of Philosophy, Arts, and Human Sciences, argued that the mere use of English in the profession already entails benefits, so its use is rapidly gaining popularity among people in her discipline:

> There is a lot of research going on at *Name of Case 2 University*, lots of publications, and because publications in English have a higher impact, professors are migrating to publishing in English. Also, because the funding opportunities are also in English, so that's another thing. (Excerpt 6.11. OIKO-Int1)

As seen in the quote, OIKO suggests that using English makes it possible for professionals to have more visibility through publications and research. Last, for KATO, a professor from the School of Arts, Sciences, and Humanities, the use of English represents both personal and professional gains:

> So, it's more like a personal challenge. Some colleagues have told me: "Are you crazy?" Because it is more work, but, to me, it's good because I can practice my English and I use it within my own field of research, my own discipline. (Excerpt 6.12. KATO-Int4)

Based on the participants' views, the benefits of using English in the profession may come in various forms: salary increases, professional visibility, or personal satisfactions. It is well known that, for several decades now, English has been considered the international language of science and research (Crystal, 2003; Lillis & Curry, 2010; Mauranen, 2015; Swales, 1990), so it comes as no surprise that university professors are so deeply committed, or pressured, to using English in their profession. Plus, numerous studies have reported that universities in non-Anglophone countries are increasingly promoting publications in English language journals and books in order to enhance their international visibility and impact (Lillis & Curry, 2010; Raitskaya & Tikhonova, 2020; Rostan, 2011).

The popular use of English in academia, however, cannot take place in vacuum; its existence must necessarily be examined in relation to other languages (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, 2020). Many could think that, in the long run, publications in the national language in academic contexts such the one in Case 2, in Portuguese specifically, may decrease or even cease. As a result, research in multilingual contexts conducted by multilingual scholars has been advocated for a few years now (Kuteeva & Mauranen, 2014), especially as a way to keep the balance in the naturally-occurring power relationships in research (Holmes et al., 2013, 2016; Peña-Dix, 2018).

English vs. other languages in the classroom

This code is defined as follows: *Which languages, including languages other than English, students are expected or allowed to use in the classroom.* Two excerpts have been identified as belonging to this code, and they are both presented in this section. It is important to acknowledge that each participant exhibited a very different approach when discussing which language or languages were used in the classroom. First, during the interview, KATO claimed the following:

> Behind the classroom doors everything is in English… the students have to speak, ask questions, and give a presentation in English… certainly, they will have a wider vocabulary in English. Maybe not only for exchanges and mobility but also for work or for their postgraduate studies. I think it's an incentive for the students. (Excerpt 6.15. KATO-Int1)

From a very different perspective, OIKO stated the following:

> I would tell them they could speak in their language of choice. They would not, by no means, be forced to speak English. And I would answer in the language they asked… I wouldn't make this a point of my teaching like "No Portuguese"... I would never do that, and I still think that it shouldn't be done. (Excerpt 6.16. OIKO-Int1)

Based on his quote, KATO seems to believe that the total use of English in the classroom is of prime importance. While he does not explicitly say that students are obligated to use English at all times, by saying that "behind the classroom doors, everything is in English", he is suggesting that he does implement an English-only policy in his EMI class. KATO has been identified as a major supporter of EMI, so his appreciations do not appear strange. During the interview, he recognized that English is a lingua franca (see Excerpt 6.3. KATO-Int4) and that EMI is a personal challenge which allows him to be in contact with the language and practice it (see Excerpt 6.12. KATO-Int4).

In another quote which is not reported here, KATO described his students' English proficiency as "good", so he does not seem to be concerned about his students underperforming in his class because of the language. In any case, as stated by Macaro (2019), currently, "it is almost impossible to find a researcher or commentator advocating L2-only. The theories associated with input and interaction in the L2 have been put in the shade by those advocating code-mixing, use of the L1, and translanguaging" (p. 10). Other authors advocate for the use of classroom materials that incorporate both the L1 and the L2, namely plurilingual glossaries that include academic and professional terms (Cros & Escobar Urmeneta, 2018).

Along the lines of current research in language education is, then, OIKO's opinion, who claimed to be flexible enough to allow students to use their language of choice in the classroom. As discussed earlier, universities are now

being defined as multilingual institutions (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, 2020; Pérez-Vidal, 2015; Smit, 2018). Hence, authors are now suggesting that EMI practitioners should incorporate multilingual practices in the classroom (Escobar Urmeneta, 2018; Smit, 2019). The use of the L1, code-mixing, and translanguaging, for example, have been recommended as effective strategies to help students cope with any language-related challenges they may experience (See Cook, 2001, 2007; Garcia & Sylvan, 2011; Holi, 2020; Muguruza et al., 2020; Palfreyman & van der Walt, 2017). OIKO seems to be well aware of this.

Purpose of English vs. purposes of other languages

This code is defined as follows: *English is believed to be as very useful, but other languages are too, depending on the purpose.* Macaro (2019) has examined the role of language, including the role of L1, in the EMI classroom as well as the various purposes that language serves in a classroom setting. In Case 2, participants reported using or allowing the use of languages other than English for different purposes in the classroom. Two excerpts have been identified as belonging to this code; both excerpts are presented in this section. Whenever small group discussions are to occur in her translation class, where mostly students who are majoring in different languages meet, OIKO claimed that the following happens:

> So, they will be doing it [the discussion] in Portuguese, and bring elements from the languages; for example: "in Spanish would be like this" or "this could be translated like this". And, in a translation class, this is very rich because it helps to move away from literal translation… But because I have some foreign students, Chinese for example, there are groups that are forced to speak in English. (Excerpt 6.13. OIKO-Int1).

The previous excerpt shows that English must sometimes be used as a lingua franca in the classroom when non-Portuguese speaking students work together. Still, the way OIKO frames the use of English is interesting as she says her students are "forced" to speak it in specific situations. In addition, as stated by OIKO, the natural elements of languages different from English serve a very important purpose in this English-mediated translation class; they allow for more variety and critical thinking and make communication easier, too.

OIKO seems to be profoundly convinced that the use of the first language in the EMI classroom translates into important benefits for her students. This is in line with the current literature, in which authors are advocating for more multilingualism in the EMI classroom (Cros & Escobar Urmeneta, 2018; Escobar Urmeneta, 2018; Smit, 2019), thus, fostering practices that are regarded as positive by experts from the fields of applied linguistics and bilingual education such as code-mixing and translanguaging (Cook, 2001; Garcia & Sylvan, 2011; Palfreyman & van der Walt, 2017).

For his part, HIRO referred to how the language he is using to teach has an effect on whether or not he tells jokes in the classroom:

> I like to make jokes in my classes, but there are some jokes that only are funny in Portuguese. Then, if I know, for example, that thing [the joke] is gonna be funny in Portuguese but not in English, I will not use it in my presentation. (Excerpt 6.14. HIRO-Int2)

At first, one may think that, as reported on numerous studies, HIRO's teacher identity is being affected by the fact that he is teaching through a language other than his L1 (Kling, 2013; Volchenkova & Bryan, 2019). Nonetheless, given the open and relaxed attitude that HIRO kept throughout the interview, it would not be possible to conclude that EMI affects his ability to be himself as a teacher. Also, he described himself as an eloquent communicator regardless of the language he speaks (See Excerpt 6.8. HIRO-Int2).

HIRO's indication about sometimes avoiding jokes in his EMI classes seems to be more of a conscious choice that he makes in order not to make non-Portuguese speakers feel excluded or lose his students' attention. This is what authors have considered as having a culturally-responsive teaching approach (Gay, 2018; Green et al., 2016; Habli, 2015; Wagner & Majeed, 2021), a desirable and necessary form of cultural sensitivity in the EMI classroom which favors the development of intercultural awareness, successful communication, and the achievement of academic goals via an L2 (Wagner & Majeed, 2021).

Language protectionism

This code, which only emerged from the data collected in Case 2, is defined as follows: *The national language is "protected", so the use of languages other than the national language is disfavored*. The fact that this code emerged in Case 2 is not surprising as the issue of language of instruction has had a unique development throughout the history of Brazilian education (Tessler, 2013). Three excerpts were identified as belonging to this code, and they are presented in this section.

The first excerpt was also used in a previous section; it emerged from SALO's interview. SALO, who teaches courses from the School of Economics, Business, and Accounting, believes that every student who is enrolled in a Brazilian university must speak Portuguese because "it's the official language; they have to know it" (Excerpt 6.5. SALO-Int3). HIRO, who has been identified as a major supporter of EMI, also talked about language protectionism. His quote was also previously used in this chapter: "there is a lot that prevents us to use a foreign language in a public course; so, because it is a public school you cannot make it mandatory…" (Excerpt 6.4. HIRO-Int2).

Last, OIKO did not necessarily show a form a language protectionism from her part. Nonetheless, OIKO did mention something that could be interpreted as language protectionism from the part of some of her colleagues:

> Some professors don't buy into that. They may want to teach literature, English literature, in Portuguese. The readings would be in English, but the class would be in Portuguese. They don't have to teach it in English, but most of us are committed to teaching in English. So, in this case, English is part of their educational process because they will receive a degree in English, so it has to be there, right? (Excerpt 6.17. OIKO-Int1)

While OIKO does not explicitly say that her colleagues are trying to protect the language, the use of expressions such as "they don't buy into that… but most of us are committed to teaching in English" almost sets a gap between those who are committed to helping a group of English-major students to improve their language skills ("us") and those who keep using the national language ("them") despite the fact that, in OIKO's words, "English has to be there." Once again, the use of the phrase "buy into", which is defined by the Cambridge dictionary

as “to completely believe in a set of ideas” suggests that those who refuse to use English have a very strong set of beliefs or reasons (e.g., language protectionism) to not do it. In fact, as explained earlier, because of historical reasons, Portuguese is an inherent part of the identity of most Brazilians (British Council, 2014b). Thus, OIKO’s words can be interpreted as a form language protectionism from her colleagues who opt to use Portuguese to teach *English literature classes* to *English-major students* who need to enhance their *English language skills*.

Language protectionism can be seen as a form of linguistic nationalism (McLelland, 2009). As it has been explained earlier, the use of languages other than Portuguese was completely banned from the Brazilian education system for more than two centuries; this was one of the corollaries of colonialism as the Portuguese Crown sought to stop Indigenous languages from being spoken in their territories (Mariani, 2020). While the Constitution of 1988 recognized the use of Indigenous languages as well Braille and sign language, the use of foreign languages as mediums of instruction in Brazilian schools and universities is still shadowed by the country’s colonial past. This may have influenced the participants’ views.

3.3 Proficiency in English

This is the third category, and it, too, emerged from the data under study. The category is defined as follows: *Any reference that the participants make regarding the English proficiency levels of the actors involved in EMI.* EMI lecturers’ concerns about the use of English as a foreign language in the classroom and its effects on students’ comprehensibility, content learning, class management, and pedagogical practices have been discussed in the literature (see Macaro, 2018). As shown in the grid below, this category is characterized by the following codes, which represent some of the participants’ statements in the interviews:

Codes from category *Proficiency in English*
The influence of teachers’ English proficiency in the development of EMI
The relationship between socio-economic background and English proficiency

These two codes will be both be defined and illustrated by citing statements provided by the participants. As usual, connections with the existing literature will be made explicit in order to conduct a more solid analysis process.

The influence of teachers' English proficiency in the development of EMI

The following definition was proposed for this code: *Participants refer to how their own proficiency level or the proficiency levels of other colleagues influence the development of EMI and their own development within it. While proficiency was often defined as "limited" or "not sufficient", this was, more often than not, not reported as a limitation."* Four excerpts have been identified as belonging to this code; the four excerpts show different nuances as to how English proficiency affects the development of EMI, so all of them are presented and interpreted below.

First, HIRO almost complained about the limited English proficiency of some professors in his university, especially of those from the older generations, and how this prevents them from offering their courses in English:

> To be honest, like a lot of other professors don't speak English. So, they joined the university when there was not someone else to do it; they simply cannot teach in English. But all the new professors are trying to already start, ummm, begin the discipline in English. (Excerpt 6.18. HIRO-Int2).

HIRO's opinion is in line with Jensen's and Thøgersen's study (2011). In their research report, the authors argue that younger lecturers tend to embrace EMI more openly and positively than older teachers. Presumably, the former tend to have stronger English skills than the latter and, as such, usually have a higher English-medium teaching load.

Second, SALO and KATO both referred to their own limited English proficiency and how this somehow affected their confidence. With regards to this, SALO expressed the following:

> I think I still have to improve because I see some colleagues who have a higher level and more degrees, so sometimes I feel that I have to take more steps... In the classes, it's for one hour and forty minutes, but I have to tell you, when the class finishes, it seems to me that I was teaching for like five hours... because of the language and because of the model. It

> takes a lot of energy to conduct and to concentrate on the knowledge being constructed. (Excerpt 6.19. SALO-Int3).

For his part, KATO, who also seems to have a more favorable attitude towards EMI, stated the following in his interview:

> Well, my mother tongue is Portuguese, so I often feel nervous in my classes. I feel insecurity because it [English] is not my mother tongue, and sometimes it takes me time to find the right words, but I think it's part of the process. Still, I want to repeat this experience. (Excerpt 6.20. KATO-Int4).

As identified in the quotes, both SALO and KATO acknowledged that teaching through a language other than their mother tongue is challenging and even physically and mentally tiring. Several studies have reported on how teaching through English represents a burden for non-native English lecturers (Borg, 2016; Guarda & Helm, 2016). They not only must spend much more time planning their lessons but also have feelings of anxiety and insecurity, just like it was mentioned by SALO and KATO in their interviews. Still, for the most part, they both showed a very positive attitude towards their EMI experience during the interview; this is especially true for KATO who, despite the challenges, wants to continue to teach through English.

KATO's attitude also goes in line with the concept of "multicompetent language user" proposed by Cook (1999). His openness towards English can also be seen as a way for him to keep connected to a professionals' community of practice (Evnitskaya & Morton, 2011; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998) which employs English to communicate in their professions. In fact, in a previous quote, he stated that "…by using English and by teaching the classes in English, we can make more collaboration and increase student mobility, cooperation, and research" (Excerpt 6.3. KATO-Int4). Last, it can also be inferred that the use of English is having a positive impact on KATO's professional identity (Kling, 2013; Volchenkova & Bryan, 2019), and, thus, in his own words, he wants to "repeat this experience."

Finally, OIKO stated the following: "And because all of my teaching career has been in English, English is just completely intertwined with my

teaching identity." (Excerpt 6.21. OIKO-Int4). It might be argued that, because OIKO has an M.A. and PhD in English and teaches English-major students from a language program, her case should be given a different treatment within the study. However, the same as with other participants, it is clear that English has had an impact on her professional identity (Kling, 2013; Volchenkova & Bryan, 2019); the only difference might be that, in her case, this influence has been around for a longer period of time. Also, OIKO's case is that of a "multicompetent language user" (Cook, 1999) who is completely fluent in two languages: her mother tongue (Portuguese) and one that has been acquired, or perfected, after so many years of use within the profession (English).

Socio-economic background and English proficiency

This code has been defined as follows: The students' English proficiency is highly dependent on their socio-economic background (e.g., students coming from less privileged socio-economic contexts have a lower English level). Two excerpts were identified as belonging to this code, and they are presented in this section. In both excerpts, participants suggest that many students have limited English proficiency because they come from underprivileged communities in the country. As it will be seen in the next paragraphs, their views align with the following quote: "Brazilian education is characterized by wide disparities in resources, access, and quality based on geographic location, socio-economic status, and ethnicity" (WENR, 2019).

First, HIRO expressed the following: "I perceive that most students have very good English, but some of them, because they came from poor regions and stuff, they do not have a good English" (Excerpt 6.22. HIRO-Int2). For her part, OIKO explained that the students' English levels often depended on the university campus that they attended; presumably, one of the campuses, located in one of the poorest areas of the city, receives an important number of students from low socio-economic background:

> they set up the university there in order to, you know, shift things around for the community and boost that area… I can see that the students, especially there, because of the difference in socio-economic levels, they

> do not have a level of English which will enable them to follow a course in English when they enter university (Excerpt 6.23. OIKO-Int1).

HIRO's and OIKO's perceptions contrast with what was found in Case 1, where participants reported that English did not pose a major communication barrier for most students in English-medium courses. It is important to remember that, while both universities are top leading institutions in the region in terms of academic performance and scientific production, they both have very different socio-economic profiles: while the Colombian university (Case 1) is an elite private institution, the Brazilian university (Case 2) is public. As such, the socio-economic backgrounds of the students they receive may vary considerably.

The deficit theory (Hess & Shipman, 1965) stated that children living in conditions of poverty and high social deprivation were more prone to experiencing school failure. Almost sixty years later, teachers around the world still believe this idea. In fact, HIRO and OIKO use the deficit theory to explain the relationship between their students' socio-economic backgrounds and their English proficiency levels and, in the case of OIKO, to warn about how English-mediated instruction may represent an obstacle for students who come from underprivileged social backgrounds and who have limited English language skills. To complicate things, English mastery in Latin America is often associated with competitiveness, career advancement, and economic growth (Cronquist & Fiszbein, 2017), so this student population might be at serious academic risk in their EMI classes. Luckily, there are visions such as that of OIKO, who advocates for more multilingualism and academic support in the EMI classroom (see (Escobar Urmeneta et al., 2018).

4. Chapter Recap

This chapter focused on the results and analysis of Case 1, the case of a Colombian university. The chapter was divided into two sections: Contextual information about the case under study and analysis and discussion of the results. The first section provided an overview of the case context from a national and an institutional perspective. As such, national and institutional policies were cited and interpreted. The discussion was done in light of the relevant literature. The second section reported on the results of the interviews conducted with

participants from this case. The results were systematically reported by categories and codes. Relevant interview excerpts were used in order to illustrate this information. Additionally, any claims and interpretations were supported with the appropriate research studies.

CHAPTER 7: CASE CROSS-ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

1. Chapter Overview

In Chapter 5 and Chapter 6, the results of each case, the case of the Colombian university and the case of the Brazilian university, were presented separately. A discussion in light of the existing literature was also enhanced in each chapter in order to make the analysis of the results more solid and compelling. In this chapter, a contrastive analysis based on the findings drawn from each case will be performed. The concept of Roles of English (Dafouz & Smit, 2020) was, once again, taken as a starting point to conduct this cross-case analysis and identify consistent and divergent patterns.

The result of this process was a corpus of seventeen different Roles of English (RoE) emerging from Case 1 and Case 2. To describe and illustrate each role included in the corpus, a selection of some of the participants' quotes drawn from the interviews as the primary sources of information will be presented. In fact, the seventeen RoE that emerged in this multiple-case study were mainly shaped by the participants' discourse. Likewise, whenever relevant, institutional documents as secondary sources of data will be cited. Last, studies will be quoted in each RoE in order to validate the claims made by the researcher throughout the cross-analysis.

2. Roles of English (RoE) across Cases: The Rationale

After conducting the cross-case analysis, a corpus of seventeen different RoE emerged from Case 1 University (Colombia) and Case 2 University (Brazil). Before the corpus is presented, it is important to recapitulate some important conceptual considerations which revolve around the dimension RoE proposed by Dafouz and Smit (2020) and which reverberate around the idea of universities being multilingual spaces where multilingualism is situated and context-sensitive (Smit, 2018): (a) RoE need to be investigated in relation with other languages; (b) institutional and societal histories influence the RoE; (c) the nature and status of RoE in universities can be described with the help of four factors: *Societal*, *Institutional*, *Pedagogical*, and *Communicational* (p. 49). A

fifth factor that was not included by the authors in their model is *Individual* or *Personal*. Figure 5 shows how the five factors functioned in this cross-analysis.

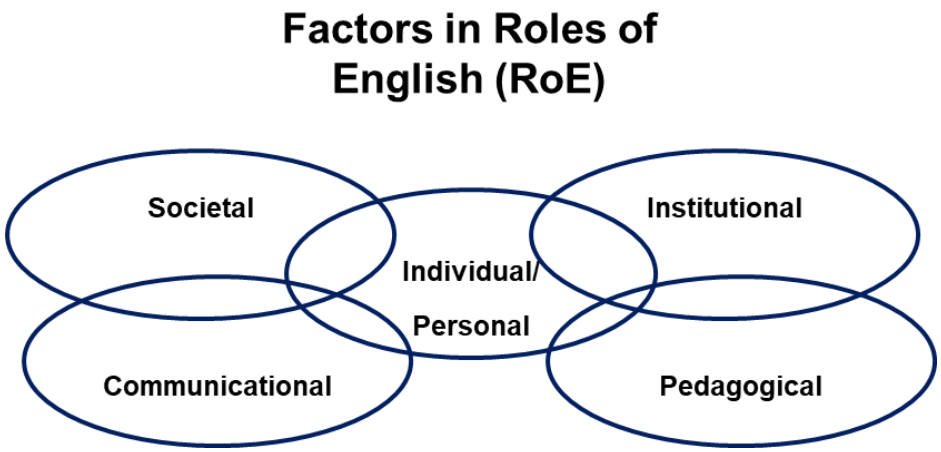

Figure 5: Factors relevant to RoE in this cross-case analysis

As the figure shows, all relevant factors to RoE are interconnected, and they are specifically defined by the various characteristics that they displayed within this multiple case study. On the left, we have the societal and the communicational factors. The societal factor reflects the socially and historically constructed roles that English have within the environment (e.g., how it conflicts with the national language) while the communicational factor relates to the specific purposes that English serve within the disciplines, the professions, or academia (e.g., a tool for research or a lingua franca). On the right, we have the institutional and the pedagogical factors. The institutional factor reflects how English is officially used within the institution (e.g., as a foreign language requirement) while the pedagogical factor is related to how English is used in the classroom (e.g., as the language for teaching or small group discussions).

As explained earlier, the four above-mentioned factors were proposed by Emma Dafouz and Ute Smit in their 2020 book *ROAD-MAPPING English Medium Education in the Internationalised University*. A fifth factor which was not included by the authors in their book emerged from the data under study: individual or personal factor. This factor relates to the various roles that English plays within the participants' personal lives or professional identities (e.g., as a language that influences or defines one's professional identity). The emergence of this fifth factor in this multiple-case study is a proof that RoE inherently carry

"their situated complexity" in each case or institution. Finally, it is important to mention that these factors and the RoE within them were defined by the participants' discourse in the form of interview excerpts which allowed for the emergence of seventeen RoE in this multiple case study; as expected, they were always defined within the universities' multilingual realities.

3. Roles of English across Cases: The Corpus

In this section, the corpus of RoE which emerged from this transnational multiple-case study will be presented. Table 10 includes the seventeen RoE that emerged from the cross-analysis. Most of them were present in both cases; a few, however, were only present in one case. It is important to clarify that, even when a role was present in both cases, there were differences shaped by the context. These differences enriched the contrastive analysis performed by the researcher during the cross-case analysis.

	RoE	Case 1	Case 2
1	A basic tool for research	√	√
2	A lingua franca	√	√
3	The language of international education	√	√
4	The legitimate foreign language (L2) requirement in higher education	√	√
5	One of the multilingual requirements in higher education	√	√
6	The language for work	√	√
7	The preferred language for publication	√	√
8	A privilege in the world of academia	√	√
9	A personal choice for teaching	√	√
10	A language that influences one's professional identity	√	√
11	A part of a language repertoire in the classroom	√	√
12	A useful language depending on the purpose	√	
13	A language that conflicts with the national language		√
14	A language that that is highly related with a person's socio-economic background	√	√
15	A passport for students to access knowledge	√	√
16	A language which marks a generational gap		√
17	A burden or a source of insecurity		√

Table 10: Corpus of RoE within this transnational multiple-case study

The RoE will now be presented in the subsequent sections. Some of the participants' quotes drawn from the interviews have been selected and included

here in order to illustrate each of the roles in the corpus. As explained earlier, RoE within this study are mainly shaped by the participants' discourse. In addition, institutional documents will be cited whenever necessary. Last, in order to validate the claims made by the researcher throughout the cross-analysis, relevant literature will be cited as well.

3.1 A basic tool for research

One of the roles assigned to English by some of the participants in both cases is that of *a basic tool*, especially for research purposes. Table 11 presents a selection of the quotes which provide a rationale for this analysis:

RoE: A basic tool for research	
Case 1 Excerpts	**Case 2 Excerpts**
• SEB: "*basically, it can replace any other languages because people tacitly have agreed on this one to be the standard tool for communication*" (Excerpt 5.2. SEB-Int3). • OLI: "*is an invaluable tool;… As a researcher, without English, you are worthless*" (Excerpt 5.3. OLI-Int4).	• SALO: "For me, it [English] is a basic thing*. It's very important for research. You start doing international research, and then you start publishing your research in other places*" (Excerpt 6.2. SALO-Int3). • HIRO: "*English is essential in our profession. I'm gonna start a new course next year for graduate students that is called "Improving your Communications Skills in Academia" which will focus on the importance of English and other communication aspects that we scientists ignore or that we are even against*" (Excerpt 6.1. HIRO-Int2).

Table 11: RoE - English as a basic tool for research

In both cases, English is seen as a basic and invaluable tool for research by participants; it is almost considered a *sine qua non* condition for them to gain international visibility and recognition in academia. SEB, from Case 1, describes English as "the standard tool for communication". Along the same lines, OLI, from Case 1, too, describes it as "an invaluable tool" and adds that a researcher without English "is worthless". Likewise, SALO, from Case 2, describes English as "a basic thing"; he almost suggests that English is absolutely necessary to conduct international research: "It's very important for research… [for] doing

international research,… [and for] publishing your research in other places." Last, HIRO, from Case 2, as well, defines English as "essential for our profession."

As stated by Crystal (2003) and Dewey (2007), English is considered a common denominator or a standard form of communication among scholars all over the globe. It is considered the language of science and research and an essential tool for knowledge construction and dissemination (Swales, 1990). As participants from both cases acknowledge the high relevance of English for research, they align with these ideas. In addition, they might also take English as that essential tool which individuals working in academia need in order to take part in intercultural dialogues with scholars from various linguistic and cultural backgrounds (Graddol, 2006).

Participants' views on the essentiality of English might, too, be related to their desires to belong to a community of practice in which members, academics in this case, explore and adopt common ways of doing things together (Evnitskaya & Morton, 2011; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). The use of English might make it easier for them to engage in such communities which aim to construct scientific knowledge. Another possible explanation is that, as stated in numerous other studies, participants might be facing pressures to get their work published in prestigious journals which are produced in English; in recent years, this has become a common practice among HEIs which seek to gain international visibility and increase their rankings (Ammon, 2013; Bocanegra-Valle, 2013; Mauranen, 2015; Raitskaya & Tikhonova, 2020).

Something unique, and interesting, in Case 2 is that one of the participants, HIRO, almost suggested that English is some kind of legacy which must be passed on to the newer generations through courses that emphasize its importance and in which graduate students are prompted to develop essential communication skills for working in academia. With his idea, HIRO is demonstrating a strong capacity of agency and a genuine desire to help his students achieve what, in his view, is essential for their future careers. Studies have shown that, because professors in EMI settings tend to believe that they

lack the pedagogical training to help their students with language, they often overlook language-related issues in their courses(Airey, 2011, 2012; Kuteeva & Airey, 2014).

HIRO might also be trying to fill in a gap in his institution: As opposed to Case 1 University, Case 2 University does not offer mandatory academic English skills training to students. Authors have argued that students taking part in EMI programs are often not getting the necessary language support. Regardless of the reasons that HIRO has, his plans to teach an academic language course for graduate students aligns with the idea of English as a relevant language for academic purposes (de Chazal, 2014).

3.2 A lingua franca

English as a lingua franca also emerged as one of the RoE among a few participants in Case 1 and Case 2. Table 12 presents a selection of the quotes which provide a rationale for this analysis:

RoE: A lingua franca	
Case 1 Excerpts	**Case 2 Excerpts**
• VAL: *"it's become the de facto international language"* (Excerpt 5.1. VAL-Int2).	• KATO: *"the lingua franca of research is English"* (Excerpt 6.3. KATO-Int4).

Table 12: RoE - English as a lingua franca

One participant from each case suggested that English is, at present, a lingua franca. Interestingly, both of them literally used two Latin expressions that are often employed to describe the current status of English in academia: "*de facto* international language" and "*lingua franca* of research". At the turn of the new millennium, the role of English as a lingua franca (ELF) began to be seen as an inherent part of universities which aimed to become more international. In regions such as Europe, this idea was heavily driven by the Bologna Declaration of 1999, which greatly stimulated cross-border student and staff mobility.

As stated by (Seidlhofer, 2011), English is often the preferred or, in some cases, the only means of communication among speakers who do not have the

same L1. In fact, at present, English is not only considered the most used vehicle for communication in the academic community (Formentelli, 2017; Mauranen, 2015; Seidlhofer, 2017) but the language of international higher education (Jenkins, 2014). Several authors have reported on the status and importance of English as a language that facilitate IaH processes (Escobar Urmeneta, 2018, 2020) as well as student mobility and the emergence of multilingualism in HEIs (Pérez-Vidal, 2015; Pérez-Vidal & Llanes, 2021).

The participant from Case 2, KATO, explicitly said that English was "the lingua franca of research." This assertion is also deeply related to the previous role assigned to English: *A basic tool for research*. In her essay, *English as lingua franca. Or the sterilisation of scientific work*, Suzina (2021), who is a Brazilian scholar, discusses how academia is vastly dominated by Western thinking and, thus, usually requires the use of ELF in publications. She problematizes this issue by showing how it often leads to "the (in)visibility of Latin American scientific production in international academic publications." (p. 171). As a Latin American scholar, KATO's discourse suggests that he might be aware of this.

3.3 The language of international education

One participant from each case stated that English was *the language of international education*. Table 13 contains the participants' quotes regarding this matter.

RoE: The language of international education	
Case 1 Excerpts	**Case 2 Excerpts**
• VAL: "*since real international programs are done in English, all you need to know is English*" (Excerpt 5.1. VAL-Int2).	• KATO: "*by using English and by teaching the classes in English, we can make more collaboration and increase student mobility, cooperation, and research*" (Excerpt 6.3. KATO-Int4).

Table 13: RoE - English as the language of international education

Based on the participants' excerpts, this RoE can also be taken as English-medium instruction (EMI) in both cases as participants talk about the language of international academic programs is English and how, by teaching through English, certain internationalization processes, namely cross-border mobility and

cooperation can be enhanced. The idea of English as the language of 21st international higher education is confirmed by the study conducted by Wächter and Mayworm (2014), in which the authors reported that, between 2007 and 2014, the number of English-taught programs in Europe grew 239%. During the past twenty years, English-medium higher education has been expanding to all world corners; it has been regarded as an unstoppable train (Macaro, 2015), especially because it has been perceived as a strategy for internationalization (Bowles & Murphy, 2020).

Latin America is no exception to this. Throughout the last decade, EMI initiatives have been flourishing in HEIs in Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, and Mexico, just to name a few countries. Large scale survey-based projects conducted several years ago corroborate this (see Dearden, 2014; Rostan, 2011). Other small-scale investigations also confirm that English, in the form of EMI or tertiary CLIL, is being regarded as the language of international education in Latin American universities. Some of these studies have been conducted in Brazil (Corbett, 2019; Delgado, 2020; Lindahl et al., 2022), Chile (Salomone, 2019) Colombia (Corrales et al., 2016; Cortés Medina, 2020; Montoya & Salamanca, 2017; Tejada-Sanchez & Molina-Naar, 2020), Ecuador (Vega & Moscoso, 2019), and Mexico (Escalona Sibaja, 2020; Worthman, 2020).

3.4 The legitimate foreign language (L2) requirement in higher education

English as the legitimate foreign language (L2) requirement in higher education was also one of the RoE that emerged in the participants' interviews. Table 14 includes a selection of the quotes which provide a rationale for this analysis:

RoE: The legitimate L2 requirement in higher education	
Case 1 Excerpts	**Case 2 Excerpts**
• BAR: *"If you asked me which language must be required in universities, yeah, I would say it surely has to be English… 100 percent!"* (Excerpt 5.4. BAR-Int1).	• HIRO: "*it should be English, but there is a lot that prevents us to use a foreign language in a public course; so, because it is a public school you cannot make it mandatory*" (Excerpt 6.4. HIRO-Int2).

Table 14: RoE - English as the legitimate L2 requirement in higher education

As the quotes show, English is seen as the legitimate L2 requirement by, at least, one participant in each case. When asked which L2 students should be required to learn, BAR, from Case 1, said that "it surely has to be English"; in the same vein, HIRO, from Case 2, suggested that, despite some institutional policies, "it should be English". The socio-political realities in terms of language of education that surround the Brazilian higher education system and how these make the Brazilian case different from the Colombian case will be discussed later in this chapter. In light of the existing literature, the similarities between the two cases will be shown first.

Whilst not the only one, English has become a common language requirement in international university settings around the globe (Dafouz & Smit, 2020). Two of the participants in this study, one from each case, seem to support this idea. In Latin America specifically, despite the fact that English is not always compulsory in tertiary education curricula, some countries have adopted policies that regulate its mandatory inclusion in higher education at present (Cronquist & Fiszbein, 2017).

As presented in Chapter 5, demonstrating high reading comprehension in English and passing an EMI course are two of the L2 requirements for undergraduate students in Case 1 University. Also, the language department offers mandatory ELL programs for undergraduate and graduate students. Hence, the fact that English emerged as the legitimate L2 requirement in one of the interviews conducted in Case 1 University was anticipated. On the contrary, as presented in Chapter 6, while Case 2 University sponsors a wide range of language learning initiatives, the vast majority of them in English, mastering English is not an institutional policy. Nonetheless, HIRO openly expressed that the L2 requirement "should be English", without mentioning any other language.

HIRO, however, also recognized that setting a mandatory L2 requirement in his university was, by law, not allowed. This is a major difference found between the two cases. The issue of language of education has had a different development in Colombia and Brazil; while using languages other than Spanish, the language of the majority of the population, has never been prohibited in Colombian education, this is not the case in Brazil. More detailed information

about how and why English conflicts with Portuguese within the Brazilian case will be discussed later in this chapter.

3.5 One of the multilingual requirements in higher education

The quotes for English as *one of the multilingual requirements in higher education* are presented in Table 15:

RoE: One of the multilingual requirements in higher education	
Case 1 Excerpts	**Case 2 Excerpts**
• SEB: *"I don't know if one foreign language is enough or if we should strive for more. But, my understanding is that English is the correct choice"* (Excerpt 5.5. SEB-Int2). • OLI: *"I think it should be two languages: English and another language. That other language should be of the students' choice."* (Excerpt 5.6. OLI-Int4).	• SALO: "*we should have both Portuguese and English. Of course, we need Portuguese because we are here, and students are doing a course here in Brazil. It's the official language; they have to know it*" (Excerpt 6.5. SALO-Int3). • OIKO: *"I, by no means, think it should be only English. And I think the university and the students benefit from the fact that there are so many languages… I don't think it should be only English. I think it should continue to be diverse, as diverse as possible"* (Excerpt 6.6. OIKO-Int1).

Table 15: RoE - English as one of the multilingual requirements in higher education

Most participants in both cases were inclined towards the idea of English as one of the L2 that should be required in universities, but not the only one. As such, this RoE is different from the previous one, in which participants only mentioned English. In English as part of multilingual requirements in higher education, the participants' ideas align with the principle of 21st century universities being increasingly considered multilingual spaces (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, 2020).

As presented in previous chapters, both Case 1 and Case 2 universities are multilingual institutions; they strive to include multiple languages in the services and programs that they provide to the academic community. Smit (2018) argues that, three insights permeate the issue of languages in international institutions of higher education: a) multilingualism in universities comes in various forms; b) while English certainly is an important language, it is not the

only one; and c) multilingualism is situated and it is dependent on sociopolitical, sociocultural, and sociolinguistic factors. Such factors could be perceived in the roles that the participants of this study assigned to English as a L2 requirement in their international and multilingual contexts.

OLI, one of the participants from Case 1 University, claims that, while English is important, students should also be free to learn other languages. Most importantly, he adds that this additional language should be one that the students choose; one with which they have a real affinity. Autonomy, independence, and flexibility are three values that Case 1 University upholds, and this is openly stated on the institutional website. This sociocultural factor is reflected in the participant's idea that students should have the possibility to learn languages in which they are genuinely interested. OLI's views, too, go in line with current perspectives regarding the value of multilingualism is education (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, 2020; Dalziel, 2021; Escobar Urmeneta & Evnitskaya, 2013; Fang & Hu, 2022; Miranda & Molina-Naar, 2022; Pérez-Vidal, 2015; Smit, 2018).

SALO, a participant from Case 2 University, argues that all students should be required to learn two languages: Portuguese and English. Specifically, he refers to the international students who come to his country to study as he adds that, because they are in Brazil, they must learn to speak the national language, Portuguese, which would be, in fact, a foreign language to them. SALO's views reflect sociopolitical nuances which might be related to linguistic protectionism, a form of language nationalism (McLelland, 2009). As discussed earlier, because of historical and political reasons, the national language is deeply ingrained in the identity of Brazilians (British Council, 2014a; Tessler, 2013).

Last, sociolinguistic factors such as language diversity and linguistic justice are reflected in the ideas of OIKO, one of the participants from Case 2 University, who enthusiastically claims that her institution should be committed to keeping diversity in their language offer. This participant is a language expert, so she is aware of the importance of multilingualism and linguistic justice in education settings. In recent years, scholars from the fields of language education have been advocating for a more plurilingual and crosscultural approach to language learning (Escobar Urmeneta et al., 2018; Escobar Urmeneta &

Evnitskaya, 2013; Pérez-Vidal, 2015) in which translanguaging practices (Dalziel, 2021; Muguruza et al., 2020) as well as translingual pedagogies (Canagarajah, 2020) are incorporated into the classroom.

3.6 The language for work

Some participants also expressed that English was important for work; thus, English as *the language for work* was included as one of the RoE in this cross-analysis. Table 16 contains a selection of the participants' quotes:

RoE: The language for work	
Case 1 Excerpts	**Case 2 Excerpts**
• SEB: "*For doing business, English is an essential tool.*" (Excerpt 5.7. SEB-Int3). • BAR: "*English is the most commonly spoken language for work; I believe English is the official language of work*" (Excerpt 5.8. BAR-Int1).	• OIKO: *"…the hard sciences, biological sciences, mathematical sciences, engineering, for instance, they buy in to it much more than the humanities... I can actually see why because I can see how lab work can work perfectly without people even… not needing to speak to each other"* (Excerpt 6.7. OIKO-Int1). • SALO: *"considering that accounting is the language of business,… English is the language that they [the students] have to know… today, if the student, the professional, doesn't have English, they practically can't work in the area of accounting in, of course, in a good position and having good potential to grow."* (Excerpt 6.9. SALO-Int3).

Table 16: RoE - English as the language for work

As seen in the quotes, two of the participants in both cases associated the importance of English with specific professions; SEB, from Case 1, did it with business administration: "For doing business, English is an essential tool"; SALO, from Case 2, did it with accounting: "considering that accounting is the language of business,… English is the language that they [the students] have to know…". In fact, both SEB and SALO belong in these fields of study. For his part, BAR from Case 1, did not associate English with a specific field or

profession; in his words, English is “the most commonly spoken language for work” and “the official language of work” in general. Studies demonstrate that English mastery is currently being seen as an extremely important skill among job seekers in expanding circle countries (see Abu-Humos, 2016; Pandey & Pandey, 2014). Hence, the idea of English as the language for work proposed by participants in both cases is aligned with the current literature.

Moreover, a participant in Case 2, SALO, suggested that English is an essential skill to succeed in the job market in Brazil; he argued that, without English, the future professionals could see their possibilities of career growth curtailed. While the participants in the Colombian case did not exactly express this, English mastery is also seen as a very relevant skill for Colombian professionals. Sánchez Jabba (2013) discussed the advantages of English for the economic growth of nations, including Colombia, and, after identifying the various problems that Colombian students face while attempting to reach the proficiency levels set by the National Program for Bilingual Education (NPBE), he proposed a series of recommendations to solve this issue. In general, English is seen as a necessity for all Latin American professionals as it often represents the hopes of attaining a better future (de Mejía, 2002, 2006) and economic growth (Cronquist & Fiszbein, 2017; Fiszbein et al., 2016).

Something unique emerged in Case 2; as stated by OIKO, a participant who always looked at the use of English and EMI with a critical eye, the usefulness of English is highly dependent on the profession or field of study. Thus, a person working in the field of humanities might not need English as much as a person working in the hard sciences. Her rationale is that knowledge construction is situated and, in the humanities, for example, it involves deeper analytical processes which require a more abstract use of the language to express one’s ideas, as opposed to the hard sciences, in which the use of the language can be kept to a minimum. The previous idea relates to Dafouz’s and Smit’s (2020) views of academic disciplines who, in turn, cite Bernstein’s (1999) classification of disciplines (e.g., applied vs. pure, hard vs. soft, etc.) and explain how English is used in them.

3.7 The preferred language for publication

English as *the preferred language for publication* was included as one of the RoE in this cross-analysis. Table 17 contains a selection of the quotes:

RoE: The preferred language for publication	
Case 1 Excerpts	**Case 2 Excerpts**
• VAL: "*…And, in terms of this University, it promotes publishing in English much more than in Spanish."* (Excerpt 5.11. VAL-Int2).	• OIKO: *"…because publications in English have a higher impact, professors are migrating to publishing in English. Also, because the funding opportunities are also in English"* (Excerpt 6.11. OIKO-Int1).

Table 17: RoE - English as the preferred language for publication

One participant from each case explicitly stated that English was the preferred language for publications; while they did not express that it was the language that they preferred, they did suggest that, because of their contextual realities, it was more desirable to publish in English than in the national language. The reasons they provide for this alleged preference are different. While VAL, from Case 1, stated that his university "promotes publishing in English much more than in Spanish", thus suggesting that it is an institutionally driven decision, OIKO, from Case 2, suggested that it is due to the benefits of publishing in English (e.g., reaching "a higher impact" and accessing more "funding opportunities") that professors feel motivated to publish in this language. Regardless of the reasons, the idea of English as the preferred language for publications is clear in both quotes, and the literature also supports this claim.

In a study about the perceived value of English as the language for publication in Europe, more than 130 scholars from 18 European countries provided a number of reasons for publishing in English, namely "visibility, recognition and credibility from international academia", from their institutions, from accreditation systems in their countries, and from other scholars in their own fields of study (Bocanegra-Valle, 2013, p. 15). Some of the findings in Bocanegra-Valle's study also suggest that certain HEIs in Europe are increasingly encouraging staff to publish in English, but not necessarily in the national language, something that VAL mentioned in the interview.

Publishing in English is also an emerging trend in Latin America. Céspedes (2021) discusses how the vast majority of journals in two recognized indexation databases, SCOPUS and WoS, are in English, 78.9 percent and 62 percent respectively to be more exact, and that, astonishingly, 50 percent of these publications come from two countries only: The United States and the United Kingdom. In addition, only around two percent of these journals are in Spanish and 0.5 percent in Portuguese. These statistical data provide compelling evidence that one of the current roles of English in academia is that of the preferred language for publications, and Latin America is also embarking on this trend.

3.8 A privilege in the world of academia

Participants from both cases somehow suggested that English was *a privilege in the world of academia*. Table 18 contains a selection of their quotes on this.

RoE: A privilege in the world of academia	
Case 1 Excerpts	**Case 2 Excerpts**
• BAR: "*…we often teach the results of our research, so having the slides that we create for our conferences in English is beneficial when I teach my course in English.* (Excerpt 5.17. BAR-Int1). • VAL: *People who work in academia tend to know English more than anything else. So, if you have to communicate with somebody who doesn't speak the same mother tongue as you… you gotta use English…* (Excerpt 5.11. VAL-Int2). • SEB: *"…all high-level conversations about business and business research are happening in English. There are some conversations in German, in French and probably Chinese, but the ones that are relevant are all happening in English."* (Excerpt 5.12. SEB-Int3).	• HIRO: "*I think they [the university] should provide better rewards, like to really motivate the professors to change their language, you know… So, something they could do is: "OK, you teach in English? Here's 20 % more of your salary increase"* (Excerpt 6.10. HIRO-Int2). • OIKO: *"…professors are migrating to publishing in English … because the funding opportunities are also in English"* (Excerpt 6.11. OIKO-Int1).

Table 18: RoE - English as a privilege in the world of academia

The reasons that participants provided for English to be considered a privilege in academia are rich and varied; they are multilayered and can function at the

individual level (Case 1), at the disciplinary level (Case 1), and at the institutional level (Case 2).

To begin, the perspectives form Case 1 participants will be discussed. BAR suggests that using English for his research and his teaching is like having the best of both worlds as he can use the same materials for both processes. Should he teach his courses through a language other than English (e.g., Spanish), he would not have this individual or personal privilege. For VAL and SEB, English represents a privilege in their disciplines. First, as VAL suggested, because English is a widely spoken language among academics, it can make communication easier in the scholarly world. For his part, SEB argued that while some "high-level conversations about business and business research" are happening in other languages, truly, "the ones that are relevant are all happening in English." Once again, English is portrayed as a privilege or an advantage to take part in scholarly networks.

Regarding Case 2, as suggested by two participants, the privileges that English entails mostly come from the institutional level. For OIKO, these privileges are already in place: "because the funding opportunities are also in English… professors are migrating to publishing in English". On the contrary, HIRO believes that the prestigious status conferred on English worldwide is not enough; in his opinion, professors who use English must be rewarded, thus suggesting that English should be an institutional privilege: "you teach in English? Here's 20 % more of your salary increase". Specifically, he suggests that this privilege must come in the form of monetary incentives for professors.

English as a privilege within the academic contexts of Case 1 and Case 2 is not an uncommon issue in other contexts. After analyzing the results of an international experience involving researchers from various cultural and linguistic backgrounds, a group of Canadian researchers concluded that speaking English as their mother tongue entailed a privilege for them but not for their non-native speaker counterparts (e.g., Chinese scholars) (Woodend et al., 2019). Ideologies such as English as "a global language", "a dominant language", "the language or privilege", "the language of power", "a lingua franca" and "a value

market of cultural and symbolic capital" were brought up by the participants of this study (p. 13).

In another study, after conducting a series of interviews with six scholars of Asian and European descent, Soler (2019)found that they were aware of the privileges that English granted in their careers; thus, they chose to publish their work in English. These findings are also consistent with the previous RoE discussed in this cross-analysis: *English as the preferred language for publications*. Interestingly, the participants claimed that, regardless of the advantages or privileges, they would rather publish in English than in their L1 because the process turned out to be "more comfortable or straightforward" (p. 396). This also relates to the idea of English as a personal choice for teaching purposes and English as a language which can influence one's professional identity, two other RoE which will be discussed in this chapter.

3.9 A personal choice for teaching

English as *a personal choice for teaching* emerged in both cases. The quotes in which participants discussed this idea are presented in Table 19:

RoE: A personal choice for teaching	
Case 1 Excerpts	**Case 2 Excerpts**
• BAR: "*At the beginning it [teaching through English] was something forced because I didn't speak Spanish… But, then, I wanted to keep my courses in English because I can keep the language alive. As a professor, I think, teaching one course per semester in English is good because, otherwise, I can forget the language within a few years. This helps me to maintain my English…"* (Excerpt 5.17. BAR-Int1).	• OIKO: "*…most of us are committed to teaching in English… English is part of their educational process because they will receive a degree in English, so it has to be there, right?*" (Excerpt 6.17. OIKO-Int1). • KATO: "*it's more like a personal challenge. Some colleagues have told me: "Are you crazy?" Because it is more work, but, to me, it's good because I can practice my English and I use it within my own field of research, my own discipline"* (Excerpt 6.12. KATO-Int4).

Table 19: RoE - English as a personal choice for teaching

As it can be seen, three participants expressed that teaching through English is a personal choice, not an obligation or an imposition. This time, however, the

divergent patterns are not based on the mere fact that they belong in one case or another; BAR, from Case 1, and KATO, from Case 2, for example, claim that their motives for teaching through English are absolutely personal. Their discourse unveils that they both see English as a valuable asset, a precious good that they treasure and do not want to lose. For example, BAR says that teaching his courses through English "is good" because "this helps me to maintain my English." Similarly, KATO states: "it's good because I can practice my English and use it within my own field of research." In a way, their favorable opinions regarding EMI seem to relate to the previous RoE in which English was portrayed as a privilege that ensures academics access to certain benefits.

OIKO's reasons are different. She seems to be driven by a selfless devotion to her profession and her students. Because she teaches English-major students, she claims that she, and presumably another group of professors from her faculty, choose to teach through English in order to help their students improve their language skills: "most of us are committed to teaching in English… English is part of their educational process because they will receive a degree in English." It is important to consider that, different from BAR and KATO, OIKO is an expert in the fields of language, literature, and translation studies; thus, she might not be in need of "practicing" the language as it has been ingrained in her professional identity for many years.

The perceived benefits of EMI have been investigated before; some of these findings can be used to explain why participants in both the case of Colombia and the case of Brazil choose English as their language of instruction. In a large-scale study involving EMI teachers from 27 countries, Briggs et al. (2018) reported that university teachers found EMI beneficial for their careers and their English proficiency. These findings are consistent with BAR's and KATO's ideas. Another study reported that, because academic materials written in English vastly proliferate, many teachers believe that teaching through English represents an advantage (Dearden & Macaro, 2016). In the previous RoE, BAR expressed that teaching his research findings facilitated his teaching as he could use English for both processes. This might also be a reason for him to choose English to teach his courses.

Other perceived benefits of EMI, according to studies involving teachers, include more opportunities for local students in terms of language learning and preparation for their future careers (Briggs et al., 2018). In fact, as Macaro (2018) claims, there is this widely spread belief among teachers that constant exposure to English in the EMI classroom will result in language gains for students. OIKO's ideas are consistent with these findings as she suggests that using English to teach her English-major students will be beneficial to them in terms of both language gains and career opportunities: "English is part of their educational process because they will receive a degree in English."

3.10 A language that influences one's professional identity

English as *a language that influences one's professional identity* emerged in both cases. Table 20 presents a selection of the quotes in which participants discussed this matter:

RoE: A language that influences one's professional identity	
Case 1 Excerpts	**Case 2 Excerpts**
• BAR: *"At the beginning it [teaching through English] was something forced because I didn't speak Spanish… But, then, I wanted to keep my courses in English because I can keep the language alive.* (Excerpt 5.17. BAR-Int1). • OLI: *"…sometimes we give presentations in conferences which are in English. So, for sure, the tone is different, the style is different, the diction… everything's much more formal… They sort of give you a script; so, at some point, you have to make a transition, and after the transition, then, you make a joke. Everything is so scripted…* (Excerpt 5.10. OLI-Int4)	• OIKO: "*because all of my teaching career has been in English, English is just completely intertwined with my teaching identity."* (Excerpt 6.21. OIKO-Int4). • SALO: "*I think I still have to improve because I see some colleagues who have a higher level and more degrees, so sometimes I feel that I have to take more steps...*" (Excerpt 6.19. SALO-Int3). • HIRO: "*I like to make jokes in my classes, but there are some jokes that only are funny in Portuguese. Then, if I know, for example, that thing [the joke] is gonna be funny in Portuguese but not in English, I will not use it in my presentation*." (Excerpt 6.14. HIRO-Int2).

Table 20: RoE - A language that influences one's professional identity

Based on the quotes in the table, it could be concluded that, one way or another, the use of English exerts an influence on the professional identity of some participants. Studies conducted in EMI settings have reported that a change in the language of instruction has had effects on the identity of the teachers (Kling, 2013; Moncada-Comas, 2020; Pappa & Moate, 2021; Volchenkova & Bryan, 2019). The participants in this study are no exception to this; after analyzing their discourse, various interpretations can be made to explain why or how their professional identities have been influenced or impacted by the use of English.

OIKO, from Case 2, states that "English is completely intertwined with my teaching identity." Because she is an expert in English and literature, this can be legitimately and reasonably expected. HIRO, from Case 2, claims that, depending on the language he is using, he tends to make or avoid jokes. As stated in Chapter 6, by avoiding jokes in Portuguese, he seems to be consciously trying to be inclusive and take care of his non-Portuguese speaking students so that they will not feel excluded or get distracted. This is what some authors have denominated a culturally-responsive approach to teaching (see Gay, 2018; Green et al., 2016; Habli, 2015; Wagner & Majeed, 2021). BAR, from Case 1, seems to associate EMI with positive outcomes in his career and his identity as a professional as he chooses to teach through English in order to "keep the language alive". Once again, to him, EMI might represent an opportunity to belong in a scholarly community of practice that he is interested in (Evnitskaya & Morton, 2011; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998).

On the contrary, OLI and SALO do not seem to establish a very positive association between English and certain dimensions of their professional lives. OLI, from Case 1, argues that presenting his research in English feels different as "everything is so scripted." His discourse reveals that he has often not been very satisfied with the experience. SALO, from Case 2, sounds as if he feels he is lacking something: "I feel I have to take more steps"; he even compares himself with other colleagues who, in his view, "have a higher level and more degrees". His discourse unveils some sort of incompleteness or even insecurity, which have also been reported in other studies involving EMI teachers who are non-native speakers of English (see Borg, 2016; Guarda & Helm, 2016). The

issue of English as a burden or a source of insecurity for EMI teachers will be discussed later in this chapter.

Regardless of the reasons, it is important that the focus in this analysis is on the identity gains and not deficits. Because all of these participants are speakers of other languages (e.g., Spanish and Portuguese), they can be considered multicompetent users of English, a concept that Cook (1999) has been using for almost three decades. By principle, all second language speakers should "be viewed as multicompetent language users rather than as deficient native speakers" (Cook, 1999, p. 185). The stakeholders involved in EMI, including teachers, students, and staff, should also be regarded like this (Escobar Urmeneta, 2018).

3.11 A part of a language repertoire in the classroom

English as *part of a language repertoire in the classroom* emerged in both cases. The quotes in which participants discussed this idea are presented in Table 21:

RoE: A part of a language repertoire in the classroom	
Case 1 Excerpts	**Case 2 Excerpts**
• BAR: "*I try to be flexible with my undergraduate students, especially if they have a low English level. So, I sometimes say 'Alright, if there is something that you didn't understand you can ask me in Spanish'... I'd rather allow them to use Spanish than remain silent."* (Excerpt 5.13. BAR-Int1) • VAL: *"I give them lots of exercises to do in groups. So the groups are going to speak, they speak in Spanish, which is fine, I don't care…and that's the way that people participate more actively in the class…"* (Excerpt 5.14. VAL-Int2).	• OIKO: "*So, they will be doing it [the discussion] in Portuguese, and bring elements from the languages; for example: "in Spanish would be like this" or "this could be translated like this". And, in a translation class, this is very rich because it helps to move away from literal translation…* (Excerpt 6.13. OIKO-Int1). • *I would tell them they could speak in their language of choice. They would not, by no means, be forced to speak English. And I would answer in the language they asked…* (Excerpt 6.16. OIKO-Int1).

Table 21: RoE - English as part of a language repertoire in the classroom

As seen in the quotes, participants are open to using and allowing the use of languages other than English in their EMI courses, specifically the national language: Spanish in Case 1 and Portuguese in Case 2. Interestingly, the uses of

these languages in both cases seem to be reserved for specific moments or purposes in the class: asking questions and small group work. Once again, the contrastive analysis in this RoE is not done based merely on what or how something happens in one case or another.

BAR, from Case 1, claims that he allows students to ask questions or ask for clarifications in Spanish. He seems to be concerned about his students not understanding the content of the course; thus, he says: "I'd rather allow them to use Spanish than remain silent." For their part, VAL, from Case 1, and OIKO, from Case 2, mention that they allow students to use the national language during small group work. The reasons or purposes, nonetheless, appear to be different. For VAL, who teaches history courses, the use of Spanish increases active participation among his students. For OIKO, in her translation class, the use of Portuguese, together with other languages, brings more variety to the small group discussions in which her students take part and helps them to "to move away from literal translation."

Regardless of the reasons, in all cases, the use of the national language might be seen as a compensatory strategy. Several studies have recommended the use of the L1 or translanguaging as a compensatory strategy to ensure student comprehension and participation in the EMI classroom (Holi, 2020; Muguruza et al., 2020). In addition, 21st universities are, by principle, multilingual spaces (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, 2020; Smit, 2018). Authors from the fields of applied linguistics and language education are now advocating for more multilingualism and plurilingualism in the EMI classroom (Escobar Urmeneta, 2018; Escobar Urmeneta & Evnitskaya, 2013; Smit, 2019), thus, many recommend adopting practices which have been successful in bilingual education, namely code-mixing and translanguaging (Cook, 2001, 2007; Garcia & Sylvan, 2011; Palfreyman & van der Walt, 2017).

3.12 A useful language depending on the purpose

In Case 1, the case of Colombia, some participants expressed that English is *a useful language depending on the purpose*. This did not happen in Case 2, the case of Brazil. Table 22 contains the quotes that support this claim.

RoE: RoE: A useful language depending on the purpose	
Case 1 Excerpts	**Case 2 Excerpts**
• *VAL: "the ability to learn a foreign language and show mastery of it can serve different purposes… if you're studying philosophy, you might choose German… Or, let's say you want to do research in Russia, then you study Russian. Or maybe Chinese, you know, if you want to work in China… Still, it is hard in all of those cases not to learn English" (Excerpt 5.15. VAL-Int2).* • *OLI: "students should not restrict themselves to studying one foreign language; they should learn, at least, two languages. Well, English should be mandatory; the second one should be one of the students' choice and one that responds to their personal, professional, or even financial interests… basically, to a purpose or goal they have a real affinity with" (Excerpt 5.16. OLI-Int4).*	

Table 22: RoE - English as a useful language depending on the purpose

Both participants from Case 1 acknowledged that, while learning English is of prime importance, other languages can serve very important purposes as well. VAL uses specific examples to demonstrate how learning languages like German, Russian, or Chinese might be the target of a person who intends to engage in transactions that involve individuals or processes from countries such as Germany, Russia, or China (e.g., studying, doing research, or conducting business). OLI, for his part, does not provide specific examples but, in his quote, he does acknowledge that students may have personal, professional, or financial interests which could or should lead them to learn languages other than English.

Interestingly, both of them seem to condition the learning of other languages to the fact that, no matter the situation, people still must learn English. Concerning this, VAL says that "still, it is hard in all of those cases not to learn English" while OLI says learning "English should be mandatory". Thus, while both participants acknowledge the importance of learning other languages depending on the purpose, their discourse does seem to support the hegemonic

power of English which has been spread all over the world for several decades (Crystal, 2003; Graddol, 2006).

In spite of this, their openness towards linguistic diversity must be prized. Once again, this might be the product of some contextual reasons previously discussed. As stated on the institutional website, autonomy, independence, and flexibility are three values that Case 1 University upholds. As seen thus far, Case 1 participants genuinely seem to embrace these principles as well.

3.13 A language that conflicts with the national language

Because of historical and socio-political reasons, English as *a language that conflicts with the national language* emerged in Case 2, the case of Brazil, but not in Case 1, the case of Colombia. A selection of the participants' quotes regarding this matter are included in Table 23.

RoE: A language that conflicts with the national language	
Case 1 Excerpts	**Case 2 Excerpts**
	• OIKO: "*Some professors don't buy into that. They may want to teach literature, English literature, in Portuguese. The readings would be in English, but the class would be in Portuguese."* (Excerpt 6.17. OIKO-Int1). • HIRO: *"there is a lot that prevents us to use a foreign language in a public course; so, because it is a public school you cannot make it mandatory. I'm trying to change this requirement."* (Excerpt 6.4. HIRO-Int2).

Table 23: RoE - English as a language that conflicts with the national language

Two participants from Case 2 made reference to how English in their university setting may be in conflict with the national language. None of them claimed that it was a conflict to them but to their colleagues or the institution. Previously, it was explained how, for OIKO's faculty, it was important to use EMI in the classroom. In the excerpt, she clarifies that "some professors don't buy into that" and continue to use Portuguese to teach English literature. Portuguese is an inherent part of the identity of most Brazilians (British Council, 2014a), so the

attitudes of these professors may suggest that they are trying to protect the language. In addition, OIKO's discourse sounds as if these attitudes may be holding the students' academic development as English is an important part of the students' educational process. Along the same lines, HIRO's discourse suggests that a language policy might be affecting the development and growth of EMI and the academic programs that they offer in his faculty: "there is a lot that prevents us to use a foreign language in a public course… I'm trying to change this requirement."

Apprehension towards the use of foreign languages in Brazilian education dates to the mid-1700s, when Brazil was a colony of Portugal, and the rulers enacted the Indian Directorate, a policy which prohibited the use of languages different from Portuguese in the education system (Mariani, 2020). While the Indian Directorate is no longer active, several centuries later, its corollaries can be felt in the Brazilian higher education system as many people still seem to resist to use other languages for teaching purposes. This is reflected in OIKO's and HIRO's quotes. In addition, the myth of Brazil being a monolingual country (Guimarães et al., 2019) where only Portuguese is spoken (Liberali & Megale, 2016) and where people cannot speak English even after several years of study (Hashiguti, 2017) is still ingrained in the minds of many Brazilians. To complicate things, due to this widespread linguistic territoriality or protectionism, there is a mismatch between current language policies and practices in education (Batista, 2020).

3.14 A language that is highly related to a person's socio-economic background

The discourse of some participants in both cases reveal that English is *a language that is highly related to a person's socio-economic background.* Table 24 contains a selection of the participants' quotes regarding this matter.

RoE: A language that is highly related to a person's socio-economic background

Case 1 Excerpts	Case 2 Excerpts
• VAL: *"English doesn't present an obstacle to the classroom… I mean, the profile of students who take the*	• OIKO: *"…they set up the university there in order to, you know, shift things around for the*

class, for the most, two thirds of them come from bilingual schools, and so they have a solid base…" (Excerpt 5.21. VAL-Int2). • SEB: "…*students have a high degree in their ability to speak English… I think the undergrads are very much confident in contributing to class; they have a much better foundation in the language… and it does not affect my teaching in English*…" (Excerpt 5.19. SEB-Int3). • OLI: "*the English proficiency of students in this university is very high… very, very high!"* (Excerpt 5.22. OLI-Int4).	*community and boost that area… I can see that the students, especially there, because of the difference in socio-economic levels, they do not have a level of English which will enable them to follow a course in English…"* (Excerpt 6.23. OIKO-Int1). • HIRO: "*I perceive that most students have very good English, but some of them, because they came from poor regions and stuff, they do not have a good English.*" (Excerpt 6.22. HIRO-Int2).

Table 24: RoE - English as language that is highly related to a person's socio-economic background

As seen in the quotes, participants from both cases established a connection between the students' English proficiency levels and their socio-economic backgrounds. They also made a connection between the students' language proficiency and their performance in the EMI courses. In is important to mention, however, that, in this RoE, the discourse of the participants does reveal very clear contrastive perspectives depending on the case: While participants from the Colombian university stated that the majority of their students were highly competent in English and, thus, did not have major difficulties to contribute in their EMI courses, participants from the Brazilian university claimed that, due to their socio-economic backgrounds, some students had limited English proficiency and, thus, would likely encounter challenges in the EMI courses.

As explained in Chapter 5, Case 1 University is among the most prestigious private universities in Colombia and Latin America. An official institutional report which was available on their website shows that more than fifty percent of students come from upper-middle and high class families; as such, an important number of them have been educated in "the best" private schools of the country. The ways in which VAL, SEB, and OLI, from Case 1, describe their students confirm this (e.g., "come from bilingual schools, and so they have a solid base" or "the English proficiency of students in this university is very high"). De Mejía (2002, 2004) argued that, in Colombia, access to high quality bilingual education is a privilege that only the middle and upper-middle

classes can afford; the literature is, again, aligned with what was stated by Case 1 participants in the interviews.

Case 2 Participants, on the other hand, did mention that, since they come from underprivileged families or areas, some students have low English proficiency and, as a consequence, are likely to struggle in their EMI classes. Interestingly, participants associated this to the geographical origins of the students (e.g., "especially there, because of the difference in socio-economic levels, they do not have a level of English" and "because they came from poor regions and stuff, they do not have a good English"). The participants' views in Case 2 are, too, consistent with the literature. As explained in Chapter 6, "disparities in resources, access, and quality based on geographic location, socio-economic status, and ethnicity" (WES, 2019)highly influence the development of Brazilian education.

The fact that, according to participants in both the case of Colombia and the case of Brazil, English proficiency correlates with the students' socio-economic status takes us to the discussion of the Deficit Theory, in which those living in conditions of poverty and social deprivation were believed to be inevitably destined to academic failure(Hess & Shipman, 1965). More recent perspectives in language education urge teachers to embrace the students' language learning process in terms of "difference" not "deficit" (Cook, 1999, 2007) while others suggest that the students' sociocultural and socio-affective realities must be taken into consideration in their learning process (Larsen-Freeman, 2017; Ortega, 2011).

3.15 A passport for students to access knowledge

English as *a passport for students to access knowledge* aemerged in both cases. Table 25 presents a selection of the quotes in which participants suggest this.

RoE: A passport for students to access knowledge	
Case 1 Excerpts	**Case 2 Excerpts**
• VAL: *"English doesn't present an obstacle to the classroom… they have a solid base, at least for understanding"* (Excerpt 5.18. VAL-Int2)	• KATO: *"…behind the classroom doors everything is in English… the students have to speak, ask questions, and give a presentation in English… certainly, they will have a wider vocabulary in English. Maybe not*

• SEB: "…*they have a much better foundation in the language… and it does not affect my teaching in English*…" (Excerpt 5.19. SEB-Int3)	*only for exchanges and mobility but also for work or for their postgraduate studies. I think it's an incentive for the students."* (Excerpt 6.15. KATO-Int1)

Table 25: RoE - English as a passport for students to access knowledge

For professors in both cases, English allows students to access knowledge. Both VAL and SEB, from Case 1, express their satisfaction regarding the students' English and how this is convenient for them to teach their courses. According to them, English does not entail a barrier for students to perform in their classes, which can be seen as English as passport for them to access knowledge. How this is related to the students' socio-economic backgrounds was discussed in the previous RoE, too. For KATO, his students can achieve effective learning at present as well as future academic experiences because they have the ability to successfully use English.

Studies on the perceived value of English and EMI for students have been published in the past. In their study with 167 EMI teachers, Briggs et al. (2018) reported that, according to participants, EMI in universities provided higher levels of education for local students as it enabled them to access international publications and learn more. In another study in which teachers' beliefs from three European countries were compared, claims such as English being "a passport to a global world" and "a key to success" emerged. (Dearden & Macaro, 2016, p. 466). The Colombian and Brazilian participants' views in this study reveal that these beliefs are also shared by university teachers in Latin America.

3.16 A language which marks a generational gap

One of the RoE assigned to English in Case 2 was that of *a language which marks a generational gap*. The quote in which one of the participants discussed this idea is presented in Table 26:

RoE: A language which marks a generational gap	
Case 1 Excerpts	**Case 2 Excerpts**
	• HIRO: *"to be honest, like a lot of other professors don't speak English. So, they joined the university when there was not*

	someone else to do it; they simply cannot teach in English. But all the new professors are trying to already start, ummm, begin the discipline in English." (Excerpt 6.18. HIRO-Int2)

Table 26: RoE - English as a language which marks a generational gap

As seen in the quote, HIRO, the participant from Case 2, establishes a difference between two generations of professors. On the one hand, he describes those who joined the university a long time ago "when there was not someone else to do it"; these individuals "don't speak English" and "simply cannot teach in English". On the other hand, he mentions "all the new professors [who] are trying to already [teach] the discipline in English." HIRO seems to be a major supporter of EMI, so as his discourse suggests, he does not seem very happy about the idea of a generation of professors who do not master English and, thus, cannot take part in EMI initiatives.

HIRO's views and appreciations are consistent with the findings of a study conducted by Jensen and Thøgersen (2011), in which younger professors displayed a more favorable attitude towards the incorporation of EMI in their university in Denmark and, thus, took a higher teaching load in English. In this survey-based study, more than sixty percent of professors who were above 60 years old had a very negative or somewhat negative perception of EMI in their university as opposed to around forty percent of those who were under 30 years old and believed the same. While attitudes towards EMI depending on the lecturers' age appears to be a fairly unexplored topic at present, it can be concluded that tensions between young and old professors working in EMI settings might be a reality in contexts such as Brazil and Denmark.

3.17 A burden or a source of insecurity

English as *a burden or a source of insecurity* emerged in Case 2 only. The quotes in which participants discussed this idea are presented in Table 27:

RoE: A burden or a source of insecurity	
Case 1 Excerpts	**Case 2 Excerpts**

• SALO: *"…when the class finishes, it seems to me that I was teaching for like five hours... because of the language and because of the model. It takes a lot of energy to conduct and to concentrate on the knowledge being constructed*. (Excerpt 6.19. SALO-Int3). • KATO: *"…my mother tongue is Portuguese, so I often feel nervous in my classes. I feel insecurity because it [English] is not my mother tongue, and sometimes it takes me time to find the right words, but I think it's part of the process. Still, I want to repeat this experience.* (Excerpt 6.20. KATO-Int4).

Table 27: RoE - English as a burden or a source of insecurity

SALO and KATO suggest that teaching through a language other than their L1 is challenging for various reasons. In studies conducted by Borg (2016) and Guarda and Helm, (2016), the authors, too, reported on how EMI sometimes represents a challenge for lecturers whose mother tongue is not English, especially because they must invest significant amounts of time preparing or even scripting their lessons. Due to this, these professors claimed to feel anxiety and insecurity, particularly because of their speaking skills. As such, teaching through English has been considered a burden or a source of insecurity for some lecturers. These findings are consistent with what was reported by the two participants in Case 2. SALO, for his part, claims that teaching through English is both physically and mentally tiring while KATO claims to feel nervous and insecure because English is not his native language.

It is important to acknowledge that participants not always portrayed English as a burden or a source of insecurity. During the interviews, both of them often exhibited positive attitudes regarding their EMI experience, especially KATO who states that, in spite of the challenges, he wants to continue to teach his courses through English. Also, both participants proved to be multicompetent language users (Cook, 1999) and members of a community of practice

(Evnitskaya & Morton, 2011; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998) who recognize the value of EMI for their students and their own careers.

4. Chapter Recap

This chapter presented the cross-case analysis carried out for this multiple-case study. The chapter starts by summarizing the procedures that the researcher used to analyze the results from each case separately, first, and then across cases by making use of five factors relevant to RoE: Societal, Institutional, Pedagogical, Communicational (Dafouz & Smit, 2017;2020) and Individual or Personal. This last factor emerged from the data collected in this multiple-case study, thus, proving that RoE are context-sensitive.

Essentially, the cross-analysis produced a corpus of seventeen RoE which emerged from both cases. Throughout the chapter, each RoE was presented. The participants' discourse, in the form of interview excerpts, was the main source of data to describe and illustrate each RoE. When relevant, institutional documents as secondary data sources were cited. In all RoE, relevant literature was quoted in order to make the cross-case analysis more solid and compelling.

CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSIONS

1. Introduction

In the 21st century, international universities are, by nature, multilingual spaces in which various forms of multilingualism coexist (Smit, 2018), including the classroom (Escobar Urmeneta, 2018; Pérez-Vidal, 2015; Smit, 2019). Within this notion, English, as an implicit or explicit medium of instruction, or education, plays various roles, also known as communicative functions, in universities. These roles of English (RoE) merge dynamically, complementarily, and conflictually with other languages, so both English and these languages are flexibly used to engage in multilingual communication (Dafouz & Smit, 2017, 2020), depending on the purpose.

RoE in multilingual university settings are multifaceted, context-sensitive, and dependent on, at least, four factors: societal, institutional, pedagogical, and communicational. (Dafouz & Smit, 2017; 2020). Other factors associated with an individual's personal and professional histories are also affected by the adoption of EMI in universities. The distinctive roles that English plays in EMI university settings in Latin America had been, thus far, unexplored. This doctoral dissertation, which is framed as a transnational multiple-case study, has attempted to fill in this gap by researching RoE in two top international universities in the region: one in Colombia and one in Brazil.

The two international universities that participated in this study meet the following requirements: (a) one of them is located in Colombia and the other one in Brazil, where Spanish and Portuguese are the national languages, respectively; (b) both have internationalization policies which embrace and promote internationalization-related activities, including the intercultural dimension; (c) both are multilingual, so they either provide or allow for the provision of language learning services or initiatives; (d) English has been given a privileged status in both universities at the educational (e.g. medium of instruction), institutional (e.g. ELF or language policy), and/or research (e.g. rankings) level; and (e) both universities offer EMI courses.

By drawing on semi-structured interviews and official documents, this transnational multiple-case study attempted to address the following two research questions about RoE in the two researched universities: RQ1: *How does EMI affect the roles that English plays in international university settings in Latin America?* and RQ2: *What functions does English perform in EMI in two international university settings in Latin America? How are these functions similar? How do they differ?* Each of these questions was, in turn, divided into two sub-questions. For RQ1, these are the sub-questions: RQ1.1: *How does EMI affect the roles that English plays among professors?* and RQ1.2: *From the perspectives of professors, how does EMI affect the roles that English plays among students?* For RQ2, these are the sub-questions: RQ2.1: *4. In which ways are the functions observed in the two universities similar?* and RQ2.2: *In which ways do the functions observed in the two universities differ?* The main findings of the study are presented in the following sections.

2. Main Findings

The findings will be presented below; each of the two research questions proposed for this transnational multiple-case study will be presented once again and addressed.

RQ1: How does EMI affect the roles that English plays in international university settings in Latin America?

This question has been divided into two main types of findings which address the two sub-questions that derived from it: RoE among professors in EMI settings and RoE among students in EMI settings from the perspectives of professors. First, they will be discussed separately; then, the overall findings about how EMI effects RoE in international university settings in Latin America will be presented.

- **How EMI affects RoE among professors**

The societal context in which each institution is placed was found to be related to how EMI affects the RoE among professors. Along these lines, English was often found to function as the language for work. In Latin America, English is seen as necessary for an individual to become competitive in the job market and ensure economic growth; thus, in both cases English was seen as an important tool to find and/or secure a job. The importance of English in the job market was often associated with specific disciplines; for instance, those professors belonging in the field of business stated that English was crucial for their careers as opposed to those from the humanities, for example.

At the institutional level, in academia, professors expressed that English is a basic tool for research and a lingua franca among researchers. Professors also recognized the benefits and privileges that using English entails for them as academics, especially because English grants them access to the world of academia through research and publications. Because of this, English was often portrayed as the preferred language for publication and a personal choice for teaching among the interviewed professors. Along these lines, English was, too, defined as the language of international higher education.

At the personal level, teaching through English was found to exert influence on the professional identity of some professors. Interview data suggested that the professors' personality was sometimes impacted by the fact that they were teaching through English; for instance, some of them exhibited a more socially responsive approach to teaching, thus, showing care and concern for their students' learning in the EMI classroom. In addition, the disciplines to which the professors belonged to and in which they used EMI seemed to influence their professional identity; those belonging to the field of business, for example, appeared to be more convinced about the idea of naturally incorporating EMI into their programs as opposed to those teaching courses from the humanities. Last, EMI seemed to represent a motivation for professors to take part in researchers' CoP in which English made

intercultural communication and collaboration among multilingual academics more possible.

On the other hand, using English as a vehicle for instruction represented, on some occasions, a source of insecurity at the personal level because some professors, particularly in Case 2, believed that their language proficiency was limited. As such, EMI was sometimes perceived as a process which required significant amounts of physical and mental effort and led to feelings of insecurity in the classroom. Despite this, most of the times, the participating professors from both cases acknowledged that teaching through English was advantageous for their own professional growth and exhibited a positive attitude towards the use of English in the profession. Thus, one can conclude that teaching through English may exert some influence on the professional identity of EMI practitioners.

In addition, the adoption of EMI seems to be related with a generation gap, which reflected in the identity of participants. This finding particularly emerged in Case 2 where one of the interviewees who showed a favorable attitude towards the incorporation of EMI in his university also appeared to be proud of his language skills; he, too, showed some discontentment towards the idea of some older professors not having enough language skills to take part in EMI programs. This leads to a possible generation gap among academics in this study.

Finally, the incorporation of EMI seems to be filled with apprehension among some professors since, due to historical and sociocultural reasons, it conflicts with the role of the national language. This was especially true in Case 2 (Brazil), where a language policy banned the use of languages other than the national language for more than two centuries, but not so clear in Case 1 (Colombia). Once again, this finding suggests that the societal context influences how English functions when EMI is adopted in an international university setting.

- **How EMI affects RoE among students**

Through the perspectives of the interviewed professors, EMI affects RoE in the students' daily lives. As stated previously, the societal context also seems to be playing a major role in defining this since, in the first place, English is believed to be extremely important for students to find good jobs and have successful future careers. This goes in line with what research reports regarding the importance of English in Latin America. Because of this, the incorporation of EMI at the institutional level in both universities also seems to be justified: besides being considered an important tool to compete in the job market, English is believed to be the language of international education and a legitimate L2 requirement that higher education students must fulfill from the standpoint of the participating professors.

In accordance with contemporary views of universities being multilingual spaces, some professors stated that, while students must be required to learn English, they should also learn other languages depending on their future goals or plans. As such, in this study, the RoE were also found to be dependent on the various purposes that they may serve as opposed to those of other languages. While the professors provided examples about when or how other languages might be of greater use than English (e.g., for studying a particular discipline or for participating in research conducted in a specific country), one can suspect that such references to multilingualism, not only for the students but also for them as academics, may be a sort of euphemism or politically correct way of referring to English.

Regarding RoE at the pedagogical level, professors often depicted English as a kind of "passport" for students to access knowledge in and beyond the EMI classroom; this is consistent with their views of English as a legitimate L2 requirement for higher education students. Once again, in the name of multilingualism, participants also stated that English was often part of a plurilingual language repertoire in the classroom, so students were allowed and even encouraged to use the L1 for specific purposes (e.g., to take part in small discussions or to ask questions). As stated previously, some participants, particularly from Case 1 University, argued that English is useful

depending on the purpose or the field of study. Yet, the hegemonic power of English was somehow present in the same participants' discourse as they seemed to condition the learning of other languages to the fact that, regardless of the situation, students must learn English, too.

Finally, participants from both cases referred to how the English proficiency of a student was often determined by his or her socio-economic status; in other words, those students belonging to a higher socioeconomic status and who had access to quality education in primary and secondary schools (e.g., they attended elite bilingual schools) tended to have a higher English proficiency level than those who did not.

In Latin America, social and economic inequality are major societal issues, so this finding does not appear to be strange for the context. What might be worrying is that the participants' reference to their students' English proficiency seemed to relate to the Deficit Theory, which states that those students who come from underprivileged backgrounds are destined to academic failure. As such, one may think that EMI might hinder the students' opportunities to access knowledge. Conversely, some participants also acknowledged the importance of providing support in the classroom (e.g., by allowing students to use the L1) and both researched universities seemed to be offering various forms of language support to students.

- **How EMI affects RoE in international university settings in Latin America**

EMI affects the roles that English plays among professors and students in an international university setting in Latin America in different ways. As expected, the societal context in which each researched institution was placed was found to heavily influence this. For Latin American societies, English is seen, at a personal level, as necessary to access the job market and, at the national level, as a way to ensure economic growth. Hence, the adoption of EMI was somehow justified in both cases since, from the professors' perspectives, English is seen as a lingua franca in international higher

education, a basic tool for research, and a language which grants privileges for them as academics as well as for their students.

Due to the alleged benefits that English entails from the perspectives of professors, English was often portrayed as the preferred language for both conducting research and teaching in the classroom. Because of this, English as an L2 requirement in both international university settings was often justified. Nonetheless, the incorporation of EMI was filled with apprehension among some professors in Case 2 since, due to historical and sociocultural reasons, it conflicted with the role nationally assigned to the national language, Portuguese in this case, which appears to be deeply rooted to the identities of Brazilian citizens. This confirms that RoE in international university settings are situated and context-sensitive.

References to multilingualism also emerged when examining the RoE in relation to EMI in both researched international university settings. For instance, when discussing the functions of English as an L2 requirement, some participants enthusiastically supported the idea of having a "multilingual requirement" instead of an "English requirement". Participants also recognized that English is useful depending on the purpose that it aims to serve (e.g., for studying a particular discipline or for participating in research conducted in a specific country).

Another reference to situated multilingualism in both university settings was made when discussing the use of English among students in the EMI classroom. While English was portrayed as a passport to access knowledge, participants also acknowledged the convenience of using the L1 during specific situations in the EMI classroom. Along these lines, participants recognized that the usefulness and functions of English often depended on its intended pedagogical purpose; for example, they found convenient to use the L1 when students needed to ask complex questions or when they had to take part in small group discussions.

Despite the openness of some participants towards multilingualism, others explicitly argued that, while languages other than English might be

needed for specific purposes or even desirable depending on each individual's goals and plans, English was an extremely relevant language that everyone had to learn. Because of this, one may suspect that those supporting views towards multilingualism may be a sort of euphemism or politically correct way of referring to English.

RoE in both EMI settings were also found to be related with personal factors. Among professors, teaching through English seemed to exert an influence on their professional identities in terms of how they taught their courses, how the perceived the use of EMI in their disciplines, and how EMI encouraged them to take part in researchers' CoPs. On the other hand, EMI was, too, found to represent a source of insecurity for some professors, especially those who believed that their English proficiency was limited to fully teach an EMI course. The adoption of EMI also seemed to have created a generation gap according to some participants who held the view that younger professors were more likely to effectively function in an EMI setting, as opposed to older professors who lacked the language skills to teach their courses through English.

Concerning the students, English proficiency was believed, according to professors, to be determined by the students' socio-economic background: the higher the socioeconomic status of the student, the higher his or her proficiency level. Even if, eventually, a statistical study might confirm the veracity of this statement, one needs to be alert when confronted with generalizations such as the one formulated by the deficit theory, suggesting that the socially underprivileged are more prone to academic failure, as such a generalization can lead to the legitimization of inequality.

RQ2: What functions does English perform in EMI in two international university settings in Latin America? How are these functions similar? How do they differ?

After analyzing the interview and documentary data, the results of this transnational multiple-case study suggest that, in both international university settings, English plays seventeen different communicative functions, or roles,

which emerge as a result of the incorporation of EMI into their academic programs. In line with the literature, the ROAD-MAPPING Framework specifically, these functions are denominated "Roles of English" (RoE) in the study. To avoid repetitions, sometimes the concept of "functions of English" was used instead of RoE throughout the study.

The seventeen RoE identified in the study have been labelled as follows: 1) A basic tool for research; 2) A lingua franca; 3) The language of international education; 4) The legitimate foreign language requirement in higher education, 5) One of the multilingual requirements in higher education; 6) The language for work; 7) The preferred language for publication; 8) A privilege in the world of academia; 9) A personal choice for teaching; 10) A language that influences one's professional identity; 11) A part of a language repertoire in the classroom; 12) A useful language depending on the purpose; 13) A language that conflicts with the national language; 14) A language that that is highly related with a person's socio-economic background; 15) A passport for students to access knowledge; 16) A language which marks a generational gap; and 17) A burden or a source of insecurity.

As expected, the ways in which these roles are embraced in each university setting display both similarities and differences. Both common and divergent patterns are summarized below.

- **How the functions of English (RoE) in each EMI setting are similar**

After the process of data analysis, it was concluded that English performs very similar functions or plays very similar roles in both EMI settings. In fact, thirteen out of seventeen RoE (13/17) emerged in both the case of the Colombian university (Case 1) and the case of the Brazilian university (Case 2). Some of these roles play functions in education (e.g., #2: A lingua franca), in academia (e.g., #7: The preferred language for publication), in the classroom (e.g., #11: A part of a language repertoire in the classroom), and in the participants' professional identities (e.g., #9: A personal choice for teaching).

The fact that some RoE were embraced at the institutional level (e.g., #4: The legitimate foreign language requirement in higher education or #9: A personal choice for teaching) suggests that English clearly has a strong relevance in both universities In the views of participants, this somehow makes the incorporation of EMI in their institutions legitimate and justifiable, even though they also acknowledge that some students, especially those coming from the less privileged social backgrounds, lack the language skills to take part in EMI courses. As discussed earlier, the problem with this finding (e.g., #14: A language that that is highly related with a person's socio-economic background) is that, based on the deficit theory, the socially underprivileged are at more risk of failing academically; thus, without the proper preparation, EMI could lead to the legitimization of inequality in universities, especially in regions such as a Latin America where social and economic inequality are common issues.

In both researched universities, however, the interviewed professors seemed to be making some efforts to provide students, especially those with low English skills, with some support and scaffolding so that they would not fall behind their learning process. While professors did not seem to be exactly aware of this (i.e., they did not use the technical terms to express it), the fact that they allowed their students to use the L1 in the classroom or that they showed a more socially responsible approach to teaching did suggest that they care for their students' learning in the EMI classroom. Further research involving classroom observations and professional development or training for professors should shed light on this issue. The goal is, thus, making EMI accessible to all students regardless of their socioeconomic backgrounds.

The data analysis conducted in this multiple-case study suggests that there are two main reasons that most of the RoE were present in both cases. In the first place, both institutions are in Latin America and, even though English is not the language of most of the population in any country of the region, it is seen as a very important L2, especially in the job market. In the second place, despite some differences (e.g., one university was private and the other one was public), both researched institutions had been classified as

international university settings from the start and, as such, they had quite a few characteristics in common. The fact that both institutions had internationalization policies and offered English-medium courses made them suitable for examining RoE, and thus find common patterns.

- **How the functions of English (RoE) in each EMI setting are different**

Out of the seventeen RoE found in both cases, four of them (4/17) were identified in only one of the cases but not in the other. As for Case 1, English was said to be a useful language depending on the purpose (#12: A useful language depending on the purpose). Participating professors in Case 1 provided various reasons to support this argument. After the analysis, it was concluded that, the fact that Case 1 university describes itself as "pluralist", may have influenced the way in which professors welcome diversity in EMI and, thus, acknowledge that languages serve various purposes. Yet, the same professors pointed out that English was important even if other languages served specific purposes that English could not serve.

On the other hand, three RoE appeared only in Case 2, namely #13: A language that conflicts with the national language; #16: A language which marks a generational gap; and #17: A burden or a source of insecurity. The incorporation of EMI might be a conflict in the Brazilian university because, as stated in the literature produced by Brazilian scholars from the fields of the humanities and education, the Portuguese language is deeply rooted in the identity of most Brazilians. As widely discussed earlier in this dissertation, this is mainly due to sociopolitical and historical reasons. Nonetheless, this might also be related to sociocultural and geographical reasons. Brazil is geographically inserted in a sub-continent where Spanish is the official language of its surrounding countries and, as such, Brazilians may be trying to exert their national identity by protecting Portuguese. This is not necessarily the case in Colombia.

Also, the incorporation of EMI in Case 2 University might be creating a generation gap which is not present in Case 1 for various reasons. The biggest reason is that Case 2 university is a public institution and, by principle,

public universities around the world tend to strongly defend their national culture and values, including the national language. This is especially true in Brazil, a country where citizens show deep feelings of nationalism, particularly when it comes to their national language: Portuguese. By excluding EMI from their teaching loads and, thus, choosing to teach through Portuguese, older professors in the Brazilian university might be trying to defend their national culture and values. This is not necessarily the case of the Colombian university, which is a private institution and, as such, might have a more entrepreneurial approach as well as more flexibility to hire foreign professors and assign EMI teaching duties.

Last, the fact that English is seen as burden or a source of insecurity among some Case 2 professors might be related to EMI being a relatively new phenomenon in this Brazilian university, at least at the undergraduate level. Different from Case 1 University, where EMI courses have been offered by foreign professors, especially, for several years, official information about the existence of EMI initiatives in Case 2 University prior to 2010 is, in fact, very scarce. Hence, Case 2 professors might still be trying to get themselves used to English as new language of instruction in their education system. As stated in the literature, a change in the language of instruction or education is likely to bring about important changes in the teaching and learning processes which naturally occurred in a different language.

3. Pedagogical Implications for EMI

While this dissertation aimed to study the roles or communicative functions of English in relation to other languages at various levels, namely institutional and communicational, the results also revealed that these functions have distinctive pedagogical purposes in the classroom which, if targeted carefully, may enhance student learning. Careful examination of the pedagogical functions of language in EMI settings may also help professors acquire the tools they need to effectively address their own needs as non-native speakers of English. These pedagogical implications should be of special interest to all professors teaching in EMI programs, but especially to those working in Latin

America, a region in which the levels of English proficiency have been historically classified as low or very low.

Whereas various studies, including this one, have portrayed English as a passport for university students to access knowledge, the roles of other languages, namely local or minority languages, have also been found to bear considerable relevance in the EMI classroom. The fact that, in this research, English was described as useful just depending on the purpose and that, together with other languages, it forms a plurilingual repertoire, a toolbox, which students can use for classroom interactions and, thus, knowledge construction, is a major contribution to the pedagogy of EMI in Latin America. Latin American universities adopting EMI should, then, recognize, the value of plurilingualism from the very beginning so that professors and students would not have to be under the pressure of an English-only policy. A plurilingual or multilingual approach could be advised through teacher training initiatives, for example, and on a daily basis in the classroom.

Plurilingualism in the classroom enhances the value of all languages and puts aside the hegemonic ideology of English as "the" language of international higher education. Plurilingualism also paves the way for translanguaging, a powerful practice which, as reported by recent investigations, is being used in EMI classrooms to provide support to students whose L1 is not English. Students who come from underprivileged backgrounds may benefit tremendously from a translanguaging approach in EMI settings in Latin America and, perhaps, in other world regions. As discussed earlier, social and economic inequality affect student academic performance and even influence the students' English proficiency levels; therefore, Latin American universities aiming to incorporate EMI into their academic programs must know that an English-only policy might not be their best choice and, thus, opt for a translanguaging approach to teaching.

Furthermore, in line with other investigations conducted in Europe and Asia, this study found that teaching through English may exert an influence on the professional identity of professors working in EMI settings in Latin America. Professors, however, might not be able to easily identify

these changes and, thus, experience feelings of inadequacy, anxiety, or frustration; this may lead them to embrace the idea of EMI as a negative practice in their professions.

Being aware of the potential changes in their identities should help professors to be ready to face the challenges and acquire the pedagogical tools they need to successfully undertake their teaching responsibilities in the EMI classroom. Consequently, universities should prepare professors to face these challenges through the provision of professional development initiatives which target both pedagogical and linguistic tools before they take part in EMI programs. Such training initiatives should also discuss how professional identity can be changed when teaching through a language other than the L1. Finally, universities should offer opportunities for professors to engage in professional CoPs with other colleagues who are teaching their courses through the medium of English. By promoting these collegiate relationships, universities can ensure spaces for research collaboration and peer support among professors.

4. Limitations of the study and further research in EMI/EME

A few limitations were identified in this transnational multiple-case study. First, case studies might be considered a poor source for generalization (Stake, 1995), especially when dealing with a single-case study (Yin, 2009; 2018). Nonetheless, in this study, the research design and method of analysis were replicated in two similar, yet different settings. That is to say, both institutions were international universities that shared characteristics in common, but they offered different types of education (one private, one public), were located in two different countries (Colombia and Brazil), had two different national languages (Spanish and Portuguese) and adopted different language policies and histories and, thus, different views of EMI. In any case, while generalizing was not a goal in this study, the results derived from it might shed light on the implementation of EMI in other Latin American universities.

Another limitation might be that direct sources of data such as classroom observations or interviews with students were not used in this study. In the original research design, both classroom observations and focus groups with students were considered; however, due to the social distancing regulations and the closing of universities imposed by the Covid 19 pandemic, this was impossible. The rich conversational and documentary data collected for several months in two different settings, however, produced enough information which allowed the researcher to address the phenomenon under investigation. In addition, the researcher was able to physically be in both universities in Colombia and Brazil; this is very positive in case study research as the physical space is crucial for meaning-making and interpretations (Stake, 1995).

Two recommendations can be made for future research. First, students should be involved in similar investigations so that RoE can also be examined from the students' perspectives directly; in order to do this, focus groups could be used. The same as professors, students can be asked about how the use of translanguaging is or might be of help to achieve their learning goals in the EMI classroom. They can also be prompted to discuss how learning content via English is beneficial or not for their language skills. Finally, studies on the influence of EMI on the students' identities as well as its contribution to the development of intercultural competencies can be conducted as well.

Another potentially productive line of research would be to replicate the same study in other Latin American universities. There is evidence that EMI is being implemented in other Latin American countries such as Mexico and Argentina. It would be interesting to see, for example, how EMI affects RoE in a country such as Mexico, which is geographically and, in many ways, culturally close to the United States. It would also be interesting to research the implications of using EMI in public Argentinian universities, especially in view of the fact that Argentina has had a political conflict with the United Kingdom for several decades now. In addition, as opposed to Colombia and Brazil, Argentinian students have a high level of English

according to the EF EPI 2021 results. Hence, it could be hypothesized that the incorporation of EMI in this country might lead to very different results in terms of not only RoE but also in terms of content and language learning.

Finally, it is worthwhile to acknowledge that the use of the ROAD-MAPPING Framework in the Latin American EMI arena is innovative. While the model has been implemented in Europe, Asia, and the Middle East, to date, there is no record of its use in research conducted in Latin America. Thus, more research which implements the model is needed to replicate its value and benefits as a tool to design, describe, and assess EMI or EME programs in Latin America.

5. Closing Remarks

Roles of English in EMI settings in Latin America is, at present, a fairly unexplored topic. In fact, this study might be the very first doctoral dissertation on English-medium instruction (EMI) in Latin American higher education; as a result, the findings derived from it should provide a major contribution to the exploration and even implementation of EMI programs in Latin American universities, especially because of its nature as a transnational multiple-case study.

EMI, as suggested by some researchers, is still at a stage of infancy, and this is truer in Latin America, where there is still a dearth of research on the phenomenon. Because English is such an important foreign language in the region, one may think that there are more EMI initiatives than research actually reports. However, English proficiency levels in most countries in the region are fairly low (i.e., they often do not go beyond the lower intermediate level), and this might be an indicator of why EMI programs are still very scarce. It is important to clarify that the two international universities that took part in this study are top leading institutions in the region, so they, by no means, are accurate representations of the current reality of EMI in Latin American universities.

Since internationalization does seem to be a priority for universities in the region, EMI may, sooner or later, come as a by-product of other market-

related internationalization processes. Universities must be prepared to understand the various roles that English will play in their academic programs by considering not only societal factors but also the individual needs of those taking part in EMI initiatives (e.g., students and professors). This study should shed light on the communication functions that English will perform in EMI programs, so various administrative and pedagogical strategies can be put in place before a university adopts EMI in their academic programs.

Finally, the ROAD-MAPPING Framework in its entirety was of great use for this doctoral dissertation. While the research focused on one of the dimensions, roles of English, only, the other dimensions also contributed to reach a deeper understanding of the data collected in terms of, for example, pedagogical practices and internationalization and glocalization processes.

CHAPTER 9: REFERENCES

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Appendix 1: Informed consent form (Spanish version)

CONSENTIMIENTO INFORMADO PARA PROFESORES QUE PARTICIPEN EN UN ESTUDIO DE INVESTIGACIÓN EN CIENCIAS SOCIALES

Título del estudio:

Inglés: EMI (English Medium Instruction) Policies, Perceptions, and Practices in Latin American HEIs (Higher Education Institutions): A Two-Country Multiple Case Study

Español: Políticas, prácticas y percepciones sobre programas de inglés como lengua de instrucción (EMI por sus siglas en inglés) en instituciones de educación superior en Latinoamérica: Un estudio de caso múltiple en dos países

Datos del investigador:
Nombre: Mario Molina Naar
Contacto: mario.molina.naar@gmail.com

Presentación y justificación del estudio:
Esta investigación se enmarca dentro de la tesis doctoral del investigador de este proyecto quien es candidato al programa de Doctorado en Educación de la Universidad Autónoma de Barcelona. El proyecto cuenta con apoyo financiero de XXXXX (Bogotá, Colombia). A través de esta investigación se busca alcanzar los siguientes objetivos 1) examinar las políticas de uso del inglés como lengua de instrucción (EMI por sus siglas en inglés y utilizado como tal de aquí en adelante) a nivel institucional, sus requerimientos y los retos que representan; 2) conocer las percepciones de las partes interesadas (estudiantes, profesores y/o administrativos) en cuanto a la ejecución del EMI en su institución; y 3) analizar la forma en la que lo propuesto en las políticas de implementación de EMI a nivel institucional se refleja en las prácticas observadas durante las clases. Se espera que, a través de los resultados obtenidos, se pueda dar respuesta a ciertos interrogantes que ha traído el EMI, un estandarte actual de la internacionalización de la educación superior que parece ser favorable para las universidades, pero que a la vez implica en ellas cambios y desafíos para los que es necesario estar preparado.

Procedimientos éticos de la investigación
Este proyecto fue enviado al Comité de Ética de la Universidad XXXXX en el mes de septiembre de 2019 para su consideración y evaluación. Como parte de este proceso, el investigador completó nueve módulos del programa CITI (Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative) en la categoría Responsible Conduct of Research (Conducta responsable de investigación). Por lo tanto, su investigación ha sido cuidadosamente diseñada para que no represente riesgo alguno a los participantes. En primer lugar, los datos recogidos se almacenarán siempre de forma segura en una carpeta electrónica a la que sólo tendrá acceso el investigador. De esta manera y en todo momento, se asegurará la protección del buen nombre y la anonimidad de los participantes. Además, los resultados obtenidos se analizarán y reportarán de manera clara, objetiva y ética, no sin antes contar con la revisión y aprobación de los participantes (member checking).

Autorización para participar en el estudio:
Yo,_____he sido invitado(a) por el profesor Mario Molina Naar de la Universidad XXXXX (Bogotá, Colombia) a participar en un estudio de caso múltiple sobre la ejecución y el desarrollo de cursos de contenido impartidos en inglés en mi institución, los cuales se enmarcan dentro de las iniciativas actuales de internacionalización en universidades a nivel mundial y de la incorporación de un fenómeno hoy ampliamente conocido como EMI (English MediumInstruction) en varias instituciones de educación superior del mundo. Para dicho fin, el estudio se ocupará de conocer las políticas instituciones de EMI en mi institución; las percepciones de las partes interesadas sobre estas políticas; y las prácticas de aula observadas y declaradas por cada uno de ellos. **Mi participación en el estudio específicamente se dará a través de una o más entrevistas y una o más observaciones de mis clases.** Se realizarán grabaciones de las entrevistas y filmaciones y/o fotografías de mis clases. Para dichos propósitos, firmaré también el formato de autorización para imágenes **Documento de autorización de uso de imagen sobre fotografías y fijaciones audiovisuales(videos),** también provisto por el investigador.

He sido informado(a) que toda la información recolectada hará parte del corpus de análisis de la investigación y será utilizada con fines académicos e investigativos; además, su uso y manejo será **estrictamente anónimo y confidencial y estará siempre bajo la responsabilidad y protección del investigador**. Asimismo, se me ha informado que **las grabaciones de las entrevistas, grupos focales y observaciones serán descartadas en su totalidad al cabo de dos años de su recolección**. También he sido informado(a) que puedo retirar este consentimiento en cualquier momento y que puedo dejar de participar en del proyecto cuando lo desee. Además, soy consciente de que no seré beneficiario(a) de ninguna retribución económica por mi participación en esta investigación.

He leído y comprendido la información contenida en este consentimiento informado y certifico que se me ha dado una copia del mismo. Después de la explicación clara sobre mi participación en esta investigación, manifiesto que:

Sí, deseo participar: No, no deseo participar: ____

Además, de presentarse las siguientes situaciones, (no) autorizo lo siguiente:

-Grabar la entrevista y todo tipo de interlocución oral	SI□	NO□	Firma:___
-Publicar fotografías con mi imagen:	SI□	NO□	Firma:___
-Filmar mis actividades, mi clase, otros	SI□	NO□	Firma:___

Confirmo mi participación a partir de (fecha) _____

Ciudad: _____

Nombre completo: _____

Institución educativa: _____

Correo electrónico: _____

Teléfono de contacto: _____

Firma: _____

En caso de tener preguntas adicionales o requerimientos específicos en cuanto a esta investigación, susprocedimientos o su participación en ella, puede comunicarse con el investigador principal:

Mario Molina Naar.
Teléfono: XXXXX
Correo electrónico: mario.molina.naar@gmail.com

En caso de tener dudas acerca de sus derechos como participantes en la investigación, usted también puede contactar al Comité de Ética de XXXXX. Teléfono XXXXX o al correo electrónico XXXXX

Firma investigador: _____

Firma participante: _____

Testigo 1: _____

Testigo 2: _____

Appendix 2: Informed consent form (Portuguese version)

CONSENTIMENTO INFORMADO PARA PROFESSORES QUE PARTICIPEM NO ESTÚDIO DE INVESTIGAÇÃO EM CIÊNCIAS SOCIAIS

Título do estudio:

Inglés: EMI (English Medium Instruction) Policies, Perceptions, and Practices in Latin American HEIs (Higher Education Institutions): A Two-Country Multiple Case Study

Português: Políticas, práticas e percepções sobre programas de inglês como língua de instrução (EMI por suas siglas em inglês) em instituições de educação superior em Latinoamérica: Um estudio de caso múltiple en dois países

Dados do Pesquisador:
Nome: Mario Molina Naar
Correio electrônico: mario.molina.naar@gmail.com

Apresentação e justificação do estúdio:

Esta pesquisa se enmarca dentro da tese doutoral do pesquisador deste projecto quem é candidato ao programa de Doutorado em Educação da Universidade Autónoma de Barcelona. O projeto conta com apoio financeiro da XXXXX (Bogotá, Colômbia). A través de esta pesquisa se tem os seguintes objetivos 1) examinar as políticas de uso do inglês como língua de instrução (EMI por suas siglas en inglés e utilizado como tal de aquí en adelante) a nível institucional, seus requerimentos e os desafios que representam; 2) conocer las percepções das partes interessadas (estudantes, professores e/ou administrativos) em cuanto a realização do EMI em sua instituição; e 3) analisar a forma em que o proposto nas políticas de implementação do EMI a nível institucional se reflete nas prácticas observadas durante as aulas. Se espera que, através dos resultados obtidos, possa dar resposta a certos interrogantes que há trazido o EMI, um estandarte atual da internacionalização da educação superior que parece ser favorável para as universidades, mas que a sua vez implica em elas mudanzas e desafíos para os que é necessário estar preparado.

Procedimientos éticos da pesquisa

Este projecto foi enviado ao Comitê de Ética da Universidade XXXXX no mês de setembro de 2019 para sua consideração e avaliação. Como parte deste processo, o pesquisador completou nove módulos do programa CITI (Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative) na categoría Responsible Conduct of Research (Conduta responsável de Pesquisa). Por lo tanto, sua pesquisa tem sido cuidadosamente projetada para que não represente risco algum aos participantes. En primer lugar, os dados coletados se armazenam sempre de forma segura em uma pasta eletrônica ao qual sólo terá acesso o pesquisador. Desta maneira em todo momento, se garante a proteção do bom nome e o anonimato dos participantes. Aliás , os resultados obtidos se analisaram y reportaram de maneira clara, objetiva e ética, não sem antes contar com a revisão e aprovação dos participantes (member checking).

Autorização para participar no estudio:

Eu,_____fui convidado(a) por o professor Mario Molina Naar da Universidad XXXXX (Bogotá, Colômbia) a participar em um estudio de caso múltiplo sobre la execução e o desenvolvimento de cursos de conteúdo ministrados em inglês em minha instituição, os quais se enmarcan dentro das iniciativas atuais de internacionalização em universidades a nível mundial e da incorporação de um fenômeno hoje amplamente conhecido como EMI (English Medium Instruction) em várias instituições de educação superior do mundo. Para este fim , o estudio se ocupará de conhecer as políticas institucionais do EMI em minha instituição; as percepções das partes interessadas sobre estas políticas; e as práticas de aula observadas e declaradas por cada um de eles. **Minha participação no estúdio especificamente se dá através de uma ou más entrevistas e uma o mais observações de minhas aulas.** Se realizaram gravações das entrevistas e filmagens e/ou fotografías de minhas aulas. Para ditos propósitos, assinarei também o formato de autoriza**ção** para imágenes **Documento de autorização de uso da imagem sobre fotografias e (vídeos),** também dotado pelo pesquisador.

Tenho conhecimento que toda a informação coletada fará parte do corpus do análise da pesquisa e será utilizada com fines académicos e de pesquisa; Alias , seu uso e gestão será **estritamente anónimo e confidencial e estará siempre sob a responsabilidade e proteção do pesquisador**. Adicionalmente, fui informado que **as gravações das entrevistas, grupos focais e observações serão descartadas em sua totalidade al cabo de dois anos de sua coleta**. Também tenho conhecimento que posso retirar este consentimento em qualquer momento y que posso deixar de participar nel projecto quando o deseje. Adicionalmente, sou ciente de que não vou ser beneficiário(a) de nenhuma retribuição económica por minha participação nesta pesquisa.

Eu li e compreendi a informação contida em este consentimento informado e certifico que recebi uma cópia do mesmo. Depois da explicação clara sobre minha participação nesta pesquisa, manifesto que:

Adicionalmente, de se apresentar as seguintes situações, (não) autorizo o siguiente:

- Gravar a entrevista e todo tipo de interlocução oral	SIM□	NÃO□	Assinatura_____
- Postar fotografías con minha imagem:	SIM□	NÃO □	Assinatura:_____
- Registrar minhas atividades, minha aula, otros	SIM□	NÃO □	Assinatura_____

Confirmo minha participação a partir da (data) _____

Cidade: _____

Nome completo: _____

Instituição educativa: _____

Correio electrônico: _____

Telefone: _____

Assinatura: _____

No caso de ter perguntas adicionais ou requerimentos específicos em quanto a esta pesquisa, seus procedimentos ou sua participação nela, pode se comunicar com o Pesquisador Principal:

Nome: Mario Molina Naar
Correio electrônico: mario.molina.naar@gmail.com

No caso de ter dúvidas acerca de seus direitos como participantes da pesquisa, você também pode contatar o Comité de Ética de XXXXX. Telefone XXXXX ou ao correo electrónico XXXXX

Assinatura pesquisador: _____

Assinatura participante: _____

Testemunha 1: _____

Testemunha 2: _____

Appendix 3: Socio-demographic Questionnaire (Spanish version)

Perfil del profesor participante

Datos personales

Nacionalidad/es: _____

Historia de lenguas: _____ (primera/s lengua/s)

_____ (segunda/s lengua/s)

_____ (otra/s lengua/s)

Datos laborales

Universidad: _____

Facultad: _____

Nombre del curso (o cursos) en inglés que imparte:

_____

_____

_____

Tiempo como docente en esta universidad _____ meses / años

Tiempo impartiendo cursos a través del inglés en esta universidad _____ meses / años

Datos profesionales

Formación en pregrado: _____

_____

Formación en especialización y/o maestría (si aplica): _____

_____

Formación en doctorado (si aplica) _____

_____

Formación (cursos, diplomados, títulos) en docencia universitaria o pedagogía (si aplica)

_____

_____

Tiempo total de experiencia como docente universitario _____ meses / años

Tiempo total de experiencia impartiendo cursos a través del inglés _____meses / años

Appendix 4: Multilingual interview guides (English Version)

Interview Guide (English)

	Questions	Space for notes
PART 1 About foreign language policies (English), internationalization, and EMI in universities	In your university, undergraduate students are obligated to fulfill a foreign language requirement. In your opinion, what should be this language and why?	
	Do you think your institution is an internationalized university? What is your opinion about this?	
	In your opinion, what are the true/real motivations that a university such as this one has to incorporate EMI?	
	What is the relationship between EMI and the internationalization objectives of this university?	
	In which ways is your university giving support to the students who are taking EMI courses?	
	What type of influence does EMI have on the local students regarding the learning of content and, in general, on their current learning process? What about their future plans (postgraduate studies, job opportunities, etc.)?	
PART 2 About self, language history, identity, and practices and/or pedagogical experiences	What was the role of English in your upbringing and in your education processes? (elementary, secondary, university).	
	How long have you been teaching your courses through English? How has this experience been so far?	
	Does your university offer any type of support (pedagogical, linguistic, English for specific purposes) to teach your EMI courses?	
	What does teaching through English represent to you as a professional, a researcher, and/or an expert in your area? Any personal or job opportunities? Any personal or professional challenges?	
	Do you think teaching through English in this context is different from teaching through Spanish/Portuguese? Do you adjust your teaching methodology? Why or why not? How?	
	What are your perceptions about your students' receptive and productive English language skills?	
	What are your perceptions regarding their participation and motivation? Are those different when the course is taught in Spanish/Portuguese?	

Appendix 5: Codebook

	Category 1: Functions of English in Academia and in the profession	***Freq.***	What functions English has in academia and in the profession (e.g. for professional communication, for research purposes, etc.)
1	English as a default tool for communication in academia	6	English is assumed to be used as the main means of communication or a default language in academia.
2	English as a legitimate language requirement in higher education	7	English is believed to be "the legitimate" language in higher education. (legitimate = conforming to recognized principles or accepted rules and standards)
3	English as an essential tool to succeed in the discipline or for the profession.	6	English is believed to be essential to succeed in this discipline or profession.
	Category 2: Language complementarity vs Language conflict	***Freq.***	How English co-exists with other languages, sometimes as a complement, sometimes as a conflict
4	English vs other languages in the discipline or in the profession	5	How the function of English in the academic world is perceived as opposed to that of other languages
5	English vs. other languages in the classroom	4	Which languages, including languages other than English, students are expected or allowed to use in the classroom.
6	Purpose of English vs purposes of other languages	2	English is believed to be a very useful, but other language are too, depending on the purpose
7	Language protectionism	2	The national language is "protected", so the use of languages other than the national language is disfavored
	Category 3: Proficiency in English	***Freq.***	Any reference that the participants make regarding the English proficiency levels of the actors involved in EMI.
8	Teachers' English proficiency in the development of EMI	5	How their proficiency level or the proficiency levels of other colleagues influence the development of EMI and their own development within it. While proficiency was often defined as "limited" or "not sufficient", this was, more often than not, not reported as a limitation.
9	Socio-economic background and English proficiency	5	The students' English proficiency is highly dependent on their socio-economic background (e.g. students coming from less privileged socio-economic contexts have a lower English level)

Appendix 6: Interview Excerpts

Case 1 Interview excerpts

Codification	Excerpt
Excerpt 5.1. VAL-Int2	"it's become the de facto international language, I mean so, that's why if you're going to learn one, you gotta learn English… since real international programs are done in English, all you need to know is English"
Excerpt 5.2. SEB-Int3	"I think it [English] is an extremely relevant language to learn, and basically, it can replace any other languages because people tacitly have agreed on this one to be a standard tool for communication"
Excerpt 5.3. OLI-Int4	This [English] is an invaluable tool; it's really impressive. As a researcher, without English, you are worthless… everything you write, everything you present, everything you disseminate is in English"
Excerpt 5.4. BAR-Int1	"If you asked me which language must be required in universities, yeah, I would say it surely has to be English… 100 percent!"
Excerpt 5.5. SEB-Int3	"I don't know if one foreign language is enough or if we should strive for more. But, my understanding is that English is the correct choice"
Excerpt 5.6. OLI-Int4	"I think it should be two languages: English and another language. That other language should be of the students' choice. Nobody should be able to graduate unless they have a minimum English level, at least in the written part"
Excerpt 5.7. SEB-Int3	"For doing business, English is an essential tool. For the students to succeed in their professional life, they need to speak English"
Excerpt 5.8. BAR-Int1	"English is the most commonly spoken language for work; I believe English is the official language of work"
Excerpt 5.9. OLI-Int4	"As a doctor, it [English] has given me many opportunities; for example, sometime ago, our foundation had an agreement with the embassies. So, whenever we had a diabetic patient, or at risk of developing diabetes or metabolism problems, they would always send them to me… most of them were from India. Also, because I spoke good English, I was a teaching assistant in Harvard… anyway, medical English is easier than everyday English, so…"
Excerpt 5.10. OLI-Int4	"Sometimes we give presentations in conferences which are in English. So, for sure, the tone is different, the style is different, the diction… everything's much more formal… They sort of give you a script; so, at some point, you have to make a transition, and after the transition, then, you make a joke. Everything is so scripted."

Excerpt 5.11. VAL-Int2	"People who work in academia tend to know English more than anything else. So, if you have to communicate with somebody who doesn't speak the same mother tongue as you, you're going to use one: you gotta use English… Really, the language that matters in academics is English. And, in terms of this University, it promotes publishing in English much more than in Spanish."
Excerpt 5.12. SEB-Int3	"Currently, all high-level conversations about business and business research are happening in English. There are some conversations in German, in French and probably Chinese, but the ones that are relevant are all happening in English. So, there's this consensus that academia works in English. The global academia works in English."
Excerpt 5.13. BAR-Int1	"I try to be flexible with my undergraduate students, especially if they have a low English level. So, I sometimes say 'Alright, if there is something that you didn't understand you can ask me in Spanish'… I'd rather allow them to use Spanish than remain silent."
Excerpt 5.14. VAL-Int2	"I give them lots of exercises to do in groups. So the groups are going to speak, they speak in Spanish, which is fine, I don't care…and that's the way that people participate more actively in the class."
Excerpt 5.15. VAL-Int2	"the ability to learn a foreign language and show mastery of it can serve different purposes, I mean, if you're studying philosophy, you might choose German, for instance. Or, let's say you want to do research in Russia, then you study Russian. Or maybe Chinese, you know, if you want to work in China because you think it is an upcoming power… Still, it is hard in all of those cases not to learn English."
Excerpt 5.16. OLI-Int4	"students should not restrict themselves to studying one foreign language; they should learn, at least, two languages. Well, English should be mandatory; the second one should be one of the students' choice and one that responds to their personal, professional, or even financial interests… basically, to a purpose or goal they have a real affinity with."
Excerpt 5.17. BAR-Int1	"I arrived in this university about two and a half years ago. At the beginning it [teaching through English] was something forced because I didn't speak Spanish. So, the first two courses that I taught in my first semester were in English. But, then, I wanted to keep my courses in English because I can keep the language alive. As a professor, I think, teaching one course per semester in English is good because, otherwise, I can forget the language within a few years. This helps me to maintain my English… Also, we often teach the results of our research, so having the slides that we create for our conferences in English is beneficial when I teach my course in English."

Excerpt 5.18. VAL-Int3	"I mean, the staff is very Colombian so… few other people are those like me, but… I think the key for an international program is that it has to be in English… there is nothing else"
Excerpt 5.19. SEB-Int3	"So the Colombian students have a high degree in their ability to speak English, and that's pronounced in the undergrads, actually. I think the undergrads are very much confident in contributing to class; they have a much better foundation in the language… I actually think that the undergraduate students are pretty good, and it does not affect my teaching in English. So, I don't see a problem teaching them in English. No…"
Excerpt 5.20. SEB-Int3	"To different degrees, yes. But from perfect to at least a good proficiency"
Excerpt 5.21. VAL-Int2	English doesn't present an obstacle to the classroom. Now, of course, it might be harder for them to write in English, and also takes them longer, and then maybe they're not willing to do as much, but… I don't see it really being an issue. But that said, I mean, the profile of students who take the class, for the most, two thirds of them come from bilingual schools, and so they have a solid base, at least for understanding
Excerpt 5.22. OLI-Int4	"the English proficiency of students in this university is very high… very, very high!"

Case 1 Interview excerpts

Codification	Excerpt
Excerpt 6.1. HIRO-Int2	"English is essential in our profession. I'm gonna start a new course next year for graduate students that is called "Improving your Communications Skills in Academia" which will focus on the importance of English and other communication aspects that we scientists ignore or that we are even against, you know. We think that scientists only care about science itself, but what I want to teach them is that science is a very social enterprise. There are a lot of other aspects that you have to take into account in your career because just doing experiments is not gonna make you successful..."
Excerpt 6.2. SALO-Int3	"For me, it [English] is a basic thing. It's very, very important for research. You start doing international research, and then you start publishing your research in other places. I knew that English was important for my profession, and I did not have it. So, I went to London, actually to Brighton, which is south of London, and did this one-month course there."

Excerpt 6.3. KATO-Int4	"the lingua franca of research is English, so I have no doubt English is the language we must use; by using English and by teaching the classes in English, we can make more collaboration and increase student mobility, cooperation, and research"
Excerpt 6.4. HIRO-Int2	"Well, in my opinion, it should be English, but there is a lot that prevents us to use a foreign language in a public course; so, because it is a public school you cannot make it mandatory… I'm trying to change this requirement."
Excerpt 6.5. SALO-Int3	"I would say that we should have both Portuguese and English. Of course, we need Portuguese because we are here, and students are doing a course here in Brazil. It's the official language; they have to know it"
Excerpt 6.6. OIKO-Int1	"I, by no means, think it should be only English. And I think the university and the students benefit from the fact that there are so many languages: we have 16, which is a lot! Oh, no! Definitely not! I don't think it should be only English. I think it should continue to be diverse, as diverse as possible…"
Excerpt 6.7. OIKO-Int1	"I see that the hard sciences, biological sciences, mathematical sciences, engineering, for instance, they buy in to it much more than the humanities... teaching in a foreign language, which I can actually see why because I can see how lab work can work perfectly without people even… not needing to speak to each other… And how you can model engineering models with a group without being or without having a high level of proficiency. Whereas I do see a very big challenge in expressing philosophical thoughts in a second language. So, I think that's why the humanities have this … I wouldn't say "resistance", but they don't see it as a point. They don't see they're gaining anything from it, right? And obviously there's research showing that people learn better in their native language. So, that's another discourse the humanities are very well aware of."
Excerpt 6.8. HIRO-Int2	"Well, I know that I get invited sometimes because of my communication skills in general… Bioinformatics is a very complex subject that most biological scientists do not understand, but I know that they invite me to give talks because I can say complex stuff to them in a way that they can understand."
Excerpt 6.9. SALO-Int3	"Considering that accounting is the language of business, it's a very professionalized course, English is the language that they [the students] have to know… today, if the student, the professional, doesn't have English, they practically can't work in the area of accounting in, of course, in a good position and having good potential to grow. So, I think

	English is the language that they have to know, of course, to communicate and also in specific terms, specific language and everything."
Excerpt 6.10. HIRO-Int2	"I think they [the university] should provide better rewards, like to really motivate the professors to change their language, you know… What I feel is that, if we don't receive more… ummm… a higher paycheck, we'll go through this. So, something they could do is: "OK, you teach in English? Here's 20 % more of your salary increase", you know. But they do not do this."
Excerpt 6.11. OIKO-Int1	"There is a lot of research going on at *Name of Case 2 University*, lots of publications, and because publications in English have a higher impact, professors are migrating to publishing in English. Also, because the funding opportunities are also in English, so that's another thing."
Excerpt 6.12. KATO-Int4	"So, it's more like a personal challenge. Some colleagues have told me: "Are you crazy?" Because it is more work, but, to me, it's good because I can practice my English and I use it within my own field of research, my own discipline."
Excerpt 6.13. OIKO-Int1	"So, they will be doing it [the discussion] in Portuguese, and bring elements from the languages; for example: "in Spanish would be like this" or "this could be translated like this". And, in a translation class, this is very rich because it helps to move away from literal translation… But because I have some foreign students, Chinese for example, there are groups that are forced to speak in English."
Excerpt 6.14. HIRO-Int2	"I like to make jokes in my classes, but there are some jokes that only are funny in Portuguese. Then, if I know, for example, that thing [the joke] is gonna be funny in Portuguese but not in English, I will not use it in my presentation."
Excerpt 6.15. KATO-Int4	"Behind the classroom doors everything is in English… the students have to speak, ask questions, and give a presentation in English… certainly, they will have a wider vocabulary in English. Maybe not only for exchanges and mobility but also for work or for their postgraduate studies. I think it's an incentive for the students."
Excerpt 6.16. OIKO-Int1	"I would tell them they could speak in their language of choice. They would not, by no means, be forced to speak English. And I would answer in the language they asked… I wouldn't make this a point of my teaching like "No Portuguese"... I would never do that, and I still think that it shouldn't be done."
Excerpt 6.17. OIKO-Int1	"Some professors don't buy into that. They may want to teach literature, English literature, in Portuguese. The readings would be in English, but

	the class would be in Portuguese. They don't have to teach it in English, but most of us are committed to teaching in English. So, in this case, English is part of their educational process because they will receive a degree in English, so it has to be there, right?"
Excerpt 6.18. HIRO-Int2	"To be honest, like a lot of other professors don't speak English. So, they joined the university when there was not someone else to do it; they simply cannot teach in English. But all the new professors are trying to already start, ummm, begin the discipline in English."
Excerpt 6.19. SALO-Int3	"I think I still have to improve because I see some colleagues who have a higher level and more degrees, so sometimes I feel that I have to take more steps... In the classes, it's for one hour and forty minutes, but I have to tell you, when the class finishes, it seems to me that I was teaching for like five hours... because of the language and because of the model. It takes a lot of energy to conduct and to concentrate on the knowledge being constructed."
Excerpt 6.20. KATO-Int4	"Well, my mother tongue is Portuguese, so I often feel nervous in my classes. I feel insecurity because it [English] is not my mother tongue, and sometimes it takes me time to find the right words, but I think it's part of the process. Still, I want to repeat this experience."
Excerpt 6.21. OIKO-Int4	"And because all of my teaching career has been in English, English is just completely intertwined with my teaching identity."
Excerpt 6.22. HIRO-Int2	"I perceive that most students have very good English, but some of them, because they came from poor regions and stuff, they do not have a good English"
Excerpt 6.23. OIKO-Int1	"they set up the university there in order to, you know, shift things around for the community and boost that area… I can see that the students, especially there, because of the difference in socio-economic levels, they do not have a level of English which will enable them to follow a course in English when they enter university"